

RESILIENCE AND COMMITMENT TO CHANGE:
A CASE STUDY OF A NONPROFIT ORGANIZATION

by

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Abstract

In this time of dramatic change, one thing has become clear. The world is becoming more turbulent at a faster pace than organizations are becoming resilient enough to handle that change. This study examined the relationship of resilience and commitment to change during a time of organizational transformation. This research is a case study analysis of a nonprofit faith-based organization in North Hollywood, California in transition. The study used the AQ Profile® to assess participants' resilience, and the Commitment to Change Survey to determine potential correlation. The study confirmed the significance of the relationship that exists between resilience and commitment to change during organizational transformation. Individuals with higher levels of resilience were more committed to change during organizational transformation.

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my family. I couldn't have completed this without their support.

My dearest wife Debra, thank you so much for your love and support throughout these demanding and often difficult years. You have taught me the value of commitment, patience and resilience.

My wonderful children Dori and Kevyn, thank you for all the times we shared doing our homework together, and understanding when I needed to be studying. You have taught me the meaning of unconditional love, pure joy and laughter.

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Turbulence will never cease. The best evidence says that winning organizations will continue to deal with this fact... The single biggest challenge in the process is changing people's behavior. The key to this behavior shift, so clear in successful transformations, is less about analysis and thinking, and more about seeing and feeling. *John Kotter (2003)*

Introduction to the Problem

No organization today, whether it is large or small, local or global, profit or nonprofit, governmental agency or non-governmental organization (NGO), is immune to change (Jensen, 2003; Kotter, 1998; McLagan, 2002). Few would argue that the pace of change is slowing in our increasingly global society. In fact, the amount of significant, even traumatic, change in organizations has grown tremendously during the last two decades (Beer & Nohria, 2000; Hamel & Valikangas, 2003; Rosenberg, 2003; Wanberg & Banas 2000). The rate of change is only expected to increase in the future (Abrahamson, 2000; Hoopes & Kelly, 2004; Jensen, 2003; Kotter, 1996; Maddi & Khoshaba, 2005). Despite predictions that reengineering, re-

strategizing, mergers, downsizing, Six Sigma initiatives, and cultural renewal efforts will soon go away, it seems highly unlikely that the pace of change will diminish. Powerful macroeconomic forces are at work, and are only expected to grow in force. To cope with new technological, competitive, and demographic forces, leaders in every sector must continue to seek new ways to help their organizations adapt to these conditions and fundamentally alter the way they do business (Kotter, 2003; Norman et al., 2005). All organizations will be forced to reduce costs, improve quality of products and services, find new opportunities for growth and increase productivity.

Despite the best thinking of countless change consultants, expert practitioners, and scholars, most organizations initiatives fail (Axelrod, 2002; Beer & Nohria, 2000; de Jager, 2001; Doe, 1994; Duck, 2001; Griffith, 2002; McLagan, 2002). According to some researchers (Beer and Nohria, 2000; Griffith, 2002), at least 70% of all change initiatives fail. Kotter (2003) suggests the figure closer to 85%. So far, major change efforts have helped some organizations to adapt to these factors, and positioned a few for the future. Far more, however, have experienced disappointment and failure. The

results have been appalling with most organizations wasting valuable resources, and time and effort on projects that only seem to frustrate stakeholders.

When implementing organizational change, it is vital to realize that people are the most important component of change (Andersen & Klein, 2000; Duck, 2001; Griffith, 2002; Kesterson & Broome, 2005; Maddi & Khoshaba, 2005). Change in an organization is "inherently and inescapably an emotional human process" (Duck, 2001, p.9). This is not a reference to fleeting moods or surface feelings. Duck refers to the major states of emotional being: fear, curiosity, exhaustion, loyalty, paranoia, depression, optimism, rage, revelation, delight and love. When an organization begins a change of any significance, its leaders tend to think that they are facing a series of operational tasks. The required result will occur when these tasks are completed. According to Duck (2001), these leaders don't realize that will also need to address the onslaught of emotions and human dynamics. The most difficult part of leading an organization through change is managing the human side of the effort (Barchan, 2006).

Duck (2001) argues that human emotions are data that have just as much relevance as data on costs, revenues, sales,

quality of service, or any other tangible aspect of organizational performance. It is possible to identify and define emotions, analyze how they affect performance, and develop strategies and tactics to address them with rigor and rationality. Not only is it possible, it is imperative that leadership address the emotional data. It is critical that leadership at all levels within the organization address these human issues. Failure to recognize their significance will have major impact on the success of any change initiative.

This researcher argues that resilience is an important if not critical element in the success of any change initiative. It is imperative that leaders develop their organizations' levels of resilience to not only help adapt to change with a minimum of disruption, but to embrace change as a natural means of achieving their primary objectives, whatever they are. The impact of new technologies, turbulent economic conditions and rapidly changing social environments make it increasingly difficult for any organization to do business as usual. Frequently old methods of operation ways become obsolete and rapidly deplete the organization's effectiveness and productive capacities. If an organization has not done those things required to withstand these intense changes and rebound in new

and creative ways, then it will not matter what the previous productive capacity was or could have become (Hoopes & Kelley, 2004; Horne & Orr, 1998; Kotter, 2003; Maddi & Khoshaba, 2005; Norman et al., 2005).

As individuals become empowered, more decisions are made without immediate approval and under time pressure. Meeting stakeholders' needs on the spot is essential in today's service economy. This, too, creates more pressure on everyone to assess situations quickly, decide what can be offered to stakeholders, defend what they have done, and move on to the next situation. Often, people are placed in these situations without adequate training, preparation, or resources. They need to learn to be resilient; that is, how to design and implement positive adaptive behaviors quickly that are matched to the immediate situations, while enduring minimal stress. Resilient behaviors help individuals meet stakeholders needs on the spot, capture opportunities that may be otherwise be lost, and avert catastrophes by acting quickly and effectively in crisis situations (Brooks & Goldstein, 2003; Maddi & Khoshaba, 2005; Mallak, 1998; Reivich & Shatte, 2002; Stoltz, 2000).

Background of the Study

The degree of change within organizations has now reached epic proportions (Hamel & Valikangas, 2003). Organizational change and transformation are critical issues as organizations struggle to adapt to new social and/or economic conditions. With inconsistency becoming the rule, a bureaucracy weighted down by supervisory layer upon supervisory layer and its clumsy inability to coordinate efforts prove incapable of reacting with the speed needed to meet the varied and unrelenting demands of global markets and customers (Kotter, 2003; Ostroff, 1999).

Moreover, these dramatic changes in the nature of work are revolutionizing what it is to be a human being in modern society. Every institution is changing as the relationship between employee and employer, woman and man, offspring and parent, student and teacher alter in deep and permanent ways in response to the need for all to contribute their intelligence, creativity, and responsibility to society. After decades of narrow focus, employees are being asked to consider the whole, to be innovative and care for customers, to work in teams, and to determine their own jobs and coordinate with others rather than just follow orders. Nearly all growing sectors of work

require technical and human understanding, acute observation, creative problem solving and skill in collaboration (Pinchot & Pinchot, 1993).

This is the most amazing period of transformational change the world has ever seen (Hamel & Valikangas, 2003; Hoopes & Kelly, 2004; Maddi & Khoshaba, 2005; Robb, 2000; Wanberg & Banas, 2000). The business and social environment is complex, dynamic and turbulent which means that today's success formula can become tomorrow's liability nearly overnight. One thing has become clear--the world is becoming more turbulent at a faster pace than organizations are becoming resilient enough to handle that change. Robb (2000) argues that the evidence is everywhere. Large companies are failing more frequently. In the last four years, ten of the 20 largest U.S. bankruptcies in the past two decades have occurred. Despite a growing economy, corporate earnings are more erratic. Over the past four decades, year-to-year volatility in the earnings growth rate of S&P 500 companies has increased by nearly 50%--despite vigorous efforts to manage earnings. Performance slumps are proliferating. In each of the years from 1973 to 1977, an average of 37 Fortune 500 companies were entering or in the midst of a 50% five-year decline in net income; from 1993 to

1997, in the middle of the longest economic boom in recent times, the average number of companies suffering through such an earnings contraction have more than doubled, to 84 each year (Hamel & Valikangas, 2003).

Resiliency at the individual and organizational levels has taken on urgent importance (Norman et al., 2005). Resiliency as a psychological and organizational strength is receiving increased attention by both organizational behavior scholars and professional managers. Both have indicated there may be a resilience gap. That is, as the world around us changes more quickly than ever before, employees, leaders, and overall organizations are struggling to keep up and maintain their resilience.

Deevy (1995) argues that this unstable environment requires a deep understanding of the inner dynamics of organizations. The old view that organizations are simply mechanical entities that can be fixed when broken is no longer adequate. "The challenge for organizations today is to develop a new organizational form; one with the capability for continuously responding to change" (Deevy, 1995, p.6). Deevy suggests that the ultimate test for any organization today can be summarized in a single question: Is it sufficiently

resilient to cope with an increasingly turbulent and unpredictable environment? The basic ingredient of a resilient organization is "a *committed* work force that is free to give the maximum effort" (Deevy 1995, p. xv).

Psychological resilience is characterized as the ability to bounce back from negative emotional experiences and by flexible adaptation to the changing demands of stressful experiences (Bonanno, 2005; Brooks & Goldstein, 2003; Hunter, 2006; Maddi & Khoshaba, 2005; Norman et al., 2005; Tugade & Frederickson, 2004). Theory indicates that resilient individuals bounce back from stressful experiences quickly and effectively (Hoopes & Kelly 2004; Tugade & Frederickson, 2004; Viscott, 1996). According to Robb (2000), a resilient organization is able to sustain competitive advantage over time through its capability to do two things simultaneously; deliver excellent performance against current goals, and effectively innovate and adapt to rapid, turbulent changes in markets and technologies. It also exhibits certain broad characteristics, and is able to; (a) create structure and dissolve it when necessary, (b) provide safety (though not necessarily security or stability) during times of change, (c) manage the emotional

consequences of continuous transformation and change, and (d) learn, develop and grow.

Considerable attention has been given to the commercial profit based organizations in change literature. Unfortunately far less has been given to the nonprofit sector and charitable organizations (Wanberg & Banas, 2000). Various theories assume that commercial organizations strive to maximize resources, contain costs, and ensuring their legitimacy, while achieving their goals. The same could certainly be said of nonprofit organizations.

Galaskiewicz and Bielefeld (1998) argue that distinctions between institutional categories such as for-profit, nonprofit, or public charities are not that important in explaining how organizations behave with respect to resource procurement. There is enough evidence to justify the claim that nonprofits are just as interested in securing resources as for-profits. Some organizations procure through consumer and labor markets, and their activities are subject to strong output controls. Other organizations procure resources through donations and volunteering, and their activities are subject to strong process controls. Nevertheless, both types are interested in amassing as many resources as possible to meet their goals.

Based on research of 229 nonprofit organizations over a fifteen year period in Minneapolis-St. Paul area, Galaskiewicz and Bielefeld (1998) determined that the same assumptions that apply to profit based organizations affected by organizational change, apply to nonprofits. Some behave in ways that are similar to business organizations, emphasizing efficient norms and striving reducing costs. Others act like traditional eleemosynary organizations, giving considerable attention to their non-economic goals and being legitimate. However, just as their commercial brethren, almost all nonprofits seem interested in maximizing inputs. They argue that the same theories of organizational change are applicable to studying change among nonprofits and for-profits alike.

One study of resilience and change merits close attention. The Wanberg and Banas (2000) study at the U.S. Housing and Urban Development (HUD) examined resilience as a predictor of employee openness to a series of work related re-organizational changes. The study assessed three individual-differences variables (self-esteem, perceived control, and optimism) identified as resilience and five context-specific (change information, participation, change-specific self-efficacy, social support, and perceived impact) as predictors of employee

openness to change. Their research suggests that individuals with greater resilience are more open to accept changes in a reorganizing workplace.

Statement of the Problem

Most change research has focused on macro-level or organizational-level phenomena, as opposed to focusing on individuals (Wanberg and Banas, 2000). Resilience has gained more attention in the past few years in organizational change literature (Hoopes & Kelly, 2004; Maddi & Khoshaba, 2005; Reivich & Shatte, 2002). Numerous case studies, theoretical reviews, and applied articles have suggested factors such as resilience can contribute to the acceptance of change. Unfortunately the vast majority of those writing about resiliency fail to provide any depth of explanation and virtually no hints as to its application (Horne & Orr, 1998; Norman et al. 2005). The research to date on resiliency has mainly come from child psychopathology, according to Norman et al. (2005). There also seems to be limited empirical evidence to demonstrate that resilience improves an organizations ability to deal with organizational change (Wanberg & Banas, 2000).

Resilience is a naturally occurring element in every living organizational system. Individual resilience can be measured much like IQ using The AQ Profile® to determine an AQ score (Stoltz, 2000). Unlike IQ, however, an individual's AQ can be changed or improved according to Stoltz (2000). However, there is some indication that a collection of resilient individuals within an organization does not add up to a resilient organization as a whole (Horne & Ore, 1998; Stoltz, 2000).

Wanberg and Banas (2000) suggest that openness to change is a critical element to creating employee readiness to change. They state that high level of openness to organizational change is suggestive of increased cooperation and may deter change resistance behavior. In their view, resilience can be a predictor of employee openness to change.

Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) argue that commitment is one of the most important factors involving support for change initiatives. Commitment has been recognized as the glue that provides a vital bond between people and change goals. Despite the awareness of its importance, there has been little attention paid to the definition and measurement of commitment in the change context. There appears to be no empirical

evidence to what relationship if any exists between resilience and commitment to change in organizations experiencing dramatic change.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to develop an understanding of the relationship between resilience and commitment to change in a nonprofit faith-based organization. The study examined whether there is a correlation between resilience as measured by the AQ Profile® and commitment to change as measured by the Commitment to Change Survey as developed by Herscovitch and Meyer (2002). Specifically, this study attempted to answer the following questions: (a) What is the relationship between an organization's resilience and commitment to change?, (b) What is the relationship among members, employees and leadership of an organization's resilience and its commitment to change?, (c) Is resilience a significant predication of members, employees and leadership of an organization's commitment to change?, and (d) What is the relationship between members and non-members of an organization's resilience and commitment to change?

Rationale

Considerable research has been conducted to determine the best means of conducting change within organizations. Despite this research, most change efforts fail to produce the desired results. Close examination suggests that the most well known change strategies appear to provide a common sense and logical approach to making an organization work. Yet, most change initiatives fail. Research suggests that this is because the human emotional dimension of change is not adequately addressed (Andersen & Klein, 2000; Deevy, 1995; Doe, 1994; Duck, 2001; Griffith, 2002; Kesterson & Broome, 2005; Streubel (1996).

Research suggests that personal resilience improves organizational performance and plays a critical role in providing individuals with greater capability to adapt to change (Brooks & Goldstein, 2003; Deevy, 1995; Hoopes & Kelly, 2004; Maddi & Khoshaba, 2005; Stoltz, 2000). In Wanberg and Banas' (2000) research conducted at the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD), Wanberg and Banas (2000) state that individuals with greater resilience are more open to accept changes in a reorganizing workplace. Using Meyer and Allen's Three-Component Model of

Commitment (1991), Preston & Brown (2004) found a positive relationship between affective commitment and leadership performance in nonprofit organizations.

This study focused on the relationship of resilience to commitment to change, in order to create an approach that builds on existing research. As the rate of change continues to increase in people's lives, new ways to improve the ability of individuals and organizations to adapt to change need to be found.

Research Questions

The quantitative research questions for this study include the following questions.

Question 1: What is the relationship between an organization's resilience and commitment to change?

H₁: Resilience and commitment to change are positively correlated.

H₀: Resilience and commitment to change are not positively correlated.

Questions 2: What is the relationship among members, employees and leadership of an organization's resilience and its commitment to change?

H₁: Resilience and Commitment to Change scores will be different for volunteers, employees and leadership within the organization.

H₀: Resilience and Commitment to Change will not differentiate volunteers, employees and leadership within the organization.

Question 3: Is resilience a significant predictor of members, employees and leadership of an organization's commitment to change?

H₁: Resilience among participants is a significant predictor of Commitment to Change.

H₀: Resilience among participants is not a significant predication of Commitment to Change.

Question 4: What is the relationship between members and non-members of an organization's resilience and commitment to change?

H₁: Resilience and Commitment to Change scores will be different for member and non-member participants in the organization.

H₀: Resilience and Commitment to Change will not differentiate member and non-member participants in the organization.

Significance of the Study

The purpose of this study was to contribute to the field of organizational change research and determine the potential effects of resilience on a nonprofit organization's commitment to change. In addition, the study analyzed St. Paul's First Lutheran Church's leadership, employees, members, and non-member's resilience and commitment to change during a time of organizational transformation. The results offered possible solutions to St. Paul's First Lutheran Church's leadership as a means to increase organizational resilience and commitment to change.

Definition of Terms

Adversity Quotient. Stoltz (2000) describes Adversity Quotient (AQ) as the embodiment of scientific theory and real-world application. AQ takes three forms. First AQ is a new conceptual framework for understanding and enhancing all facets of success. It builds upon a substantial base of landmark research, offering a practical, new combination of knowledge that redefines what it takes to succeed. Second, AQ is a measure of how individuals respond to adversity. Now for the first time, they can be measured, understood, and changed.

Third, AQ is a scientifically-grounded set of tools for improving how you respond to adversity, and as a result, your overall personal and professional effectiveness.

The AQ Profile®. The AQ Profile® measures how individuals respond to adversity and is a powerful predictor of success. According to Stoltz (2006), AQ is the most widely adopted methodology in the world for measuring and strengthening human resilience. It is used by Fortune 100 companies, on down to entrepreneurial small businesses, across all industries and dozens of cultures. The AQ's of roughly 500,000 people worldwide have been measured.

The profile measures AQ and its four "CORE" dimensions: Control, Ownership, Reach, and Endurance – that relate to a person's perception of adversity. *Control* measures the extent to which one perceives one can influence whatever happens next. It is a strong gauge of resilience and health. *Ownership* measures the extent to which a person holds themselves accountable for improving a situation. It is a strong gauge of accountability and likelihood to take action. *Reach* is the perception of how large or far-reaching events will be. It is a strong gauge of perspective, burden, and stress level.

Endurance is the perception of time over which good or bad events and their consequences will last or endure. It is a strong gauge of hope or optimism.

Commitment. Commitment has been defined and measured in different ways over the years. In their three-component model of organizational commitment, Meyer and Allen (1991) define commitment as a psychological state or mind-set that increases the likelihood that an employee will maintain membership in an organization. They used three labels to further define elements of commitment which include affective commitment (involved and has desire to remain), continuance commitment (perceived cost of leaving), and normative commitment (perceived obligation to remain). These serve to differentiate among commitments characterized by different mind-sets and argued that employees can experience varying combinations of all three mind-sets simultaneously. Together, the measures of the three mind-sets reflect what Meyer and Allen referred to as an employee's commitment profile. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) broaden the definition of commitment as a force that guides a course of action towards one or more targets.

Resilience. From a scientific perspective, resiliency is the power or ability of a substance to return to its original form after being bent or stretched or twisted or pushed or pulled. Resilient people have this same ability and power. Life's challenges may bend stretch or twist them, but they may bounce back faster, stronger, smarter (Maddi & Khoshaba, 2005; Norman et al., 2005; Warschaw & Barlow, 1995). Stoltz (personal communication, July 3, 2006) defines human resilience as "the capacity to be strengthened and improved by adversity." According to Siebert (2005), resilience, resilient, and resiliency refer to an individual's ability to cope well with high levels of ongoing disruptive change and sustain good health and energy when under constant pressure. Individuals are able to bounce back easily from setbacks and overcome adversities. They can change to a new way of working and living when an old way is no longer possible and do all this without acting in dysfunctional or harmful ways.

Resilient Organization. Robb (2000) describes resilient organizations as having certain broad characteristics. They are able to create structure, and dissolve it; provide safety (not necessarily security or stability) in the midst of change; manage the emotional consequences of continuous transformation

and change: anxiety and grief; and learn, develop and grow. A resilient organization is able to sustain competitive advantage over time through its capability to do two things simultaneously. It delivers excellent performance against current goals, and effectively innovates and adapt to rapid, turbulent changes in markets and technologies.

According to Mallack (1998), resilient organizations design and implement effective actions to advance themselves, thereby increasing the probability of their own survival. Members of resilient organizations share decision-making power, which usually leads to timely and effective responses. Resilient employees expend less effort in assimilating organization change and therefore have greater potential to improve productivity and quality.

Assumptions and Limitations

This study was limited to the leadership, employees, individual members, and non-member's commitment within a single nonprofit faith-based organization called St. Paul's First Lutheran Church throughout the study. It was assumed that the data collected cannot be generalized to a larger population. The assumption was that other nonprofit faith based

organizations have similar resilience and commitment issues relative to high levels of change in their cultures. It was assumed that participants had the ability to read and write answers to the survey. Lastly, it was further assumed that participants provided honest and knowledgeable responses to the questions posed. The study was self-administered by participants.

Nature of the Study: Theoretical/Conceptual Framework

This study was a mixed methodology approach for a single nonprofit faith-based organization and school. The AQ Profile®, Commitment to Change Survey as developed by Herscovitch and Meyer was used to assess the organization's leadership, employees, members and non-members parents of children who attend the school. A demographic questionnaire was also included.

A questionnaire packet containing the instruments was delivered or mailed to each participant, and was self-administered. The completed questionnaire packet was returned to the organization's administrative office.

A pilot with a similar but different organization was conducted to assess the effectiveness of the instructions and

reliability of the survey instruments. More information about the AQ Profile® and the Commitment to Change Survey are provided in Appendix B and Appendix C respectively. These results were not be included in the data analysis of the St. Paul's First Lutheran Church research study.

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

The remainder of the study will provide a review of the literature on organizational change, resilience and commitment; the theoretical framework of the study; the hypotheses and methods used to examine the relationship between individual resilience and commitment; a review of the quantitative findings; and a summary and discussion of the major findings of the study. The organization of this information will be as follows.

Chapter 2 will provide a review of theoretical perspectives of leading change theories and strategies, current perspectives on commitment, resilience, and underlying assumptions. General theoretical arguments associated with individual resilience and commitment derived from disciplinary literatures including organizational change, psychology and sociology.

Chapter 3 will include the hypotheses and methods used to examine the relationship between individual resilience and commitment and selected demographics are described. Specifically, a review of the background of the organization to be studied, research design, and are identified for exploration within the case study.

Chapter 4 will provide the findings of the quantitative data. This data will be analyzed statistically with appropriate statistical procedures data.

Lastly, Chapter 5 will provide a summary and discussion of the major findings of the study. Further, implications for future research will be provided.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

"The universe is change; our life is what our thoughts make it." *Marcus Aurelius Antoninus (121 AD - 180 AD)*

Organizational Transformation

Individuals today face change constantly--in the work they do, how they perform work, where work is performed, and with whom they work. Changes within the organization represent only part of the challenge; employees who have more responsibilities for dealing directly with suppliers and customers increasingly face external changes (Maddi & Khoshaba, 2005; Mallak, 1998; Reivich & Satten, 2002).

The realities of today's economy and globalization of markets are driving organizations to change the way they are doing business, not only to retain or improve their competitive position, but to survive. Process improvement, re-engineering, information technology installations and restructuring initiatives abound in business world as companies look for ways to reduce cost without affecting service or product quality (Doe, 1994; Kotter, 2003; Maddi & Khoshaba, 2005).

Doe (1994) suggests that indicates that 90 per cent of change initiatives that fail do so because the human factors

were not adequately taken into account. The ability to adapt to change in the work environment varies among individuals, and it is heavily influenced by other changes in their lives that may happen at the same time. Most people have the capacity to assimilate change, but when too much change occurs at one time, the collective impact can create problems. As employees reach and pass the threshold beyond which they can no longer assimilate change, they start to exhibit behaviors such as irritation, frustration, low productivity, poor quality work, negative attitudes and chronic absenteeism. In extreme situations, this can even lead to sabotage, physical or psychological breakdowns and even violence or suicide.

Leading Organizational Change Models

Countless approaches to help organizations accomplish change have been developed and debated over the years. Three models or methodologies have stood as exemplars in the change management literature and serve as the standard for others to compare. These include Kotter's strategic eight-step model for transforming organizations, Jick's tactical ten-step change model for implementing change, and General Electric

(GE)'s seven-step change acceleration process model (Mento, Jones, Dirndorfer, 2002).

Kotter's Eight-Stage Process

Kotter's (1995) eight-step model was developed after a study of over 100 organizations representing various sizes and industry types. After learning that the vast majority of major change efforts tend to fail, Kotter positioned his model as a way of avoiding errors in the change process. However, it is only a framework, and should be viewed as a vision for the change process. Kotter focuses the change process as a series of the important phases. Two key lessons learned from the model are that the change process goes through a series of phases, each lasting a considerable amount of time, and that critical mistakes in any of the phases can have devastating impact on the momentum of the change management process. (Kotter, 1996)

Kotter's eight-stage process is summarized as follows:
(a) establishing a sense of urgency; (b) creating a guiding coalition; (c) developing a vision and strategy; (d) communicating the change vision; (e)empowering employees for broad-based action; (f)generating short-term wins; (g)

consolidating gains and producing more change; and
(h)anchoring new approaches in the culture.

Jick's 10 Steps for Implementing Change

The second is the ten-step approach developed by Jick (1991) and serves as a brief guide to the implementation of major organizational change on a tactical level. His approach serves as a blueprint for organizations embarking on the change process, but also represents as a means to evaluate a change effort already in underway. Jick states that implementing change is an ongoing process of discovery, with thoughtful questions continually being asked through the change journey. How change is implemented is just as important as what the change is. Jick argues that managing change does not adhere to a simple, step-by-step process. There is no ironclad list or easy recipe for implementation success. The process is more a blend of both art and science. The success in implementing a particular change depends ultimately on the nature of the change, the sensitivity of the implementers to the voices in the organization, and recognition that change is a continuous, not discrete process (Jick, 1991).

Jick's 10 steps for implementing change are summarized as follows: (a) analyze the organization and its need for

change; (b) create a shared vision and common direction; (c) separate from the past; (d) create a sense of urgency; (e) support a strong leader role; (f) line up political sponsorship; (g) craft an implementation plan; (h) develop enabling structures; (i) communicate, involve people and be honest; and (j) reinforce and institutionalize the change.

General Electric's Change Acceleration Process

The seven-step change acceleration process used at General Electric (Garvin, 2000) represents the third approach, and follows closely to Lewin's (1947) concept of unfreezing, movement and refreezing as essential components of the change process. At its core, the model focuses on the leader's critical role in creating urgency for the change, communicating the vision, leading change, measuring the progress along several dimensions, and institutionalizing change. Institutionalizing the change, involves changes in the organizational design and creating an appropriate fit of systems and structures to enable change. However, the seven-step change acceleration process differs from other approaches in that each phase is viewed as an element of a checklist. Although useful in providing a consistent methodology and structure to change management, the use of checklists offers no

new insights. Instead, they make existing knowledge more visible and accessible, ensuring that all essential steps are followed. Discipline, not discovery is the goal of the checklist (Mento, Jones & Dirndorfer, 2002). These steps are summarized as follows: (a) leader behavior, (b) creating a shared vision, (c) shaping a vision, (d) mobilizing commitments, (e) making change last, (f) monitoring progress, and (g) changing systems and structures.

Table 1

Three Models of the Change Process

Kotter's Strategic Model for Transforming Organizations	Jick's 10 Steps for Implementing Change	GE's Change Model
Establish a Sense of Urgency	Analyze the organization and the need for change	Leader behavior
Form a powerful guiding coalition	Create a share vision and common direction	Creating a shared need
Create a vision	Create a sense of urgency	Shaping a vision
Communicate the vision	Support a strong leader role	Mobilizing commitment

Empowering others to act on the vision	Line up political sponsorship	Making change last
Planning for and creating short-term wins	Craft an implementation plan	Monitoring progress
Consolidating improvements - producing more change results	Develop enabling structures	Change systems and structure
Institutionalizing new approaches	Communicate, involve people, and be honest	
	Reinforce and institutionalize the change	

When comparing the three different models as summarized in Table 1, one cannot help but notice the similarities in general themes between them. All three focus on the need to create and shape a vision of the expected change. Each emphasizes the need to reinforce and institutionalize the change in order to make it last. However, each model gives different weight and importance to the other required tasks based on their particular perspectives. Kotter's and Jick's

models focus on the need to communicate the vision to ensure that people are involved and participate in the change. The GE model places less emphasis on communication, by making it one element of the changing systems and structures step. Similarly, the Jick's and GE models argue the need for a strong leadership role, while Jick and Kotter both stress the need to build a power guiding coalition to encourage teamwork. The Jick's and GE models give greater attention to changing systems and structures, as Kotter argues that such changes are a component of any effort to consolidate improvements and to produce more results. Both the Kotter and Jick's models hope to serve as the framework for a change effort implementation plan, but Jick's in contrast, emphasizes that an implementation must be created based on the unique requirements of each situation. Good synthesis of the models.

Each of these theoretical models offers valuable insight into the steps required in managing a change process and serve as useful guides to anyone considering transformation change within their organizations. Each model has its own particular strengths and unique approach to the process.

Kotter's model (1995) is aimed at the strategic level of the change management process. Kotter identifies common themes based on research conducted in over 100 organizations, and identifies the big issues that must be considered before any change effort. In other words, Kotter focuses on the frequent issues found among organizations who have successfully orchestrated change.

Jick (1991a) takes a slightly more tactical view, emphasizing the change process as an ongoing process of discovery. Each situation is unique. The implementation of change is a process of discovery, Jick's states, and is a blend of art and science. It can't be effectively managed by checklists. How the well the implementation is managed in a particular situation is more important in the success of the effort than the definition of a specific change process.

The GE model (Garvin 2000), in contrast, emphasizes a more disciplined, detailed and formal step-by-step approach. The change process is not about discovery of the unique issues of a particular organization, but about the process of change. The model focuses on the essential steps required for change, and is intended to ensure each task is performed successfully. The use of checklists is to instill discipline,

and make sure that no required step is overlooked. In GE's approach, the process is the key to consistent success.

Each provides valuable insights into the change process. Kotter summarizes best practices gained from extensive research of over 100 firms. Jick's provides a framework for change management emphasizing the need for flexibility for the unique requirements of every organization. The GE model focuses on the need for consistency and structure as change is managed and provides a detailed step-by-step methodology.

Problems in Attempting Organization Transformation

When attempting to make significant organizational change, it is useful to review the reasons that organizations sometime fail to sustain organizational transformation. Major change efforts have helped some but not all organizations adapt significantly to shifting conditions; some have improved their competitive standing, while others have been better positioned for the future. Many more have failed to achieve their plans to achieve change. Too many times the effort has lead to disappointing, even appalling results, with wasted resources and demoralized employees (Axelrod, 2001; Griffith, 2002; Kotter, 1995). Kotter (1995) suggests

the following issues that all organizations should keep in mind as they plan for change.

Allowing Too Much Complacency

Kotter (1995) argues that the biggest mistake people make when trying to change organizations is to plunge ahead without establishing a high enough sense of urgency in fellow managers and employees. When complacency levels are high, this error is fatal because transformation fails to achieve their objectives.

Failing to Create a Sufficiently Powerful Guiding Coalition

According to Kotter (1995), most research suggests that major change is nearly impossible unless the key leadership of the organization is an active supporter. In successful transformations, the president, division general manager, or department head and other key executives with the commitment to improved performance pull together as a team. Although it's unlikely to include all senior management people because some of them just won't buy in, at least at first. But in the most successful cases, the coalition is always powerful - in terms of formal titles, information and expertise, reputations and relationships, and the capacity for

leadership. Individuals alone, no matter how competent or charismatic, never have all the assets needed to overcome tradition and inertia except in very small organizations.

Underestimating the Power of Vision

Urgency and a strong guiding team are necessary but insufficient conditions for major change. With no vision, no change can be expected to work. Of the remaining elements that are always found successful transformations, none is more important than a sensible vision.

Under-communicating the Vision by a Factor of 10 (or 100 or even 1,000)

Major change is seldom possible unless the majority of employees are willing to help. Most will be willingly to make short-term sacrifices. But even if they are unhappy with the status quo, people will not make sacrifices unless they think the potential benefits of change are attractive. They must believe that transformation is possible. Without credible communications, and a lot of it, employees' hearts and minds are never captured (Kotter, 1995).

Permitting Obstacles to Block the New Vision

New initiatives fail far too often when employees, even though they embrace a new vision, feel disempowered by huge

obstacles in their paths. Occasionally, the roadblocks are only in people's minds and the challenge is to convince them that no external barriers exist. But in many cases, the barriers are very real. The implementation of major change requires the support of a large number of people (Kotter, 1995).

Failing to Create Short-Term Wins

Complex efforts to change strategies or restructure businesses risk losing momentum if there are no short-term goals to meet and celebrate. Most people are reluctant to make the effort unless they see compelling evidence journey is producing expected results in near future. Without short-term wins, too many employees give up or actively join the resistance. Real transformation takes time (Kotter, 1995).

Declaring Victory Too Soon

People involved in change can be tempted to declare victory in a major change effort with the first major performance improvement. While celebrating a win is exemplary, any suggestion that the job is almost complete is generally a mistake. The process of change takes time. Until changes sink down deeply into the culture, which for an

entire company can take three to ten years, new approaches are fragile and subject to regression (Kotter, 1995).

Neglecting to Anchor Changes Firmly in the Corporate Culture

In the final analysis, change sticks only when it becomes an integral part of corporate culture. Described as "the way we do things around here," corporate culture must change at all levels to reflect the new environment. Until new behaviors are rooted in social norms and shared values, they are always subject to degradation as soon as the pressures associated with a change are removed.

What are the consequences of not paying attention to these potential problems or errors? In a word, it's failure. New strategies aren't implemented well, acquisitions don't achieve expected synergies, reengineering takes too long and costs too much, downsizing doesn't get costs under control, and quality programs don't deliver hoped-for results (Kotter, 1996).

When is Changed Completed

So how do we know when the change has been made or fulfilled? In a word, results. Schaffer and Thomson (1998)

argue that most corporate improvement programs have a negligible impact on operational and financial because management focuses on the activities, not the result. By initiating activities-centered programs, such as statistical process control, total quality management training or others, managers falsely assume that results will materialize eventually. However, improvements seldom do materialize because there is no explicit connection between action and outcome. An alternative approach is required: results driven improvement programs that focus on achievement specific, measurable operational improvements in a few months.

While both activity-centered and results-driven programs aim to strengthen fundamental corporate competitiveness, the approaches differ dramatically. Activity-centered programs rely on broad-based policies and are more concerned with time-consuming preparations than with measurable gains. Results-driven programs, on the other hand, rely on an incremental approach to change, building on what works and discarding what doesn't. As a result, successes come quickly, and managers build their skills and gain the support of their employees for future changes.

In contrast to activity-centered programs, results-driven improvements bypass lengthy rituals and aim at

accomplishing measurable gains rapidly, according to Schaffer and Thomson (1998). The results-driven approach provides four key benefits generally missed in activity-centered programs. First, companies introduce managerial and process innovations only as they are needed. Results-driven projects require managers to prioritize carefully the innovations they employ to achieve targeted goals.

Second, empirical testing reveals what works. Because management introduces each managerial and process innovation sequentially and links them to short-term goals, it can discover fairly quickly the extent to which each approach yields results. Third, frequent reinforcement energizes the improvement process. There is no motivator more powerful than frequent successes. By replacing large-scale, amorphous improvement objectives with short-term, incremental projects that quickly yield tangible results, managers and employees can enjoy the psychological fruits of success. Fourth and last, management creates a continuous learning process by building on the lessons of previous phases in designing the next phase of the program. Both activity-centered and results-driven programs are ultimately aimed at producing fundamental shifts in the performance of the organization. But unlike activity-centered programs that focus on sweeping

cultural changes, large-scale training programs, and massive process innovation, results-driven programs begin by identifying the most urgently needed performance improvements and carving off incremental goals to achieve quickly.

Reasons for Failure

The reasons that leaders of companies fail so persistently in their efforts to manage change effectively are varied as their companies. Most seem to fall in to five major categories, according to Want (1995).

Micro versus Macro Thinking

Senior managers devote too much time of their time to operational and financial problems and not enough to issues of change and strategy. It is far too easy for them to become involved with the latest breakdown within the company when they should be constantly searching beyond the company (and even its competition) for eventual threats or opportunities for the business and the industry. Executives and managers must go beyond managing procedures or functions to manage change.

Short versus Long Term Goals Setting

With increasing pressure from their boards and shareholders to deliver profits every quarter, CEO's have

been forced to measure success in terms of months rather years. This behavior is pushed down the line so that the entire organization reacts to immediate pressures and manufactured, short-term goals.

Fixing versus Reinventing the Business

As a result of their short-term and narrow focus, corporate leaders tend to reach for tactical remedies for the business problems that are strategic and global. Many an innovative business plan has been written but never comes close to being implemented because the culture of the organization was not capable of supporting it. Too often, operational remedies are employed and new organization charts are written when poor management practices and faulty decision-making have been the real roadblocks to improve performance. For most businesses, fixing is not enough; many must be reinvented.

Failing to Understand and Manage the Culture

Most CEOs and senior officers will claim to have a feel for their company's culture. Nevertheless, they continue to act as if the culture was something that sat outside the CEO's door just waiting to respond to his latest memo. A company's culture is neither an appendage of the executive

suite door nor a touchy-feely thing that defies definition or management. Too often, the subject of culture is one that comes up only at senior management retreats.

Losing Track of the Customer

When faced with failure, too many companies blame the Japanese, the last recession, labor conditions, foreign trade restrictions, or government regulations – instead of themselves. Admittedly, business organizations are extremely complex, but their goal is simple – to satisfy customer needs. The best companies strive to exceed customer demands and work closely with their customers as partners. Poorly performing companies see their customers as a necessary evil or, at best, as the cash cow to be milked (Want, 1995).

According to Tichy (1983), organizations face major, discontinuous change that makes strategic management more difficult and more complex than ever. To succeed in this environment companies need to look at the technical, political, and cultural systems that operate within their organizations. A more comprehensive view acknowledges all three approaches and sees organizations as having to make adjustments continuously in order to resolve three basic dilemmas.

Technical Design

All organizations face a production problem; that is, in the context of environment threats and opportunities, social, financial, and technical resources must be arranged to produce some desired output. Thus, in order to solve this problem, management engages in goal setting, strategy formulation, organizational design, and the design of management systems – all done to solve the technical problems.

Political Allocation

All organizations face the problem of allocating power and resources. The uses to which the organization will be put, as well as that will reap the benefits of the organization, must be determined. Politics are reflected in decisions about compensation programs, careers, budgets, and the internal power structure of the organization. Unlike the technical area, where there are formalized tools such as strategic planning and organizational design, the concepts and language in the political area are less formal and often less overt.

Cultural Problems

Organizations are in part held together by the normative glue that is called "culture." Culture consists of the

values, objectives, beliefs, and interpretations shared by organizational members. One of the most important and most difficult tasks of top management is to decide the content of the organization's culture; that is to determine what values should be shared, what objectives are worth striving for, what beliefs the employees should be committed to, and what interpretations of past events and current pronouncements would be most beneficial for the firm. Having made these decisions, top management's next task is to communicate these value-laden messages in a memorable and believable fashion that will not be instantly forgotten or easily dismissed as corporate propaganda.

Why Do Change Efforts Fail?

Management and employees often become frustrated and puzzled when their efforts to introduce change fail to produce results (Griffith, 2002; Kotter, 2003; Meyerson, 2001). In these instances, the usual reaction is that nothing changed. Despite considerable time, energy and money, little if any change occurs. Devey (1995) suggests the most common reasons

these efforts fail. These include: (a) the human dimension of change is not addressed, (b) deep-rooted dependency behavior is ignored, (c) workers continue to distance themselves from company goals, (d) the fear of new technology is not addressed, (e) the infrastructure remains unchanged, and (f) the work force remains oriented towards "the good old days" (Deevy, 1995, p. 162).

According to Iacovini (1993), change is a rational process - one that is carefully planned and orchestrated to move organizations from one capacity to another. The secret to real success is effective management of the emotional vulnerability that accompanies organizational changes. Honoring employees' needs and helping them understand and make sense of what is going on can do more than just get them through the change. Under the right conditions, such understanding can enhance employees' personal and professional growth, add value to their lives, and lead to increased loyalty.

Resilience

Resilience is more important than ever in today's world (Brooks & Goldstein, 2003; Hoopes & Kelly, 2004; Maddi & Khoshaba, 2005; Reivich & Shatte, 2002; Siebert, 2005; Stoltz,

2000). According to Brooks & Goldstein (2003), a resilient perspective is helpful in every aspect of ordinary living, providing a foundation of emotional strength that provides help with routine challenges and sudden problems. Hoopes and Kelly (2004) argue that resilience is the essential component that helps transform the mystery of change into a manageable process. Maddi and Khoshaba (2005) state that the key to resilience is hardiness enables individuals to courageously face potentially disruptive changes and turn adversity into advantageous opportunity. Reivich and Shatte (2002) suggest that the secret to resilience lies in accurate thinking, rather than positive thinking. Stoltz (2006) argues that human resilience is not the ability to bounce back as sofas restore their shape. Rather, resilience is the human capacity to be strengthened and improved by adversities. All agree that the volatile and chaotic period that exists today will not end soon. To succeed, people must be much more resilient than they needed to be in the past. People with resiliency skills have a significant advantage over those who feel helpless or react like victims.

According to Siebert (2005), in this world of life-disrupting, nonstop change, resilient individuals can make

significant contributions in many ways. These contributions include the following: a) corporations with highly resilient employees have an advantage over their less resilient competitors; b) during downsizing, a resilient worker with a wide range of skills has better chance of being kept on; c) when many people are applying for one job, a resilient person has a better chance of being hired; d) when your old job skills are no longer needed, you are quick to learn a new way to earn an income; e) during economic hardship, resilient people give their families a better chance of pulling through and bouncing back; f) resilient people help their communities get through hard times better; g) resiliency is crucial when there are the added challenges of physical injury or living through a terrorist attack; h) a resilient person is best at making difficult situations work well; and i) resilient people are less likely to become ill during difficult times.

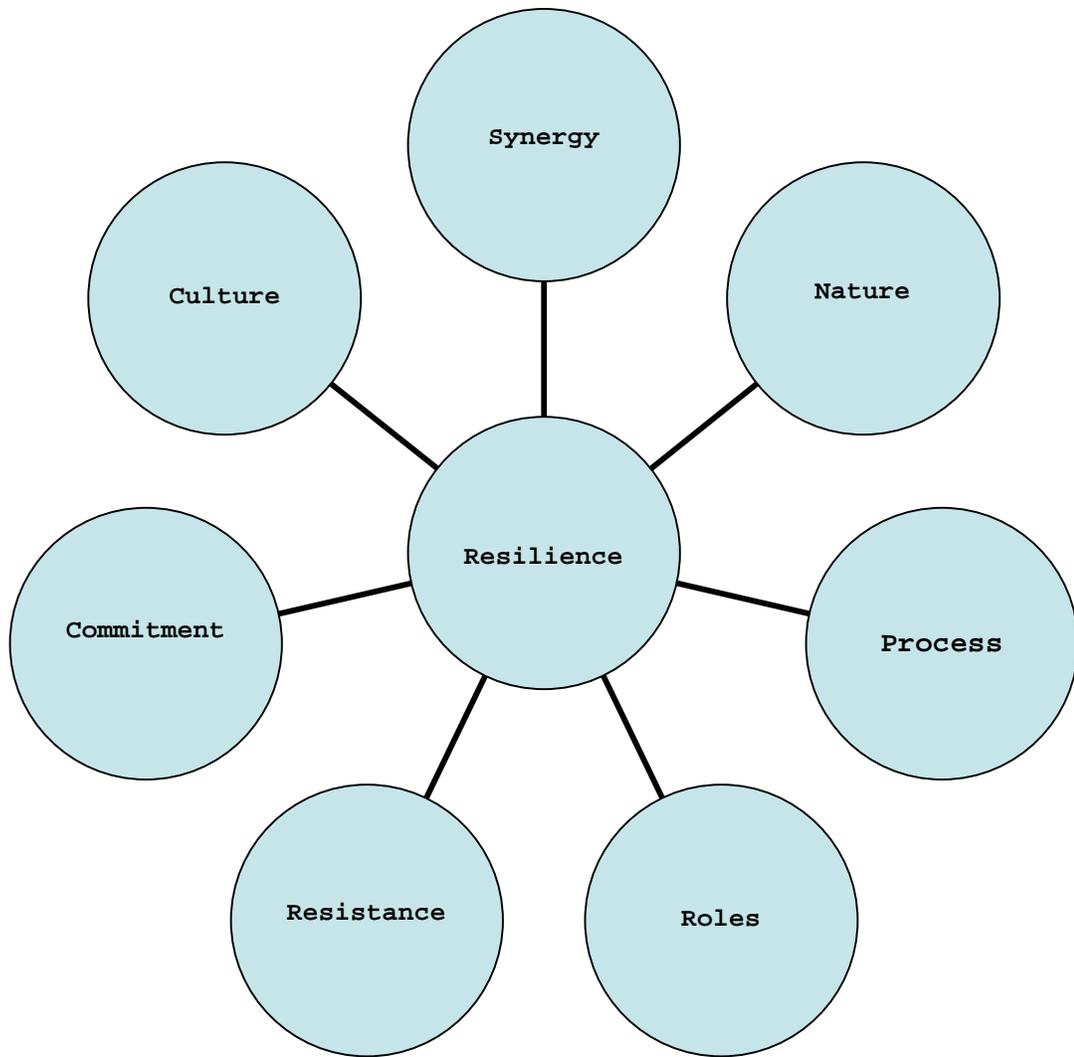
Resiliency is an essential skill in every job sector in corporations, small businesses, public agencies, professional services, and the self-employed especially during times of turmoil. It is important to understand that when an individual is hit with life-disrupting events, they will never be the same

again. They either cope or crumble; they become better or bitter; they emerge stronger or weaker (Siebert, 2005).

People are the most effective and efficient when they are moving at a speed that allows them to appropriately assimilate the changes they face (Brooks & Goldstein, 2003; Conner, 1992; Hoopes & Kelley, 2004; Maddi & Khoshaba, 2005; Reivich & Shatte, 2002). Brooks and Goldstein (2003) state that resilient individuals are those who have a set of assumptions or attitudes about themselves that influence their behaviors and the skills they develop. In turn, these behaviors and skills influence a set of assumptions so that a dynamic process is constantly operating. Maddi and Khoshaba (2005) suggest that if individuals embrace change and use it creatively, new opportunities are revealed to develop better ways of working and living. Based on research conducted over more than 15 years, Reivich and Shatte (2002) argue that the principal obstacle to tapping into resilience to deal with adversity and change lies with the individual's thinking style, or the way people look at the world and interpreting events that develops from childhood onward through life. It is not about the velocity at which things are changing, but the pace at which individuals can recover from disrupted expectations. Nor is it

about the speed at which people wish to change, or how fast others, whether they are spouses, bosses, or government organizations expect to change to occur. It is the speed at which people are able to absorb change with a minimum of dysfunctional behavior.

Connor (1995) identifies eight patterns in the organizations change process. These include: synergy, nature, process, roles, resistance, commitment, culture, and resilience. Although all the basic patterns are important, the resilience pattern is the most critical to successful change. Conner argues that it allow is central to increasing tolerance to change; nonetheless, resilience is strongest when it is fortified with principles drawn from the other patterns.



Dynamics of Human Change

Figure 1

The dynamics of human change have a definite structure, Conner (1995) argues. This structure can be viewed with resilience in a primary role in the center, surrounded by the seven other support patterns or elements (see Figure 1). These support elements address the nature of change, the process of

change, roles of change, resisting change, committing to change, how culture influences change, and the importance of synergistic teamwork. Each support element can serve as a source to strengthen support for resilience. When these linking elements are understood and used with the core element of resilience, it is possible to dramatically increase the capacity to assimilate change with the minimal impact.

Individuals must not only have the capacity to adapt to change, but they must learn to be more resilient to change (Brooks & Goldstein, 2003; Doe, 1994; Hoopes & Kelley, 2004; Maddi & Khoshaba, 2005; Reivich & Shatte, 2002). Resilience means that employees will expend less effort in assimilating the change and will thus be more productive. Resilient individuals are people who are "opportunity" driven rather than "danger" driven (Doe, 1994, p.23). They view change as an opportunity to grow. Change is a means to learn and achieve new results rather than as a threat in this view. A resilient organization requires a resilient workforce. Organizations, through selection and assessment techniques, can ensure they are hiring and keeping resilient individuals. Chances are that the surviving members of an organization downsizing are those who demonstrate resilience in their ability to be flexible and

adapt to new situations. Even these individuals, however, can benefit from support. By working with them to increase their resilience, the organization will improve its ability to adapt to changes and seize opportunities more quickly than its competitors.

Personal Resilience

Resilience is not a specific characteristic but rather a combination of traits that exist to different degrees in different people. More specifically, resilience can be viewed in terms of five broad characteristics: positive, focused, organized, proactive, and flexible (Barrett, 2004). Resilient people operate at a higher speed of change, adds Gorman and Hoopes (2002). They are able to take on a higher level of change that their counterparts without being intellectually, physically, and emotional drained. Resilient individuals are positive, focused, flexible, organize and proactive.

Resiliency is the ability of a substance to return to its original form after being bent or stretched or twisted or pushed or pulled. Resilient people have similar patterns of response, which include emotional, attitudinal, and behavioral components. These are the conditioned "muscles" of resiliency. Like athletes who get second or third "winds" which carry them

through a long run or a competition, resilient people bounce back from setbacks. They don't take time-out to worry, be fearful or angry, or especially, to agonize over whether they really want to come back at all. They do it because they have an un-ambivalent commitment to life which never has to be renegotiated or reconsidered. They do it because they never consider not doing it (Warschaw & Barlow, 1995. p. 2).

Warschaw and Barlow (1995) define the ten components of resiliency as the following: unambivalent commitment to life, self-confidence, adaptability, resourcefulness, willingness to risk, acceptance of personal responsibility, perspective, openness to new ideas, willingness to be proactive, and attentiveness. The common core of resilient people is this transcendent attitude or belief which them the passion and courage to bounce back. Resilient people exude self-confidence. They believe they can understand the world around them, set realistic goals to achieve in that world, and develop the skills required to do so. Adaptable people modify their habits to work with others, both personally and professionally. Resilient people know what resources are available for problem solving and where they can turn for support when they must have it. The resilient person doesn't play it "safe" but takes

intelligent risks grounded in real possibilities and with a good chance for success. Resilient people have a strong philosophical or spiritual belief in self-determination. Resilient people know what is important and what is not. They put their energy into serious or core issues and activities and dismiss - or enjoy - the inconsequential ones. They take in new information eagerly - and without excess pre-judgment. Resiliency is proactive - rather than reactive. Resilient people meet challenge with positive action rather than waiting until the only recourse is a reaction to actions already taken. They pay attention to the world around them.

Flach (1997) identifies similar attributes and these include: (a) a strong, supple sense of self-esteem, (b) independence of thought and action, without fear of relying on others or reluctance to do so, (c) the ability to give and take in one's interactions with others, and a well-established network of personal friends, including one or more who serve as confidants, (d) a high level of personal discipline and sense of responsibility, (e) recognition and development of one's special gifts and talents, (f) open-mindedness and receptivity to new ideas, (g) a willingness to dream, (h) a wide range of interests, (i) a keen sense of humor, (j) insight into one's

own feelings and those of others, and the ability to communicate these in an appropriate manner, and (k) a high tolerance to distress. "Focus, a commitment to life, and a philosophical framework within which personal experiences can be interpreted with meaning and hope, even at life's seemingly hopeless moments" (Flach, 1997, p. 99).

Organizational Culture

Changing the core elements of organizational culture and its underlying assumptions and core values is a difficult and very disruptive process to those living through the transitions. Changing a culture entails breaking old habits and forming new ones. Neuhauser, Bender, and Stromberg (2000) compare it to quitting smoking or taking up jogging. It requires a great deal of repetition before the new habits become second nature to the individual. When changing group behavior, even more need to be convinced that the change is really going to happen.

Neuhauser, Bender, and Stromberg (2000) describe three layers of culture, and suggest their own definition of culture. These include: (a) Shared underlying assumptions and core

values of the group: The deepest layer of culture, (b) Behaviors and habits often referred to as "The way we do things around here," and (c) Symbols and language: The most visible and simplest level of culture. Layer 1 tends to be the most stable and unchanging. Layers 2 and 3 tend to change frequently as environment and business strategy changes.

Why Organizational Resilience Matters

Why should organizational resilience matter? According to Hamel and Valikangas (2003), some might argue that there is no reason to be concerned with resilience in any organization as long as there is unregulated competition. In this view, the market will take care of itself, so long as the company operates in an unregulated market with a well-functioning stock market and no protectionist public policy. Competition acts as a spur to perpetual revitalization. Any company that fails to adjust to its changing environment loses its relevance, its customers, and ultimately, the support of stakeholders. Whether it goes out of business or gets acquired, the company's resources get reallocated in a way that raises the marginal return on those assets.

Although this view of the organizational resilience is conceptually simple, it is also simpleminded, Hamel & Valikangas (2003). While competition, new entrants, takeovers, and bankruptcies are effective as purgatives for managerial incompetence, these forces cannot be relied on to address the resilience problem efficiently and completely.

First and foremost, many important organizations lie outside the market of corporate control. These companies range from privately held companies such as Bechtel or Cargill to nonprofit organizations like the Catholic Church or the Red Cross. Some of these institutions have competitors, but many don't. A lack of resilience may go uncorrected for a considerable time, while constituents remain underserved or society's resources are wasted (Hamel & Valikangas, 2003). Secondly, competitive forces that result in acquisitions and bankruptcies are relatively awkward and ineffective means to reallocate resources from poor performing organizations to well-managed ones. When an organization fails, much of the accumulated intellectual capital is lost as teams dissolve.

Barriers to resiliency. Many barriers, both organizational and interpersonal, block resiliency. Warner and Pyle (1997) argue that there are four primary organizational causes.

Distrustful environment. In this environment, secrets are kept, promises are not. Intrigue is fostered, and backstabbing is common.

Lack of communications. Rationale for decisions is not shared, expectations not clarified, and information is hoarded.

People are not empowered. Employees are not part of the decision making process. They are told what to do and how to do it, and there is no mechanism for professional growth through shared responsibility.

General uncertainty. Employees do not know what direction the organization is headed. They constantly received mixed messages about the vitality and health of the organization, and not privy to the big picture.

How to Foster Resilience

Warner and Pyle (1997) suggest six strategies that leaders can use to foster organizational resilience.

Create a Safe Environment. During these turbulent times, uncertainty abounds and questions about the future can cause fear and discomfort. Leaders must create an environment safe for change. The change is inevitable, warranted, and will enable us to take proactive steps in creating the future.

Communication. Some organizations and people use forms of communications as manipulative tools to reach their goals. The goals are achieved, but people sacrifice their power in the process and may feel empty afterward. Leaders can stop the manipulation and model healthy communications as they listen to their employees' concerns and joys, allow them to form their own opinions, and let it be all right if their opinions are not popular. It means being direct, clear, and assertive when communicating. Healthy communication also means developing trust, which comes from the consistent actions.

Modeling vulnerability. The ego of the successful person has a constant battle with a nemesis named vulnerability. Yet the irony is that one allows the vulnerability to be exposed, an even greater battle can be won. Leaders who show a vulnerable self are showing their true personhood. They are hiding behind the masks of toughness, un-emotionality, and calculation. Instead, their leadership is the leadership of a human being, complete with frailties, imperfections and sometimes fear. When a leader models vulnerability, she or he fosters a great identification with those internal and external collaborators. Displaying vulnerability is not a sign of weakness, but rather a sign of strength.

Empowering people. To truly be empowered, an employee needs to know in which direction the organization is headed, have the autonomy to carry out the duties, have the necessary support (resources and moral), and have the trust of boss and peers. Empowerment reduces the fear, enhances the ownership, and gives the employee the tools to exceed expectations.

Providing hope. Providing employees with a vision of where the organization is going and how they are going to get there imbues a sense of purpose and hope. Hope is crushed when promises are not kept, disappointment lingers, and the organizations seem stagnant. Hope is what gives us meaning - hope for success, hope for a better work environment, hope for promotion, and hope for personal fulfillment.

Recognizing accomplishments. Each employee finds satisfaction through different mediums. The challenge to leaders is finding what means of acknowledgement make employees feel valued. For some, it may mean public recognition, monetary rewards, or simple approval. The appropriateness of various rewards will depend on the culture.

Adversity Quotient

Change itself is no longer a source of competitive advantage, according to Stoltz (2000). True competitive advantage is determined by the speed, magnitude, and direction with which an organization can change. Speeding up the change cycle is entirely dependent on the readiness of the participants. "If the people aren't on board, no amount of speeches and meetings can change a thing" (Stoltz, 1997, p. 237).

Stoltz (2000) argues that an organization's resilience to adversity or Adversity Quotient (AQ) is the determining variable in speeding up and strengthening change. First, a high AQ organization can greatly reduce the depth and width of the transition phase. This reduces the individual trauma caused by change as well as how long it takes to get to the other side.

The second advantage is that a high AQ organization can raise the bar on where it merges at the New Beginnings. People who perceive change as possible and something they can influence are going to invest far greater and more sustained energy into the process, increasing their chances of success. A high AQ individual's automatic perception that the transition

phase will pass and will not necessarily ruin everything also keeps this or her enthusiasm and energy strong.

Individuals with high AQ scores are more likely to embrace, drive, and persist through change. A high AQ response to change also creates the moment and organizational fortitude necessary to successfully navigate incessant change, Stoltz (2000) suggests. A high AQ individual's automatic perception that the transition phase will pass and will not necessarily ruin everything also keeps this or her enthusiasm and energy strong. High AQ individuals are simply more likely to embrace, drive, and persist through change.

"The survival of most organizations rests on their ability to withstand and overcome continuous and mounting adversity. The greatest source of adversity for most organizations is the constant avalanche of change" (Stoltz, 1997, p. 235). An organization is only as strong as its AQ, regardless of its talents and capacity. To be a true high-performance team it must have high-performance CORE operating systems, one that will sustain agility, innovation, problem solving, and strategic thinking in adversity-rich times (Stoltz, 2000).

Commitment

Porter (1974) first defined organizational commitment in terms of the overall strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in an organization. According to Mowday, Porter and Steers (1979), commitment should be understood as having three components: (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and, (c) a definite desire to maintain organizational membership. From this perspective, commitment should be viewed as a unidimensional construct and focused only on affective attachment. This view was supported by early factor analyses in Porter's OCQ measure of commitment which produces a single score reflecting the employee's overall commitment to the organization.

Since Mowday, Porter and Steer's initial work, at least two groups of scholars have advanced our understanding by expanding our view of commitment as having multiple dimensions and forms. These scholars were also interested in a broader set of bonds that exist between employees and organizations than Porter. Subsequent researchers have broadened the focus of their research to include other types of attachment that can

account for employee behavior and retention in the work place, while Porter focused on a bond characterized by acceptance of an organization's goals.

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) suggested the bond between an employee and an organization could take three forms: compliance, identification, and internalization. Compliance reflects instrumental behavior designed to gain rewards. Identification occurs when employees behave because they want to maintain a relationship with an organization due its attractive goals or values, even though the goals or values may not be adopted personally. Internalization reflects behavior driven by internal values or goals that are consistent with those of the organization.

Subsequently, Meyer and Allen (1991) distinguished between three forms of commitment: affective, continuance, and normative. Affective commitment refers to the emotional attachment of individuals to organizations. Continuance commitment is associated with the intention to remain with the organization due to the costs of leaving or the rewards for staying. Finally, normative commitment reflects a felt obligation to remain a member of an organization.

Mowday (1998) states that there is clearly an overlap in the way Porter conceptualized commitment and the later work of both O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) and Meyer and Allen (1991). Porter's approach to commitment is very similar to O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) internalization dimension and Meyer and Allen (1991) concept of affective commitment. As Mowday points out, Meyer and Allen (1991) suggest that research using Porter's OCQ can be interpreted as reflecting affective commitment. Nonetheless, recognizing that commitment may have multiple forms is an important conceptual advance in our understanding of the construct. There is value in recognizing different forms of commitment because it allows for a clearer understanding of the differential processes leading to the development of each form of commitment.

Meyer and Allen (1991), in their three-component model of organizational commitment, conceptualized commitment as a psychological state, or mind-set, that increases the probability that an employee will maintain membership in an organization. As discussed earlier, they used the labels affective commitment (desire to remain), continuance commitment (perceived cost of leaving), and normative commitment (perceived obligation to remain) to differentiate among

commitments characterized by different mind-sets and argued that employees can experience varying combinations of all three mind-sets simultaneously. The measures of the three mind-sets together reflect what is referred to as an individual's commitment profile.

Each of the three components of organizational commitment is an important element that can reduce the likelihood that individual will leave the organization. However, one of the most important reasons for distinguishing among them is that they can have quite different implications for on-the-job behavior. According to Meyer and Allen (1991), employees who want to remain (affective commitment) are more likely to attend work regularly, perform assigned tasks to the best of their ability, and make an extra effort to help out. Those who remain in the organization out of a sense of obligation (normative commitment) may do so only if they see it as a part of their duty, or in return for benefits received. In contrast, individuals who remain primarily to avoid costs (continuance commitment) may do little more than is required to maintain their position in the organization. Meyer and Allen (1991) offer empirical research that supports the three-component model, including predictions about differential behavioral

implications for affective, continuance, and normative commitment.

Commitment to Change

Commitment is arguably one of the most important factors involving support for change initiatives, according to Herscovitch and Meyer (2002). Commitment has been recognized as the glue that provides a vital bond between people and change goals. Yet, despite the awareness of its importance, there has been little attention paid to the definition and measurement of commitment in the change context. There is virtually no empirical evidence to substantiate the claims made about its effects. Moreover, commitment to change is generally viewed as a unidimensional construct, which is in contrast to theory and research involving other workplace commitments.

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) argued that the three-component model should be applicable to the study of other forms of workplace commitment. To facilitate its application to other workplace targets, however, Meyer and Herscovitch proposed relatively minor adjustments to the model. First, they provided a more general definition of commitment that can be tailored to any commitment scenario and can be used to guide the development of further measures. Second, they identified two

distinct forms of commitment-relevant behavior and defined a set of propositions concerning how behavior might be influenced by: (a) the different components of commitment, individually and in combination; and (b) commitments to multiple foci (targets).

The core essence of commitment should be the same regardless of the target of that commitment, according to Meyer and Herscovitch (2001). Commitment, in general, can be defined as "a force (mind set) that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets" (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001, p.302). Following the previous work of Meyer and Allen (1991), they argued that this force, or mind-set, can take different forms: desire (affective commitment), perceived cost (continuance commitment), or obligation (normative commitment). As a result, they defined *commitment to change* as a force or mind-set that binds an individual to a course of action deemed necessary for the successful implementation of a change initiative. The mind-set that binds an individual to this course of action can reflect (a) a desire to provide support for the change based on a belief in its inherent benefits (affective commitment to change); (b) a recognition that there are costs associated with failure to provide support for the

change (continuance commitment to change); and (c) a sense of obligation to provide support for the change (normative commitment to change). In other words, individuals can feel bound to support a change initiative because they want to, have to, and/or ought to. Meyer and Herscovitch argue that these mind-sets can be measured and shown to be discernible from one another, and from mind-sets relating to other workplace commitments, most notably commitment to the organization itself.

In order to make the three-component model more widely applicable, one of the modifications required was a redefinition of the behavioral consequences of commitment. In earlier applications to organizational commitment, the primary outcome of interest was job retention, although other secondary outcomes such as attendance and job performance were also considered. However, when considering commitment to other targets such as change initiatives in the workplace, job retention is typically not of primary interest. As a result of developing a more general version of the model, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) made a distinction between focal and discretionary commitment-relevant behavior. *Focal behavior* is that course of action to which an individual is bound by his or

her commitment (e.g., remaining with the organization). Although not specified within the terms of the commitment, *discretionary behavior* includes any course of action that can be included within these terms at the discretion of the individual such as exerting extra effort. Commitment, regardless of its form (affective, continuance, or normative), should lead to the enactment of the focal behavior.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

"Fall seven times, stand up eight."

Japanese Proverb

Background

St. Paul's First Lutheran Church, a congregation of the Wisconsin Evangelical Lutheran Church (WELS), is a nonprofit faith-based organization including a church, middle, elementary and pre-schools serving the community of North Hollywood, California. Founded in 1924, the congregation grew to 1,100 individuals by 1971. Although experiencing some decline in membership during the 1970's and 1980's, the congregation faced significant challenges during the late 1990's and early 2000's, caused in part to changes in pastoral leadership. The first school was erected in 1947 and saw expansion in the 1990's with the creation of the pre-school in 1996. Currently the school is serving 140 children in middle and elementary schools, and an additional 50 students in the pre-school from approximately 271 families. Although the school has a total capacity for approximately 250 students, enrollment is in decline at about 5% per year.

The WELS, characterized as theologically conservative, is the third largest Lutheran church body within Christianity in America. With national offices in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, WELS began in 1850 when three German pastors met in Milwaukee. Today, it has grown to over 1,259 congregations in North America. It has over 400,622 baptized members, which includes over 314,642 communicants, and served by over 1,267 pastors (WELS, 2006). Under the authority of individual congregations, the synod operates 383 pre-schools, 354 elementary schools, 25 high schools, and 2 preparatory high schools staffed by over 2,984 teachers with a total enrollment of 41,598 students.

The WELS is headed by a president and is supported by two vice presidents elected during its synod convention for terms of four years. The president oversees the administrative organization of the synod. The church is divided into geographic districts, which send delegates to the synodical meeting in odd-numbered years (WELS, 2006). In the synod's government, the local congregation has considerable autonomy and control separate from the church's governing body. Each congregation is lead by a male leadership team elected the male members of the congregation. The organizational structure of the leader team varies by individual congregations, but

normally consists of chairman or president, a church council representing different administrative functions of the local church, and the pastor(s), school principal or other church staff also referred to as "called workers."

St. Paul's First Lutheran Church organizational structure follows the same general pattern as other WELS congregations, although the leadership team is larger in size than most other WELS churches. The congregation is lead by a congregational chairman, vice president, and corporate secretary. The church council consists of twenty three other male members who make up the boards of elders, finance, school, trustees and youth. St. Paul's current paid staff of 35 consists of 2 pastors, a school principle, a pre-school director, 12 teachers, 2 teacher's aides, 2 secretaries, 2 custodians, and at least 15 additional part time employees.

The WELS has faced challenges during the last five years. Communicant membership has remained relatively stagnate with a modest decline to 314,642 in 2004 from 315,560 in 1999. Financial difficulties have also led to various staff cuts and consolidations (WELS, 2006). According to research published by The CHARIS Institute of Wisconsin Lutheran College, student enrollment at WELS schools has experienced significant decline.

Total enrollment from 2002 to 2003 in non-Wisconsin WELS schools declined 12.4% while Wisconsin WELS schools had an enrollment drop of 1.9%. Congregational enrollment in Wisconsin dropped by 2.8% over the same time period while outside of Wisconsin enrollment increased by 2.25%. However, from 2002 to 2003, "Other Christian" or non-WELS children enrollment increased both inside and outside Wisconsin by 7.99% and 11.79%, respectively (Jacobsen & Bauer, 2004).

The CHARIS Institute was requested by the Board of Parish Services of the WELS to investigate the possible causes for the overall decline in enrollment. Jacobsen & Bauer's (2004) research indicated that while the most growth came from the enrollment of non-WELS children, this segment was also the most volatile. They were more likely to leave the WELS schools if the perceived value is not there. The most important factors associated with value were; (a) a strong reputation for successful completion, and (b) a reputation for high returns to the education after successful completion. The research suggested that there are significant differences in commitment to maintain enrollment in WELS schools between members of the WELS versus non-member families.

St. Paul's First Lutheran Church as a congregation has also faced challenges during the last five to ten years. Located in the San Fernando Valley, an intercity area of Los Angeles, the community is in transition as it adapts to changes in socio-economic environment. During the 1990's the area suffered decline as Lockheed closed a major manufacturing facility nearby which resulted in an exodus of workers. A growing emigrant population primarily of Asian, Hispanic, Russian émigrés filled the void. The church struggled with pastoral leadership issues with one pastor resigned and a second pastor returned to academia. Suffering a long vacancy, two new pastors were installed in 2003. Congregation membership was stagnate during this same period, while enrollment in the elementary and middle schools declined by approximately 10%. However, pre-school enrollment remains at capacity. Income from offerings and school tuition remain flat to a modest decline, varying from year to year. Approximately 75% of school consists of non-WELS member children, while the remaining 25% are children of members of the church.

Although non-WELS parents and their children are not members of the WELS, they do represent an important constituency in the church organization and a majority of

parents who children attend the school. It is important to note that parents of both non-WELS parents and WELS members children; (a) pay tuition to the school, (b) are potential members of the Parent Teachers League (PTL), (c) attended the same church and school events and functions, (d) participate in various fund raising and work day events, and (e) are considered participants in St. Paul's church and school organization. Non-WELS parents play an important role in the support of organizational changes underway, and the success that St. Paul's hope to achieve.

In late 2004, Parish Assistance, an internal church consulting group, was asked by church leadership to evaluate the organization's current situation and to provide specific recommendations to better meet the needs of the current and future members of the congregation in a dynamic and rapidly changing inner-city community. Using a five phased assistance approach, the consulting team conducted a thorough evaluation and recommended specific changes. In addition, further help was provided to establish a special task force to develop a mission and vision statement.

Based on the Parish Assistance team's recommendations, the task force of seven appointed members and four advisors

developed a mission statement and vision for the congregation for the next six years. The mission statement was approved by the congregation during the summer of 2005. The task force continued through the remainder of 2005 and early 2006 to develop a vision statement, and defined a series of strategic priorities and actions plans. These recommendations will be presented to the congregation for approval during the time this study is planned.

Research Design

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between an organizations response to adversity and commitment as it relates to its ability to adapt to significant organizational change, the relationship between leadership and individual member's response to adversity and commitment, and non-member perceptions of adversity and commitments as it relates to organizational change. Quantitative methods will be used to collect data for this study. Data sources will include The AQ Profile® (Stoltz, 2000), Commitment to Change Survey, and a demographic data form.

Hypothesis and Research Questions

The quantitative research questions for this study include the following questions.

Question 1: What is the relationship between an organization's resilience and commitment to change?

H₁: Resilience and commitment to change are positively correlated.

H₀: Resilience and commitment to change are not positively correlated.

Questions 2: What is the relationship among members, employees and leadership of an organization's resilience and commitment to change?

H₁: Resilience and Commitment to Change scores will be different for volunteers, employees and leadership within the organization.

H₀: Resilience and Commitment to Change will not differentiate volunteers, employees and leadership within the organization.

Question 3: Is resilience a significant predicator of members, employees and leadership of an organization's commitment to change?

H₁: Resilience among participants is a significant predictor of Commitment to Change.

H₀: Resilience among participants is not a significant predication of Commitment to Change.

Question 4: What is the relationship between members and non-members of an organization's resilience and commitment to change?

H₁: Resilience and Commitment to Change scores will be different for member and non-member participants in the organization.

H₀: Resilience and Commitment to Change will not differentiate member and non-member participants in the organization.

Population and Sample

The location of this study was a nonprofit faith-based organization with a middle, elementary, and pre-school consisting of approximately 600 individuals located in North Hollywood, California. All adult employees, members and parents of students had the ability to participate in the research on a voluntary basis. Questionnaires were distributed to employees, members and parents of students at a brief voluntary meeting. For those not present, questionnaires were mailed to their home addresses.

Instrumentation

The instrumentation for this study consisted of three measures: the AQ Profile®, Commitment to Change Survey, and a demographic form. These instruments are included in Appendix B, C, and D.

The AQ Profile®

The AQ Profile® is designed to measure an individual's style of responding to adverse situations (Stoltz, 2000). Completing the ARP requires only eight to 10 minutes. It measures AQ and its four "CORE" dimensions—Control, Ownership, Reach, and Endurance that relate to an individual's perception of adversity. Control measures the degree of control that an individual perceives he/she has over adverse events. It is a strong gauge of resilience and health. Ownership measures the extent to which an individual holds himself or herself accountable for improving a situation. It is a strong gauge of accountability and likelihood to take action. Reach is the perception of how large or far-reaching events will be. It is a strong gauge of perspective, burden, and stress level. Endurance is the perception of time over which good or bad

events and their consequences will last or endure. It is a strong gauge of hope or optimism (Stoltz, 2000).

Herscovitch and Meyer Commitment to Change Survey

Herscovitch and Meyer's (2002) Commitment to Change Survey is an extension of Meyer and Allen's (1990) Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment. The original Meyer and Allen model is based on the observation that there were both similarities and difference in existing unidimensional conceptualizations of organizational commitments. This model identifies three elements of commitment which include affective, continuance, and normative commitment.

In three studies using the Commitment to Change Survey, Herscovitch and Meyer's (2002) demonstrated that (a) commitment to change is a better predictor of behavioral support to change than is organizational commitment; (b) affective and normative commitment to a change are associated with higher levels of support than is continuance commitment; and (c) the components of commitment combine to predict behavior. The survey consists of 18 items measure commitment to change: six items assess affective commitment; six items assess continuance commitment; and six items measure normative commitment. Responses are made

using a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from one (*strongly disagree*) to seven (*strongly agree*).

Demographic Questionnaire

Participants of this study will be asked to complete a demographic questionnaire that will provide general background on the each individual. The information to be collected will include: job title, number of years of experience in current position, number of years experience in industry, length of employment, level of education attained, service, gender, and age.

Data Collection

Each participant was provided with an envelope consisting of four documents and a return pre-paid return envelope. A cover letter (Appendix A) was provided to outline the scope of the research and provide instructions to complete the survey questionnaires. The questionnaires included the AQ Profile® (Appendix B), the Commitment to Change Survey (Appendix C), the demographic questionnaire (Appendix D).

Data Analysis

The principle focus of this research was to determine potential correlations between resilience and commitment to change as measured by the AQ Profile® and the Commitment to Change Survey in the sample group. In essence, this is a study of the relationship between two or more interval variables. Bivariate correlation analysis was used to determine if resilience and commitment are positively correlated. This form of analysis differs from nonparametric measures of association and regression analysis. Parametric correlation requires two continuous variables on an interval scale. The coefficient does not distinguish between independent and dependent variables (Cooper & Schindler, 2000).

In addition, the study also examined if significant differences exist between various sub-groups or nominal measures in the sample, and their response to resilience and commitment to change. Specifically, the study examined if there was a significant difference between pastors, call-workers, church leadership, active volunteers, members and non-members as measured by resilience and commitments to change. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and the Kruskal-Wallis Test, both

parametric measures of association, were used to test significance.

Data analysis was conducted using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 14.0 for Windows. This researcher input all data in the SPSS tool. An independent third-party not related to the research was used to validate the accuracy and validity of the data input.

Chapter 4 provides the findings of the quantitative data. This data was analyzed statistically with appropriate statistical procedures of data as outlined above.

Lastly, Chapter 5 provides a summary and discussion of the major findings of the study. Further, implications for future research are provided.

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

"We progress through change." *John H. Patterson*

Introduction

This study examined the relationship between an organizations response to adversity and commitment to change as it relates to its ability to adapt to significant organizational transformation; the relationship between leadership and individual member's responses to adversity and commitment to change; and member and non-member perceptions of adversity and commitment to change as it relates to organizational transformation. Quantitative methods were used to collect data for this study. Data sources included the AQ Profile® (Stoltz, 2006), the Commitment to Change survey with three supplemental questions and a demographic data form.

This research asked four principle questions: (a) What is the relationship between an organization's resilience and commitment to change, (b) What is the relationship among volunteers, employees and leadership of an organization's resilience and commitment to change, (c) Is resilience a significant predictor of members, employees and leadership of an organization's commitment to change, and (d) What is the

relationship between members and non-members of an organization's resilience and commitment to change. The resulting hypotheses are as follows:

Hypothesis (1): Resilience and Commitment to Change are positively correlated.

Null Hypothesis (1): Resilience and Commitment to Change are not positively correlated.

Hypothesis (2): Resilience and Commitment to Change scores will be different for volunteers, employees and leadership within the organization.

Null Hypothesis (2): Resilience and Commitment to Change will not differentiate volunteers, employees and leadership within the organization.

Hypothesis (3): Resilience among participants is a significant predictor of Commitment to Change.

Null Hypothesis (3): Resilience among participants is not a significant predication of Commitment to Change.

Hypothesis (4): Resilience and Commitment to Change scores will be different for member and non-member participants in the organization.

Null Hypothesis (4): Resilience and Commitment to Change will not differentiate member and non-member participants in the organization.

Data Collection Procedures

The location of this study was St. Paul's First Lutheran Church and School located in North Hollywood, California. A member of the Wisconsin Evangelic Lutheran Synod (WELS), St. Paul's consists of a congregation of approximately 450 members, with a middle school, elementary school, and pre-school serving approximately 190 students. All adult employees, members and parents of students had the ability to participate in the research on a voluntary basis. Questionnaires were distributed to employees, members and parents of students during August and September of 2006. The purpose of the study was explained during a brief voluntary meeting. For those not present, questionnaires with a cover letter explaining the purpose of the research were distributed to their home addresses.

Data Collection

Each participant was provided with an envelope consisting of four documents and a return pre-paid return envelope. A cover letter (Appendix A) outlined the scope of the research

and provided instructions to complete the survey questionnaires. The questionnaires included The AQ Profile® (Appendix B), the Commitment to Change survey with supplemental questions (Appendix C), and a demographic questionnaire (Appendix D).

Descriptive Statistics

Demographics

Eighty-one individuals participated in this study by completing and returning the research questionnaire. Of the 81 participants, 41% were male and 59% were female. In terms of age, 3% were under 20-years old, 20% were 20 to 39 years old, 40% were 40 to 59 years old, 36% were over 59 years, and 2% omitted a response. Sixty-five individuals identified themselves as a member of St. Paul's First Lutheran Church, 10 individuals said they were not, and six omitted a response to the question. Of those who identified themselves as members, 4% were members less than one year, 11% were between one and five years, 2% were between five and 10 years, 12% were between 10 and 15 years, 11% were between 15 and 20 years, 41% were over 20 years, and 19% omitted a response. Of the total sample, 25% of the participants had children who attend St. Paul's School, 62% did not have children who attended the school, and 13%

omitted a response. Of those with children at St. Paul's school, 5% attended less than six months, 9% attended between one and five years, 14% attended between five and 10 years, 7% attended 10 or more years, and 65% omitted a response.

The AQ Profile®

The AQ Profile® measures how individuals respond to adversity and is a powerful predictor of success. "Success can be defined as the degree to which one moves forward and upward, progressing in one's lifelong mission, despite obstacles or other forms of adversity," according to Stoltz (2000). The profile measures Adversity Quotient (AQ) and its four components: Control, Ownership, Reach, and Endurance (CORE) dimensions that together comprise the individual's AQ Profile®. Control measures the extent to which one perceives one can influence whatever happens next. Ownership measures the extent to which a person holds themselves accountable for improving a situation. Reach is the perception of how large or far-reaching events will be. Endurance is the perception of time over which good or bad events and their consequences will last or endure.

Table 2 shows the mean AQ Profile® score for participants was 146.74 and individual scores ranged from 78 to 198. In

terms of AQ Profile® dimensions, the mean Control score was 36.11, the mean Ownership score was 42.58, the mean Reach score was 33.19, and the mean Endurance score was 34.86.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations for the AQ Profile® and CORE Dimension Data

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
Sample Size (n = 81)		
AQ Profile®	146.74	21.291
Control	36.11	6.868
Ownership	42.58	5.914
Reach	33.19	6.766
Endurance	34.86	8.247

Note: All variables were measured on a 5-point Likert-style scale.

Commitment to Change Survey

The Commitment to Change survey is an extension of Meyer and Allen's (1990) Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002). The survey identifies

three elements of commitment to change which includes *affective commitment*, *continuance commitment*, and *normative commitment*. It uses a 7-point Likert-style scale with one representing strongly disagree and seven representing strongly agree. *Affective commitment* refers to the desire of the individual to remain in the organization. *Continuance commitment* refers to the perceived cost of leaving it. *Normative commitment* is identified as the perceived obligation to remain in the organization. These three measures, when combined, are referred to as the Commitment Profile.

Table 3 shows the mean Commitment Profile and subscales of *affective commitment*, *continuance commitment*, and *normative commitment* for participants. The Commitment Profile score is a sum of the three sub-scales. The mean score for Commitment Profile was 78.91 with a standard deviation of 15.32. The mean score for *affective commitment* was 34.25 with a standard deviation of 7.89. The mean score for *continuance commitment* was 19.06 with a standard deviation of 12.10. The mean score for *normative commitment* was 25.84 with a standard deviation of 7.06.

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations for the Commitment Profile and Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment, and Normative Commitment

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
Sample Size (n = 81)		
Commitment Profile	78.91	15.320
Affective	34.25	7.891
Continuance ^a	19.06	12.104
Normative	33.19	7.056

Note: ^aContinuance n = 80. All variables were measured on a 7-point Likert-style scale.

Supplemental Questions

Three supplemental questions were added to the Commitment to Change (CTC) survey, and used the same 7-point Likert-style scale with one being strongly disagree and seven being strongly agree. These questions included: (a) I believe this change is important (CTC19), (b) I do not feel this change is relevant (CTC20), and (c) How much does this change mean to you (CTC21). These three supplemental questions together with the 18 used

for the Commitment Profile represent the 21 questions contained in the revised Commitment to Change survey.

Table 4

Means and Standard Deviations for Commitment to Change Supplemental Questions

Supplemental Questions	Mean	Standard Deviation
Sample Size (n = 81)		
This change is important	5.78	1.432
This change is not relevant ^a	5.64	1.477
How much does this change mean?	5.59	1.403

Note: All variables were measured on a 7-point Likert-style scale.

^aReversed scored.

Table 4 shows the mean data generated by the participants for each supplemental question. The mean scores for the supplemental questions were as follows: (a) For question CTC19, "I believe this change is important," the mean score was 5.78 with a standard deviation of 1.43, (b) For question CTC20, "I do not feel this change is relevant," the mean score was 5.64 with a standard deviation of 1.47, and (c) For question CTC21,

"How much does this change mean to you," the mean score was 5.59 with a standard deviation of 1.40. This indicates that participants appeared to support the organizational changes under consideration.

Psychometrics

A psychometrics analysis using Pearson's Correlation Coefficient was made to determine if positive correlations exist between The AQ Profile®, Commitment Profile and the Commitment to Change supplemental questions. Psychometrics is a branch of psychology that deals with the design and interpretation of quantitative tests for the measurement of psychological variables such as intelligence, aptitude, and personality traits. As shown in Table 5, The AQ Profile® was positively correlated at a low-to-moderate level with Commitment Profile ($r=.387$) at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). The AQ Profile® was positively correlated at a low-to-moderate level with *affective commitment* ($r=.394$) at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). In terms of the AQ Profile® CORE dimensions, Ownership was positively correlated at a moderate level with Commitment Profile's *affective commitment* ($r=.567$) at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), and with

normative commitment at a low level ($r=.261$) at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). The AQ Profile® dimension of Endurance was positively correlated at a low level with Commitment Profile's *affective commitment* ($r=.343$) at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). The AQ Profile® dimension of Reach was not correlated with any Commitment Profile subscales.

Table 5 also shows that Commitment Profile was positively correlated at a moderate level with The AQ Profile® dimension of Ownership ($r=.501$) at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Commitment Profile was positively correlated at a low level with Reach ($r=.236$) at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). Commitment Profile was positively correlated at a low level with Endurance ($r=.306$) at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). With regard to the Commitment to Change survey supplemental questions, Table 6 shows a positive correlation existed between The AQ Profile® and question CTC19, "I believe this change is important," were positively correlated ($r=.359$) at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Question CTC19 was also correlated positively with Control ($r=.253$) at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), Ownership ($r=.436$) at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), and Endurance ($r=.318$) at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Question CTC20, "I do not feel this change is relevant," was positively correlated with Ownership ($r=.256$) at