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A HOLISTIC PROCESS FOR LEADING ORGANIZATIONAL
CHANGE

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A HOLISTIC PROCESS FOR LEADING ORGANIZATIONAL
CHANGE

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This paper is dedicated to all of those who have tried to revitalize a church and have faced the day in and day out struggle of organizational change.

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PREFACE

The completion of this dissertation marks the end of an eight-year journey for me. It began with the acknowledgement that I was a horrible business leader and a mediocre husband who talked a lot but never did anything. In the winter of 2007, I decided to get better and commit myself to the art and craft of business leadership, which is exactly where this dissertation began. While getting my MBA, I began to understand how an organization operates, how it moves, how it breathes, and how it lives. It was through this program my passion for organizational change and business process re-engineering began to blossom. After I completed my MBA, the Holy Spirit saw fit to push me into a M.Div. program. This combination of practical business experience and pastoral church leadership education created a strange breed of an individual that saw (and still sees) value in business principles, processes, and leadership models in a church. This background provides the foundation with which this dissertation has been written.

Over the last two years, I have been pushed to an intellectual breaking point and can now see the light at the end of the tunnel. I would not have been able to accomplish any of this without the strong support of friends, peers, and family.

To the faculty at Southern. Dr. Parker, thank you for being a champion for my theory. I thrive in an environment that allows me to be creative, and independent. Your leadership and management allowed me to do both. You challenged me at the appropriate times, and reigned me in when I started to go too far. Your words of encouragement propelled me forward even when I began to doubt my own work and judgment. I look forward to continue working with you on organizational change for the church. Dr. Wilder, thank you for your stern critiques and honest assessments. I appreciate the feedback you offered not only for this thesis, but also for other

assignments. I hope that you see all of that feedback and growth in this thesis. I sincerely hope that we will have future opportunities to work together to develop the future leaders of the church.

To my classmates at Southern. Each one of you provides a unique balance to my personality and ego. Where I was weak, I had ten brothers pushing to make me stronger. When I was full of ego, I had ten brothers willing to bring me back down to earth. Justin, Seth, and Juan, thank you for being a scriptural balance and forcing me to think more critically of my ideas within a scriptural context. Andrew and Matt, I will never forget the conversation we had driving back from dinner at our first seminar. That one conversation continues to influence my thinking in church revitalization and the application of business principles in church. Bruce and Chris, thank you for being practical partners for me during this process. Our similar backgrounds allowed me to share and work through ideas from a business perspective. Barry and Randy, your humility will continue to be an inspiration for me for a long time to come.

To Kevin Barnes, my pastor, friend, and editor. I know that editing my paper has cost you time with your family, and I am forever grateful that you were able to help me in this process. I am very fortunate to have had a friend that is great at editing some inadequate efforts in this dissertation. We make a pretty good team. Thank you, for consistently reeling me in when I start to stray off the reservation.

Finally, to my wife and our children. Emily, when I approached you about getting a doctorate in late 2012, I am sure you thought I was crazy. Two years later, you still think I am crazy. Thank you for being patient and loving over the last eight years of this journey. I think I can speak with confidence in saying that this will be the last of school for me. Thank you for listening to my crazy ideas and allowing me to dream big, whiteboard it for you, and then offer a two-hour lecture on what it all means. I love you, and I could not have done this without your support. Mia, Jackson, and Ellis, thank you for being patient with me. I will no longer have to say that I cannot do something

because I have school work to do. All four of you will have my undivided attention from this point going forward, and for the first time in eight years, I can write with no deadlines and on any topic. I think it is time to celebrate.

Robert John Eshleman

Kansas City, Missouri

December, 2015

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Those who study organizational change are fond of quoting Heraclitus, and often use the quote “nothing endures but change” to illustrate change in organizations.¹ While scholars recognize Heraclitus as the philosopher of change, the quote is not actually from him. Graham notes, Heraclitus “presupposed the reality of change”² though many during his era, accepted that everything was static. “Nothing endures but change” is merely a trite recognition of continuous change, but the philosophy of Heraclitus runs much deeper and can provide critical insight to organizational change theory. Heraclitus’ river analogy is his most quoted material.³ He explained that, because waters running in the river are in constant motion the second time one-steps into the river it is different. Based on this thoughtful illustration, many assumed that Heraclitus presumed the entire world was in flux. However, Heraclitus viewed the river as the unchanging “logos” that guides the flow of the water and creates a rule of change. He viewed the river as permanent, but the water remains in constant motion and is never the same.⁴

¹ This quote can be found in Kanter’s *Challenge of Organizational Change: How Companies Experience it and Leaders Guide it*; *Organizational Change and Innovation Processes* by Poole, Van de Ven, Dooley and Holmes; *Sturdy and Grey’s Beneath and Beyond Organizational Change Management*; and *Burke’s Organizational Change: A Comprehensive Reader*.

² Daniel Graham, *Explaining the Cosmos: The Ionian Tradition of Scientific Philosophy* (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 2006), 120.

³ The analogy referenced is “on those stepping into rivers staying the same, other and other waters flow.” Daniel Graham, “Heraclitus: Flux, Order and Knowledge,” In *The Oxford Handbook of Presocratic Philosophy*, ed. Patricia Curd and Daniel Graham (New York: Oxford University Press, 2008), 173.

⁴ Graham, *Explaining the Cosmos*, 132.

Kelly notes that “Heraclitus taught that all changing things, all novelty in the world, occurs under the governance of laws, the logos, the objective principle of order in the cosmos.”⁵ Heraclitus used several analogies to describe his philosophy of change (i.e. the transformation of people from young to old and from life to death). Each illustration showed that despite its complexity or obvious chaos, change is governed by a defined set of objective rules. Despite the motivation and origins, Heraclitus’s philosophy is directly relatable to organizational change. For instance, the analogy of the river resembles an organization where the flowing waters are people, departments, processes, and procedures. If an employee leaves an organization and then returns to that organization a few years later, the people, departments, processes, and procedures will have changed over that period, while the organizational entity has remained unchanged. Academic researchers have long recognized the complex nature of change. Recent research in complexity theory recognizes the possibility of a central set of processes (or a guide) that can govern all change. This theory is an idea championed by Heraclitus long ago.

Complexity Theory Defined

The details of organizational change have eluded researchers since Lewin advanced his three-step process. No doubt, these particulars have been swallowed up by the complexity of the organization itself. Organizational complexity can be gauged by the number of layers within the hierarchy, the number of job titles or departments, and the spatial environment.⁶ Complexity has typically been seen as a critical variable within the study of organizational science, and the development of chaos and complexity theories have brought some attention to the complexity of the details involved with

⁵ Eugene Kelly, *The Basics of Western Philosophy* (Washington, DC: Library of Congress, 2004), 34.

⁶ Philip Anderson, “Complexity Theory and Organization Science,” *Organizational Science* 10, no. 3 (May-June 1999): 216.

change only over the past few years.⁷ Burnes notes “complexity theories are concerned with the emergence of order in dynamic non-linear systems operating at the edge of chaos.”⁸ Anderson adds, “modern complexity theory suggests that some systems with many interactions among highly differentiated parts can produce surprisingly simple, predictable behavior.”⁹ The premise behind complexity theory is that patterns form out of the chaos or complexity of the relationships between large numbers of agents. Each agent acts and behaves according to its own set of rules, which requires it to adjust its behavior to that of other agents.¹⁰ The rules that form as agents act and adapt to their environment creates order from the chaos, and thus a self-organizing pattern arises.¹¹ This pattern is known as a Complex Adaptive System (CAS).¹²

CAS models simplify the complex and advance the argument that organizations, like nature, are comprised of multiple agents, each acting independently to create chaos and complexity.¹³ As the agents continue to form, patterns emerge and a normal day-to-day process of activity begins. Anderson observes, “CAS models typically show how complex outcomes flow from simple schemata and depend on the way in which agents are interconnected.”¹⁴ Organizational change operates within these parameters as well. Whether the type of change is planned, a punctuated equilibrium or more evolutionary, the number of agents involved with the organization can make the

⁷ Anderson, “Complexity Theory and Organization Science,” 216.

⁸ Bernard Burnes, “Complexity and Organizational Change,” *International Journal of Management Reviews* 7, no. 2 (2005): 77.

⁹ Anderson, “Complexity Theory and Organization Science,” 217.

¹⁰ Burnes, “Complexity Theories and Organizational Change,” 79.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, 80.

¹² *Ibid.*, 78-79.

¹³ Additionally, Burnes draws this conclusion based on articles from Arndt and Bigelow (2000), Bechtold (1997), Black (2000), Fitzgerald (2002a), Lewis (1994), Macintosh and McLean (2001), Morgan (1997), Stacey (2003), Tetenbaum (1998) and Wheatly (1992).

¹⁴ Anderson, “Complexity Theory and Organization Science,” 220.

change a complex matter.

While it can be agreed that organizational change involves multiple components that are complex in nature, an overarching process exists and guides the complex. In spite of chaos and complexity, a pattern exists with an established sequence of unique steps that make up the process of organizational change. The complex nature of each step gives the appearance that the whole is complex, thus creating silos of study with the organizational field. However, upon further examination one should conclude that it is not the process that is complex. Instead, complexity generates from the large number of varied human interactions in response to change during specific steps within the process.

Definitions

Working definitions of “organization” and “organizational change” are critical to bring clarity to this complex topic. Many definitions exist for the term organization; however, most contain similar characteristics: a collection of people, typically two or more and their coordination to achieve a goal. For the purposes of this research, “organization” is defined as a collection of two or more individuals, functioning continuously, to achieve a common set of goals. This definition allows for a broad use and an inclusive list of groups who work together for a purpose.

Most theorists examine a specific change under the broad categories of planned or unplanned organizational change, and tailor specific situations to suit their purposes. Definitions of “organizational change” then vary according to the study. Jones and George explain organizational change as “the movement of an organization away from its present state and toward some desired future state to increase its efficiency and effectiveness.”¹⁵ This definition is lacking for two reasons. First, it does not account for

¹⁵ Gareth R. Jones and Jennifer M. George, *Contemporary Management: 4th Edition*. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 2006), 234.

unplanned changes that inevitably take place in an organization or which take place in a more evolutionary manner. Second, it assumes that all change results in improved efficiency and effectiveness. Barnett and Carroll define organizational change as “a transformation of an organization between two points in time.”¹⁶ This simple understanding is flexible and proper for the broad scope of organizational change. Van De Ven and Poole echo Barnett and Carol by asserting it is “an empirical observation of difference in form, quality, or state over time in an organizational entity.”¹⁷ When considered in concert these descriptions paint a broad landscape that encompasses multiple types of change within an organization.

Statement of the Problem

Edward R. Tufte argues, “confusion and clutter are the failure of design, not the attributes of information.”¹⁸ He recognized the difference between information and the design of information. Tufte goes on to say, “the point is to find design strategies that reveal detail and complexity – rather than to fault the data for an excess of complication.”¹⁹ Organizational change theory has no shortage of information available. In 1995, Van de Ven and Poole identified more than 1 million articles, which used the keywords change and development.²⁰ This number is impressive, but is now twenty years obsolete. A Google Scholar search on organizational change shows a remarkable 2.56 million results, which is a vast amount of information available to a researcher or the practitioner. Despite this impressive number of studies and new theories, high failure

¹⁶ William P. Barnett and Glenn R. Carroll, “Modeling Internal Organizational Change,” *Annual Review of Sociology* 21 (1995): 219.

¹⁷ Andrew Van de Ven and Marshall Scott Poole, “Explaining Development and Change in Organizations,” *Academy of Management Review* 20, no. 3 (July 1995): 512.

¹⁸Edward Tuft, *Envisioning Information* (Cheshire: Graphics Press, 1998), 53.

¹⁹ Ibid.

²⁰ Van de Ven and Poole, “Explaining Development,” 512.

rates have remained unchanged over the past thirty years.

The study of organizational change has fragmented into many theories, which utilize various research methods, such as empirical research, chaos theory, content analysis, biological, and cognitive studies to extrapolate or support their conclusions.²¹ Each method has responded to specific needs of change research, which in turn, has created silos with little collaboration among the various methods.²² From this, Senge concludes, “current management literature is full of practical advice and suggestions, but lack a way to effectively organize diverse insights.”²³ This leads many to conclude the current change theory base suffers from two severe drawbacks: a siloed approach to research and study with little integration between research and practical application.

While speaking more philosophically, Tufte can shed some light on the complex nature of organizational change, and its research. Despite the overwhelming amount of information available, change failure rates remain unchanged. It would be rash to assume the continued failure rate is the result of poor research and methods. However, it is probable the failure is not a matter of volume, rather a matter of information design. Is it possible the disconnected variations of organizational change have created so much confusion that it prevents a simple, comprehensive, and comprehensible understanding? While studies continue into specific silos associated with organizational change, an effort to organize, simplify, and communicate the findings can create a logical arrangement of information to avoid confusion and clutter.

²¹ Van de Ven and Poole, “Explaining Development,” 510.

²² Ibid.

²³ Peter Senge et al., *The Dance of Change: the Challenges of Sustaining Momentum in Learning Organizations* (New York: Doubleday, 1999), 5.

Biblical Organizational Change

Churches and secular business share a similar failure rate of organizational change. The failure rate of organizational change in business is as high as 80%. Similarly, research shows the church failure and plateau rate is as high as 80%. While each statistic is unique (one focuses specifically on change, and the other on failure) both reflect the core characteristic of an inability to change. The study of organizational change within the church is limited and research is drawn heavily from the secular realm. As a result, organizational change research within the church has suffered the same siloed and narrow approach as its secular counterpart. Despite its use, many resist using business principles for ecclesiastical purposes, as a perception of conflict exists between their goals. Many argue that too much emphasis on a process controlled or managed by man excludes the Holy Spirit. A secondary goal of this work is to answer these objections and begin to change the landscape of study within the church.

Three primary issues plague revitalization and organizational change efforts in the church: persistent church failure (closings); plateauing growth rate of the church; and a siloed and narrow approach to organizational change and revitalization education. The common statistic used by modern revitalization research is that 80% of churches are declining or failing. Despite the recent attention on revitalization, the failure and plateau rate has remained almost unchanged since 1994. The church's use of secular research carried similar results: a siloed approach to change, with little or no effort to create a comprehensive understanding of organizational change. Thus, much of the focus on change and revival has emphasized implementation, rather than culture; and leadership rather than decision-making practices. As a result, leaders are ill prepared to face a complex culture, in a complex environment, which leads to poor decisions, which eventually damage relationships, and close doors.

Thesis

The ordered creation of God, the philosophy of change proposed by Heraclitus,

and Tufte's theory of simple design can provide context and clarity to the field of change theory. A biblical order and structure for organizational change can decrease confusion and reduce the failure rate of organizational change. After all, the most important metric of change is its successful implementation.

This paper intends to simplify change research into a new comprehensible and comprehensive change theory that presents a logical sequence of events for successful organizational change. This theory gleans from quantitative and qualitative studies as well as patterns of organizational change efforts in the Bible. The thesis for this paper is that a change process exists within the current body of organizational change theory research that is holistic, universally applicable, and biblical. This process, will allow future studies to evaluate organizational impact at various layers as organizations move through step by step, will declutter, and add clarity to a field whose own researchers admit is too complex.

Delimitations

Given the breadth of research available for organizational change, limits were placed on the literature used for this work. First, this study focused on contemporary organizational change theory. Therefore, except for a few references to critical seminal works, examination and citation was restricted to research completed since 1980. In addition, only works published by authors identified as leaders in the field of organizational change were considered. These criteria ensured the relevancy and applicability of the task and removed questionable fringe theories.

Second, many authors stress individual areas within the change process, and present a theory that is narrow and siloed. I avoided diving too deeply into the individual tasks within each function of the process to remain faithful to the scope of the paper. Finally, this work assumes the Bible maintains authority and provides infallible documentation of history, and spiritual matters. As a result, I performed sound exegesis

when Scripture is cited, or referenced. To that end, respected theologians, surveys, and commentaries were used to support the biblical exegesis and conclusions.

Methodology

Change theory has been researched for an extended period. Therefore, the vast amount of material available for review is exhaustive. Modern research provides results in the form of both qualitative and quantitative models. The results highlight characteristics, or specific roles involved with organizational change. Content analysis was used to gather and evaluate research data. This methodology leveraged high volume research, and various methods to draw conclusions based the results of previous research. Basic protocols were used to gather and confirm text-based data, beginning with Internet based inquiries followed by biographical reviews. Keywords and themes were identified to classify findings into five groupings to draw conclusions.

As mentioned previously, this research assumes the infallible nature of Scripture and will treat any information from Scripture, historical or spiritual, as factual, accurate, and instructive. Careful attention was given to ensure suitable compilation of data, and sound theology; because secular research has more change data at its disposal to offer than is currently available in the theological or ecclesiological fields. Current secular research was incorporated along with biblical and theological considerations. This method is an integrative approach with equal weight given to the truth of Scripture and the volume of secular research.

Conclusion

Change is continuous and takes place in every context. Despite the history or the frequency of organizational change, it is far too complex for most practitioners and academics to navigate. The failure rate of organizational change initiatives ranges from

33-80%.²⁴ This failure rate explains demonstrates, regardless of the amount of time and energy dedicated to organizational change over the past, change is naturally complex. A more simplified approach could vastly improve the failure rate.

A holistic change process would be useful in several ways. First, it presents a simple macro-process of a potentially successful organizational change. Given the lack of integration between the siloed research fields, this theory combines findings into a comprehensive process for practitioners in order to improve the abysmal organizational change failure rate. This process potentially improves the results of church revitalization and may reduce the rate of plateaus and failures of the church. Second, it provides guideposts for the complex nature of organizational change to thrive. Rather than restricting the complexity of change, it allows for the possibility of complexity to exist within each function. Finally, it opens the possibility for measuring the time of the organizational change process. It will be demonstrated that each function has a starting and stopping point. The process will allow researchers to evaluate the time an organization will spend within a role, and time spent in organizational change as a whole.

A holistic change theory process is presented in the four remaining chapters. Chapter 2 reviews the methodology used to compile data in the change theory field. This section describes content analysis and reviews its selection process for compiling data. Chapter 3 will use content analysis to provide a literature review of the current change theory field. Six key functions of organizational change are identified, which displayed both divergent and inclusive characteristics with one another: cultural awareness; change catalyst; evaluation of catalyst and culture; decision; implementation; and monitoring the outcomes. Multiple researchers with strong empirical data support each. These theories describe various functions of organizational change and reflect data identifying factors

²⁴ Karen Whelan-Berry and Karen Somerville, "Linking Change Drivers and the Organizational Change Process: A Review and Synthesis," *Journal of Change Management* 10, no. 2 (June 2010): 177.

that influence the success rate of organizational change. An analysis of each function will take each step identified and form them into a logical sequence. Here, it will be demonstrated how each step affects subsequent steps.

Chapter 4 analyzes theological considerations and focuses on seasons of change in the Bible. Three new classifications of change will be introduced based on Scripture and exegesis: change leading to regression, change leading to revival, and covenantal development. Change events in the Bible will be evaluated based on the definitions of organization, and organizational change provided above. Specifically, change events in the books of Kings and Chronicles show organizational change documentation. This analysis presents a unique perspective on organizational change within Scripture and will be used as the foundation for a theological analysis and validation of the holistic change theory. Chapter 5 will offer the conclusions of the paper, and will make five key recommendations for future research of organizational change for secular and church related change efforts. These efforts are the result of a singular process of organizational change that will lead to a more practical outworking of organizational change theory.

CHAPTER 2

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methods and procedures that examined, in a systematic and limited way, the various theories associated with organizational change. The primary research question is if an identifiable organizational change process, that is biblical, repeatable, and holistic exists. Content analysis was used to determine the answer to this question. Krippendorff calls content analysis a “research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use.”¹ Researchers use content analysis when analyzing large bodies of texts and offer a set of procedures for collecting and organizing data.²

Decision to use Content Analysis

An initial review of organizational change theory showed an impressive body of research. Indeed, in 1995 Van de Ven and Poole identified more than 1 million articles published using the key words change and development.³ This number has doubled since 1995; over 2 million articles and books are now written covering change and development. Content analysis is the best fit to explore the possibility of a single process. It allows for proper classification of quantitative and qualitative research within the current field of change theory. According to Chelimsky, content analysis “classifies

¹ Klaus Krippendorff, *Content Analysis: An Introduction to Its Methodology* (Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, 2004), 18.

² Eleanor Chelimsky, *Content Analysis: A Methodology for Structuring and Analyzing Written Material* (Washington, DC: GAO, 1989), 6.

³ Andrew Van de Ven and Marshall Scott Poole, “Explaining Development and Change in Organizations,” *Academy of Management Review* 20, no. 3 (July 1995): 512.

the key ideas in a written communication, such as a report, article, or film.”⁴ He defines content analysis as a “systematic research method for analyzing textual information in a standardized way that allows evaluators to make inferences about that information.”⁵

Content analysis naturally suits research used to identify themes, key ideas, and styles.⁶ Chelimsky notes “to classify a document’s key ideas, the evaluator identifies its theme, issues topics and so on.” He goes on to state “the frequency of statements, detects subtle differences in their intensity, or examines issues over time.”⁷ In addition, Chelimsky asserts several advantages for using content analysis: it is unobtrusive, it deals with large volumes of data, it is systematic, and corroborates other evaluation methods.⁸ Content analysis usually contains four steps: selecting material for determination, defining the recording units, developing an analysis plan, and coding the textual material.⁹

Material Determination

Material determination defines the selection of material for research. This research used judgment/non-random sampling method to determine the material included in this research. Neuendorf describes this technique stating that, “this type of sampling involves the researcher making a decision as to what units he or she deems appropriate to include in the sample.”¹⁰ A judgment/non-random sampling was used to pare the information available for change theory, and to determine relevant, and popular theory.

⁴ Chelimsky, *Content Analysis*, 6.

⁵ Ibid.

⁶ Krippendorff, *Content Analysis*, 405.

⁷ Chelimsky, *Content Analysis*, 6.

⁸ Ibid., 9-10.

⁹ Ibid., 12.

¹⁰ Kimberly Neuendorf, *The Content Analysis Guidebook* (Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, 2002), 88.

To accomplish both, material determination focused on the year of publication (after 1980 with the exception of clear seminal works) and a high number of references in Google Scholar.

To decide popularity and relevancy, I conducted an initial search on Google Scholar for organizational change theories and identify a first set of articles based on citation counts over one thousand. In addition, I reviewed books specifically written about organizational change theory to identify potential authors and theories. I also reviewed the articles and books identified in the first step to discover other authors and theories associated with organizational change. Relevancy and a citation count of five hundred or more decided which articles qualify for retention. These criteria assume topical authority because of their inclusion in seminal literature or they are relevant to the topic.

Units of Analysis

Units of analysis create clarity for the material and classification of data from the material selected. Units are the basis for which variables are measured and serve for reporting the analysis.¹¹ According to Neuendorf, “units can be words, characters, themes, time periods, interactions, or any other result of breaking up a communication into bits.”¹² Two units of analysis exist for this research: identification of the theme, emphasis, or definitions; and descriptive words based on their association with the emphasis or theory. For the first unit of measure, kept articles were reviewed to identify the theme, emphasis, or definitions. For the second unit of measure, descriptive words were identified that were associated with the emphasis or theory. I classified the results according to the coding categories identified below.

¹¹ Neuendorf, *The Content Analysis Guidebook*, 71.

¹² *Ibid.*

Coding Categories

Coding of textual material allows for the analysis of the units. Stemler notes that with “a priori coding, the categories are established prior to the analysis based upon some theory.”¹³ The material determination process created a body of research recognized academically, allowing for category determination before analysis. As a result, *a priori* coding was used to classify research into six functions: cultural awareness, change catalyst, evaluation of the change event, implementation, and outcomes. These functions, described in further detail below, are logically interdependent but distinct from one another.

The culture awareness of an organization is an understanding of the organization’s culture and context. The change event (cause for change) is any specific event, or chain of events that make the culture and context untenable, resulting in a need for change. The evaluations of change are steps to determine the possible impacts on the organization, to form and shape a potential decision. The series of actions taken to implement the desired change is implementation. Outcomes are the assessment of the established goals and people within the organization during the course of the project and at its conclusion.

¹³ Steve Stemler, "An Overview of Content Analysis," *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation* 7, no. 17 (2001): 141. Retrieved January 28, 2015 from <http://PAREonline.net/getvn.asp?v=7&n=17>

CHAPTER 3

SIX FUNCTIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

During the literature review, twenty organizational change theories were examined to identify key characteristics and themes. In the content analysis, it was discovered that each could be categorized into a new process-oriented classification of change. A macro-view of organizational change was created and leveraged the current theory base into a workflow for practical application and results into a holistic process. In addition, the literature revealed that change theories often incorporated multiple steps into the process of classification. These results indicate that many theories, while applicable, are indeed both divergent and inclusive and do not nullify any of these theories. Instead, it provides an evaluation of one or two steps within a macro process in which each step serves a purpose. The functions will be referred to as cultural awareness; change catalyst; evaluation of culture and catalyst; implementation; and monitoring of outcomes. This section will first review the theological considerations to show a biblical foundation of organizational change followed by a review of the literature based on the five categories previously defined.

Cultural Awareness

During the literature review, it became clear that attention had been given to the role that a culture plays during the process of change. While numerous studies have been conducted on this issue, two prominent theories exist: structural inertia and the learning theory. The structural inertia theory evaluates the culture and the potential impedance that it can create on the organization during change. The learning theory postulates that certain cultures stimulate change in a deliberate effort of improvement.

This section will review multiple studies that focused on the impact of inertia and the learning theory.

Structural Inertia

Prominent research has emphasized the inertia created by the culture or structure when an organization experiences change. Hannan and Freeman defined inertia as the interplay between the changing external environment and the ability of the organization to respond to changes.¹ They argued that an organization has survived because the internal environment is reliable, and its processes are reproducible.² Potential change events could upset the established order of functions within an organization and create resistance (inertia). Not only does the structure of the organization create resistance, but also any change effort to the structure that fails could cause the organization to fail. As a result, organizations with specific cultural or climatal conditions are naturally predisposed against change and tend to evolve slower than the external environment.³

Several studies have identified various organizational qualities that create inertia. In their seminal work on structural inertia, Hannan and Freeman proposed a hierarchy of inertia, including stated goals, forms of authority, core technology, and marketing strategy.⁴ Kelly and Amburgey's analysis of the airline industry following deregulation showed a relationship between inertia and the age, size, historical change efforts, and repetition of future change.⁵ Damanpour's research identified several

¹ Michael Hannan and John Freeman, "Structural Inertia and Organizational Change," *American Sociological Review* 49, no. 2 (1984): 151.

² Ibid., 152.

³ Ibid.

⁴ Ibid., 156.

⁵ Dawn Kelly and Terry Amburgey, "Organizational Inertia and Momentum: A Dynamic Model of Strategic Change," *Academy of Management Journal* 34, no. 3 (1991): 608.

variables that offered a positive influence on periods of innovation, including specialization, functional differentiation, professionalism, managerial attitude toward change, technical knowledge resources, administrative intensity, slack resources, and external and internal communication.⁶ Fox-Wolfgramm, Boal, and Hunt's study of the banking industry during the implementation of the Community Reinvestment Act provided evidence that organizations with a defined image and identity would resist change inconsistent with them.⁷ These studies disagreed about the severity of the inertia generated by the attributes identified; however, all pointed to existent cultural and climatal conditions that have a positive or negative impact on an organization's ability to change.

Learning Theory

The learning theory postulates that an organization can create a culture that is receptive to change and seeks change for bettering the organization. A learning organization creates an environment in which transformation is constant.⁸ Pedler, Boydell, and Burgone argued that learning organizations demonstrate four characteristics: they have a climate in which members are encouraged to learn and develop to their full potential; they extend their learning culture to include customers, suppliers, and significant stakeholders; they create a human resource development strategy central to the business policy; and they employ a continuous process of organizational transformation.⁹ The learning organization is purposeful and deliberate in its efforts to improve its

⁶ Fariborz Damanpour, "Organizational Innovation: A Meta-Analysis of Effects of Determinants and Moderators," *Academy of Management Journal* 34, no. 3 (1991): 569.

⁷ Susan Fox-Wolfgramm, Kimberly B. Boal, and James G. Hunt. "Organizational Adaptation to Institutional Change: A Comparative Study of First-order Change in Prospector and Defender Banks," *Administrative Science Quarterly* (1998): 87.

⁸ Mike Pedler, Tom Boydell, and John Burgoyne, "Towards the Learning Company," *Management Education and Development* 20, no. 1 (1989): 2.

⁹ *Ibid.*, 4.

functions.¹⁰ Dodgson maintains that an organization must choose to create a climate of learning to be more competitive, adaptive, and responsive to market conditions. While Dodgson describes a learning organization as cultural, the choice to establish this climate can instigate change through the decisions that it makes throughout the process.

Analysis

Learning and structural inertia theories of change argue that the organizational structure, climate, and culture will significantly influence the success of organizational change.¹¹ Indeed, multiple authors for both theories utilized similar key words to describe the characteristics of organizations. Table 1 shows the key words used by each author to demonstrate that while the points of emphasis are different, the driving force behind both theories is the climate, or culture, of the organization.

Certain characteristics of an organization have a direct impact on the success of change. Table 1 shows the key characteristics that impact change, including rules, identity, experiences, and organizational size. The learning theory and inertia represent opposing views. Inertia identifies characteristics that cause a hindrance on organizational change, while the learning theory represents an environment that creates and thrives on repetitive change. The research results show that organizational characteristics and environmental conditions influence the success rate of organizational change. While only one researcher named a direct link between culture and change, others demonstrated that

¹⁰ Mark Dodgson, "Organizational Learning: A Review of Some Literatures," *Organization Studies* 14, no. 3 (1993): 378.

¹¹ Achilles Armenakis and Arthur Bedeian, "Organizational Change: A Review of Theory and Research in the 1990s," *Journal of Management* 25, no. 3 (1999): 300. In Armenakis and Bedeian's survey of organizational research in the 1990s two additional works were identified as offering conclusions that are similar to structural inertia. According to Armenakis and Bedeian, Vollman's work on transformational change includes eight facets at play during organizational change. These facets include strategic intent, competencies, processes, and resources among others. Additionally, they identify the research conducted by Huff, Huff, and Thomas, which offer similar conclusions to that of Kelly and Amburgey in that "an organizations past experiences with strategic change have an influence on subsequent tendencies to change strategic direction" (p. 300). Both Vollman and Huff et al. support the conclusion being drawn here that conditions and culture play a pivotal role in change within an organization.

Table 1. Cultural awareness

<i>Author</i>	<i>Emphasis</i>	<i>Key Words</i>
Hannan and Freeman	Organizations have certain characteristics that create resistance to change	rules, procedures, politics, values, stable environment, stated goals, forms of authority, core technology, marketing strategy, organizational size.
Kelly and Amburgey	Momentum and past experiences are a determinant for change and change success	past experiences, organizational size
Damanpour	organizational types create resistance to the adoption of innovation	policy, program, process, structure, strategy
Fox-Wolfgramm et al.	Image and identity determine resistance to change.	identity, image
Pedler, Boydell and Burgone	Creates an environment where transformation is constant	Climate, Culture, encouraged to learn, extend to customers, continuous process
Dodgson	Must choose to create a climate of learning to be more competitive	culture, climate, competitive, adaptive, responsive, choice, decisions

culture and climate play an important role in organizational change and its success rate.

Schein's seminal work on organizational culture offers a description of culture and climate that establishes a direct link from his cultural research to the results found by others. Schein calls these models the "deeper, more complex" descriptions of a culture that are "observable events and underlying forces."¹² The key models include observed

¹² Edgar Schein, *Organizational Culture and Leadership*, 4th ed. (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 2010), 14.

regularities, espoused values, formal philosophy, climate, and embedded skills.¹³ This is not a comprehensive list of the models Schein identified. In fact, the definitions offer a closer link to the key words listed in table 1. The observed behavioral regularities include language, customs, and traditions that evolve and are employed in a variety of situations.¹⁴ The espoused values are the “articulated publically announced principles and values that the group claims to be trying to achieve.”¹⁵ The formal philosophy includes the “broad policies and ideological principles that guide a groups actions.”¹⁶ The climate is the “feeling that is conveyed in a group by the physical layout and the way in which members of the organization interact with each other.”¹⁷ The embedded skills are the “special competencies displayed by group members in accomplishing certain tasks.”¹⁸ In addition, Schein suggested that the history of the organization plays a role, stating, “the strength of that culture depends on the length of time, the stability of membership of the group, and the emotional intensity of the actual historical experiences they have all shared.”¹⁹

The characteristics identified by researchers demonstrate an attempt to understand organizational inertia and learning through culture and climate. Often, a one-to-one relationship exists between Schein’s description of culture and the key words and themes identified in inertial and learning theory research. Examples of this point include past experiences, which were identified by Kelly and Amburgey; rules and procedures, identified by Hannan and Freeman; and climate and skills, identified by Burke and

¹³ Schein, *Organizational Culture*, 14.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, 17.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*

¹⁶ *Ibid.*

¹⁷ *Ibid.*

¹⁸ *Ibid.*

¹⁹ *Ibid.*

Litwin. Studies on climate and culture clearly show they can produce a drag or facilitate change and must be considered during the change process. Indeed, Schein explained that the impact of culture is powerful, invisible, and widely unconscious.²⁰ Therefore, the cultural awareness function is a brief snapshot and understanding of the climate and culture before a change event.

Cultural awareness is a state of being for an organization. For example, Kelly and Amburgey's study demonstrates how the cultural characteristics of age and experience directly influence the results of organizational change. These characteristics are so embedded within the organization that it is unlikely they could be altered just before a change event. This "as-is" state makes the cultural awareness function the starting point and possibly the ending point for any process of organizational change. These results show that it is incumbent on the organization to have a firm understanding of their culture before initiating change. Using tools or methods, such as Schein's cultural assessment, should help an organization better understand their culture and climate to limit inertia. Research shows that organizations constantly evolve during periods between punctuated events of change. Assessments must be current to reflect the culture and context of the organization.

The cultural awareness is solely dependent on the existence of an organization and is not dependent on any of the identified functions. Therefore, the cultural awareness function must be the beginning and end state of any change process. It represents the "as-is" state of the organization just before a specific change event and the "to-be" state of the organization at the end of the change process. A planned or unplanned cause of change alters the "as-is" state of the organization.

²⁰ Schein, *Organizational Culture*, 13.

Change Catalyst

An evaluation of the characteristics in this field showed a specialization on certain events, a string of events, or climates, which instigate change. Research in this field is placed into three broad categories: external change events, internal change events, and innovation. Internal and external causes of change are viewed through the Causal Model of organizational change. The research explaining how innovation affects organizational change has been separated because it is a hybrid of internal and external events.

Causal Model (Transformational and Transactional)

Burke and Litwin used a causal model of change to argue that internal and external conditions can cause organizational change. They defined three categories that effect organizational change: the external environment, transformational variables, and transactional variables.²¹ These categories are used as a guide for organizational diagnosis and planned change.²² The transformational factors, identified as culture by Burke and Litwin, are mission and strategy, leadership, and organizational culture.²³ The transactional factors include organizational structure, management practices, motivation, systems, and tasks and skills, which relate more to the management aspect of the organization. They argued that organizations are open system environments;²⁴ thus, a cause and effect relationship exists with the variables primarily derived from the culture and climate. The variables are vital to successful change and are causally linked to change goals.²⁵ They postulated that “the transformational variables (mission and

²¹ W. Warner Burke and George H. Litwin, “A Causal Model of Organizational Performance and Change,” *Journal of Management* 18, no. 3 (1992): 535.

²² *Ibid.*, 525.

²³ *Ibid.*, 530.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, 535.

²⁵ *Ibid.*, 525.

strategy, leadership, and culture) have the greatest impact on organizational change,”²⁶ and that “for major organizational change to occur, the top transformational boxes represent the primary and significant levers for that change.”²⁷

Additional studies have drawn similar conclusions, confirming various external causes for change. D’Aunno, Succi, and Alexander explored the impact of market forces on hospitals that competed locally. They concluded that market forces, such as local competition, regulation, and local governance, could either provoke or inhibit divergent change.²⁸ Romanelli and Tushman’s study of the minicomputer industry demonstrated that environmental changes (technology, competition, regulation, sales, and demand) influenced change within the industry.²⁹ This study was later evaluated, demonstrating that market forces provide moments of dramatic change rather than being more evolutionary.³⁰ Whelan-Berry and Somerville identified similar external drivers of change, including globalization, changes in consumer behavior laws, regulation, and competition.³¹ This research shows a clear connection between the external environment and organizational change.

Comparable studies have displayed similar internal causes of the organizational change proposed by Burke and Litwin. Weick and Quinn argued that changes in key personnel could instigate dramatic organizational change.³² Other studies

²⁶ Burke and Litwin, “A Causal Model,” 535.

²⁷ Ibid., 534.

²⁸ Thomas D’Aunno, Melissa Succi, and Jeffrey Alexander, “The Role of Institutional and Market Forces in Divergent Organizational Change,” *Administrative Science Quarterly* 45 (2000): 679.

²⁹ Elaine Romanelli and Michael L. Tushman, “Inertia, Environments, and Strategic Choice: A Quasi-experimental Design for Comparative-Longitudinal Research,” *Management Science* 32, no. 5 (1986): 615.

³⁰ Elaine Romanelli and Michael Tushman, “Organizational Transformation as Punctuated Equilibrium: An Empirical Test,” *Academy of Management Journal* 37, no. 5 (1994): 1158.

³¹ Karen Whelan-Berry and Karen Somerville, “Linking Change Drivers and the Organizational Change Process: A Review and Synthesis,” *Journal of Change Management* 10, no. 2 (June 2010): 177.

³² Karl E. Weick and Robert E. Quinn, Organizational Change and Development, *Annual*

have found that shifts in strategy and the distribution of the power structure could incite change within an organization.³³ Others have identified similar results noted by Weick and Quinn. Whelan-Berry and Somerville also noted that new leadership could also drive change.³⁴ Adjustments to processes and procedures can also be seen as a cause of organizational change³⁵; however, this change tends to be incremental, creating change over time. Studies have also shown that business process reengineering efforts and the innovation needed as a result cause change.

Innovation

Many researchers have focused on the impact of innovation on an organization over the last forty years. Damanpour and Hage described innovation as a new technology, structure, process, or product for an organization.³⁶ Furthermore, they noted a difference between being innovative (diffusion) and accepting the innovation (adoption).³⁷ Each provides a unique view, and few argue the impact, concluding that despite the differences, each causes change.³⁸ The change instigated by innovation can come from both internal and external stressors. Internally, an organization seeking to improve productivity can have innovation in processes and procedures. Externally, technology can change the landscape of an industry and prompt organizational change

Review Psychology, 50 (1999): 365.

³³ Christiane Demers, *Organizational Change Theories: A Synthesis* (Thousand Oaks: Sage Publishers, 2007), 766, Kindle.

³⁴ Whelan-Berry and Somerville, "Linking Change Drivers," 177.

³⁵ Alice Lam, "Organizational Innovation," in *The Oxford Handbook of Innovation* (New York: Oxford Publishing, 2005), 116.

³⁶ Damanpour, "Organizational Innovation," 556. Jerald Hage, "Organizational Innovation and Organizational Change," *Annual Review of Sociology* (1999): 598.

³⁷ Damanpour, "Organizational Innovation," 556.

³⁸ Of note, Damanpour, "Organizational Innovation," 556. Christopher Freeman and Carlota Perez, "Structural Crises of Adjustment, Business Cycles and Investment Behavior," in *Technology, Organizations and Innovation: Critical Perspectives on Business and Management*, ed. David Preece, Ian McLoughlin, and Patrick Dawson (London: Routledge, 2000), 871.

throughout. While the definition and impact of innovation has remained constant, the types of innovation have shifted over time.³⁹

The broad definition of innovation shows the diversity of innovation and that organizational and technological innovations are intertwined. Yet, researchers classify these into different categories. Organizational innovation, for example, can be viewed from three perspectives: organizational design theories, organizational cognition and learning, and organizational change and adaptation.⁴⁰ Organizational design theories stress the link between the structure and the ability of an organization to innovate.⁴¹ Organizational cognition and learning emphasize the innovation of micro-level processes.⁴² Organizational change and adaptation focuses on inertia in the face of changing technological paradigms.⁴³

Despite the studies conducted on organizational innovation, the primary area of research has focused on the rate of innovation.⁴⁴ For example, to classify the volume of innovation over time, Freeman and Perez offered a taxonomy of innovation: incremental innovations, radical innovations, changes in the technology system, and changes in the techno-economic paradigm. Incremental innovations are smaller, more localized, and generally unnoticed. Despite being smaller, incremental innovations directly impact productivity and demonstrate a cumulative effect on an organization.⁴⁵ Radical innovations are infrequent and are the result of deliberate research efforts. These

³⁹ Hage, "Organizational Innovation and Organizational Change," 600.

⁴⁰ Lam, "Organizational Innovation," 116.

⁴¹ Ibid.

⁴² Ibid.

⁴³ Ibid.

⁴⁴ Hage, "Organizational Innovation and Organizational Change," 600.

⁴⁵ Christopher Freeman and Carlota Perez, "Structural Crises of Adjustment, Business Cycles and Investment Behavior," in *Technical Change and Economic Theory*, ed. by David Preece, Ian McLoughlin and Patrick Dawson (London: Routledge, 1988), 879-80.

innovations are economically localized as well unless organizations link multiple radical innovations together to create industries.⁴⁶ Changes in technology systems are a radical and incremental change and influence multiple organizations at once. Changes in the techno-economic paradigm are significant innovations, which influence the entire economy and create new industries.⁴⁷ Freeman and Perez's taxonomy displays innovation's tempo of change and the impact on an organization.

Analysis

Several aspects of the event(s) cause change for an organization. The learning theory argues that change is endemic to the organization and that organizational change is continuous as the organization continues to learn. Other authors focused on specific events, such as innovation, globalization, and regulation, as catalysts to change. These events are often described as being episodic in nature and mark a specific point in time when the organization will change. In addition, some organizational change takes place over long periods. This type of change is ongoing and can be seen through innovation or through the self-organizing of the organization. This category is unique, as it focuses exclusively on the causes of change as well as any tempo of change that would be associated with it.

The research demonstrates no fewer than ten causes of change found for an organization, and some of the causes are incredibly broad. For example, Greve and Taylor noted that innovations serve as catalyst events for organizations; therefore, because the potential for innovation is virtually limitless, the potential for change would be as well.⁴⁸ Other types of causes identified include broad categories such as

⁴⁶ Freeman and Perez, "Structural Crises of Adjustment," 880.

⁴⁷ Ibid.

⁴⁸ Henrich R. Greve, and Alva Taylor, "Innovations as Catalysts for Organizational Change: Shifts in Organizational Cognition and Search," *Administrative Science Quarterly* 45, no. 1 (2000): 75.

globalization, consumer behavior, laws and regulations, and environmental conditions. Because of this, the causes of change are difficult to classify into smaller categories. The review of the literature demonstrates that a cause of change is any stressor or event that causes a variation in the “as is” state of an organization.

Despite the general description of the causes of change, table 2 indicates a link exists between causes and tempo. For example, Freeman and Perez’s taxonomy of innovation promotes the idea that innovative change will take place at any tempo across a spectrum (from a slower continual change to a paradigmatic macro change).⁴⁹ In addition, the learning theory suggests that organizational change is cultural and inherent within an organization, and an organization that is learning is constantly changing.⁵⁰ Pedler et al. described the learning company as being in a state of “a continuous process of organizational transformation harnessing the fruits of individual learning to make fundamental changes in the assumptions, goals, norms and operating procedures on the basis of an internal drive to self-direction and not simply reactively to external pressures.” The link between cause and tempo determines the speed at which an organization can change. It appears that the frequency of change has little impact on any discernible organizational change process. Instead, this connection relies on the catalyst and reflects the regularity of change.

The change catalyst creates the initial stress for change. While several dependencies that influence the cause for change exist (i.e., technology, market conditions, and management turnover), there must be an existing organization for there to be a stressor or cause for change. Therefore, the change catalyst must follow the start of the process (the cultural awareness function). In addition, the change catalyst must take place

⁴⁹ Freeman and Perez, “Structural Crises of Adjustment,” 879-81.

⁵⁰ Pedler et al., “Towards the Learning Company,” 4.

Table 2. Evaluation of culture and catalyst

<i>Authors</i>	<i>Key Words</i>	<i>Emphasis</i>	<i>Associated Tempo</i>
Burke, Litwin	Causal\ Transformational and Transactional	Climate and culture will have an effect on how an organization will change	
Freeman and Perez	Innovation	Innovation drives tempo of change within organization. Taxonomy of Innovations	Spectrum from continuous to episodic
Greve and Taylor	Innovation	specific innovations serve as a catalyst event for organizations	Episodic in nature
Whelan-Berry and Somerville	Globalization, emerging new internet capabilities, changes in consumer behavior, new leadership, laws, regulation and competition	External factors cause organizational change	Dramatic, episodic in nature
D'Aunno et al.	Competitive disadvantage, service mix, regulation, laws, local governance	Causes of change can provoke or inhibit divergent change.	Dramatic, episodic in nature
Romanelli and Tushman	Environmental conditions, technology, competition, regulation, sales and demand	Impacted change within the industry	Punctuated Equilibrium
Weick and Quinn	External and internal events	Based on certain technology change or turnover of key personnel	Episodic in nature
Damanpour and Hage	Innovation improvement of productivity, technology	Change caused by innovation can come from internal and external innovation	
Alice Lam	Organizational innovation, process, procedures, diffusion and adaption	Innovation is caused by organizational design theories, cognition and learning and change and adaptation	

before any identified functions, as it is the impetus of change. Thus, the change catalyst is the first identifiable event of the holistic change process, which displays a clear stop and start to the change catalyst phase. This function begins with a catalyst event and ends at the point in which the organization begins to evaluate the impact the change may have on the organization. The catalyst creates a distinct step within a process separate from all others. Therefore, a catalyst (cause for change) is defined as any specific event or chain of events that require the organizational conditions to change, resulting in a tempo of the catalyst.

Evaluation of Culture and Catalyst

Research has demonstrated that culture and a change event influence organizational change. Evidence also shows that an evaluation of both influences the change process. Research ascribes a benefit when an organization conducts an evaluation before implementing change. This evaluation focuses specifically on the culture of the organization (outlined in cultural awareness) and on the type of change that the organization is facing (change event identified). This section examines the change theory base that considers the impact of change evaluation at the organizational level.

Organizational Readiness

As mentioned previously, structural inertia and the learning theory suggest that climate and culture play a significant role in organizational change. The research confirms that a culture of openness to change is critical to success and predicts the outcome of change.⁵¹ Because the failure rate of organizational change is as high as 80%, the research focused on possible inventories to determine if the organization was ready for change. Holt, Aramenikis, Field, and Harris's study of 900 organizations from

⁵¹ Connie Wanberg and Joseph T. Banas, "Predictors and Outcomes of Openness to Changes in a Reorganizing Workplace," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 85, no. 1 (2000): 139.

the public and private sectors allowed them to develop a scale of readiness. The scale provided a measurement based on the belief that change was necessary, the belief that change would be organizationally beneficial, the degree to which leaders were committed to change, and the extent that change would be personally beneficial.⁵² Holt et al. argued that this instrument “is organizationally relevant and informs actions. That is, this instrument taps specific attitudes that give insights into the messages that must be delivered to effectively initiate and implement change.”⁵³

Cunningham et al. conducted similar research within the healthcare industry. They argued that individuals evaluate change through a decisional balance between the anticipated risks and the potential benefits of change.⁵⁴ They also stated, “readiness for change models suggest that evidence of a need for change, a discrepancy between present conditions and a targeted organizational objective, are important to the creation of readiness for organizational change.”⁵⁵ Their study demonstrated that individuals with more control and in active positions were more likely to participate in organizational change.⁵⁶ Overall, organizational readiness research attempts to evaluate the involvement of the workforce from a behavioral perspective.

Strategic and Cost-Related Evaluations

Research on organizational readiness for change evaluates the individual’s mindset just before the change; however, research shows additional considerations for

⁵²Daniel Holt et al., “Readiness for Organizational Change: The Systematic Development of a Scale,” *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science* 43 (2007): 233.

⁵³ *Ibid.*, 252.

⁵⁴ Charles Cunningham et al., “Readiness for Organizational Change: A Longitudinal Study of Workplace, Psychological and Behavioral Correlates,” *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology* 75 (2002): 378.

⁵⁵ *Ibid.*, 387.

⁵⁶ *Ibid.*, 386.

change evaluations.⁵⁷ The management literature on strategy proves a link between strategic decision making and shifting internal and external environments. Indeed, researchers have argued that organizations must change in response to internal, external, or innovation variables.⁵⁸ The foundation of the strategy formulation is the evaluation of the changing variables and the resources needed to execute a shift in strategy.⁵⁹ Grant identified a five-stage, resource-based procedure for strategy formulation: analyzing the resource-base, appraising the capabilities, analyzing the profit-earning potential of resources and capabilities, selecting a strategy, and extending and upgrading the pool of resources and capabilities.⁶⁰ He argued that leadership should evaluate any response to market conditions in this manner.⁶¹ Thus, the evaluation of organizational resources determines any potential response to shifts in strategy.

Another method of evaluating change is counting the costs associated with it. For example, the game theory involves the sophisticated analysis of the costs and benefits of potential market positions.⁶² It attempts to evaluate changes in strategy based on competitive markets, investment and pricing decisions, and costs (recoverable and sunk).⁶³ The game theory arguably presents the only method to analyze strategic behavior.⁶⁴ Jones and George prefer a more holistic approach to the evaluation of change through four criteria. The first stresses the legality of the strategy, specifically, to

⁵⁷ Barnett and Carol, "Modeling Internal Organizational Change," 219.

⁵⁸ Arthur Thompson Jr., A. J. Strickland III, and John E. Gamble, *Crafting and Executing Strategy*, 15th ed. (Boston: McGraw Hill, 2005), 9.

⁵⁹ Robert Grant, "The Resource-Based Theory of Competitive Advantage: Implications for Strategy Formulation," *California Management Review* (Spring 1991): 133.

⁶⁰ *Ibid.*, 115.

⁶¹ *Ibid.*

⁶² Barnett and Carol, "Modeling Internal Organizational Change," 219.

⁶³ Carl Shapiro, "The Theory of Business Strategy," *RAND Journal of Economics* 20, no. 1 (Spring 1989):125.

⁶⁴ *Ibid.*

discover if the “action is legal and will not violate any domestic and international laws or government regulations.”⁶⁵ The second is to evaluate the ethicalness of the action to ensure that they are “clear about the potential effects of their decisions.”⁶⁶ The third is to ensure economic feasibility in which managers “perform cost benefit analysis of the various alternatives to determine which one will have the best net financial payoff.”⁶⁷ The final criterion involves the practicality of the decision. Managers must decide if “they have the capabilities and resources required to implement the alternative, and they must be sure that the alternative will not threaten the attainment of other organizational goals.”⁶⁸ Contrary to organizational readiness, strategic and cost evaluations of change focus specifically on the impact on the organization to determine its survivability of change.

Business process re-engineering (BPR) offers some additional insight into change evaluation. BPR focuses on the processes of an organization. Kettinger, Teng, and Guha stated that BPR projects “typically include attempts to transform the organizational subsystems of management (style, values, and measure), people (jobs, skills, and culture), information technology, and organizational structure.”⁶⁹ Kettinger et al. also noted that BPR is increasingly being recognized as a form of organizational change characterized by the strategic transformation of interrelated organizational subsystems producing varied levels of impact.⁷⁰ Thus, the goal of BPR is the “improved process, products, and services measured in terms of cost, quality, customer satisfaction,

⁶⁵ Jones and George, *Contemporary Management*, 236.

⁶⁶ Ibid.

⁶⁷ Ibid.

⁶⁸ Ibid.

⁶⁹ William J. Kettinger, James T. C. Teng, and Subashish Guha, “Business Process Change: A Study of Methodologies Techniques and Tools,” *MIS Quarterly* (March 1997): 56.

⁷⁰ Ibid.

or shareholder value.”⁷¹ Because the goals of BPR are cost-related, the evaluation of the change prior to implementation is based on the goals within the context of the organization. Kettinger et al. suggested a process prioritization matrix that “reflects the overall strategic relevance of the process to the various critical success factors” and is considered “in conjunction with cost/risk factors.”⁷²

Analysis

The research demonstrates a benefit in conducting an evaluation of the culture and the cause for change to determine if the change is viable to the organization. Several evaluation methods have been explored to include a human resource based evaluation, a scale to determine readiness for change, resource management, competition, BPR, and a more holistic evaluation. Each evaluates different aspects of the organization to determine if the organization is ready or if a benefit to the organization upon change exists. Table 3 includes the types of evaluations that have been researched along with the emphasis and the evaluation criteria. The evaluation methods are a unique category, as the focus of the theories is fixated on the various techniques and metrics that could be used to determine the success of organizational change.

The evaluation process moves beyond mere change into strategy evaluation, which has similar characteristics. From a practical perspective, an evaluation of action is essential for every organization. Table 3 shows various models and emphases explored by the authors. It organizes and summarizes the techniques employed to evaluate the change and includes the readiness of the individuals involved, resource allocation, competition, costs verses risks, and processes. Each technique is designed to evaluate the cause of change within the context of cultural conditions.

⁷¹ Kettinger et al., “Business Process Change,” 56.

⁷² Ibid., 69.

Table 3. Evaluation of culture and catalyst

<i>Author</i>	<i>Type of Evaluation</i>	<i>Emphasis</i>	<i>Items evaluated</i>
Cunningham, et al.	Human Resource based	Individual's interpretation of the impact on them due to change	Risks of change, ability to cope with change, social support, active vs. passive job construct, and readiness for change
Holt, Armenakis, Field and Harris	Scale to determine organizational readiness for change	Beliefs of individuals within the organization	The belief that change was necessary, the belief that change would be organizationally beneficial, that leaders were committed to change, and that change would be personally beneficial
Grant	Resource	Evaluates the impact of resource management on strategic decisions	Analyzing the firm's resource base, appraising the firms capabilities, analyzing the profit-earning potential of firm's resources and capabilities, selecting a strategy and extending and upgrading the firm's pool of resources and capabilities
Shapiro	Economic\Game Theory	Formulation of strategy through competition	Market, investment, pricing, costs
Kettinger et al.	Business process re-engineering	Evaluation of change through business processes	Improved process for products and services in terms of cost, quality, customer satisfaction, and shareholder value
Jones and George	Holistic	Evaluation of alternative actions (changes within the organization)	Legal, ethics, economic, and practicality

Holt et al. advised, “the foundation of readiness as a unique construct has been embedded within several theoretical models of the process through which change

unfolds.”⁷³ Others have found this to be true, as organizations inherently understand that an evaluation of conditions must take place before a decision. The evaluation of change depends on three factors: the existence of the organization (climate and culture), its impact on resources, and the existence of a change catalyst that could alter the state of the organization. The evaluation methods must go beyond the human aspect and assess the cultural and economic impacts of change. An improper evaluation of either the culture or the economic impact can have an adverse effect on an organization undergoing change. Therefore, proper evaluation is dependent on cultural awareness and a change catalyst to determine the impact. This step has a clear beginning, as the organization begins to evaluate the impact of the change and marks the third step of the holistic change process. It stands alone in the proposed process because the information necessary to execute change is not available until one understands the cultural conditions of the organization and the cause of change. The evaluation of change concludes at the point in which the organization has received enough information to make a decision and is the process of determining the possible impacts the change will have on the organization.

Adding a Decision Diamond

Few have tackled the topic of the decision making process within the context of organizational change. Several authors viewed it as implied or as a small part of a larger study. For example, Holt et al. noticed that since data is measured quantitatively, a readiness scale could be used to make wiser decisions.⁷⁴ The focus of their study was to determine the readiness for change and briefly touches on the impact of decision-making. Keen’s findings show how limited involvement in decision-making can result in social inertia.⁷⁵ His study emphasized inertia in information technology. Brown and Eisenhardt

⁷³ Holt et al., “Readiness for Organizational Change,” 234.

⁷⁴ Ibid., 252.

⁷⁵ Peter G.W. Keen, “Information Systems and Organizational Change,” *Communications of*

stated that a system in continuous change efforts contains decision makers that use the environment to create an understanding of their surroundings and build the confidence to act.⁷⁶ Brown and Eisenhardt, who focused their research on continuous efforts, implied a decision making process in their studies. Piderit made similar observations, stating, “employees are coming to expect involvement in decisions about organizational change. Successful organizational adaptation is increasingly reliant on generating employee support and enthusiasm for proposed changes.”⁷⁷ Her studies implied a decision making process that requires employee involvement to obtain support for change. This small sampling demonstrates the embedded nature of a decision, the impact it can have on change, and the need to incorporate it into an organizational change process.

While academic studies are limited on the specific impact of a decision making process for change, the business practices and management literature views the decision making process as a unique and valuable step in day-to-day operations. Strategically, it influences change in a broader context of the organization, and no shortage of literature exists on that subject. It is unique because leaders within an organization undergoing the prospects of intentional change will choose based on the viability of the change catalyst. Research clearly demonstrates one or more decisions take place in organizational change. These ideally occur when the maximum amount of information is available but before the implementation of change. These characteristics would place the decision diamond after evaluation and before implementation. The decision step ends the evaluation process and either ends the change effort or propels it forward.

the ACM 24, no. 1 (January 1981): 25.

⁷⁶ Shona Brown and Kathleen Eisenhardt, “The Art of Continuous Change: Linking Complexity Theory and the Time Paced Evolution in Relentlessly Shifting Organizations,” *Administrative Science Quarterly* 42 (March 1997): 15.

⁷⁷ Sandy Piderit, “Rethinking Resistance and recognizing ambivalence: A Multidimensional view of Attitudes Toward an Organizational Change,” *Academy of Management Review* 25, no. 4 (2000): 783.

Implementation

The most significant writings on organizational change have supported a broad approach in carrying out change. This function attempts to create a practical approach organizations should adopt for change implementation. Implementation is unique and presents a systematic guide that has a beginning, middle, and end. Lewin's three-step model and Kotter's eight-step model are reviewed in detail. For a broader comparison, table 4 will also include Kanter's Ten Commandments, Galpin's Wheel, and Fernandez and Rainey's process model.

Lewin's Three-Step Model

No organizational change theory has dominated the landscape more than Lewin's three-step approach to planned change.⁷⁸ Indeed, as one of the first holistic change theories developed, some have argued that the three-step model is the one in which all organizational change theories are built.⁷⁹ Lewin developed the model within the broader context of organizational change, field theory, group dynamics, and action research. It is an integrated approach to bringing about change organizationally.⁸⁰ Lewin's three steps are unfreezing, moving, and re-freezing.

The first step (the unfreezing of the organization) is the opening of the "shell of complacency and self-righteousness," which demands an "emotional stir up."⁸¹ Lewin understood that human behavior is quasi-stationary and thus subject to inertia.⁸² This required steps or actions to unfreeze the group, making them open to change. These

⁷⁸ Bernard Burnes, "Kurt Lewin and the Planned Approach to Change: A Re-appraisal," *Journal of Management Studies* 41, no. 6 (September 2004): 977.

⁷⁹ Edgar Schein, "Kurt Lewin's Change Theory in the field and in the Classroom: Notes Toward a Model of Managed Learning," *Systems Practice* (March 1995): 28.

⁸⁰ Burnes, "Kurt Lewin and the Planned Approach," 985.

⁸¹ Kurt Lewin, "Frontiers in Group Dynamics: Concept, Method, and Reality in Social Science," *Human Relation* 1, no. 5 (1947): 35.

⁸² Burnes, "Kurt Lewin and the Planned Approach," 985.

actions include disconfirmation (the dissatisfaction or frustration of information that serves as the primary driving force of change), the induction of guilt (also known as survival anxiety or learning to deal with learning anxiety), and the creation of psychological safety/overcoming of learning anxiety.⁸³ The actions create a path in which a group dissatisfied with the status quo feels enough guilt to overcome the anxiety to change.⁸⁴ Thus, unfreezing occurs when the current behavior is shaken in preparation for change.

Lewin described the second step as moving from the present to a future state.⁸⁵ Much of the literature related to step two discusses learning a new behavior. Once a specific behavior is unfrozen, the moving step creates change, capitalizing on a specific motivation to move the entity from point A to point B. This motivation does not control or predict the result of learning the new behavior.⁸⁶ As such, step two includes trial and error to decide the best choices available for learning.⁸⁷

The final step of Lewin's model is refreezing, or making permanent, the changes that have taken place. Lewin noted several factors that influence the refreezing of an organization, such as motivation to "stick to the decision" and the social aspect of the group.⁸⁸ Lewin contended that a change is short-lived, and once the momentum stops, the group will return to the previous norms. While the objective of change is met in the short-term, the overall change effort fails to be permanent.⁸⁹ Refreezing is the stabilizing of the new quasi-stationary equilibrium and working to ensure the new

⁸³ Schein, "Kurt Lewin's Change," 30-35.

⁸⁴ *Ibid.*, 32.

⁸⁵ Lewin, "Frontiers in Group Dynamics," 35.

⁸⁶ Schein, "Kurt Lewin's Change Theory," 33.

⁸⁷ Burnes, "Kurt Lewin and the Planned Approach," 986.

⁸⁸ Schein, "Kurt Lewin's Change Theory," 37-39.

⁸⁹ Lewin, "Frontiers in Group Dynamics," 34-35.

behaviors are safe from a regression.⁹⁰

Kotter's Eight-Step Process

Another well-known organizational change theory is Kotter's eight-step model, designed to be a holistic process exclusively for organizational change.⁹¹ His theory is based on the premise that an organization will make eight errors while trying to implement organizational change: allowing too much complacency, failing to create a sufficiently powerful guiding coalition, understanding the power of vision, under communicating the vision by a factor of ten, permitting obstacles to block the new vision, failing to create short term wins, declaring victory too soon, and neglecting to anchor the changes firmly in the corporate culture.⁹² Kotter conceded that these eight mistakes are not comprehensive and do not encompass the potential mistakes an organization can make during the transformation; however, he insisted that they represent the most significant errors made and can have consequences for an organization.⁹³ The consequences include poorly implemented new strategies, acquisitions that fail to achieve expected synergies, reengineering that takes too long and costs too much, downsizing that fails to control costs, and quality programs that do not deliver results as expected.⁹⁴

Kotter's eight-stage process addresses each of the errors: establishing a sense of urgency, creating the guiding coalition, developing a vision and strategy, communicating the change vision, empowering broad-based action generating short term wins, consolidating gains and producing more change, and anchoring new approaches in

⁹⁰ Burnes, "Kurt Lewin and the Planned Approach," 986.

⁹¹ John Kotter, *Leading Change* (Boston: Harvard Business School Press, 1996), 23.

⁹² John Kotter, "Leading Change: Why Transformation Efforts Fail," *Harvard Business Review* (March-April, 1995): 59-67.

⁹³ *Ibid.*, 67.

⁹⁴ Kotter, *Leading Change*, 16.

the culture. Kotter's design creates a process within a process that mirrors Lewin's initial design (unfreeze, change, and freeze). He stated that "the first four steps in the transformation process help defrost a hardened status quo...phase five to seven then introduce many practices," and "the last stage grounds the changes in the corporate culture and helps make them stick."⁹⁵ A key benefit of the eight-stage process is that it is flexible and accounts for projects within projects. In other words, it makes it possible for multiple change efforts to take place simultaneously, even if those efforts are at different stages.

Analysis

The literature supporting a distinct implementation step is vast. Lewin's three-stage theory, as previously noted, serves as the foundation for several research theories.⁹⁶ Kotter's literature is commonly used in organizations as well as in academia. Numerous other researchers have developed their own personal style of implementing organizational change, several of which have been included in table 4 because they help demonstrate a link between Lewin's and Kotter's theory and other sections of this work. The common theme of the theories within this category is the emphasis on the process of change.

The implementation category is unique from the previous functions. It provides actionable steps in a specific sequence to complete change within an organization. Kotter and Lewin presented a model in which step A is followed by step B, and so on, until the process reaches a specific conclusion. In a similar fashion, Galpin's Wheel has a distinct start followed by eight sequential steps. Some argued that there may be a "bleed over" among the steps, all agreed that skipping the steps would result in the

⁹⁵ Kotter, *Leading Change*, 22.

⁹⁶ Rosabeth Kanter, Barry Stein, and Todd Jick, *The Challenge of Organizational Change* (New York: Free Press, 1992), 10. Kanter et al. state that "Lewin's model was a simple, with organizational change involving three stages; unfreezing, changing and refreezing...this quaintly linear and static conception – the organization as an ice cube – is so wildly inappropriate that it is difficult to see why it has not only survived but prospered."

failure of the change. This argument was presented by Lewin, whose process supports the notion that one cannot change without first unfreezing, that movement represents the change, and that the change is incomplete if the change is not made permanent.⁹⁷

Similarly, Kotter argued, “when you neglect any of the warm-up, or defrosting activities (steps 1 to 4), you rarely establish a solid enough base on which to proceed. And without the follow-through that takes place in step 8 you never get to the finish line and make the changes stick.”⁹⁸

Table 4 demonstrates that certain implementation models have steps that coincide with the holistic organizational change process. For example, Kanter’s first commandment is to analyze the organization and its need for change, which is similar to cultural awareness; however, identifying the catalyst and the evaluation of the change do not correlate. Fernandez and Rainey’s first step is to ensure the need for change, which correlates with evaluation of the culture and catalyst function. Their conclusion serves as confirmation for these functions and demonstrates a current body of research in which the process is incomplete. Each theory shows a defined series of steps that lead to the transformation of an organization and that prompt the progression from its decision to the completion of the change.

The implementation of change depends on the decision to proceed once it is evaluated. This means that implementation must follow a decision to change. Kotter noted that the implementation of change is multifaceted. According to Kotter, multiple change events can be taking place at the same time and be in various points within the process. This idea fits nicely with the complementarities theory, maximizing multiple changes

⁹⁷ Kurt Lewin, "Frontiers in Group Dynamics: Concept, Method, and Reality in Social Science," *Human Relation* 1, no. 5 (1947): 34.

⁹⁸ John Kotter, *Leading Change* (Boston: Harvard Business School Press, 1996), 23.

Table 4. Implementation

<i>Author</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Steps involved</i>
<i>Lewin</i>	Three step model	Unfreeze, Move, Freeze
<i>Kotter</i>	Eight Step Model	Establishing a sense of urgency; Creating the guiding coalition; Developing a vision and strategy; Communicating the change vision; Empowering action; Generating short term wins; Consolidating gains and producing more change; Anchoring new approaches in the culture.
<i>Kanter</i>	Ten Commandments of Change	Analyze the organization and its need for change; Create vision and common direction; separate from the past; Create a sense of urgency; Support a strong leader; Line up political sponsorship; Craft an implementation plan; Develop enabling structures; Communicate, involve people and be honest; Reinforce and institutionalize change
<i>Galpin</i>	Galpin's Wheel	Establish the need to change; Develop and disseminate a vision of the change; Diagnose and analyze the current situation; generate recommendations; Pilot test recommendations; Prepare recommendations for rollout; Rollout changes; Measure, reinforce and refine changes
<i>Fernandez and Rainey</i>	Eight Factors	Ensure the need; Provide a plan; Build support for the change and overcome resistance; Ensure top-management support and commitment; Build external support; Provide resources; Institutionalize change; Pursue comprehensive change

efforts for greater gain. The implementation process ends when the organization is ready to determine the success or failure of its efforts. At this point, the monitoring of outcomes phase of the process can begin.

Outcomes of Change

A stream of literature identifies the impact of change, the results of change, the measurements of success, and the methods to ensure the success of change. Galpin noted that two important reasons exist for measuring performance during the process of change: the need of deciding when goals have been achieved and to track progress.⁹⁹ Holt et al. argued that a readiness assessment could be used to evaluate an implemented change effort.¹⁰⁰ This section reviews two types of outcomes associated with organizational change, which are behavioral and non-behavioral related.

Non-behavioral Outcomes

Levitt and March explained that “organizational success is ordinarily defined in terms of the relation between performance outcomes and targets.”¹⁰¹ This understanding allows various outcomes to be evaluated. Indeed, organizations determine success and failure in any context by defined goals, quality, quantity, social and policy understanding allows various outcomes to be evaluated. Indeed, organizations determine success and failure in any context by defined goals, quality, quantity, social and policy indicators, and costs.¹⁰² Miles, Snow, Meyer, and Coleman identified how two types of

⁹⁹ Timothy Galpin, *The Human Side of Change: A Practical Guide to Organizational Redesign* (San Francisco: Jossey Bass, 1996), 93.

¹⁰⁰ Holt et al., “Readiness for Organizational Change,” 253.

¹⁰¹ Barbara Levitt and James March, “Organizational Learning,” *Annual Review Sociology* 14 (1988): 325.

¹⁰² Galpin, *The Human Side of Change*, 93. Andrew Pettigrew, Richard Woodman and Kim Cameron, “Studying Organizational Change and Development: Challenges for Future Research,” *Academy of Management Journal* 44, no. 4 (2001): 701.

organizations (prospector and defender) measured performance during change. Their research showed that prospector organizations measured the success of change against competitors, and defenders measured against previous years of performance.¹⁰³ Additional research points to learning as a possible outcome for organizational change. For instance, Levitt and March argued that organizational learning takes place as they adapt to feedback about the outcomes of change. This adaptation is seen as learning in which behavior is guided by routines and is encoded in the form of rules, procedures, conventions, strategies, and technologies.¹⁰⁴ For the learning organization, the emphasis is on becoming more efficient and effective by applying the lessons learned through successful organizational change efforts.

Recent research into the complementarities theory proposed that the outcome of organizational change depends on combining multiple changes simultaneously.¹⁰⁵ It moves beyond a binary approach to evaluating change and instead evaluates the individual impacts on the system. The desired goal is to ensure that the impact on the full system outweighs the individual impact.¹⁰⁶ Thus, it is an extension of the configurational theory, which is a holistic approach to evaluating the performance of whole types.¹⁰⁷ The complementarities theory warns of a possible negative impact on the performance of organizational change as well. Milgrom and Roberts offered three key cautions: changing only a few components may not achieve an optimal payoff and may result in a negative payoff; those who fail to recognize the components involved with a change

¹⁰³ Raymond Miles et al., "Organizational Strategy, Structure and Process," *The Academy of Management Review* 3, no. 3 (July 1978): 552, 554.

¹⁰⁴ Levitt and March, "Organizational Learning," 325.

¹⁰⁵ Pettigrew, Woodman, and Cameron, "Studying Organizational Change," 702.

¹⁰⁶ Ibid.

¹⁰⁷ Richard Whittington et al., "Change and Complementarities in the New Competitive Landscape: A European Panel Study, 1992-1996," *Organizational Science* 10, no. 5 (1999): 585.

effort may fail to make the necessary changes, which could result in the failure to change; and systematic errors associated with a centrally directed change is less costly than change associated with independently operating units.¹⁰⁸ Non-behavioral based outcomes of change focuses on the impact on the organization, both positive and negative.

Behavioral

A large body of research demonstrates a strong connection between organizational change and the attitudes of employees. Indeed, the research has established that the stress of change can lead to job loss, reduction in status, conflict, and psychological issues for the individuals involved.¹⁰⁹ Additional studies focused on assessing the impact of change on the commitment to the organization or individuals within the organization.¹¹⁰ For example, Mowday, Steers, and Porter created an Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) to measure acceptance goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort, and a strong desire to maintain membership.¹¹¹ They argued that the OCQ can predict commitment, turnover, job satisfaction, and group performance;¹¹² however, recent studies focused on the commitment to individuals within the organization. For instance, Becker proposed that a commitment to top management, supervisors, and peers determined job satisfaction, intent to quit, and pro-social behavior more than commitment to the organization.¹¹³ His

¹⁰⁸ Paul Milgrom, and John Roberts, "Complementarities and Fit Strategy, Structure and Organizational Change in Manufacturing," *Journal of Accounting & Economics* 19 (1995): 191.

¹⁰⁹ Timothy Judge et al., "Managerial Coping with Organizational Change: A Dispositional Perspective," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 84, no. 1 (1999): 108.

¹¹⁰ Armenakis and Bedeian, "Organizational Change," 340.

¹¹¹ Richard Mowday, Richard Steers, and Lyman Porter, "The Measurement of Organizational Commitment," *Journal of Vocational Behavior* 44 (1979): 226.

¹¹² Mowday et al., "The Measurement of Organizational," 244.

¹¹³ Thomas Becker, "Foci and Bases of Commitment: Are They Distinctions Worth Making?" *Academy of Management Journal* 35, no. 1 (1992): 232.

study showed a strong link of commitment to supervisors rather than organization, indicating that those who perceive a connection between failed change and their supervisors are likely to experience reduced commitment.¹¹⁴

In addition, various studies have evaluated the relationship between organizational change and cynicism. Organizational cynicism is defined as a negative attitude toward an organization. Three components of cynicism have been identified: belief that the organization lacks integrity, a negative affect toward the organization, and disparaging and critical behavior toward the organization, which is consistent with the belief.¹¹⁵ Studies have shown that cynicism is the result of change efforts that have failed and is thus an outcome variable of organizational change. This outcome can affect the commitment, satisfaction, and motivation of employees.¹¹⁶ Indeed, Wanous, Reichers, and Austin created the Cynicism about Organizational Change (CAOC) model, which is used to demonstrate the impact of cynicism because of organizational change.¹¹⁷ They argued that the CAOC could be linked to the expectancy theory and attribution theory.¹¹⁸ As they relate to cynicism, both depend on the likelihood of the performance of the management to create successful organizational change (expectancy) and the attribution of failure to others when change has failed (attribution).¹¹⁹

¹¹⁴ Thomas Becker et al., "Foci and Bases of Employee Commitment: Implications for Job Performance," *Academy of Management Journal* 39, no. 2 (1996): 477.

¹¹⁵ James W. Dean, Pamela Brandes, and Ravi Dharwadkar, "Organizational Cynicism," *The Academy of Management Review* 23, no. 2 (1998): 345.

¹¹⁶ Arnon E. Reichers, John P. Wanous, and James T. Austin, "Understanding and Managing Cynicism about Organizational Change," *Academy of Management Executive* 11, no. 1 (1997): 48, 50-51.

¹¹⁷ John P. Wanous, Arnon E. Reichers, and James T. Austin, "Cynicism about Organizational Change: Measurement, Antecedents and Correlates," *Group Organization Management* 25 (2000): 134.

¹¹⁸ *Ibid.*, 135.

¹¹⁹ Wanous et al., "Cynicism about Organizational Change," 135.

Analysis

The research shows a clear and final action to determine the success of change based on quantitative factors and on monitoring the effect of organizational change.

Table 5 shows the various indicators that an organization can use to measure success and to monitor change within an organization. These factors have been identified for their ability to determine the success or failure of an organization that has undergone change.

Monitoring the outcomes of change stresses the use of specific metrics to determine the success or failure of the change effort. These metrics determine if the original goal was accomplished and the employee response to the change efforts. Because the organizational objectives and the employee responses are measured, a paradox occurs, in which change efforts can fail in one area yet succeed in another. For example, an organization can meet the organizational objectives and fail from a cultural perspective. This failure could create the need for additional change. If the organizational performance did not improve because of the change, the change effort was a failure, and further change could be required.

The research on this function focused on both the behavioral and non-behavioral results of change. The common theme for these studies and theories is that organizational change will have either a positive or negative outcome based on the actions taken by the organization or by management. While the actual evaluation of success is biased because of the human component, understanding the results of change becomes critical for organizational survival. The outcomes are the result of organizational change and the forerunners to the next change effort. Researchers who have focused on measuring these results often interchange verbiage related to the results of change and studies associated with inertia. Indeed, the results of organizational change relate to the cultural awareness of the organization just before the next change event. As change ends, the “to-be” state becomes the “as-is” state, and it sets a new standard for potential issues that are experienced from an inertial or learning perspective.

Table 5. Outcomes of change

<i>Author</i>	<i>Emphasis</i>	<i>Theme</i>
Miles et al.	Non-Behavioral	Against competitors and performance against those competitors, against previous years activities
Levitt and March	Behavioral/Non-behavioral	Guided by routines encoded in the forms of rules, procedures, conventions, strategies, and technologies
Whittington et al.; Milgrom and Roberts	Non-Behavioral	Individual impacts on the system. changing only a few components may not achieve an optimal payoff
Pettigrew et al.	Non-Behavioral	Quality, quantity, pace of change
Galpin	Non-Behavioral	Goals defined at beginning of organizational change
Judge et al.	Behavioral	Stress of change can lead to job loss, reduction in status, conflict, and psychological issues.
Armenakis and Bedeian	Behavioral	Organizational Commitment, Job Satisfaction, cynicism, Depression, anxiety, exhaustion
Mowday et al.	Behavioral	Measure acceptance of goals and values, exertion, desire to maintain membership.
Becker	Behavioral	Link between commitment to supervisors and failed organizational change.
Dean et al. Reichers et al.	Behavioral	Cynicism is a result of failed organizational change

The evaluation of results is dependent on the implementation of change. Once implementation has begun, monitoring individuals and organizational performance helps ensure satisfaction and the continued success of the effort. Measuring outcomes can

begin at the same time that implementation begins; however, an evaluation cannot be completed until implementation is complete. The evaluation increases the complexity because several aspects of organizational change are in play simultaneously and will end at different times. Each is appraised independently before completing the evaluation of the change effort as a whole. The result is that the evaluation and monitoring of outcomes could possibly have several starts and ends.

The Holistic Model

The review of the literature related to the change theory identified six distinct functions, or steps, in the field of organizational change: cultural awareness, change catalyst, evaluation of culture and catalyst, decision, implementation, and evaluation of outcomes. Table 6 shows authors, key words, emphases, definitions, and theories associated with the works mentioned to summarize and demonstrate the uniqueness and necessity of each. Through this review, a linear process appears, and each function shows a clear start and stop as well as dependencies. This process represents the “happy path” for organizational change; following these steps provides the best opportunity for success.

The first event in the organizational change process is the change catalyst. The keywords associated with the catalyst indicate a close tie in with episodic or punctuated equilibrium change theories, and tend to be infrequent, discontinuous, and intentional.¹²⁰ Catalysts associated with episodic change include but are not limited to, technology, innovation, and changes in key personnel.¹²¹ Thus, any change catalyst that would match the keywords identified by researchers in table 6 would constitute entry into the linear process. The remaining functions, which are dependent on a punctuated event, would then necessarily follow suit.

¹²⁰ Weick and Quinn, “Organizational Change and Development,” 365.

¹²¹ Ibid.

Table 6. Summary of organizational change

<i>Function</i>	<i>Theories</i>	<i>Authors</i>	<i>Keywords</i>
<i>Cultural awareness</i>	Structural Inertia, Learning Theory	Hannan and Freeman; Kelly and Amburgey; Damanpour; Fox-Wolfgramm et al.; Pedler et al.; Dodgson	Climate, culture, management practices, motivation, systems, tasks, skills, mission, strategy, leadership, rules, procedures, politics, values, stable environment, stated goals, forms of authority, core technology, marketing strategy, organizational size, past experiences, identity, image
<i>Change catalyst</i>	Causal transformational and transactional; Innovation	Burke and Litwin; Freeman and Perez; Greve and Taylor; Whelan-Berry and Somerville; D'Aunno et al.; Romanelli and Tushman; Weick and Quinn, Damanpour and Hage; Lam	Causal, innovation, globalization, consumer behavior, internet, leadership, laws, regulation, competition, environment, process, procedures
<i>Evaluate the change</i>	Organizational Readiness, Resource Theory, Game Theory, Business Process Re-Engineering	Cunningham et al.; Holt, et al.; Grant; Shapiro; Kettinger et al.; Jones and George.	risks of change, coping, social support, readiness, beliefs, costs, resource management, business processes, alternative actions

Table 6. *continued*

<i>Function</i>	<i>Theories</i>	<i>Authors</i>	<i>Keywords</i>
<i>Implementation</i>	Lewin's three step model; Kotter's eight-step model, Kanter's Ten Commandments, Galpin's Wheel, Fernandez and Rainey.	Lewin, Kotter, Kanter et al., Galpin, Fernandez and Rainey	Process, holistic
<i>Monitoring of outcomes</i>	Cynicism, Complementarities, Organizational Commitment, Configurational, Learning	Miles et al; Levitt and March; Whittington et al.; Fenton and Convon; Milgrom and Roberts; Pettigrew et al.; Galpin; Judge, et al.; Armenakis and Bedeian; Mowday et al.	Competitor's performance, previous years activities, routines, quality, quantity, cynicism, commitment, job satisfaction, acceptance of goals, conflict, optimal payoff

Once the organization has recognized that a change event has occurred, an evaluation will take place. Organizations will use evaluation tools such as, organizational readiness, resource, and cost benefit analysis to determine the viability of change for the organization. The evaluation leads to an organizational decision. If the organization decides the change is reasonable, the process of implementation will begin. The various tasks associated with implementation display the complexity of implementing change. Implementation denotes the effort of planning, communicating, coordination of resources (human and technological) and execution to achieve the necessary tasks associated with change. Effective implementation efforts must come after the catalyst, evaluation, and decision, as all three would be required to properly plan, communicate, and coordinate resources needed to complete each task.

As each task finishes, the organization can measure the outcomes related to the change effort. Organizations use several criteria in order to determine success. Some research alludes to a connection between tools used to evaluate and the type of catalyst instigating the change. However, other research indicates that the industry dictates measurement of outcomes. Regardless of the motivation for measurement, the organization should use a metric that is viable to determine the success of each task. Each function can be seen in figure 1.

Change researchers have commented on the inability to track organizational change from a time perspective, making it difficult to associate a time span with any of the functions identified by current research. As a result, the length of time an organization spends on each function is unknown. The appearance of the model should not be indicative of effort or length of effort. For example, the amount of time necessary to measure the outcomes could take years to complete and be based on the length of time that it takes to complete the task associated with the outcome. Another example would be a decision making process which takes days, or could even take place instantaneously with the conclusion of the evaluation. Given the wide variance of possibilities on the amount of time necessary to complete each function, and the current lack of information available to assign any average, the model is designed to be ambivalent to the time necessary to complete each function. This ambivalence allows for total flexibility for the organization to take the time that it needs to complete each task.

The first identified function, cultural awareness, emphasizes the state of the organization. As mentioned previously, this function is a state of existence rather than an actionable step or event. While research demonstrates that awareness of the current cultural state of the organization is critical to its change, the nature of episodic change limits a leader's ability to time awareness with a catalyst event. Thus, cultural awareness becomes part of the culture itself, a routine process, and procedure practiced by leadership and management. As a result, this function must be evaluated from a different

perspective.

While the previous functions fit within a model that is representative of episodic change, cultural awareness does not fit that profile. Rather, the keywords associated with culture resemble similar characteristics of continuous and evolutionary change. Organizations undergoing continuous change are said to be self-organizing, and evolving.¹²² They evolve through modifications to work processes, daily routines, and social practices, which often create links to learning theory as organizations respond and change due to daily issues.¹²³ In order to present a holistic model of change, the impact of culture must resemble continuous change. Rather than specific steps, which take place during a punctuated event, cultural awareness is more appropriately captured through an unending spectrum, which properly demonstrates its ongoing and cumulative characteristics.

A complete view of the holistic model can be seen in figures 1 and 2. Figure 1 shows a close up view of the holistic model during a punctuated event. The arrow represents the continuing evolution of the culture. The boxes represent the process an organization takes in response to a catalyst event. The process is placed on top of the cultural awareness arrow to demonstrate that both continuous change and punctuated change are taking place at the same time. As the process unfolds, the culture of the organization continues to evolve. This change is expedited because of the catalyst event and the process that follows, resulting in continuous change of the culture. The model presumes that both episodic and continuous change to an organization have an impact on culture as it is the very core of the organization according to Schein.

Length of time during the process plays a significant role during organizational

¹²² Weick and Quinn, "Organizational Change and Development," 366.

¹²³ Martha Feldman, "Organizational Routines as a Source of Continuous Change," *Organizational Science* 11, no. 6 (2000): 621. Weick and Quinn, "Organizational Change and Development," 365.

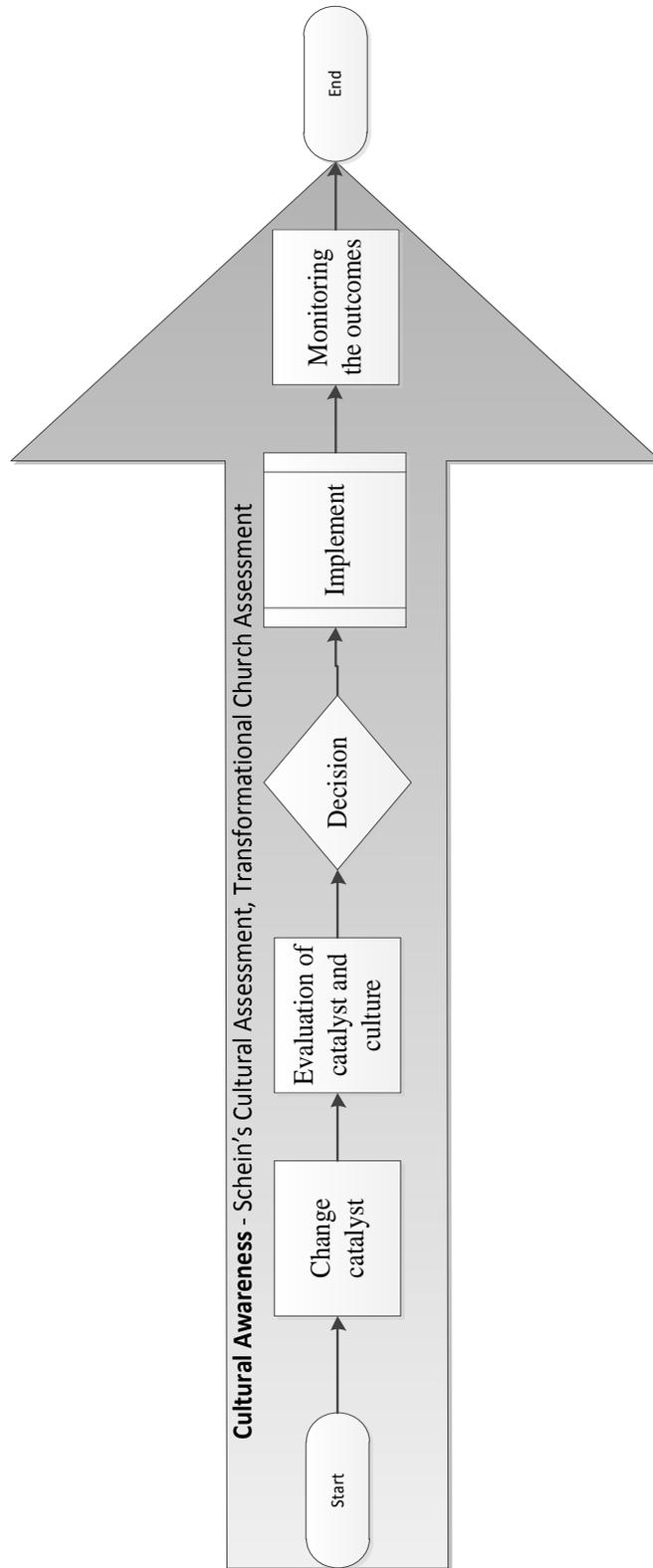


Figure 1. Holistic organizational change process

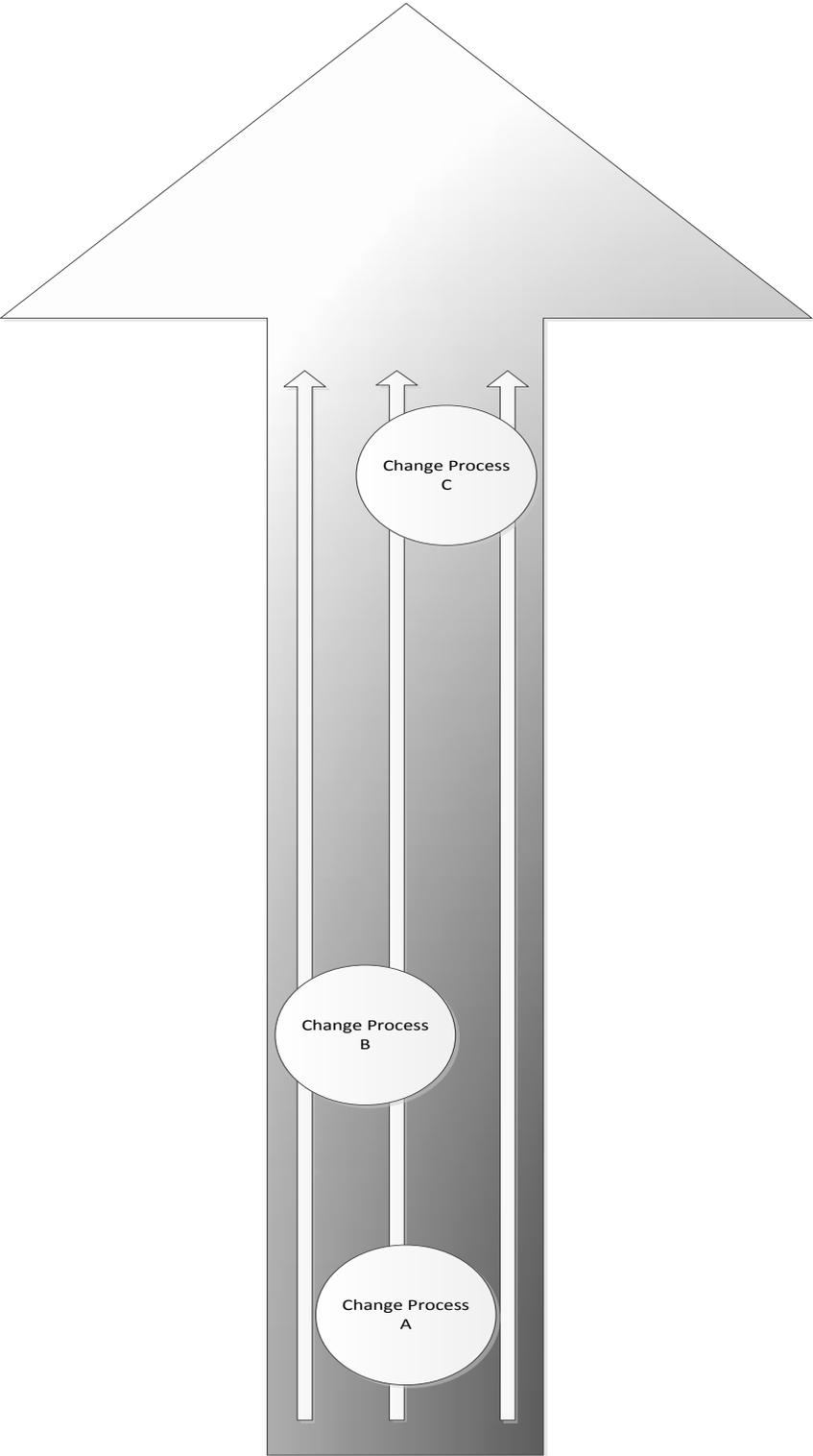


Figure 2. Continuous organizational change

change. Figure 1 provides a close up view of the continuous cultural change and the impact of a catalyst event. Figure 2 presents the same model from a broader perspective to encompass the impact of multiple change processes over a longer span of time. The model displays the longevity of continuous change for an organization, coupled with multiple change processes, which take place over shorter periods within that context. The arrow for figure 2 would continue until the organization no longer continues to exist.

Given the scope of culture and the depth associated with, it is plausible that not all aspects are included with the necessary process of punctuated change. For example, a catalyst event brought on by innovation could have a significant impact on process, procedures, and core technology. This type of change may not involve changes to strategy, vision, or the climate of the organization. As a result, the forces of continuous change could act in opposition to the punctuated process, creating opposing change efforts. Cultural conditions, which act in opposition to change, fit the definition of inertia, which can arise at any point during continuous or punctuated change. Organizations hoping to limit inertia during both processes must be aware of their cultural conditions.

The literature review demonstrated the myriad of tools and methods available to accomplish the various functions of the holistic model. Figure 3 shows the holistic process with various methods used to complete each of the six functions. Cultural assessment tools such as Schein's assessment or organizational readiness measure cultural awareness. The evaluation of the change event and culture can be performed by utilizing a cost benefit analysis, resource evaluation, or organizational readiness. Organizations implementing change can use tools such as project management, six sigma, or total quality management. Outcome based evaluations can measure organizational commitment, cynicism, job satisfaction, or the accomplishment of the goals.

Summary

Current change theory reveals a holistic process for organizational change. Six core functions of change have been identified, each with a clear start and stop, and dependencies. However, research also revealed that a holistic process included two distinct change efforts taking place at once. Punctuated change involved functions that were more clearly defined. Cultural assessment shares similar characteristics with continuous change, and should be monitored through constant vigilance in order to minimize inertia for both punctuated and continuous change efforts. The holistic process of change presented offers a “happy path” for organizational change success based on evaluating current change theory.

CHAPTER 4

BIBLICAL VALIDATION

Contemporary organizational change theory provides evidence of a holistic process for organizational change. The process includes a model for continuous change, driven by cultural conditions, and a model for punctuated change, driven by a catalyst event. The catalyst event is the start of a process that, modern research supports, is necessary in order to complete successful organizational change. While researchers have evaluated several contexts and cultures in business to identify nuances in how they change, few have examined the organizational change record of the Bible. This chapter will briefly examine contemporary writings of organizational change for the church. It will then examine case studies of organizational change within the Bible to determine if the holistic organizational change process identified through secular research can be biblically supported.

As mentioned previously, the Bible was not intended to be an academic study of organizational change; however, it does contain historical documentation of a people who continually underwent change either organizationally or spiritually. As a result, it may legitimately serve as a case study for organizational change within the context of redemptive history. It demonstrates three narratives in which organizational change occurred: experiencing revival, experiencing regression, and the progression of a covenant with God. The categorization of change within these types of change allow for the proper evaluation of how change transpired.¹ As discussed, a pattern exists that successful organizational change follows. Several biblical examples demonstrate similar

¹ See table 7, 73.

patterns of organizational change.

Two broad categories of organizational change exist for biblical contexts: extra-biblical and intra-biblical. Extra-biblical organizational change focuses on developing change processes by combining secular literature and research, with biblical ecclesiological principles. Most modern ecclesiastical works on change would fall into this category, as change is addressed generically and goals are identified with the expressed purpose of improving the church. Intra-biblical change research focuses only on change as seen in the Bible. This research strictly uses the Bible as its sole source of organizational change study, identifying leadership principles and historical examples of how change was accomplished.

As the health and attendance of the church continue to plateau or decline, modern Christian authors placed much of their attention on the impact of organizational change on the church. This has resulted in numerous research efforts focusing on revitalization. This point of emphasis is understandable given the current struggles of the church. In a training session on church revitalization, Johnny Hunt quoted the number of churches that were plateaued or declining as high as 70% to 75%. This same statistic can be found on the North American Mission Boards website.²

Extra-biblical Change

Extra-biblical change literature offers the largest variety of change documentation available for the church. Theories that are more generic offer a process for churches to follow to achieve successful organizational change. A popular theological change theory offered by Herrington, Bonem, and Furr's congregational change, proposes that churches that undergo change should follow an eight-step change process. These steps include personal preparation; creating urgency; establishing the

² "Church Revitalization Leadership and Legacy," North American Mission Board Church Revitalization, 2015, accessed September 1, 2015, <http://www.namb.net/revitalization/>.

vision community; discerning the vision, and determining the vision path; communicating the vision; empowering change leaders; implementing the vision; and reinforcing momentum through alignment.³ This process stresses spiritual and relational vitality, and is driven by “the life giving power that faithful people experience together as they passionately pursue God’s vision for their lives.”⁴ Herrington et al. identified the influential elements of this vitality as encountering God’s holiness, experiencing God’s grace, embracing unity, and engaging community.⁵

Dan Southerland also offers an eight-step vision process that he adopted from the book of Nehemiah. The eight steps are preparing for vision, defining the vision, planting the vision, sharing the vision, implementing the vision, dealing with opposition, making course corrections, and evaluating the results.⁶ Step five of the vision warrants specific attention. Southerland identified a four-step process for completing change: implement your changes one at a time, arrange the changes in a strategic order, put key leaders to work in visible places, and put people to work in places where they are vested.⁷ In addition, he presents two key truths, which involve the ability to build on strengths and not weaknesses, and slowly implementing any changes related to vision.

More recently, research stressed change with a specific result of revitalization. For example, Rainer and Stetzer proposed a change model to create a transformational church, which is a model that stubbornly focuses on the Gospel’s ability to change people.⁸ This model includes a scorecard to evaluate the current conditions of the church

³ Jim Herrington, Mike Bonem, and James H. Furr, *Leading Congregational Change* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 2000), 258, Kindle.

⁴ Ibid., 281.

⁵ Ibid., 311.

⁶ Dan Southerland, *Transitioning: Leading Your Church Through Change* (Littleton, CO: Serendipity House, 1999), 17.

⁷ Ibid., 97-109.

⁸ Ed Stetzer and Thom Rainer, *Transformational Church* (Nashville: B&H Publishing, 2010), 10.

(strengths and weaknesses). The change process proposed is the transformational loop. Its key feature is that a church can enter the loop at any of three categories: engage, discern, and embrace. Each category contains several elements of emphasis: engage, highlights worship community, and mission; discern, stresses creating a missionary mentality; and embrace, which emphasizes relational intentionality, vibrant leadership, and prayerful dependence. Stetzer and Rainer argued that a transformational church performs high in each element, which transforms the community based on the gospel.

While this list is not comprehensive, it does represent a general view of the contemporary ecclesiastical change theory. These texts offer a process with steps that are grounded in Scripture. Each shares similar characteristics to the implementation category, and occasionally, literature in this field borrows directly from the secular change theory (i.e., Breakout Churches and Good to Great).

Change in the Bible

Few researchers have analyzed organizational change within the context of the Bible. Those who have, focused on the traits and characteristics of the leadership qualities involved, such as the great man theory and charismatic leadership. Some have focused on specific events of change where these traits are dominant, such as the organizational change lead by Moses in Exodus 18. The Bible does not mention organizational change directly nor was it written as a case study for it. The Bible is God's Word to His people, and tells their redemptive history; however, this history offers clear historical documentation of events that describe organizational change. Using the definition of organizations and organizational change previously presented, organizational change is seen throughout the history of Israel. These changes include changes in government policy, changes in church policy, and changes in religious practices. Indeed, organizational change is seen during three major narratives in the Bible: change leading to revival, change leading to regression, and covenantal

development.

Change Leading to Revival

Multiple periods exist throughout the Old Testament in which Israel experiences a return to the worship of God. Two notable revivals take place in the book of Kings and Chronicles: Hezekiah and Josiah. Hezekiah's religious reforms began in concentric circles from the temple and moved through the city and into the surrounding territories,⁹ and occur in three phases: cleansing the temple, the Passover celebration, and the provision for the temple. Hezekiah began his reforms within one month of becoming king by focusing on the cleansing of the temple as part of a covenant renewal.¹⁰ He opened the doors of the temple and cleaned it; reestablished worship; and reinstated incense rites and the care of the lamp stands.¹¹ This represented a major reversal of Ahaz's policies.¹² Opening the Temple allowed for the reinstatement of Passover and the provision for the temple. Hezekiah's Passover celebration was the first Passover as a united people since Solomon and led to the removal of idol worship throughout Jerusalem.¹³ This effort caused a delay; however, the Passover success led to a seven-day extension. Upon the completion of Passover, people returned to their homes to suppress worship at the high places. The Bible describes four major phases of idol removal: the removal of the high places, the destruction of the altars, the cutting down of the Asheroth, and the removal of Nehushtan.¹⁴ Ahaz's establishment of the high places

⁹ Raymond Dillard, *2 Chronicles*, Word Bible Commentary (Waco, TX: Word Books, 1987), 249.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, 234.

¹¹ *Ibid.*

¹² *Ibid.*

¹³ *Ibid.*, 244.

¹⁴ T. R. Hobbs, *2 Kings*, Word Bible Commentary (Waco, TX: Word Books, 1985), 251.

showed a rejection of God's chosen worship center, and every sacrifice offered was a rebellion to God.¹⁵ They symbolized "the destructive presence of polytheism in Israel."¹⁶ Idol worship became a consistent feature outside Jerusalem, and persisted during the reigns of Jehosaphat, Joash, Amaziah, Azariah, and Jotham.¹⁷ Hobbs notes that this phase represented a "radical reorganization of the native Judean cultus."¹⁸ Hezekiah's reformation efforts also included political efforts in his dealings with the Assyrians, as noted in the book of Kings;¹⁹ however, the religious reforms provided a drastic organizational change effort to lead Judah back to God, resulting in revival with each reform representing a major reversal of Ahaz's policies. Israel joined the reform efforts of Hezekiah, reversing the idol worship that existed at the high places for 135 years.²⁰

Josiah led Judah from an organization dedicated to the worship of idols to one of revival. Three reasons influenced the culture and context of Israel during Josiah's reign: the idolatrous leadership of Manasseh, the decline of the Assyrian empire, and the death of its king, Assurbanipal.²¹ In the eighth year of his reign, he began to seek the Lord. Scripture notes that Josiah began a significant effort to remove idol worship at the high places from Jerusalem and the surrounding lands. He led the destruction of the Asherim, the removal of the high places, and the execution of the Baal Priests throughout all of Israel.²² He restored the temple, leading to the discovery of the book of law, which

¹⁵ Paul House, *1, 2 Kings*, The New American Commentary, Volume 8 (Nashville: Broadman and Holman Publishers, 1995), 75.

¹⁶ Ibid.

¹⁷ Hobbs, *2 Kings*, 251.

¹⁸ Ibid.

¹⁹ August Konkel, *1 and 2 Kings*, The NIV Application Commentary (Grand Rapids: Zondervan, 2006), 599.

²⁰ Hobbs, *2 Kings*, 251.

²¹ Dillard, *2 Chronicles*, 276.

²² Ibid., 278.

had been forgotten during Manasseh's reign.²³ The public reading of the book led to a renewed covenant, marking the legal foundation for Josiah's reform and the high point of his reign.²⁴ Part of the renewal included celebrating Passover, which exceeded Hezekiah's in attendance and offerings.²⁵ Hobbs mentioned two phases of reform for Josiah, noting that "the purification of Judean religion as an action dependent upon a covenant between kings and people and second, an attempt at the centralization of worship in Jerusalem."²⁶ Each of these individual efforts and the larger revival were a stark change in the policies of his predecessor. The results of Josiah's change efforts were significant for Judah. Huldah's prophecy foreshadowed Josiah's success, as God declared Josiah would not foresee the impending judgment that would occur because of Manasseh's rule. His efforts and faith led to God staying His hand of judgment on the people of Judah.

The examples of revival throughout Scripture share a similar pattern of revival. The revival under Ezra was needed because Israel had moved away from God and stopped following His commands. The change under Ezra began when the leaders realized they had sinned, and their repentance resulted in a revival. Based on Scripture, change resulting in revival is defined as the organizational change effort that results in a return to the worship of God.

Change Leading to Regression

Organizational change that led to revival is prominent in Scripture. As noted previously, an organization rooted in evil and idol worship normally precedes change

²³ Konkel, *1 and 2 Kings*, 634.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, 636.

²⁵ Dillard, *2 Chronicles*, 291.

²⁶ Hobbs, *2 Kings*, 322.

resulting in revival. While Scripture prominently displays God's grace to a fallen nature, it also displays an organization that falls from God's word after a revival. Indeed, scripture demonstrates the interplay between revival and regression. Organizations, such as Judah, would vacillate between periods of revival, and regression. Scripture provides evidence of an organizational change effort preceding a sustained period of behavior, either revival or regression. Thus each period of regression, is followed by an organizational change effort leading to a revival, followed by another change effort leading to regression, and so on. The Old Testament offers examples of change leading to regression, which is the counterpart to the revival in the books of Chronicles and Kings.

Two notable organizational change efforts occur resulting in reversion from Jehoram and Manasseh. Jehoram's rule followed a sixty-three year period of revival under Asa and Jehoshaphat. Jehoram led the people of Judah away from God and set up idol worship similar to King Ahab of Israel.²⁷ In fact, Jehoram's reign specifically undoes the corporate actions of Asa and Jehoshaphat.²⁸ He fostered worship in the high places previously destroyed by Asa and Jehosaphat. While his reign only lasted eight years, his organizational change led the people of Judah to sin, despite the Godly leaders and the restoration of temple worship from future leaders.²⁹

Manasseh's reign took place immediately following Hezekiah's, and much of his reform efforts reversed the religious reforms of his father.³⁰ Manasseh did "evil in the sight of the Lord" (2 Kgs 21:2), "rebuilt the high places," and "erected altars for Baal" (2 Kgs 21:3). His leadership led Israel astray to "do more evil than the nations had

²⁷ Norman L. Geisler, *A Popular Survey of the Old Testament* (Grand Rapids: Baker Books, 1977), 160.

²⁸ Dillard, *2 Chronicles*, 164.

²⁹ Geisler, *A Popular Survey*, 141-42 and 160-61.

³⁰ Hobbs, *2 Kings*, 304.

done whom the Lord destroyed” (2 Kgs 21:9). He rebuilt the high places that Hezekiah destroyed and built altars to the Baals, made an Asheroth, and served them. Manasseh desecrated the temple of the Lord by building altars in His house and in the courts of the temple and placed a carved image of the idol he had made in the house of the Lord. In addition, he practiced child sacrifice by burning his sons as an offering, used fortune telling, omens, sorcery, mediums, and necromancers. Manasseh also persecuted the innocent, which, as Hobbs noted “demonstrates a complete disregard for the deuteronomic law under the sponsorship of the king.”³¹ Hobbs stated that his efforts to reinstitute idol worship erased centuries of “growth in understanding of Yahweh by the people. Time is reversed and it is as though the promise of David, the establishment of Zion, had never been made.”³² Israel accepted and practiced the reforms implemented by Manasseh, which resulted in God’s judgment.

Covenantal Development

Organizational change can also be the result of God establishing a covenant with His people. Of the six major covenants, two mark a noted transition of behavior and institutions: establishing the Mosaic Covenant and the transition from the Mosaic Covenant to the New Covenant. These changes were significant and required the people of Israel to adjust the way they lived their lives and the way they related to God. The covenantal development in the Bible focuses on human institutions and their relationships with God and should not suggest that God is the one who changes.

God established the Mosaic Covenant when the people of Israel had been led from slavery by Moses. It was delivered to form a protective hedge around them as they inherited Israel. Thus, the Mosaic Covenant stressed obedience to the law, human

³¹ Hobbs, *2 Kings*, 304.

³² *Ibid.*, 311.

responsibility, and references to the Sabbath, sanctuary, and divine sovereignty.³³ This emphasis marked a change from a group of slaves who was ruthlessly ruled by Egypt to having a new set of civil and ceremonial laws established by God on Mt. Sinai. Exodus outlines these new laws for the Israelites and includes laws about altars, laws about slaves, laws about restitution, and instructions for building and worshipping in the tabernacle. This development continues in Leviticus, about which Geisler stated, “Leviticus was given to show the redeemed people how to live holy lives. It was to be a handbook on holiness for the priests.”³⁴ Archer stated that the “chief emphasis of this compendium of priestly regulations is laid upon the holiness of Israel as a nation.”³⁵ He continued, “It deals particularly with the proper presentation of sacrifices and the maintenance of a clear distinction between that which is clean and that which is unclean.”³⁶ While no doubt Israel experienced change that influenced their devotion to God, these laws still held sway over the Jewish culture during the New Testament.

Jeremiah 31 is one of the more famous texts describing the differences between the Mosaic and New Covenant.³⁷ It describes three differences between the Mosaic Covenant and the New Covenant: the transition from a hierarchy of specially endowed leaders, the transition to having the law written on the hearts of all, and the end of the sacrificial system.³⁸ Jeremiah 31:29-30 marks the first of these changes, “In Those days, it will never again be said: the fathers have eaten sour grapes, and the children’s teeth are set on edge. Rather, each will die for his own wrong doing. Anyone

³³ William D. Barrick, “The Mosaic Covenant,” *The Masters Seminary Journal* 10, no. 2 (Fall 1999): 224, accessed December 15, 2014, <http://www.tms.edu/tmsj/tmsj10o.pdf>.

³⁴ Geisler, *A Popular Survey*, 65.

³⁵ Archer Gleason, *A Survey of the Old Testament* (Chicago: Moody, 2007), 213.

³⁶ *Ibid.*

³⁷ Peter Gentry and Stephen Wellum, *Kingdom through Covenant: A Biblical Theological Understanding of the Covenants* (Wheaton, IL: Crossway, 2012), 645.

³⁸ *Ibid.*, 646.

who eats sour grapes – his own teeth will be set on edge.” The Old Testament shows how God works through specially endowed leaders (prophets, priests, and kings). Jeremiah speaks about a New Covenant where specially endowed leaders would no longer mediate knowledge. Instead, all members of the covenant will know Him.³⁹ The second structural change is found in Jeremiah 31:33-34, which states: “I will put My teaching within them and write it on their hearts....No longer will one teach his neighbor or his brother, saying, ‘Know the Lord,’ for they will all know Me, from the least to the greatest of them.” Under the New Covenant, all people will know God in an immediate way, and all will have the laws written on their hearts.⁴⁰ This represents a stark contrast to the written law of the Old Testament in which the normative experience was a rejection of God, His law, and His knowledge.⁴¹ The final structural change is found in Jeremiah 31:34(b), which states, “For I will forgive their wrongdoing and never again remember their sin.” Gentry and Wellum stated, “for God ‘not to remember’ means that no action will need to be taken in the new age against sin.”⁴² The Old Testament required a repetitive system of sacrifice to atone for sin; however, under the New Covenant, no action would be required against sin, as God has given complete forgiveness of all sin.⁴³

Hughes and Laney noted, “the New Covenant was a renewed covenant that replaced the shadow of the Mosaic Covenant with the substance of Christ’s sacrifice and heavenly mediation.”⁴⁴ The emphasis of this New Covenant is personal rather than

³⁹ D. A. Carson, *Showing the Spirit: A Theological Exposition of 1 Corinthians 12:14* (Grand Rapids: Baker Publishing, 2000), 152.

⁴⁰ Gentry and Wellum, *Kingdom through Covenant*, 649.

⁴¹ *Ibid.*, 650.

⁴² *Ibid.*

⁴³ *Ibid.*

⁴⁴ Robert B. Hughes, and J. Carl Laney, *Tyndale Concise Bible Commentary* (Wheaton: Tyndale House, 1990), 283.

nationalistic and stresses a change of character rather than of conduct.⁴⁵ This presents the backdrop for the issues represented at the Jerusalem Council. The culture of the church consisted of Jews who, according to Bock, were “anxious to remain faithful to God, and were sensitive toward the keeping of Jewish legal distinctives in order to continue to affirm Judaism”.⁴⁶ In addition, a growing population of gentiles, who did not practice the laws of Moses, was saved. As the church began to grow, more gentiles were saved creating a division of practices, and culture in the church.

The issue was twofold. Should gentile converts submit to Jewish proselyte requirements, especially circumcision, and how can Jewish and Gentile Christians uphold fellowship?⁴⁷ Attendees of the council shared multiple viewpoints during a lively discussion.⁴⁸ Peter delivered his argument based on two perspectives: his experience with Cornelius and the historical experience of the Israelites. He concluded that those who disagreed were testing God, placing a yoke around their necks based on a law that even they were not able to fulfill. Next, Paul and Barnabas provided a missionary report to the council proving God’s approval through success. James was the final speaker for the council. He argued, “God was choosing a new restored people of God, Jew and Gentile in Christ, the true Israel.”⁴⁹ The council decided not to apply the undue burden of circumcision or the law to the Gentiles. James offered four requirements with the specific aim of making fellowship between the Jews and Gentiles possible: abstaining from the things polluted by idols, from sexual immorality, from what has been strangled, and from blood. The council agreed to send a letter telling the churches of the decision

⁴⁵ Warren Wiersbe, *Bible Expository Commentary* (Portland, OR: Chariot Victor, 1989), 123.

⁴⁶ Darrell Bock, *Acts* (Grand Rapids: Baker Publishing Group, 2007), locs. 12,337-39. Kindle.

⁴⁷ John Polhill, *Acts*, *The New American Commentary, An Exegetical and Theological Exposition of Holy Scripture* (Nashville: B&H Publishing Group, 1992), locs. 8709 – 24, Kindle.

⁴⁸ Polhill, *Acts*, 8816.

⁴⁹ *Ibid.*, 8881.

that had been made.

Analysis

Undoubtedly, theological and redemptive considerations are present for the revivals and regressions found in Kings and Chronicles. In addition to spirituality, Scripture shows that organizational change precedes revival and regression. In many instances, the Bible offers little detail about the change that takes place; however, the real individuals who were a part of organizational change and faced similar practical issues that contemporary organizations face have been forgotten. Prophets and other extraordinary individuals significantly influenced God's people and ushered in radical (and often quick) organizational change.

Revival and regression share three key characteristics: each is preceded by a deliberate organizational change effort, each utilizes various functions of the holistic organizational change process proposed, and the culture, and context determines the methods used to complete the functions. Judah and Israel fit the common definition of an organization. As a nation, they were a collection of individuals working toward a common goal. God defined the goals of Israel, and during the period of regression, they were disregarded by man to suit his or her needs. The scriptural review shows how the kings involved in revival took specific steps to reverse the decisions and culture developed by the previous kings. With regression, the kings worked just as diligently to undo the previous efforts of kings whose focus was Godly worship. For example, a sequence of change events begins with Hezekiah's efforts involving change needed for revival and is followed immediately by the change efforts of Manasseh to undo Hezekiah's efforts, which is followed by the reforms of Josiah. Each change effort is designed to "undo" the previous change.

The second shared characteristic is that the organizational change efforts utilized identified functions of the holistic change process. Table 7 demonstrates each

change event with its corresponding functions. Hezekiah's revival begins within the first month of his reign. The speed at which the reform begins, and his speech to the Levites in 2 Chronicles 29, suggests a thorough understanding of the culture of his kingdom. The culture described by Hezekiah had existed in varying degrees of revival and reversion through good and bad kings. The ascension of Hezekiah to king and God's revival of his heart served as the catalyst for change.

Scripture does not mention the evaluative and decision functions of the process; however, it provides a clear implementation path that is specific, methodical, and provides biblical evidence of the complementarities theory. Hezekiah built his change effort to heighten the results beginning with the Lord's house, pushing that reform to Jerusalem for Passover, and leveraging the excitement of Passover to push the revival to all of the surrounding areas. The results of his reforms can be measured by the behavioral responses of Judah and Jerusalem. The revival marks a specific change in behavior, which becomes normative, as Scripture does not mention reversion until the reign of Manasseh. In all, Hezekiah's revival provides specific evidence for four functions in the holistic process: an understanding of the culture, a change catalyst, implementation and monitoring of outcomes.

Josiah's reformation begins fourteen years after he becomes king. At the age of 22, Josiah took clear and decisive action, implementing policies contrary those established by Manasseh. His implementation effort varies slightly from Hezekiah, who began with the temple to produce change. Josiah's temple reforms appear to be an extension of a larger effort to clean Jerusalem and Judah of idols; however, the effect of the change is the same. During the rebuilding of the temple, and part of the implementation process, the book of law was discovered. When the words were read back to Josiah, he indicated an understanding of the culture of his father compared to the desired culture of God. The behavioral outcome indicates that Josiah achieved the desired change for a thirteen-year period once Passover had been celebrated. Scripture

Table 7. Organizational change in the Bible

	<i>Hezekiah</i>	<i>Manasseh</i>
<i>Cultural awareness</i>	2 Chr 29:6-9 indicates a thorough understanding of the current culture of Judah	Not Documented
<i>Change catalyst</i>	Ascension to power.	Ascension to power.
<i>Evaluation of the culture and catalyst</i>	It is clear that Hezekiah has been waiting for his moment of leadership to enact his reforms. His evaluation is found in 2 Chr 29:10-11	Not documented
<i>Decision</i>	Not Documented	Not Documented
<i>Implementation</i>	He cleansed the Temple (2 Chr 29:3-19), restored temple worship (2 Chr 29:20-35), restored the Passover celebration (2 Chr 30), and organized the priests (2 Chr 31)	Manasseh rebuilt the high places destroyed by Hezekiah and erected altars to Baal and made an Asherah. He built altars in the house of the Lord (2 Kgs 21:3-6)
<i>Monitoring of outcomes</i>	The evaluation of Hezekiah's change is noted in 2 Chr 31:20-21	The standards were defined by God so He provides the evaluation of Manasseh's reforms. God states that His reforms are so bad that He will bring judgment against Jerusalem and Judah (2 Kgs 21:10-16)

Table 7. *continued*

	<i>Josiah</i>	<i>Nineveh</i>
<i>Cultural awareness</i>	2 Chr 34:21 captures Josiah's understanding of God's desired culture, and the culture implemented by their fathers	The assessment is performed by God (Jonah 1:3), and the evil was confirmed by Jonah's reluctance to go to Nineveh (Jonah 4)
<i>Change catalyst</i>	Not Documented	Jonah proclaims God's word to the people of Nineveh (Jonah 3:3-4)
<i>Evaluation of the culture and catalyst</i>	Not documented	The King of Nineveh provides insight into the evaluation in essence, evaluating the evil culture of Nineveh against the words of Jonah (Jonah 3:9)
<i>Decision</i>	Josiah decides to reform Judah and Jerusalem 2 Chr. 34-35	Two separate decisions are made. The people immediately change upon hearing the word of Jonah (Jonah 3:5), and the King decreed the decision (Jonah 3:6-9)
<i>Implementation</i>	He organizes a covenant renewal ceremony with all of the elders and people of all of the inhabitants of Jerusalem. (2 Kgs 23:1-3) He reinstated Passover (2 Kgs 23:21-23), and removed the mediums, necromancers, idols, and all abominations in the land of Judah and Jerusalem (2 Kgs 23:24)	The people of Nineveh believed in God, fasted, and put on sackcloth. They also turned from their evil ways (Jonah 3:5, 6-8)
<i>Monitoring of outcomes</i>	2 Chr 34:33 notes that Josiah did not turn away from following the Lord.	God provided the evaluation of outcomes. He spares Nineveh according to His word (Jonah 3:10)

Table 7. *continued*

	<i>Jerusalem Council</i>	<i>Jehoram</i>
<i>Cultural awareness</i>	The church, which had primarily focused on Jews, had preached a gospel that included circumcision as part of the salvation process (Acts 15:1)	Became King at the age of 32. He would have understood the existing culture implemented by Jehosophat and the culture of Israel at the time
<i>Change catalyst</i>	Dissension and debate between Paul\Barnabas and a more conservative sect of the church that argued for circumcision Acts 15:2	Ascension to power
<i>Evaluation of the culture and catalyst</i>	The Jerusalem council is formed to evaluate the question at hand. This evaluation is documented in Acts 15:6-21	Not documented
<i>Decision</i>	The Council provides a decision in the form of a letter to the Gentile believers (Acts 15:22-29)	Not documented
<i>Implementation</i>	A communication and teaching, as the change for the church is a matter of practice and execution. It is clear that the whole of the church agreed with this change (Acts 15:22)	His implementation process can be seen in 2 Chr 21:8-11
<i>Monitoring of outcomes</i>	Holy Spirit, monitoring of churches by church leaders	The evaluation of the outcomes from Elijah the prophet when Jehoram is judged (2 Chr 21:12-19)

does not mention reversion until his death. In all, Josiah's revival provides specific evidence for three functions of the holistic change process: decision, implementation, and the monitoring of outcomes.

Jehoram led the people away from God during his eight-year reign, which immediately followed the righteous reign of Jehosaphat. While Scripture is limited on the organizational change process of Jehoram, certain functions can still be seen. First, Jehoram was the son of Jehosaphat and became king at 32. Jehoram would have had exposure to Jehoshaphat's leadership decisions before his reign. In addition, Scripture explicitly states that he had married the daughter of Ahab and links his walk in the way of Ahab to his marriage. Jehoram would have been uniquely positioned to understand the cultures of Israel and Judah. The catalyst for change is the ascension to the throne, as Jehoram begins his reforms soon after becoming king. The implementation of his religious reforms was intended to reverse the policies of Jehosaphat. Scripture notes that he rebuilt the high places in the hill country of Judah, and walked in the ways of the king of Israel. The behavioral change is significant, as Scripture notes that he "enticed Judah and the inhabitants of Jerusalem into whoredom, as the house of Ahab led Israel into whoredom." The organizational change effort of Jehoram utilized four of the six identified functions of the holistic change process. Only the evaluation of the catalyst and culture, and decision was not fully documented.

Manasseh's reign is similar to that of Jehoram's. He was the son of Hezekiah. He became king at the age of twelve and would have had an understanding of the culture his father had built. Scripture does not discuss the cause for change, though it does imply that like previous kings a change in leadership qualifies as the catalyst. Scripture describes the implementation and the various steps he completed to change the culture of Judah into a land of idol worshipers. His change is thorough, and the behavior of Judah becomes so corrupt that God judges Judah and condemns it. Scripture provides explicit

evidence for three of the six functions: change catalyst, implementation, and monitoring of outcomes.

Ezra offers an additional example of organizational change efforts. Ezra is credited with changing the culture of the Israelites and bringing them back to God's word after their return from captivity. The cultural conditions are outlined in Ezra chapters 1-6, and while this period covers many years, it provides the appropriate context of the culture and climate in Israel as Ezra arrives. The leaders approaching Ezra in chapter 9:1-3 denote the change catalyst, which initiates the change process. The analysis of the change event is clear as Ezra tore his robes, pulled out the hair from his beard and head, and prayed in a manner that demonstrates a clear historical analysis of the change based on his knowledge of scripture. The decision to change is swift and made by all of the people who witnessed Ezra's weeping and praying as Shecaniah tells Ezra to take action with the support of the people. The implementation of the change began when Ezra issued a proclamation calling all exiles to Jerusalem for the announcement of the new covenant to remove the foreign wives. Ezra established a committee to monitor the change effort and at the end of chapter 10, which issued a report on the success of the change. This effort documents the follow through of the change effort and provides a clear evaluation and conclusion to the efforts of Ezra and the Israelites. Ezra's change efforts utilized all six functions in sequential order.

The final characteristic they shared was that their cultural awareness shaped the methods used to perform each function. While each change followed the same macro-process, each king used different methods to accomplish the various steps. For example, Hezekiah and Josiah removed idol worship in Judah and Israel. Hezekiah began in the temple and used couriers to spread the word for Passover, which generated momentum for the people to go forth in the land and suppress worship at the high places. On the other hand, Josiah's effort to suppress worship began in Judah when he ordered the destruction of the high places and idols and executed the Baal priests. His restoration

of the temple and the implementation of Passover came after a significant effort to remove the high places by force. Hezekiah and Josiah used two different methods to accomplish their implementation goals: influence and persuasion and brute force.

Covenantal Development

Revival and reversion are the results of organizational change, but covenantal development is a cause of organizational change and is most directly ascribed to God. The Mosaic Covenant and the New Covenant resulted in significant organizational changes for God's people. Like the changes that resulted in revival, an emphasis has been placed on their theological implications. While this is necessary, there were also many practical impacts when the changes took effect. The Mosaic Covenant changed a people from a group connected only through old familial ties and slavery to a tight-knit and battle-tested organization with common morals and a civil code. The change from the Mosaic Covenant to the New Covenant is significant because it made the old Mosaic laws that had been in place for hundreds of years virtually obsolete. The first Christian churches faced this radical shift at the Jerusalem Council (Acts 15).

The Council of Jerusalem is the most successful organizational change effort in the history of man. The church has and continues to be affected by the decisions made there. The actions taken by the Council follows the holistic organizational change process. The culture of the church consisted of Jews who wanted to demonstrate their faithfulness to God by continuing to follow the Mosaic and circumcision traditions and a growing population of Gentiles who were coming to Christ. The Gentiles did not practice the customs and traditions associated with the Jewish population, creating fellowship and salvation concerns for both groups. The concerns served as the catalyst to the change. Dissention occurred between Paul and a group of Christians who argued for observing circumcision and other Mosaic laws (Acts 15:2). The debate became so divisive that the church in Antioch sent Paul, Barnabas, and others to Jerusalem to

discuss the issue. The church leaders evaluated the change through discussion and debate. Bock noted, “literally, the text speaks of ‘looking at this matter.’”⁵⁰ After the discussion, the leaders decided that the Gentiles were not required to follow the laws of Moses for salvation. Bock described the decision by stating that:

however deep the original disagreement, the meeting allowed both sides to speak and relied on what God had done, as well as what Scripture teaches. The result, a compromise, led to an understanding that may not have completely satisfied anyone. Nevertheless, each side agreed that it could live with this agreement and that it would be wise to be sensitive to all the groups, given the differences in the cultures that made up the new church.⁵¹

The Apostles and elders implemented the decision by composing a letter for all of the churches. The letter told them of the decision and the proper teaching on the incorporation of Gentiles within the church (Acts 15:22). Scripture does not specifically mention monitoring the outcomes of the letter; however, history reveals the behavioral changes of the churches because of the Council. The manner in which the change was executed means that the Apostles were in a position of oversight and more than likely would have responded through correction and admonishment to any church that strayed from the decision. Doubtlessly, the Holy Spirit ultimately provided guidance and at least partially served as the monitor during this particular change event.

Summary

The evaluation of organizational change in the Bible proves that a holistic organizational change process exists. Indeed, six change events from the Bible were examined, and all demonstrated various usage of each of the six functions. Three of the six organizational change events utilized all six of the functions in sequential order. While four of the seven change efforts lacked specific documentation for some of the functions, there is no discernible pattern as to suggest the exclusion for anyone function.

⁵⁰ Bock, *Acts*, loc 12399.

⁵¹ *Ibid.*, 12613.

Of the change efforts evaluated, four examples, Hezekiah Josiah, and Ezra focused specifically on revival. The Jerusalem Council is classified as revitalization, as its change effort was organized after the Church had been constituted. These change efforts present a solid connection with the revival/revitalization and the holistic process identified. Other change efforts that were not fully evaluated demonstrate a connection to the process. For example, the change effort carried out by Moses displays an understanding of the culture, an evaluation by Jethro, a decision by Moses, an implementation of the change, and the overseeing of the results.

The examples provided show that the holistic process is separate from the methods used to accomplish the change. For example, the change effort carried out by Josiah was swift and included brute force. His change method was dictatorial, and there were no soft skills used to complete the change. Comparatively, the Jerusalem Council used a more deliberate and incorporative means to implement change. Their implementation was limited to a letter of instruction rather than the tip of the sword. These examples show that the means to accomplish change will vary, but the pattern holds true no matter how a specific step is completed. The Bible itself provides the initial evidence of the holistic process for organizational change and is affirmed by modern secular inquiries.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this thesis was to evaluate the current change theory base, offer a biblical and theological critique, and to advance a preferred model. It became clear during the early review that the theory base was broad and siloed. As a result, a determination was made that the advancement of a single theory would perpetuate the disconnected nature of change research. Thus, an attempt was made to identify a holistic process that is biblical, theologically sound, and supported by secular research. The Bible, Heraclitus's analogy of the river, and the thoroughness of current research inspired the identification of a singular change process, which solves for problems such as siloed research, complex environments, and a continued high failure rate. It is astonishing the failure rate in both ecclesiastical and secular realms remains high in spite of the vast amount of material available. Churches continue to plateau and die because of a refusal or an inability to carry out change. How can change be simplified, through design, to make it easier to understand and lead for a pastor or CEO? The biblical and holistic change process presented in this thesis accomplishes just that.

A Holistic Process

An early review of the theory base revealed six functions of change: cultural awareness, catalyst event, evaluation, decision, implementation, and monitoring of outcomes. The cultural awareness includes any research stressing the positive or negative impact of culture or climate organizations during change. These works note the success of organizational change efforts when cultural awareness exists during the change process and a distinct link to continuous change. The catalyst event comprised of

data, which evaluated the effect of various types and tempos of change on an organization. Research demonstrated that a catalyst for change can come from internal and external sources, and leaves a broad scope of possibilities. Evaluation literature stressed economic and cultural assessments to determine the viability of change. The results of the assessment inform strategic and organizational change decisions. Literature also showed a series of steps or actions to implement organizational change. The wide variety of implementation methods prominently researched demonstrates that leaders of change can employ various tools. In addition, researchers noted that utilization of assessments evaluate the outcomes of a change event. Organizational and behavior assessments determine if the organization has met the goals of the change effort.

Five of the six functions displayed dependencies on the others. The culture is the “as-is” and “to-be” state of the organization. By definition, organizational change is anything that alters these conditions. The cultural awareness function, therefore, is a state of existence before, during, and after organizational change process. The catalyst event is a specific event or set of circumstances that cause the stress of transformation, and represents the first event of the punctuated step of the holistic process. The evaluation must follow the catalyst, and is dependent on the beginning state and the change event. The decision of whether or not to implement a change is based on the information of the cultural awareness and the evaluation, thus it is dependent on the evaluation. Implementation cannot occur without a decision to do so. Determining and monitoring of the outcomes can only follow the implementation process, and is the last actionable step in the process. The divergent nature and dependencies of each function reveal a clear process for organizational change.

These steps interconnect in two major ways: they show a set of dependencies and they are all designed to effect organizational change. The relatedness of each step to one another, along with the independence of each task, fits the common definition of a business process. This process is holistic because it incorporates every facet of the

change spectrum that is essential for success. The proposed process offers a view that is complete, allowing leaders to identify tasks and objectives and may therefore improve the rate of success.

Biblically Supported

A process is devoid of theology, ideology, or any other topics associated with religion. It is simply the arranging tasks to perform a job. As a result, no consideration was given to most theological concerns while reviewing literature. For example, the theories selected for inclusion into this work were not evaluated to avoid confliction with orthodox Christianity. Because of the vast volume of literature available, and the siloed nature of research, difficulties arose during the theological evaluative process. However, evaluation of the holistic process took theological consideration in account to determine if it is supported by and harmonizes with adherence to the primacy of Scripture.

The process developed from examination of both biblical and secular sources. While most secular thought on organizational change has taken place within the last sixty years, the Bible offers an opportunity to view it from a historical and spiritual perspective. A clear definition of organization and organizational change highlighted several periods available for case studies of change. Research paid little attention to various methods used to accomplish change (i.e., prayer, teaching, war...) other than to note its presence. Instead, it focused on the broader view of function. As a result, organizational change efforts are seen operating within the *historia salutis*.

This effort does not lessen the methods utilized by God's people or diminish God's role. In fact, the process displays God's involvement more prominently. Each Godly change effort started with a God-initiated revival of the heart. These examples show that He worked with and through His people to accomplish His purposes. Some change efforts in the Bible, however, resulted in reversion or rebellion against God. While His people turn from Him, God is not absent from these efforts. To the contrary,

God clearly uses these change efforts to advance the meta-narrative of the salvation of His people. Thus, efforts to lead organizational change can be successful even when the efforts run counter to orthodoxy.

These deductions lead to three conclusions. First, while the process does not contain any theological underpinnings, it is reflected with the change efforts in the Bible. Organizational change takes place on multiple occasions, spanning from Moses working with Jethro, to the Jerusalem Council. During that period, functions of the process were used. Second, the Bible clearly proves that God has a role in transformational efforts. He provokes change individually for His purposes, and can be thought of as a corporate level stakeholder. Finally, success does not depend on the orthodoxy of the individual(s) leading. Indeed, biblical examples show those who do not believe in God, and those who do achieving organizational change success. This example is also seen in a secular world where those of numerous beliefs have and continue to lead successful organizational change efforts. Biblical success though, must be viewed from the *historia salutis* and being guided by the unseen hand of God. .

Further Research and Discussion

Academic research and examples in Scripture displayed a holistic process. This process presents a linear view of organizational change. It allows for complexity and simplicity to coexist, and creates a genuine opportunity for further practical study. It also formalized a decision point within process, previously discussed from an implicit or assumed position. While research continues to focus on silos, this theory presents a picture of change in its entirety and the interplay between each silo. It also presents research opportunities for secular and ecclesiastical change. The research conducted within this thesis presents opportunities for further research in five specific areas:

- (1) Continued biblical validation of the process
- (2) The result of a “no” decision;

- (3) Identification of methods used for each function;
- (4) Impact on the modern church;
- (5) Measurement of time for each function and the whole process

The list for additional research identified here should not be viewed as all-inclusive. Additional research questions can and should be identified given the broad scope of this holistic process for organizational change. These particular questions allow for the development and education of the holistic model for higher learning whose conclusions can be used to drive improvements to the leadership of organizational change in business and the church. The author of this thesis will continue research and publication on three fronts to continue dialog. The first will be to research balancing the complexity of organizational change with the simplistic linear nature of this process. The second will be to examine the practical implications of this model for church revitalization and church planting. Finally, is to explore the philosophical possibility of a natural law of change based on the model presented. Below are comments for each opportunity, based on the research conducted for this thesis.

Continued Biblical Validation

During the biblical review, it became clear that several of the organizational change efforts identified in this work did not contain all of the functions of the holistic organizational change process. Given that the functions were supported across multiple change events that were reviewed, a conclusion could be drawn that the Bible offered case study evidence and initial validation of the holistic model. Limited research was conducted in these areas to determine if the omissions were evidence that the function did not exist or if the historical record did not document the function. However, given the limitations of this research, and the nature of the scope of research it was determined that further research and validation could be conducted beyond the conclusions of this thesis.

The definition of “organization” and “organizational change” provide new

opportunities for future biblical research. Numerous events in the Bible can be classified as organizational change and can be evaluated from that perspective without theological implications. This opens the possibility for further validation from a biblical perspective, and presents an opportunity to present the Bible as a legitimate case study for secular change research. However, an academic consensus must be developed to address the potential gaps of documentation during the process of change. Are the gaps of information a lack of evidence supporting the holistic organizational change process? Alternatively, can it be reasonably concluded that the functions that are not explicitly mentioned took place, and are simply not mentioned? The Southern Baptist Convention should address these research problems and continue further research on biblical change with all expediency.

Resulting Questions of a “No” Decision

When an organization faces a decision, room must be left for a “no” answer. A “no” decision creates many questions such as the conditions for, criteria used, frequency used and correlation to failure rates. Literature surrounding each of these conditions is sparse as previously noted. However, organizations can benefit from understanding why and how an organization decided not to undergo a punctuated change event. Some researchers argue an organization experiences continuous change over periods, even amid punctuated events. The holistic organizational change process presented in this thesis in fact considers this. However, a “no” decision has an unknown and unmeasured impact on organizational change. Does the process of continuous change speed up when a punctuated change event is started but not completed? Each of these research problems should be explored from a secular and ecclesiological perspective. The impact of God must also be considered when evaluating a “no” decision. Acts 16 offers an example of a change effort where God says “no.” During his missionary journey from the Council of Jerusalem, Paul was forbidden to speak the word in Asia. Scripture also notes that he

attempted to go to Bithynia, but Jesus did not allow him. Rather, a vision of a Macedonian man urged them to come preach the gospel there. In this section of Scripture, Paul made two decisions to go preach and God redirected them. God's redirection came after Paul, Timothy, and Silas had made the decision, and in fact had begun implementation of their change initiative. This example raises the question, are there two organizational change processes taking place? If Paul had already made the decision, and had begun preparation to implement, then God's "no" decision took place during Paul's implementation. God's "no" indicates the possible existence of two change processes, His and ours. The existence of the two, does demonstrate, and more accurately allows for God's sovereignty. If the two processes do not align, then God's change process, overrides our decisions. Additional evidence of this point can be seen in the speech of Gamaliel in Acts 5:38. Additional research can be done to more fully explore the result of a "no" decision based on God's direction, and more fully determine the existence of two change efforts taking place at the same time.

Tools Used for Each Step

A holistic process creates a systematic and repeatable approach to change. Each function describes the actions generally taken during that phase. As noted above, each function may employ a variety of tools and methods. However, separating the simple design of the process by function creates agility in a complex system separated by function. In other words, each function, or step may use numerous processes and tools to complete the step. An example using the evaluation phase may be helpful. Quantitative tools for evaluation include the cognitive response of employees to the event; the impact of resource management on strategic decisions; and competitive pricing. Each of these valuable tools need data input, and sub processes to draw a conclusion. The sub processes share the same goal: to evaluate the change in the context of the culture.

Implementation of organizational change is another example of how each

phase may incorporate multiple theories, tools, and methods. While Kotter, Kanter, Lewin, and Galpin share similar implementation steps, each offer a unique process. In addition, several tools used by organizations for planned or unplanned change (i.e., project management techniques, Six Sigma, and Total Quality Management) were not detailed. Each of these provides a means to implement effective or efficient change. Josiah and Ezra's biblical narratives also reveal that various implementation methods are used. Josiah performed change with a forcible zeal in a forceful and dictatorial fashion, using brute force to impose God's will on idol worshipers. Ezra used an approach more reminiscent of Kotter's eight-step model in that he built a coalition and established a sense of urgency to complete change. The various sub processes in these entire share the same goals but engage varied means to achieve them.

Grouping methods to carry out any of the steps in this newly revealed process creates flexibility in the practical investigation and implementation of organizational change. Each step serves a specific purpose and includes multiple means of performing them. Because the intent of this research is to prove that a holistic process exists, future research should focus on the methods for each function and their effectiveness within certain contexts. Discussion shifts from characteristics and descriptions of change to the tools that are most efficient for accomplishing it within certain types of organizations. Research in this area, should then, highlight the practical application of change theory within any organization. Figure 3 speculates about some of the different methods that are available for each step.

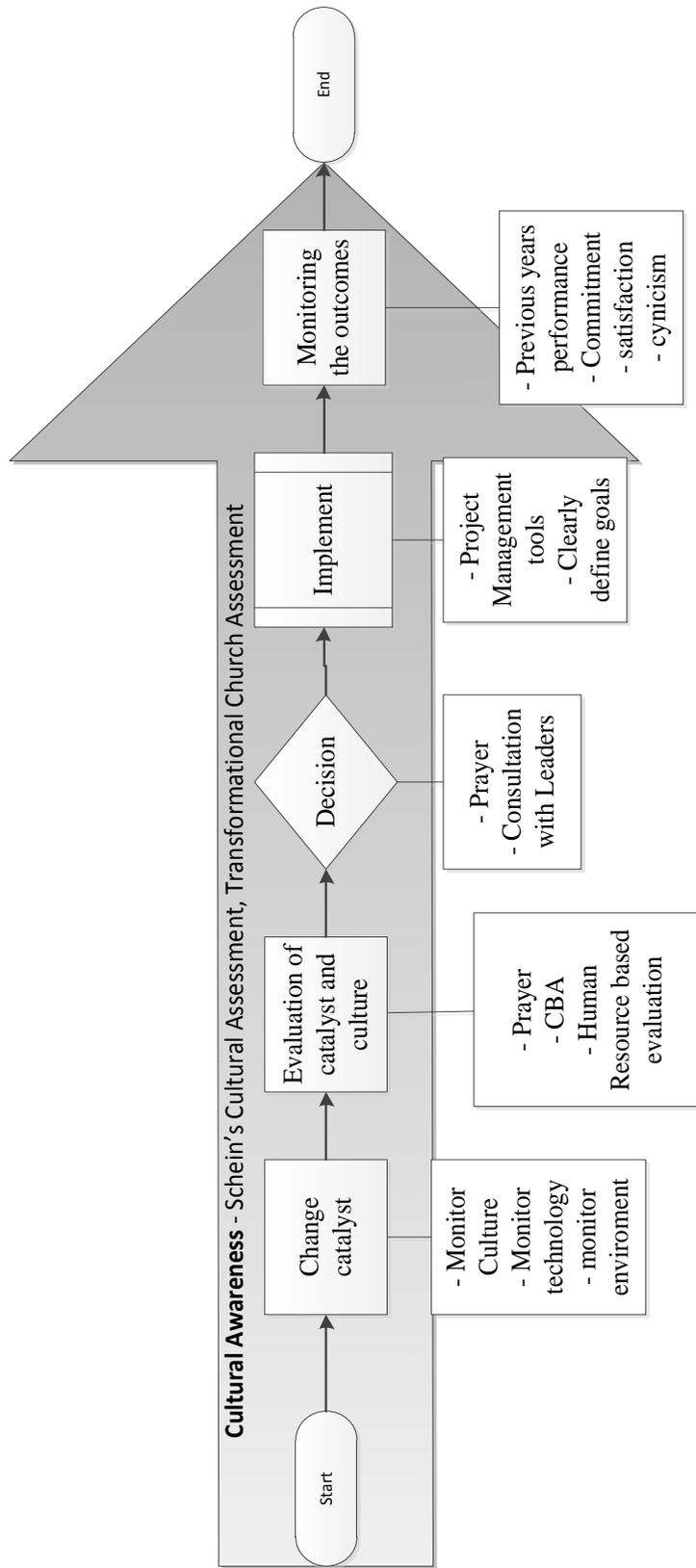


Figure 3. Possible methods for each function

Impact on Modern Church

Organizational change that takes place within the Bible is a joint effort between God and His people. This document places the emphasis on the process rather than the result of revitalization, which is contrary to many popular writings. When change resulting in revival takes place, God is the catalyst. He instigated it for individuals (i.e., Josiah and Ezra) and corporately (i.e., Jerusalem and Judah). The proposed process does not try to supplant the awesome power and influence of God. Rather, the Bible shows that inspiration by the Holy Spirit plays a role in the efforts to lead change. Successful efforts in the Bible used the holistic process to achieve revival, reversion, and revitalization. The Bible documents the historical effort of man within the *historia salutis* and the change efforts required of them as God moved throughout history. The Bible proves the proposed process repeats in many cultures and periods of history. It practically demonstrates practical the process' usage for past revival and revitalization, and making it easy to extrapolate its value for modern church revitalization and organizational change efforts.

Many aspects of church revitalization training mirror secular change literature. The primary differences between them are the emphasis and implementation methodology. Revitalization stresses God's involvement and emphasizes actions related to spiritual formation. Secular literature relies on research, review, and confirmation. In spite of the differences, both emphasize high-level implementation processes as offered by Kotter, Kanter, Herrington et al., and Southerland. In addition, current revitalization efforts focus on the "what" (worship, missions mentality, prayerful dependence) rather than on the "how" (the process of developing worship, mission's mentality, etc.). Church failure rates have been steady at 80 percent, in spite of an overabundance of material available to church leaders. A holistic process offers an opportunity to document church performance, identify methods used for each function, draw conclusions based on set goals, and educate future leaders based on the results.

Identifying core functions of change makes developing a “toolbox” of skills for specific training and education possible. Based on this research, seminaries in the Southern Baptist Convention (SBC) must recognize two points. First, revitalization is not change. Scripture clearly shows that revival and revitalization comes after an organizational effort. It is the result of God’s moving on leaders coupled with the hard work as they strive to lead. Second, organizations undergoing change always flow through this process, but use various means to accomplish their goals. One cannot dismiss a method simply because it did not come from the Bible. Great truths exist from secular studies such as cynicism, organizational readiness, game theory, and complementarities theory that can benefit the church. In addition, seminaries must teach practical management tools in addition to theology and theory (i.e., project management, six sigma, and total quality management).

For revitalization to become more successful, the SBC must go beyond recognizing the importance of training pastors in these fields. It must leverage individuals who have specific experience and education in these fields. Making this shift will create a root revitalization education, in a biblical worldview, capitalizing upon the improved efficiencies of a businesslike approach. This new education and training approach will need to account for a natural resistance some pastors and church leaders may have against integrating secular methodologies within the ecclesiastical realm. Sensitivity should be shown to these in order to help them see how integration of their knowledge base can help the church without compromising its principles, or losing its heart. Secular thought, research, and methods are simply tools that can be rightly used for any purpose, even divinely appointed ones. It would be beneficial if more pastors would begin redeeming these oft-ignored resources for the advancement of the Gospel.

Measurement of time

The siloed and nuanced research of organizational change restricts the

possibility of measuring it in the context of time. In fact, few, if any, have taken up the mantle to measure the amount of time that it takes to complete organizational change despite having a clear definition of what constitutes change. This is also in part due to the potential length of time required to measure a successful organizational change effort. The Bible offers a clear glimpse into this daunting task. Of the seven change efforts evaluated, only two could have taken place within the time span of a year (Ezra, and Nineveh). The remaining five organizational change efforts took place over the span of many years.

The holistic organizational change process offers a unique opportunity to evaluate the length organizational change through the sum of its parts. Each function is distinct, yet the culmination of all constitutes change. The measurement of time presents a unique opportunity to understand the average length of time for successful organization change efforts. Do successful organizational change efforts take longer to implement than unsuccessful efforts? Is there an average amount of time that proves to be more practical for organizations for any one of the functions? A defined process allows for the new possibility of measuring change by time.

Summary

Because more than two million articles and books about organizational change exist, it is easy to understand why the field is complex and why additional research is still needed. Many theories, typologies, and taxonomies have tried to simplify the overwhelming informational scope. These efforts have contradicting results and have created additional theory siloes, which has just compounded the field's complexity. According to Tufte, information should be arranged in ways that are consumable for the average practitioner. Therefore, it is imperative that theorists bring clarity and simplicity to this already complex field.

Heraclitus guides organizational change when he states, “on those stepping

into rivers staying the same, other and other waters flow.” Accordingly, the water is constantly in motion, but it is also guided by the riverbanks. They provide limits and boundaries for the chaos and complexity that occurs. Similar to the banks of a river, the holistic process provides a guide for organizational change. It merges academic and historical-biblical perspectives to facilitate practical application. It also allows for a commonality and shared wealth of information between secular organizations and the church. The proposed process presents a potential law of change that is holistic, simple and provides the boundaries through which the complexity of change is effectively governed, researched, documented, and implemented.

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ABSTRACT

A HOLISTIC PROCESS FOR LEADING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

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The current change theory base is fragmented and siloed. Years of research and studies have yielded nuanced conclusions that demonstrate little practical results. Recent research demonstrates the organizational change failure rate for secular businesses is as high as 80 percent. Since 1994, the church has had a steady failure and plateau rate of 80%. With over two million resources available for organizational change, and an emphasis on church revitalization by organization as such as NAMB, is it possible the disconnected variations of organizational change have created so much confusion that it prevents a simple, comprehensive, and comprehensible understanding?

In order to explore this question, and to advance a preferred method, case studies of organizational change within the bible were conducted, and secular organizational change studies were evaluated. A holistic process of organizational change is advanced that is biblical, and universal. Six functions of change are identified: cultural awareness; change catalyst; evaluation of the change and culture, decision, implementation, and monitoring of outcomes. Each function was identified from various organizational change events in the bible, and groupings of secular research.

Chapter 1 introduces the problems associated with secular and ecclesiastical change theory, as well as the six core functions of the holistic organizational change process. Chapter 2 reviews the methodology used to compile data in the change theory field. Chapter 3 will use content analysis to provide a literature review of the current

change theory field. Six key functions of organizational change are identified, which displayed both divergent and inclusive characteristics with one another: cultural awareness; change catalyst; evaluation of catalyst and culture; decision; implementation; and monitoring the outcomes. Chapter 4 analyzes theological considerations and focuses on seasons of change in the Bible. Three new classifications of change will be introduced based on Scripture and exegesis: change leading to regression, change leading to revival, and covenantal development. Chapter 5 will offer the conclusions of the paper, and will make five key recommendations for future research of organizational change for secular and church related change efforts.

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