



**AN INTERNATIONAL STUDY OF ORGANIZATIONAL
CHANGE: A SIMULTANEOUS ANALYSIS OF PROCESS,
CONTEXT, AND INDIVIDUAL ATTRIBUTES**

THESIS

Hee-Hyoung Jung, Captain, Republic of Korea Army

AFIT/GLM/ENV/03-05

**DEPARTMENT OF THE AIR FORCE
AIR UNIVERSITY**

AIR FORCE INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY

Wright-Patterson Air Force Base, Ohio

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Presented to the Faculty
Department of Operational Sciences
Graduate School of Engineering and Management
Air Force Institute of Technology
Air University
Air Education and Training Command
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Degree of Master of Science in Logistics Management

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March 2003

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Acknowledgements

My journey at AFIT has been strenuous and challenging. However, Maj. Holt taught me why the “thorns of roses” are beautiful and why gracious swans are restless below the water. He showed dedicated, passionate, creative teaching styles as an instructor, and he expressed sincere care and concern toward students as a senior soldier. As my thesis advisor, he was my mentor. Sometimes, I wanted to give up everything, but, he always encouraged me, saying, “I trust you can do it.”

I would also like to thank Lt. Col. Stephen Swartz for his endless advice, generous guidance, and patience. He showed me how brave and intelligent USAF officers are! From his outstanding logistics management knowledge, I came to know that what logistics really is. Dr. Reynolds! When I wanted to cry, to share my pleasure and sadness, he was always there. I will miss his enthusiastic class and loud voice, which used to echo all through AFIT. I would like to express my appreciation to Maj. Rehg for his sincere care and warm-hearted concern. I need to thank each of my classmates (especially, I would like to thank Capt Wardak and Capt Kossow. When I was faced with the “despair wall,” they were always there and encouraged me to stand up again. It’s my turn to help you!), Korean soldiers, faculty, and staff of AFIT. During the last 18 months, I learned more than I could ever have imagined. Also, I would like to thank the Korean Government for this amazing opportunity. I really want to remind them that their choice was best. Above all, I want to give the most special thanks to my parents for their incredible mental support. They were always with me during my 18 months.

God bless you all who know me.

Hee-Hyoung, Jung

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Abstract

By collecting data from three organizations located in two continents, this study was designed to build on the literature that has called for both individual-level and internationally relevant change research. It examined how individual perceptions of the change process, context, and individual attributes influenced readiness for change and subsequent attitudinal outcomes. The findings revealed that context and individual attributes were strong predictors of readiness. Furthermore, results revealed that perceptions of the process used by leaders were significantly related to readiness after controlling for context and individual attributes—an important finding considering that leadership often has more discretion over the process used to facilitate change.

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I. Introduction and Literature Review

Organizations all over the world have been making structural, process, and product adjustments in response to shifts in the social and political environment, the availability of funding and resources, the broad trends in technology, and the wishes of key stakeholders. An increased interest in international and global change management has sprung from this. Head and Sorensen (1993), for instance, investigated the use and effectiveness of organizational development interventions (e.g., process, job design and survey feedback) by exploring the data from seven countries (e.g., Denmark, Japan, the United Kingdom, Venezuela, the People's Republic of China, Bangladesh, and Taiwan), finding that organizational change and development was important across cultures. However, a country's dominant culture dictated the specific interventions and organization development initiatives used. Similarly, Buhner, Rasheed and Rosenstein (1997) compared the patterns of corporate restructuring between firms in two countries (i.e., US and Germany). Their analysis indicated that the firms from different countries choose different change activities. Furthermore, Buhner and his colleagues suggested that even though organizational change was going on in both countries with somewhat similar patterns, that institutional contexts were varied across cultures and the diffusion of organizational change might be influenced by the culture of a given country.

As highlighted by the studies mentioned (Head & Sorensen, 1993; Buhner et al., 1997), organizational change research in an international setting has focused primarily on

differences in innovative activity across cultures or the diffusion rate of innovations across international borders (e.g., DiBella, 1996; Ghoshal & Bartlett, 1988; Lau, McMahan, & Woodman, 1996). Few studies have examined the differences in the change process within a cross-cultural setting (cf. Hoffman, 1999). Consequently, Pettigrew, Woodman, and Cameron (2001) called for more research that investigates organizational change in multiple cultures. In particular, they suggested that many of the theories of change may have been inadvertently imposed upon other cultures simply because change researchers have primarily come from the US. Thus, there is a need to explore the general patterns of change and development within an international culture.

Taken together with these recent trends of organizational change research, the current study is designed to take a comprehensive view of change, exploring a dynamic model that integrates content, process, context, and individual attribute factors simultaneously, whereas most of studies have addressed each factor separately. Furthermore, this model was used to compare US organizational members' perceptions regarding organizational change to their Korean counterparts from two different organizations. In the end, this research is designed to take a step toward our further understanding of how these factors (i.e., content, process, context, and individual attribute) affect organizational change; it might also pave the way for an internationally relevant and a generalizable theory of organizational change because of its cross-cultural nature.

This chapter unfolds by first outlining a comprehensive model of change. Through this discussion, the current study is outlined and the facets of the model are explicitly identified. Then, the literature that guided the selection of the change content,

process, context and individual attribute facets will be discussed, in turn. In this discussion of the facets, those variables studied will be specifically addressed.

Comprehensive Model of Change

A variety of theories have been developed to understand and predict processes that organizations go through to implement organizational change (Lewin, 1947; Isabella, 1990; Galpin, 1996; Armenakis & Bedian, 1999a). Generally, however, successful implementation of organizational changes proceeds through three stages: readiness, adoption, and institutionalization (cf. Lewin, 1947). *Readiness* occurs when the environment, structure, and organizational members' attitudes are such that employees are receptive to a forthcoming change. *Adoption* occurs when the organizational members temporarily alter their attitudes and behaviors to conform to the expectations of the change. *Institutionalization* occurs when the change becomes a stable part of employees' behavior.

In a meta-analysis, Damanpour (1991) suggested that many organizational change researchers have searched for the factors that contribute to the speed and effectiveness with which organizations move through these stages. Armenakis and Bedian (1999a) identified four common facets that should be considered. These include: (a) *content*, (b) *contextual*, (c) *process*, and (d) *criterion*. Indeed, studies have examined the extent to which each of these facets influence the change process (e.g., Devos, Vanderheyden, & Vandenbroeck, 2002; Eby, Adams, Russell, & Gaby, 2000; Pettigrew, Woodman, & Cameron, 2001). However, much of this research has emphasized one set of considerations or another, overlooking the others. That is, most of the articles addressed one aspect of change process such as environmental transformation (e.g., Havemen,

1992; Finstad, 1998), participation (e.g., Locke & Schweiger, 1979; Spector, 1986), and contextual process model (e.g., Terry & Callan, 2000).

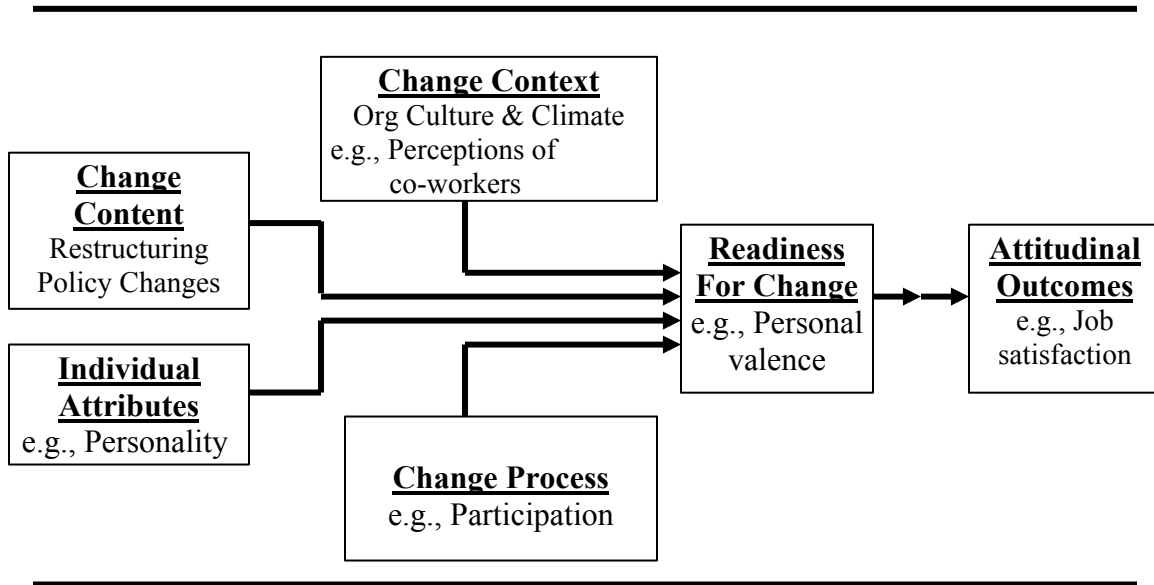
In an attempt to capture more of the facets that influence change, Devos et al. (2002) focused on the individual factors to change the implementation process of major changes with the combination of process and contextual variables, suggesting the framework of organizational change. Similarly, Eby et al. (2000) examined employees' reactions to the implementation of organizational change. Specifically, Eby et al. identified three relevant variables (i.e., individual attitudes and preferences, work group and job attitudes, and contextual variables) that may be related to an individual's perception of readiness for change. With those three variables, Eby et al. explored the relationship between proposed variables and specific type of change intervention. Collectively, their studies implied that when considering an organization's readiness for change; one should look at general factors which would typically accompanies major organizational changes as well as the specific factors work may represent somewhat generic conditions necessary for successful change efforts.

In hopes of capturing still more of the change model, Armenakis and Bedian (1999a) called for research should evaluate content, contextual and process issues simultaneously. Echoing this sentiment, Pettigrew et al. (2001) called for the comprehensive look at organizational change, indicating that the field was far from mature in understanding the dynamic environment of organizational change. Specifically, Pettigrew and his colleagues proposed that organizational change research should extend beyond its current looking across culture as well as enhancing its research leverage with respect to dynamic changing environment.

Figure 1 shows how the current study investigates the relevant factors and how these factors influence subsequent outcomes through the readiness stage of change. Based on this comprehensive model of change, the literature review, as noted, discusses a subset of variables that serve as the basis of this investigation of change. Those are as follows: (a) change content, (b) process variables (i.e., participation and quality of information), (c) context (i.e., perceived organizational support and perceptions of co-workers), and (d) individual attributes (i.e., affect). It should be noted that certain criteria were used to evaluate whether variables should be included in this comprehensive model. Hence, based on this notion, selected variables (i.e., participation, quality of information, perceived organizational support, perceptions of co-workers, positive affect, negative affect, job satisfaction and affective commitment) shown in the comprehensive model of change if they were: (a) well-validated measures; (b) construct validity evidence existed for these measures; and (c) there appeared to be a theoretical and empirical relationships with regarding to organizational change.

In summary, current study tried to blend all these concepts to simultaneously study content, process, context and individual attributes. It investigates the extent to which these factors influence members' perceived readiness for an organizational change. Furthermore, concept of readiness (i.e., appropriateness, change-efficacy and personal valence) that was the organizational members' belief that the proposed change is needed and the organization is capable of changing (Armenakis, Harris, & Mossholder, 1993) was also manifested through the research model.

Figure 1. Conceptual model of predictors and outcomes of individual perceptions to an organizational change



Change Content

Content of change is best understood as *what* is being changed, suggesting the content of change influences reactions of employees. Organizational changes vary in both focus (i.e., changes in strategy, structure, staffing, policies, procedures and technology) and the degrees they impact employees. That is, these organizational changes may be as extreme as downsizing (resulting in a number of employees being terminated), to relatively minor changes in rules and regulations (e.g., prohibiting employees from smoking inside office buildings). The reaction of employees to such changes might be influenced by how a specific change has affected their lives. So far, change content issues have focused on business strategy, organizational restructuring and other macro-level activities, indicating change should be effectively implemented by organizational members for performance improvement.

International research on change content has investigated the extent to which varied across cultures, identifying commonalities and differences (Lau, McMahan, & Woodman, 1996; Burke & Nelson, 1997; Buhner, Rasheed, & Rosenstein, 1997). Specifically, Lau et al. (1996) focused on organization development, an area of management which was value-based, in order to understand the applicability of theories based on two cultures (i.e., US and Hong Kong). The results showed that certain organizational development techniques (i.e., human processual and technostructural) were well accepted in the Chinese culture, and others (i.e., strategic planning and system-wide) were not. The difference between the two cultures was observed in the strategic planning and system-wide activities chosen by the firms. For instance, Hong Kong firms spent a quarter of their time on strategic planning whereas US firms spent much less and also the types of interventions that received priority were different, showing the traditional human processual interventions which utilized a greater percentage of organizational development staff time in both countries, strategic planning is more important in the Hong Kong sample. Furthermore, the implications for changing the organization's system and management philosophy were less emphasized by Hong Kong. Overall, the idea was that cultural values were related to the usage of specific organizational development interventions.

Buhner et al. (1997) compared the restructuring patterns of US and German firms. They found some similarities between two countries in terms of portfolio restructuring, reporting that the US and Germany showed similar change patterns in asset divestment. However, most importantly, the study findings showed even though two organizations had a similar environmental challenges driving the need for change, different institutional

settings (i.e., different organizational approaches to the economic activity) and different level of acceptance (i.e., US firms were engaged in more restructuring activities than German firms) toward change process brought different results. Moreover, Buhner et al's research suggested that cross-cultural comparisons were important in understanding international managerial issues, proposing that common problem structures could be equally applicable across national settings.

While Buhner et al. (1997) found differences, Burke and Nelson (1997) found similarities in choices. Their study of the restructuring pattern of US and Canadian companies indicated that the Canadian experience of organization restructuring was similar to that of many organizations in the US. In addition, organizations used similar techniques to facilitate change (i.e., integrate the change with long-term strategy, communicate extensively, conduct employee meetings or focus groups, offer training programs to help employees, and evaluate the effectiveness of revitalization efforts). Hence, their study not only indicated similar patterns of change process across cultures but also suggested effective techniques needed for success of reorganization within the change context.

In the current study, the content of the change (i.e., *what* was being changed) was same. That is, the structure of each organization was being changed. Therefore, specific facets or perceptions regarding the change content were not measured. Instead, I emphasized the necessity of cross-cultural research on organizational change.

Individual Attributes

Individual attributes refer to *who* is involved as organizational change is implemented. Therefore, it would be necessary to identify the individuals', who are

involved in the change process, characteristics or attributes for getting a further understanding with regarding to change process. There was strong evidence to believe that individuals within organization might react differently to the same change because of characteristics of change agents as well as those of their own. Armenakis, Harris and Mossholder (1993) emphasized the importance of internal change agents' (i.e., organizational leaders and managers) attributes. Specifically, Armenakis and his colleagues tried to explain interpersonal and social dynamics operating in readiness interventions which might constantly influence the individual's awareness regarding the organizational change. Based on *individual difference theory* (a theory to explain the difference of individual's cognitive structure), *social differentiation theory* (a theory that emphasizes the differences in the cultural affect change agents have), and *social relationships theory* (identify the individual's own network relationships), Armenakis et al. gave the theoretical foundation that individuals might react differently regarding the same situation within the organizational change setting because of the organizational managers and leaders' attributes.

Others have begun to shed light on the way individual perceptions might shape individuals' responses to organizational change. Specifically, Lau and Woodman (1995) found that internal locus of control, a variable closely related to perceived control, was associated with increased openness to change. Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, and Welbourne (1999) reported that certain personality characteristics were strongly related to an individual's self-reported capacity to cope with organizational change. Similarly, Wanberg and Banas (2000) found that people's self-esteem and perceived control (analogous to locus of control) were positively related to their general attitudes toward

organizational change. Collectively, these researchers have suggested that an individual's behavior in relation to organization change is influenced by their dispositions. Building on these notions, positive affect and negative affect were measured as individual attributes in this study.

Positive Affect. Evidence suggests that people who were positive thinkers and optimists would respond very differently (i.e., react more favorably) to change than people who had negative dispositions (Carver & Scheier, 1990). Carver and Scheier (1990) found that one's outcome performance or career (i.e., either positive affect experience or negative affect experience) was a consequence of one's perceptions of how well he or she was accepting the change situation whether more favorably or not. That is, Carver and Scheier (1990) investigated the relationships between the rates of progress toward organizational change and a sense of positiveness or negativeness. Similarly, Scheier and Carver (1985) reported that optimistic persons tend to accept situations more favorably than individuals who had relatively low optimism. Moreover, positive people seemed to believe that they could more efficiently react to the new situations, indicating they might be more supportive of organizational change. Similarly, Latack (1986) found positive thinkers to have more positive projections toward potential outcomes of changes by telling oneself that things could work out to one's advantage.

Chemers, Watson, and May (2000) explored the relationships between affective dispositions (i.e., positive effect), and a task-specific efficacy and performance. Also, as being mentioned in the Chemers' study, a task-specific effect of self-efficacy was integrated into a broader construct of optimism, or generalized positive dispositions within the leadership-related context. The study findings showed that PA was positively

related to self-efficacy. Moreover, optimism (PA) made a contribution not only to a leaders' image of competency but also to actual performance capability in the role, suggesting PA might provide an expectancy that good performance would results in positive outcomes.

Holahan and Moos (1987) examined the relationships between personal predictors (i.e., self-confidence, and easygoing disposition) and change concept. The study analysis indicated that personality dispositions would contribute incrementally to the prediction of active organizational change strategies. The results highlighted the values of developing a framework to understand the determinants of readiness strategies. That is, personality dispositions of self-confidence and an easygoing manner showed significant contribution to predicting active-behavior and active cognitive acceptance. Specifically, self-confident persons (i.e., high-PA managers) were more likely to report active readiness strategies and less likely to report avoidance acceptance with regarding to new situations. Also, easygoing individuals were inclined to rely on strategies of active readiness acceptance.

Judge et al. (1999) implied that successful coping with change might lie within the psychological predispositions of individuals experiencing the change. Moreover, in spite do its key role in the change context, Judge and his colleagues pointed out that still there were few research efforts that investigated the individual characteristics' relationship with change. Based on this idea, Judge et al. (1999) investigated how personality characteristics influenced managerial response to organizational change that worked in four different organizations that had gone through major changes such as reorganization, downsizing, merger, and senior leadership change. The results indicated

that all of the personality traits had significant correlations with respect to change. Also, in terms of relationships with career outcomes, readiness with changes was observed most strongly associated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In conclusion, the results showed that individual level effort in identifying seven dispositional constructs (e.g., positive affectivity and openness to experience) were related to successful coping with organizational change. Further, Watson and Clark (1997) argued that PA reflects differences in boldness and adventurousness, whereby “high scores desire change and variety in their lives, and become bored or dissatisfied when [change] is absent” (p.776).

Negative Affect. In contrast, NA should be negatively related to readiness. So far, extensive data indicated that high-NA individuals were more likely to experience discomfort at all times and across situations. Also, negative affectivity to be highly related to state anxiety and negative affect (Watson & Clark, 1984). This conclusion is based on the notion that fear, nervousness, and anxiety represents major facets of NA. Indeed, Watson and Clark (1984) argued that high-NA individuals were likely to experience a significant level of distress, fear and anxiety. These anxious people seemed to react strongly, even in the absence of stress. In the study, Watson and Clark reported high-NA groups were not well-adjusted to new situations and more self-dissatisfied toward outcomes and high-NA individuals reported more inadequate and general maladjustment than their low-NA counterparts. Furthermore, Watson and Clark found that NA was related to an individual’s stress and poor coping mechanisms: (a) solving the problem, (b) altering one’s cognition, and (c) altering unpleasant emotional consequences of stress as he or she encounters new situations.

More recently, NA has been related to feelings of victimization by showing that high-NA employees' cognitive, behavioral characteristics and tendency to: (a) interpret social interaction as threats behaviors, (b) respond to threats aggressively, and (c) provoke others to be aggressive toward them (Aquino, Grover, Bradfield, & Allen, 1999). Therefore, it was reasonable to expect high-NA people to interpret changes as threats and feel that they are victims or targets of the organizations as it tries to implement a change, negatively influencing their state of readiness. Based on this idea, people who are high - PA (analogous of low-NA) tend to react more favorably with regarding to new situation and ready for acceptance of change process with less uncertainty.

Change Internal Context

The change context characterizes the *circumstances*, or the existing internal conditions that have been shown to influence organizational effectiveness. Change context has been described by Mowday and Sutton (1993) as organizational conditions external to individuals that influence affective reactions, such as, interpersonal relationships, organizational norms, organizational values, rules, and regulations. For example, if the organization has a rigid culture, leaders might expect an organizational change to be met with resistance (either passive or active).

Eby et al. (2000) found that internal context might be responsible for explaining the general state of readiness and openness an organization has toward change. Damanpour (1991) conducted a meta-analysis of research on context and identified several factors (e.g., level of specialization and functional differentiation) that influence an organization's response to change. In general, Damanpour's study found positive associations between organizational innovation and potential determinants (e.g.,

managerial attitude toward change). Also, his results indicated that supporting managers' favorable attitude toward change lead to an internal climate conducive to innovation. By identifying statistically significant determinants of innovation (e.g., specialization in a unidimensional study of innovation), the study could guide the selection of more conceptual variables which are related to facilitating the organizational change. Hence, perceived organizational support and perceptions of co-workers were assessed as perceptual change context variables in the current study.

Perceived organizational support. Perceived organizational support (POS) may be thought of as the extent to which the employee believes the organization values the individual. From the individual perspective, this can be assessed in terms of employee perceptions of the adequacy of programs that provide employee recognition, problem-solving assistance, and safe working conditions. This perception is developed as the employee experiences various tangible and intangible outcomes through the daily exchange process with the organization (Blau, 1964; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). Moreover, this perception of organizational support should trigger feelings of affect towards the organization (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Eisenberger et al., 1986). Therefore, strong feelings of positive affect should make the employee more receptive of organizational goals and objectives (Kim & Mauborgne, 1993; Nouri, 1994). If so, positive feelings about the organization could positively influence employees' receptivity towards the change initiatives, not only in the early stages of organization's efforts to introduce and implement the change initiative, but also during and following the change effort. Kets De Vries and Balazs (1999) emphasized the importance factors at the interpersonal level in facilitating change, indicating the outcomes of the

organizational change process was influenced by the primary factors, the presence of a support system, to ease the process of change.

Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) reinforced organizational support theory with the results of a meta-analysis, finding that fairness, supervisor support, and organizational rewards, and favorable job conditions influenced organizational members' POS.

Specifically, in the case of supervisor support, Rhoades and Eisenberger argued that employees viewed their supervisor's favorable or unfavorable orientation toward them as indicative of organization support because supervisors acted as agents of the organizational change process. Similarly, Terry and Callan (2000) reported that employees who perceived high levels of supervisor support were more likely to engage in active coping responses than employees who lacked this resource.

Since Eisenberger and his colleagues conceptualized the perception of *perceived organizational support*, Armstrong-Stassen (2001) examined the relationships between perceived organizational support and change processes (i.e., coping strategies toward organizational change). Armstrong-Stassen used Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) measure of POS to study how employees felt that the organization valued their contribution and cared about their well-being in the beginning stages of an organizational change. The study findings indicated the perceived support from the organization was significantly related to the positive acceptance of change process and use of active strategies toward coping change. From the observed results, Armstrong-Stassen insisted that environmental or contextual (perceived organizational support) resources at the initial phase of the organizational change played an important role in how organizational

members appraised the situation and how they chose to cope when the organizational change actually took place.

A growing body of research has investigated POS's role within organizational change context. For instance, studies argued that organizational support influenced organizational members' involvement with regarding to change process, potential outcomes (performance), and innovative behavior (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Meyer & Allen; 1987, Agho, Mueller & Price, 1993). Based on these findings, the notion of organizational support has been accepted as one key variable which played a significant role in enhancing the organizational change process. Thus, in the current study, I assessed POS with using existing measures which were selected from Eisenberger et al. (1986) based on provided validated measures.

Perceptions of co-workers. Perceptions of co-workers refer to the satisfaction that employees have regarding the competency and amiability of the individuals they work with. During times of change employees must often acquire new skills, assume new responsibilities, and learn new procedures, this may be demanding and require significant effort. The extent to which individuals feel their co-workers can help them through this process would undoubtedly influence their reactions to the change.

The favorable perception of co-workers does not appear to have been studied explicitly within the change process. The lack of emphasis on perceptions of co-workers in context of change context might be related to the fact that most current researchers have investigated the perception of co-workers within the organizational behavior arena (i.e., the correlation between perceptions of co-workers and a range of behavioral such as job satisfaction or affective commitment). For instance, Viswesvaran, Sanchez, and

Callan (1999) suggested social support from family, friends, and co-workers ameliorated the perceptions of stress and actual strain experienced at work. Specifically, Viswesvaran et al. quantified the correlations between social support affects and the stressor-strain relationship within several models (e.g., direct effect model, and moderator effect model). For example, the negative correlation between social support and strains might lead to the conclusion that social support mitigated strains. Furthermore, results indicated that social support had a three fold effect on work stress-strain relationship as reducing the strains experienced, mitigating perceived stressors, and moderating the stressor-strain relationship. In terms of family support, Billings and Moos (1982) reported that individuals in supportive families were related to more problem-focused coping and less avoidance coping than individuals in less supportive families.

Within the context of organizational change, support from co-workers has been linked empirically to members' ability to cope with organizational change (e.g., Shaw, Fields, Thacker, & Fisher, 1993; Terry, Callan, & Santori, 1996). Specifically, Shaw et al. reported that increased perceived personal control within and outside the organization were crucial to minimizing the harmful effects of organizational changes, while Terry et al. showed that the availability of social support enhanced employees' adjustment to a variety of stressors in a change setting.

Linking the idea of perceptions of co-workers, Israel et al. (1989) explored the interpersonal relationships (analogous to social support) and coping strategies to occupational stress and job strains, indicating that the sources of stress at work were most frequently derived from poor relationships with co-workers and supervisors. By measuring the satisfaction with co-workers, Israel et al. found that emotional support

provided by co-workers and supervisors directly lowered occupation stress. Similar to Israel et al.'s research, Cooper and Marshall (1976) reported that poor relationships with co-workers and supervisors were associated with lower job satisfaction and well-being.

Therefore, the social support literature coupled with the perceptions of co-workers literature has suggested that the perceptions of co-workers would be an important contextual factors to be studied. In particular, it may be salient when the nature of work necessitates cooperation among peers, for instance, working in a team environment (Eby et al., 2000). A trust in peers and preference for co-workers were identified as important in understanding organizational readiness for change because they should help reduce the new environment, thereby increasing individuals' comfort level with the change initiative. That is, as trust in one's peers increased, so did perceived readiness for change.

Change Implementation Process

The change process encompasses *how* an organizational change is implemented. The underlying assumption is, the way leaders and change agents introduce change will certainly affect the reaction of the employees. The specific steps or processes employed by leaders are intended to influence employees by reducing uncertainty and encouraging them to successfully progress through specific emotional and behavioral phases, thereby concluding with an effectively implemented organizational change. Indeed, Meyer and Goes (1988) examined how leadership practices influenced the way organizations evaluated, adopted, and implemented organizational innovation. Their findings indicated that leadership variables (e.g., tenure and education) were strong predictors of organizational innovations. Furthermore, Meyer and Goes insisted that taken together

with the potential benefits or the skills required to implement the organizational innovation, competent change agents could become an important determinants of adoption and utilization.

Armenakis, Harris, and Field (1999b) suggested that the success of organizational changes depended on changes agents' better appreciation of the institutionalizing phase of the change process. Thus, Armenakis et al. proposed seven recommended strategies; a) *active participation*: building the credibility of the change agents, b) *persuasive communication*: communicate efficiently about relevant information, c) *management of internal / external information*: reinforcing the message needed to institutionalize change, d) *human resource management practices*: complementing other strategies in the institutionalization process, e) *formalization activities*: demonstrating emphatic support for the changes, f) *diffusion practices*: testing an innovation, and g) *rites and ceremonies*: shaping the underlying cultural values, which were supposed to transmit and reinforce the organization change program by message components. Based on these specific methods facilitating the change process, Armenakis and his colleagues suggested change effort with respect to implementing the planned organizational change (i.e., change content) was implemented by comprehensive process model.

As being noted, change literature reviews tended to focus on specific constructs in the change process and the notions of change process variables have been considered as central elements to many approaches and techniques in organizational change theory. Additionally, either active or passive participation and timely communication have played important roles in leading the successful organizational change as change process variables. On the basis of numerous strategies applied to change process, I focused two

subset variables (e.g., participation and communication) of change process measures and they were addressed more specifically through empirical evidences from previous studies.

Participation. Participation refers to allowing workers to have input regarding the proposed change. Participation (and the perception of being able to participate) is generally believed to increase the acceptance of proposed changes. Participation may increase change acceptance through a number of mechanisms. First, those that participate in the planning and implementation of change often have the opportunity to influence the change directly. Those with this direct influence tend to become affectively committed to the change effort and support the change overtly. Second, those that participate often have greater access to change-related information than those that do not participate. This access to information makes it possible for participants to understand the need for the change and its ultimate objectives better than those that do not participate, reducing uncertainty, and insecurity.

The earliest study that explored the extent to which participation influenced the change process was conducted by Coch and French (1948). Coch and French's research was in Harwood Manufacturing Corporation, which was a production environment with high turnover, and poor output. To address these issues, changes were being introduced and the effectiveness of participation as a strategy to facilitate these changes was studied. Four research groups were formed to represent varying degrees of participation including no participation (the comparison group), participation via representation, and two total participation groups. The results showed that participation through representation and total participation groups were positively related to performance. Particularly, their

research advised the managers to hold group meeting to communicate the need for change and to solicit employee involvement in the planning of the change (Dent & Goldberg, 1999). Coch and French's study also laid the foundation for the search of additional variables that could explain the mixed outcomes observed in practice (Pasmore & Fagans, 1992).

Miller and Monge (1985) reported meta-analytic review of how participation related to employees' job satisfaction and productivity. Based on 47 studies, Miller and Mongue found the strongest effects of participation on satisfaction in the studies of perceived participation focusing multiple issues, indicating such results provided greater support for affective models of participation. Miller, Johnson and Grau (1994) argued the level of participation depending on the direct or indirect involvement, reporting the difference between *passive participation* (i.e., employees were merely provided information about change) and *active participation* (i.e., employees' participation were encouraged in the planned change).

Woodman (1989) mentioned participation has been regarded as both a means and an end. Based on this notion, Woodman said a high level of collaboration was critical for effective problem diagnosis, action planning, and change implementation. Yet, increased participation was sometimes itself the goal of change efforts. Furthermore, even though the notions of participation were considered either specific constructs or crucial variables in the change process, Woodman posited that most practitioners and researchers have had understanding and assumptions regarding participation as a simple thing. Thus, why the implementation of change process variables was harder than it was being imagined. From that perspective, Woodman called for refinements of key variables (i.e.,

participation, technology, and particularly information technology) within the change process theory.

Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) emphasized organizational members' participation and involvement as specific approaches for implementing an organizational change effort. According to Kotter and Schlesinger, if the initiators involved the potential resistors in some aspect of the design and implementation of the change, they often forestall resistance. However, Kotter and Schlesinger pointed out the drawbacks of participation and involvement, suggesting not only can it lead to a poor solution if the process is not carefully managed but it can be enormously time consuming. Thus, it might be concluded that if participation was not properly controlled, the results might be different from the original intention, implying participation technique could not always guarantee the success of organizational change.

Communication. Empirical and anecdotal evidence indicates that the level of stress experienced by organizational members during times of change can be reduced when employees' information needs are addressed during the early stages of the change process. Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) argued that employee commitment to a change is enhanced when senior leaders communicate why the change is occurring and how it will affect the employees early during the change process. Similarly, Covin and Kilmann (1990) found that over 1,000 managers believed the communication was critical to successful change efforts saying that the failure to share why a change is necessary and answer questions regarding the change negatively impacted the success of change efforts.

Niehoff, Enz, and Grover (1990) said that communicating a shared vision through speeches, memos, and newsletters, along with executive visibility, were significant in

developing organizational commitment by exploring the change process (i.e., communication) toward organizational change. Similarly, in study conducted by Konovsky and Cropanzano (1991; requiring employees to submit to random drug-tests) explained the purpose of the changes (thus, justifying the change) played a critical role in gaining acceptance. Nutt (1986), in his study of hospital executives, found one of the most important behaviors of change agents was to communicate the need for change.

When looking at the characteristics of current study, communication was not measured explicitly. Instead, the organizations used slightly modified techniques to measure communicative information (i.e., organizational meetings, and newsletters). Moreover, notion of communication was easily manifested and conveyed as quality of information. Therefore, there was no need to measure the communication. Also, in some studies, (e.g., Miller, Johnson & Grau; 1994, Beer & Walton; 1987, Miller & Monge; 1985) quality of information was assessed with the concept of participation simultaneously as key change process variables. Thus, I specifically focused the *quality of information* based on the communication climate.

Kotter (1995) suggested that it was important for credible and timely information to capture the hearts and minds of employees' and move them toward organizational change. Specifically, Kotter said leaders must communicate the vision, proposing the leaders should use all existing channels (e.g., newsletters and routine discussion) to communicate the new vision and strategies, especially every possible channels that were being wasted on nonessential information. Through the well-integrated communication route, employees always could be encouraged to do the desired behavior required leading the successful organizational change and they could get the timely and useful feedback

from their co-workers and subordinates, even though they were not engaged directly in the behaviors. That is, it could guarantee the successful organization transformation.

Many researchers (e.g., Beer & Walton, 1987) have investigated relevant information and active participation of employees' perceptions was fundamental to the success of any planned organizational change. For instance, Beer and Walton suggested information might be particularly important in shaping attitudes of employees in well performing or profitable organizations, while Miller and Monge (1985) reported that employees perceive any information, in spite of negative information as more helpful than no information. Ultimately, the accumulation of information characterizing the change both positively and negatively could influence employees' decision to accept change.

Miller et al. (1994) empirically investigated these factors contribution to employees' openness to embrace a planned change. Based on the job characteristics (JCM) and social information processing (SIP) models, Miller et al. developed a model of factors pertaining to the changes and tested using path analytic methods. The study results indicated that employees receiving quality of information about the organizational change and having a high need for job performance and achievement viewed the change favorably. Furthermore, Miller et al. also suggested the level of employees' acquisition of information about change, indicating the importance of employees' active involvement (i.e., seek additional information about change and discuss it among themselves) instead of passive recipients.

Based on investigation of restructuring patterns of US and Canada, Burke and Nelson (1997) argued some crucial steps (e.g., integrate the change with long-term

strategy, communicate extensively, involve affected employees, spend more time talking to employees, develop new communication, and conduct employee meetings or focus groups) towards success of more effective organizational change. Summing up, Burke and Nelson (1997) focused on *how* to use the current people more effectively and *how* to constitute a more effective approach.

In conclusion, as Armenakis, Harris and Mossholder (1993) argued, organizational members' readiness might be influenced by effective management practices. Two common practices used by management to facilitate change are participation and communication. Thus, in the current study, I measured the perceptions of the participation and quality of information. In both cases, these process variables were expected to be positively related to readiness change.

Current Study

Whelan-Berry and Gordon (2000) noted that much of the organizational change literature has focused on leading or managing change. It has attempted to identify what change agents (i.e., organizational leaders and managers) should do or how to implement a specific change successfully. Furthermore, existing organizational change process models seem to not fully explaining the change as a whole picture. Therefore, this study is a departure from this attempting to address a comprehensive change process in an international setting at an individual level.

This study explored how individual attributes (e.g., personality), organizational internal context (e.g., perceptions of climate and culture), and change implementation (e.g., participation and quality of information) were related to perceptions of readiness of change as organizations from different cultures embark on major change initiatives.

To explore the proposed two research objectives; (a) take a global look at change, and (b) take a more comprehensive generalized view of change, I tried to conceptualize the organizational change process model by including four model factors, one mediating factor, and two potential outcomes related to successful implementation of change (see Figure 1, p.6). That is, I assessed two individual attributes (i.e., positive affect and negative affect), two internal context variables (i.e., perceived organizational support and perceptions of co-workers), and change process variables (i.e., participation and quality of information) as predictors of organization members' openness to the changes occurring as a consequence of restructuring (i.e., change content). Also, I tapped two potential outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction and affective commitment) of perceptions and openness to change and readiness factors (i.e., appropriateness, change-efficacy, and personal valence) as mediator factors between model factors and outcome variables. A summary of variables measured is presented in Table 1.

The current study should help guide all researchers and practitioners as they further explore the influences change-related factors (i.e., content, individual, context and process) have on readiness and resistance to change (i.e., maximize the readiness to change). By comparing two cultures, this study also tries to extend the research to the global environment.

Summary of the thesis

This chapter presented a comprehensive model of organizational change that will be used to guide the remaining of this study. The remaining document includes three parts. First, Chapter 2 describes the method that was used to measure study variables and

Table 1

Summary of the variables measured with the two questionnaires used in this study

<i>Variables Measured with the Questionnaire Administered to the US Sample</i>	<i>Variables Measured with the Questionnaire Administered to the Korean Sample 1 and 2</i>
<i>Individual Attributes</i>	<i>Individual Attributes</i>
-	Generalized self-efficacy (8 items)
-	Neuroticism (12 items)
-	Self esteem (10 items)
Positive affect (10 items)	Positive affect (10 items)
Negative affect (10 items)	Negative affect (10 items)
<i>Change Internal Context</i>	<i>Change Internal Context</i>
Perceived organizational support (6 items)	Perceived organizational support (6 items)
Perceptions of co-workers (3 items)	Perceptions of co-workers (4 items)
<i>Change Implementation Process</i>	<i>Change Implementation Process</i>
Participation (4 items)	Participation (4 items)
Quality of information (3 items)	Quality of information (3 items)
<i>Readiness for Change</i>	<i>Readiness for Change</i>
Appropriateness (10 items)	Appropriateness (10 items)
Change-efficacy (6 items)	Change-efficacy (6 items)
Personal valence (6 items)	Personal valence (6 items)
<i>Attitudinal Work Outcomes</i>	<i>Attitudinal Work Outcomes</i>
Job satisfaction (3 items)	Job satisfaction (3 items)
Affective commitment (6 items)	Affective commitment (6 items)

Note. Generalized self-efficacy, neuroticism, and self-esteem were not measured in the US sample.

the setting where the data were collected. Second, the data are analyzed and the results of these analyses are discussed in Chapter 3. Finally, the conclusions and recommendations are presented in Chapter 4. In particular, the significance of these findings and their implications are emphasized along with recommendations for future.

II. Method

Sample and Procedures

United States (US) sample. The sample consisted of 264 employees that were members of a large US department of Defense organization (53% response rate). Of these, males represented 59% of the sample and the age of the average participant was 47.6 years. An array of job titles was represented ranging from illustrator to quality assurance. However, computer analysts and programmers represented the largest portion of the sample. This result was not surprising considering the organization was responsible for developing and fielding information systems. In addition, participants indicated that 2.9 organizational levels, on average, separated their position from the organization's most senior leader.

The participants from the organization based in the United States were administered a web based questionnaire. This questionnaire was made available approximately 6 weeks prior to implementation of the change and data collection finished 3 weeks prior to implementation. To maximize the response rate, many of the strategies recommended by Simsek and Veiga (2000) for bolstering the response rate of electronic surveys were used. First, organizational members were given advance notice of the questionnaire via an electronic message sent to each person's personal e-mail account one week prior to the questionnaire being available. Similarly, the web address was distributed to each organizational member through an e-mail message from the organization's executive director and verbal announcements during managers' weekly staff meetings. Then, follow-up messages were sent on two occasions.

In addition, the web-based survey included a number of “extras” to make the questionnaire more convenient. For instance, keyboard strokes were minimized (i.e., with the exception of final comments, all open-ended items were accompanied with “pull down menus” listing available options). And, because of the questionnaire’s length, the questionnaire was configured in such a way that organizational members could complete a portion of the questionnaire, save their work, and complete the remaining portion at a different time as they could with a traditional paper-and-pencil questionnaire. Also, organizational members that did not feel comfortable completing an on-line version of the questionnaire were offered the option to print a traditional paper version so that they could complete it and return it directly to the researcher.

Korean sample one. The first Korean sample consisted of 280 employees (89% response rate) that were members of the Women’s Military School and Women’s Battalion. The average respondent was 28.3 years old and 56.4% had Bachelor’s degrees. An array of service branches was represented to include infantry, education, chemical, and supply. Sixteen out of 280 (5.7%) indicated that they were supervisors within the organization and supervised 56 employees, on average.

A paper-and-pencil questionnaire was administered to the first Korean sample in a group setting during work time. Prior to the questionnaire’s administration, the purpose of the research was explained to participants in a brief oral presentation. In addition, the written instructions were read aloud. The oral review was closed with the researcher addressing any questions and a reminder not to include names on the questionnaire. As questionnaires were completed and returned, participants were given an information letter with the researcher’s contact information.

Korean sample two. The second Korean sample consisted of 181 employees (81% response rate) that were members of Army Artillery School and one Infantry Company. The average respondent was 30.5 years old and 94% had at least a Bachelor's degree. The second Korean samples' jobs were related to combat specialties such as infantry and artillery. Of those that responded, approximately 18% indicated they were supervisors and supervised 54 employees, on average.

The data from the second Korean sample were collected with the same questionnaire, however, these were administered by mail and organizational leaders gave participants work time to complete them. The data collection for the first Korean sample was done the end of June, whereas the data from the second Korean sample were collected two months later.

Clearly, the use of different data collection procedures (i.e., web-based questionnaire, paper-and-pencil questionnaire) may suggest problems with the equivalency of measures and the validity of comparisons. While these concerns are legitimate, the proliferation of computer network technology and the use of this technology to collect data used in organizational research have spurred a body of empirical literature that compares web-based questionnaires to paper-and-pencil questionnaires. Generally, the results from these studies have suggested various collection methods are equivalent with respect to the factor structure of variables (Simsek & Veiga, 2000). For instance, Stanton (1998) found data collected from an organizational survey, looking at relationships employees have with top managers, administered on-line had the same underlying factor structure when compared to data collected using a paper-and pencil version of the questionnaire.

Change Context

US organization. The US organization under study had nearly a \$300 million budget and, as noted, was responsible for developing and fielding information systems. In an effort to fulfill this mission more effectively and efficiently, the organization's senior leadership developed an objective termed "Organize for success." This objective designed a new organization structure that clarified lines of authority and eliminated duplicate functions. Once developed, the executive director agreed to implement the new structure six months later. While only a limited number of members were involved in the development, the new structure was said to affect all organizational members.

Korean organizations. Because of a serious economic crisis, many Korean organizations have downsized or restructured in order to streamline operations, and to regain competitiveness (Lau, McMahan, & Woodman, 1996). In this same vein, the Korean Department of Defense initiated some changes of its own in order to operate more efficiently and effectively. One effort toward this goal was to disband two organizations and incorporate them into other parts of the organization. Specifically, the Women's Military School and Women's Battalion were going to integrate into the Men's Military School and Unit. Because this initiative was to integrate, a considerable amount of turbulence and conflict was expected.

Translation

The questionnaire was translated from English into Korean by the principal investigator. The Korean version of the questionnaire was given to two graduate students that were bilingual. These students translated the Korean version of the questionnaire back to English. Because the goal of the translation was to capture conceptual meaning

rather than literal meaning, differences between the original questionnaire and the back-translation were examined and these differences were resolved through discussions with the researchers and the translators to ensure that the conceptual meaning of the English terms was captured. This required us to modify items to get a better translation. A summary of the initial translation and back translation is presented at Appendix A.

Questionnaire

While slightly different versions of the questionnaire were administered to each sample, there was considerable overlap. The primary difference in the questionnaires lied in the personality variables that were measured. In the Korean samples, all of the personality traits that reflected an individual's core self-evaluations (i.e., self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, neuroticism, and locus of control; Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998) were measured while in the US sample only one aspect of core self-evaluations was measured (locus of control).

Unless otherwise noted, participants expressed their agreement with each item by choosing one of seven response options (1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *slightly disagree*, 4 = *neither, agree or disagree*, 5 = *slightly agree*, 6 = *agree*, and 7 = *strongly agree*). The issues relevant to this response format are worth noting. To standardize the response format across the questionnaire, the researcher had to slightly modify some of the response formats that have been used previously with the scales that have been proposed. For instance, Judge, Locke, Durham, and Kluger (1998) originally measured generalized self-efficacy using a 10-point response scale (ranging from 0 = *strongly disagree* to 10 = *strongly agree*) and Mayer and Davis (1999) measured trust in top

management using 5-point response scale (ranging from 1 = *disagree strongly* to 5 = *agree strongly*). Research indicated modification of this type does not influence scale reliabilities (Matell & Jacoby, 1971).

Individual Attributes

Generalized self-efficacy. Generalized self-efficacy was measured with an 8-item scale developed by Judge et al. (1998). Very similar to the concept of self-esteem, the generalized self-efficacy scale tapped the extent to which people believe that they were able to take needed problems that come up in life.” While the scale has not been widely used, Judge et al. administered the scale to three independent samples finding that the items reflected a single factor with estimates of internal consistency (i.e., Cronbach’s α) ranging from .90 to .72. For the first Korean sample coefficient alpha was .81 and the second Korean sample was .83.

Neuroticism. Based on the Eysenck Personality Inventory (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1968), a 12-item scale was used to measure neuroticism. The scale reflected the extent to which participants were disposed to accept and seek change. Example items of this construct are as follows: “I am a nervous person,” “I am often troubled by feeling of guilt,” and “I often worry too long after an embarrassing experience.” Judge et al. (1999) recently administered the scale to three independent samples and the mean estimate of internal consistency (i.e., coefficient α) was .88. For both Korean samples, coefficient alpha was .86.

Self-esteem. A ten-item scale was used to measure self-esteem (Rosenberg, 1965). This construct represented the attitude that a person had towards a particular object, namely, the self where high scores indicated a positive attitude and low scores indicated a

negative attitude. Items from the scale include: “I am able to do things as well as most other people,” “I feel I do not have much to be proud of,” and “I feel that I have a number of good qualities.” In the original study that discussed the development of the scale (Rosenberg, 1965), the scale’s reliability was estimated by a coefficient of reproducibility which was .92 (which reflects the degree to which the pattern of responses are consistent across scale items where values exceeding .90 are considered internally consistent; see Guttman [1973] for a detailed explanation). More recently, Judge et al. reported a mean coefficient α of .80 after administering the scale to three independent samples. The first Korean sample reported a slightly lower coefficient alpha .76 as compared to the second Korean sample (i.e., coefficient α was .77 for the second Korean sample).

Affect. Both positive and negative affect were measured with the twenty-item mood scale used by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988). The mood scale includes ten adjective items that reflected Positive Affect (PA)—the extent to which respondents are disposed to feel a variety of favorable mood states enthusiastic, interested, and proud. In addition, the scale includes ten items that reflect negative affect (NA)—the extent to which respondents are disposed to feel a variety of aversive mood states that include anger, contempt, disgust, fear, and nervousness. Watson et al. measured this construct by having participants rate the extent to which they had these feelings during a specified time frame (e.g., moment, today, past few days, past few weeks, year, or general), using 5- point response scale (1 = *very slightly or not at all* to 5 = *extremely*). By asking participants to indicate the extent to which they “generally feel this way, that is, how [they] feel on average,” dispositional affect was tapped. Watson et al. found the internal consistencies (i.e., coefficient α) of the scales were acceptably high, ranging from .86 to

.90 for PA and from .84 to .87 for NA. For the US sample, the coefficient alpha was .92 for PA and .87 for NA, whereas the first Korean sample's coefficient alphas were .81 for PA and .88 for NA and second Korean sample's coefficient alphas were .80 for PA and .91 for NA.

Change Internal Context

Perceived organizational support. Perceived organizational support was measured with seven items. These items were selected from Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa's (1986) 36-item Survey of Perceived Organizational Support scale—these items had the highest factor loadings (ranging from .76 to .84) on the single factor solution presented by Eisenberger et al. Perceived organizational support reflected the extent to which employees believed the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being. Examples include: “The organization is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability,” “Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice (reverse scored),” and “The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.” Eisenberger et al. reported a reliability coefficient (i.e., coefficient α) of .97 for the 36-item scale. Shorter versions of the scale have demonstrated acceptable levels of reliability as well. For instance, Hoffmann and Morgeson (1999) used a 9-item version and reported a coefficient α of .96. For the US sample, the coefficient alpha was .89 and the coefficient alphas of first and second Korean samples were .63 and .78, respectively.

Perceptions of co-workers. The 4-item scale published by Spector (1997) was used to measure perception of co-workers. This scale reflected the extent to which people had positive attitudes toward their co-workers toward their co-workers. Items

measuring this construct include: “I like the people I work with,” “I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with,” and “There is too much bickering and fighting at work.” The scale has demonstrated acceptable levels of reliability, estimated with coefficient α ($\alpha = .60$) and test-retest ($r = .64$; Spector, 1997). The coefficient alphas of among the US, first Korean, and second Korean samples were .62, .63, and .66, respectively.

Change Implementation Process

Participation. The four-item scale developed by Wanberg and Banas (2000) was used to measure participation. This scale tapped the extent to which one felt that he or she had input and participated in the change process. Items measuring this construct include: “I was able to ask questions about this change” and “I had some control over the changes that were proposed.” Estimates of internal consistency (i.e., coefficient α) were .79 (Wanberg & Banas, 2000). For the US sample, the coefficient alpha was .79, whereas the coefficient alpha of the first Korean sample was .73 and the second Korean sample was .63.

Quality of information. Miller et al. (1994) developed a six-item scale to assess the usefulness of information presented about organizational change and the value associated with that information that were used to measure quality of information. The following are example items from the scale: “The information I received about this change was timely,” “The information I received about this change has adequately answered my questions,” and “The information I received about this change helped me understand the change.” Miller et al. found that the six items reflected a single factor with an estimate of internal consistency (i.e., coefficient α) was .86. The coefficient

alphas for quality of information among each group (i.e., US, first Korean sample and second Korean sample) were .83, .81, and .75, respectively.

Readiness for Change

Armenakis, Harris and Field (1999) suggested that readiness for organizational change was manifested in the organizational members' belief that (a) the change is appropriate for the organization (i.e., appropriateness), (b) the organization is capable of changing (i.e., change-efficacy), and (c) the change is personally beneficial (i.e., personal valence). Thus, three measures of readiness for change (appropriateness, change-efficacy, and personal valence) were developed. This development is discussed by Holt (2002).

For the US sample, the coefficient alphas were .88 for appropriateness, .78 for change efficacy, and .64 for the personal valence. On the contrary, the coefficients alphas of the first Korean sample were .88 for appropriateness, .68 for change efficacy, and .56 for the personal valence and the second Korean sample reported .76 for appropriateness, .62 for change efficacy, and .70 for the personal valence as coefficient alphas of the readiness for change factors.

Attitudinal Work Outcomes

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured with a 3-item scale developed by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins and Klesh (1983). It measured the indication of the organization members' overall positive response to their jobs. The following items make up this scale: "All in all, I am satisfied with my job;" "In general, I don't like my job;" and, "In general, I like working here." Cammen et al. reported an internal consistency estimate of .77 (i.e., coefficient α). For the US sample, the coefficient alpha was .85.

Also, the coefficient alpha of the first Korean sample was .74, whereas the second Korean sample's coefficient alpha was .75.

Affective commitment. Affective commitment referred to the extent to which organizational members were emotionally attached to the goals and values of the organization for its own sake, beyond the extrinsic utility the organization serves in fulfilling the individual's needs (Allen & Meyer, 1990). It was measured with a seven-item scale that includes the following items: "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization;" "This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me;" and, "I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization." Allen and Meyer reported an internal consistency estimate of .82 (i.e., Cronbach's α). The coefficient alphas for affective commitment the US, first Korean sample and second Korean sample were .82, .75, and .79, respectively.

Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to provide an explanation of method used to accomplish the research objective. Initially, this chapter provided an overview of how all scales were measured. In summary, this chapter discussed the descriptions of the research methodology for this thesis was described, and to include how data were collected. Next chapter, results and analyses, is going to give an answer the overall research question by answering sub questions posed in chapter 1. That is, next chapter 3 will investigate the study's primary questions by conducting some statistical tools (e.g., ANOVA, meta-analysis and multi-hierarchical regression analysis).

III. Results and Analysis

Preliminary Analysis

As being noted, comparing individual attributes of organizational change across two cultures as well as understanding of how change content, individual attributes, context, and change process factors affected the organizational change were primary research objectives of the current study. Therefore, three preliminary analyses were conducted prior to investigating the first research question (i.e., Are there any different or similar patterns of individual attributes regarding organizational change). First, descriptive statistics (i.e., means and standard deviations) were computed for all the scales and a one-way ANOVA was computed to examine differences across the three samples. Finally, a correlation analysis was done to determine whether there were similar or different patterns of relationships among the study variables.

Descriptive Statistics: Comparison of means

Table 2 presents means, standard deviations of the study variables for each of the samples and a comparison of the means across the three samples. Because of the relatively large sample size, it was not surprising that many of these comparisons reached statistical significance. Overall, the US sample reported stronger attitudes and perceptions than both Korean samples when differences were observed. For instance, US sample reported lower negative affect than both Korean samples, where the mean for the US sample was 1.54 ($SD = 0.53$), the first Korean sample was 2.00 ($SD = 0.65$), and the second Korean sample was 2.03 ($SD = 0.72$).

Differences were also observed in the perceptions of the change implementation process. The US employees tended to view the process more favorably than individuals

Table 2
Means, standard deviations for study samples

<i>Variables</i>	<i>US</i> (<i>N</i> = 231-275)		<i>Korean Sample 1</i> (<i>N</i> = 280)		<i>Korean Sample 2</i> (<i>N</i> = 178-181)	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>Individual Attributes</i>						
Generalized self-efficacy	-	-	3.93	0.53	4.00	0.57
Neuroticism	-	-	2.69	0.69	2.58	0.71
Self-esteem	-	-	3.65	0.50	3.78	0.55
Positive affect	3.71	0.74	3.55	0.56	3.54	0.53
Negative affect	1.54 ^{a,b}	0.53	2.00	0.65	2.03	0.72
<i>Change Internal Context</i>						
Perceived organizational Support	4.24	1.25	4.28	0.85	4.45	1.10
Perceptions of co-Workers	4.76	1.16	4.81	0.97	5.07	1.01
<i>Change Implementation Process</i>						
Participation	3.42	1.29	2.61 ^{b,c}	1.15	3.23	1.11
Quality of information	3.94 ^{a,b}	1.37	2.95	1.18	3.10	1.23
<i>Readiness for Change</i>						
Appropriateness	4.52 ^{a,b}	1.16	3.75	1.17	3.99	0.86
Change-efficacy	5.35 ^{a,b}	0.99	4.45 ^{b,c}	1.00	4.87 ^{a,c}	0.95
Personal valence	4.90	1.15	4.24 ^{b,c}	1.17	4.96	1.24
<i>Attitudinal Work Outcomes</i>						
Job satisfaction	4.34 ^{a,b}	0.90	4.84	1.23	4.92	1.22
Affective commitment	4.35 ^{a,b}	1.18	5.02	0.94	4.83	1.10

Note. Sample sizes vary due to missing data. Generalized self-efficacy, neuroticism, and self esteem were not measured in the US sample.

^a Significantly different from Korean sample 1, $p < .01$.

^b Significantly different from Korean sample 2, $p < .01$.

^c Significantly different from the US sample, $p < .01$.

from both Korean samples. Specifically, US sample reported significantly higher quality of information than both Korean samples, where the means for the US sample was 3.94 ($SD = 1.37$), Korean sample 1 was 2.95 ($SD = 1.18$), and Korean sample 2 was 3.10 ($SD = 1.23$). Even though all three samples reported lower means for the participation than quality of information, a relatively higher mean was observed in the US sample ($M = 3.42$, $SD = 1.29$) when compared to the Korean groups, where the first Korean sample reported a mean of 2.61 ($SD = 1.15$) and the second Korean sample reported a mean of 3.23 ($SD = 1.11$).

The notable difference in this pattern of both Korean samples reporting stronger attitudes and perceptions than their US counterpart came when considering the affective outcomes—job satisfaction and affective commitment. Job satisfaction and affective commitment ratings for the Korean samples were similar to one another but significantly larger than the US sample's ratings. When considering job satisfaction, Korean sample 1 reported the mean of job satisfaction 4.84 ($SD = 1.23$), and the Korean sample 2 reported a mean of 4.92 ($SD = 1.22$), while the US sample indicated a mean of 4.34 ($SD = 0.90$). When considering affective commitment, both Korean samples reported higher means than US sample. Specifically, the first Korean sample reported the mean of affective commitment 5.02 ($SD = 0.94$) and the second Korean sample reported the mean of 4.83 ($SD = 1.10$), while the US sample indicated the mean of 4.35 ($SD = 1.18$). These findings suggested that the data needed to be further analyzed to determine the extent that unmeasured variables (i.e., national culture) might have influenced the subsequent analysis.

Correlations

A sample-specific correlation of each sample among the study variables is presented at Appendix C. These results had two implications. First, it suggested that multicollinearity might pose a problem in subsequent analysis (discussed later); second, there was a need to compute meta-analytic correlations in order to gauge the true relationships between variables.

Meta-analytic Correlations. In order to get a sense of the true relationship among the study variables across the samples, meta-analytic correlations for study variables were computed, correcting for differences in sample sizes and unreliability. Most of the correlations, presented in Table 3, were moderate in magnitude. For instance, dispositional variables (e.g., positive affect) indicated strong correlations with respect to readiness factors (i.e., except for the appropriateness), showing $r_{\text{corrected}}$ of .29 (i.e., positive affect and change-efficacy relationship), $r_{\text{corrected}}$ of .10 (i.e., positive affect and personal valence relationship), respectively. The relationships between negative affect and readiness factors displayed similar patterns. Specifically, $r_{\text{corrected}}$ of -.28 (i.e., negative affect and change-efficacy relationship) and $r_{\text{corrected}}$ of -.23 (e.g., negative affect and personal valence) were observed. As being noted in the relationships between positive affect and appropriateness, there also were no significant difference between negative affect and appropriateness.

Similar to the disposition al variables, the environmental variables were related to the readiness factors. For instance, perceived organizational support showed correlations with respect to change efficacy (i.e., $r_{\text{corrected}}$ of .18) and personal valence (i.e., $r_{\text{corrected}}$ of .21) except for the appropriateness. In case of perceptions of co-workers, fairly strong

Table 3

Meta-analytic correlations among study variables (i.e., US, Korean Sample 1, Korean Sample2)

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Correlation</i>												
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>11</i>
<i>Individual Attributes</i>													
1. Positive affect	3.60	0.62	-	-.35	.31	.13	.15	.06	-.06	.29	.10	.33	.31
2. Negative affect	1.86	0.67	-.30**	-	-.25	-.37	-.08	.05	.02	-.28	-.23	-.27	-.28
<i>Change Internal Context</i>													
3. Perceived organizational support	4.27	1.07	.24**	-.19**	-	.69	.31	.32	.15	.18	.21	.55	.79
4. Perceptions of co-workers	4.86	1.06	.09*	-.28**	.49**	-	-.05	.07	.05	.35	.26	.48	.70
<i>Change Implementation Process</i>													
5. Participation	3.05	1.24	.10*	-.06	.23**	-.04	-	.83	.37	.12	.33	-.04	.01
6. Quality of information	3.33	1.33	.05	.04	.25**	.04	.62**	-	.47	.34	.16	.03	.06
<i>Readiness for Change</i>													
7. Appropriateness	4.07	1.17	-.05	.01	.12**	.03	.29**	.36**	-	.31	.19	-.09	-.06
8. Change-efficacy	4.89	1.06	.24**	-.22**	.14**	.23**	.08*	.25**	.24**	-	.58	.12	.23
9. Personal valence	4.66	1.22	.08*	-.17**	.15**	.17**	.22**	.14**	.14**	.38**	-	.11	.13
<i>Attitudinal Work Outcomes</i>													
10. Job satisfaction	4.68	1.15	.27**	-.23**	.45**	.30**	-.03	.01	-.01	.09*	.08*	-	.71
11. Affective commitment	4.73	1.11	.26**	-.23**	.61**	.50**	.01	.05	-.05	.17**	.09*	.60**	-

Note. $k = 3$ samples, $N = 572-734$. Uncorrected correlations were provided below the diagonal, while the meta-analytic correlations were provided above the diagonal. All data have been transformed using Fisher's Z and then Schmidt and Hunter's artifact corrections of sampling error and unreliability were used. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

effect were observed regarding to all three readiness factors, where the $r_{\text{corrected}}$ of .05 for the appropriateness, $r_{\text{corrected}}$ of .35 for the change-efficacy and $r_{\text{corrected}}$ of .26 for the personal valence.

In turn, change process variables (i.e., participation and quality of information) reported higher effect sizes with respect to readiness factors than the other variables (i.e., dispositional variables, environmental). Furthermore, both change process variables were strongly correlated regarding to appropriateness, while the dispositional and environmental variables indicated little correlations with respect to appropriateness. Specifically, participation showed the $r_{\text{corrected}}$ of .37 with appropriateness, $r_{\text{corrected}}$ of .12 with change efficacy, and $r_{\text{corrected}}$ of .33 with personal valence. Similarly, the quality of information reported $r_{\text{corrected}}$ of .47 with appropriateness, $r_{\text{corrected}}$ of .34 with change efficacy, and $r_{\text{corrected}}$ of .16 with personal valence. That is, the average relationship between participation and each of the readiness factors was .28 and the average relationship between quality of information and each of the readiness factors was .32. Unlike the previous results, readiness factors were weakly correlated to the outcomes variables. For instance, $r_{\text{corrected}}$ of .10 was observed for job satisfaction and change-efficacy relationship and $r_{\text{corrected}}$ of .11 was observed for the job satisfaction and personal valence were reported.

When looking at the meta-analytic correlations, dispositional variables indicated strong correlations with respect to most of other variables. For instance, strong effect sizes were observed with respect to the environmental and dispositional variable relationships (e.g., $r_{\text{corrected}} = -.25$ for negative affect and perceived organizational support relationship; $r_{\text{corrected}} = -.37$ for negative affect and perceptions of co-workers

relationship). The context variables were strongly correlated to the outcomes variables. The $r_{\text{corrected}}$ of .55 (i.e., perceived organizational support and job satisfaction), and $r_{\text{corrected}}$ of .79 (perceived organizational support and affective commitment) were the largest of all those computed. Also, similar patterns were reported between the perceptions of co-workers and outcome variables. For instance, the meta-correlations of perceptions of co-workers and job satisfaction reported $r_{\text{corrected}}$ of .48, whereas the perception of co-workers and affective commitment reported $r_{\text{corrected}}$ of = .70.

Comparison of Three Samples

Meta-analytic Comparison. Meta-analytic correlations were computed for several reasons. First, meta-analysis made it possible to estimate the true score among the study variables by correcting for sampling and measurement error. Second, it allowed me to determine whether correlations among the variables were situationally specific (in other words, whether the correlations differed across the organizations). As suggested, a second-order sampling error analysis was done to identify any potential differences based on organization (Hunter & Schmidt, 1990). To do this, an analysis of the variance of the weighted corrected correlations was conducted. The observed variance, sampling variance, population variances were computed using the steps outlined by Hunter and Schmidt (1990). The sampling variance was then subtracted from the observed variance to find the population variance. Using the population variance, the percent of variance was then calculated and reported. If this value was less than 60% (Damanpour, 1991), there would some evidence that the relationships observed were influenced by differences in organizations (see Hunter & Schmidt, 1990, pp. 421-422). As it turns out, the average variance accounted for by the corrections across the relationships was between the

process, context, individual attributes, and readiness variables were 76%. The average variance across the relationships between the readiness and the outcome variables was 62.5%. This gave us some confidence that the data could be consolidated into one large sample to test the complete model.

Regression Comparison. Chow (1960) showed that sets of observations could be lumped into one sample when testing a regression model, if equal β coefficients were observed. Based on this idea, statistically, if the subsets of coefficients were identical in three multi-hierarchical regression models, I can assume both Korean samples were from the same regression as the US sample with respect to three regression models (appropriateness, change-efficacy, and personal valence). Before I investigated equivalency of models by comparing the standardized β coefficients, however, I first checked necessary conditions for confirming the regression analysis with respect to each three samples. That is, I tested the data properties to see if they violated regression assumptions; residuals for evidence of normality, nonlinearity, inequality of variance, and multicollinearity (VIF). The test results showed that data of each sample were normally distributed, linear and had equal variance also the multicollinearity was not a problem.

The results from the regression analysis of each sample are presented in Table 4. When looking at the regression model of appropriateness, three samples appeared to have similar standardized β coefficients with one exception, perceived organizational support (i.e., $\beta = .34$ for the US sample; $\beta = -.10$ for the first Korean sample and the $\beta = .09$ for the second Korean sample, respectively, $p < .05$). In the case of change-efficacy model, three samples appeared to have almost similar standardized β coefficients. Particularly, with regarding to environmental variables (i.e. quality of information), three samples

Table 4
Summary of regression analysis for US, Korean Sample 1 and Korean Sample 2

	<i>US sample</i>			<i>Korean sample 1</i>			<i>Korean sample 2</i>		
	<i>Appropriateness (Standardized β)</i>	<i>Change-efficacy (Standardized β)</i>	<i>Personal valence (Standardized β)</i>	<i>Appropriateness (Standardized β)</i>	<i>Change-efficacy (Standardized β)</i>	<i>Personal valence (Standardized β)</i>	<i>Appropriateness (Standardized β)</i>	<i>Change-efficacy (Standardized β)</i>	<i>Personal valence (Standardized β)</i>
<i>Step 1</i>									
Positive affect	-.01	.37*	.05	-.07	.15*	-.04	-.02	.05	.04
Negative affect	-.07	-.11	-.18*	-.12*	-.06	-.16*	-.14*	-.15*	-.03
<i>Step 2</i>									
Perceived organizational support	.34*	.11	.34*	-.10	.14*	.05	.09	-.05	.08
Perceptions of co-workers	.15*	.10	-.04	.12*	.10	.15*	.17*	.30*	.17*
<i>Step 3</i>									
Participation	.11	.01	.09	.20*	.05	.06	.10	-.07	-.09
Quality of information	.10	.17*	.14*	.42*	.26*	.08	.46*	.15*	.10
R^2	.36*	.31*	.28*	.33*	.29*	.27*	.29*	.25*	.22*
<i>MSE</i>	1.08	0.81	1.12	1.04	0.92	1.21	1.02	0.84	1.14

Note. US sample size $N = 129$ -135, Korean sample 1 size $N = 280$, and Korean sample 2 $N = 178$ -181. Sample size varies due to missing data. * $p < .05$.

indicated a high standardized beta coefficients; US sample indicated $\beta = .17$ and both Korean samples reported $\beta = .26$, $\beta = .15$, for sample 1 and sample 2, respectively. Unlike the previous results, the personal valence model appeared to be different across the three samples. That is, the patterns of β coefficients seemed to vary widely. Specifically, perception of co-workers of both Korean samples showed significant positive standardized coefficients ($\beta = .15$ for the first Korean sample; $\beta = .17$ for the second Korean sample, respectively, $p < .05$), whereas perceptions of co-workers was insignificant in the US sample ($\beta = -.04$, $p > .05$). Similarly, negative affect in the US and the first Korean sample showed significant negative standardized coefficients ($\beta = -.18$ for the US sample; $\beta = -.16$ for the first Korean sample, respectively, $p < .05$), as expected, while negative affect was insignificant in the second Korean sample ($\beta = -.03$, $p > .05$).

Also, comparisons of R^2 and Mean Squared Errors (*MSE*) were conducted (Neter, Kutner, Nachtsheim, & Wasserman, 1996). That is, the estimated regression coefficients and characteristics of the fitted models (i.e., R^2 and Mean Squared Errors [*MSE*]) were compared for consistency where consistent results provided evidence of the models generalizability beyond the single sample. Therefore, a series of hierarchical regression models for each sample was used to estimate the influence individual, contextual, and process variables had on each of the readiness factors (i.e., appropriateness, change-efficacy and personal valence).

The results from the comparisons of R^2 and Mean Squared Errors are presented in Table 4. When looking at appropriateness model, even though both Korean samples

showed lower R^2 ($R^2 = .33$ for the Korean sample 1; $R^2 = .29$ for the Korean sample 2, respectively, $p < .05$) than the US sample ($R^2 = .36$, $p < .05$), the three groups' MSE values appeared similar ($MSE = 1.08$ for the US sample, $MSE = 1.04$ for the first Korean sample, and $MSE = 1.02$ for the second Korean sample). In case of change-efficacy, R^2 values of three samples were similar. For instance, US sample showed higher R^2 values than both Korean samples, where R^2 of the US sample was .31 ($p < .05$), R^2 of the first Korean sample was .29 ($p < .05$), and R^2 of the second Korean sample was .25 ($p < .05$). In spite of this difference, the MSE values were similar with the US sample having an MSE of 0.81, the Korean sample 1 having an MSE of 0.92 and the Korean sample 2 having an MSE of 0.84. In turn, with regarding to personal valence, the R^2 values of the US sample ($R^2 = .28$, $p < .05$) and the first Korean sample ($R^2 = .27$, $p < .05$) showed slightly higher than second Korean sample ($R^2 = .22$, $p < .05$). In contrast to, three samples' MSE values appeared similar ($MSE = 1.12$ for the US sample; $MSE = 1.21$ for the first Korean sample and $MSE = 1.14$ for the second Korean sample).

Comprehensive Model

Preliminary Analysis

Collectively, those results (i.e., meta-analytic correlations, comparisons of β coefficients and analysis of R^2 and MSE values) suggested that a general change model could be made by combination of three samples. Once the samples were merged, the data properties were investigated to see if they violated the normality assumptions. The values of skewness, which are indicators of normal distribution of data, ranged from a low of 0.30 (i.e., job satisfaction) to a high of 0.79 (i.e., negative affect). Due to the large sample size, the distribution of data could be assumed symmetric. As Larsen and Marx

(2001) defined symmetric data as those with skewness near zero, no skewness values of tested variables were not significantly out of range, even though the skewness of negative affect was relatively high (0.79). The kurtosis values were evaluated to determine the data's peak or flatness. Although negative kurtosis was generally observed (i.e., 7 out of 11 variables had negative kurtosis values), suggesting that response distribution tend to be flat. Most of the data appeared to be normal because the values were near zero (Larsen & Marx, 2001). The distribution of quality of information (kurtosis value = -0.55), for instance, tended to flatten near the mean, whereas positive affect (kurtosis value = 0.34) and perceived organizational support (kurtosis value = 0.25) tended to have a distinct peak near the mean.

To test the model presented (see Figure 1, Chapter 1). A series of hierarchical regression models were tested. Prior to testing the models, however, the data properties were further examined to see if they violated regression assumptions. That is, residuals were examined for evidence of normality; nonlinearity, inequality of variance, and the Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) were checked to detect any evidence multicollinearity. After checking the residuals, it seemed that assumptions (i.e., data's normality) were met. Moreover, no VIF values exceed the threshold of 10 (Neter et al., 1996). They were small, ranging from 1.11 to 1.67, suggesting that multicollinearity should not pose a problem.

Combined Regression Model

To examine the extent to which process, context, and individual influenced the readiness factors, the first phase of the research model was tested. In the typical approach, the importance of a set of variables was dependent upon that variable's unique

contribution to prediction and this could be problematic when predictors were intercorrelated (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Furthermore, Staw and Ross (1985) reported that individual variables proposed that organizational behavior could be better predicted by understanding individual personality traits, values, abilities, because such elements were stable and consistent in influencing the outcomes. Watson, Clark and Tellegen (1984) reported that positive and negative affect was two basic dimensions of the affective trait with stable and constant overtime. Consistent with the previous research, specifically, positive affect and negative affect were entered as the first step in a hierarchical regression analysis. Then, context variables (i.e., perceived organizational support and perception of co-workers) and process variables (i.e., participation and quality of information) were added based on the idea which change agents or leaders can alter those variables easily.

Table 5 shows the results of hierarchical regression analysis for individual, context and process variables predicting appropriateness, change efficacy, and personal valence. The changes of R^2 values were significant when the context and process variables entered. Specifically, when the change process variables (e.g., participation and quality of information) were added, change of R^2 value was .21 ($p < .05$) for appropriateness, change of R^2 value was .05 ($p < .05$) for change-efficacy, and change of R^2 value was .03 ($p < .05$) personal valence.

When looking at each regression models, some important observations should be noted. First, individual variables reported moderate significant standardized β coefficients. Positive affect reported standardized β coefficient of .11 when used to predict appropriateness, and .12 when predicting personal valence, while negative affect

Table 5
Summary of regression analysis for all study samples

	US, Korean Sample 1, Korean Sample 2								
	Appropriateness (Standardized β)			Change-efficacy (Standardized β)			Personal valence (Standardized β)		
	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
<i>Step 1</i>									
Positive affect	-.06	-.08	.11*	.16*	.17**	.10	.00	.09	.12*
Negative affect	-.03	-.07*	-.05	-.18*	-.16*	-.16*	-.10	-.15*	-.16*
<i>Step 2</i>									
Perceived organizational support	-	.09	-.05	-	-.02	.08	-	.06	.05
Perceptions of co-workers	-	-.12*	-.04	-	.11*	.15*	-	.08	.08
<i>Step 3</i>									
Participation	-	-	.15*	-	-	.04	-	-	.10*
Quality of information	-	-	.37*	-	-	.20*	-	-	-.08
R^2	.01	.02	.23*	.07*	.08*	.13*	.03*	.04*	.07*
ΔR^2	-	.01*	.21*	-	.01*	.05*	-	.01*	.03*

Note. Sample ($N = 572-734$) sizes vary due to some missing data.

* $p < .05$

had standardized β coefficient of -.16 when predicting both change-efficacy, and personal valence. Change context variables did not appear to influence readiness. Only the perceptions of co-workers was a significant predictor of change-efficacy ($\beta = .15, p < .05$). In addition, the individual attributes, and context variables collectively did not explain considerable variation in readiness. The R^2 values were .01 (i.e., for the appropriateness), .07 (i.e., for the change efficacy) and .03 (i.e., for the personal valence) when individual variables were entered. Similar to, context variables changed R^2 values only 1% (i.e., for the appropriateness), 1% (i.e., for the change efficacy), and 1% (i.e., for the personal valence) when they were added into the regression model, respectively, $p < .05$.

When the change process variables were added to the models, each process variables appeared to be a key predictor of readiness. Quality of information showed high standardized β coefficients (i.e., $\beta = .37$ for appropriateness, $\beta = .20$ for change efficacy, for each, $p < .05$) with participation (i.e., $\beta = .15$ for appropriateness, $\beta = .10$ for personal valence, for each, $p < .05$). Also, it should be noted that the change process variables' significant unique variation in readiness where their addition explained an additional 21%, 5%, and 3% with respect to appropriateness, change-efficacy and personal valence.

Mediating Model

To further test the model (see Figure 1, Chapter 1), mediated regression analysis was conducted (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). For mediation to exist, (a) individual attributes, context and process variables must be related to the outcome variables, (b) the readiness factors must be related to the outcomes, and (c) the relationships between the process,

personality, and context and the outcome variables must be reduced after adjusting for the effects of readiness factors, were needed to justify the mediated regression analysis. Through these procedures, finally, the readiness factors' mediation between model factors and outcomes were observed.

The results are shown Table 6. Independent variables (i.e., positive affect, negative affect, perceived organizational support, perception of co-workers, participation and quality of information) explained significant variance in both outcomes, accounting for 34% job satisfaction variance and 44% of the variation in affective commitment. Second, when they were entered into the regression alone, the readiness factors explained significant variance of the outcomes variables (i.e., 9% for job satisfaction and 8% for affective commitment). Thus, first two necessary requirements for mediation existed. Finally, when adding all variables (i.e., process, context, individuals, and readiness factors), 42% of the variation in job satisfaction and 50% of the variation in affective commitment were explained. From the results, in the final regression analysis, I calculated additional 8% (i.e., for job satisfaction) and 6% (i.e., for affective commitment) was come from the adding of three readiness variables. That is to say, 8% and 6% variances of total outcomes variables' were uniquely accounted for by readiness factors. As being addressed, it is worth noting that how much proportion of the variance of outcomes not accounted by three category variables is uniquely accounted for by readiness factors (see Cohen & Cohen, 1983). It means that these values represent the correlation which remains after process, personality and context variables have been removed from both outcome variables and the three category variables being correlated.

Table 6

Readiness factors as mediator of the relationship between model factors (individual, context and process) and attitudinal outcomes

<i>Predictors</i>	<i>Outcome variables</i>					
	<i>Job satisfaction</i>			<i>Affective commitment</i>		
	(Standardized β)	(Standardized β)	(Standardized β)	(Standardized β)	(Standardized β)	(Standardized β)
<i>Model factors only</i>						
Positive affect	.13*			.12*		
Negative affect	-.01			-.02		
Perceived organizational support	.43*			.49*		
Perceptions of co-workers	.20*			.24*		
Participation	-.08*			-.06		
Quality of information	-.07			-.09*		
<i>Readiness factors only</i>						
Appropriateness		-.07			-.05	
Change efficacy		.09*			.10*	
Personal valence		.04			.05	
<i>Model factors and Readiness factors</i>						
Positive affect			.08*			.08*
Negative affect			-.05			-.08*
Perceived organizational support			.45*			.52*
Perceptions of co-workers			.23*			.26*
Participation			-.06			-.07
Quality of information			-.05			-.03
Appropriateness			.06			.02
Change efficacy			.11*			.12*
Personal valence			.09*			.09*
	R^2					
	.34*	.09*	.42*	.44*	.08*	.50*
<i>Readiness factors mediated (%)</i>		12%			11%	

Note. Sample (N = 572-734) sizes vary due to some missing data. * $p < .05$.

Conversely, the relationship between the process, personality and context and the outcomes variables was reduced (i.e., reduced roughly 13% [from .34 to .30] for job satisfaction and roughly 25% for affective commitment [from .44 to .33]) reduce adjusting or the effects of variables among six independent variables (i.e., participation and quality of information) became non significant when readiness factors were controlled.

In summary, the readiness factors affected the outcomes variables as mediating variables between the model factors and outcomes (i.e., readiness factors mediated 12% of the relationship between individual, context, process and job satisfaction, while 11% was mediated between model factors and affective commitment by readiness variables). Also, statistically, R^2 values (i.e., $R^2 = .34$ for job satisfaction, and $R^2 = .44$ for affective commitment) of this regression analysis (i.e., when model factors were entered only) were moderately high compared to other behavioral and social science studies. Thus, results were satisfied with Cohen and Cohen (1983)'s mediating regression analysis, so generalization of this change model could be accepted practically as useful one.

IV. Discussion and Conclusion

The present study attempted to expand existing research that has studied how the change process, internal context, and individual attributes influence organizational change by testing a model that incorporated these facets simultaneously. Furthermore, it was conducted in two different cultures. Overall, the study findings indicated that process, context, and individual attributes were positively related to employee perceptions (i.e., readiness factors) that the necessity of change was justified, they were able to successfully accept a change, and they were sure of the benefit of change implementation.

The first issue addressed was whether or not individual perceptions toward organizational change would be different between two cultures. Three samples reported similar dispositions. Furthermore, this result also indicated that there were not differences due to gender, showing that there was no significant difference between Korean sample 1 and Korean sample 2. Therefore, regardless of resources (i.e., cultures and gender), individuals' perceptions about organizational change process did not appear different from each other. That is, high-PA person tend to favorably accept the change and perceived the change process more positively.

When looking at the patterns of correlations of each sample, findings were consistent with previous research (e.g., Judge et al., 1998). For instance, the study findings indicated that individual attributes (i.e., PA and NA) were strongly related to attitudinal outcomes as well as the other variables (i.e., context and readiness variables) across all three samples, suggesting that people who consider themselves worthy and able

to cope with unexpected or new circumstances and situations they encounter tend to have more positive thinking.

Collectively, statistical analysis (e.g., meta-analytic correlations, comparisons of β coefficients and analysis of R^2 and MSE) which were designed to investigate the possibility of combined generalized change model, suggested that a general change model could be made by combination of three samples.

After these samples were joined, a more generalized model of change was tested with a mediated regression analysis to investigate the second research question. Consistent with previous studies (e.g., Judge et al., 1999), strong relationships were observed between individual attributes (i.e., PA and NA) and readiness. Most notably, PA and NA were strongly related to personal valence, suggesting that employees' with certain characteristics were concerned with the extent to which the change could bring personal benefits or advantages. Internal context variables (i.e., perceived organizational support and perceptions of co-workers) were less related to readiness. That is, just one readiness factor (i.e., change-efficacy) was related to perceptions of co-workers, suggesting perceptions of co-workers might be more crucial factor in facilitating adjustment to a new situation than perceived organizational support.

Participation and quality of information were the strongest predictors, implying that the process used by leaders shapes people's view of change dramatically. In other words, the results implied that employees who perceived the work environment as highly participative and anticipated being involved in decision relevant to a pending change effort would more likely embrace the change. Indeed, this finding supports Dirk, Cummings, and Pierce's (1996) hypothesis, employees' sense of ownership over their

jobs, organization, or change process could play a role in wither facilitating or impending change. Therefore, through the participation, employees might increase their efforts for, and commitment to, the organization, so leaders and managers should make a desirable environment which can facilitate employees' participation within the change context. If so, employees might feel that their being and role are necessary elements for successful reorganization.

In sum, individual attributes and internal context were related to readiness in the direction expected. Most of all, the change process variables' affect on readiness should be noted. While the individual attributes and the internal context tend to be fixed and stable, change process variables can be flexibly applied by leaders to influence readiness. Hence, leaders and managers have considerable discretion as they plan and initiate changes in their organizations.

Further testing the model, the results of mediation regression indicated that the process, context, and individual attributes were related to both job satisfaction and organizational commitment. That is, the results offered a change model that could be further explored because readiness mediated the relationships between process, context, and individual attributes and the attitudinal outcomes.

The tendency of mediation effects to be somewhat smaller than expected could be a function of potential moderators that might influence the differences in the shared variance between readiness factors and outcome measures (i.e., sampling error and unreliability corrections explained just slightly more than 60% of the variation in correlations between these variables). Clearly, the tendency of the Korean participants to report higher levels of the outcomes measures suggested that there may be some cultural

difference that should be addressed, meaning that the outcomes were not the most appropriate for an internationally relevant model for change.

Implications

Because most change efforts fail, perhaps the most important finding was that the perceptions of the change process explained significant variance in readiness. The simple implication of this finding is that the process used by leaders is, indeed, important as change is implemented. However, given that it explained significant incremental variation in readiness after controlling for individual attributes and context. The findings imply that even though it may be difficult to change an organization given the characteristics of the members (i.e., members that are disposed to be receptive to change) and the existing organizational climate, organizational (i.e., an organization that has a history of unsuccessful change) leaders might be able to facilitate a successful change by employing the appropriate process at the onset. Thus, there is considerable room for improving the effectiveness of change efforts regardless of the members' or organization's characteristics.

Limitations

Several limitations of the study should be noted. First, data were collected at different times during the change process, suggesting there might be differences in members' understanding of the change. Specifically, when measuring the US sample, the change was near implementation, so respondents might have completely understood the necessity of change and recognized the advantages presented by the change. In contrast, the Korean organization was in the initial stages of change; therefore, respondents may not have fully understood the change process at the time when the survey was conducted.

Second, these were slightly different sample characteristics among the change targets. For instance, in case of the US sample, most respondents were involved the change process directly, reporting that they were responsible for developing and fielding a part of change. However, relatively low-ranking positions in the organizations of Korean samples reported that respondents felt that either they were alienated from the organizational change process or lacked the change to express their opinions.

Third, measures of cultures were not used. As being noted in the results of mediation regression analysis, higher levels of on the outcome measures of Korean participants than their US counterparts might indicate there was some cultural difference which should have been explored. However, those findings may not be a problem in the current study.

Future Research

This study opens up a number of opportunities for future research. First, researchers should consider a longitudinal study to understand employees' changing perceptions of organizational readiness for change. This could help us a more complete understanding of the casual relationships and capture the temporal nature of change. Researchers are encouraged to investigate the study of organizational process with data obtained from independent sources. Also, further study should focus on exploring other factors such as the characteristics of leaders. A closer look at leaders of organization who can have a significant influence on employees' attitudes and behaviors might help further complete our understanding of the change process. Additionally, different measure of the change content (i.e., magnitude or diffusion of change, and unique situation of

organizational change) is needed because this study assumed the change content of three different organizations was similar.

Summary

Overall, this study was designed to help us better understand individuals' reactions to and perceptions of organizational change. The study provided an initial attempt to understand the variables which affected the organizational change process. Moreover, the mediation affects of readiness factors between model factors and outcomes variables by showing that three readiness factors could increase the organizational members' readiness during the change process. That is, the present study gave strong support to the emerging organizational research field, offering a comprehensive view for understanding that organizational change is necessary and that more value should be put on individual attributes factors.

More importantly, this study took a small step to move organizational change research beyond the boundaries of the US. By comparing US organizational members' perceptions of organizational change with members of a Korean organization experiencing change, some evidence was provided to suggest that there might be a relevant theory that spans borders. Therefore, this study may serve as the foundation for an internationally relevant and globally generalizable theory of organizational change.

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Appendix A

Constructs, Items, Translations & Back Translations

Measures of core self-evaluations & personality variables

Generalized self- efficacy

Measures the extent to which one believes that they are capable to take needed actions in efforts to control life events
(Korean Sample 1 $\alpha = .81$, Korean Sample 2 $\alpha = .83$).

<i>English Item</i>	<i>Initial Korean Translation</i>	<i>First Back Translation</i>	<i>Second Back Translation</i>	<i>Final Korean Translation</i>
I am strong enough to overcome life's struggles.	인생의 어려움을 충분히 헤쳐나갈 수 있는 자신감은 확고한 편이다.	I believe that I have so strong confidence that I can overcome all obstacles throughout my life.	I am confident that I will be able to overcome all obstacles throughout in my life.	인생의 어려움을 헤쳐나갈 수 있는 자신감은 충분한 편이다.
At root, I am a weak person. (R)	내 스스로 판단하기에 나는 상당히 나약한 편이다.	I guess I am weak / fragile.	I guess I am weak.	원래 나는 좀 나약한 (정신적으로) 편이다.
I can handle the situations that life brings.	내 스스로 판단하기에 인생의 불확실성과 역경들을 무난히 해결해 나갈수 있는 능력을 가지고 있다고 생각한다.	I am confident that I am able to overcome all uncertainty and adversity circumstances in my life.	I am confident that I will be able to overcome all uncertainty and adversity in my life.	살면서 부딪히게 되는 여러가지 문제점들을 극복해 나갈 수 있다.
I usually feel that I am an unsuccessful person. (R)	성공은 내게 있어 언제나 멀리 있는 것 같다.	A success always seems to be far away from me.	Success always seems to be far away from me.	나는 성공하지 못한 사람이라고 주로 느끼는 편이다.
I often feel that there is nothing that I can do well. (R)	내가 잘 할 수 있는 일들은 아무것도 없는 것 같다.	There seems to be nothing I can do well.	There seems to be nothing I can do well.	내가 잘할 수 있는 일들은 아무것도 없다고 느끼는 편이다.
I feel competent to deal effectively with the real world.	내가 안고 있는 문제점들을 현명하게 처리할 수 있는 자신감을 자기고 있다.	I am confident of handling problems around me wisely.	I am confident of being to handle any problems well.	현실과 타협할 줄 아는 융통성은 어느 정도 있다.
I often feel like a failure. (R)	내 인생은 실패라는 생각이 든다.	I feel like that my life is a failure.	I feel as though my life is a failure.	낙오자라는 생각이 자주 든다.

I usually feel I can handle
the typical problems that
come up in life.

살아가면서 주변에서
일어나는 모든
문제점들을 무난히
해결할 수 있는
편이다.

I can say that I am the one who can
solve any problems on my own
through every day life.

I believe that I can solve any problems
on my own.

생활속에서 일어나는 일상의 문제점들을
잘 대처해 나갈 수 있다.

Note. (R) means that score of the item was reversed prior to the analysis.

Neuroticism

Measures the extent to which one is disposed to accept and seek change
(Korean Sample 1 $\alpha = .86$, Korean Sample 2 $\alpha = .86$).

<i>English Item</i>	<i>Initial Korean Translation</i>	<i>First Back Translation</i>	<i>Second Back Translation</i>	<i>Final Korean Translation</i>
My feelings are easily hurt.	쉽게 상처받고 감정에 취할때가 많은 편이다.	I get hurt and depressed easily.	I get hurt and depressed easily.	감정적으로 쉽게 상처를 받는 편이다.
I'm a nervous person.	상당히 신경질적인 편이다.	I am too nervous.	She loses her temper.	나는 상당히 신경질적이고 예민한 편이라고 할 수 있다.
I'm a worrier.	늘 걱정이 많은 편이다	I always have something to worry about.	He is never free form worry.	늘 걱정이 많다.
I am often tense or "high strung."	극도의 긴장감과 스트레스를 받고 있다는 생각이 든다.	I feel like I am under extreme tension and stress.	I feel as though I am under extreme tension and stress.	자주 극도의 긴장감을 느낄때가 있다.
I often suffer from "nerves."	종종 지나친 긴장감에 휩싸이곤 한다.	I feel too much stress.	I feel too much stress.	지나친 신경과민으로 고생하는 편이다.
I am often troubled by feelings of guilt.	심한 자책감에 시달릴때가 있다.	I often suffer from a guilty conscience.	I often suffer from a guilty.	죄책감으로 자주 괴로워하는 편이다.
My mood often goes up and down.	감정의 기복이 심한 편이다.	I experience ups and downs in my feeling very often.	I experience ups and downs in my feeling very often I	감정의 기복이 심한 편이다.
Sometimes I feel miserable for no reason.	때때로 아무런 이유없이 비참함을 느낄때가 있다.	I tend to experience a feeling of misery without particular reason.	I often feel that I am in sad without having a cause.	때때로 아무런 이유없이 비참함을 느낄때가 있다.
I am an irritable person.	나는 상당히 급한 성격의 소유자인 편이다.	I am an impatient person.	I am an impatient person.	나는 상당히 신경질적이다.
I often feel fed up.	이런 생활에 지쳤다.	I feel overwhelmed over this kind of situation.	I don't think I can stand this harsh situation any more.	지금의 위치에서 자주 벗어나고 싶다.
I often worry too long after an embarrassing experience.	예기치않은 상황을 겪고 난뒤에 상당히 걱정하는 편이다.	A shock usually last long resulted form an embarrassing experience.	The feeling of embarrassment tends to be remaining long after the situation.	당황스러운 경험을 하고 난뒤에는 상당히 오랜시간동안 걱정스럽고 긴장된다.

I often feel lonely.

때때로 외로움을 많이
느낀다.

I often feel lonely so much.

I sometimes feel lonely.

외로움을 자주 느끼곤 한다.

Self-esteem

Measures the extent to which one has a generally positive attitude toward himself or herself
(Korean Sample 1 $\alpha = .76$, Korean Sample 2 $\alpha = .77$).

<i>English Item</i>	<i>Initial Korean Translation</i>	<i>First Back Translation</i>	<i>Second Back Translation</i>	<i>Final Korean Translation</i>
I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others.	적어도 남들과 동일한 조건 하에서 비교해 볼때 내 스스로 상당히 가치있는 사람이라고 느낀다.	I feel I am a person of great value merit under the equal comparison with others.	I feel that I am as valuable as anyone else here.	적어도 남들과 동일한 조건하에서는 내 스스로 가치있는 사람이라고 생각한다.
I feel that I have a number to feel that I am a failure. (R)	내가 실패자라는 생각이 들게하는 여러가지 이유들이 많이 있다..	I am much more incapable over other people. I don't have any potential over other persons.	I am much more incapable over other people. I don't have any potential over other persons.	내가 실패자라는 생각이 들게끔 하는 일들이 많이 있다.
All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure. (R)	내 인생 전반적으로 나는 실패자라는 생각이 든다.	I have a feeling of failure over my life after all.	I have a feeling if failure over my life after all.	내 스스로 실패자라는 생각을 자주 하는 편이다.
I am able to do things as well as most other people.	다른 사람이 할 수 있는 것만큼 나 또한 뭐든지 할 수 있다.	I am able to achieve as mush as others.	I can achieve as much as others.	다른 사람들이 할 수 있는 것 만큼의 보통의 일은 나 또한 잘할 수 있다.
I feel that I do not have much to do be proud of. (R)	내 스스로에 대해 자긍심이나 긍지는 약한 편이다.	I am not confident of myself. I am not proud of myself in doing my job.	I have no self- confidence. (Self-esteem)	내 스스로에 대한 자부심 혹은 긍지는 없는 편이다.
I take a positive attitude toward myself.	내 스스로에 대해 언제나 상당히 긍정적인 사고를 하려고 노력하는 편이다.	I always try to be positive about my capability and myself.	I always try to be positive about my capabilities and myself.	언제나 스스로에 대해 긍정적으로 생각하는 편이다.
On the whole, I am satisfied with myself. (R)	내 스스로에 대해 대체적으로 만족한다.	I am satisfied with my capability over all.	I am satisfied with my capability over all.	대체적으로 내 자신에 대해 만족하는 편이다.

I wish I could have more respect for myself. (R)	내 스스로에 대해 지금보다 더 많은 공지와 자부심을 가질수 있었으면 좋겠다.	I wish I took more pride in capability and myself.	I wish I took more pride in myself than I have.	내 스스로에 대해 지금보다 좀 더 많은 자신감과 당당함을 가질 수 있었으면 좋겠다.
I certainly feel useless at times. (R)	때때로 내 스스로가 쓸모없는 사람이라는 생각이 든다.	I feel that I am useless once in a while.	I feel occasionally useless.	때때로 내가 쓸모없는 사람이라는 생각이 든다.
At times I think I am no good at all. (R)	가끔씩 내 스스로 아무런 곳에도 쓸모없는 무용지물이라는 생각이든다.	Sometimes I feel like that I am not helpful for anything.	Sometimes I feel as though I don't make any contributions to the organization.	가끔씩 내 스스로 아무런 곳에도 쓸모없는 무용지물이라는 생각이 들곤 한다.

Note. (R) means that score of the item was reversed prior to the analysis.

Positive affect

Measures the extent to which one is disposed to feel enthusiastic, active, and alert
(US Sample $\alpha = .92$, Korean Sample 1 $\alpha = .81$, Korean Sample 2 $\alpha = .80$).

<i>English Item</i>	<i>Initial Korean Translation</i>	<i>First Back Translation</i>	<i>Second Back Translation</i>	<i>Final Korean Translation</i>
Interested	재미있다.	Interesting / Funny	Funny and interesting	호기심이 많다.
Alert	기민하고 민첩하다	Agile	Agile	기민하고 민첩하다.
Excited	흥미롭다.	Interesting / Exciting	Interesting / Exciting	흥미롭다.
Inspired	고무되다.	Encouraged	Encouraged	고무되어 있다.
Strong	강하다.	Strong	Strong	강하다.
Determined	단호하다.	I was determined	I was determined	단호하다.
Attentive	주의가 깊은, 신중하다.	Be prudent	Be prudent	주의가 깊고 신중하다.
Enthusiastic	열정적이다.	Enthusiastic	Enthusiastic	열정적이다.
Active	활동적이다.	Active	Active	활동적이다.
Proud	자부심이 강하다.	Proud	Proud	자부심이 강하다.

Negative effect

Measures the extent to which one is disposed to feel a variety of adverse mood states that include anger, contempt disgust, fear, and nervousness

(US Sample $\alpha = .87$, Korean Sample 1 $\alpha = .88$, Korean Sample 2 $\alpha = .91$).

<i>English Item</i>	<i>Initial Korean Translation</i>	<i>First Back Translation</i>	<i>Second Back Translation</i>	<i>Final Korean Translation</i>
Irritable	화를 잘낸다.	She is impatient and gets irritated often.	She is impatient and gets irritated often.	안달, 초조하다.
Distressed	고민하고 괴로워하다.	Agony	Pain	걱정스럽다.
Ashamed	부끄럽고 창피해하다	I feel shamed	Ashamed	부끄럽다.
Upset	화나다. 기분이 상하다	Confused	Confused, embarrassed	기분 나쁘다.
Nervous	신경질적이다.	Nervous and peevish	Impatient, nervous	신경질적이다.
Guilty	죄책감을 느낀다.	Feel guilty	Guilty	죄책감을 느낀다.
Scared	무섭다.	I am scared to death	Scared	무섭다.
Hostile	적대적이다.	Be hostile	Hostile	적대적이다.
Jittery	신경과민. 예민하다	Impatient and uneasy	Anxious and impatient	예민하다.
Afraid	두려워하다.	Fear and afraid	Fear and afraid	두렵다.

Measures of the Organization's Environment

Perceived organizational support

Measures the extent to which one feels that the organization values his or her contributions, treats him or her favorably, and cares about his or her well being

(US Sample $\alpha = .89$, Korean Sample 1 $\alpha = .63$, Korean Sample 2 $\alpha = .78$).

<i>English Item</i>	<i>Initial Korean Translation</i>	<i>First Back Translation</i>	<i>Second Back Translation</i>	<i>Final Korean Translation</i>
The organization shows very little concern for me. (R)	조직의 일원으로서 나는 별로 의미있는 존재는 아닌 것 같다.	As a part of the organization, I feel like my role and existence is not recognized.	As a part member of the organization, I don't play any important role is not recognized.	조직의 일원으로서 나는 별로 의미있는 존재가 아닌 것 같다.
The organization is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability.	내가 가지고있는 잠재능력을 한껏 펼칠수 있는 기회를 제공해주기 위해 조직은 끊임없는 변화와 노력을 하고 있다.	The organization makes its effort and implements all possible change to give me an opportunity.	The organization explores all the possible ways to give the opportunity for me to broaden my horizons.	내가 가지고 있는 능력을 마음껏 발휘할 수 있는 기회를 주기위해 조직은 최선의 노력을 다하고 있다.
Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice me. (R)	주어진 임무를 완벽히 해내도 어느 누구도 나의 가치를 인정해주거나 알아주는 사람은 없다.	No one ever recognizes or acknowledges the complete achievement of the tasks given to me.	I am rarely recognized for my complete achievement of jobs given to me.	주어진 임무를 잘해도 조직은 나의 가치나 존재를 인정하지 않는 것 같다.
The organization takes pride in my accomplishments.	내 임무의 완성에 조직은 상당한 자부심과 긍지를 가지고 있다.	The organization takes a great deal of pride in my completion of a mission every time.	The organization takes a great deal of pride in my completion of a mission every time.	내가 이루어놓은 업무성과에 대해 조직은 자부심을 가지고 있는 것 같다.
The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.	조직은 나를 포함한 모든 구성원들의 업무에대한 만족감에 깊은 관심을 가지고 있다.	The organization is concerned about the each member's satisfaction with the tasks including me.	The organization shows a great deal of concern about the member's satisfaction with the jobs including myself.	구성원들의 직무 만족에 조직은 많은 관심을 가지고 있다.
The organization really cares about my well-being.	조직은 나를 포함한 모든 구성원들의 복지에 깊은 관심을 표명하고 있다.	The organization is concerned with the welfare of its members.	The organization is concerned with the welfare of its members.	조직은 내 복지에 많은 관심을 가지고 있다.

Note. (R) means that score of the item was reversed prior to the analysis.

Perception of co-workers

Measures the extent to which one feels that he or she has competent hardworking co-workers
(US Sample $\alpha = .62$, Korean Sample 1 $\alpha = .63$, Korean Sample 2 $\alpha = .66$).

<i>English Item</i>	<i>Initial Korean Translation</i>	<i>First Back Translation</i>	<i>Second Back Translation</i>	<i>Final Korean Translation</i>
I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of the people I work with. (R)	같이 일하는 주변 동료들의 무능력으로 인해 본래의 내 임무보다 훨씬 더 많은 일을 하게 된다.	I have to carry out extra works because of my incapable co-workers.	The incapability of my co-worker creates an extra job on me.	주변동료들의 무능력으로 인해 내 임무보다 더 많은 일들을 하고 있다.
There is too much bickering and fighting at work. (R)	이곳에서는 잦은 말다툼과 언쟁이 끊이질 않는다.	There is always an argument going on. A trouble never stops here.	There is always an argument going on.	이곳에서는 잦은 말다툼과 언쟁이 끊이질 않는다.
I enjoy my co-workers.	지금 내 주변의 동료들과 함께 일할수 있어 참 행복하다.	I am so happy to work with my current co-workers.	I am happy to work with my current colleagues.	지금 동료들과 같이 일하는 것이 즐겁다.
I like the people I work with.	지금 내 주변에 있는 사람들을 참 좋아한다.	I like the people around me so much.	I am very fond of colleague.	같이 일하는 사람들이 좋다.

Note. (R) means that score of the item was reversed prior to the analysis.

Measures of the change implementation process

Participation

Measures the extent to which one feels that he or she had input and participated in the change process
(US Sample $\alpha = .79$, Korean Sample 1 $\alpha = .73$, Korean Sample 2 $\alpha = .63$).

<i>English Item</i>	<i>Initial Korean Translation</i>	<i>First Back Translation</i>	<i>Second Back Translation</i>	<i>Final Korean Translation</i>
I was able to ask questions about this change.	이번 변화에 대해 궁금한 것들을 누구에게든지 물어볼 수 있다.	I can ask anyone concerned with it about whatever it is on this change.	All questions can be asked anybody concerned this change.	지금 추진되고 있는 조직의 변화에 대해 궁금한 것들은 누구에게든지 물어볼 수 있다.
I was able to participate in the implementation of this change.	이번 변화에 관한 중요한 의사결정에 참여할 수 있는 기회가 있다.	The opportunities to take part in an important decision-making process on the change will be given.	The opportunities to take part in the important decision-making process on the change will be given.	이번 변화를 계획하고, 실행하는데 참여할 수 있는 기회가 있었다.
I had some control over the changes that were proposed.	여러가지 변화되는 사안들의 대부분이 내가 처리할 수 있는 능력을 크게 벗어나지는 않는다.	The various issues that should be handled by me don't seem to be exceed my capability.	The changing situation is within my ability to handle.	지금의 변화를 어느 정도 통제할 수 있는 능력을 가지고 있다.
If I wanted to, I could have had input into the decisions being made about our future programs.	내가 원한다면 얼마든지 조직의 변화수용에 관한 의사결정에 큰 영향력을 행사할 수 있다.	As long as I want, I might have a great influence on the decision-making process of organization's acceptance of the change.	If I want, I might have a great influence on the decision-making process of organization's acceptance of the change.	내가 원하기만 한다면 얼마든지 이번 변화의 계획 단계나 의사결정과정에 내 의견을 반영할 수 있었다.

Quality of information

Measures the extent to which one feels that he or she had useful and meaningful information throughout the change process
(US Sample $\alpha = .83$, Korean Sample 1 $\alpha = .81$, Korean Sample 2 $\alpha = .74$).

<i>English Item</i>	<i>Initial Korean Translation</i>	<i>First Back Translation</i>	<i>Second Back Translation</i>	<i>Final Korean Translation</i>
The information I received about this change was timely.	이번 변화에 관련되어 내가 받은 정보들과 여러가지 사안들을 상당히 시기적절한 것으로 판단된다.	The information and ideas that I have received regarding this change is considered to be a good timing in term of the situation.	The information that I have received regarding this change is considered to be a good timing in term of the situation.	이번 변화와 관련된 진행사항이나 정보들은 언제나 시기 적절하게 얻고 있다.
The information I received about this change has adequately answered my questions.	이번 변화와 관련된 궁금한 사항들에 대해 정확한 정보와 해답을 알 수 있다.	As a result of this change, I can always get the exact information and solution to my curiosity.	As a result of this change, I will be able to always get the exact information and solution I need.	이번 변화에 대해 지금까지 내가 알게된 정보들은 궁금했던 문제점들에 대한 충분한 답이 되었다.
The information I received about this change helped me understand the change.	이번 변화와 관련되어 내가 알게된 여러가지 정보들은 내가 이번 변화를 이해하는데 큰 도움이 되었다.	The ideas/problems that I have faced during the change help me understand the change correctly.	The issues that I have faced during the change have helped me understand the change better.	이번 변화와 관련되어 내가 받은 정보들은 변화를 이해하는데 큰 도움이 되었다.

Measures of Readiness for Change Factors

Appropriateness

Measures the extent to which one feels that the change effort was legitimate and appropriate for the organization to meet its objectives
(US Sample $\alpha = .93$, Korean Sample 1 $\alpha = .88$, Korean Sample 2 $\alpha = .76$).

<i>English Item</i>	<i>Initial Korean Translation</i>	<i>First Back Translation</i>	<i>Second Back Translation</i>	<i>Final Korean Translation</i>
It doesn't make much sense for us to initiate this change. (R)	지금의 변화는 별 의미가 없는 것 같다.	This change doesn't seem to make any difference	This change doesn't seem to make any difference.	이번 변화를 시도하는 것 자체가 이해가 되지 않는다.
I think that the organization will benefit from this change.	이번 변화가 조직에게 가져다 줄 이득은 상당할 것이다.	The change will bring a substantial benefit to the team	The benefit of this transition will be substantial/considerable	이번 변화로 조직은 이익을 얻게 될 것이다.
This change makes my job easier.	이번 변화로 내가 맡고 있는 임무 또한 한결 쉬워질 것이다.	This change will reduce my workload to the great degree/considerably.	A change this time will make my task much easier.	이번 변화로 내가 맡고 있는 임무가 쉬워질 것이다.
This change will improve our organization's overall efficiency.	이번 변화는 전반적으로 조직의 효율성을 크게 향상시킬 것으로 기대된다.	This change is expected to enhance/increase the efficiency of the team considerably.	This change is expected to enhance and increase the efficiency of the team considerably/significantly.	이번 변화는 전반적으로 조직의 효율성을 크게 향상시킬 것으로 기대된다.
There are legitimate reasons for us to make this change.	이번 변화를 반드시 받아들여야만 하는 타당한 이유가 있다.	We have reasonable reasons to accept this change.	It is reasonable to accept this change.	이번 변화가 여군 조직을 위해서 반드시 이루어져야만 하는 타당한 이유가 있다.
When this change is implemented, I don't believe there is anything for me to gain. (R)	이번 변화가 이루어지고 난 뒤에도 나에게 돌아올 이익은 그다지 크지 않을 것 같다.	The benefit is not expected big enough to me even after this change.	In my opinion, the benefit of this change is not sufficient enough to warrant it.	변화가 이루어지고 난 뒤 개인적으로 내가 얻게 되는 것은 아무것도 없다.
There are a number of rational reasons for this change to be made.	반드시 이번 변화가 필요한 논리적으로 합당한 이유들이 있다.	We have logically legitimate reasons for the necessity of this change.	We have several legitimate reasons indicating, demonstrating, or supporting the necessity of this change	이번 변화가 반드시 이루어져야만 하는 논리적인 이유들이 있다.

<i>English Item</i>	<i>Initial Korean Translation</i>	<i>First Back Translation</i>	<i>Second Back Translation</i>	<i>Final Korean Translation</i>
In the long run, I feel it will be worthwhile for me if the organization adopts this change.	결론적으로 조직의 이번 변화의 수용은 내게도 상당히 값지고 의미있는 일이 될 것이다.	In conclusion, the fact of the team's acceptance of this change is of great value and meaningful to me at the same time.	I think that if the team accepts this change, the benefit will be both valuable and meaningful.	장기적인 안목에서 볼때 조직이 이번 변화를 받아들이는 것은 상당히 가치있는 일이 될 것이다.
The time we are spending on this change should be spent on something else. (R)	이번 변화를 위해 소모되었던 시간들이 차라리 다른 부분에 쓰여졌어야만 한다고 생각한다.	I believe that the time spent on this change should have been invested to something else instead.	I believe that the time spent to affect this change should have been invested in something else instead.	이번 변화를 위해 투자되었던 시간들은 차라리 다른 중요한 문제해결을 위해 쓰여졌어야만 한다고 생각한다.
This change matches the priorities of our organization.	이번 변화는 조직이 추구하는 가장 최상의 목표와 일치한다고 볼 수 있다.	The change is said to correspond to the top and ultimate objective of the team.	The changes is said to correspond to the team's ultimate objective, the one having top priority.	이번 변화는 조직이 추구하는 가장 최상의 목표와 일치한다고 생각한다.

Note. (R) means that score of the item was reversed prior to the analysis.

Change- efficacy

Measures the extent to which one feels that he or she has the skills and is able to execute the tasks and activities that are associated with the implementation of the prospective change
(US Sample $\alpha = .78$, Korean Sample 1 $\alpha = .68$, Korean sample 2 $\alpha = .62$).

<i>English Item</i>	<i>Initial Korean Translation</i>	<i>First Back Translation</i>	<i>Second Back Translation</i>	<i>Final Korean Translation</i>
I do not anticipate any problems adjusting to the work I will have when this change is adopted.	이번 변화로 바뀌어진 새로운 환경으로 인해 내가 받아들여야 할 문제가 많을거라고는 생각하지 않는다.	I don't think I will have to accept many problems resulting from the new environment caused by this change.	I don't think that I will have to face many problems resulting from the new environment caused by this change.	이번 변화가 이루어지고 난 뒤 내가 새롭게 적응해야 할 임무에는 문제점이 없을 것 같다.
When we implement this change, I feel I can handle it with ease.	이번 변화가 이루어지고 난 뒤 새로운 환경에 적응하는 것은 그다지 어렵지 않다.	It is not likely so difficult to adjust oneself to a new environment caused by this change.	I can probably adjust to the new environment easily.	이번 변화가 진행되는 과정 중 내가 하는일에 큰 변화는 없었다.
When I set my mind to it, I can learn everything that will be required when this change is adopted.	이번 변화에서 요구되는 필요한 모든 것들을 받아들일 마음의 준비가 다 되어있다.	I am ready to accept all the problems to be required to the change.	I am ready to accept all the problems to be required to the change.	마음만 먹으면 변화가 이루어 지고 난 뒤에도 내가 필요한 새로운 임무를 쉽게 익힐 수 있다.
There are some tasks that will be required when we change I don't think I can do well (R).	내가 할 수 있는 것 이상의 임무들이 이번 변화속에는 포함되어 있는 것 같다.	This change seems to include tasks that exceed my capability.	This change appears to include tasks that are beyond my capability.	변화로 인해 필연적으로 발생하게 될 새로운 임무들을 잘 해나갈 것 같지 않다.
I have the skills that are needed to make this change work.	이번 변화를 수용하는데 필요한 몇 가지 요구사항들을 수행할 수 있는 능력들을 나는 가지고 있다.	I am qualified to meet the requirements that are necessary for accepting the change,	I am confident of my capability to meet the requirements expected of this change.	이번 변화가 진행되는 과정중에는 내 능력이 요구되어지거나 나를 필요로하는 부분들이 있었다.

My past experience makes my confidence that I will be able to perform successfully after this change is made.

지난 경험에 비추어 볼 때, 이번 변화가 완성되고 난 뒤에는 내게 주어진 임무를 수행하는데는 큰 어려움은 없을 것 같다.

Based on the past experience, it is not likely that I have any problems carrying out tasks given to me after a completion of this change.

Based on past experience, it is not likely that I will have any problems implementing the tasks given to me.

나의 지난 경험에 비추어볼 때, 이번 변화가 완성되고 난 뒤에도 새로운 임무를 수행할 자신감은 충분한 편이다.

Note. (R) means that score of the item was reversed prior to the analysis. .

Personal valence

Measures the extent to which one feels that he or she will benefit from the implementation of the prospective change
(US Sample $\alpha = .64$, Korean Sample 1 $\alpha = .56$, Korean Sample 2 $\alpha = .70$).

<i>English Item</i>	<i>Initial Korean Translation</i>	<i>First Back Translation</i>	<i>Second Back Translation</i>	<i>Final Korean Translation</i>
I am worried I will lose some of my status in the organization when this change is implemented. (R)	변화가 이루어지고 난 뒤에 아마도 조직에서 내 자리가 없어질 것 같은 두려움에 사로잡혀 있다.	I am worried about losing my position probably in the group.	I am afraid of losing my position as a result of the change.	변화가 이루어지고 난 뒤 조직에서 내가 차지하는 위치가 지금보다 약해질 것 같다.
This change will disrupt many of the personal relationships I have developed. (R)	이번 변화로 인해 그 동안 내가 이루어놓은 인간관계가 상당한 영향을 받을 것으로 여겨진다.	This change will bring about a considerable influence on the relationship that I have achieved.	This change will have a considerable influence on the relationship that I have built.	이번 변화로 인해 그 동안 내가 이루어놓은 대인 관계는 영향을 받을 것이다.
My future in this job will be limited because of this change.	이번 변화로 인해 앞으로 내 임무에 상당히 많은 제약이 따를 것 같다.	I think that the change will result in the considerable limitations on my job.	I expect that the change will result in considerable limitations in my ability to carry out my job.	이번 변화로 인해 앞으로 내 임무는 다소 제한될 것 같다.
After this change, I expect to be recognized more for the work I do.	앞으로 더 많은 일들이 내게 주어질 것으로 기대된다.	It is expected that more mission will be given to me.	It is expected that more tasks will be given to me.	변화가 이루어지고 난 뒤 내가 하는 일은 지금보다 더 인정받을 거라고 생각한다.
This change makes it easier for me to feel like I'm part of the [organization's name] "team."	이번 변화가 이루어지고 난 뒤에는 아마도 조직의 구성원으로 내가 느끼는 소속감이나 일체감은 한결 더 강해질 것 같다.	After completion of this change, as a part of the group I will have stronger feeling of belongingness to the group and coherence between the members.	This change will enhance feeling if belonging that each member if the group feels to the group as a part of it.	이번 변화가 이루어지고 난 뒤에는 아마도 조직의 구성원으로 내가 느끼는 소속감은 한결 더 강해질 것 같다.
This change gives me the ability to make decisions about how my work is done.	이번 변화를 통해 나는 중요한 의사결정이 요구될 때에는 언제든지 확고한 내 의사표현을 할 수 있는 자신감을 얻게 되었다.	I got to have confidence of giving my firm opinion in a decision-making process whenever needed.	As a result of this change, I became more confident that my opinion will be taken into account in the further decision-making process.	이번 변화가 이루어지고 난 뒤에는 내게 주어진 임무를 수행하는 데 더 강한 결단력을 가질 수 있을 것 같다.

Note. (R) means that score of the item was reversed prior to the analysis.

Measures of Attitudinal Outcomes

Job satisfaction

Measures the extent to which one views his or her job positively
(US Sample $\alpha = .85$, Korean Sample 1 $\alpha = .74$, Korean Sample 2 $\alpha = .75$).

<i>English Item</i>	<i>Initial Korean Translation</i>	<i>First Back Translation</i>	<i>Second Back Translation</i>	<i>Final Korean Translation</i>
All in all, I am satisfied with my job.	대체적으로 나는 지금의 내 직업에 만족한다.	Over all, I am satisfied with my current job.	Over all, I am satisfied with my current job.	대체적으로 지금 내 직업에 만족하는 편이다.
In general, I don't like my job. (R)	지금의 내 직업에 별 큰 흥미를 느끼지 못하고 있다.	I am not interested in my current job.	I don't find my job particularly full filling.	대체적으로 내가 지금 하고 있는 일이 싫다.
In general, I like working here.	여기서 일할수 있어 즐겁다.	Over all, I am pleased to work here.	The organization I belong to is important.	여기서 일하는 것이 즐겁다.

Note. (R) means that score of the item was reversed prior to the analysis.

Affective commitment

Measures the extent to which one is emotionally attached to the organization
(US Sample $\alpha = .82$, Korean Sample 1 $\alpha = .75$, Korean Sample 2 $\alpha = .79$).

<i>English Item</i>	<i>Initial Korean Translation</i>	<i>First Back Translation</i>	<i>Second Back Translation</i>	<i>Final Korean Translation</i>
I could be very happy to spend my career with this organization.	내 시간의 대부분들을 이곳에서 보낼수 있어 상당히 기쁘고 만족한다.	I am so happy and satisfied that I can spend most of my time here.	I am so happy and satisfied with my job that I spend most of my time in here.	내 일생동안 여기에서 일할수만 있다면 행복할 것 같다.
I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	내 조직이 안고 있는 문제점들이 곧 나의 고민이고 풀어가야 할 숙제라고 생각한다.	I believe that the organizations are my own and I am the one who will have to solve them.	I believe that the organization's problems are my own and that I am the one who will have to solve them.	조직의 문제는 곧 내 자신의 문제라고 생각한다.
I do not feel like part of the family at my organization. (R)	이곳은 웬지 나에게 낯설다.	This area is new/unknown to me. The atmosphere here is unfamiliar to me.	This area is unfamiliar with me.	조직의 일원으로서 식구 같은 소속감은 느끼지 못하고 있다.
I do not feel emotionally attached to this organization. (R)	조직에 대한 소속감이 그리 크지않다.	I don't have a strong sense of belonging to my current organization.	I don't feel strong sense of belonging to my current organization.	조직에대한 애대심은 없는 편이다.
This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	내 개인적으로 조직이 내게 주는 의미는 정말로 크고 소중한 것이다.	The organization is so significant and valuable to me.	The organization is so significant and valuable to me.	조직이 내게 주는 의미는 중요하다.
I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (R)	조직의 구성원으로 강한 소속감이나 일체감을 느끼지 못하고 있다.	I neither have a strong feeling of belonging nor a feeling of coherence.	I have neither strong feeling of belonging nor unity	조직 구성원으로서 강한 소속감은 느끼지 못하고 있다.

Note. (R) means that score of the item was reversed prior to the analysis.

Appendix B

Final copy of Korean Questioannire



INDIVIDUALS' PERCEPTIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE QUESTIONNAIRE



Air Force Institute of Technology

Individuals' perceptions of organizational for change survey

- ❖ 본 설문은 조직의 변화 (예. 구조개편)와 관련한 조직 구성원들의 인식, 수용자세, 적응도 및 기타 조직 변화의 진행 과정에 영향을 미칠 수 있는 여러가지 변이들을 측정하고자 하는 목적에서 작성되었습니다. 또한 궁극적으로는 조직 변화의 진행 과정이 어떠한 양상으로 전개될 때 가장 효율적으로, 조직 구성원들의 변화에대한 부담감을 최소화시키면서 조직이 원하는 모습으로 거듭날 수 있는가에 대한 대안을 제시해주는 데 큰 밑거름이 될 것입니다.
따라서, 여러분이 작성하게 될 이 설문은 [조직의 변화]에 대한 깊이있는 이해와 나아가서는 지금 보다 더 나은 모습의 조직의 변화를 계획, 발전시키는데 소중한 자료로 활용 될 것입니다.
- ❖ 설문지는 자료의 분석이외에 어떠한 목적으로도 사용되지 않을 것이며, 또한 무기명으로 작성됨으로 개인적으로 어떠한 피해나 불이익은 발생하지 않을 것을 약속드립니다.

주의사항

- 자신의 의견과 경험을 바탕으로 질문에 답해 주십시오.
- 지시사항을 잘 읽고 각 질문에 대한 답(번호)은 반드시 하나만 선택해 주십시오.
- 질문에 대한 답의 표기는 아래 제시된 예제를 참고해서 작성해 주십시오.
- 답을 수정하고자 하는 경우, 반드시 기존 표기를 지운 뒤 새로운 답(번호)을 선택해 주십시오

표기 샘플

맞음



틀림



여러분이 작성해주신 본 설문은 현재 조직의 변화 과정이 진행중인 미 공군의 특정 부대를 대상으로 진행되었던 설문자료와 함께 금번 프로젝트를 완성하는데 가장 의미있고 소중한 자료가 될 것임을 다시 한번 말씀드립니다.

PART I

조직구조의 변화에 대한 적응도 측정

Part1 은 현재 진행중인 여군학교 폐지 및 그에따른 남, 녀 통합교육에 대한 여러분의 의견을 알아보기 위한 설문입니다. 제시된 7 가지 응답중에서(매우 반대에서 매우 찬성의 순으로 나열됨) 본인의 생각과 일치하는 항목에 답해 주십시오.

①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
매우 반대 (전혀그렇지 않다)	반 대	약간 반대	잘 모르겠음 (중립)	약간 찬성	찬 성	매우 찬성 (항상 그렇다)
1.	이번 변화로 조직은 이익을 얻게 될 것이다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
2.	이번 변화가 우리 조직을 위해서 반드시 이루어져야만 하는 타당한 이유가 있다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
3.	변화가 이루어지고 난 뒤 내가 하는 일은 지금보다 더 인정받을 거라고 기대된다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
4.	조직의 간부들은 이번 변화가 우리에게 정말로 중요한 것임을 강조하고 있다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
5.	이번 변화와 관련된 진행사항이나 정보들은 언제나 시기 적절하게 얻고 있다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
6.	이번 변화로 인해 그 동안 내가 이루어놓은 대인 관계는 영향을 받을것 같다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
7.	이번 변화와 관련되어 내가 받은 정보들은 이번 변화를 이해하는데 큰 도움이 되었다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
8.	조직의 최고 경영진(간부)은 지금 추진되고 있는 이번 변화를 위해 최선의 노력을 다하고 있다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
9.	마음만 먹으면 변화가 이루어지고 난 뒤에도 내게 필요한 새로운 임무를 쉽게 익힐 수 있다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
10.	조직의 간부들 또한 모든 사람들에게 이번 변화를 긍정적으로 받아들이 것을 권유하고 있다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
11.	이번 변화로 인해 소모되었던 시간들이 차라리 다른 부분에 쓰여졌어야만 한다고 생각한다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		

①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
매우 반대 (전혀 그렇지 않다)	반 대	약간 반대	잘 모르겠음 (중립)	약간 찬성	찬 성	매우 찬성 (항상 그렇다)
12.	이번 변화가 반드시 이루어져야만 하는 논리적인 이유들이 있다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
13.	이번 변화는 우리 조직이 추구하는 가장 최상의 목표와 일치한다고 할 수 있다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
14.	내가 원하기만 한다면 얼마든지 이번 변화의 계획 단계나 의사결정 과정에 내 의견을 반영할 수 있었다(그런 기회가 주어졌다)			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
15.	이번 변화를 겪고난 뒤에는 내게 주어진 임무를 수행하는데 강한 결단력을 가질 수 있을 것 같다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
16.	이번 변화에 대해 지금까지 내가 알게 된 정보들은 내가 궁금해 하고 있었던 문제들에 대한 충분한 답이 되었다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
17.	이번 변화가 진행되는 과정 중에는 내 능력이 요구 되어지거나 나를 필요로 하는 부분들이 있다.(있었다)			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
18.	이번 변화는 전반적으로 조직의 효율성을 크게 향상시킬 것으로 기대된다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
19.	지금 추진되고 있는 조직의 변화에 대해 궁금한 것들은 누구에게든지 물어볼 수 있다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
20.	이러한 변화를 시도하는 것 자체가 이해가 되지 않는다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
21.	이번 변화가 이루어지고 난 뒤 내가 새롭게 적응해야 할 임무에는 문제점이 없을 것 같다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
22.	이번 변화로 인해 앞으로 내 임무는 다소 제한될 것 같다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
23.	이번 변화가 진행되는 과정 중 나의 임무에는 큰 변화가 없다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
24.	지금의 변화를 어느 정도 통제할 수 있는 능력을 나는 가지고 있다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
25.	이번 변화를 계획하고, 실행하는 데 참여할 수 있는 기회가 있었다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦

①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
매우 반대 (전혀그렇지 않다)	반 대	약간 반대	잘 모르겠음 (중립)	약간 찬성	찬 성	매우 찬성 (항상 그렇다)
26.	변화가 이루어지고 난 뒤 조직에서 내가 차지하는 위치가 지금보다 약해질 것 같다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
27.	이번 변화로 내가 맡고 있는 임무가 쉬워질 것이다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
28.	이번 변화가 이루어지고 난 뒤에는 아마도 조직의 구성원으로 내가 느끼는 소속감은 한결 더 강해질 것 같다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
29.	나의 지난 경험에 비추어 보아, 이번 변화가 완성되고 난 뒤 내게 주어진 새로운 임무를 수행할 자신감은 충분한 편이다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
30.	조직의 변화가 이루어지고 난 뒤 개인적으로 내가 얻게 되는 것은 아무것도 없는 것 같다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
31.	조직을 둘러싼 주변 여건들과 지금까지 진행된 여러가지 상황들로 볼 때 이번 변화는 어느 정도 예견된 것이었다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
32.	변화로 인해 필연적으로 발생하게 될 새로운 임무들을 잘 해나갈 것 같지 않다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
33.	조직의 최고층의 간부나 지도자들이 이번 변화를 원치 않음에도 불구하고 우리는 변화를 위해 많은 시간을 보내고 있다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
34.	조직의 모든 간부들은 이번 변화를 위해 최선의 노력을 다하고 있다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
35.	장기적인 안목에서 볼 때 조직이 이번 변화를 받아 들이는 것은 상당히 가치있는 일이 될 것이다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦

PART II

조직의 변화 그리고 직업에 대한 만족도

PART II 는 조직 구성원으로서 여러분이 생각하고 있는 조직의 변화와 직업에 대한 만족도를 알아보기 위한 설문입니다. 제시된 7 가지 응답중에서(매우 반대에서 매우 찬성의 순으로 나열됨) 본인의 생각과 일치하는 항목에 답해주십시오

① 매우 반대 (전혀 그렇지 않다)	② 반 대	③ 약간 반대	④ 잘 모르겠음	⑤ 약간 찬성	⑥ 찬 성	⑦ 매우 찬성 (항상 그렇다)
36. 조직에서 일어나고 있는 일에 대해 지금보다 더 많은 정보를 알게 된다면 내 임무수행 능력은 향상될 것이다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
37. 대체적으로 지금 내 직업에 만족하는 편이다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
38. 구성원들의 직무 만족에 조직은 많은 관심을 가지고 있다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
39. 내가 가지고 있는 능력을 마음껏 발휘할 수 있는 기회를 제공해 주기 위해 조직은 최선의 노력을 다하고 있다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
40. 내 마음대로 할 수 있다면,내게 중요한 문제들에 관해 상급자나 조직의 간부가 참견하지 않게 하고 싶다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
41. 지금 동료들과 같이 일하는 것이 즐겁다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
42. 상급자가 나의 장래에 대해 참견하고 관심을 갖는것에 대해 별로 개의치 않는다				① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
43. 내가 몸 담고 있는 이 조직에서 일어나고 있는 여러가지 일들에 대해 충분한 정보를 가지고 있다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
44. 조직이 내게 주는 의미는 소중한 것이다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
45. 조직원들이 이번 변화에 대해 영향력을 행사할 수 있는 기회는 없는것 같다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		

①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
매우 반대 (전혀 그렇지 않다)	반 대	약간 반대	잘 모르겠음	약간 찬성	찬 성	매우 찬성 (항상 그렇다)
46.	조직의 일원으로 나는 별로 의미있는 존재가 아닌 것 같다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
47.	내가 이루어놓은 업무성과에 대해 조직은 자부심을 가지고 있는 것 같다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
48.	조직에서 일어나고 있는 일들에 대해 알고 있는 사람들조차도 나와 정보를 공유하려 하지 않는다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
49.	주변 동료들의 무능력으로 인해 내 임무보다 더 많은 일을 하고 있다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
50.	주어진 임무를 잘해도 조직은 나의 가치나 존재를 인정하지 않는 것 같다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
51.	이번 변화는 상부의 지시라기 보다는 조직구성원들에 의해 주도적으로 진행되고 있다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
52.	이곳에서는 잦은 말다툼과 언쟁이 끊이지 않는다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
53.	대체적으로 내가 하고 있는 일이 싫다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
54.	어는 누구도 나에게 주변에서 일어나고 있는 일에 대해 말해주지 않는 것 같다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
55.	조직의 구성으로서 강한 소속감은 느끼지 못하고 있다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
56.	조직의 문제는 곧 내 문제라고 생각한다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
57.	이번 변화는 조직원들에게 거부감을 불러 일으키는 것 같다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
58.	같이 일하는 사람들이 좋다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
59.	조직에 대한 애사심(애착심)은 없는 편이다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
60.	내 일생동안 여기에서 일할수만 있다면 행복할 것 같다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
61.	조직의 최고 경영진(지도자)의 임무수행 정도를 평가하고 감시할 수 있었으면 좋겠다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		
62.	조직은 내 복지에 관심을 가지고 있다.			① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦		

①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
매우 반대 (전혀 그렇지 않다)	반 대	약간 반대	잘 모르겠음	약간 찬성	찬 성	매우 찬성 (항상 그렇다)
63.	비록 내가 상급자들의 행동을 일일이 감시할 수는 없지만 내게 중요한 문제들을 편안한 마음으로 상의할 수 있다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
64.	변화가 이루어지고 난 뒤에는 결국 조직의 구성원들은 손해를 보게될 것 같다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
65.	여기서 일하는 것이 즐겁다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
66.	지금 조직이 겪고 있는 여러가지 변화들은 일시적인 현상일 뿐이다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
67.	조직의 일원으로서 식구 같은 소속감은 느끼지 못한다.			①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦

PART III

변화에 대한 인식과 태도

PARTIII 는 조직의 변화에 대해 개인의 기본 성향이 어떠한 모습으로 구현되는지, 그 상관 관계는 어느정도 인지를 알아보기 위한 설문입니다. 제시된 5 가지 응답중에서 (‘아니다’ 에서 ‘늘 그러는편이다’ 순으로 나열됨) 본인의 생각과 일치하는 항목에 답해주십시오

※구체적인 문제에 대한 개인의 반응정도를 알아보기 보다는 일반적으로 자기 주변에서 일어나는 일들에 대한 기본 성향을 알아보기 위한 것입니다.

	①	②	③	④	⑤
	매우 반대 (전혀 그렇지 않다)	반 대	잘 모르겠음	찬 성	매우 찬성 (항상 그렇다)
68. 내 스스로에 대한 자부심 혹은 긍지는 없는 편이다.				① ②	③ ④ ⑤
69. 하겠다는 의지만 있으면 무슨일이든지 하는 편이다.				① ②	③ ④ ⑤
70. 인생의 어려움을 헤쳐나갈 수 있는 자신감은 충만한 편이다.				① ②	③ ④ ⑤
71. 내삶의 주인공은 바로 나다.				① ②	③ ④ ⑤
72. 원래 나는 좀 나약한(정신적으로)편이다.				① ②	③ ④ ⑤
73. 신경이 무척 예민한 편이다.				① ②	③ ④ ⑤
74. 당황스러운 경험을 하고 난뒤에는 상당히 오랜 시간동안 걱정스럽고 긴장된다.				① ②	③ ④ ⑤
75. 내 주변에서 일어나는 모든 문제점들을 극복해 나갈 자신감이 충만하다.				① ②	③ ④ ⑤
76. 내게 주어진 임무는 완벽하게 해내는 편이다.				① ②	③ ④ ⑤
77. 개인적인 이익을 대부분의 경우 먼저 챙기는 편이다.				① ②	③ ④ ⑤
78. 내스스로에 대해 지금보다 좀 더 많은 자신감과 당당함을 가질 수 있었으면 좋겠다.				① ②	③ ④ ⑤

	①	②	③	④	⑤
	매우 반대 (전혀 그렇지 않다)	반 대	잘 모르겠음	찬 성	매우 찬성 (항상 그렇다)
79. 내가 지금 안고 있는 문제점들은 해결해 나갈만한 능력이 없는 것 같다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤	
80. 내가 가지고 있는 능력이 얼마나 되는지 의심스러울 때가 있다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤	
81. 때때로 내가 쓸모없는 사람이라는 생각이 든다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤	
82. 감정적으로 쉽게 상처를 받는 편이다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤	
83. 무슨일인가를 계획했을 때 대부분 내가 원하는 대로 될 것이라고 확신하는 편이다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤	
84. 대체적으로 내 자신에 대해 만족한다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤	
85. 언제나 내 스스로에 대해 긍정적으로 생각하는 편이다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤	
86. 상당히 신경질적이다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤	
87. 내게 주어진 삶을 주도적으로 끌고 나가는 편이다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤	
88. 실패를 겪고난 뒤 내 스스로 쓸모없는 사람이라는 생각이 든다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤	
89. 내가 예견했던 일이 실제로 일어나는 경험을 자주 한다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤	
90. 앞으로 내 주변에서 일어나는 모든 일들의 대부분은 내 능력여하에 달려있다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤	
91. 이 조직에서 내가 바라는 성공은 거두기 힘들것 같다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤	
92. 때때로 아무런 이유없이 비참함을 느낄때가 있다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤	
93. 내 인생에 있어 중요한 모든 것들을 바꿀수 있을 정도의 능력이 내게는 없는것 같다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤	
94. 현실과 타협할 줄 아는 융통성은 어느 정도 있다.				① ② ③ ④ ⑤	

①	②	③	④	⑤	
매우 반대 (전혀 그렇지 않다)	반 대	잘 모르겠음	찬 성	매우 찬성 (항상 그렇다)	
95. 나는 성공하지 못한 사람이라고 주로 느끼는 편이다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
96. 대체적으로 내 스스로에 대해 만족하는 편이다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
97. 감정의 기복이 심한 편이다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
98. 지나친 신경과민으로 고생하는 편이다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
99. 내 스스로 실패자라는 생각을 자주 하는 편이다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
100. 내가 잘 할 수 있는 일들을 아무것도 없다고 느낄때가 자주 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
101. 내 삶은 당연히 성공할 것임을 확신한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
102. 늘 걱정이 많다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
103. 생활속에서 일어나는 일상의 문제점들을 잘 대처해 나갈 수 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
104. 적어도 남들과 동일한 조건하에서는 내 스스로 가치있는 사람이라고 생각한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
105. 내가 원하는 것을 얻었을 때, 그건 단지 행운일 뿐이다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
106. 앞으로 이 조직의 지도자가 될 수 있을지의 여부는 대부분 내 능력여하에 달려있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
107. 내가 실패자라는 생각이 들게끔 하는 일들이 많이 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
108. 사람들이 할 수 있는 것 만큼의 보통의 일은 나 또한 무리없이 할 수 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
109. 간혹 내가 해야되는 업무 자체가 내 통제밖인 경우가 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
110. 때때로 내 인생의 주인공은 내가 아니라는 생각이 든다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
111. 살면서 부딪히게 되는 여러가지 문제점들을 극복해 나갈 수 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

①	②	③	④	⑤	
매우 반대 (전혀 그렇지 않다)	반 대	잘 모르겠음	찬 성	매우 찬성 (항상 그렇다)	
112. 자주 낙오자라는 생각이 든다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
113. 내게는 모든 것들이 불안하고 희망이 없어 보인다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
114. 외로움을 자주 느끼곤 한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
115. 가끔씩 내 스스로 아무런 곳에도 쓸모없는 무용지물이라는 생각이 들곤한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
116. 자주 지금의 위치에서 벗어나고 싶을 때가 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
117. 내가 원하는 것을 얻게된 경우 그것은 대부분 내가 노력했기 때문이다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
118. 미래에 내게 어떤 일이 일어날지 대부분 예측할 수 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
119. 자주 죄책감으로 괴로워 한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
120. 내게 일어나는 일들 중 내가 통제할 수 있들은 거의없다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
121. 때때로 깊은 우울감을 느끼곤 한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
122. 무언가를 목표로 할 때, 내가 노력만 한다면 주로 성취하는 편이다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
123. 내 삶이 가져다주는 문제점에 대해 속수무책인 기분이 들때가 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
124. 자주 극도의 긴장감을 느낄때가 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

다음에 제시된 여러 가지 단어들은 여러분들이 평상시 주변 사물이나 본인 스스로에 대해 혹은 임무를 처리하는 과정에서 느끼는 자신의 감정과 기분에 대한 반응 정도를 알아보기 위한 것입니다. 지문을 잘 읽고 대체적으로 여러분이 일상생활에서 느끼는 감정과 일치하는 부분에 표시해 주십시오.
Part I, Part II 와는 달리 5 개의 스케일 (전혀 느끼지 못한다~ 거의 대부분)로 구성되어 있습니다.

①	②	③	④	⑤
전혀 그렇지 않다	간혹 그러는 편이다	보통이다	조금 많이 그러는 편이다	(늘) 거의 그러는 편이다

호기심이 많다	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	안달, 초초하다	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
기민/ 민첩하다.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	걱정스럽다	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
흥미롭다	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	부끄럽다.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
고무되어 있다(영감적)	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	기분 나쁘다.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
강하다	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	신경질적이다.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
단호하다	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	죄책감을 느낀다.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
주의가 깊고 신중하다	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	무섭다	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
열정적이다	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	적대적이다	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
활동적이다	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	예민하다	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
자부심이 있다.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	두려워하다	① ② ③ ④ ⑤

PART IV

Background Information

PART IV 는 설문에 답해주신 여러분의 개인신상에 관한 질문입니다.
특히 이 자료는 데이터의 분석시 통계학적 관점에서 매우 중요한 정보로
활용될것입니다. 질문에 따라 해당사항을 기재하시거나 √를 해주십시오.

1. 자신의 병과 및 현 직책은 무엇입니까?

2. 현재 조직에서 지도자 (지휘관)의 역할을 수행하고 있습니까?

☐ 네 (있다면, 얼마나 많은 부하를 관리, 감독하고 있습니까? _____)

☐ 아니오

3. 자신의 최종학력은?

☐ 고졸

☐ 전문대 재학중

☐ 전문대 졸

☐ 대학교 재학중

☐ 대졸

☐ 대학원 재학중(석사과정 이수)

☐ 대학원 재학중 (박사과정 이수)

기 타 :구체적으로

4. 자신의 나이는? _____ 세

5. 성별 구분

☐ 남자

☐ 여자

설문에 대한 궁금한점이나 추가적인 의견은 아래 연락처(메일, 전화, 팩스)를 이용해 주십시오.
언제든지 성심 성의껏 답변해 드리겠습니다.

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Thank you for your participation!

Appendix C

Sample-Specific Correlations of Each Sample

Intercorrelations among US sample study variables

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Correlation</i>										
	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>11</i>
<i>Individual Attributes</i>											
1. Positive affect	(.92)										
2. Negative affect	-.33**	(.87)									
<i>Change Internal Context</i>											
3. Perceived organizational support	.31**	-.26**	(.89)								
4. Perceptions of co-workers	.23**	-.31**	.57**	(.62)							
<i>Change Implementation Process</i>											
5. Participation	.23**	-.01	.39**	.13	(.79)						
6. Quality of information	.12	-.05	.38**	.18*	.64**	(.83)					
<i>Readiness for Change</i>											
7. Appropriateness	-.01	.00	.09	-.08	.15	-.05	(.93)				
8. Change-efficacy	.43**	-.23**	.39**	.29**	.21**	.25**	.04	(.78)			
9. Personal valence	.27**	-.20**	.45**	.28**	.30**	.31**	.09	.51**	(.64)		
<i>Attitudinal Work Outcomes</i>											
10. Job satisfaction	.43**	-.20**	.15*	-.08	.20*	.14	-.09	.20**	.21**	(.85)	
11. Affective commitment	.42**	-.17**	.61**	.41**	.28**	.27**	-.09	.35**	.25**	.21**	(.82)

Note. $N = 136-262$. Sample size varies due to missing data. Numbers in parentheses represent coefficient alphas.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Intercorrelations among Korean Sample 1 study variables

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Correlation</i>													
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
<i>Individual Attributes</i>														
1. Generalized self-efficacy	(.81)													
2. Neuroticism	-.47**	(.86)												
3. Self-esteem	.75**	-.59**	(.76)											
4. Positive affect	.43**	-.23**	.40**	(.81)										
5. Negative affect	-.35**	.60**	-.41**	-.26**	(.88)									
<i>Change Internal Context</i>														
6. Perceived organizational support	.21**	-.25**	.24**	.24**	-.05	(.63)								
7. Perceptions of co-workers	.30**	-.26**	.31**	-.02	-.16**	.46**	(.63)							
<i>Change Implementation Process</i>														
8. Participation	-.12*	.09	-.10	.06	-.09	.12*	-.12*	(.73)						
9. Quality of information	-.09	.09	-.07	.03	.11	.08	-.04	.60**	(.81)					
<i>Readiness for Change</i>														
10. Appropriateness	-.11	.10	-.08	-.07	.02	.12*	.04	.42**	.52**	(.88)				
11. Change-efficacy	.01	.12*	.15*	.13*	-.20**	-.05	.13*	.09	.20**	.37**	(.68)			
12. Personal valence	-.08	-.15*	-.01	-.08	-.13*	-.04	.03	.02	.05	.31**	.24**	(.56)		
<i>Attitudinal Work Outcomes</i>														
13. Job satisfaction	.32**	-.29**	.34**	.18**	-.13*	.54**	.49**	-.24**	-.18**	-.20**	-.04	-.06	(.74)	
14. Affective commitment	.34**	-.25**	.36**	.15*	-.18*	.55**	.52**	-.22**	-.16**	-.17**	.03	-.04	.70**	(.75)

Note. $N = 280$. Numbers in parentheses represent coefficient alphas. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Intercorrelations among Korean Sample 2 study variables

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Correlation</i>													
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
<i>Individual Attributes</i>														
1. Generalized self-efficacy	(.83)													
2. Neuroticism	-.53**	(.86)												
3. Self-esteem	.84**	-.55**	(.77)											
4. Positive affect	.46**	-.28**	.50**	(.80)										
5. Negative affect	-.63**	.73**	-.58**	-.32**	(.91)									
<i>Change Internal Context</i>														
6. Perceived organizational support	.28**	-.39**	.32**	.15*	-.30**	(.78)								
7. Perceptions of co-workers	.40**	-.37**	.38**	.09	-.40**	.42**	(.66)							
<i>Change Implementation Process</i>														
8. Participation	-.06	-.06	-.04	.08	-.05	.26**	-.04	(.63)						
9. Quality of information	-.09	-.09	-.03	.02	.01	.39**	.06	.64**	(.75)					
<i>Readiness for Change</i>														
10. Appropriateness	-.03	.04	.04	-.05	.02	.15*	.10	.15*	.30**	(.76)				
11. Change-efficacy	.27**	-.20**	.31**	.10	-.23**	.03	.30**	-.11	.33**	.16*	(.62)			
12. Personal valence	.16**	-.17**	.16*	.06	-.14*	-.02	.21**	.19**	.10	-.10	.39**	(.70)		
<i>Attitudinal Work Outcomes</i>														
13. Job satisfaction	.31**	-.49**	.31**	.18*	-.40**	.64**	.46**	.10	.18*	.15*	.11	.09	(.75)	
14. Affective commitment	.37**	-.46**	.35**	.19*	-.39**	.70**	.56**	.11	.19*	.17*	.12*	.07	.81**	(.79)

Note. $N = 178-181$. Numbers in parentheses represent coefficient alphas. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

When examining the relationships across the samples, the relationships among the variables making up a particular category (e.g., personality, environment, process, and readiness) were moderate to high, even though the magnitudes of the correlations did vary across samples. For instance, the mean correlation between positive and negative affect was $-.44$ (significant for each sample). The relationship between perceived organizational support and perceptions of co-workers ranged from $.42$ ($p < .01$ for the second Korean sample) to $.57$ ($p < .01$ for the US Sample).

Different magnitudes and patterns of relationships were observed across the samples when examining the relationships between the environmental variables and readiness factors. In the case of US sample, perceived organizational support (POS) appeared to be more strongly related to the readiness factors (e.g., for POS and change efficacy relationship $r = .39, p < .01$; for POS and personal valence relationship $r = .45, p < .01$) than the perceptions of co-workers (e.g., for perceptions of coworkers and change efficacy relationship $r = .29, p < .01$; for perceptions of coworkers and personal valence relationship $r = .28, p < .01$). In contrast, both Korean samples reported the strongest correlations between perceptions of co-workers and readiness factors. For instance, the first Korean sample indicated $r = .13$ ($p < .05$) between perceptions of co-workers and change-efficacy while r was $-.05$ ($p > .05$) for POS and change-efficacy. Similarly, the second Korean sample indicated $r = .30$ ($p < .01$) between perceptions of co-workers and change-efficacy while it was $r = .03$ ($p > .05$) for POS and change-efficacy.

Across the three samples, the patterns of relationships between process variables and readiness factors varied. Examining the relationships between participation and the readiness factors, the largest correlation for the US sample was between participation and

personal valence ($r = .30, p < .01$). The largest relationship for the first Korean sample was between participation and appropriateness ($r = .42, p < .01$) and the largest relationship for the second Korean sample was between participation and personal valence ($r = .19, p < .01$). Examining the relationships between quality of information and readiness factors, the largest correlation was between quality of information and personal valence ($r = .31, p < .01$) for the US sample. The first Korean sample reported $r = .52$ ($p < .01$) between quality of information and appropriateness as the strongest relationship and the second Korean sample reported $r = .33$ ($p < .01$) between the quality of information and change-efficacy as the strongest relationship.

Across the three samples, different magnitudes and patterns of correlations were observed between the readiness factors and the outcome variables. US sample reported significant relationships between both outcomes and the change efficacy and personal valence, whereas these relationships were not significant in both Korean samples. In contrast, the relationship between job satisfaction and appropriateness was significant for the second Korean sample and not significant in both the first Korean and US samples. The second Korean sample reported $r = .15$ ($p < .05$) while the first Korean sample ($r = -.20, p < .01$) and the US sample ($r = -.09, p > .05$) indicated for the appropriateness and job satisfaction, respectively.

Vita

Captain Jung, Hee Hyoung graduated from Dong-A girls' high school in Kwang Ju. She entered undergraduate studies at the Chonn Nam National University in KwangJu, where she graduated with a Bachelor of Humanities degree in English language and literature in March 1992, being recognized as a Distinguished Graduate. She was commissioned as the second lieutenant in 1994 through officer basic training course and was assigned as the platoon leader at the 21st Infantry Division in Yang Gu.

Once promoted to Captain 1997, Jung participated in a six month Infantry school training course to become a company commander. Because of her dedicate effort, she received a medal and honorary certificate from the Chief of the General Staff when she graduated. Following that, Jung worked as a briefing officer in a demilitarized zone. After stints as a company commander at Army Headquarters and a personnel assignment officer, in August 2001, she entered the Graduate School of Engineering and Management, Air Force Institute of Technology. With that support and hard work, Jung was even selected as a member of the Sigma Iota Epsilon honorary in her very first quarter for having a high GPA in logistics management.

Upon graduation, she will be assigned to the Logistics Instructor at the Korean Army Integrated Logistics School.

REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE				<i>Form Approved OMB No. 074-0188</i>	
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1. REPORT DATE (DD-MM-YYYY) 03-06-2003		2. REPORT TYPE Master's Thesis		3. DATES COVERED (From – To) Sep 2002 – Mar 2003	
4. TITLE AND SUBTITLE AN INTERNATIONAL STUDY OF ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE: A SIMULTANEOUS ANALYSIS OF PROCESS, CONTEXT, AND INDIVIDUAL ATTRIBUTES				5a. CONTRACT NUMBER	
				5b. GRANT NUMBER	
				5c. PROGRAM ELEMENT NUMBER	
6. AUTHOR(S) Hee – Hyoung Jung, Captain, Republic of Korea Army				5d. PROJECT NUMBER	
				5e. TASK NUMBER	
				5f. WORK UNIT NUMBER	
7. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAMES(S) AND ADDRESS(S) Air Force Institute of Technology Graduate School of Engineering and Management (AFIT/EN) 2950 P Street, Building 640 WPAFB OH 45433-7765				8. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION REPORT NUMBER AFIT/GLM/ENV/03-05	
9. SPONSORING/MONITORING AGENCY NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES)				10. SPONSOR/MONITOR'S ACRONYM(S)	
				11. SPONSOR/MONITOR'S REPORT NUMBER(S)	
12. DISTRIBUTION/AVAILABILITY STATEMENT APPROVED FOR PUBLIC RELEASE; DISTRIBUTION UNLIMITED.					
13. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES					
14. ABSTRACT By collecting data from three organizations located in two continents, this study was designed to build on the literature that has called for both individual-level and internationally relevant change research. It examined how individual perceptions of the change process, context, and individual attributes influenced readiness for change and subsequent attitudinal outcomes. The findings revealed that context and individual attributes were strong predictors of readiness. Furthermore, results revealed that perceptions of the process used by leaders were significantly related to readiness after controlling for context and individual attributes—an important finding considering that leadership often has more discretion over the process used to facilitate change.					
15. SUBJECT TERMS International study, Readiness for change, Organizational change process, Comprehensive change model					
16. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF:			17. LIMITATION OF ABSTRACT UU	18. NUMBER OF PAGES 125	19a. NAME OF RESPONSIBLE PERSON Daniel T. Holt, Maj (USAF)
a. REPORT U	b. ABSTRACT U	c. THIS PAGE U			19b. TELEPHONE NUMBER (Include area code) (937) 255-3636, ext 4574; e-mail: Daniel.Holt@afit.edu