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A Case Study in Revolutionary Change: From High School to Missionary Training Center

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A Case Study in Revolutionary Change: From High School

to Missionary Training Center

Shawn R. Cates

A dissertation submitted to the faculty of
Brigham Young University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education

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ABSTRACT

A Case Study in Revolutionary Change: From High School
to Missionary Training Center

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Doctor of Education

This article focuses on a case study in revolutionary change. A private school in Mexico City that had functioned for 49 years under the educational arm of The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints underwent a change in mission, purpose, structure, function, and administration in eight months. Research about organizational change contains many conceptual models and principles intended to guide an organization through large-scale change. However, this change occurred without any strict reliance on a specific change model. This qualitative study is directed at empirically discovering what main factors led to success rather than relying on anecdotal assumptions.

The change is separated into three major phases: a five-month announcement and planning period, the three-month start-up phase, and a year-long stabilizing period. Data sources included 14 interviews with people who participated in the change, a focus group with managers, and archival documents related to the functioning of the organization during these phases. Six prominent themes came from the data analysis related to change success factors. The most salient was that individual employee attitude's, beliefs and efforts were the main perceived contributing success factor. Others include continuous planning at multiple levels in the organization, the major difficulty yet positive feeling about the change, how different work teams formed and worked together; the role of experienced leaders, the support given to employees in their responsibilities, and sufficient resourcing.

Future research should look at the effect of culture clashes when multiple teams are combined under a new vision and purpose and how these cultural differences are moderated by the relationship between organizational factors and employee factors.

Keywords: organizational change, culture, change models, employee attitude

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

When you begin to complete a six-year project the list of acknowledgments is simply too long and yet this small piece of the dissertation is one I value greatly because of the reflective journey it facilitated. I began this dissertation living in the beautiful country of Mexico with my wife and then three children in 2014. Six years later, we now have six children, have moved back to the United States and have gone through a lot of "life" in this short time. That length of time meant two committee changes and quite a bit of working and reworking this paper.

I am deeply grateful for all who have been involved from the beginning until now. Julie Hite, my first chair, started this with me and was amazingly supportive and helpful. I am sure I drove her nuts with my stop and start process. Her insight, intelligence, organization, and desire were such a blessing. My plans to finish before she retired wasn't possible because more "life" happened. Thank you, Julie! I also want to thank others who helped encourage me and push me along in the first stages of this project—Vance Randall, Steve Hite, Scott Ferrin, Buddy Richards, and others who continued on the committee. You are amazing and your patience with me and encouragement knows no bounds. Also, thanks to Michele and everyone else in the EDLF office!

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DESCRIPTION OF DISSERTATION STRUCTURE AND CONTENT

This paper, *A Case Study in Revolutionary Change: From High School to Missionary Training Center,* follows a hybrid format. It combines traditional dissertation requirements with journal publication formats. The preliminary pages of the dissertation reflect requirements for submission to the university. The dissertation report is presented as a journal article and conforms to length and style requirements for submitting research reports to education journals.

The extended literature review is included in Appendix A, including references specific to the section. Appendix B contains additional research method information, including references. Appendix C includes the Institutional Review Board (IRB) forms and approval to conduct research. Appendix D contains the list of interview and focus group questions. The approval forms and interview questions were provided to people in Spanish though English interview questions are listed and examples of IRB forms are included in both languages.

This dissertation format contains three reference lists. First, a list of references included in the journal-ready article. The other two are associated with the extended literature review in Appendix A and the additional method information in Appendix B.

Introduction

In 2013, a private school in Mexico City that had functioned for 49 years under the educational arm of The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (the church) experienced a revolutionary change when an extensive transformation was consolidated into a short time. Due to the circumstance, there was no time for incremental adjustments over time or the liberty to adjust the timeline of when the change could be implemented. Within six months the school was converted into a language training institution for post-high school young men and women who volunteer to teach gospel principles to people throughout Spanish-speaking areas of the world.

The initiative involved changing the organization's mission, purpose, structure, function, and administration, while also making some physical facility changes. Well over 50% of the staff turned over to fulfill the goals of the new organization. The implementation of this change was considered successful. Archival data, including organizational surveys, indicate success, along with statements from stakeholders and leaders of the Church.

This research takes a qualitative view of the change and analyzes what contributed to its success and how those elements fall into major models of change theory. One interesting contribution this study makes is that the organizational change is looked at from the perspectives of the frontline employees (what they felt, experienced and observed throughout the transition) and the administrative leaders view, including planning and analysis from the moment the idea of this change was first discussed. The change occurred in three major phases: the announcement and planning period, the early transition during the first months, and a stabilizing period during the next year.

Organizational change management is a broad discipline with significant contributions from both practical and theoretical foundations. Much of the practical contributions have grown

from professional's experience and some of it has less empirical support but enjoys broad acceptance and praise from practitioners (Hughes, 2016). Both researching and applying change theory is complex because it is a research field that is applied across multiple contexts such as education, health care, business, non-profit, policy implementation and other areas.

One way to view this case's specific change is as a merger between multiple organizations or teams within a parent organization to achieve a new objective. The three clearly defined organizations that were brought together were the Benemerito school, the initial Mexico Missionary Training Center, and a team from the Area Temporal Affairs office for the Church in Mexico. Little research has been done on merging teams together, even though internal changes are common practice (Appelbaum et al., 2017). This is an area that merits additional learning. This study helps to add insights to such a process while also showing how different aspects of organizational change research align with the success factors of this change.

Statement of the Problem

Research about organizational change contains many conceptual models and principles intended to guide an organization through large-scale change. However, this change occurred without any strict reliance on a specific change model. Therefore, assumptions are made about what contributed to its success. This research is directed at this problem and at empirically discovering what main factors led to success rather than relying on anecdotal assumptions. This will inform leaders who are working in the non-profit or educational sectors, including leaders in The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints and it will also provide insights and confirmation of principles in change management research.

Statement of Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to examine the success contributors to a major organizational change. The questions we aim to provide insight into are: (a) What components made this change initiative successful? (b) What were the challenges and are there components that could have made this change initiative more effective? (c) To what extent were theoretical change models manifested and which models help explain the success of the change?

Success of the Organizational Change

Change initiatives do not typically fall into a pass/fail categorization but rather a spectrum of degrees of success and failure. The challenges and shortcomings are discussed in this paper, however, success in this situation has been simplified to this question: "Was the organization able to fulfill its objectives within stakeholder's acceptable parameters and as shown by learner evaluations?" The answer is yes, as evidenced by the following:

- Effective missionary training (leadership reports)

- Positive missionary evaluation of training experience (organizational survey data)

- Within budget

- No major security issues

- Mission leader feedback from those who received the missionaries after their training

Organizational Context

In order to understand much of this study, it is important to understand some of the history and context of the involved organizations as it serves as a basis for much of the cultural underpinnings at the time of the change. This context also contributes to the interpretation of the data and their different sources.

Centro Escolar Benemerito de las Americas (CEBA)

CEBA served as an elementary, secondary, high (including boarding students) and normal schools throughout its almost 50-year history. It had a deep significance for the local people and particularly members of the Church, preparing students to be leaders in many fields (B. E. Morgan, 2013a). At the groundbreaking ceremony in November of 1963, a prominent leader of the Church, Marion G. Romney, said the following:

> This school for which we are breaking ground today is destined to become a great
>
> Spanish-speaking cultural center. Its influence . . . will be felt in all of Latin America,
>
> including South America. Hundreds of thousands of people will come here. Going out
>
> from here, they will help the Nation build up its education, its culture and its spirituality.
>
> This school will prepare [people] for a better future here on the earth, and for eternal life
>
> in the world to come. (B. E. Morgan, 2013b, pp. 56–57)

By the 2012-2013 school year, nearly 23,000 total students had enrolled. As a result, many of the teachers and administrators were alumni and there was a deep shared culture (Miron, 2013). If Schein's (1984) observation that the stability or homogeneity of the membership of the organization and the "length and intensity of shared experiences" (p. 7) determine the strength of the culture, then the school's culture would be categorized as strong. There were also strong subcultures in the school among different divisions and functions.

The Original Mexico Missionary Training Center

Missionary Training Centers (MTC) began to be established mainly in the 1970s to prepare young men and young women who entered missionary service to "invite others to come unto Christ by helping them receive the restored gospel of Jesus Christ…" (The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, 2019) in the language of their assigned location. Accordingly, the

two main objectives of these training centers are to provide a language foundation and to receive orientation and preparation for other aspects of missionary service. In 1983 the training center in Mexico City was formally established ("About the Mexico MTC," n.d.). This center trained local Mexican and other Latin missionaries who served in Spanish speaking areas, mainly in Mexico. At the time of the change in 2013, the Mexico MTC had two main leadership roles: an administrative manager and an ecclesiastical leader, known as the MTC president. The manager was a full-time employee who supervised instruction, logistics, housing, hiring, and staffing of part-time teachers. He had two other full-time employees and 16-28 part-time teachers on his team. A couple serving a two-year volunteer assignment living on-site cared for ecclesiastical matters and the spiritual and emotional wellbeing of the missionaries. They were assisted by other local volunteers who served a handful of hours a week.

Mexico Temporal Affairs Office

Each major region of the world where the church operates has a regional office. Similar to an MTC, there is ecclesiastical and administrative leadership for the area. The administrative team is part of the Temporal Affairs Office and is headed by a director who is an employee. This team is responsible for functions such as physical facilities, finance, human resources, travel and materials, and information systems in the country. The Mexico temporal affairs office provided some services to the school and to the original missionary training center. As the school became an MTC this office became a main collaborator and provided more services to the organization. Some of the employees had studied at Benemerito and worked there.

International Missionary Training Center Administration

The role of this group is to oversee operations of the MTCs around the world, including the original Mexico MTC. It was a small team of two to three people located at the main Provo

MTC on the campus of Brigham Young University. This team hired the full-time MTC employees, trained them, carried out site visits, provided support to the MTC president and assisted with curriculum implementation and overall resourcing. This team lead the planning phase of the change until the new MTC had a Director of Training and Operations in place.

Department of Church Education

This department has high-level responsibility for all schools and other educational institutions of the church throughout the world. They helped oversee the school. The leadership of this department, the Board of Education, makes strategic decisions about educational institutions. Members of this department were involved in the planning phase and were in charge of the closure of the school. The transition from a school to an MTC meant combining people from the original Mexico MTC, CEBA, the Mexico temporal affairs office, and the International MTC Office to carry out this large-scale change.

Literature Review

Organizational change theory has been developed for over 100 years and can be traced back to Taylor's 1911 book, Scientific Management (Burke, 2002; Taylor, 1911). Van de Ven and Poole (1995) estimated that by 1995 approximately a million articles had been published on the subject. Organizational change research is multi-disciplinary and draws on fields such as political science, psychology, social science, management theory, and many others. It includes leadership, specific change models, model typologies, change leadership, factors that are most important in a change initiative, organizational culture, organizational death, resistance to change, psychological impact, and detailed processes for effecting change (Bouckenooghe, 2010; Burnes, 2004; Erwin & Garman, 2010; Kezar, 2001; Schein, 1984; Todnem By, 2005; Van de Ven & Poole, 1995; Waclawski, 2002).

Many organizational change models exist that can be used for academic or practitioner purposes. These two areas do not always align. Todnem By (2005) concluded that theories and approaches to change management currently available to academics and practitioners can be contradictory, lacking empirical evidence and supported by untested hypotheses. There does not seem to be consensus regarding an organizational change management framework among researchers. As further evidence of this, Figure 1 shows multiple models with significant overlap. There is broad consensus that the pace of change is increasing greater than ever and that change is motivated by a mixture of internal and external factors with great variability from one change effort to another (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Beer & Nohria, 2000; Burnes & Bargal, 2017; Kotter, 1996, 2012b; Todnem By, 2005).

Most Prominent Planned Change Models

Four representative models during the last 70 years of planned change research are: (a) Lewin's (1947, 1948, 1951) freeze and unfreeze model, (b) Bullock and Batten's (1985) four-phase model, (c) Gersick's (1991) punctuated equilibrium and (d) Kotter's (1996, 2012a) eight-step process for leading change. Kotter's model has enjoyed 25 years of popularity among practitioners and in the past decade many studies have used it as a guiding framework in an attempt to provide academic validity and insight into the model (Pollack & Pollack, 2015; Radwan, 2020). In the last 15 years, there has also been some resurgence of Lewin's principles as a foundation for change research (Burnes & Bargal, 2017).

Figure 1

Summary Comparison of Representative Change Models

Lewin Approach, 1946	Four-Phase Model, Bullock & Batten, 1985	Miles, Fullan Change Process, Fullan, 1989	Punctuated Equilibrium, Gersick, 1991	Kotter's Eight Step Model, 1996, 2002, 2012
Unfreeze	Exploration	Initiation	Equilibrium held through organizational Inertia	Establish a Sense of Urgency
	Planning		Organizational disruption (collapse or dismantle)	Create the Guiding Coalition
				Develop a Vision and Strategy
				Communicate the Vision
Change	Action	Implemen-tation	Revolutionary change	Empower Broad-Based Action
				Generate Short-Term Wins
				Consolidate Gains & Produce More Change
Freeze	Integration	Institutiona-lization	New equilibrium	Anchor new approaches

Note. A 2015 literature review by Al-Haddad & Kotnour (2015, p. 249) has another helpful change model comparison showing similar parallels with other models.

Many researchers that focus on planned-change models provide the following suggestions. "Regardless of the change method managers choose to adopt, the method has to be well aligned with the organizational change type" (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015, p. 254). A systematic methodology that is appropriate to the change is helpful for people to map processes,

but executing makes the real difference in change efforts (Cole et al., 2006; Paper et al., 2001). Appelbaum et al., (2017) suggested that organizations going through "employees adapting to new situations should carefully design the change path leading from the pre-change to the post-change situation" (p. 226). Hughes (2016), upon reviewing Kotter's model, suggests, "Instead of eight 'off the shelf' steps, there would be real merit in a leader assembling their own n-step approach" (p. 455). While many studies have provided support to at least portions of the Kotter model (Appelbaum et al., 2012; Baloh et al., 2018; Radwan, 2020; Wentworth et al., 2020), Burnes and James (1995) concorded with many others that there is not one best way to manage change and suggested using contingency theory. Contingency theory argues that a series of change approaches should be selected based on the situation (Dunphy & Stace, 1993). These suggestions are congruent with other recommendations of using a mixed-methods approach to successfully navigate change initiatives based on the aspects of the organization most affected by the change (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015; Hughes, 2016). The underlying principle is to have a plan and ensure it addresses principal change domains such as change readiness, vision, communication, and culture; employee emotional support; organizational structure; and main actions and barriers to change.

Barriers to Change

Major barriers to change in the research include resistance to change (Oreg, 2006), organizational inertia (Gould & Eldredge, 1977), and issues related to individuals' attitudes, motivations, cognitive processes, and actions (Burnes & James, 1995; Lines, 2005). Sparr (2018) noted that "The success or failure of organizational change is highly dependent on employee behavior" (p. 162). Thus one of the oversights in change efforts is that change management often neglects the people aspect of change and how it affects their thought process, abilities and

behavior related to change (Furst & Cable, 2008). Motivation, cognition, and culture influence

are among some of the influencers of people's behavior in change settings. Burnes, Gersick,

Tushman and Romanelli, and others who have written about individual's reactions to change,

have noted multiple motivational barriers (Albert, 1984; Gersick, 1991). One of these is

summarized by Bell and Taylor (2011) and touches on the pain of loss, the uncertainty, and the

fear of failure that accompany the implication of change, which usually involves the termination

of meaningful constructs and defining new ones. Motivation during change is also rooted in

employees' experiences of uncertainty, disruptions, and the approach for making sense of

changes (Maitlis & Sonenshein, 2010; Sparr, 2018).

One cognitive theory of change was described by Burnes and James (1995) as cognitive

dissonance, which is defined as the degree that a person's attitudes and behavior are consistent.

High dissonance is a misalignment of attitude and behavior and negatively affects change

initiatives (Burnes & James, 1995). From this view, analyzing the potential degree of dissonance

and working to lower it can reap benefits as the change initiative is being implemented (Burnes

& James, 1995). Finally, external factors and poor change leadership and management also

represent potential change barriers (Garvin & Roberto, 2005; Hughes, 2016).

Frameworks for Analyzing Change and Reducing Barriers to Change

Beyond planned change models, research about other change frameworks leads to a new

ecosystem of theory and tools to navigate change efforts and address barriers. Among this small

universe of research, some of the most relevant concepts are (a) the interplay between desired

change and the organization's culture, context, and values (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Schein, 1996,

2006); (b) supporting individuals involved in change (Erwin & Garman, 2010; Furst & Cable,

2008; Radwan, 2020; Thomas & Hardy, 2011); (c) focusing on different frames or views of the

organization to navigate change (Bolman & Deal, 2017; G. Morgan, 1995); and (d) distributed leadership and leadership selection (Fullan, 2008; Peterson & Deal, 1998).

Organizational Culture

Schein (2006) observed that culture influences people and organizations at every level and therefore understanding the "shared tacit assumptions" is a central part of organizational change efforts. Some change researchers and culture advocates have concluded that change management, in large part, is culture management and influence (Appelbaum et al., 2017; Burnes & James, 1995; Schein, 2006). Weston (2018) analyzed cultural frameworks within organizational change and concluded that instilling a change-oriented culture is an effective way to produce on-going change. Analyzing the alignment of a change initiative and culture has been a long standing part of change efforts but it is usually approached from an objective, data perspective as opposed to additional methods, like observation, interviewing and other interventions in the organizational (Schein, 1996). This analysis requires understanding the culture. And Schein (1996) notes that, "The processes of learning about a system and changing that system are, in fact, one and the same" (p. 65).

Employee Support

While employee support may not be a change framework it is one of the most effective ways to reduce individual barriers to change (Erwin & Garman, 2010; Furst & Cable, 2008; Radwan, 2020; Thomas & Hardy, 2011). Rather than resist resistance, supporting employees who avoid or go against the change has shown to decrease it (Erwin & Garman, 2010). This is particularly true in large-scale revolutionary changes (Szamosi & Duxbury, 2002). Some principal constructs of support are broad, ongoing communication to different stakeholders about the change, positive work environment, trust and understanding between people in supervisorial

roles and employees; employees feeling cared for, the organization recognizing loss in the change process, participation and influence in the change effort, and shared common goals (Albert, 1984; Erwin & Garman, 2010; Szamosi & Duxbury, 2002). Most change represents some kind of loss for many involved parties and this is often associated with grief (Zell, 2003). The corresponding support for this is helping employees accept and work through the loss and grief, which should include ceremonies that facilitates this (Bell & Taylor, 2011).

Analyzing Change Through "Frames"

The Bolman and Deal (2017) approach outlines the following perspectives or frames a change practitioner can use to approach a change undertaking: (a) structural, the formal organization which the authors compare to factories. (b) The human resource frame, which is compared to families and centered on how people are feeling. (c) The political frame is compared to jungles and focuses on information imbalance and power. (d) Finally, the symbolic frame deals with the vision, stories, myths, rituals or organizational traditions, is compared to temples, and resembles organizational culture (Bolman & Deal, 2017). The basic principle of a frame approach is that a more holistic systems approach is needed to reduce change failure: "We blame individuals when the real problems are systemic" (Bolman & Deal, 2017, p. 408). The connection between organizational change and each frame's accompanying barriers along with strategies to overcome them are the heart of the reframing approach. Criticism of the frame approach include unrealistic assumptions and over intellectualizing environment interactions (Palmer & Dunford, 1996; Porac & Rosa, 1996).

Distributed Leadership and Selection

Many researchers have maintained the importance of distributed leadership. It allows for solving more problems, supporting more people through a change effort, and having people influence the process, which increases support and continuity when leadership changes (Fullan, 2008; Garvin & Roberto, 2005; Peterson & Deal, 1998). Leader selection often determines whether leadership will be distributed and affects change initiatives and organizational performance. For example, promoting from within often provides more innovation and results than hiring externally (Balsmeier & Buchwald, 2015; Bidwell, 2011). In one case study on reforming an Arizona school system, one of the main success factors was making the leader, who helped plan and champion the political policy for reform, the one responsible for implementing the change (Garn, 1999).

Method

This section will describe the methodology used and outline the methods applied to this qualitative study. This includes the sampling strategy for the case, archival data availability and initial analysis that helped guide the interview and focus group strategy. The sampling for interview candidates, interview method, how coding was executed, and finally how data analysis was carried out to lead to the study's findings is also included.

The research questions of this study are aimed at exploring the phenomena of a specific change effort. The goal here is to describe factors on an institutional and personal level that affected the change. In order to describe group and individual experiences and feelings it became apparent that a qualitative methodology was warranted (Corbin et al., 2008). We desired to provide descriptions of how people experienced the change and what they perceived to be the

main factors that brought success, particularly those who were on the ground level working on the immediate operations of the training center.

A large part of the data was archival data, which the organization granted permission to use. For the interviews and focus groups, we sought internal review board approvals and used approved consent forms for both supervisors of the employees who were participating and the participants themselves. One of the author's participation as an actor in the organization and his specific role was disclosed as part of this process. Institutional Review Board approval was obtained before research began and all participants gave signed consent.

Only part of the purpose of this study is to have insight into theoretical underpinnings from change theory. The other crucial aspect is to understand the human experience of the change since the majority of this change was a human effort of navigating how to do things radically different. This may seem categorically true of all change efforts, but the distinction is that this was not a change that was motivated by external factors or declining metrics. It was a decision to meet an organizational need brought on by internal decisions. In some ways it could be viewed as merging multiple teams of an organization and creating a new mission for them, which is a less studied subject (Appelbaum et al., 2017).

This study attempts to understand the experience of those who were furthest from the people who made the decision to change the organization and yet closest to making much of the work happen. It used grounded theory methodology to purposively sample participants for interviews and a focus group. We carried out multiple rounds of coding while still looking at the larger organizational context through archival data. Figure 2 shows an adapted version of a chart from Chun Tie et al. (2019) that outlines the methods used.

Case Study Selection

This case was selected purposively due to four main factors. First, the extremeness of the change, particularly across the dimensions of how much time the change had to be completed in and how much of the organization had to change, which provides for enhanced visibility into the social phenomenon (Bleijenbergh, 2010). Second, despite not being an average case, at a high level, it represents many common change situations: multiple teams and cultures are brought together based on circumstance rather than choice around a vision to find a way to forge new teams, processes and action that will lead to outcomes. Third, the researcher's in-depth familiarity and access to the organization across multiple years allowed for a rich research experience. Finally, this study is useful to stakeholders, yet maintains theoretical relevance.

Figure 2

Research Design Framework for This Case Study
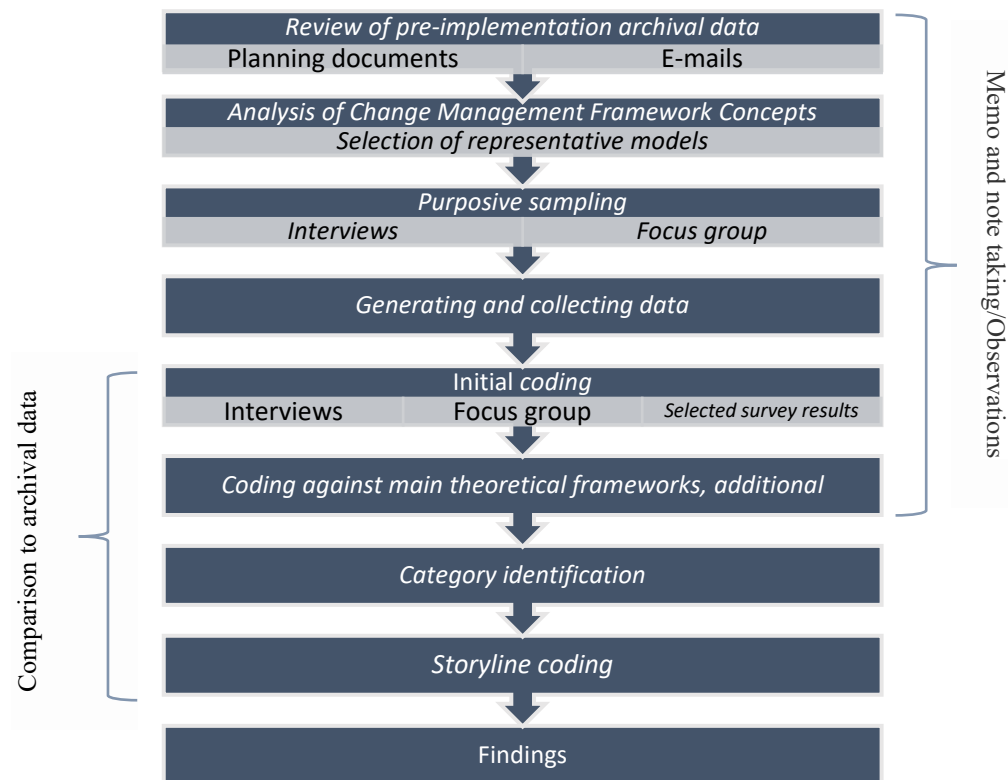
Note. Adapted from Chun Tie et al. (2019).

Archival Data

This study relied on four main data sources: (a) archival data, (b) interviews, (c) a focus group, and (d) observation data. Archival data included a broad range of information that focused mainly on the planning phase and early implementation of the change. It includes e-mail communications shared with the researcher between some of the leaders, survey data from the organization's internal surveys, meeting minutes, news articles and memos. I did not have full access to all the data in each of these sources, excepting the survey results.

As a result, these data represent a non-random sample yet with significant depth and useful as a triangulation point with other data sources to have a deeper view of what was occurring during the change. It also provides a view from leadership that the interviews did not. The surveys consisted of employee workforce surveys carried out in May and October 2014 and ongoing missionary exit questionnaire results, of which only a subset of questions is relevant to this study. Meeting minutes and memos include documents outlining goals, plans for staffing different functions, organizational structure options and analysis and recommendations to upline leadership. News articles were taken from the church's newsroom. E-mail communications were mainly from December 2012 to June 2013 and cover many of the communications from the planning phase. Archival data contained a mixture of content in English and Spanish.

Interview Participants

The goal of most of the interviews was to gather data that would provide insight into the change experience for those closest to the "frontline" of the work. These were employees who were teaching, cleaning, transporting missionaries, working in food services and others. Some of their direct supervisors were included in the interview sampling process. Management of the different departments were not included in the interview sampling list but were included in the

focus group list. Candidates were selected purposively from these groups to capture a broad range of perspectives. This was done by categorizing the functions of the organization and creating a list of the employees in each one. This list was then reviewed to exclude management and others who could not participate due to other circumstances (e.g., on extended leave). Criteria was set to include both men and women in the sampling. A random sample of two people were selected from each category. Supervisors and the employee both consented to the participation.

The first 12 interviews were carried out in 2016 in person by two people—me, the main researcher, and an assistant who had worked for the organization and had higher education experience with qualitative research methods. Fourteen interviews were planned but one of the recordings was not of sufficient quality to transcribe and one of the employees was not available during the time interviews were being carried out. Most of these interviewees had come from one of the three organizations that were combined to make up the MTC rather than someone who was recently hired so that they could speak to the change effort from personal experience. Because of this, these interviews provided more insight into the start-up and stabilization phase of the change. Two interviews were also held with administrators who assisted extensively with the change, including some of the planning phase, and could not participate in the focus group. One worked on the effort shortly before the change and was in Mexico for the first seven months and the other was the manager of the original Mexico MTC. The interviews were carried out using a semi-structured format with the same base of questions as a common reference for all interviewees. I did not interview anyone within my reporting line.

All interviews and the focus group were carried out in Spanish. I have spent more than seven years in Latin America, have an advanced Oral Proficiency Interview score and enlisted

native Spanish speakers to transcribe the interview recordings into Word or Excel documents. These were reviewed by a second person, in some cases me, after initial transcription. Transcriptions were then uploaded into NVivo and coding took place using the Spanish text with nodes written in English.

Focus Group Participants

In looking at different levels in the organization and different time periods, there were a series of guiding change coalitions, one of which was the managers of each major department and some of their direct reports. The interviews focused on the frontline employees but to obtain this management group's perspective and experience, a focus group was held with eight people. These were selected by ensuring representation from each department by random sampling from each manager and his or her direct reports. In the case where there were only two potential candidates, both were invited. The research assistant carried out the focus group due to potential conflicts since I had recently been the direct supervisor of some participants.

Observation and Study of the Organization

Schein recommends that one of the most effective ways to gather data is to become a part of the organization and engage in direct observation and interventions (Schein, 1985). I, as the main researcher, was also one of the actors in the organization. Some personal observations from my experience are included in this study. I studied much of the organization in some depth before being a part of the organization in Mexico, as the director of training and operations, and this study continued during my time there. For example, I studied site maps, went through historical construction documents, read employee experiences from the school, attended events and attended the final graduation. I did the same for the original Mexico MTC that existed before the school was converted into an MTC.

Data Analysis

This study focused on coding data in NVivo. Many of the principles in the grounded theory method were used in the analysis (Chun Tie et al., 2019). However, after a full review of the data and a round of open coding, categories from relevant change research were also used to code against. It would have been irresponsible to not use existing frameworks that showed some alignment to what was seen from the beginning of the change effort or to not use those frameworks to offer alternative explanations of the interview comments. Implicit in the third research question that deals with analyzing theoretical change management models is the concept that to some extent some of the change may not be explained by a change model. This openness to additional explanations were helpful in the coding process and led to initial coding being done openly and then moving to coding in parallel to concepts in prominent change models.

The Kotter model was specifically used along with other constructs outlined in the literature review. This was done to allow first for a less-biased identification of themes and then to also see how the data matched to change theory. This is also akin to having an emic and etic viewpoint and looking at the data from within the organization and then moving to an external view to see how the data falls into other viewpoints of change. The interview questions and questions of this investigation also lent themselves to initial coding nodes.

The specific coding process is outlined in Figure 3. First, data sources were separated into different categories: interview, focus group, and archival documents that includes memos, meeting notes, e-mails and the organization's own surveys. All documents were read, and interviews were listened to at least twice before transcription After being transcribed, they were reviewed by an additional Spanish speaker and read through by the researcher. The interview transcriptions were then coded using open coding methods before other data were analyzed.

Approximately 41 initial codes came from the coding process. This open coding quickly led to axial coding and looking at node relationships. Some of the open/axial coding nodes were, for example, employee training, employee selection, communication, and belief of historic change.

The archival documents, including organizational surveys, memos, meeting notes and e-mails were then coded. These tended to reveal many topics typical of change literature. Some new emic categories emerged and nodes that came directly from organizational change models and research turned into themes. As coding was done, observations and connections to literature were noted. The themes identified are outlined in the discussion section. The general threshold for a construct to rise to the level of a theme consisted of 20 references. Themes also met a 50% threshold of the interviews represented and included archival document, focus group, or observation references. Two specific themes about organizational structure and planning were included that did not meet the 50% interview threshold but had had over 30 references and 15 data sources from archival documents.

Figure 3

Coding Process Used for This Study
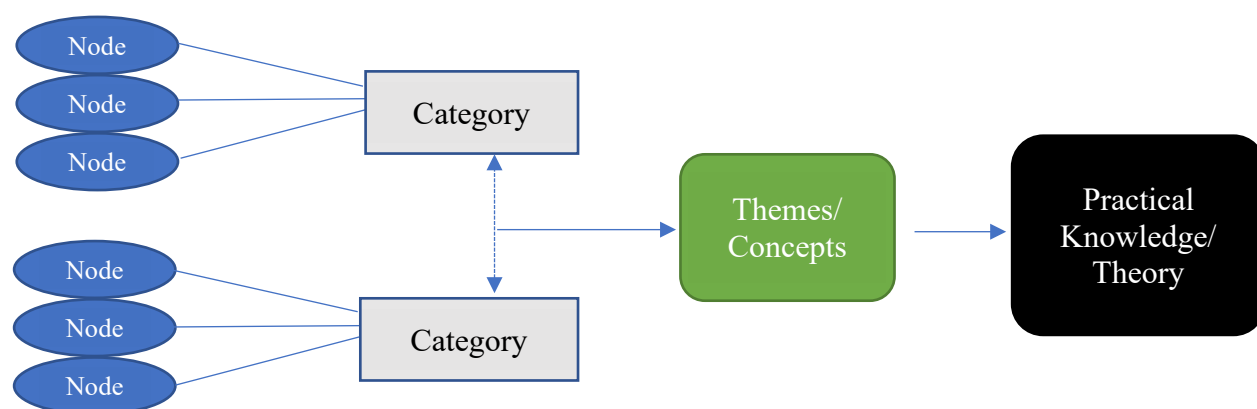
Note. Adapted from the Coding Manual for Qualitative Researchers and Five Misunderstandings about Case Study Research (Flyvbjerg, 2006; Saldaña, 2009).

Findings

We set out to investigate what made this change initiative successful, what could have made it more effective, and to what extent theoretical change models were manifested and help explain the success of the change from an individual and process perspective. Multiple data sources and perspectives were analyzed to gather a more complete picture of the change. Analysis shows that no single planned change model (e.g., Kotter's 8 Step model) matches the process or principles that made this change successful but rather a multitude of contributing factors led to success. Most notable was a less studied concept in the literature of personal values and beliefs that aligned with the change effort. Burnes and James (1995) described this in terms of cognitive dissonance. Other employee attitude factors were commonly noted in the interviews.

This is one of six prominent themes that came from the data analysis related to change success factors. First, the attitude, beliefs and effort of the employees were commonly lumped together in comments and make up by far the largest theme in the data set of success factors. Much of this came from their personal beliefs and commitment to the purpose of the organization of helping missionaries prepare to serve, from local leadership and from how the announcement of the change was made. The next most likely contributing factor is that the change was continuously planned and supported by leaders at multiple levels in the organization. Third is that the change was difficult for many on an individual and organizational level but at the same time seen often as a positive thing. This difficulty was supported throughout the change, even if it did take some time to figure out processes, training, and other support. Fourth, interactions around different work teams forming and how they worked together, particularly at the beginning, had among the most positive references. Fifth is that experienced leaders helped communicate a vision and guide the change effort and support or empower employees in their

responsibilities. Some of these factors can be seen in Table 1. Finally, is that the change effort was well resourced from both a human resource and financial perspective and this was facilitated by broad support from Church leadership to make the change.

Table 1

Positive and Negative Employee and Leadership Coding Themes

	Negative	Positive
1 : Leadership	5	12
2 : Trust in leaders	0	5
3 : Employee Motivation	2	8
4 : Belief of Historic Change	0	4
5 : Attitude of employees	9	21
6 : Employee Beliefs	1	7
7 : Employee capability	1	6
8 : Employee effort	3	13
9 : Employee individual change	1	7
10 : Employee Selection	1	3
11 : Employee training	3	5
12 : Team forming and work	5	24
13 : Empower to act	0	10
14 : Communicate Vision	2	10

Note: the number of data points for each category is represented by color—red being the smallest (0) and increasing through orange, yellow, yellow green, light green and dark green (20+).

Many other factors contributed to the change, such as employee selection, organizational structure, urgency and considering organizational culture, among other things, there were also negative elements associated with some of these same factors. The individual change experience reveals that many people went through "mixed feelings"—both a difficult, sometimes frustrating, sad, and emotional process combined with excitement, hopefulness, and peace of mind. The challenges that served as obstacles to achieve more thorough change and improvements were mostly related to organizational culture, particularly subcultures that came from combining people from multiple organizations to support the MTC, and ineffective communication. Figure 4 provides a summary of contributing factors from an organizational and individual lens. The top

organizational factors section shows both success factors noted in the literature and seen in this change along with areas of opportunity that would have made this change more effective. No single change theory or model encompasses all these constructs, which provides credence to the idea of a mixed method change approach catered to the change context and goals. The bottom employee factors section shows the main individual success factors that were observed. Both organizational and employee factors were observed to influence each other and directly act on the change process.

This change effort had a significant number of negative observations and challenges. Yet, this was countered by a much higher number of positive observations. Sentiment analysis and coding for positive and negative emotions show a three to one ratio of positive to negative codes. The change was markedly difficult, yet positive codes outweighed negative ones by almost three to one. There was a variety of team environments, but the larger more influential teams were supportive of the team members which fed their positive attitude, herculean efforts and desire to contribute. Despite significant cultural differences in the organizations that came together to make this change, the attitude, personal values they held as members of the Church, and their rich personal experiences with the missionary effort overcame organizational culture differences enough to drive change.

The result was low cognitive dissonance, less resistance to change and more willingness to go through the difficult work of individual change (Burnes & James, 1995). The focus group comments align with this strongly and reference the attitude of the employees and the belief that the change was inspired but also include three additional observations supported by archival data: (a) that people understood the reason and vision of the change, (b) leaders had the

necessary experience, disposition and work ethic and (c) trust and collaboration existed within and across many different teams and leaders with only a few expectations.

Figure 4

Model for This Case Study's Major Change Variables
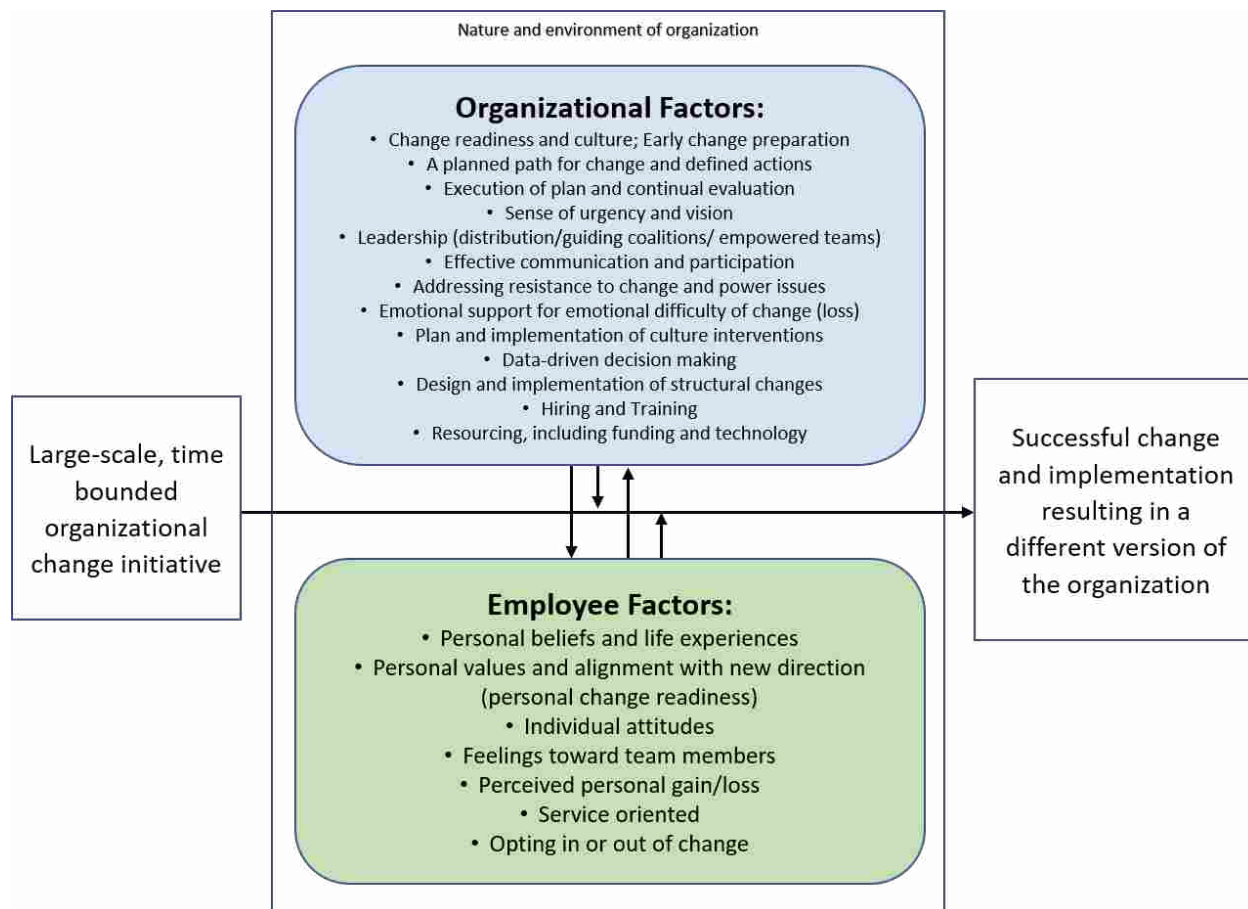
Discussion

The central purpose of this study was to uncover the main contributing factors to the success of this change and how they did and did not align with well-known organizational change theory. Three clear phases appeared in the analysis. A five-month announcement and planning period, the three-month start-up phase, and a year-long stabilizing period. Stabilizing does not mean change stopped but rather processes and roles were more defined and known. This

phase approach is clearly seen in how organizational change models are outlined and here the timing of the change almost forced these phases on the project (Fullan, 2008; Kotter, 1995; Lewin, 1948). Throughout this section, participant comments will be used to illustrate and highlight themes in the data. The key for these references is found in Table 2.

Table 2

Key for Data Source References

Data Source Category	Category abbreviation	Area of work	Area of work abbreviation	Type of archival document	Archival document abbreviation
Interview	Int + number of interview	Training	T	Organizational survey	S
Focus group	FG	Operations and administration	O	Documents (memos, spreadsheets, minutes)	D
Archival data	Arch	Support services	S	Email	E
Observation	Obs	Maintenance	M	Other	O

Announcement and Planning Phase

In October of 2012, church leaders announced that young men and young women would be eligible to begin a mission at the age of 18 and 19 rather than 19 and 21, respectively. This was going to increase the number of missionaries around the world in the longer term and create a peak of new missionaries beginning service in the short term as young men turning both 18, 19 or older and young women turning 19, 20, 21 or beyond could begin missionary service. Much of this increase was going to come from North America. This led to an immediate need for additional training center capacity in a short time with a projected large increase starting in June of 2013 due to North American high school graduates opting to serve a mission. This imminent event was one of the main drivers of the change and brought an immediate urgency. This

coincided with a change in Mexican visa law that allowed for North Americans to enter the country more easily for training and for religious missionary service (Gobierno de Mexico, 2015). Before that no North Americans were trained in Mexico due to the long visa wait time.

The Announcement

After a site visit from the international MTC office and physical facility experts, the involved departments formally recommended converting the school into an MTC. Another visit was made partway through the approval process involving other stake holders and the future director of the new MTC. The recommendation was approved by all senior leaders of the church. A few of these leaders and others in Mexico immediately made plans to announce the change in Mexico on January 29, 2013. In that announcement, Mexican leaders and the school principal showed solidarity in their support of the change along with sadness for what would be lost and hope in that the institution would continue in another form.

As mentioned in the literature review, the subject of organizational death and loss has been compared to losing a family member or friend (Bell & Taylor, 2011; Harris & Sutton, 1986; Wolfram Cox, 1997). Harvey (2001) says that someone loses something with every change. This change and "losing" the school were no exception. One leader noted the tears being shed at the announcement event. When he had a few minutes to speak he mentioned, "tears are the price we pay for love in the world. The only thing worse than crying would be not crying, because you love this place" (Obs, 2013).

"Closure" ceremonies and rituals allowed for dealing with loss to some extent in this study and to move forward with urgent tasks (Harris & Sutton, 1986). This theme will continue as we advance through the change timeline. Few change models take into consideration that change involves loss for some parties. Instead, they often see people's reaction to those loses as

resistance to change (Thomas & Hardy, 2011). Those who perhaps lost most were school employees that were not kept on in a role at the MTC. Many MTC employees who had been employees of the school and the original MTC reflected back on when they learned that the school would be changed into an MTC with great sadness and mixed emotions due to their concurrent excitement for what the school would soon become: "well it was like mixed feelings because when you are the first generation of something and I'm participating in that, well, it motivates and brings a certain excitement but also seeing that the school is ending is very sad, but it was okay … it was hard to believe until the missionaries arrived" (Int012,S).

Rather than pushing sadness aside, leaders recognized it as an important element in the process of change. Though it may have come as a surprise to some, the school principal, who was fiercely loyal to the school and had been a student there as a young man, was perhaps one of the most effective supporters of the change. In 2012, he had planned to retire but accepted the school principal position (known as a school director in Mexico) for approximately one year. Six months into the position he found out shortly before the announcement that the school would close. He immediately made plans to celebrate and commemorate the school legacy and took steps to ensure it would not be forgotten. The many events the school planned, including a final graduation in June of 2013, served as parting ceremonies. These events acted as coping mechanisms and benefitted the change and the displaced members of the organization and stakeholders (Harris & Sutton, 1986). In one conversation between the school principal and the recently arrived employee of the MTC, the employee expressed his sadness of what would be lost when the school closed. The principal commented that he had worked through that grief as had most of the others and that it was time to move past it (Obs). The principal and new MTC director also discussed the principal's one-on-one meeting with each employee of the school and

discussed their plans and their feelings—an immensely time-consuming task. Those who continued with the MTC organization were benefitted from how the school closed and the feeling that the school would continue now with a different purpose. This kind of employee support was evident as a contributing factor to the success of the change.

Broad leadership support for the change, the involvement of senior leaders in the announcement, and how the school approached the transition had a significant and positive impact on those who would later work to make the change happen. This is one of the few things that was true at both the management and frontline employee levels. There were also those who continued with the MTC but never fully worked through their difficulties with the school closing. Some were considered impediments in bringing about changes in specific areas. The church has two groups that provide worldwide leadership. One consists of three people and is known as the First Presidency. The second is the Quorum of the Twelve Apostles. When a president of the church dies the other two members return to their place in the quorum and that body leads the church until a new president is put into place. Committed members of the church believe that the apostles in this quorum are called of God to serve in those positions and are akin to apostles in the New Testament. Members trust that this group engages in prayer, fasting, and discussion before making decisions. Two senior leaders of the Quorum of the Twelve were assigned to be present and speak at the announcement. Also present to make comments to the school staff and students were the director of church education in Mexico, the school principal who reported to him, and the three senior ecclesiastical leaders of the church in Mexico.

The significance of this and what it would mean to the people who were part of the school or the original MTC and then continued to work at the MTC cannot be overstated. Many of the interview comments reference this announcement event as one of the reasons they felt the

change was momentous: "it was such a big deal … I think that's what produces that motivation in people because it's like 'I'm a part of something really big right now. What I am doing is really important'" (Int004,T). In one interview the participant mentioned he did not feel there had been major obstacles to the change and when asked why, his response was, "because of the faith among the people … the administrators and the group in general; they received it with the feeling that it came in a divine way" (Int002,T). Another similar comment was "And to have that special meeting during which you could feel the Spirit strongly with the [leaders] … and with all those that had an impact on this modern revelation … I knew it was the will of the Lord" (FG). For many, changing from the school to an MTC was in harmony with comments made at the groundbreaking, mentioned previously in this paper, regarding people coming from all over and going out to the world to contribute to people's spiritual well-being. These were referenced in many settings, including in the official dedication of the site. This connection to the beginnings of CEBA contributed to people's motivation and sense of importance of the change.

Planning, Resourcing, and Hiring Phase

The planning done to contribute to a successful change was extensive. There were over 305 pages of relevant emails between stakeholders from the end of December to mid-June. The archival data reveal multiple versions and revisions of organizational structure proposals that continued to be revised even in the middle of hiring. The same applies to detailed job descriptions, support service planning, budget documents, full-time employee requests, and equipment lists. Site visit agendas and action items led to both answers and questions about the new operation. As soon as the idea was planted to potentially convert the school into an MTC, a pre-planning assessment was started to evaluate how many elements would support this change and what kinds of resources would be needed to implement it. This was soon headed by a large

steering committee at the church's headquarters with one or two people in Mexico consulting. As that work progressed, multiple working teams or guiding coalitions were created. For example, one with physical facility issues as the focus, another around support services and another for MTC training and operations.

Observation notes show that the mission and vision of the new MTC was defined early on. One archival document shows a specific purpose statement. There is little evidence that shows a vision was being strongly and broadly communicated in the early stages of this planning phase. What is clear is the immense number of tasks that the leadership began to focus on in order to acquire the necessary resources, organize the work and plan processes at a high level. For example, one e-mail chain between the director of the temporal affairs office, his direct report, the international MTC office and the Department of Education show discussions and planning for the many support services to have missionaries traveling to and from the MTC and living there (Arch,E). Detailed security reports and recommendations, travel logistics, housing accommodations, food service resource needs, mail, salon services, entry and departure processing were developed through a back and forth of communications and meetings (Arch,D,E).

It is also evident that one of the most notable challenges was obtaining timely approvals to move forward with hiring and using budgets. The four initial direct reports to the director were being offered positions one month before missionaries were to arrive and two additional hiring waves were anticipated. One prominent point of silence in these planning documents is an analysis or acknowledgement of organizational culture and how the three different organizational cultures would be combined. Later, after the change was well underway and issues were coming

up among different teams, the memos recommending adjustments show that MTC leadership

began to take note of the cultural clashes between the former organizations (Arch,D).

      With the school closure looming, the interview data for this phase reveals a lot of

uncertainty during the planning and hiring phase. Many school employees did not know if they

would be leaving or staying and official approvals for positions did not come until May.

Interviewees reflect upon their mixed emotions. Comments like "it was painful" (Int006,S) were

juxtaposed with "It was just exciting … it was a big deal" (Int002,T). The deep sadness of losing

a 50-year legacy that had been a part of so many people's lives was hard for many but a

surprising number made comments like, "I was at peace even though I didn't know what would

happen with my employment" (Int006,S). This highlights the emotional rollercoaster that this

large-scale change brought into people's lives and the variability with which they felt and lived

the associated events.

      Though approvals took longer than anticipated, headquarters leadership approved

resources that would allow for hiring enough people to support the change and make purchases

and contracts necessary to the success of the change. The managers highlighted the importance

of having the necessary resources in the focus group. This included talented people. Focus group

and interview comments support the idea that much of the change was hired in. Many

interviewee comments highlight the lack of training they received for their new or adjusted job:

"We weren't really trained … all of it was learned through the process of [doing the work] so it

was more practical. They did train us on 'here is the airport, the missionary needs to give her

passport here'" (Int014,S).

      Much of the training was on-the-job training at the beginning. Some of the lack of

training was likely due to lack of detailed process information since the archival documents show

many processes being worked on as the operation began. Another likely culprit was the fact that many teams were not put together until shortly before the switch from school to MTC and by that time the workload was onerous. Despite a lack of detailed training, all-employee meetings, team meetings and cross-department orientations focused on the vision and purpose of the new organization and role changes.

Initial Start-Up Phase

The urgency and workload continued into this phase, which was marked by seeing immediate results and the effect of the work being done as the missionaries showed up. A highlight for many people who had stressed over losing their jobs and worked more than they typical would was when the first missionaries walked onto the MTC campus. Church News personnel and a professor who had documented part of the school education effort in Mexico were present. All of it reinforced the belief of the employees that they were part of something historic and special.

This phase also highlighted undefined and non-existent processes. Issues that the MTC administration and ecclesiastical leaders were unaware of and did not address before starting were common. The first one to two months were described by some as chaotic. This is a time when there could have been high levels of frustration; however, what many found is that their teams were bonding together and creating a shared culture. Perhaps the most positively noted success factor in the interviews was the attitude of almost everyone involved. Comments such as "we had the disposition to chip in wherever needed" (Int001,O), "giving it our best" (Int007,S) "there was a lot of unity" (Int002,T), "it was that positive attitude that each one had that helped" (Int011,O) were common. Intimations of where that attitude came from pointed to the

commitment people had toward the church and their conviction of its mission and the purpose of the work missionaries do.

Despite some negative comments about processes at the beginning, the ambiguous definition of processes may have played a secondary benefit, allowing teams to problem solve together and be leaders, be co-change creators of the change and build shared culture. Another highly noted code was that of employees feeling support and empowered from leaders to do the work in a way they felt would be best and having freedom to own portions of the change. One team that observed this particularly was the MTC operations team. They were the main contact for support services and delivered some services directly to the missionaries themselves.

The Toilet Paper Challenge

Most of the obstacles in the initial start-up stage deal with operational and housing issues. Many of these challenges came by unspoken assumptions due to the differences in how the school functioned, how the original MTC functioned, and how leaders imagined it should work. As an example, on the administrative council's agenda you can find "toilet paper issues" multiple times. School students were responsible for their own toilet paper, however necessities are provided for by the MTCs around the world and missionaries were running out of paper and knocking on the door of the MTC president to get more. This small example of operational assumptions was played out multiple times as the organization discovered together the expectations across different groups and worked together to deliver on those expectations set usually by the director and president and others present in the weekly administrative council.

Same Job Title but Different Job

Because the learners changed from high-school students to full-time missionaries, most of whom did not speak Spanish, the nature of the organization's work changed drastically. This was felt particularly strongly among the support services group. For example, housing, food services, mail services, the bookstore, a health clinic, and transportation existed for both the school and the MTC. This change in the nature of work was noted by many and was somewhat unanticipated. For example, one bus driver commented on the fact that his schedule had completely changed from being driven by school schedules to being driven by flight schedules which required middle-of-the night and weekend service (Int014,S). Additionally, dress and grooming standards changed. These realizations came quickly in the start-up phase. One employee said, "Well, it was a titanic undertaking because I was used to my small tasks and then I had a much more important participation. Yeah it was marathon level" (Int013,O). "For me it was hard. It was hard because it was taking two ideas and two different criteria of how to work… but I think we made the transition quickly so we could work together …" (Int008,S).

For many, this change provided people a reset to explore new skills and approaches. Gersick described this well (1991, p. 24), "When people feel that a temporal era has ended, they may consciously decide that the approaches they chose for that era are no longer valid. … They feel a sense of urgency to reevaluate past choices, pursue aspirations they have put off, and take new steps." It should be noted that any employee of the school had the option to take a decent severance pay out should they not want to continue employment with the MTC. But many rose to the occasion and drivers, for example, took on tasks they never imagined needing, such as learning English, which was facilitated by the MTC operation's group: "The English language, no, not that … I barely passed in school by racking my brain. So, English takes a lot of work for

me. Look, I think I've performed well … I don't think I have obstacles in knowing how to express myself" (Int014,S).

Another group of employees that merged into this organization from their previous experience was the MTC teachers from the original MTC. These are young people who recently returned themselves from their own missionary service. Many did not speak English and were hired to teach and train native Spanish speakers. Their excitement and motivation were observable despite the new skills and challenges ahead. The fact that they had not taught a language to missionaries was a major concern in the planning phases. In order to provide training and continue the operation at an accelerated pace with 10x the workload, the international MTC office planned with the main missionary training center in the United States to send down some of their highest recommended Spanish language instructors and teacher supervisors for a short time period to assist in teaching the large number of missionaries while training at the same time. Significant planning and execution work were invested in bringing those teachers to Mexico.

This effort to bring experienced teaching staff in temporarily, creating team configurations that combined employees with no MTC experience together with high-ability, high-MTC-experience employees, and by association, the hiring process that kept many school people on was likely one of the underlying factors for the effectiveness of some teams. These experienced employees were called out in the interviews and focus group as being essential to the initial startup: "[he] knew and had all the experience that was needed. His nature allowed him to be a fair leader, sympathetic … and he achieved a balance [with different cultures]" (FG,S). "There were definitely key people with a lot of experience.… with [what two original MTC people] knew and also people that were held over from the school just being able to keep the operations going … that would have been really hard in the short amount of time to just start

from scratch" (Int004,T). "They helped us understand, with everything they asked for, everything they requested. Because without that information or that idea our mind wouldn't have changed" (Int008,S).

These key people included the manager of the original MTC who was hired as the lead training manager, the manager of physical facilities, the MTC director who came from the international MTC administration office, and the original MTC's administrative assistant. This person was particularly well versed in the full, detailed operation of the original MTC and she was promoted to be a supervisor in the operations team when the change was made. Her manager, a person who had been the president of a large Mexican company for some time, a former CEBA school principal and a results-oriented executive, along with other new people on the team relied on her experience and knowledge to launch the new way of doing work at the large MTC.

The initial start-up phase brought on significant challenges, helped to begin to establish new processes, refine workflows, discover necessary resources, provide essential training, and begin to establish a shared culture. Also, recognizing loss continued, though with much less frequency. Missionaries were taught what the MTC had been before, artifacts were kept, the former principal was invited to speak, and plans for an exhibit about the school were made.

Stabilization Phase

There are two comments operational groups used that describe this phase well. First, everyone cannot always do everything. While the initial start-up proved to be an "all hands on as many parts of the deck as necessary" situation, this next phase allowed for more coordination, additional role definition and process refinement. And second, everyone is equal to no one. The operation's manager used this often with the intention of ensuring someone was assigned as the

responsible party to execute or delegate and report back, as much as possible. This desire likely came from this phase clearly showing ongoing organizational failures that needed to be addressed and an organizational structure that sometimes lead one group to think another group would do a certain task. Some looked to structural changes, employee or leadership competency, technology needs, or resourcing changes as possible solutions as shown in the memos from this phase. Nothing in the data indicates which view is most accurate but structural, technology, and process changes were planned for, recommended, approved, and were later shown to have positive effects. For instance, we see proposals or actions to create a five year physical facility plan, reduce staffing in some areas, shift responsibilities or resources from one team to another, improve the teacher hiring process; restructure the supervision of one of the largest teams in the organization—the training team—use more data to make decisions, and use of more cross-department teams.

Bolman and Deal (2017) noted a structural challenge that manifested itself in the archival documents: High differentiation means a need for planned integration. This was true of the MTC organization which was hierarchal but also had multiple "heads" as there were different reporting lines to different people at the Mexico temporal affairs office and international MTC office. Assignments to have different team members from the training area to coordinate with other teams were established. Weekly meetings were planned with support services to deal with ongoing logistical coordination needs. One of the virtues of the work analyzed is that the groups and individual employees, therefore the organization, sought and responded quickly to feedback. For example, the managing director and executive director of the missionary program spent a day at the MTC. The next day the MTC administrative team had sent an email with plans to address their three main points of feedback. The highest frequency comment when employees

were asked what the number one challenge was during the start of the change was a lack of communication (Arch,S;30 code references). This may have been the greatest weakness of this phase. A close second was a need of training and acquisition of new skills, which is not the equivalent of communication, but is related (Arch,S;FG). For many "frontline" employees, information flow was not ideal or timely: "I think the hardest thing was communication between both our supervisor and other departments" (Int010,S; Arch,D).

Components that Contributed to Success

Employee Attitude and Beliefs

In the interviews, those who were doing much of the daily work referenced the attitude of the employees and their motivation and commitment to the mission of the organization on a personal level as the main factors that the change was successful. These people had a love for missionaries and what they did. They referenced life experiences that had cultivated that vision, such as having been a missionary, having missionaries in their family or being helped by missionaries at some point: "Now I'm the father of missionaries and in some ways being the father of missionaries has me [thinking] 'how would I like my children to be treated'" (Int006,S)? One of the managers commented about what he felt from other people after the announcement had been given by saying, "I saw faith that this change came from the Lord" (Int002,T). This description of people's commitment to this specific change because of their religious dedication and trust in leaders being divinely guided was an underlying factor in people's attitude and belief with respect to the change.

Leadership

Some of the representative comments about managers and leadership were, "I felt quite supported by my supervisor" (Int013,O), "all that training from our manager [helped]"

(Int005,M), "I think it was the leadership that we had that contributed to a successful change" (FG,M), "the freedom my supervisor and bosses gave me allowed me to create and make mistakes and correct them as I went…" (Int001,O). There were also negative views of local leadership in a few cases, though much less than the positive. One representative comment was "Many times we tell our supervisor [a better way] and they don't take it into consideration … they'll say no do it this way or that way" (Int003,S). The negative views of leaders are mostly associated with team conflicts or not listening to team suggestions.

The operations manager and his team members were crucial change agents that coalesced together quickly and were results oriented. The handful of people who had full-time MTC experience among a couple of hundred employees had a positive influence on two major teams. When referring to contributing factors one of the supervisors said, "There were definitely key people with a lot of experience" (Int004,T). Local managers were committed to change. In one observational note, a supervisor of a team of custodial and maintenance staff reflected on a week where the work seemed to much too handle. After a deep breath he remembered his motivation for participating in the change and mustered his resolve and concluded, "We can do this" (Obs)! Bringing external people who had "internal" MTC experience proved to be beneficial and they acted as key change agents similar to what is seen when change is initiative without serious decline or the right people are kept on the same change initiative through multiple phases (Garn, 1999; Romanelli & Tushman, 1994). The trust that came through solving problems and working together significantly reduced barriers to change (Erwin & Garman, 2010; Szamosi & Duxbury, 2002). This allowed for empowering people, having high expectations and low tolerance for not getting things done quickly. In an all-employee meeting right before missionaries arrived, one note from a leader's initial message included in the archival documents was this: "What do I

know? Very little, but we will do this together, counseling. I don't have all the answers nor would I ever want to have them all but there will be power in working together and we'll find the answers" (Obs). This same leader was noted in the focus group as one with crucial experience that was essential to the success of the change. Trust also came from the history and track record of leaders. The MTC president, responsible for ecclesiastical matters and crucial to the change had years of experience working in Mexico in other capacities and employees felt committed to his insights and change suggestions. The administrative director for the Mexico temporal affairs office had just returned from spending three years with missionaries in a volunteer role of "mission president."

Sufficient Resources

From approvals of project to operational budget and the approval of full-time-employee positions, this initiative received broad support. Despite early evaluations concluding that the physical facility portion of the change would be turnkey, closer inspection exposed project needs well beyond what was initially anticipated. Archival documents showed detailed equipment and project needs and multiple iterations of revisions, additions, subtractions before submitting for approval. While funds were carefully considered and many projects delayed, spread across multiple years or reduced in scope, sufficient resources were allocated for the operation to move forward without having to worry about meeting essential work needs. One comment from a department manager summarized the end result: "we have trust in our leaders … and the facility department had an extraordinary job to do but the necessary resources were provided to do it" (FG,M). The planned operational budget was never fully spent and leaders at the MTC focused on effectiveness rather than spending the full budget. This built trust with church financial controllers and allowed for flexible use of resources to meet organizational objectives.

Planning

Planning is a strong, continuous theme in this study's data. There were three levels of planning going on simultaneously. First was strategic planning related to goals, major challenges, and direction with 21 code references. Establishing and refining the organization's vision, evaluating challenges, weaknesses, and strengths, setting goals and looking at the organization from different perspectives happened throughout all stages of the change. Second, was tactical planning of specific services, efforts, and processes. This type of planning had 37 coding references. Third, was ongoing evaluation and planning based on feedback from stakeholders and available data. Much of this planning dealt with organizational structure, resources, and leadership selection. When combined, this planning theme becomes one of the top three referenced patterns in the data.

Barriers to Change and Obstacles to Greater Achievement

The largest obstacles listed by employees in an organizational survey are a lack of either material, information and communication, training or failure in equipment or technology. Some organizations held onto the culture of their previous or parent organization creating subcultures that MTC leaders felt held those groups back from taking advantage of the change to innovate, improve and do things in new ways: "it was really frustrating for me to see the culture that the [these employees] were bringing" (Int002,T), and "for me it was a challenge because we had two make two ideas coincide of how it was at the MTC and how it was at the [school]" (Int008,S). Start up and stabilization period revealed many things that the employees opined could have made the change more successful. Much of this revolved around greater training for employees and having more time. With so much to do at the beginning, a few functions that did not align

with previous school functions and that had less visibility were not well organized or cared for in the initial chaos.

The structure of the organization made collaboration and certain changes difficult since some functions were under the area office but had no reporting line on site and so MTC leaders became the unofficial supervisors but were resented because they were not their actual file leader. This same structure is likely the root of some of the communication problems. Some groups or employees were not the right fit for the training center organization (Arch). Finally, differing opinions on level of service that should be provided to missionaries was an ongoing challenge, particularly across support services. Some people were likely sufficiently affected emotionally about losing the school that certain operations were negatively influenced. This brings up the point that much was done at the beginning of the change to support the concept of loss and grief, but this did not continue as strongly in the next stages. The sheer amount of processes that needed to be put in place to get to adequate results was staggering according to management and assumptions made between and about teams shed light on communication problems. More specific vision and training for certain functions that had to change more drastically would have reduced barriers and speed up improving the missionary experience, though the viability of providing more training given the time constraints are questionable.

Extent Change Models Were Manifested

No model was singled out and used as a principal framework to guide this change process by the change leaders. Some of the leaders were familiar with Kotter's and other similar change models. We have already discussed many things that would not fall directly into the category of Kotter's model (for example, the concept of dealing with loss, organizational culture and subculture misalignments from a merger of groups with different cultures, and personal beliefs.

Leadership in general, reducing resistance to change and culture evaluations and interventions were all part of the change. Figure 5 shows a coding analysis of major change principles. Though the Kotter orange section is quite large, the "create a vision" section has subsets that are not typically viewed as part of Kotter's model. Also, while employee factors is not a change theory, there is a wealth of research on individual factors that directly affect change efforts (Burnes & James, 1995; Erwin & Garman, 2010; Garvin & Roberto, 2005; Oreg, 2006; Oreg et al., 2011; Radwan, 2020; Wolfram Cox, 1997).

Figure 5

Coding Representation of Major Change Constructs
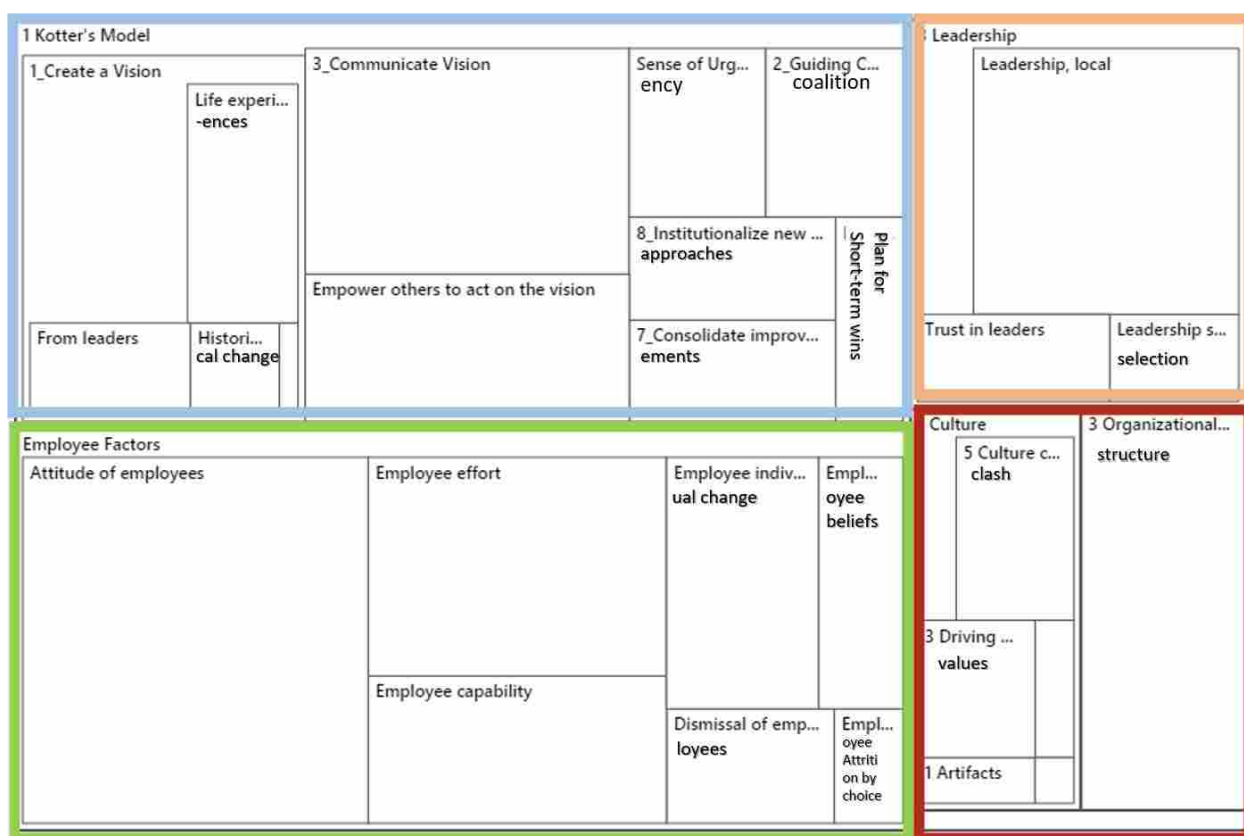
Not apparent in most change frameworks is the interplay between personal values and beliefs and organizational culture and how the former can supersede the latter, which was

observed here. High commitment to the mission of the organization and the alignment that has with a personal paradigm was perhaps the mechanism for this to occur. One employee who worked in transportation and logistics said: "And [the change] was very hard. … Being an employee in the high school was very relaxed, you know, and then suddenly you have to work if you want to stay in this job. … and I have a 15-year-old daughter who wants to serve a mission … I don't want them wandering lost in an airport" (007). In the same interview, the interviewee comments that what has motived him through the difficulty of the change is "when the missionaries arrive and feel at peace and sense 'I'm safe'" (Int007,S). Culture was a distinctive aspect of this change and of the employees. Multiple cultures coming together sometimes aligned with what was needed to facilitate the change and other times worked directly against it. In both cases, people's personal belief and commitment to the change seem to dampen organizational culture differences and provide a unifying concept. This led to a cultural structure that seemed more like subcultures under a shared culture that came more from personal, life experiences than shared organizational experiences or leadership establishing and communicating a vision.

Instead of having to change culture, much of it was tapping into and feeding a culture that people already had built in their lives due to their experiences in the church and sometimes their employment. These were necessary to pull from because they allowed a common cause that cut through differences in the different organizational cultures people had been a part of. Increasing, highlighting, and leveraging these cultural aspects were crucial to the change. Whereas some change models see culture as one of the final steps, it was one of the first steps. Other models discuss the need to change culture to achieve change and while that was true there was an element of pulling out and strengthening aspects of an already existing culture in people and de-emphasizing other aspects. Also, the way the announcement was approached and delivered

provided an opportunity for the involved people to create a change-oriented mindset. Change readiness is not just an organizational factor but a personal one.

Conclusions

While it would be academically justifiable to use a planned change model, such as Kotter's eight step model or another model to guide a change effort or to explain this change, this could limit the analysis from other important change contributions. Part of the coding included Kotter's eight concepts as themes and in one way or another, at some point each one was present. However, the weakness in taking that approach in a post-change analysis is that other underlying aspects of the change likely better explain, or at a minimum complement, the explanation of the success of the change not necessarily included in one specific model. This supports the multi-method/model approach to change management.

Employee factors, such as their beliefs, effort, capability, desire, and attitude were by far the highest noted success contributors. These do not stand alone but accompany effective leadership, planning at multiple levels, supporting the deep difficulty of change, helping with loss, applying planned change principles, cultural elements, effective leadership and a well understood vision. These are also tied to the overall culture of the church and the belief that this change was divinely inspired. The employees' spiritual conviction and commitment to the overall mission of the church was likely a significant part of the driving force for these positive employee factors and to carry out the change. For example, this same kind of personal conviction led many of the administrators and teachers to forge ahead and create a new Benemerito educational experience with three sites spread throughout the Mexico City area.

Implications for Future Research

Future research should look at how multiple teams are combined and the effects of culture clashes, taking into consideration how this is moderated by the relationship between organizational factors and employee factors. This article saw success partially through barriers being overcome by personal attitudes and beliefs supported by leadership. One potential research opportunity is to explore the limitations of these individual factors and when they are overcome by cognitive dissonance or organizational culture. In what situations do personal values and beliefs overcome or supersede organizational culture?

Implications for Practitioners

As supported by other research, applying multiple, proven change model principles will likely increase success. Planning at multiple levels will likely motivate broader participation with leaders creating multiple guiding coalitions or distributed leadership, which is shown to contribute to improved change outcomes (Peterson & Deal, 1998). Assessing personal beliefs and existing attitude about the culture and climate to see if it will align with the intended change of the organization is suggested. Careful selection of leaders for change initiatives in the context of what the employees will need is likely to increase the chances of success. Finally, focus on employee factors such as fostering a positive, all-hands-in attitude, increasing skills, and ensuring there is effective communication with all levels of the organization.

Limitations

The risk in using existing change frameworks as part of the analysis, and the risk for many case studies that take a change model and carry out a post-mortem analysis, is that the data were bent or the perspective skewed to align with pre-determined theoretical frameworks rather than looking at alternative explanations. Seeing alternative explanations is often most limited by

the knowledge and experience of those involved in the study. To minimize this risk, an extensive look at organizational change theory and methods was included as part of the study and continued as different themes arose in the data analysis. For example, when cultural issues and individual employee attributes began to surface, the existing research was reviewed regarding those topics.

This study is limited in its scope due to the situation of the case and the bias of me as an actor in the organization. The opposing benefit to this is deep access to the organization and the data. This study also looked at multiple data sources and perspectives of the change and allowed for a rich analysis of the experience of those living the change while looking at the planning and leadership. The other major limitation is the unique elements that come from the spiritual and church component and the people's personal beliefs which leads to high commitment. This is likely not the case with many other change efforts.

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APPENDIX A

Review of the Literature

Organizational change theory has been developed for over 100 years and can be traced back to Taylor's 1911 book, Scientific Management (Burke, 2002; Taylor, 1911). It is extensive. Van de Ven and Poole (1995) estimated that by 1995 approximately a million articles had been published on organizational change. Organizational change research is multi-disciplinary and draws on fields such as political science, psychology, social science, management theory, and many others. It also ranges from leadership, specific change models, model typologies, factors that are most important in a change initiative, organizational culture, organizational death, resistance to change, psychological impact, and detailed processes for effecting change, among other things (Bouckenooghe, 2010; Burnes, 2004; Erwin & Garman, 2010; Kezar, 2001; Schein, 1984; Todnem By, 2005; Van de Ven & Poole, 1995; Waclawski, 2002).

The literature most relevant to this study is change models and change theory as it relates to individual employees. Many different organizational change models exist that one can use for academic or practitioner purposes. These two areas do not always align. Todnem By (2005) concluded that theories and approaches to change management currently available to academics and practitioners can be contradictory, lacking empirical evidence and supported by untested hypotheses. His review of change theory included three conclusions, of which points two and three can be seen in other studies:

1. There does not seem to be consensus regarding an organizational change management framework among researchers. One example of this is the constant publication of new change models (see Figure A1 from Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015).

2. The pace of change is increasing and greater than ever.

3. Change motivated by internal and external factors is a medley with great variability (Todnem By, 2005).

Typologies for Change Models

To provide a means to organize change models, various typologies to categorize the models have been created. Many change theories can be organized into three categories: Sequential or planned (n-step models, represented by Lewin and Kotter), mental models or perspectives to think about change opportunities and how to facilitate them (represented, for example, by reframing organizations), or a people and value focused transformation (Schein culture, Theory X and Y, leadership theories). Additional typological categories were considered by Kezar (2001) who built on work done by Van De Ven and Poole (1995) to help organize organizational change models and processes into six different categories:

- Teleological (planned change)

- Life-cycle (regulated change)

- Evolution (competitive change)

- Dialectic (conflictual change)

- Social-cognition (change from triadic reciprocal causation)

- Cultural approaches (normative change)

Figure A1

Comparison of Representative Change Models

Lewin Approach, 1946	Four-Phase Model, Bullock & Batten, 1985	Miles, Fullan Change Process, Fullan, 1989	Punctuated Equilibrium, Gersick, 1991	Kotter's Eight Step Model, 1996, 2002, 2012
Unfreeze	Exploration	Initiation	Equilibrium held through organizational inertia	Establish a Sense of Urgency
	Planning		Organizational disruption (collapse or dismantle)	Create the Guiding Coalition
				Develop a Vision and Strategy
				Communicate the Vision
Change	Action	Implementation	Revolutionary change	Empower Broad-Based Action
				Generate Short-Term Wins
				Consolidate Gains & Produce More Change
Freeze	Integration	Institutionalization	New equilibrium	Anchor new approaches

Note: A 2015 literature review by Al-Haddad & Kotnour (2015, p. 249) has another helpful change model comparison showing similar parallels with other models.

Of these six, the first four are more commonly found in the organizational change literature and were first espoused by Van de Ven and Poole (1995). Many others have organized change theory by the type or rate of occurrence, such as continuous, incremental, discontinuous or punctuated. Revolutionary change is sometimes used to indicate both the rate and amount of

change occurring in an organization, though a specific measurement to identify if the change is in these categories is not commonly used. Senior (2002) uses three main categories: rate of occurrence, how the change comes about and the scale of the change.

Categorizing a change initiative facilitates which factors would be considered as the most effective change levers. Van de Ven and Poole (1995) and Weick and Quinn (1999) use the metaphor for a motor to describe different organizational change categories. Consequently, there are conditions necessary for the motor to operate, which implies that if there is a mismatch between the motor and the conditions that lead to the change, then interventions could fail.

Within the many and somewhat disparate categories of change, we could likely identify hundreds of individual change theory models and principles, the majority of which would be considered teleological (planned change) or evolutionary models (adaptive change; Kezar, 2001). More recently, "emergent change" has gained more attention as a response to criticisms of planned change, though it still lacks cohesive frameworks (Todnem By, 2005). Those criticisms will be touched on later, but it is worthy to note that at a superficial level planned change, espoused by researchers such as Lewin, Bullock and Batten, and Kotter may seem oversimplified. However, once a researcher uncovers the details of those frameworks, there is much in common with the alternatives supported by planned change critics (Waclawski, 2002).

Because this case study involved an explicit decision to convert the school into an MTC and the change was planned at various levels, we will draw on research about teleological or planned change. The coding process also revealed a strong cultural element to the change effort and as a result the cultural approach will be looked at in some detail.

The teleological motor for change typically has a process sequence of envision and set goals, implement goals, evaluate and find areas of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, modify the course, and then again envision and set goals (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995; Weick & Quinn, 1999). Lewin's unfreezing-movement-refreezing framework along with other accompanying, necessary elements he espoused (Lewin, 1951) continues to appear to be the basis for most teleological change models (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015). The change initiative is aimed at an end goal or state and the assumption is that the organization can adapt and move with purpose toward this goal through planned effort. This may take multiple iterations and once an end state or goal has been reached then additional iterations would occur unless the environment or resources constrain the iteration (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995).

Since planned change models are among the most common organizational change models and have received the most attention, they also have received noteworthy critiques, particularly as the apparent pace of change has increased. One critique is that these models are based on the idea that change can be controlled, guided and lead, while others believe the opposing assumption that change is a chaotic process that is often irrational, spontaneous, and not based on the ability of leaders (Kezar, 2001). Another critique is that these models are generally lacking in areas of culture and social cognition and as a result are not the most effective way to address radical change (Schein, 1985). Finally, there are many teleological models that assume a need for change and do not address the politics of change (Anyieni & Gidion, 2016; Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999). Many learning organization theorists feel they have addressed some of these critiques (Kezar, 2001). Most recently, some teleological change models have come under some scrutiny for being overly simplified, prescriptive, and not well grounded in empirical evidence (Applebaum et al., 2012; Hughes, 2016).

Most Prominent Planned Change Models

Given the large body of research, it is difficult to provide a comprehensive review of planned change models and that would require reviewing dozens of models. However, there are certain periods of dormancy and resurgence of planned change articles in the literature. The intent here is to summarize four of those periods using culminating or representative models and provide the reader with a lay of the land during the last 70 years of planned change research: (1) Lewin's (1947, 1948, 1951) freeze and unfreeze model, (2) Bullock and Batten's (1985) four-phase model, (3) Gersick's (1991) punctuated equilibrium, and (4) Kotter's eight-step process for leading change (Kotter, 1996; Kotter & Rathgeber, 2006). As part of this analysis, we will also look at research about these models in the last 15 years, including some resurgence of Lewin's principles.

Lewin's Change Model

Lewin described a three-phase change model that consisted of unfreezing, moving to a new state, and refreezing. He combined these phases with other elements to create a robust change strategy that was targeted at not just organizational change but also societal change. These elements were field theory, group dynamics, and action research (Burnes & Bargal, 2017). In the late 1980s and throughout the 1990s much of Lewin's work was forgotten. It was claimed by some that his work was outdated and that it had never been useful in the first place (Burnes, 2004). In the last 20 years interest in Lewin's work has experienced a revitalization. In 2017, the *Journal of Change Management* published an issue dedicated to articles from different parts of the world that used Lewin's work as a theoretical foundation for newer change techniques (Burnes & Bargal, 2017). These and other articles show that a little over 70 years after his death, Lewin's work still offers a practical, theory-based, and effective approach to change and to study

change (Bakari et al., 2017; Burnes, 2004; Burnes & Bargal, 2017; Coghlan & Shani, 2017; Endrejat et al., 2017; Lehmann, 2017). Below is a brief review of the central concepts of Lewin's change theories.

Field Theory and Group Dynamics. Lewin used this theoretical anchor to analyze change forces and the context they exist in. The field was much like a topographical map which was made of multiple factors, and groups. There are forces acting on the groups, which in turn act on individuals. The sum of the factors and forces is the field. Therefore, this theory focuses on both the group as an entity and on the individual as its own entity within that group. Field theory espouses that there are "driving forces" that initiate movement towards a goal and there are "restraining forces" that oppose a specific driving force or barriers that prohibit access to move to a certain goal. A balance of these forces creates a somewhat stable equilibrium for a group, organization or individual. Movement is defined as social and mental "locomotion" or the change of an individual's position with reference to their group or field (Lewin, 1948, p. 6) and this is down by either reducing restraining forces or increasing driving forces.

What field theory implies is that group behavior is one of the principal influencers of individual actions. Thus, the group dynamics at play in a field become a central point of analysis and evaluation and working at the group level should be the focus of change (Lewin, 1951). As a group works through issues to reach change, they have to be solved in a way that is satisfactory for the group's dynamics (Lewin, 1948).

Action Research. Action research is the method Lewin and his teams used to effect change through (a) ascertaining the situation (reflecting on and gaining new insights into the totality of their situation), (b) evaluating action alternatives, and (c) making the most appropriate decision. The main premise is that research leads to action which leads to additional evaluation and research (Coghlan & Shani, 2017). Within the context of field theory, it is an ongoing look into the forces and what can be adjusted so desired movement occurs followed by additional evaluation. This combination of acting on what is being learned in the moment is well summarized by a famous Lewin quote, 'there is nothing so practical as a good theory' (Lewin, 1951). Another representative statement of action research paraphrased by Schein (1980) is if one wants to study an organization (system, group) try to change it.

Three-Step Model. Perhaps, what is most remembered from Lewin in change management is the "unfreeze, move, freeze" phases of change. simplicity of the model is easily criticized, Lewin's model had significant depth, tackling topics such as the necessary driving factors of change, one of which was the "felt-need" or the inner realization of a group or organization that change is necessary (Lewin, 1948).

As will be seen below and as others have noted, many approaches to organizational change have similarities to Lewin's three-step model (Burnes & Bargal, 2017). In fact, when looking at other forms of change, including cultural and scientific revolutions, Elrod and Tippett (2002) stated that "Models of the change process, as perceived by diverse and seemingly unrelated disciplines ... follow Lewin's...three-phase model of change..." (p. 273). Burnes (2004) has argued for a revitalization of Lewin's work on similar grounds and because of it's relevance for today's change efforts. Lewin's interest in theory came from a position of describing

potential, effective pathways of action. Lewin is often quoted as saying, "… there is nothing so practical as a good theory" (Schein, 1996, p. 27).

One of Lewin's main interests was to resolve social conflict through changing group behavior. The social setting was one of change that was not predictable or able to be planned from one state to another but was iterative with goals to move states but recognizing that the movement itself and learning from it was as important as the destination. The "freeze" part of this model, despite what it connotes, was a "quasi-stationary" state of stability at best (Burnes, 2004). Much of his view of change was rooted in unpredictable outcomes that could be shaped using trial and error (Lewin, 1947).

Critics of planned change models, including Lewin's three-step model, often cite the unpredictability and non-linear nature of change and lack of considering contextual factors (Hughes, 2016; Todnem By, 2005). Lewin, however, agreed with his critics, most of which are categorized as complexity theorists, and in his own work he adopted many of the same approaches they championed (Burnes, 2004; Elrod & Tippett, 2002). He saw change as a human experience (Elrod & Tippett, 2002). Lewin and others championed that change efforts needed to be a participative and collaborative process which involves all concerned (Burnes, 2004).

There are many examples from Lewin's work that continue to be relevant in the literature today:

- Bridging social theory with social action

- Group realization of the need to change

- The group to which an individual belongs is the ground for his perceptions, his feelings, and his actions

- Democratic and participative change to reduce resistance to change

- Dialogue, involvement, and group discussions associated with a decision-making process

- Iterative learning through research and acting accordingly

- Understanding the perceptions of the social group

- Trained, democratic leadership and its effect on group atmosphere

- The leader–follower relationship

Bullock and Batten 1985 Change Model

Others built on Lewin's work proposing alternative models over the next 30 years and in 1985 Bullock and Batten analyzed the theoretical planned change models in the literature up through 1980. Similar to the foundation of Lewin's theory, their assumption is that an organization exists in different states at different times with stages of movement between overlapping states. Their goal was to ascertain how the process of movement occurs and thus what the main activities are that lead to the movement. Like Lewin and Kotter, they were interested in social action and practical application of research:

> In order to understand planned change processes, some conception is needed that incorporates the activity of change agents. This provides an explicit link between theory and practice in organizational development (OD), which is essential if OD practice is ever to become theory-based and OD theory is to reflect the practical realities of organizational change. (Bullock & Batten, 1985, p. 387)

This tension, and what appears to be a lack of connection, between theory and practice is still reflected and discussed in the current literature (Appelbaum et al., 2012; Appelbaum et al., 2017; Hughes, 2016).

Bullock and Batten's critique of Lewin and others was that across seven key criteria the models were deficient in at least one or more. For example, many theories were difficult to apply to specific case studies because they are not based on specific intervention activities. The criteria (e.g., that the model be generalizable, relevant to case studies, and allow fluidity in phase designation) were used to evaluate models and craft a four-phase model that would accord with the seven criteria. Perhaps one of the most significant contributions of their work was to separate the phase or state of the organizational change (see column 1 of Table 1) from the process or actions required to move states (see column 2 of Table 1). They better defined these two constructs by indicating that "the phases are linear and irreversible" yet "the processes, which are variable and reversible, occur within phases, which are standard and sequential" (Bullock & Batten, 1985, p. 388). Their model is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1

Outline of the Four-Phase Model (Bullock & Batten, 1985)

Change Phases (Organizational State)	Change Processes (Mechanisms to move states)
1. Exploration	a. Need awareness b. Search c. Contracting
2. Planning	a. Diagnosis b. Design c. Decision
3. Action	a. Implementation b. Evaluation
4. Integration	a. Stabilization b. Diffusion c. Renewal

Their hope was that this model would be used as an organizer for analyzing case studies and thus accumulate knowledge in the field over time, specifically to how actions affect results differently. The attempt did not seem to have garnered popularity as few used it as an organizing

framework according to the research I have read and the number of citations (300 according to Google scholar as of October 2019, compared to 7,341 for "Why Transformation Efforts Fail," a well-known article (Kotter, 1995)). Nevertheless, their effort at summarizing the models up to that point is insightful.

Punctuated Equilibrium

Change models continued to develop and in the early nineties multiply change theories were published (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015; Gersick, 1991). The change model of punctuated equilibrium was one that was clarified and used to describe a type of revolutionary change. This model is borrowed from a 1977 evolutionary biology theory (Gould & Eldredge, 1977). The theory proposed that rather than species changing slowly over time there were longer periods of little change or equilibrium intercalated with rapid bursts or punctuations of more significant change in species, usually due to environmental events. The organizational change corollary is similar and began with a policy creation theory (Baumgartner & Jones, 1991). The concept builds on the unfreeze, move, refreeze concept observing that there is often an underlying structure of driving and restraining forces in an organization that keeps it in somewhat of an equilibrium and generates a strong inertia to keep things within certain boundaries (Gersick, 1991).

In order to have a punctuated burst of change the underlying structure either needs to collapse or be dismantled leaving the system disorganized, which allows for fundamental change. Following the disruption of the structure holding things in relative equilibrium, old and new elements of an organization can be rearranged and put together in a different way, following a different set of rules (Gersick, 1991). According Romanelli and Tushman (1994), organizational transformations will most frequently occur in short, discontinuous bursts of

change and a system's members usually are unable to do this. Rather, these come about from poor organizational performance, significant environmental changes or a change in key leadership positions. In summary, when internal or external events make a system's structure obsolete, then newcomers often intervene and equilibrium ends. The connection to Lewin's model is easily made but how and why the unfreezing occurs is specific in the punctuated equilibrium model.

Research in the 1990s continued to focus on types of change and ideas related to punctuated equilibrium such as the source and context of change, comparisons between incremental, episodic and continuous change, and influencing organizational culture to manager change (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999;Van de Ven & Poole, 1995; Weick & Quinn, 1999). Another prominent theme of organizational change hearkened back to Lewin's three-step model giving birth to multiple phase-based or n-step change models that layered in multiple steps within frameworks loosely based on unfreezing, moving and refreezing. These included the Judson model, Galpin, Armenakis, Harris and Feild, and Kotter models (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999).

One of the problems with different perspectives on change, such as punctuated equilibrium, revolutionary and continuous change is that over time organizations all three are present in organizational life and none appear dominant. Indeed, Burnes (2004) even questions whether these are separate and competing theories, or merely different ways of looking at the same phenomenon change.

Kotter's Eight-Step Model

Perhaps as a culmination of many of the phase-change models from the 1980s and early 1990s, Kotter stormed the change management practitioner audience with his eight-step model.

We will spend a little more time on this model for four reasons: (a) its relevance to how the current case study being analyzed occurred, (b) because of its adoption among practitioners across two decades, (c) the evolution of the model shows some of the focus of change management over time, and (d) because many proposed models since it have looked similar (see Figure A1). Kotter originally based this work on the high failure rate of change efforts and his analysis of why they fail. The result was his eight-step model which originally was organized in the terms of "change fails when …." Its publication in a 1995 Harvard Business Review gave it a widespread readership among change practitioners and business leaders (Kotter, 1995). Kotter posits that failure occurs when one of these eight things occurs in the change process:

1. Not establishing a great enough sense of urgency.

2. Not creating a powerful enough guiding coalition.

3. Lacking a vision.

4. Under-communicating the vision.

5. Not removing obstacles to the new vision.

6. Not systematically planning for and creating short-term wins.

7. Declaring victory too soon.

8. Not anchoring changes in the organization's culture.

The positive antithesis of each failure are the main steps for the Kotter model. It was initially laid out sequentially and emphasized that the order was a crucial aspect of change success (see Figure A2 for a summary of the model). A year later Kotter published a more detailed exposition of the model in Leading Change (Hughes, 2016; Kotter, 1996). Kotter elaborated this model within a context of changing organizational operations to adapt to changes in a challenging market environment (Kotter, 1995). Despite this, throughout Kotter's literature

he implies this change model works in multiple contexts. The efficacy of Kotter's process has been broadly supported (Appelbaum et al., 2012; Erwin & Garman, 2010; Kotter, 2011; Pollack & Pollack, 2015; Sidorko, 2008).

Although some feel that Kotter's model of change management lacks rigorous fundaments, it became an instantaneous success at the time it was advocated, and it remains a key reference in the field of change management, particularly among practitioners (Hughes, 2016). In 1997, Leading Change (Kotter, 1996) became a business bestseller. It subsequently became the best-selling book ever of its kind. Hundreds of researchers refer to one or other of Kotter's publications on change management. The model is also presented in academic textbooks such as Langton et al. (2012).

Appelbaum et al. (2012, p. 765) reviewed some of the research underpinning the Kotter model and concluded that "The success of the theory and at the same time the lack of research and rigorous investigation are counterintuitive in the world of empirical research. … However, the model has several identified limitations impacting upon its universal acceptance and popularity." These limitations are likely true of any model that has simplified and attempted to represent a significantly complex process and undertaking. While there is perhaps a lack of universal acceptance it is clear that the model had staying influence among practitioners and in change management research (see number of citations for *Leading Change* in Google scholar, Kotter, 2011; Hughes, 2016).

Figure A2

Kotter's Eight Step Model of Change (Kotter, 1995, 1996)

The eight-stage process of creating major change

1 Establishing a sense of urgency
- Examining the market and competitive realities
- Identifying and discussing crises, potential crises, or major opportunities

2 Creating the guiding coalition
- Putting together a group with enough power to lead the change
- Getting the group to work together like a team

3 Developing a vision and strategy
- Creating a vision to help direct the change effort
- Developing strategies for achieving that vision

4 Communicating the change vision
- Using every vehicle possible to constantly communicate the new vision and strategies
- Having the guiding coalition role model the behavior expected of employees

5 Empowering broad-based action
- Getting rid of obstacles
- Changing systems or structures that undermine the change vision
- Encouraging risk taking and nontraditional ideas, activities, and actions

6 Generating short-term wins
- Planning for visible improvements in performance, or "wins"
- Creating those wins
- Visibly recognizing and rewarding people who made the wins possible

7 Consolidating gains and producing more change
- Using increased credibility to change all systems, structures, and policies that don't fit together and don't fit the transformation vision
- Hiring, promoting, and developing people who can implement the change vision
- Reinvigorating the process with new projects, themes, and change agents

8 Anchoring new approaches in the culture
- Creating better performance through customer- and productivity-oriented behavior, more and better leadership, and more effective management
- Articulating the connections between new behaviors and organizational success
- Developing means to ensure leadership development and succession

Source: Adapted from John P. Kotter, "Why Transformation Efforts Fail." *Harvard Business Review* (March–April 1995): 61. Reprinted with permission.

Evolution of the Kotter Model. Kotter's model has roots in Lewin's theories, as do most planned change models. The first four steps (sense of urgency, coalition, develop vision, communicate vision) deal with unfreezing, the next three (empower action, short-term wins, produce more change) provide a move strategy and his version of maintaining the changes is to acculturate them. In Kotter's (2012a) Leading Change preface he describes his model as explaining, "the path of a very powerful set of trends that go back half a century and will probably continue through my lifetime" (p. viii).

Kotter's own publications on the change model span almost 20 years from the original article on why transformation efforts fail in 1995 to *Accelerate*, published in 2014. The majority are non-peer reviewed publications targeted to practitioners and not academics. Publications directly related to the model in peer-reviewed journals are not numerous but have continued to be published through 2020 (Radwan, 2020). The main components of the model have stayed largely the same, the model has responded to criticism and been further developed or explained by Kotter's experience and collaboration with others (Kotter & Cohen, 2002; Kotter, 2011).

For example, in order to make his change model more accessible, Kotter wrote an allegory about penguins living on a melting iceberg and need to relocate to a new home. He shows how they create a sense of urgency and a guiding coalition that creates and communicates a vision for changing their home. The penguins go through the process of dealing with "NoNo" the naysayer and empowering others to act on the vision, plan and create short-term wins, and continue the change momentum while institutionalizing the new desired behaviors of moving homes when necessary (Kotter & Rathgeber, 2006). These types of popular publications have likely helped to keep Kotter's model at the forefront of change models.

Another collaborative publication between Cohen and Kotter (2002) titled *Heart of Change* attempted to take a different view of the model, deepen people's understanding of the change process and address some of the critical feedback, particularly related to the model being rigid. The authors summarize the main message, which in some ways seems to almost introduce a new, underlying theory to the original change model referenced as the "see-feel-change" approach:

> People change what they do less because they are given analysis that shifts their thinking than because they are shown a truth that influences their feelings. … Changing behavior is less a matter of giving people analysis to influence their thoughts than helping them to see a truth to influence their feelings. Both thinking and feeling are essential, and both are found in successful organizations, but the heart of change is in the emotions. (Kotter & Cohen, 2002, pp.1-2)

This book reviews the eight steps but shifts the focus to an individual, emotional level. They were careful to use the word approach, likely to not place the added principles in competition with the original model. Yet, the approach could easily be classified as a model in and of itself. This publication, in other ways, departed some from the exposition of the original model that espoused going through the steps sequentially and analytically, whereas attending to feelings might mean the process is not sequential. A dominant theme of the book is that people need to feel an emotional connection to truly embrace change. Feelings are a powerful motivator.

The seeing portion of the three-pronged approach is rooted in helping people visualize a problem and proposed solution in ways that evoke new feelings about situations. Communication that achieves this would then "Compellingly show people what the problems are and how to resolve the problems" with a focus on positive emotions such as optimism, trust and faith versus

negative emotions such as cynicism, anger and complacency (Kotter & Cohen, 2002, p. 7).

Finally, the change in the person's feelings for a situation will lead to behavioral change. They

cite the more common analysis-think-change sequence as the common course for change

initiatives, which has not provided the best track record (Kotter & Cohen, 2002).

In short, an emotional connection to a new way of doing things is the heart of successful

change according to the authors. They base much of the premises of the book on personal

interviews and observations with hundreds of people, and cite statements such as "heartfelt

messages," "gut-level commitment," "deeds are often more important than words," and "symbols

speak loudly" as accurate descriptors of people who experienced effective change (Kotter &

Cohen, 2002).

The addition does add to the model an element that addresses a well-documented barrier

to change—individual people's resistance to change (Erwin & Garman, 2010). However, perhaps

Kotter and Cohen go too far in disregarding other change contributors that research supports as

positive change elements. For example, one of the claims is that changing behavior is the core

and strategy, systems and culture might be important but are not the core could prove frustrating

to research that indicates otherwise (Schein, 1984). On a final note for the changes in Kotter's

model, during this time the authors somewhat back pedal on the sequence and rigidity of the

model as represented by the following quote: "Because the world is complex, some cases do not

rigidly follow the eight-step flow. But … are the basic pattern associated with significant useful

change" (Kotter & Cohen, 2002, p. 6).

The next major publication Kotter released was based on his answer to the common

question he received of what the biggest challenge is in achieving positive change. The

publication Sense of Urgency (Kotter, 2008) focused on the first step with four tactics to ensure

adequate urgency is established and continued to effect change. Figure A3 frames the main issues of the book, which then provides four tactics to help reach a "true sense of urgency:"

1. Bring the outside in by connecting people with external opportunities and hazards because being internally oriented breeds complacency

2. Behave with urgency every day

3. Find opportunities in crisis

4. Deal with "NoNos"

One of the practical insights of this addition to Kotter's model is that it contributes to the description of what resisting change looks like at the level of those who must do work to make changes a reality. In 2012, Kotter published two works: Leading Change and Accelerate (XLR8) (Kotter, 2012a, 2012b). Leading Change was a revisited version of the original publication reflecting some of the evolved thinking already mentioned. Accelerate introduced a structural component to achieving change management as other authors have (e.g., Bolman & Deal, 2017). Kotter lays out a dual-operating organizational structure to take advantage of opportunities that lie in the ability to constantly change.

This work centers on how an organization typical hierarchical structural is built to manage processes and products rather than innovate and look to potential, yet usually risky opportunities. Because of this, he proposes that a more fluid, less structured network organization work in parallel to the hierarchy. In order to make the shift to this dual-operating system Kotter proposes using the eight-step change model as guiding principles.

Figure A3

Description of Levels of Complacency and Corresponding Descriptions (Kotter, 2008)

Complacency, False Urgency and True Urgency

	Complacency	A False Sense of Urgency	A True Sense of Urgency
	More pervasive than people recognize, insidious, and often invisible to insiders	Also pervasive, insidious, and often seen, *incorrectly*, as a true sense of urgency	Rare and *immeasurably important* in a rapidly changing world.
Roots	Successes: real or perceived wins, usually over a period of time	Failures: recent problems with short-term results or long-standing incremental decline	Leadership: people not only at the top but up and down the hierarchy who create true urgency and re-create it when needed
People Think	"I know what to do and I do it."	"What a mess this is."	"Great opportunities and hazards are everywhere."
People Feel	Content with the status quo (and sometimes anxious of the unknown)	Very anxious, angry, and frustrated	A powerful desire to move, and win, now
Behavior	Unchanging activity: action which ignores an organization's new opportunities or hazards, focuses inward, does whatever has been the norm in the past (many meetings or no meetings 9 to 5 or 8 to 6).	Frenetic activity: meeting-meeting, writing-writing, going-going, projects-projects, with task force after task force and PowerPoint to the extreme – all of which exhausts and greatly stresses people.	Urgent activity: action which is alert, fast moving, focused externally on the important issues, relentless, and continuously purging irrelevant activities to provide time for the important and to prevent burnout.

Spanning almost two full decades, the eight-step model's evolution has received overlays of additional practitioner theory (e.g., see-feel-change), attempted to address resistance to change, added clarification of original ideas (e.g., moving from sequential and rigid to more flexible), and an organizational structure overhaul with the proposal of the dual operating system. Given the many topics and practitioner draw to Kotter's principles it is no surprise that academic research has something to say about Kotter's model, yet surprisingly, perhaps not as much as one would hope for. And given the many aspects of change that Kotter's publications cover (though always tied in some way to the eight steps), the main element

Research Observations for Kotter's Model. Kotter's model is a highly referenced work. The original Why Transformation Efforts Fail article had 7771 citations as of April 18, 2020 according to Google Scholar. When combined with the 2012 Leading Change book it increases to 14,689. Interestingly, it took some time for its presence to grow in academic publications. The Why Transformation Efforts Fail publication was cited 390 times from 1995 to 2000, then 822 times from 2001 through 2005, 1,530 times from 2006-2010; 2,590 times from 2011 to 2015 (it should be noted that Kotter had two major book publications in 2012), and 2,100 times 2016 through April 18, 2020 (Google Scholar search "Leading Change," April 18, 2020). However, Appelbaum et al. (2012) referenced its popularity by saying:

> It became an instantaneous success at the time it was advocated and it remains a key reference in the field of change management. Kotter's change management model appears to derive its popularity more from its direct and usable format than from any scientific consensus on the results. (p. 765)

This statement comes 15 years after the original publication, up to which point there had not been a comprehensive review of the research comments and conclusions on Kotter's model.

A few comments from an Applebaum et al. (2012) review are worth noting. The authors found support for Kotter's model, though not always in the same way the model is explained by Kotter and one caveat is that the authors did not find formal studies that covered the entire breadth of steps. Additionally, no evidence was found that would merit not considering its use. Perhaps one of the most useful conclusions is that the model's popularity is likely driven by its "direct and usable format than from any scientific consensus on the results" (Appelbaum et al., 2012, p. 764).

Direct use of Kotter's full model in the research has begun more recently, perhaps due to conclusions from articles like Appelbaum et al. (2012), Baloh et al. (2018), Hughes (2018), Radwan (2020), and Wentworth et al. (2020). One of the more recent studies applying the Kotter model reviewed studies that concluded the Kotter model, as Kotter sequenced and explained it was effective. They cited 18 references, but it should be noted that three were not peer reviewed articles. Seven of these articles were published after Appelbaum et al.'s 2012 review, between 2012 and 2018 (Wentworth et al., 2020). Wentworth et al.'s review was not exhaustive as at least one article from the same time frame found mixed support for the Kotter model (Baloh et al., 2018).

Limitations of the Kotter Model. Twenty-five years ago, Kotter implied that his model worked within a certain framework, which was quite broad (Kotter, 1995). At that time, he likely expected that it may not be applicable to all types of changes. One observation that multiple studies shared concluded that Kotter's model is a useful tool, yet other complementary tools should be considered and applied (Appelbaum et al., 2012; Baloh et al., 2018; Hughes, 2016; Pollack & Pollack, 2015). Many of these same studies also note that successful changes have occurred in a much messier way that mixes the sequence of the Kotter model or does not follow

it in any way. This is to be expected. Academic research often describes change as complex, uncertain and ambiguous (Hughes, 2016); and yet the Kotter model boils it down to eight fairly simple, but not necessarily easy, steps. Finally, some feel Kotter's central argument of avoiding failure by following key change management steps is flawed because so many failures occur due to external factors (e.g., legislative change, global competition, recession, etc.) while Kotter's model is mainly internally facing (Hughes, 2016).

Some of the most noted limitations are aimed at how Kotter said the model worked, rather than the model itself. Examples of this follow. One study that focused on directly testing Kotter's model and would prove to embody some of the critiques, noted that their successful experience was not linear, it required multiple instances of Kotter's model at different levels of the organization, and it could not have worked being fully top-led (Pollack & Pollack, 2015).

While Kotter published the first version of the model, which stated the steps needed to be sequential, Burnes and James (1995) argued that prescriptive approaches did not correlate well with studies that suggest that organizations used approaches to change that were rooted in their culture, which is a central consideration in change efforts. Counter culture change or change processes can be ignored or ineffective and the lack of culture acknowledgement in many planned approaches may be a clue as to failure of change projects attributed to managers' inability to follow steps in a change model (Appelbaum et al., 2012).

Kotter also espoused that all of the steps were necessary and skipping any of them would result in failure (Kotter, 1995). In studies that have used the model successfully, that was not always the case; some steps are not relevant in some contexts (Appelbaum et al., 2012). Contextual-specific considerations in change efforts are significant and well researched. Being too contextually generic is one of the perceived shortfalls of Kotter's model (Hughes, 2016). A

specific example of this is organizational culture and the values that have driven an organization's actions. Large-scale change, which is what Kotter has observed has failed in its majority, has been shown to be facilitated by taking into account specific values (Stadler & Hinterhuber, 2005). Moving beyond poor planning or lack of commitment to change, a quick cause of change efforts slowing or halting could be a clash of values between the change effort approach and the organization (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015; Burnes & Jackson, 2011).

Planned Change Models: To Kotter or Not to Kotter. This literature review will consider additional change theories beyond planned change models but before doing so consider a few recommendations of both those who have accepted the wide acceptance of Kotter's model, used it, and found it successful; and those who have done the same and yet see shortcomings. If the change appears to align with organizational values and culture then taking Kotter's model and running with it will likely lead to positive results (Wentworth et al., 2020).

Change model research conclusions provide some of the following suggestions. "Regardless of the change method managers choose to adopt, the method has to be well aligned with the organizational change type" (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015, p. 254). A systematic methodology that is appropriate to the change is helpful for people to map processes, but executing makes the real difference in change efforts (Cole et al., 2006; Paper et al., 2001). Appelbaum et al. (2017) suggested that organizations going through "employees adapting to new situations should carefully design the change path leading from the pre-change to the post-change situation" (p. 226).

Hughes suggests one specific way to do this: "Instead of eight 'off the shelf' steps, there would be real merit in a leader assembling their own n-step approach" (2016, p. 455). Burnes and James (1995) concorded that there is not one best way to manage change and suggested

using "contingency theory." Contingency theory argues that a series of change approaches should be selected based on the situation and was first published in a 1993 study in which the authors tested the model across different kinds of changes in the service sector (Dunphy & Stace, 1993). These suggestions are congruent with other recommendations of using a mixed-methods approach to successfully navigate change initiatives based on the aspects of the organization most affected by the change (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015).

The data analysis of this study motivated consideration of some of the major themes of planned change models, mostly based on Kotter. Additional change themes were identified based on open coding, which revealed topics that did not fall within a specific set of nodes. This next section is the result. In contrast to planned change models, there are change experts who propose perspectives that may seem more difficult to act on at first and require more planning and thought but that consider barriers to change and how to navigate them more wholly.

Barriers to Change

There seem to be as many barriers to change as there are different steps in planned change models. The term barriers to change is used purposefully as the title to this section rather than the more often used term 'resistance to change' since resistance may or may not always be a barrier. Nevertheless, major barriers in the research include resistance to change, organizational inertia, and issues related to individuals' attitudes, motivations, cognitive processes, and actions. Finally, external factors and poor change leadership and management also represent barriers.

What is resistance to change? One typical definition is "individuals' negative thoughts, feelings, and behaviors towards organizational change initiatives" (Erwin & Garman, 2010, p. 51). While resistance to change is the most cited reason change leaders assign to change failure (Erwin & Garman, 2010) care should be taken as it is a multifaceted concept (Oreg, 2006).

Additionally, the change leaders are the people defining both the meaning of resistance and who is doing the resisting in many cases (Thomas & Hardy, 2011). Rather, resistance is possibly present as a corresponding response to power and there is a dual operation of both concepts within relationships that coincides with points of contact. This is important because resistance is often seen as change agents against change recipients, which more often leads to deadlocks and frustration. This is overly simplified as many times resistance is misinterpreted as resistance to change when the resisting has little to do with the change but a strong connection to negative consequences of the change (Oreg, 2006). Erwin and Garman (2010) observed that one of the main negative consequences is if people perceive they lack the personal capabilities for success.

When resistance is analyzed in the context of power it allows for an alternate view of the merits of the resistance and how to handle them (Erwin & Garman, 2010; Furst & Cable, 2008; Thomas & Hardy, 2011). Schein (1985) connects resistance to learning anxiety that stems from leaving a known way of doing things for the unknown. Power, trust and competence become an essential part of the amount of learning anxiety that a person experiences. This is partly because most of the anxiety comes from fear: fear of loss, fear of incompetence, fear of punishment, and fear of loss of personal identity. The higher the power discrepancy and the lower the trust the more learning anxiety a person will experience. The stronger the anxiety the more likelihood of resistance and the defensiveness (Schein, 1985; Thomas & Hardy, 2011).

Another variable connected to resistance is positive attachment and the idea that resistance to change occurs when an individual senses that there will be a significant, and often permanent, loss (Albert, 1984). Resistance to change as a function of power conflicts, attachment and loss is not only a construct defined by change agents but a personal experience that affects feeling and actions which are at the core of change (Paper et al., 2001; Sparr, 2018).

Organizational inertia has also proven to be an effective barrier to change. This inertia, which is the forces that come from vision, direction, systems, and actions of an organization and its members, along with corresponding restraining forces, maintains a system's equilibrium and suggests a partial answer to the question "why is it so hard for systems to make major changes" (Gersick, 1991)? Romanelli and Tushman (1994) observed a similar concept when they discussed three barriers to radical change: obligation, cognition, and motivation. Obligations among stakeholders within and external to the organization can sustain inertia that overcomes change efforts. Gersick (1991) recommends overcoming organizational inertia through wholesale upheaval rather than incremental changes. Technical systems and knowledge barriers are also examples of inertia.

"The success or failure of organizational change is highly dependent on employee behavior" (Sparr, 2018, p. 162). Motivation, cognition and culture influence people's behavior in change settings. Burnes, Gersick, Tushman and Romanelli, and other theorists have noted motivational barriers to change (Albert, 1984; Gersick, 1991). Bell and Taylor (2011) summarized a thread of research that touched on the pain of loss, the uncertainty, and the fear of failure that accompany the implication of change, which usually involves the termination of meaningful constructs and defining new ones. Confronting this can affect the motivation to learn or implement a new way of doing things. Motivation during change is also rooted in employees' experiences of uncertainty, disruptions, and the approach for making sense of changes (Maitlis & Sonenshein, 2010; Sparr, 2018).

Making sense of crisis or extreme change situations was defined as sensemaking (Weick, 1988). It is the process of constructing an explanation for when discrepant signals interrupt normal activity. It is typically a retrospective exercise that assigns meaning to what people are

doing. Maitlis and Sonenshein (2010, p. 552) described it succinctly: "Sensemaking is thus about connecting cues and frames to create an account of what is going on." The two main factors in sensemaking are shared meanings and emotion. To the extent that sensemaking aligns or deviates among groups (e.g., managers, frontline employees, and executives) employees may interpret they are enacting change, although it could be change that differs from the leaders' original vision (Maitlis & Sonenshein, 2010; Weick & Quinn, 1999). And further, if it is difficult for employees to make sense of certain changes given their values, ethics and beliefs then this could contribute to obstacles to change via another barrier of change—cognitive dissonance (Burnes & James, 1995).

Cognitive dissonance is the degree that a person's attitudes and behavior are consistent (Burnes & James, 1995). When consistency is low and dissonance is high in change situations then often one of three outcomes will be observed: (a) a change in the attitude of the person experiencing dissonance, (b) a change in behavior, or (c) ignoring or avoiding the cause of dissonance. Thus, analyzing the potential degree of dissonance and working to lower it can reap benefits as the change initiative is being implemented. One of the ways to increase dissonance is to have people feel they are being compelled to change (Burnes & James, 1995). Another issue that affects dissonance and sense making is organizational culture, which will be discussed in more detail in the next section. A concluding thought to these cognitive, motivational and cultural aspects is that change management often neglects the people aspect of change and how it affects people's thought process, actions and abilities related to change (Furst & Cable, 2008).

In discussing how different states of being, actions and abilities of people involved in change efforts can affect success, we would be amiss to leave out the individuals who are seen as the change agents and leaders. Most planned change models arose from observations that many

change efforts did not have the right kind or sufficient leadership (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015; Furst & Cable, 2008). Leadership approach and support are directly related to how positively people feel toward a major change effort and the resources made available to carry out the change (Furst & Cable, 2008; Walker et al., 2007).

Many of the barriers described in the above paragraphs can result from poor execution by leaders and much of Kotter's models are based on helping guide a leader on focusing on things that will make a difference (Kotter, 1995). And finally, little change research acknowledges the variables beyond an organization's control that can deeply affect change initiatives. A change in the operating environment, economic trends, technology innovations, a change in resource availability, competitors, and market shifts are just a few examples. Less discussion is given to these factors when looking at the success or failure of a major change initiative.

Frameworks for Analyzing Change and Reducing Barriers to Change

Stepping out of the planned change models and into other change frameworks leads to a new ecosystem of theory and tools to navigate change efforts and address barriers. This mini universe of research will not be fully treated here but rather I have selected different areas of research that became relevant when certain patterns began to show up in interviews or in archival documents. Here I will briefly focus on four areas: (a) the interplay between desired change and the culture, context and values of the organization, (b) principles that help an organization support individuals involved in change, (c) focusing on different frames or views of the organization to navigate change, and (d) distributed leadership and leadership selection.

Culture and Organizational Context

Organizational culture research increased significantly in the early 1980s, likely due to shifting competitive markets and the increased interest in Japanese business efficiency it

continued to strengthen from there (Schein, 1984, 2006; Tharp, 2009) Though there are many nuances and definitions, Schein's is among the most widely accepted: organizational culture is "a pattern of shared basic assumptions learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration" that drives behavior, though processes and attitudes (Schein, 1985, p. 12):

> Individuals create organizations that develop cultures, and organizations acculturate individuals; … Leadership in starting an organization is a completely different process from leadership in a mature organization that is trying to change some elements of its culture. Leaders create cultures through imposing their personal values and assumptions on their colleagues and employees, but as the organization develops a shared view, i.e., 'culture', it imprints itself on its members … (Schein, 2006, p. 296).

The result of this early leadership, joint learning, and shared view is artifacts, norms, espoused and enacted values; and tacit taken-for-granted assumptions—the defining elements of culture (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Schein, 1984). Schein (2006) observed that culture influences people and organizations at every level and therefore understanding the "shared tacit assumptions" is a central part of organizational change efforts. Some change researchers and culture advocates have concluded that change management, in large part, is culture management and influence (Appelbaum et al., 2017; Burnes & James, 1995; Schein, 2006). Weston (2018) analyzed cultural frameworks within organizational change and concluded that instilling a change-oriented culture is an effective way to produce on-going change. Change can become particularly hard when the solution and process to achieve change are significantly different than the culture created from how the organization solved problems in the past (Schein, 2006).

As a result, many change efforts might be in trouble even before any n-step effort begins, if there is major misalignment between the culture and the change. Burnes and James (1995) observed that people judge the viability and worth of any proposed changes through the lens of organizational culture. If this judgement can be discerned, then change leaders could have a much better estimation of whether they are stepping into a supportive climate or one that will experience higher dissonance and generate additional barriers. Analyzing how a major change aligns with culture and values should be among the first things organizations do. This exercise would also provide insights for planning the change (e.g.. the depth of involvement of different people, who might need additional support, resource needs, timeline expectations, and so forth).

Analyzing the alignment of a change initiative and culture has been a long standing part of change efforts but it is usually approached from an objective, data perspective as opposed to additional methods, like a stress test (Schein, 1996). This analysis requires understanding the culture. Lewin's action research and other researchers suggested ways of doing this as a change agent (Burnes & Bargal, 2017; Lewin, 1947; Schein, 2006). Most of them are well summarized by a quote from Lewin: 'you do not really understand an organization (system) until you try to change it.' And Schein (1996, p. 65) notes that, "The processes of learning about a system and changing that system are, in fact, one and the same." Examples of this have been noted by many (Appelbaum et al., 2017; Burnes & James, 1995; Schein, 1996):

- Hold discussions/interviews with as many employees as possible to discover the underlying backgrounds and aspects of the organizational culture—even if you think you understand it. These could be a basis for cultural change.

- Note how the employees felt about the process and what could be inferred from the way the you were received.

- Discuss previous change efforts with employees and change agents.

- Observe different operations. Include the reactions you observe from your observations.

- Respond to requests for help in various ways and observe the reaction and impacts of different kinds of help interventions.

- Consider the type and depth of employee involvement before proceeding with a change project.

This kind of exploratory work done at the beginning of a change effort, highlights the iterative, non-sequential aspects of change when seen through the lens of culture. Culture and change research highlight additional success contributors beyond understanding and aligning the change effort and culture. For example, leveraging existing cultural elements and attaching them to positive attitudes of change, implementing cultural interventions when a difference arises between the desired and the prevailing culture, consulting staff and paying special attention to key groups of people and following good managerial practices, such as having clear objectives, timetables and ongoing role definition.

Employee Support During Change

While employee support may not be a change framework it is one of the most effective ways to reduce individual barriers to change (Erwin & Garman, 2010; Furst & Cable, 2008; Radwan, 2020; Thomas & Hardy, 2011). Organizations could improve the likelihood of bringing about change by supporting employees before change initiatives yet support reaches a point of diminishing returns (Gigliotti et al., 2019). Rather than resist resistance, supporting employees who are feeling it has shown to decrease it (Erwin & Garman, 2010). This is particularly true in large-scale revolutionary changes (Szamosi & Duxbury, 2002). Some principal constructs of

support are broad, ongoing communication to different stakeholders about the change, positive work environment, trust and understanding between people in supervisorial roles and employees; employees feeling cared for, the organization recognizing loss in the change process, participation and influence in the change effort, and shared common goals (Albert, 1984; Erwin & Garman, 2010; Szamosi & Duxbury, 2002). A few of these constructs that are most relevant to the discussion of this paper will be touched on briefly.

Effective communication correlates to improved employee perceptions of change and change readiness (Gigliotti et al., 2019). Szamosi and Duxbury (2002) described three kinds of organizational communication that were statistically significant in supporting change in the context of their study: (a) communicating the need for change, (b) informing employees regarding change through multiple channels, and (c) maintaining contact with customers to ensure awareness of what the organization is doing. They noted other communication related activities that had positive impacts such as "asking employees if there is a better way to do things, sharing common goals, … and informing employees of external initiatives" (Szamosi & Duxbury, 2002, p. 196). Communication is not always verbal or written. One way this is manifested is when there is verbal support for change but a lack of corresponding action (e.g., removing bureaucracy that impedes change or protecting departments from change), which can lead to decreases in change support (Szamosi & Duxbury, 2002; Vakola & Nikolaou, 2005).

Communicating effectively also includes handling conflicts and building supportive work relationships. These aspects of good communication contribute to the formulation of positive attitudes to change success of a change program (Vakola & Nikolaou, 2005). Turnarounds can be depressing and part of the communication task is managing the mood of the organization (Garvin & Roberto, 2005). Organizational and manager communications that help people feel their

contribution is valued, will help form positive beliefs and attitudes about the change (Oreg, 2006; Vakola & Nikolaou, 2005; Walker et al., 2007). Summarized simply, "Employees need to feel that their sacrifices have not been in vain" (Garvin & Roberto, 2005, p. 110). Erwin and Garman (2010) cited multiple studies to show that participation in the development and implementation of the change boosted positive attitudes and decreased resistance to change.

Acknowledging good news, bad news, difficulties, resistance and loss associated with change are employee support (Albert, 1984; Garvin & Roberto, 2005; Wolfram Cox, 1997). In Zell's (2003) study of the crossroads between organizational change and loss, she observed that deeply felt experiences related to change (e.g., shock, frustration, anger, helplessness, and depression) are treated at a superficial level of resistance to change. She followed a change initiative with professors for two years and concluded that it closely resembled the grief stages people associate with dying and that the following things likely helped professors move through the different Kübler-Ross (1970) stages:

- Talking with people about their situations, referring openly to those things being lost, thus changing the topics from "undiscussable" to a part of life (Kübler-Ross, 1970).

- Group discussions (she observed her discussions as a researcher with people in groups and with individuals may have helped them).

- Confronting organizational members with the reality of the change.

- Using credible data to help people see the change-necessary environment (Zell, 2003).

This line of thinking has been extended to the idea of continuing bonds theory as a result of many organizational studies portraying grief as linear, sequential, temporary obstacle (Bell & Taylor, 2011). Continuing connections or bonds with the pre-change organization or aspects of

it, legitimize feelings of loss and grief. Albert (1984) suggested supporting people in the different stages through four processes: (a) "a summary process in which important aspects of the past are evoked and reviewed; [(b)] a process of justification when reasons for termination are stated and defined; [(c)] a continuity process, where a link is constructed between past and future; and [(d)] a process involving a momentary increase in attachment" celebrating the value of what is lost through something like an organizational funeral or eulogy (Albert, 1984, p. 172). Allowing people to grieve for their loss without getting stuck in it paves the way for the future (Albert, 1984; Bell & Taylor, 2011; Zell, 2003). Part of the pain or grief that comes as part of change was observed by Schein (2006): "Change must be distinguished from 'new learning' in that it implies some unlearning which is intrinsically difficult and usually painful" (p. 292). Supporting people in an organization going through immense change will continue to be part of the organizational change literature.

Change Through a Frame Perspective

Another outlook on executing organizational change relies on a systemic approach where different perspectives, or frames, are used to help change leaders analyze change efforts. The models and principles in this area of organizational change purposefully omit planned change models and direct solutions to change problems but rather provide ways of thinking about change and its challenges, opportunities and potential approaches (Palmer & Dunford, 1996). Bolman and Deal (2017) and Morgan (1995) have worked on frame models for over 36 years and Morgan was one of the most cited authors in a well-respected organizational study journal for multiple years (Palmer & Dunford, 1996).

Waclawski (2002) argued that organizational performance only improves when change efforts consider the domains of culture, leadership, mission, strategy and structure. Similarly,

Cao and McHugh (2005), focused on a systemic view involving process and structure, being the objective or physical aspects of an organization; and culture and politics, being the subjective aspects. Their view is that interactions of multiple dimensions and diversity are part of the change initiative and that multiple models can be used to form a system view to help facilitate the change using the four organization aspects (Cao & Mchugh, 2005). Beer and Nohia also argued for a more broad "lenses" approach using theory E and theory O (Beer & Nohria, 2000). Theory E represents change that adds economic value and O represents building organizational capability and may seem at odds (e.g., downsizing versus nurturing through development). Their observation is that sequencing the two perspectives allows an organization to maximize the benefits of both (Beer & Nohria, 2000). The point is that many research studies have found value in a systemic, multi-perspective approach to change.

Bolman and Deal continued the systemic line of thinking of Morgan using the "frame" model and explicating a four-frame approach, which they advocate was created to summarize key learnings from academic research, particularly highly cited change literature. Their model focuses specifically on guiding leaders and managers who are helping the organization through change (Bolman & Deal, 2017). The four-frame model outlines the following perspectives of organizations: (a) structural, the formal organization which the authors compare to factories; (b) the human resource frame, which is compared to families and centered on how people are feeling; (c) the political frame, which focuses on information imbalance and power and is compared to jungles; and (d) the symbolic frame deals with the vision, stories, myths, rituals or organizational traditions, is compared to temples, and resembles organizational culture (Bolman & Deal, 2017).

While many failed change efforts are pinned on people, the authors summarize well the reason for their approach: "We blame individuals when the real problems are systemic" (Bolman & Deal, 2017, p. 408). The connection between organizational change and each frame's accompanying barriers along with strategies to overcome them are summarized in Figure A4. Many of the strategies in this chart are ones identified in the literature in the last section of this paper. Others are woven throughout. As an example, when dealing with power struggles, the authors recommend making a "political map" of the organization and seeing who the high and low power allies, fence-sitters and opponents are as a starting point.

Figure A4

Summary of Frames and Strategies for Reframing Organizations

Exhibit 18.1. Reframing Organizational Change.		
Frame	**Barriers to Change**	**Essential Strategies**
Human resource	Anxiety, uncertainty; people feel incompetent and needy	Training to develop new skills; participation and involvement; psychological support
Structural	Loss of direction, clarity, and stability; confusion, chaos	Communicating, realigning, and renegotiating formal patterns and policies
Political	Disempowerment; conflict between winners and losers	Developing arenas where issues can be renegotiated and new coalitions formed
Symbolic	Loss of meaning and purpose; clinging to the past	Creating transition rituals; mourning the past, celebrating the future

Note. Source: Bolman & Deal (2017, p. 370).

The reframing model, and other framing approaches, grow out of social constructionism and relies on the inherent assumptions that people can assimilate different world views and that those views affect actions directly (Palmer & Dunford, 1996). Criticisms start with these assumptions. Additionally, some claim that an overemphasis on the use of language in these

models has placed representations of organizational change and frame approaches first and facts second (Van Maanen, 1995). Palmer and Dunford (1996) agreed and provided additional reframing constraints: "1) cognitive limits, 2) frame dominance and the limits of language, 3) conceptions of action and their limits on reframing; and 4) knowledge and power as limits to reframing" (p. 10).

One strongly opposing view of the frame model is that competitive advantage comes from narrow minded focus rather than expansive frame thinking (Porac & Rosa, 1996). This likely is true for some levels of management but it assumes that using frames has to be done in a broad, unfocused manner. It is, however, possible to look at narrow approaches from multiple perspectives. The arguments from Porac and Rosa (1996) against the Bolman and Deal reframing approach is that the approach overly intellectualizes the environment interactions and that rather than using frames to match to a situation an organization should impose their frame on the environment through consistency of purpose and a narrow focus on an organization's unique resources. There continues to be a need to explore the frame approaches and its limits in formal research studies.

Distributed Leadership and Leadership Selection

There are seemingly endless books and articles written about leadership and its role in organizational change. This concluding section of the review of the most relevant literature is not meant to go in depth on this body of research but rather highlight three interesting observations from change studies specific to educational settings that are relevant to the discussion of this study: distributed leadership, transformational leadership and leadership selection.

Educational change leaders found that "in the strongest schools, leadership comes from many sources" (Peterson & Deal, 1998, p. 30). Distributed leadership allows for solving more

problems, supporting more people through a change effort, having people influence the process which increases support and continuity when leadership changes (Fullan, 2008; Garvin & Roberto, 2005; Peterson & Deal, 1998). This holds true beyond school organizations. Leaders avoid pitfalls by involving others in removing obstacles. They take responsibility for mistakes, not making criticism personal, and maintaining a broad vision of what is occurring while keeping a pulse on the day-to-day work (Garvin & Roberto, 2005; Heifetz & Linsky, 2002).

These educational leaders follow a general pattern when trying to reshape educational organizations to increase learning. They come to understand the culture, historically and currently and try to understand deeper meanings of what they see before trying to change it. One of the goals is to understand what is destructive and constructive (Peterson & Deal, 1998). They proceed to discover and articulate core values, finding the crossroads of what is best for learners and those that support learning:

> Finally, leaders work to fashion a positive context, reinforcing cultural elements that are positive and modifying those that are negative and dysfunctional. Positive school cultures are never monolithic or overly conforming, but core values and shared purpose should be pervasive and deep. (Peterson & Deal, 1998, p. 51)

Michael Fullan, who also approaches leadership from an educational background outlines similar leadership traits and encourages empowering distributed leadership (Fullan, 2008). Successful turnarounds in education have involved leaders who are: (a) careful upon entering a new setting, (b) listen and learn from those who have been there, (c) work on problems jointly, (d) diagnose the situation carefully, (e) directly address people's concerns, and (f) obtain buy-in and develop a credible plan, among other things. Figure A5 shows a similar visual representation

of these principles. The similarities to Bass and Avolio's theory of transformational and transactional leadership are significant (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Figure A5

Fullan's Model of Leadership to Effect Change in Educational Settings (Fullan, 2008)
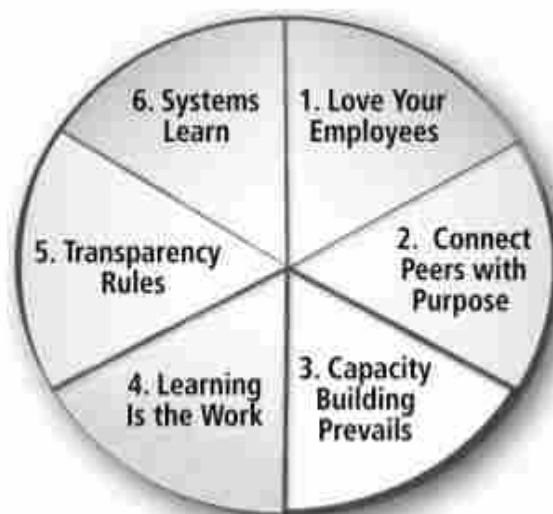
Transformational leadership is summarized with four characteristics: (a) idealized influence, (b) inspirational motivation, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individualized consideration (Bass & Avolio, 1994). These leaders shape culture through "creative insight, persistence and energy, intuition and sensitivity to the needs of others" (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 542). Bass and Avolio (1994) contrast this with transactional leadership, that focus agreements with followers and work within the existing culture. They argue that some transactional leadership is necessary and when combined with a high amount of transformational leadership can lead to improved culture and successful change.

Comparable to Fullan and Peterson, they argue that leadership should come from many and that people are trustworthy and provide unique contributions. Leaders "align others around

the vision and empower others to take greater responsibility for achieving the vision. Such leaders facilitate and teach followers" (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 543). Within transformational leadership, one would see many of the things mentioned in the section on supporting employees to reduce barriers to change. They delineate, for example, building continuity between old and new, using ceremonial events to mourn loss; and understanding, respecting and pulling inspiration from the past (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

This leadership model assumes that all people in the organization should be developed to their full potential and that the culture and leadership live in reciprocity. Finally, transformational leadership also weaves in process with clear roots in planned change theory:

> First, there is an articulation of the changes that are desired. Next, the necessary changes in structure, processes, and practices are made and are widely communicated throughout the organization. Finally, new role and behavioral models are established and reinforced that become symbols of the "new" culture. (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 546)

Transformational leadership is associated with higher levels of change commitment (Herold et al., 2008; Kotter & Rathgeber, 2006). It is also a large umbrella that is so comprehensive that some have found it difficult to use in a practical way, partially because it is unrealistic to adopt via training (Hay, 2006).

Leadership selection also affects change initiatives and organizational performance. Promoting from within often provides more innovation and results than hiring externally (Balsmeier & Buchwald, 2015; Bidwell, 2011). Part of the reason this occurs is that the people promoted are familiar with the organization and what needs to happen. In an Arizona charter school study, the leadership consisting of the state education authority, was enacting a change effort via new policy (Garn, 1999). Change levers, often referred to as policy instruments in

policy implementation research (examples include, funding, the press, other non-monetary resources, positions and personnel) were crucial to high fidelity implementation in this situation where the goal was to create a system reform (Garn, 1999; McDonnell & Elmore, 1987). In this specific case the leadership body selected a person who helped plan the reform at a political level and championed it through ratification, to then switch positions into the role of being responsible to implement the policy. Garn (1999) observed that this change in responsibility of someone who was both external at one level but internal to the effort at a higher level was one of four contributing success factors. The other three were common to what we have seen in the change literature: communication, resources, and will (Garn, 1999). A similar leadership responsibility shift was also seen in this study. This leadership selection approach can be a risk because when people in an organization do not want to change and a new leader becomes the symbol for change they often try to get rid of that symbol (Garvin & Roberto, 2005). This challenge can be overcome by involving others in removing obstacles, owning up to mistakes, not making criticism personal, and focusing on the vision while keeping a pulse on the day-to-day work (Garvin & Roberto, 2005; Heifetz & Linsky, 2002).

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APPENDIX B

Additional Method Information

The author is well aware of the main premise of grounded theory being that you essentially start off knowing nothing in contrast to the typical research plan of knowing the problem beforehand (Glaser, 2016). This, however, does not mean that one starts without a conjectural problem. Also, in this case the researcher was part of the case and that allows for an initial starting point. Despite this, as grounded theory came to be, the goal was to research the patterns which emerge as the study is happening (Glaser, 2016). Grounded theory was originally developed to create empirically based "middle-range theory" (Duke, 1967). These would be "middle range theories that are applicable to real-world situations" (Corbin et al., 2008, p. 14). This focus on theory development is the major characteristic that distinguishes grounded theory from other qualitative methods. The goals of this study align well with the goal of both understanding experience and potentially developing or clarifying middle-range theory. As a result, grounded theory methods were prominent.

Perhaps one of the best descriptions of why we selected a qualitative approach with grounded theory as a basis, was stated by Corbin et al. (2008) when describing qualitative research:

> The world is very complex. There are no simple explanations for things. Rather, events are the result of multiple factors coming together and interacting in complex and often unanticipated ways. Therefore, any methodology that attempts to understand experience and explain situations will have to be complex. … We realize that, to understand experience, that experience must be located within and can't be divorced from the larger events. (p. 7)

The approach for this study assumes many of the epistemologies and world viewpoints of most qualitative studies, however there were two unique aspects that merit a brief treatment. First, the researcher was a part of the organization and the change effort. I had two specific roles. First, I was the first contact and supervisor of the international MTCs in Latin America. Secondly, I was the administrative director of the newly created Mexico MTC. I was a complete participant and observer of the process. This provided unique access to people's perspectives and data, but also generated some potential risks. This was minimized as much as possible by: (a) recruiting data collection assistance from others who were not as close to some of the organization's employees (b) carrying out interviews and focus groups after the position of the author had changed in the organization and was near transferring to another job outside of Mexico and (c) being transparent with what the data was being used for and communicating that the data gathering had no impact on people's work. One reflection of the potential success of reducing risk was the amount of "negative" comments interviewees were willing to share in their interviews. The benefit of doing part of the study while in the organization is that it provided a unique emic perspective. It allowed the researcher to be fully submersed in the organization's culture and facilitated observation that is nearly impossible otherwise.

Second, one meaningful departure from a typical qualitative study, particularly one of grounded theory, is that this one has a combination of semi-predefined theoretical concepts, that came from change management theory and guided some of the data analysis. This unusual element of the study was mainly drive by knowledge about the case. As one looks at the documents that were created as part of the planning stage of the change, it is clear that there is some amount of thought put into how to make the change happen and not only at an operational

level of the institution but also around how to help people understand the change, the vision of the future state of the organization and the importance of people's role in arriving at that state.

As an admission to the limited experience I possess, it would be my hope that those who read this study would see alternative explanations that I could not, despite my best efforts. In using some theoretical underpinnings, I have constantly attempted to remind myself of the importance of remaining open to new ideas and concepts.

I further recommend studying site maps, satellite images, reading organizational literature, historical plans, and other related organizational elements. To provide implementation fidelity it was clear that the first month that this change was being considered the Missionary Department wanted to send someone down who understood the context of a larger training center and also the nuances of working in an international area. Two months into the process, with much of the planning well underway, leaders invited me to move to Mexico to continue to support the change effort.

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APPENDIX C

Institutional Review Board Approval Letter and Consent Forms

Institutional Review Board
for Human Subjects

BYU

Brigham Young University
A-285 ASB Provo, Utah 84602
(801) 422-3841 / Fax: (801) 422-0620

December 9, 2015

Shawn Cates

Re: A Case Study in Policy-Driven Organizational Change

Dear   Shawn Cates

This is to inform you that Brigham Young University's IRB has approved the above research study.

The approval period is from 12-9-2015 to 12-8-2016. Your study number is X15400. Please be sure to reference this number in any correspondence with the IRB.

Continued approval is conditional upon your compliance with the following requirements:

1. A copy of the 'Informed Consent Document' approved as of 12-9-2015 is enclosed. No other consent form should be used. It must be signed by each subject prior to initiation of any protocol procedures. In addition, each subject must be given a copy of the signed consent form.

2. All protocol amendments and changes to approved research must be submitted to the IRB and not be implemented until approved by the IRB.

3. The enclosed recruitment advertisement has been approved. Advertisements, letters, Internet postings and any other media for subject recruitment must be submitted to IRB and approved prior to use.

4. A few months before this date we will send out a continuing review form. There will only be two reminders. Please fill this form out in a timely manner to ensure that there is not a lapse in your approval.

If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to call me.

Sincerely,

Robert Ridge, PhD., Chair
Sandee M.P. Munoz, Administrator
Institutional Review Board for Human Subjects

Supervisor Permission Form

Consent for your Employee to Participate as a Research Subject

Introduction

A research study is being conducted by Shawn Cates and Julie Hite, PhD, at Brigham Young University to determine how the change from a high school to a missionary training center (MTC) can be explained by academic theories about change and what the challenges and successes are related to the change. Some of your employees have been identified as potential participants in this study since they experienced the change first hand.

Procedures

We seek your approval for your employee to participate in a 60 minute interview on the MTC campus during their normal work hours. Each participant will sign their own consent form.

Confidentiality

No information from the interview will be shared with anyone other than the research investigators. The research data will be kept on a password protected computer and only the researcher will have access to the data. At the conclusion of the study, all identifying information will be removed and the data will be kept in the researcher's locked cabinet. Names of your employees will not be used in the data.

Only the primary researcher will have access to the interview data once it is complete. Only the person that does the interview will know the identity of the person. Participants will remain completely anonymous in any publications or presentations that result from the research.

Compensation

There is no compensation for participating in this study.

Participation

Participation in this research study is voluntary. Your employee has the right to withdraw at any time or refuse to participate entirely without jeopardy to their employment or standing with the MTC and your department. They also have the right to refuse to answer any of the questions asked during the interview.

Questions about the Research

If you have questions regarding this study, you may contact Shawn Cates at ▇▇▇▇▇▇▇ or 55-4837-1974 for further information. You may also contact Dr. Julie Hite at Julie_Hite@byu.edu, or +1-801-422-5039 (US).

Statement of Approval

I have read, understood, and received a copy of the above approval form and give my approval for some of my employees to participate in this study if they desire to.

Your Name (Printed):_____

Signature:_____ Date:_____

	Institutional Review Board
BYU	12-9-2015 12-8-2016
	Approved Expires

Interview Consent Form in Spanish

Consentimiento para participar en una entrevista en un estudio de investigación

Introducción

Este estudio de investigación está siendo realizada por Shawn Cates y Julie Hite, PhD, en la Universidad Brigham Young para determinar la forma en que el cambio de una escuela preparatoria a un centro de capacitación misional (CCM) se explica por las teorías académicas sobre el cambio de organizaciones. Usted fue invitado a participar porque usted fue seleccionado al azar de los que experimentaron de primera mano el cambio.

Procedimiento

Si acepta participar en este estudio de investigación, ocurrirá lo siguiente:

- usted será entrevistado por aproximadamente cuarenta y cinco (45) minutos sobre cómo la escuela se convirtió en un CCM
- el audio de la entrevista será grabado para asegurar precisión al reportar sus declaraciones
- la entrevista se llevará a cabo en una oficina en el CCM en un momento conveniente para usted
- el investigador puede contactarle después para aclarar sus respuestas de la entrevista por aproximadamente quince (15) minutos
- El compromiso de tiempo total será de sesenta (60) minutos

Riesgos/Incomodidad

Algunas preguntas pueden ser incómodas para responder, ya que reflejará una evaluación de parte de su trabajo en el CCM. También algunas preguntas pueden ser emocionalmente difícil de responder al recordar su trabajo en la escuela del Benemérito.

El otro riesgo implica el costo de oportunidad de los 60 minutos potenciales que usted dedicará a la entrevista. Sin embargo, usted no va a estar en riesgo de no cumplir con sus responsabilidades de trabajo ya que su supervisor le dará permiso para que usted pueda dedicar el tiempo necesario para participar en esta entrevista.

Como investigador principal Shawn Cates tendrá acceso a la transcripción de esta entrevista. Si usted es un empleado de Shawn Cates la asistente de investigación realizará la entrevista. Su nombre será cambiado por un número de identificación único antes de que Shawn reciba la transcripción y cualquier información que podría ser usado para identificarle será eliminada.

Beneficios

No habrá beneficios directos para usted. Se espera, sin embargo, que a través de su participación los investigadores pueden aprender sobre lo que contribuye a hacer cambios exitosos en organizaciones y los líderes de los CCM y de la Iglesia aprenderán acerca de hacer grandes cambios en un CCM u otras organizaciones de la Iglesia.

Confidencialidad

Los datos de la investigación se mantendrá en un equipo protegido por contraseña y sólo el investigador tendrá acceso a los datos. Al concluir el estudio, toda la información de identificación será eliminado y los datos se mantendrá en el armario del investigador cerrado con llave. Los nombres no serán utilizados como parte de los datos, sino más bien la entrevista se le asignará un número de identificación único que se asocia sólo con el departamento en el cual usted trabaja.

	Institutional Review Board	
BYU	12-9-2015 Approved	12-8-2016 Expires

Sólo el investigador principal tendrá acceso a los datos de la entrevista una vez que se haya completado. Sólo la persona que hace la entrevista conocerá la identidad de la persona y no compartirá información de la entrevista con nadie mas excepto el investigador de este estudio. Los participantes seguirán siendo totalmente anónima en cualquier publicación o presentaciones que se derivan de la investigación.

Compensación
No hay compensación para participar en este estudio.

Participación
La participación en este estudio de investigación es voluntaria. Usted tiene el derecho de retirarse de la entrevista en cualquier momento o negarse a participar en su totalidad y sin poner en peligro su empleo o su estatus en el CCM y su departamento. Usted también tiene el derecho de negarse a contestar cualquier de las preguntas hechas durante la entrevista.

Preguntas acerca de la Investigación
Si usted tiene preguntas acerca de este estudio, puede comunicarse con Shawn Cates en ▬▬▬▬@▬▬▬ o 55-4837-1974 para más información. También puede comunicarse con la doctora Julie Hite en Julie_Hite@byu.edu, o + 1-801-422-5039 (EE.UU.).

## Preguntas sobre sus derechos como participante en una investigación
Si usted tiene preguntas sobre sus derechos como participante en proyectos de investigación, puede comunicarse con el Administrador IRB + 1-801-422-1461; A-285 ASB, de la Universidad Brigham Young, Provo, UT 84602; irb@byu.edu.

Declaración de consentimiento
He leido, entendido y recibido una copia de esta autorización y deseo de mi propia voluntad participar en este estudio.

Nombre (letra de molde): _____

Firma:_____ Fecha:_____

Institutional Review Board
BYU
12-9-2015   12-8-2016
Approved   Expires
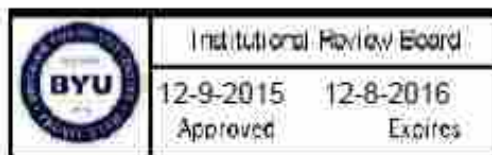
APPENDIX D

Interview Questions

Initial questions for semi-structured interviews and for focus group.

- What challenges and successes did you see as the high school was changed into a training center? What contributes to the success? What contributes to the challenges?
- How well has the new organization fulfilled its new responsibilities?
- Do you consider the change a failure or success? If so, what were the contributing factors? If not, what were the contributing factors? What were some of the most important factors ? Why?
- What was the hardest part about the change for you? The team you worked with?
- How has your team changed to support the new organization? Why do you think those changes occurred?
- How have new approaches to your work been institutionalized in your work group?
- To what extent did you have sufficient resources (including funding) to fulfill your responsibility in the change process? Why? How did this affect the change process?
- What support did you receive to facilitate the development of your capacity to do your current job? From whom? Why? How did this affect the change process?
- What else would you like us to know about your perspective of the change from a school to an MTC?