

Theses and Dissertations

2016

The effect of change capability, learning capability and shared leadership on organizational agility

Majed Najrani

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.pepperdine.edu/etd>

Recommended Citation

Najrani, Majed, "The effect of change capability, learning capability and shared leadership on organizational agility" (2016). *Theses and Dissertations*. 687.
<https://digitalcommons.pepperdine.edu/etd/687>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by Pepperdine Digital Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Pepperdine Digital Commons. For more information, please contact bailey.berry@pepperdine.edu.

Pepperdine University

Graduate School of Education and Psychology

THE EFFECT OF CHANGE CAPABILITY, LEARNING CAPABILITY AND SHARED
LEADERSHIP ON ORGANIZATIONAL AGILITY

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by

Majed Najrani

July, 2016

James Rocco DellaNeve, Ed.D. – Dissertation Chairperson

This dissertation, written by

Majed Najrani

under the guidance of a Faculty Committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Doctoral Committee:

James Rocco DellaNeve, Ed.D. – Dissertation Chairperson

June Schmieder-Ramirez, Ph.D.

Leo Mallette, Ed.D

© Copyright by Majed Najrani (2016)

All Rights Reserved

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES.....	vii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	viii
ABSTRACT.....	ix
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study.....	1
Background of the Study.....	1
Problem Statement	7
Purpose of the Study	8
Research Questions	9
Significance of the Study	10
Limitations and Assumptions of the Study	11
Defining Organizational Agility.....	11
Organization of the Study	12
Chapter 2: Literature Review.....	13
Introduction.....	13
Organizational Agility.....	14
Defining Organizational Agility.....	16
Characteristics of Agile Organizations	18
Evaluating Agility	23
Organizational Agility Section Summary	24
Organizational Change.....	25
Planned Change.....	27
Unplanned or Emergent Change	29
Organizational Change Capability	30
Organizational Capacity for Change.....	31
Organizational Readiness for Change	32
Resistance to Change	33
Organizational Change Section Summary	34
Organizational Learning.....	34
Defining the Learning Organization	36
How does an Organization Learn?	38
Learning Capacity and Capability.....	39
Learning Capacity	39
Learning Capability.....	40
Creating a Learning Organization.....	41
Organizational Learning Section Summary	43
Leadership	44

Leadership Influence	45
Influence and Social Powers	46
Transactional Leadership	47
Transformational Leadership	49
Shared Leadership	50
Leadership Section Summary.....	51
 Chapter 3: Research Design and Methodology	 52
Introduction	52
Restatement of Research Questions	53
Research Design	54
Population.....	56
Sample.....	56
Sample Size.....	57
Human Subject Considerations	57
Instrumentation.....	57
Instrument Validity	61
Data Collection Procedures	62
Data Management	63
Data Analysis	63
 Chapter 4: Research Results	 65
Introduction	65
Demographics.....	65
Hypothesis Testing.....	74
Change Capability Hypothesis	75
Learning Capability Hypothesis.....	76
Shared Leadership Hypothesis	78
Summary	79
 Chapter 5: Findings and Conclusion.....	 80
Introduction	80
Research Questions	82
The Organizational Agility Model SV	83
Literature Review Analysis in Support of the Organizational Agility Model SV	88
Model Application.....	89
Recommendations for Future Research	90
Limitations of the Study	91
Conclusions	91
 REFERENCES	 92
 APPENDIX A: Protecting Human Research Participants Certificate.....	 112

APPENDIX B: Permission to use the Organizational Agility Survey Protecting Human.....	113
APPENDIX C: IRB Approval Notice.....	114
APPENDIX D: Information Sheet for Online Surveys.....	115
APPENDIX E: Agility Survey.....	117
APPENDIX F: Change Capability.....	125
APPENDIX G: Learning Capability.....	132
APPENDIX H: Shared Leadership.....	136

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1. Agility Frameworks	24
Table 2. Examples of Planned Change	29
Table 3. Examples of frameworks of building a learning organization.....	43
Table 4. Change Capability, Learning Capability and Shared Leadership Corresponding Questions	59
Table 5. 15 Characteristics Related To Organizational Agility and Their Corresponding Questions	60
Table 6. 15 Scales and Reliability Coefficient.....	62
Table 7. Example of Correlation between Variables	64
Table 8. Study Participants' Gender	65
Table 9. Study Participants' Educational Background	66
Table 10. Study Participants' Employment Status	67
Table 11. Study Participants' Employment tenure	68
Table 12. Study Participants' Industries	69
Table 13. Study Participants' Organization Size	70
Table 14. Organization Contact with the Outside world	71
Table 15. Shared Objective Or Decision Rule that is Applied in the Face of Conflicting Goals.	71
Table 16. Senior Managers' Time Management.....	72
Table 17. Participants' Views of their Organizations	73
Table 18. Samples of Agile Variables Correlated with Change Capability.	75
Table 19. Samples of Agile Variables Correlated with Learning Capability	77
Table 20. Samples of Agile Variables Correlated with Shared Leadership	78

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1. The organizational agility model.....	9
Figure 2. The organizational agility model.....	53
Figure 3. Study participants' gender.....	66
Figure 4. Study participants' educational background	67
Figure 5. Study participants' employment status.....	67
Figure 6. Study participants' employment tenure.....	68
Figure 7. Study participants' industries	69
Figure 8. Study participants' organization size.....	70
Figure 9. Organization contact with the outside world.....	71
Figure 10. Shared objective or decision rule that is applied in the face of conflicting goals	72
Figure 11. Senior managers' time management	72
Figure 12. Participants' views of their organizations	74
Figure 13. The proposed organizational agility model	85
Figure 14. The organizational agility model SV.....	86
Figure 15. The organizational agility model SV five steps.	90

ABSTRACT

Organizational agility represents a new field of organizational study that is not well examined. In the past organizations had an unmatched competitive advantage due to low competition and higher barriers to entry into their markets. As a result, many organizations dominated their industries. However, in the era of globalization, individuals with an internet connection and the right skills can start new organizations that can compete on a global level. Consequently, organizations now are facing more competition that they experienced in the past. Another reason for increase competition is new technology. Technology is improving increasingly faster than any time in history. Therefore, organizations that are not agile could not survive in the current environment.

Agile entities realize that they have to become flexible and nimble to withstand competition. Accordingly, the researcher in this study proposes an organizational agility model and this proposed model is the focus of the study. The proposed model significant arises from the fact that currently there are limited numbers of models that help organizations in becoming agile entities. The characteristics in this study were based on Worley and Lawler (2010) “Agility and Organization Design: A Diagnostic Framework”. The study conducted a survey utilizing an instrument developed by Dr. Worley and Dr. Lawler that contains 15 agility characteristics. The survey uses all 15 characteristics to determine if the organization is agile. In addition, the study utilizes three of the 15 agility characteristics to determine if a relationship occurs between the study variables.

This quantitative study examined the relationship between change capability, learning capability, shared leadership and organizational agility. Moreover, understanding these relationships could assist scholars and practitioners in producing change programs that

emphasize certain behaviors that make an organization agile. The study surveyed 116 participants and found that focusing on change capability, learning capability and shared leadership could contribute in creating agile organizations. Consequently, after evaluating the study results, a new agility model emerged. This model shows that organizations can achieve agility by developing change capability, learning capability, shared leadership, shared purpose and flexible resources. Ultimately, achieving agility could help organizations compete and endure now and the future.

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Background of the Study

The world is constantly changing, an organization today that leads in its industry, may not exist in the future or no longer lead. Consequently, there are examples of corporations that were the primary competitors in their markets in the past and could not endure changing market conditions. One example is Circuit City, which had more than 1,400 stores domestically and internationally (Circuit City, 2008). In addition, Circuit City sales exceeded \$11 billion both in the U.S. and in internationally (Circuit City, 2008). Today, Circuit City a major company in the consumer electronics industry, no longer exists. Campbell (2014) wrote, “ In less than 10 years, Circuit City was transformed from one of the most powerful electronics and technology retailers in the country to being a wholly nonexistent company that completely vanished from the U.S. retail landscape” (p. 18). Kodak, Dell and Ericsson are a few other examples of businesses that were leading in their industries. Today, all of these companies continue to operate, but not at the same level or scale, they once resided on. The main reasons for their downfall were their inability to adapt to new technologies or consumer preferences. Consequently, these companies failure to be agile is the ultimate reason for their current state. Ganguly, Nilchiani and Farr (2009) explained that the “idea of adapting to unforeseen changes has led to the evolution of one of the latest concepts in business strategies and is referred to as the concept of agility” (p. 410). As a result, organizational agility becomes a significant concept to organizational scholars. Worley, Williams and Lawler (2014) wrote, “Agility allows an organization to respond in a more timely, effective and sustained way” (p. 7). Moreover, change not only affects organizations but industries as well.

Industries changes when new competitors challenge established organizations by implementing new technologies that did not exist in the past. For instance, the navigation industry saw a significant shift in the last 30 years. Roadmaps first dominated the navigation industry then GPS (Global Positioning Systems) then smartphones navigation apps (Downes & Nunes, 2014). The map-making industry had few major companies that were significantly affected by the expanding use of the internet (Downes & Nunes, 2014). Then GPS devices became inexpensive, and consumers switched from buying road maps to GPSs (Downes & Nunes, 2014). Subsequently, smartphones offered free navigation applications, which lead to decrease the market for GPS manufacturing companies (Downes & Nunes, 2014). Downes and Nunes (2014) stated that “Eighteen months after the introduction of Google Maps Navigation, the makers of stand-alone GPS devices had lost as much as 85 percent of their market value” (p. 18). The navigation industry is one example of rapid change that can transform a competitive environment by emerging new technologies. Consequently, emerging technologies could have adversarial effects on organizations, which are not agile.

Organizational agility can benefit organizations and industries in managing change in their market; one example is the petroleum refining industry. The oil refining industry in the United States encountered substantial challenging market environment in the 1980s (Chen, 2005). The industry responded by adopting new refining technology, which leads to more profits and improved response to changes in the oil market (Chen, 2005). Change will ultimately occur in every market and organizations needs to be agile to cope with change. Bridges (2009) wrote, “It has become a truism that the only constant today is change” (p. 99). Change is caused by new ideas, innovations and technologies that alter or eliminate an industry. Joiner and Josephs (2007)

stated, “As change accelerates, so does uncertainty and novelty” (p. 5). In addition, other causes of change have emerged such as globalization.

Globalization is one of the primary causes of change as Friedman (2007) explained that the world today is interconnected and gives any company the opportunity to compete globally. Therefore, organizations, which are not agile, cannot compete in the global economy. Additionally, as the world becomes more connected, complexity in dealing with new technology, regulations and competitors increase. Joiner and Josephs (2007) indicated, “The pace of change will continue to increase, and the level of complexity and interdependence will continue to grow” (p. 5). Organizational agility is an important element to succeed in an ever-changing environment. Doz and Kosonen (2008) wrote, “being agile evokes staying nimble and flexible, open to new evidence, always ready to reassess past choices and change direction in light of new developments, and willing and able to turn on a dime” (p. 95). For organizations to succeed in a constantly changing world, they need to improve their ability to change rapidly. Worley et al. (2014) indicated, “we need to create organizations that change quickly” (p. 3). As a result, organizational agility is a new field of study that can help organizations solve new challenges they confront now and in the future. Agility is not only found in business but also, in government agencies, nonprofit entities, schools, universities and all categories of organizations. However, before exploring organizational agility, one must observe scholars and practitioners past methods of improving an organization’s ability to compete through organizational change, organizational learning and leadership.

Organizational change aims to explain what conditions will aid a company to adjust to new competitors, new customers’ preferences and new market conditions. Kotter (2006) wrote that organizational change occurs when an organization responds to a new environment by

changing the way it does business. Smith (2005) added “Intentionally creating the destabilization in order to overcome an organizational tendency towards and preference for, stability and predictability” (p. 409). Moreover, organizational change is a main concern of reacting to the environment, not altering its market. Bridges (2009) stated, “Not all changes are improvements Some are simply a small readjustment to maintain the present balance. Some are larger moves to cut losses or to repair damages done by market changes and regulatory actions” (p. 107). Additionally, organizations have to change more rapidly than their market to ensure their success. Worley et al. (2014) wrote, “change management processes are ineffective when the environment is changing faster than the organization can adapt” (p. 2). Moreover, organizations have to change constantly in order to remain competitive. Ebrahimpur and Jacob (2001) wrote, “The new demands for agile and flexible structures, however, assume that continuous change is now a prerequisite for creating and maintaining competitive advantage” (p. 64). Consequently, organizational agility focuses on constant change, not changes that address current market conditions. For example, all manufacturing companies have to explore 3-D printing technology in order to stay competitive in their market. D’Aveni (2013) explains 3-D printing as “enabling a machine to produce objects of any shape, on the spot and as needed, 3-D printing really is ushering in a new era” (p. 34). As a result, of this new technology, individuals with a 3-D printer, materials and 3-D software will be able to create customized products in the future. Petrick and Simpson (2013) wrote, “The terms 3D printing and additive manufacturing are often used interchangeably, as both refer to the layer-by-layer creation of physical objects based on digital files that represent their design” (p. 13). Therefore, manufacturing organizations will have to modify their business model in order to compete in the 3-D printing market. As Bridges (2009,) wrote, “The continuation of anything depends on its changing” (p. 107). Organizational change

does not take learning from customers, employees, competitors and the environment into account. As a result, scholars and practitioners developed a new framework that encourages organizations to continue to learn from its environment, which give the rise to organizational learning.

Organizational learning is originated from the belief that organizations can learn new methods of delivering value to its customers through new technology, shift in culture norms and a new way of thinking. Goh (2003) defined organizational learning as “A continuous learning organization is an organization where employees are continually encouraged to gain new knowledge, try new approaches to solving problems, obtain feedback and learn new behaviours as a result of the experimentation” (p. 216). Therefore, learning organizational needs an educated workforce, who can implement new methods of creating value for their customers and learn from their experience to develop better products. Additionally, employees can share their new knowledge with other employees within the organizations, which increase the organization knowledge as a whole. New knowledge can be used to improve the organization continuously. As Senge (2006) explained that, a learning organization is an organization constantly self-improving to cope with changes in its environment. Moreover, in order for an organization to be agile, it has to learn from its market. Elkjaer (2004) stated, “Learning is about how organizational members may acquire knowledge about phenomena outside themselves” (p. 422). In addition, Dove (1999) added, “In the agile organization knowledge management is responsible for having the right knowledge in the right place at the right time” (p. 24). Employees can learn from their customers, competitors and industry to create better products. Organizations can integrate employees’ insights with its strategy to create a competitive advantage. Crossan and Bedrow (2003) indicated that “Organizational learning is seen as a means to develop capabilities

that are valued by customers, are difficult to imitate, and hence contribute to competitive advantage” (p. 1089). Moreover, Dove (1999) explained that “In the agile organization knowledge management is first about learning, second about application” (p. 25). In addition, organizations can maintain competitive advantage by continually learn from their competitors, market and employees to keep creating value for their customers overtime. As Goh (2003) wrote, “To remain competitive, many organizations are adopting a strategy of continuous learning” (p. 216). Constantly learning and implementing new ideas could help organizations improve and change overtime. Nevertheless, organizational change management and implementing organizational learning are all reactive strategies to the current environment, not future market conditions. Moreover, without effective leadership an organization cannot implement or utilize new changes or knowledge. As a result, leadership is a critical element of organizational agility.

Leadership is an essential component of an agile organization, since leaders influence organizational outcomes. As Oliveira, Possamai and Valentina (2012) wrote, “The influence of leadership on employees and teams is manifested in terms of agility and flexibility factors, which in turn affect the performance of the organization” (p. 657). Therefore, leaders can influence followers to embrace or reject change. Northhouse (2010) described leaders influence as “leadership is reserved for those who influence a group of individuals toward a common goal” (p. 9). An example of a common goal is an organization changing its sales strategy and the leaders of the organization influencing others to follow the organization’s new direction.

Leadership that understands and utilizes agility can help their organizations compete in the globe economy. Leaders can utilize agility by creating organizations that can alter its structure, reallocate resources, and employees who are change ready. As Joiner and Josephs (2007) stated “Leadership agility is directly analogous to organizational agility: it’s the ability to

take wise and effective action on complex, rapidly changing conditions” (pp. 5-6). Changing circumstances is the reason leaders need to understand and use organizational agility to respond efficiently to change.

Today, there is a new challenge that organizations face. The new challenge is to gain a competitive advantage in any industry; organizations not only need to have the right structure, the ability to change or capacity to learn, but they also have to become an agile entity. Worley et al. (2014) wrote, “Organizations that are nimble, adaptable, and agile have the opportunity to respond quickly to opportunities and threats, not once but repeatedly” (p. 4). This study defines organizational agility as the ability to learn and change to allocate resources to react, adapt or create change in the environment. Consequently, an organization can be agile if its leadership is capable of learning, changing and adapting to the organization’s environment. Schein (2010) wrote, “Leadership is originally the source of the beliefs and values that get a group moving in dealing with its internal and external problems” (p. 32). As a result, this study purpose is to understand the effect of organizational change through change capability, learning through learning capability and leadership through shared leadership on organizational agility.

Problem Statement

The problem is that there are deficiencies in the literature in exploring the effect of change capability, learning capability and shared leadership on organizational agility. In the past scholars observed organizational agility with different lenses. Shafer (1997) examined organizational agility from a human resource perspective. Mulhern (2008) studied organizational agility through leadership in a library setting. Lopes (2009) discussed how agile organizations could learn and execute the appropriate respond to change. Mason (2010) discussed organizational agility as a tool for organizations to sustain their competitive advantage. Kharabe

(2012) explored the relationship between enterprise systems and organizational agility. Latham (2014) observed the impact of organizational agility on teams' outcomes. However, few studies explain the relationship between change capability, learning capability, shared leadership and organizational agility.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study is to discover the relationship if any between independent variables (*change capability, learning capability and shared leadership*) and dependent variable (*organizational agility*). Moreover, organizational change, learning and leadership have been extensively studied in the past. Additionally, most studies explored the interaction between change, knowledge creation, and shared leadership in organizations. On the other hand, organizational agility is a new field of study without a precise theoretical framework that explains the subject. Additionally, this study is intended to understand the following:

1. The relationship between change capability and organizational agility.
2. The relationship between learning capability and organizational agility.
3. The relationship between shared leadership and organizational agility.

Consequently, the ultimate goal of this study is to understand how change capability, learning capability and shared leadership affect organizational agility. As a result, the study proposes the following model. The Organizational Agility Model is a model proposed and developed by the researcher of this dissertation. The proposed model is as follows:

The Organizational Agility Model

This proposed model displays the relationship between the following:

1. The relationship between organizational change and organizational agility.
2. The relationship between organizational learning and organizational agility.

3. The relationship between leadership and organizational agility.
4. The relationship between leadership, employees, and organizational agility.
5. The relationship between organizational design and organizational agility.

Figure 1 demonstrates the proposed Organizational Agility Model.

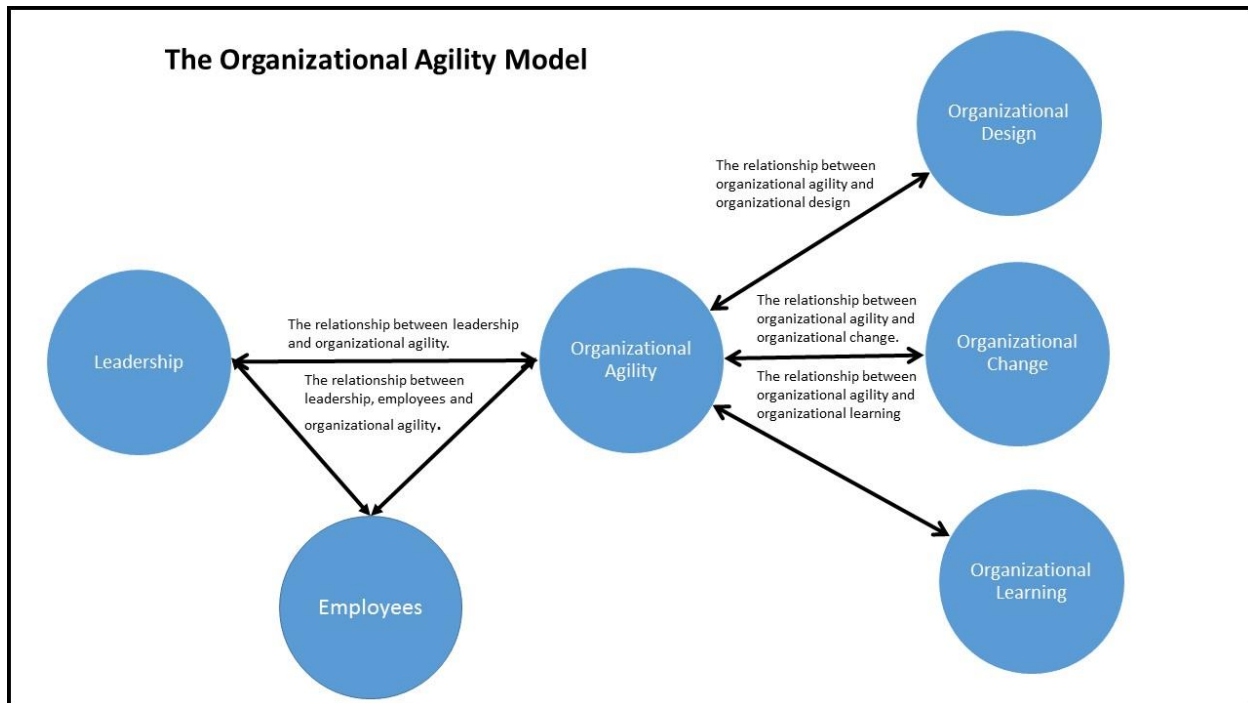


Figure 1. The organizational agility model.

Research Questions

The fundamental questions this quantitative study intended to answer are the following:

- *To what extent, if any, is there a relationship between change capability and organizational agility?*
- *To what extent, if any, is there a relationship between learning capability and organizational agility?*
- *To what extent, if any, is there a relationship between shared leadership and organizational agility?*

Consequently, the research uses quantitative hypotheses, which according to Creswell (2009), "are predictions the researcher makes about the expected relationships among variables"

(p. 132). The study has multiple hypotheses to measure if there is a correlation between the study independent variables (*change capability, learning capability and shared leadership*) and dependent variable (*organizational agility*). Therefore, the null and alternative hypothesis statements are as follow:

- Ho1 There is no statistically significant relationship between change capability and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.
- Ha1 There is a statistically significant relationship between change capability and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.
- Ho2 There is no statistically significant relationship between learning capability and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.
- Ha2 There is a statistically significant relationship between learning capability and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.
- Ho3 There is no statistically significant relationship between shared leadership and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.
- Ha3 There is a statistically significant relationship between shared leadership and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.

Finding answers to these research questions combined with the hypotheses outcome will give the study an insight into understanding the relationship between change capability, learning capability, shared leadership and organizational agility.

Significance of the Study

Throughout history, many organizations dominated a market, an industry, or a nation. However, many of them are obsolete today. One of the many reasons of their demise is their inability to recognize that the world is always changing, and organizations have to adapt to survive. A product or a service today could become absolute tomorrow. Understanding how an organization recognizes and responds to change is an essential tool to compete in an ever-changing world. Becoming an agile organization is no longer an option; it is a significant

competitive advantage. Organizational change maps the way to allow an entity to respond to change. Organizational learning utilizes learning and reflecting to create new knowledge. Leadership shapes the organization, culture, and identity. Schein (2010) wrote, “Leadership is originally the source of the beliefs and values that get a group moving in dealing with internal and external problems” (p. 32). Individually organizational change, learning, and leadership are necessary tools to help an organization thrive in the short term. However, without agility, an organization cannot endure in the long term. Identifying the relationship between organizational change capability, learning capability, shared leadership and agility is significant, because it is the key to building and sustaining an agile entity. Recognizing the effect of an organization ability to change, learn and share leadership on organizational agility will help future researchers study other aspects of the relationship. For instance, the characteristics of leadership that create an agile organization, the elements that create an agile organization and most importantly methods of altering an organization to become an agile entity. Additionally, the findings could help practitioners create training programs to help leaders understand and utilize agility to improve their organizations.

Limitations and Assumptions of the Study

The study limitations are concepts limitation. Some of the participants may not comprehend an understanding of organizational agility, change capability, learning capability or shared leadership. Moreover, the study assumed that the participant understood the survey questions and answered them truthfully.

Defining Organizational Agility

Searching for a definition of organizational agility produces many definitions with no particular concept that scholars agree on. Huang (1999) wrote, “An agile corporation should

be able to rapidly respond to the market changes” (p. 53). Shafer, Dyer, Kilty, Amos and Ericksen (2001) stated, “Agile: ‘nimble, and change-hardy’ ” (p. 197). Lin, Chiu and Tseng (2006) added, “Agile enterprise whereby an organization can change and adapt quickly to changing circumstances” (p. 353). Oliveira et al. (2012) defined the concept when they wrote, “Agility is expressed by means of factors. Among the agility factors related to people that affect organizational performance the most cited in the literature are communication, flexibility of individuals, and maturity of the teams, continuous delivery and continuous improvement” (p. 655).

Organization of the Study

This study contains five chapters. Chapter 1 included a background of the study to the research problem, purpose, questions, significance, limitations, assumptions and definitions of organizational agility. Chapter 2 will examine the literature concerning organizational change, change capability, organizational learning, learning capability, leadership, shared leadership and organizational agility. Chapter 3 will include a restatement of study purpose, a restatement of research questions, research design, population, sample, human subject considerations, instrumentation, instrument validity, data collection procedures, data management and data analysis. Chapter 4 will list the results of the survey. Chapter 5 will explain the findings of the study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Organizations utilize many methods to improve themselves. Some methods of improvement focus on optimizing the business process, such as business process reengineering. Hammer and Champy (1993) define process reengineering as “ ‘the fundamental rethinking and radical redesign of business processes to achieve dramatic improvements in critical, contemporary measures of performance, such as cost, quality, service, and speed’ ” (p. 32). In contrast, other approaches emphasize refining products. For example, research and development to improve existing products or creating new products. Moreover, the most important techniques of enhancing organizations are emphasizing employee development. For instance, organizations can offer on-job training, individual development, team development, learning development and leadership development. Tennant (2001) stated, “Agile organizations are marked by committed staff, skilled managers, and commonly held beliefs in the organization’s mission” (p. 30). Moreover, Yusuf, Sarhadi and Gunasekaran (1999) wrote, “The success of any organization ultimately depends upon its ability to convert the collective knowledge and skills of its most critical resource - people - into solution products” (p. 40). Similarly, Ganguly et al. (2009) added “the ability of an organization to adapt to unexpected changes is critical to achieving and maintaining a competitive advantage” (p. 410). Agile organizations combine all of these improvement efforts to learn and change in order to allocate resources to react, adapt, or create change in the environment. Dove (1999) wrote, “The only reason agility is being discussed in recent years is because the environment is changing faster than it used to, and faster than most organizations are capable of matching” (p. 19). Moreover, organizational agility focuses on

improving an organization readiness to change, ability to learn and implement effective leadership.

The purpose of this study is to discover the relationship between organizational change, learning, leadership, and agility. The chapter will start by exploring the definition and literature related to organizational agility. Organizational agility sections will include characteristics of agile organizations and evaluating agility. Then, the study will show an overview of the definitions and theoretical frameworks of organizational change, learning, and leadership. Organizational change sections will include change capability and change-friendly identity. Moreover, organizational learning will include learning capability, tools to build a learning organization and methods to measure a learning organization. The leadership section will include shared leadership and leadership agility. The objective of this chapter is to explore the literature of the study variables.

Organizational Agility

Organizational agility is essential to organizational success now and in the future. Lin, Chiu and Chu (2006) indicated, “Companies have realized that agility is essential for their survival and competitiveness” (p. 285). Beard (2000) wrote, “The rate of change in the competitive marketplace has many suggesting that the future will look substantially different from the past” (p. 118). Global competition is the main cause of the increase rate of change. Dove (1999) added “organizations are finding it more difficult to stay in synch with the pace of change in their operational and competitive environments” (p. 18). Yusuf et al. (1999) stated, “The main driving force behind agility is change” (p. 34). In addition, organizations have to be agile, since unpredictable markets are the main characteristics of the modern global economy. Ganguly et al. (2009) explained that “globalization, technology, and outsourcing contributing to

uncertainty and unpredictability” (p. 410). However, agile organizations are skilled at using market changes to create competitive advantage. Moreover, agile organizations can adjust to environmental changes. As competition increases, organizations need to create new strategies to stay competitive. Chakravarty, Grewal and Sambamurthy, (2013) wrote, “The hypercompetitive aspects of modern business environments have drawn organizational attention toward agility as a strategic capability” (p. 976). The main cause of today’s change is the accessibility of information in real-time. Hugos (2009) indicated the following:

As the realities of the relentlessly competitive, real time economy continue to sink in, more and more people realize that making their companies agile and responsive to continuous change will be the best way for them to compete in their markets. (p. 35)

The surge of information is possible by the connectivity effect of the Internet. The internet made it easy for people to collaborate on their ideas and to create global entities. Heisterberg and Verma (2014) wrote, “the global marketplace has been flattened by the Internet” (p. 1). The advantage of world wide connected organizations is the ease off collaboration to improve products and services. Friedman (2007) agrees when he stated “once everyone could connect with everyone else, they got busy on the real value add” (p. 84). On the other hand, more organizations are entering the global markets at a faster rate. Subsequently, organizations that are agile and ready to change may be able to stay competitive. Additionally, organizations endure by creating readiness to change conditions (Friedman, 2007). In addition, Ganguly et al. (2009) stated “the ability of an organization to adapt to unexpected changes is critical to achieving and maintaining a competitive advantage” (p. 410). Similarly, agility is not an objective or a tactic, but rather a central survival requirement for all organizations (Dove, 1999). Agility and

flexibility are not equivalent, as Ganguly et al. (2009) wrote that the “important difference between agility and flexibility can be stated as the ability of an agile system to sustain an unpredictable change” (p. 413). Furthermore, agile organizations require a skilled workforce to navigate change. Breu, Hemingway, Strathern and Bridger (2002) wrote, “agile workforces acquire the five capabilities of intelligence, competencies, collaboration, culture and information systems (IS)” (p. 21). Moreover, the two most important capabilities are intelligence and competency, which should be the focus of all agile organizations (Breu et al., 2002). An organization has to embrace agility, which leads to the next section of the study, defining organizational agility.

Defining Organizational Agility

Organizational agility definition has been a subject of debate among scholars and practitioners without a unified description. Almahamid, Awwad and McAdams (2010) wrote, “there is no widely accepted definition for organization agility” (p. 388). Moreover, scholars view agility from different perspectives. Dove (1999) viewed organizational agility as the means of acquiring and applying new knowledge to improve an organization. A number of researchers defined organizational agility as ability to adapt or react to change (Almahamid et al., 2010; Dubey & Gunasekaran, 2014; Ganguly et al., 2009; Huang 1999; Kassim & Zain, 2004; Lin et al., 2006; Setili, 2014; Shafer et al., 2001; Tan, 1998). Tan (1998) explained, “agility is related to the speed that a system adapts”(p. 376). Respectively, Yusuf et al. (1999) clarified “agility is the ability of a business to grow in a competitive market of continuous and unanticipated change” (p. 36). Similarly, Huang (1999) explained that agile organizations are effective at promptly reacting to environmental change. Other scholars defined the concept as readiness to change. Shafer et al. (2001) wrote that agile organizations are responsive and change ready. Kassim and Zain (2004)

defined the concept when they wrote “agility is the ability of a firm to face and adapt proficiently in a continuously changing and unpredictable business environment” (p. 174). Lin et al. (2006) saw that supply chain is a central part of an agile organization. Additionally, Lin et al. (2006) declared that agile supply chain “focuses on promoting adaptability, flexibility, and has the ability to respond and react quickly and effectively to changing markets” (p. 286). Ganguly et al. (2009) define agility “as the ability of an organization to rapidly and efficiently respond to any proactive/reactive changes in the technology/industry without compromising with the cost and the quality of the product/service that it is catering” (p. 414). Additionally, another point of view of agility is the capability to alter organizations’ resources to change. As Almahamid et al. (2010) explained organizations agility as the “abilities to adapt its processes, strategies, production lines, resources, and so on to respond to the new created by change” (p. 388). Some scholars took a different approach by explaining agility as the organization modifying itself in respond to new market conditions. Other researchers regarded agility as the constant organizational development of communication, individuals and team (Oliveira et al., 2012). Similarly, an organization agility and readiness to change could achieve by continuous improvement. Oliveira et al. (2012) stated that “agility is manifested by factors like continuous improvement, continuous delivery, and communication, maturity of the team and people flexibility” (p. 654). Worley et al. (2014) explained “Agility is the capability to make timely, effective, and sustained organizational change” (p. 26). In addition, organizational agility could be viewed as the organizational ability to predict future opportunities. Heisterberg and Verma (2014) defined business agility as “innovation via collaboration to be able to anticipate challenges and opportunities before they occur” (p. 1). Setili (2014) added “*agility* is the ability to see and capitalize on new opportunities *quickly*” (p. 4). Setili (2014) focus on conditions

outside the organization; in contrast, Dubey and Gunasekaran (2014) identify agility as the ability to react internally and externally. Dubey and Gunasekaran (2014) indicated that “Agility means an organization with incredible internal capabilities (i.e. hard and soft technologies, human resources, educated management and information) to meet dynamic needs of the market place (i.e. speed, flexibility, suppliers, infrastructure, customers, competition and responsiveness)” (p. 2147). In brief, scholar’s definitions of organizational agility involve the capacities to predict, react or create change in the environment. The next sections of this study will overview characteristics of agile organizations.

Characteristics of Agile Organizations

Organizational agility as a concept started in the manufacturing industry and evolved over time to other sectors. A research team first introduced agility in regard to manufacturing at the Iaccoca Institute at Lehigh University in 1991 (Yusuf et al.,1999). As a result, this section will start with an overview of three manufacturing agility frameworks. These frameworks are based on Yusuf et al. (1999), Gunasekaran (1999), and Dubey and Gunasekaran (2014). Then the study will explore agile characteristics of all organizations based on Worley and Lawler (2010) framework.

Yusuf et al. (1999) emphasized that manufacturing organizations have to embrace agility to stay competitive. Since, the manufacturing industry faces increasing global competition and continuous changes in consumers preferences. Moreover, Yusuf et al. (1999) explained that achieving agile manufacturing capability required four characteristics. Yusuf et al. (1999) characteristics of agile manufacturing are ‘Core Competence Management’, ‘Virtual Enterprise’, ‘Capability for Reconfiguration’ and ‘Knowledge-driven Enterprise’. Core competence is explained next.

Core competence is related to the organization employees and organizational effort to improve their skills. Yusuf et al. (1999) wrote “Core competence may be associated with the corporation's workforce and product and identified at two different but related levels, the individual and the firm” (p. 37). Next is the virtual enterprise formation, which is utilizing resources and employees to deliver organizations’ essential capability. Yusuf et al. (1999) explained that “In a virtual corporation, competence carriers are transparently available to all business units” (p. 38). Moreover, skilled employees can be relocated to help develop and create new products. As Yusuf et al. (1999) stated, “Talented personnel can easily be redeployed as the windows of opportunities open and close” (p. 38). In addition, skilled employees are joined to create teams to maximize their efficiency. Yusuf et al. (1999) further explained that “Agile teams work across the company partners” (p. 39). Moreover, capability to reconfigure is the next agile capability.

Yusuf et al. (1999) explained the ability of organizations to reconfigure when they wrote “Agile enterprises can easily make a significant shift in focus, diversify, configure, and re-align their businesses to serve a particular purpose rapidly as the window of opportunities open” (p. 39). Capturing opportunities is possible by redesigning the operational process of the organization. Also, an organization can capitalize on tactical design by using effective process restructuring (Yusuf et al., 1999). Additionally, organizations need to implement technologies that can adapt when they need to change. Yusuf et al. (1999) wrote, “Management must invest in technologies that confer operational flexibility at the plant level” (p. 39). The combination of an educated workforce and an adaptable technology lead to the next agile capability, which is knowledge-driven enterprise.

Knowledge-driven enterprise capitalizes on their ability to convert collective organizational knowledge to adapt to market conditions. Furthermore, organizations must adopt a strategy of developing, training and motivating all employees to achieve agility (Yusuf et al.,1999). Additionally, the key for any organization to thrive in its industry is the ability to learn from the organization's employees, market, and competitors, then turn new insight into knowledge. As Yusuf et al. (1999) added, "The concept of knowledge-driven enterprises derives from increasing recognition of knowledge and information as the main differentiators of successful business" (p. 40). Subsequently is Gunasekaran (1999) agile manufacturing framework.

Gunasekaran (1999) explained that agile manufacturing emphasis "strategies, technologies, systems and people" (p. 88). An agile strategy is an important concept to agile manufacturing. Gunasekaran (1999) clarified that "Without suitable strategies, technologies and systems alone not sufficient to achieve agility" (p. 89). Agile strategies include 'virtual enterprise', 'supply chain', 'concurrent engineering' (Gunasekaran, 1999).

Moreover, technology is a combination of both hardware and software that increase the manufacturing agility (Gunasekaran, 1999). Agile technologies focus on 'hardware - tools and equipments' and 'information technologies' (Gunasekaran, 1999). Gunasekaran (1999) stated that agile systems center on "...various planning and control operations including materials, requirements, planning, design, manufacturing resource planning, scheduling, production planning, and control" (p. 94). Systems flexibility is achievable by executing 'design systems', 'production planning, control systems', 'system integration, and database management' (Gunasekaran, 1999). Next is Gunasekaran (1999) agile workforce.

Gunasekaran (1999) explained that organizations with agile workforce could help the organization with “increasing levels of quality and flexibility with lower costs and shorter product life cycles” (p. 96). Agile organizations support its workforce by hiring ‘knowledge workers’, giving ‘top management support and employee empowerment’ and continuing ‘training and education’ development (Gunasekaran, 1999). Dubey and Gunasekaran (2014) framework is next.

Dubey and Gunasekaran (2014) indicated that agile manufacturing framework includes six components. The components are ‘Technologies’, ‘Empowerment’, and ‘Customer focus’, ‘Supplier relationship’, ‘Flexible manufacturing systems’ and ‘Organizational culture’ (Dubey & Gunasekaran, 2014). Technologies include ‘enterprise resource planning (ERP)’, ‘electronic commerce’, ‘real-time communication/execution systems’ and ‘robotics’ (Dubey & Gunasekaran, 2014). Technologies are the tool that employees use to share data about their market and react quickly to change (Dubey & Gunasekaran, 2014). Empowerment includes ‘internal source’, ‘everyone’s involvement’, ‘cooperation’, ‘delegation of authority’ and ‘mutual trust’ (Dubey & Gunasekaran, 2014). Moreover, Dubey and Gunasekaran (2014) wrote, “Empowerment of workforce plays a significant role in achieving the desired agility” (p. 2148). Customer focus incorporates ‘voice of customers (VOC)’, ‘product quality’, ‘product reliability’, ‘customer satisfaction’ and ‘service after sales’ (Dubey & Gunasekaran, 2014). Customers’ input could help the organization improve the quality of their products (Dubey & Gunasekaran, 2014). Supplier relationship is significant; since, it comprises of ‘collaborative planning forecasting and replenishment (CPFR)’, ‘information sharing’, ‘risk sharing’ and ‘strategic partner’ (Dubey and Gunasekaran, 2014). Flexible manufacturing systems consist of ‘product flexibility’, ‘volume flexibility’ and ‘mix flexibility’ (Dubey & Gunasekaran, 2014).

Additionally, Dubey and Gunasekaran (2014) emphasized, “New product flexibility is an important feature of flexibility when technologies are evolving and customer demand is highly uncertain” (p.2150). In relation to organizational culture, an agile organization embraces ‘innovation and risk taking’, ‘attention to detail’, ‘people orientation’, ‘stability’ and ‘team orientation’ (Dubey & Gunasekaran, 2014). Consequently, all organizations could adapt agile characteristics, which leads to Worley and Lawler (2010) framework.

Worley and Lawler (2010) declared, “agile organizations are characterized by “a robust strategy, an adaptable organization design, shared leadership and identity, and value-creating capabilities” (p. 194). Agile characteristics could be adapted in different settings. Worley and Lawler (2010) wrote that a robust strategy “is characterized by its ability to generate results under varying environmental conditions” (p. 194). An organization could achieve ‘robust strategy’ by impressing ‘shared purpose’, ‘robust intent’ and ‘strong future focus’ (Worley & Lawler, 2010). Worley and Lawler (2010) explained adaptable organizational design as follows, “Agile organizations have designs that can adapt quickly in response to internal and external pressures for change or shifts in strategic intent” (p. 195). ‘Adaptable organizational design’ include ‘structural flexibility’, ‘shared power’, ‘information transparency’, ‘development orientation’, and ‘flexible rewards’ (Worley & Lawler, 2010). Moreover, Worley and Lawler (2010) viewed leadership as alteration of “the organization’s thinking from leadership as an individual trait to leadership as an organization capacity” (p. 196). ‘Leadership and identity’ are sustainable through ‘shared leadership’ and ‘change-friendly identity’ (Worley & Lawler, 2010). In addition, Worley and Lawler (2010) clarified that ‘value-creating capabilities’ can assist organizations in continuing their agility. ‘Value-creating capabilities’ support ‘change

capability’, ‘learning capability’ and ‘innovation capability’ (Worley & Lawler, 2010). The next sections will overview the methods of evaluating agility

Evaluating Agility

Agility is evaluated in many different methods and this section will overview the agility assessments of Dove (1999), Lin, Chiu and Tseng (2006), Ganguly et al. (2009), Worley and Lawler (2009) and Dubey and Gunasekaran (2014).

Dove (1999) framework assesses the agility of a system and revolves around four dimensions. The dimensions in order are cost, time, quality and scope. In addition, the dimensions are evaluated in that order (Dove, 1999). As Dove (1999) stated “These four metric dimensions were also found to have a natural order in priority and mastery as an organization became more proficient at change, and this is reflected in the structure of the maturity framework” (p. 22). Another framework to measure agility is Lin, Chiu and Tseng (2006) ‘The fuzzy agility evaluation (FAE) framework’.

Lin, Chiu and Tseng (2006) stated, “The fuzzy agility evaluation (FAE) frameworks composed of two major parts” (p. 357). The parts are ‘agility capabilities’ and ‘agility drivers’ (Lin et al., 2006). ‘Agility capabilities’ includes ‘responsiveness’, ‘competency’, and ‘flexibility and quickness’ (Lin et al., 2006). Developing these competencies could benefit an organization on utilizing the agility drivers. Moreover, ‘agility drivers’ reflects ‘change in marketplace’, ‘change in competition’, ‘change in customer desire’, ‘change in technology’ and ‘change in social factors’ (Lin et al., 2006). Similarly, Ganguly et al. (2009) used three metrics to measure agility. The metrics are ‘market share’, ‘responsiveness’ and ‘cost effectiveness’ (Ganguly et al., 2009). Another evaluation framework is ‘built to change’ by (Worley & Lawler, 2009). This framework centers on four features (Worley & Lawler, 2009). The features are ‘robust strategy’,

‘an adaptable organization design’, ‘shared leadership’, and ‘change capability’ (Worley & Lawler, 2009). As stated previously Dubey and Gunasekaran (2014) agile manufacturing framework consists of six components, which are ‘Technologies’, ‘Empowerment’, ‘Customer focus’, ‘Supplier relationship’, ‘Flexible manufacturing systems’ and ‘Organizational culture’.

The following table summarizes the authors’ agility frameworks.

Table 1

Agility Frameworks

Authors	Agility Frameworks
Dove (1999)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cost • Time • Quality • Scope
Lin, Chiu and Tseng (2006)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responsiveness • Competency • Flexibility • Quickness
Ganguly et al. (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Market Share • Responsiveness • Cost Effectiveness
Worley and Lawler (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Robust Strategy • Adaptable Organization Design • Shared Leadership • Change Capability
Dubey and Gunasekaran (2014)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Technologies • Empowerment • Customer Focus • Supplier Relationship • Flexible Manufacturing Systems • Organizational Culture

Organizational Agility Section Summary

Organizational agility is the organization’s ability to react and adapt to the continuous changing environment. Many scholars and practitioners define organizational agility similarly.

As a result, all the definitions center on adaptability, flexibility, reconfiguration, and the rate of

response to change. Moreover, organizational agility could be characterized and measured from different perspectives. In brief, agile organizations have employees and recourse that are flexible and ready to change, and the technological infrastructure to support that change. The next section will discuss the literature review regarding organizational change.

Organizational Change

Organizational change is a field of study that emphasizes on altering the organizations to accomplish a specific outcome. Biedenbach and Söderholm (2008) stated, “In the arena of hyper competition, organizations are required to continuously create new sources of competitive advantages to mitigate the competitors’ advantages” (p. 124). In addition, Schein (2010) explained, “change occurs when leaders perceive some problem that need fixing or identify some new goals that need to be achieved” (p. 299). Several scholars indicate that organizational change can have an effect beyond the organization itself. Wruck (2000) called that type of change productive change. Wruck (2000) defined the idea when he stated, “Productive change is change that creates value for the organization and its owners, and in doing so create value for society” (p. 269). In addition, change affects all types of organizations. Tsoukas and Chia (2002) indicated that change is a natural state of any organization lifecycle. Al-Haddad and Kotnour (2015) added, “We are living today in a constantly growing global business environment, where change has become the norm for organizations to sustain their success and existence” (p. 234).

Moreover, Jones (2010) defines organizational change, as “the process by which organizations move from their present state to some desired future state to increase their effectiveness” (p. 270). Moving from one form to another form required the alteration of the organizational processes. Kotter (2006) explained that change is aiming to “make fundamental changes in how business is conducted in order to help cope with a new, more challenging market

environment” (p. 2). Neves (2009) clarified that the objective of change is to alter old traits with new ones. Ultimately, every organization has to adapt since the environment is always changing. Miller (2004) wrote “Change is changing: it is becoming more frequent, radical and complex” (p. 9). Battilana, Gilmartin, Sengul, Pache and Alexander (2010) stated “change should be considered as a complex multi-dimensional task composed of different activities” (p. 434). Additionally, Weeks, Roberts, Chonko and Jones (2004) indicated that “the rate of change affecting business continues to accelerate, organizations must strive to develop and implement change initiatives” (p. 7). For that reason, organizational change emphasizes methods of modifying an organization. Burgess (1994) stated, “Much of the management of change literature concentrates on implementation process” (p. 29).

Consequently, organizations have to adapt new processes at rapid speeds and adjust frequently. Zeira and Avedisian (1989) wrote, “Successful change means achieving or improving competitive advantage by revealing environmental opportunities and weaknesses as well as internal strengths and weaknesses” (p. 32). Change can be successful when large members of an organization are pushing for the change. Kim and Mauborgne (2006) explained this phenomenon as the theory of tipping points. Kim and Mauborgne (2006) wrote:

The theory of tipping points, which has its roots in epidemiology, is well known; it hinges on the insight that in any organization, once the beliefs and energies of a critical mass of people are engaged, conversion to a new idea will spread like an epidemic, bringing about fundamental change very quickly. (p. 24)

Gladwell (2002) explained that tipping points have three features. The features according to Gladwell (2002) are “one, contagiousness; two, the fact that little causes can have big effects; and three, that change happens not gradually but at one dramatic moment” (p. 9). The theory of

tipping points indicates that ideas that advance to become a force of change are categorized into planned change and unplanned or emergent change.

On planned change, Jones (2010) explained, “The goal of planned organizational change is to find new or improved ways of using resources and capabilities to increase an organization’s ability to create value” (p. 270). Additionally, Kotter (2006) illustrated that change contains several stages over time. Alternatively, unplanned or emergent change is a change that evolves over the organizational life cycle. Van, Aarts and Van (2011) wrote, “Planning is about change, but not all change is planned” (p. 145). The following section will expand on planned change followed by a survey of unplanned or emergent change.

Planned Change

Planned change is a systematic method of implementing change throughout an organization using a specific set of steps (Kotter, 2006; Van et al., 2011; Woerkum, Aarts & Grip, 2007). Van et al. (2011) wrote that planned change “gear activities, via a carefully designed strategy, to well-chosen outcomes, to enhance affectivity as well as efficiency” (p. 144). Woerkum et al. (2007) added, “Planning is widely considered to be related to goal setting and finding the means to achieve these goals” (p. 847). In addition, Van, Groeneveld and Kuipers (2014) wrote, “The planned approach to change is based on the assumption that organizations are stable entities” (p. 173). Gilley, Gilley and McMillan (2009) explained that change could be “transitional, transformational, or developmental” (p. 76). Transitional and transformational are planned change. Gilley et al. (2009) wrote, “Transitional change, the most common, improves the current state through minor, gradual changes in people, structure, procedures, or technology” (p. 76). Henderson (2002) added “Mergers, acquisitions, global

competition, and new technology are driving forces that demand rapid transformational changes if organizations are to survive in an environment of discontinuous change” (p. 186).

An organization can change through many methods. Moreover, Lewin’s field theory was the foundation of planned change (Burnes & Cooke, 2013). In addition, Burnes and Cooke (2013) further explained that “field theory allows individuals and groups to explore, understand and learn about themselves and how they perceive the world and how those around them perceive it” (p. 420). Other Lewin’s planned change contributions are group dynamics, action research and three-step model (Burnes, 2004). Lewin (1946) explained that action research emphasis on two actions, confronting the problem and acting to solve it. Similarly, Kotter (2006) eight steps of change is a linear approach to planned change. The change starts with ‘establishing a sense of urgency’ and concludes with ‘institutionalizing new approaches’ (Kotter, 2006).

Another example of planned change approach is Senge’s (2006) fifth discipline. Senge’s (2006) fifth discipline includes system thinking, personal mastery, mental models, shared vision and team learning. The five disciplines support one another; as well as implemented as a group. As Senge (2006) explained, “It is vital that the five disciplines develop as an ensemble” (p. 11). Similarly, Bridges (2003) created a change plan but unlike other organizational change theorists, he saw change as a transition. Bridges (2009) wrote the following: “Change is situational... Transition, on the other hand, is psychological; it is a three-phase process that people go through as they internalize and come to terms with the details of the new situation that the change brings about” (p. 3). Table two shows the linear change models of Senge (2006), Kotter (2006) and Bridges (2009) transitional change. The next section will clarify unplanned or emergent change.

Table 2

Examples of Planned Change

Model	Steps
Senge's (2006) Fifth Discipline	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. System Thinking 2. Personal Mastery 3. Mental Models 4. Shared Vision 5. Team Learning
Kotter (2006) Eight Steps of Change	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Establish a Sense of Urgency 2. Forming a Powerful Guiding Coalition 3. Creating a Vision 4. Communication the Vision 5. Empowering Others to Act on the Vision 6. Planning for and Creating Short-Term Wins 7. Consolidating Improvements and Producing Still More Change 8. Institutionalizing New Approaches
Bridges (2009) Managing Transitions	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Letting Go 2. The Neutral Zone 3. The New Beginning

Unplanned or Emergent Change

Unplanned or emergent change can be a result of different development through an organization. Biedenbach and Söderholm (2008) wrote, “rational approaches and planned organizational change endeavors are less likely to be appropriate in a fast changing and unpredictable environment” (p. 124). Burnes (2005) further explained that unplanned or emergent change can be an outcome of “change as being a process whereby individual parts of an organization deal incrementally and separately with one problem and one goal at a time” (p. 76). The main source of emergent change is new alterations in the organization environment. Bamford and Forrester (2003) explained that emergent change is the result of “the uncertainty of the environment that makes planned change inappropriate and emergent change more pertinent” (p. 548). Similarly, Van et al. (2014) added that “the planned approach is primarily aimed at achieving a predetermined outcome, the outcome of an emergent change process is not defined,

although a general direction is known” (pp. 173-174). Weick (2000) stated that emergent change involves no planned change; nonetheless, it consists of continuous adjustments and adaptations. Gilley et al. (2009) clarified emergent change or “Developmental change stems from an overall philosophy of growth and development that creates a culture of building competitive advantage through continuous dynamic yet manageable change” (p. 77). Pettigrew (2000) added that emergent change “may be breeding grounds for learning and experimentation and can be compatible with local needs for autonomy, control, and swifter implementation” (p. 246). Organizational change capability is next.

Organizational Change Capability

Change capability represents the tools an organization utilizes to alter itself. Thames and Webster (2008) explained change capabilities as “activities an organization does to create value” (p. 50). In addition, change capability must evolve to reflect the current state of the organization’s experience. Burnes (2005) wrote, “organizations must develop the ability to change themselves continuously in a fundamental manner” (p. 76). Biedenbach and Söderholm (2008) clarified organization capability as “crucial for the organization to develop excellence in their adaptive capability to understand what is going on and how to respond” (p. 124). Moreover, capable organizations can apply change without affecting their daily procedures. Meyer and Stensaker (2006) added “organizations are capable of implementing large-scale changes without compromising daily operations or subsequent change processes” (p. 218). McGuinness and Morgan (2005) explained that change capability have three elements that could help introduce an effective change program. The elements are “a suitable foundation for incessant change; the ability to shape it; and sustaining the energy of it” (McGuinness & Morgan, pp. 1313, 2005).

Consequence, an important part of change capability, is the organizational capacity for change, which is the subject of the next segment of the literature review.

Organizational Capacity for Change

Organizational change capacity is the sum of all capabilities the organization uses to implement change. Judge and Elenkov (2006) stated, “Organizational capacity for change (OCC) is defined as a broad and dynamic organizational capability that allows the enterprise to adapt old capabilities to new threats and opportunities as well as create new capabilities” (p. 894). Therefore, capacity for change is highly adaptive. Organizations can continuously produce effective results by sustaining and refining change and functional capacities (Meyer & Stensaker, 2006). Moreover, Soparnot (2011) defined organizational change capacity as follow:

change capacity is the ability of the company to produce matching outcomes (content) for environmental (external context) and/or organizational (internal context) evolution, either by reacting to the changes (adaptation) or by instituting them (pro-action) and implementing the transition brought about by these changes (process) in the heart of the company. (p. 642)

Organizational readiness to change could also help organizations learn from experiences and adapt new insights to other change initiatives. Miller (2004) wrote, “Each change initiative must deliver the intended benefits and contribute to developing overall change capacity” (p. 9). In addition, there is a difference between readiness for change and capability of change. Judge, Naoumova and Douglas (2009) clarified that “organizational readiness for change is focused exclusively on employee attitudes toward change, while OCC examines employee attitudes, leadership capabilities, and organizational infrastructure for bringing about change” (p. 1740).

Organizational readiness for change is an extensively researched subdivision of organizational change. Readiness for change is the topic of the following section.

Organizational Readiness for Change

Organizational readiness for change is a state in which an organization must attempt to achieve in order to alter itself successfully (Bouckenooghe, Devos & Van den Broeck, 2009; Weiner, Amick & Lee, 2008). Additionally, readiness to change could help an organization transform from its current form to a new form (Weiner et al., 2008). Bouckenooghe et al. (2009) added, “When readiness for change exists, the organization is primed to embrace change and resistance is reduced” (p. 561). Moreover, scholars have emphasized that individual members of the organization have to support the change in order for the change plan to be successful (Bernerth, 2004; Choi, 2011; Eby, Adams, Russell & Gaby, 2000; Holt, Armenakis, Feild & Harris, 2007; Jansen, 2000). As Holt et al. (2007) explained that readiness for change mirrors the mutual, cognitive, and collective individuals’ emotional agreement or disagreement to the proposed change. Conner (1992) stated, “People can only change when they have the capacity to do so” (p.127). Holt et al. (2007) define readiness for change as follows:

a comprehensive attitude that is influenced simultaneously by the content (i.e., what is being changed), the process (i.e., how the change is being implemented), the context (i.e., circumstances under which the change is occurring), and the individuals (i.e., characteristics of those being asked to change) involved. (p. 235)

Similarly, Bernerth (2004) explained, “readiness is defined as a state of mind reflecting a willingness or receptiveness to changing the way one thinks” (p. 39). Jansen (2000) wrote, “Readiness for change considers an organization's capacity for making change and the extent to which individuals perceive the change as needed” (p. 53). Correspondingly, Rafferty and Simons

(2006) stated that researchers found changing individuals' views or thinking is the foundation of producing willingness to change. Choi (2011) "employees form assumptions, expectations, and impressions regarding the need for organizational change and the extent to which such changes are likely to have positive implications for them as individuals and for the wider organization"(p. 481). Eby et al. (2000) added, "readiness for change is a conceptualized in terms of an individual's perception of a specific facet of his or her work environment – the extent to which the organization is perceived to be ready to take on large-scale change" (p. 422).

Additionally, readiness requires change agents capable of implanting a change plan. Jansen (2000) further clarified that change agent could create readiness for change by comprising proactive efforts to affect the changing organization members' behavior, opinions and attitudes about change. In contrast, organizational change constantly faces resistance, which leads to the resistance to change section of this literature review.

Resistance to Change

Resistance to change is a study of the negative reaction to change that an organization's members experience during a change plan (Jaros, 2010; Meyer & Stensaker, 2006; Val & Fuentes, 2003). Additionally, Erwin and Garman (2010) explained the concept of residence to change as: "multi-dimensional involving how individuals behave in response to change (behavioral dimension), what they think about the change (cognitive dimension), and how they feel about the change (affective dimension)" (p. 42).

Moreover, resisting change can affect planned changed negatively. Val and Fuentes (2003) wrote, "resistance to change is generally higher in strategic change than in evolutionary ones" (p. 153). Resistance to change is an incidence that delays change at the beginning or during the change process (Val et al., 2003). Jaros (2010) further clarified that "...unfortunately,

successful organizational change efforts are ‘rare’, with most failing to fulfill their promise” (p. 105). Conner (1992) added, “resistance during a major change is inevitable” (p. 128). One reason of the resistance is the unwillingness of individuals to change their behaviors (Garvin & Roberto, 2005). Meyer and Stensaker (2006) added “managers consistently neglect or underestimate the adverse effects of implementing change” (p. 219). Similarly, individuals’ perceptions are an essential part of organizational change and resistance to that change (Macri, Tagliaventi and Bertolotti, 2002). Next is a summary of the organizational change segment of this literature review.

Organizational Change Section Summary

Organizational change involves altering an organization to cope with change. Change can consist of planned or emergent change. Senge’s (2006), Kotter (2006) and Bridges (2009) theories are examples of linear change. However, change can be unpredictable and in many cases unplanned or emergent. Therefore, an organization must first create a culture that is ready for change. Readiness for change is accomplished by building an organization capable of altering itself in response to changing market conditions. The literature review will continue with a survey of organizational learning.

Organizational Learning

Organizations that are not capable of learning to solve their problems internally cannot survive in today’s global economy. Goh (2003) stated, “A learning organization is developed not by random chance but by its leader’s intervention to establish the internal conditions for learning” (p. 217). Moreover, Argyris and Schon (1978) found that an organization’s main disability is when an error is found within the organization and cannot be discovered or solved giving the current organizational systems and processes set in place. Therefore, organizations

could experience difficulty operating in the future due to their inability to learn and grow from within. Dove (1999) added, “learning is the process that develops knowledge” (p. 18). Dodgson (1993) argues that organizations learn to improve their competitive advantage, increase their products output, and innovate new products to compete in uncertain markets. Crocitto and Youssef (2003) wrote, “Culture is formed from the collective history of a company’s decisions, actions, symbols and philosophy. It represents organizational learning over time” (p. 392). Schein (1996) found there are three cultures within most organizations: the operator culture, the engineering culture and the executive culture. The operator culture is based on employees learning how to produce results based on operational accomplishment. The engineering culture is a culture where employees learn to design and manufacture a product. The executive culture is the culture of the management team leading the organization (Schein, 1996). Additionally, Schein (1996) concluded that organizational learning could not occur efficiently until the three cultures can interact with a free flow of information and a high level of trust.

In addition, Peters (1996) saw that members of a learning organization learn how to master their job, generate alignment within their organizations, and look for opportunities. Heraty (2004) explained that there are two methods of understanding organizational learning. One method emphasizes the members’ learning ability, where the other saw that organizational learning is the collective learning of all its members (Heraty, 2004)

Giesecke and McNeil (2004) declared that organizations have to adapt and changes accordingly from becoming a knowing organization, which focuses on one way to conduct business combined by a specific never changing set of rules and procedures, or an understanding organization where the culture becomes the greatest obstacle to change. Holt et al. (2007) wrote, “a learning organization is one in which employees are likely to embrace continuous change” (p.

234). Moreover, Garvin, Edmondson and Gino (2008) explained that learning organizations can adjust to impromptu changes in their environment faster than their competition. Therefore, becoming a learning organization is not only a logical step to improve the organization; it becomes a strategy to stay competitive in the marketplace. The following is an overview of the definitions of the learning organization.

Defining the Learning Organization

Defining a learning organization has challenge numerous scholars. Some scholars described a learning organization from a behavior perspective; others defined it as an organization that produce or transferee knowledge (Argyris & Schon, 1977; Pedler, Burgoyne & Boddell, 1991; Chiva & Alegre, 2009; Garvin, 1993; Goh, 2003; Nonaka, 1991; Romme & Dillen, 1997; Senge, 2006). Moreover, Argyris and Schon (1977) defined organizational learning as the following:

Organizational learning occurs when members of the organization act as learning agents for the organization, responding to changes in the internal and external environments of the organization by detecting and correcting errors in organizational theory-in-use, and embedding the results of their inquiry images and shared maps of the organization. (p. 29)

Another method of defining a learning organization is a knowledge-creating company. Nonaka (1991) explains that knowledge-creating companies are companies where a new way of thinking is produce and distribute throughout the organization to create new services and products. Pedler et al. (1991) recognized a learning organization as “an organization that facilitates the learning of all its members and continuously transforms itself in order to meet its strategic goals” (p. 1). Garvin (1993) defined the learning organization as “an organization

skilled at creating, acquiring and transferring knowledge and at modifying its behavior to reflect knowledge and insight” (p. 80). Romme and Dillen (1997) wrote that processes and procedures are results of organizational learning from its members and storing new knowledge in different forms. Goh (2003) wrote, “A continuous learning organization is an organization where employees are constantly encouraged to gain new knowledge, try new approaches to solving problems, obtain feedback, and learn new behaviors as a result of the experimentation” (p.216).

Senge (2006) defines a learning organization as:

organizations where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire , where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured , where collective aspiration is set free , and where people are continually learning how to learn together. (p. 3)

Chiva and Alegre (2009) defined the concept as “organizational and managerial characteristics that facilitate the organizational learning process or allow an organization to learn and thus develop a learning organization” (p. 323). Additionally, organizational learning and learning organizations is use interchangeable in the past; however, the following scholars differentiate between the two concepts. Dodgson (1993) articulates the difference between organizational learning, which is learning at the individual’s level and learning organization, as follows:

Organizational learning is as natural as learning in individuals the ‘learning organization’ can be distinguished as the one that moves beyond this ‘natural’ learning, and whose goals are to thrive by systematically using its learning to progress beyond mere adaptation. (p. 380)

Similarly, Ortenblad (2001) differentiates between the two ideas. Ortenblad (2001) explained that organizational learning is the development of learning within an organization; in contrast, a learning organization is a type of an organization. Ortenblad (2001) further clarified that learning organizations could not be achieved without intervention; while, organizational learning is learning that takes place naturally within any organization.

In contrast, Drew and Smith (1995) have a different point of view than Dodgson and Ortenblad (2001). Drew and Smith (1995) argue that a learning organization is not a category of an organization, but rather a metaphor. Drew and Smith (1995) defined the concept as follows: “A learning organization is a social system whose members have learned conscious communal processes” (p. 5). Next, the literature review will discuss how an organization learns.

How does an Organization Learn?

Organizational learning occurs at the individual level initially. As Giesecke and McNeil (2004) explained that “In learning organizations individuals move from fearing mistakes to using problems and errors as information to inform decision making, improve processes and create success” (p. 56). In addition, two behaviors utilized by employees to comprehend what they learn (Argyris & Schon, 1978). Single-loop learning occurs when employees find issues and try to solve them given their companies’ current processes and procedures. On the other hand, double-loop learning is a process of looking for solutions of an error outside the organization’s current processes and procedures (Argyris & Schon, 1978). Moreover, double-loop learning would most likely result in producing new processes and procedures to deal with difficulties in the future (Argyris & Schon, 1978). Additionally, Wang and Ahmed (2001) explained that triple-loop learning occurs when an organization monitors their current products, services and systems to identify

future opportunities. In contrast to single-loop and double-loop, which are reactive to current errors.

In addition, Giesecke and McNeil (2004) show that learning organizations focus on anticipatory learning, which occurs when members of the organization, use new information in their work to achieve the organization's goals and vision. Marsick and Watkins (2003) wrote that organizations should encourage its members to learn and use what they learn to advance the organization. Additionally, De Gues (1988) states, "the ability to learn faster than your competition may be the only sustainable competitive advantage" (p. 71). Wang and Ahmed (2003) viewed a learning organization as the collective knowledge of its members. Learning capacity and capability are next.

Learning Capacity and Capability

Learning Capacity

Martin (2000) defined learning capacity as the ability of employees to identify and solve issues then learn from their experiences. Bess, Perkins McCown (2011) explained organizational learning capacity as "(1) internal and (2) external organizational systems alignment, and promoting a culture of learning, including (3) an emphasis on exploration and information, (4) open communication, (5) staff empowerment, and (6) support for professional development" (p. 35). Learning capacity that develop and produce better outcomes include an organization's culture, practices and collective mental models (Teo, Wang, Wei, Sia and Lee, 2006). Dibella, Nevis and Gould (1996) described "organizational learning as the capacity (or processes) within an organization to maintain or improve performance based on experience" (p. 363). The following section overviews learning capability.

Learning Capability

Prieto and Revilla (2006) stated that while numerous organizational learning scholars demonstrate the significance of learning capability, no clear definition is established for the subject. Moreover, Hull and Covin (2010) defined learning capability as an organizational competence to produce new products using innovative insights or newly obtained capabilities. Additionally, Limpibuntern and Johri (2009) defined “organizational learning capability as an intrinsic ability of an organization because of which the organization creates, enriches, and utilizes knowledge to outperform its competitors in terms of its competitiveness and performance” (p. 328). Teo et al. (2006) specified that organizations with the capabilities to learn could adopt to new technologies faster than organizations lacking learning capabilities.

In addition, organizations can acquire competitive advantage by adapting learning capabilities that include assets and perceivable or unperceivable capacities (Alikhani and Fazlollahtabar, 2014). Weerawardena (2003) stated, “Learning processes must be translated into the acquisition of managerial competencies that permit the organization to be more efficient than competitors” (p. 411). Correspondingly, Prieto and Revilla (2006) “conceptualize learning capability as the potential to explore and exploit knowledge through learning flows that make possible the development, evolution and use of knowledge stocks that enact organizations and their members to add value to the business” (p. 169). Moreover, focusing on current or created competencies could assist organizations in developing its learning abilities (Dibella, Nevis and Gould, 1996).

As Lin, McDonough, Lin and Lin (2013) indicated that “learning capability is defined as the combination of practices that promote intraorganizational learning among employees, partnerships with other organizations that enable the spread of learning, and an open culture

within the organization that promotes and maintains sharing of knowledge” (p. 262). Other researchers observe learning capability from a market protective. As Weerawardena (2003) wrote, “market-focused learning capability is defined as the capacity of the firm relative to its competitors, to acquire, disseminate, unlearn and integrate market information to value creating activities of the firm” (p. 412). In addition, Yeung (1999) identify three elements to creating learning capability.

The elements according to Yeung (1999) are ‘generation of ideas’, ‘generalization of those ideas’ and ‘identification of learning disabilities’. Moreover, organizational with significant learning capabilities can apply new insights in different settings. Cashman (2008) explained these capabilities as learning agility. Cashman (2008) defined learning agility as “a complex set of skills that allows us to learn something in one situation, situation A, and apply it in a completely different situation, situation B” (p. 108). Likewise, learning capabilities integrate an organization’s previous and new concepts to create products more rapidly than the competition (Yeung, 1999). Following is an overview of tools to build the learning organization.

Creating a Learning Organization

Nonaka (1991) the first step of creating a learning organization is to create a learning environment. Nonaka (1991) added that availability of knowledge to all parts of the organization is essential. In addition, Nonaka (1991) stated that knowledge formation and transformation should not be the focus of one of the business units but should be the focus of everyone in the organization. In addition, Goh (1998) developed five building blocks to develop a learning organization.

Goh’s (1998) five building blocks are ‘clarity and support for the mission’, ‘shared leadership and involvement’, ‘culture that encourages experimentation’, ‘ability to transfer

knowledge throughout the organization’ and ‘teamwork and cooperation’. The first block is ‘clarity and support for the mission’ where members of the organization are all align to achieve the organization’s vision (Goh, 1998). The second block is ‘shared leadership and involvement’, which occurs when leaders involve members of the organization by empowering them to take actions and make them accountable for their performances (Goh, 1998). The third block is ‘culture that encourages experimentation’ and challenges the members to try new techniques to solve problems (Goh, 1998). The fourth block is the ‘ability to transfer knowledge throughout the organization’; therefore, all members can benefit from the new information (Goh, 1998). The final block is ‘teamwork and cooperation’, which encourages teams to resolve issues and produce insights (Goh, 1998). Similarly, Senge (2006) described five disciplines that create a learning organization.

Senge’s (2006) five disciplines are ‘team learning’, ‘shared vision’, ‘mental models’, ‘personal mastery’ and ‘system thinking’ (Senge, 2006). First, ‘team learning’ is the team ability to acquire and develop knowledge (Senge, 2006). Second, ‘shared vision’ is developing a picture of the future that everyone in the organization is aligned together to achieve (Senge, 2006). Third, ‘mental models’ are the assumptions that members of the organization have about the organization (Senge, 2006). ‘Personal mastery’ is individual learning that emphasis achieving personal goals (Senge, 2006). Finally, ‘system thinking’ is looking at a situation from a broad point of view where small systems are collectively creating the big picture (Senge, 2006). In addition, Garvin et al. (2008) indicated that a learning organization is created by three building blocks.

Garvin et al. (2008) three building blocks are ‘supportive learning environment’, ‘concrete learning processes’ and ‘leadership that reinforces learning’. ‘Supportive learning environment’

is an environment where employees are engaged, share their opinions and accept different points of view of employees (Garvin et al., 2008). ‘Concrete learning processes’ develops out of gathering, interpreting and distributing new knowledge to advance the organization. ‘Leadership that reinforces learning’ encourages employees to reflect on current organizational difficulties and become part of the decision-making process to solve these issues (Garvin et al., 2008). The following table displays examples of frameworks of building a learning organization based on Goh (1998), Senge (2006) and Garvin et al. (2008):

Table 3

Examples of frameworks of building a learning organization

Theories	Steps
Goh’s (1998) five building blocks	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Clarity And Support For The Mission 2. Shared Leadership And Involvement 3. Culture That Encourages Experimentation 4. Ability To Transfer Knowledge Throughout The Organization 5. Teamwork And Cooperation
Senge’s (2006) Fifth Discipline	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. System Thinking 2. Personal Mastery 3. Mental Models 4. Shared Vision 5. Team Learning
Garvin et al. (2008) three building blocks	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Supportive Learning Environment 2. Concrete Learning Processes 3. Leadership That Reinforces Learning

Organizational Learning Section Summary

This section of the literature review centered on organizational learning. In addition, the section included an overview of organizational learning definitions, how an organization learns, learning capacity, learning capability and tools of build a learning organization. Leadership is the next topic in the literature review.

Leadership

The essence of leadership is two entities individual or individuals influencing and followers that are affected by that influence (Bolman & Deal, 2008; French, 1956; House, 2004; Kotter, 1988; Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Northhouse, 2010; Robbins & Judge, 2012). French (1956) stated “leadership consists of a member's ability to influence others both directly and indirectly” (p. 191). Kotter (1988) wrote, “Leadership is defined as the process of moving a group (or groups) in some direction through mostly noncoercive means” (p. 5). Moreover, Bass, Bass and Bass (2008) described leadership as “an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restructuring of the situation and of the perception and expectations of the members” (p. 25). Kouzes and Posner (2007) identify leadership as a connection among followers electing to follow, and individuals desire to lead. Yukl (2002) define leadership as following:

Leadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how it can be done effectively, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish the shared objectives. (p. 7)

Bolman and Deal (2008) defined leadership as a practice of combining beliefs, emotions and actions to influence others. In addition, a leader could influence a collection of people to attain mutual goals and realize shared objectives (Northhouse, 2010). Correspondingly, Robbins and Judge (2012) view leadership as the capability to inspire individuals toward specific ideas or objectives. Leadership occurs when leaders are encouraging followers to take actions to achieve certain aims that demonstrate their principles, inspirations and desires (Burns, 2012). House and Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Program (2004) stated, “The GLOBE definition of leadership is *the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and*

enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organizations of which they are members” (p. 15). Seers, Keller and Wilkerson (2003) found that leadership is defined similarly among scholars. Seers et al. (2003) stated, “Across all categories, the consistent theme is that leadership involves a social phenomenon in which a person may exert power, persuade, direct a group or individual behavior, facilitate goal achievement, or otherwise influence other people” (p. 79). Additionally, leadership is identifying, comprehending, challenging and reforming the perception of individuals (Higgs & Rowland, 2000). As Conner (1992) stated, “Effective leaders are capable of reframing the thinking of those whom they guide, enabling them to see that significant change are not only imperative but achievable” (p. 9). Influence is a fundamental character of leadership and the focus of the next section of this review.

Leadership Influence

Influence is an intricate part of the relationship between leaders and followers; in fact, leadership cannot be affective, if it lacks influence (Northhouse, 2010). As Maxwell (1998) stated simple, “Leadership is influence” (p. 17). Equally, Yukl (2002) wrote, “Influence is the essence of leadership” (p. 141). As a result, a leader is an individual with the highest influence within a group (Drath, 2001). Leaders create the highest influence by adding value to their followers. As Cashman (2008) wrote, “Leadership is authentic influence that creates value” (p. 24). Moreover, followers influence leaders as well. Bass et al. (2008) explained that leaders influence their followers, and followers influence their leaders. Furthermore, Bass et al. (2008) stated, “Successful leaders influence their followers and bring about change in their follower’s attitudes and behavior. In the same way, by accepting, modifying, or rejecting the influence, followers influence the leader’s subsequent behavior and attitudes” (p. 400). Leaders influence increase as their proximate to their followers’ decrease (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). As Schein

(2010) articulated, “the leader’s assumptions become shared and part of the culture of the organization” (p. 235). In addition, leaders’ decisions influence current and future followers (Hernandez, 2008). Bass (1997) explained that an important quality of a transformational leader is idealized influence. Bass (1997) explained idealized influence when he wrote:

Idealized Influence (Charisma)--leaders display conviction; emphasize trust; take stands on difficult issues; present their most important values; and emphasize the importance of purpose, commitment, and the ethical consequences of decisions. Such leaders are admired as role models generating pride, loyalty, confidence, and alignment around a shared purpose. (p. 133)

Moreover, followers express idealized influence through idolizing their leaders’ charismatic features (Dionisi et al., 2014). Zelenznik (1998) added, “Leadership inevitably requires using power to influence the thoughts and actions of other people” (p. 63). As a result, the comprehension of influence is enhanced by understating the source of influence, which is social power. Social power is the subject of the next section.

Influence and Social Powers

Social power is the principle of influence. Yukl (2002) defined power as “the absolute capacity of an individual agent to influence the behavior or attitudes of one or more designated target persons at a given point in time” (p. 142). In addition, social power is the capacity of leaders to act and receive collaborations from followers (Bass et al., 2008). Houghton, Neck and Manz (2003) stated, “traditional approach to team leadership, power and authority are invested in a single appointed leader who serves as the primary source of influence” (p. 125). French and Raven (1959) acknowledged that social power is categorized into ‘reward power’, ‘coercive power’, ‘legitimate power’, ‘referent power’ and ‘expert power’. Reward power is the ability to

benefit others (French & Raven, 1959). Coercive power is the capacity to correct behavior by disciplining (French & Raven, 1959). The source of influence in legitimate power is followers established beliefs of the legitimacy of the leader (French & Raven, 1959). Legitimate power can also mean positional power. As Conger (2000) indicated, “Positional power can have its greatest impact through alterations in the measurement and reward systems that span the corporation” (p. 109). Referent power is the desire of followers to follow the leader (French & Raven, 1959). Expert power manifest when a leader possesses knowledge that the follower lack and need (French & Raven, 1959). Next is an overview of transactional leadership.

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is characterized as a transaction among leaders and followers (Northouse, 2010). Burns (2012) explained that transactional leadership “occurs when one person take the initiative in making contact with others for the purpose of an exchange” (p. 57). Similarly, Burns (2012) added, “The exchange could be economic or political or psychological in nature” (p. 57). Moreover, transactional leaders obligate followers to undertake specific responsibilities or behaviors (Robbins & Judge, 2012). A transactional leader compensates followers for maintaining contracts and disciplines them for not upholding their agreements (Bass et al., 2008). Mayo, Meindl and Pastor (2003) added, “Transactional leadership occurs through an exchange among team members in which rewards and incentives are offered in exchange for effort and compliance” (p. 198). Cox, Pearce and Perry (2003) agreed when they wrote, “Transactional leadership entails influencing followers by strategically supplying reinforcement-praise, material rewards, or other valued outcomes-contingent on follower performance” (p. 56). Equally, transactional leader propositions endowments for obedience (Houghton et al., 2003). As a result, transactional leadership consists of followers’ submission to

leaders' wishes (Yukl, 2002). In addition, transactional leaders are categorized in four styles (Bass, 1990).

Bass's (1990) transactional leaders' characteristics are 'contingent reward', 'management by exception (active)', 'management by exception (passive)' and 'laissez-faire'. 'Contingent reward' is an exchange of rewards between the leader and the followers' contingent on the followers' performance (Bass, 1990). 'Management by exception' is the management observation of employees' responses to rules and adjusting their actions if needed (Bass, 1990). Additionally, 'management by exception' can be active or passive (Bass, 1990). Northhouse (2010) explained, "A leader using the active form of management-by-exception watches followers closely for mistakes or rule violations and then takes corrective action" (p. 181). In contrast, the passive leader only takes actions when difficulties or low performance occurs (Northhouse, 2010). 'Laissez-faire' occurs when the leader "abdicates responsibility, delays decisions, gives no feedback, and makes little effort to help followers satisfy their needs" (Northhouse, 2010, p. 182).

Additionally, Bass (1997) explained the difference between transactional and transformational leadership as follows:

The transactional-transformational paradigm views leadership as either a matter of contingent reinforcement of followers by a transactional leader or the moving of followers beyond their self-interests for the good of the group, organization, or society by a transformational leader. (p. 130)

The difference between transactional and transformational leadership is an important subject to understand the development of leadership studies. As a result, an overview of transformational leadership is the next section of the literature review.

Transformational Leadership

Yukl (1989) defined transformational leadership as “the process of influencing major changes in the attitudes and assumptions of organization members and building commitment for the organization's mission, objectives, and strategies” (p. 269). Transformational leadership consists of the interaction among leaders and followers who advance each other principles and inspirations (Burns, 2012). Transformational leadership emerges when leaders and followers develop relationships that rise both the leaders and their followers’ aspirations and morals (Northouse, 2010). Transformational leaders inspire individuals to liberate themselves of selfishness and aims to achieve greater objectives (Bass, 1997). Robbins and Judge (2012) indicated that leaders who are transformational “inspire followers to transcend their self-interest for the good of the organization and can have an extraordinary effect on their followers” (p. 160). Transformational leaders help their followers understand the impact of their actions and focus on actions that benefit the group as a whole. Bass et al. (2008) described transformational leader as an individual that “motivate followers to go beyond their self-interests for the benefit of the group, organization, or society” (p. 50)

Additionally, Bass (1990) explained that transformational leaders possess ‘charisma’, ‘inspiration’, ‘intellectual stimulation’ and ‘individualized consideration’. Northouse (2010) explained charisma as “a special gift that certain individuals possess that gives them capacity to do extraordinary things” (p. 173). Inspirational leaders communicate beliefs and purpose to the followers by simplifying the message (Bass, 1990). Bass’ (1990) ‘Intellectual stimulation’ is further explained by Northouse (2010) as “leadership that stimulates followers to be creative and innovative and to challenge their own beliefs and values as well as those of the leader and the organization” (p. 179). Moreover, ‘Individualized consideration’ is realized when leaders

give attention to employees' needs and development of each member of the organization (Bass, 1990). Cox et al. (2003) found additional characteristics of a transformational leader.

Cox et al. (2003) stated, "transactional leadership emphasizes rewards of immediate value, transformational leadership adopts a more symbolic emphasis on commitment, emotional engagement, or fulfillment of higher-order needs such as meaningful professional impact or desires to engage in breakthrough achievements"(p. 56). In addition, a significant characteristic of transformational leadership is to establish visions that expand followers' passionate reaction (Houghton et al., 2003). Transformational leadership could inspire shared leadership when team members' adapt superior commitment to the team's objective (Mayo et al., 2003). Moreover, shared leadership is the subject of the next section.

Shared Leadership

In shared leadership, power is not contracted with a particular leader but divided between members of a group (O'Toole, Galbraith and & Lawler, 2003). Shared leadership depended on influence distributed between individuals instead of a hierarchical leader (Cox et al., 2003). Fletcher and Käufer (2003) explained shared leadership as "leadership practices embedded in a system of interdependencies at different levels within the organization" (p. 21). Moreover, leadership within a group could be shared amongst individuals within an organization (Conger & Pearce, 2003). Shared leadership significance comes from the reallocation of leadership between people to maximize the benefits from each individual's strengths (Burke, Fiore & Salas, 2003). Houghton et al. (2003) wrote, "team members who are effective self-leaders will willingly, confidently and enthusiastically accept shared leadership roles and responsibilities" (p. 124). Correspondingly, Conger and Pearce (2003) defined shared leadership as "a dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to

the achievement of group or organizational goals or both” (p. 1). Shared leadership is accomplished by shared agreement between members of a team combined with communication, issues management and taking shared action (O’Toole, Galbraith & Lawler, 2002). Mayo et al. (2003) indicated that “Shared leadership occurs when members of the team attribute similar amount of influence to one another” (p. 205). Avolio, Sivasubramaniam, Murry, Jung and Garger (2003) found that successful shared leadership transpires once team members achieve tasks by mutually influencing one another. In addition, Seibert, Sparrowe and Liden (2003) agree when they wrote, “A core idea of the shared leadership point of view is that a request or influence attempt by one person, whether he or she is the formal leader or a peer, will be reinforced by the influence of the other group members” (p. 178). Shared leadership is effective if different members of a team have different tasks and responsibilities (O’Toole et al., 2003).

Leadership Section Summary

Leadership is the study of individual or individual influence on a group. This review surveyed leadership influence and social powers. In addition, three types of leadership were discussed, which are transactional, transformational and shared leadership.

Chapter 3: Research Design and Methodology

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study is to discover the relationship if any between independent variables (*change capability, learning capability and shared leadership*) and dependent variable (*organizational agility*). Organizational agility is a new field of study without a precise theoretical framework that explains the subject. In addition, this study is intended to understand the following:

1. The relationship between change capability and organizational agility.
2. The relationship between learning capability and organizational agility.
3. The relationship between shared leadership and organizational agility.

Consequently, the ultimate goal of this study is to understand how change capability, learning capability and shared leadership affect organizational agility. As a result, the study proposes the following model. The Organizational Agility Model is a model proposed and developed by the researcher of this dissertation. The proposed model is as follows:

The Organizational Agility Model

This suggested model displays the relationship between the following:

1. The relationship between organizational change and organizational agility.
2. The relationship between organizational learning and organizational agility.
3. The relationship between leadership and organizational agility.
4. The relationship between leadership, employees, and organizational agility.
5. The relationship between organizational design and organizational agility.

Figure 2 demonstrates the proposed Organizational Agility Model.

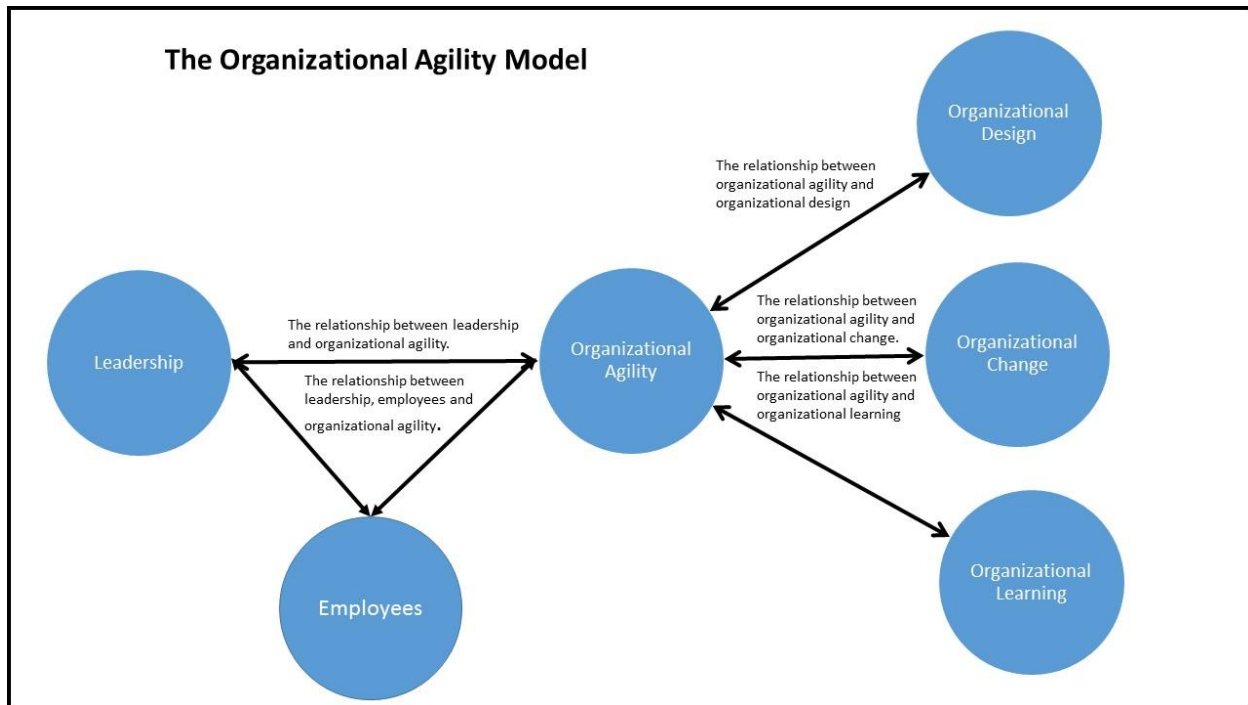


Figure 2. The organizational agility model.

Restatement of Research Questions

The fundamental questions this quantitative study intended to answer are the following:

- *To what extent, if any, is there a relationship between change capability and organizational agility?*
- *To what extent, if any, is there a relationship between learning capability and organizational agility?*
- *To what extent, if any, is there a relationship between shared leadership and organizational agility?*

Consequently, the research uses quantitative hypotheses, which according to Creswell (2009), “are predictions the researcher makes about the expected relationships among variables” (p. 132). The study has multiple hypotheses to measure if there is a relationship between the study independent variables (*change capability, learning capability and shared*

leadership) and dependent variable (*organizational agility*). Therefore, the null and alternative hypothesis statements are as follow:

- Ho1 There is no statistically significant relationship between change capability and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.
- Ha1 There is a statistically significant relationship between change capability and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.
- Ho2 There is no statistically significant relationship between learning capability and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.
- Ha2 There is a statistically significant relationship between learning capability and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.
- Ho3 There is no statistically significant relationship between shared leadership and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.
- Ha3 There is a statistically significant relationship between shared leadership and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.

Finding answers to these research questions combined with the hypotheses outcome will give the study an insight into understanding the relationship between change capability, learning capability, shared leadership and organizational agility.

Research Design

The study utilized a quantitative, non-experimental and post facto design to identify the correlation between the study variables. According to Kumar (2011), “the study is classified as quantitative if you want to quantify the variation in the phenomenon, situation, problem or issue” (p. 13). Using quantitative methods is essential to this study since the goal is to determine the interaction between the study independent and dependent variables. Creswell (2009) stated, “Independent variables are those that (probably) cause, influence, or affect outcomes” (p. 50). Additionally, Creswell (2009) explained that dependent variables are the consequences of the independent variables. The variables interaction study are observing to be non-controlled; hence,

the uses of the non-experimental method. Abbott (2011) explained that the experimental design is when a “researcher consciously changes the values of the study variable under controlled conditions and observes the effects on an outcomes variable” (p. 15). In contrast, in the non-experimental study, the researcher does not control the circumstances; nonetheless do observe the relationship between the variables of the study. Post facto is observing the variables after the effects have taken place. Abbott (2011) clarified that post facto, “means ‘after the fact’ ” (p. 153). The correlational approach is selected since the research objective is to determine if there are correlations between study dependent and independent variables. Kumar (2011) wrote that “The main emphasis in a correlational study is to discover or establish the existence of a relationship/association/interdependence between two or more aspects of a situation” (p. 10). The study used a validated assessment instrument to measure existence or nonexistence of the relationship. This instrument is appropriate for this study since it measure the characteristics of an agile organization. The data is collected by utilizing an online survey. Creswell (2009) described “Survey research provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population” (p. 12). Moreover, giving that the study is non-experimental an online survey is a suitable tool for the research. Muijs (2011) wrote, “Non-experimental methods include survey research, historical research, observation, and analysis of existing data sets” (p. 30). An online survey gives participants more freedom to take the questionnaire at their convenience as well as keep the anonymity of the participants. The research will survey employees and managers across different industry. Surveys can have disadvantages such as receiving low response rate. Kumar (2011) wrote, “Questionnaires are notorious for their low response rates” (p. 149). The survey explains the research purpose to the participants and ends by asking participants consent before taking the survey. The researcher will

provide his email to the participants to answer any questions about the survey. All data taken from the survey will be confidential, will be stored on a password protected flash drive for five years, and then discarded.

Population

Research population is a group a researcher utilizes to generalize their findings of a study (Muijs, 2011). Consequently, this study population consists of employees and managers in Southern California. This population is selected, since employees and managers can recognize change internally and externally faster than any other group within an organization. In this case, the study aim is to identify if the population agrees that having the ability to change rapidly, learn from the environment and apply effective leadership will result in an agile organization. Kumar (2011) wrote, “in quantitative studies, as the emphasis is on exploring commonalities in the study population” (p. 66). Sampling is the next step in the research design.

Sample

The research sample consists of employees and managers in Southern California to determine if the study population supports the research hypotheses. Abbott (2011) defines sampling as “the process by which a small group of elements is chosen from a larger (population) group so that the small group chosen is representative of the larger group” (p. 155). The study utilizes snowball sampling techniques to sample the population. Kumar (2011) wrote, “Snowball sampling is the process of selecting a sample using networks. In the quantitative study, the advantage of sampling is the ability to generalize the findings in a larger group without spending time and resources necessary to survey the entire population. Kumar (2011) explained, “The purpose of sampling in quantitative research is to draw inference about the group from

which you have selected the sample” (p. 192). Consequently, the study intends on discovering if change capability, learning capability and shared leadership affect organizational agility.

Sample Size

The sample size was determined through a formal method developed by Tabachnick and Fidell (2000). Tabachnick and Fidell (2000) explained that a sample size is calculated as follow: $\text{Sample Size} = 104 + M$, M is the number of independent variables. In this study the sample size is $104 + 3 = 107$ or greater.

Human Subject Considerations

The researcher had to complete a number of tasks before conducting the study. First, an online course was completed to obtain a certificate from CITI Human Subjects Training (see Appendix A). The certificate is required to conduct research with human subjects by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of Pepperdine University. Second, the researcher obtained permission to collect the data from the Pepperdine University IRB (see Appendix C). Moreover, before completing the survey, an overview of the study was presented to the participants (see Appendix D). Then, each of the survey takers had to agree to participate in the study. The survey is completely anonymous to minimize the participant's risks. All data collected is confidential, as the survey does not ask the participants for personal identifiable information, such their names or their organizations' name. Participants can obtain the summary of results of the study by contacting the researcher via email. The survey data will be stored on a password-protected flash drive and will be destroyed and discarded after five years.

Instrumentation

Dr. Christopher G. Worley and Dr. Edward E. Lawler III developed the instrument utilized by the study. The instrument title is “Agility Survey”. The request to use the instrument

was collected via email (see Appendix B). Worley and Lawler (2009) explain that the “‘built to change’ and the diagnostic process developed to assess an organization’s agility. Key features of the agility framework include a robust strategy, an adaptable organization design, shared leadership, and a strong change capability” (p. 2). The instrument covers 15 agility characteristics. The instruments use all 15 characteristics to determine if the organization is agile. The characteristics are as follows: develops robust strategies, encourages innovation, information transparency, change capability, sense of shared purpose, flexible resources, shared leadership, development orientation, learning capability, flexible reward systems, vertical information sharing, change friendly identity, strong future focus, flexible structure (surface area), and sustainability. Correspondingly, the study utilizes three characteristics, which are change capability, shared leadership, and learning capability to determine the correlation between the study variables. Additionally, the survey has three demographic questions, 52 questions are 5-point likert scale questions including a “Do not know” column. The 5-point likert scale ranges from one for “Not at all” to “To a large extent.” Additionally, the instrument has two percentage questions, a yes, no, and do not know question and one discrete question. Survey questions can be found in (see Appendix E).

Table 4 displays the questions that correspond to change capability, learning capability and shared leadership. Moreover, the questions start by asking: “Traditionally, this organization” and are included in Table 4

Table 4

Change Capability, Learning Capability and Shared Leadership Corresponding Questions

Characteristics	Questions
Change Capability	B4) considers the ability to change a strength of the organization B28) has a well-developed change capability. B29) is able to implement changes better than most organizations B30) has a track record of delivering on the goals of change initiatives B33) has change management, talent management, and strategic planning processes that are well coordinated B34) has a shared, enterprise-wide change management model B46) can successfully manage several change initiatives simultaneously
Learning Capability	B10) is good at applying learnings from past experience B35) widely shares “best practices” information B38) has a track record of effectively sharing what is learned in one part with other parts that could benefit B39) regularly reviews learnings from change efforts
Shared Leadership	B9) develops leaders at all levels B16) encourages managers to develop the leadership skills of their direct reports B18) encourages everyone to share leadership activities

Table 5 show the 15 characteristics related to organizational agility. Moreover, Table 5 displays the questions that correspond to develops robust strategies, encourages innovation, information transparency, change capability, sense of shared purpose, flexible resources, shared leadership, development orientation, learning capability, flexible reward systems, vertical information sharing, change-friendly identity, strong future focus, flexible structure (surface area) and sustainability. Moreover, the questions start by asking: “Traditionally, this organization” and are included in Table 5.

Table 5

15 Characteristics Related To Organizational Agility and Their Corresponding Questions

Characteristics	Questions
Develops Robust Strategies	B1) develops strategies with flexibility in mind B19) has strategies that can adapt to changing markets
Encourages Innovation	B2) encourages innovation B20) encourages prudent risk-taking
Information Transparency	B3) provides people an accurate sense of how the organization is performing B40) shares financial and business strategy information with all employees B45) allows information to flow freely from the outside to units and groups where it is most valuable
Change Capability	B4) considers the ability to change a strength of the organization B28) has a well-developed change capability. B29) is able to implement changes better than most organizations B30) has a track record of delivering on the goals of change initiatives B33) has change management, talent management, and strategic planning processes that are well coordinated B34) has a shared, enterprise-wide change management model B46) can successfully manage several change initiatives simultaneously
Sense of Shared Purpose	B5) has a purpose or mission that is widely shared B12) has a unifying purpose or mission other than profitability and growth B17) has purpose, mission, values, and management systems that act as a coherent whole to drive behavior and performance B23) has a purpose or mission that is acted out on a day-to-day basis B27) has stated values that guide day-to-day behaviors B42) has an explicit set of values that guide day-to-day decision making
Flexible Resources	B6) reallocates resources (e.g., budgets) easily as circumstances require B8) is capable of shifting its structure quickly to address new opportunities B15) has enough budget “slack” so that people can develop new products or better ways of working together B36) has work assignments that are flexible and easily changed B44) has flexible budgets that respond to marketplace changes B49) easily reassigns key people and talent to respond to marketplace opportunities

(continued)

Characteristics	Questions
Shared Leadership	B9) develops leaders at all levels B16) encourages managers to develop the leadership skills of their direct reports B18) encourages everyone to share leadership activities
Development Orientation	B14) supports individuals developing new knowledge and skills B25) has a strong commitment to developing people
Learning Capability	B10) is good at applying learnings from past experience B35) widely shares “best practices” information B38) has a track record of effectively sharing what is learned in one part with other parts that could benefit B39) regularly reviews learnings from change efforts
Flexible Reward Systems	B7) pays for skills and knowledge that contribute to performance B11) has flexible reward systems that change to take advantage of opportunities B22) rewards seniority more than performance B37) rewards people for performance on a timely basis B48) ties compensation closely to the performance of the business
Vertical Information Sharing	B13) has formal mechanisms to connect senior management with people at all levels of the organization B31) has senior management spending considerable time interacting with the rest of the organization
Change-Friendly Identity	B21) has a culture that embraces change as normal B24) has a strong reputation in the marketplace for its ability to change B32) has core values that reflect a change-ready organization B41) is known in the industry as an organization that effectively manages change
Strong Future Focus	B26) spends a lot of time thinking about the future B43) routinely engages in discussions about what might happen in our markets five years from now
Flexible Structure (Surface Area)	B47) puts employees in touch with customers B51) puts as many employees as possible in contact with the external environment, especially with customers C1) What proportion of people in this organization would you say is in direct contact with the outside world (customers, suppliers, partners, regulators, etc.) as part of their job?
Sustainability	B50) integrates sustainability into its operations B52) has a strong commitment to sustainability

Instrument Validity

According to Worley and Lawler (2010), the survey was enhanced by a pilot survey completed via 20 organizations. The pilot survey result was used to improve the instrument. The

revised instrument has been deployed in approximately 15 organizations. The selected instrument for this study measures 15 scales. The reliability coefficient ranged between 0.93 – 0.65 and is represented individually by Table 6.

Table 6

15 Scales and Reliability Coefficient

Scale	Reliability
Develops Robust Strategies	0.74
Encourages Innovation	0.70
Information Transparency	0.73
Change Capability	0.93
Sense of Shared Purpose	0.89
Flexible Resources	0.89
Shared Leadership	0.84
Development Orientation	0.80
Learning Capability	0.89
Flexible Reward Systems	0.70
Vertical Information Sharing	0.78
Change-Friendly Identity	0.89
Strong Future Focus	0.65
Flexible Structure (Surface Area)	0.76
Sustainability	0.88

Data Collection Procedures

The researcher contacted individuals in multiple organizations. A link to the study survey sent via email or the internet to the contacted individuals. The email includes an overview of the study, a link to the online survey and researcher’s email address. Then, the contacted individuals forward the email or the link to the study to others within their organizations or professional network. The online survey describes the study and asks each individual his or her premonition to participate in the study (see Appendix D). Additionally, the data is collected via Qualtrics, which is an online survey website. All are participants in this study are adult volunteers. Finally, the online survey will end by thanking the participants for completing the online survey.

Data Management

The study uses an online survey tool to collect the data. The data is downloaded onto a spreadsheet, and the spreadsheet is saved on a password-protected flash drive. Moreover, all collected data is confidential and once the data results are analyzed, the researcher will keep the flash drive for three years. After three years, the researcher will remove all data and discard the flash drive.

Data Analysis

The survey asks questions to determine if the participants view their organizations as an agile organization through the survey's 15 sections. Organizational agility (dependent variables) is determined by the independent variables (change capability, learning capability and Shared Leadership). The survey includes demographic questions to establish the participants' point of view in his or her organization (employee or a manager), organization industry, and the length of his or her employment with the organization.

The data is analyzed by observing the results of the survey using descriptive and inferential statistics. The goal is to determine if there is a correlation between the study's independent and dependent variables. According to Abbott (2011), correlation is "a way of understanding the association between two variables" (p. 337). The correlations are evaluated based on Pearson's Correlation. The hypotheses are tested by Pearson's r , the closer r to 1 the more correlation between the variables. The research significance level is set at $p = .05$. However, only correlations at $p = .01$ is selected, since correlation is highly significant at that level. Table 7 shows an example of correlation between change capability and strong future focus.

Table 7

Example of Correlation between Variables

Correlations			
		Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- considers the ability to change a strength of the organization	Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- spends a lot of time thinking about the future
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- considers the ability to change a strength of the organization	Pearson Correlation	1	.585**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	116	116
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- spends a lot of time thinking about the future	Pearson Correlation	.585**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	116	116

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Chapter 4: Research Results

Introduction

This study aim is to examine the following:

1. The relationship between change capability and organizational agility.
2. The relationship between learning capability and organizational agility.
3. The relationship between leadership and organizational agility.

The study surveyed 116 managers and employees in Southern California from different industries to understand if a correlation occurs between the study variables. Next are the study demographics.

Demographics

Participants in the study were 52% Males and 48% Females. Table 8 and figure 3 show the study participants' gender.

Table 8

Study Participants' Gender

#	Answer	Response	%
1	Male	60	52%
2	Female	56	48%
	Total	116	100%



Figure 3. Study participants' gender.

In addition, the majority of participants hold master's degree at 43%. Other groups include 4-year college degree at 31%, doctoral degree at 13%, some college at 9%, 2-year college degree at 3%, high school / GED at 1% and professional degree (JD, MD) at 1%. Table 9 and graph 4 show the study participants' educational background.

Table 9

Study Participants' Educational Background

#	Answer	Response	%
1	Less than High School	0	0%
2	High School / GED	1	1%
3	Some College	10	9%
4	2-year College Degree	3	3%
5	4-year College Degree	36	31%
6	Master's Degree	50	43%
7	Doctoral Degree	15	13%
8	Professional Degree (JD, MD)	1	1%
	Total	116	100%

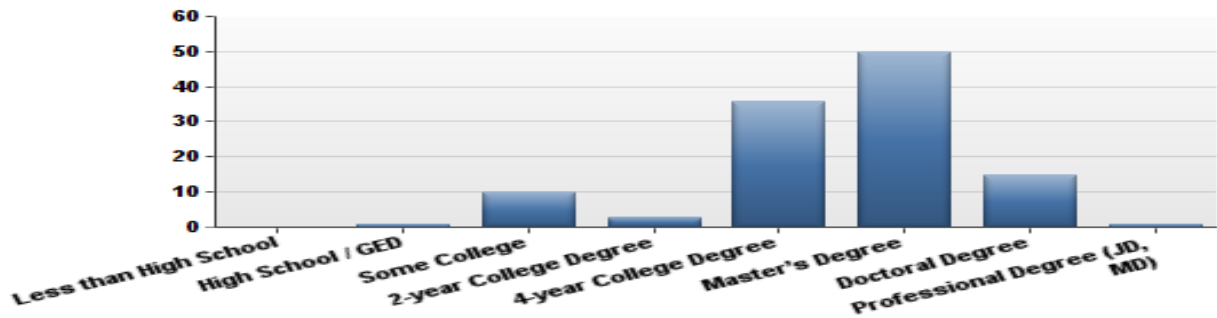


Figure 4. Study participants' educational background

The survey participants include 55% managers and 45% employees and are displayed by table 10 and figure 5 show the study participants' employment status.

Table 10

Study Participants' Employment Status

#	Answer	Response	%
1	Manager	64	55%
2	Employee	52	45%
	Total	116	100%



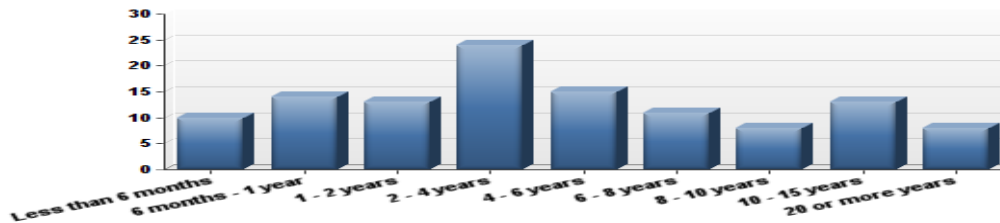
Figure 5. Study participants' employment status.

The majority of the participants worked for their organizations between 2 - 4 years at 21%. The others worked at their organizations' for 4 - 6 years at 13%, 6 months - 1 year at 12%, 1 - 2 years at 11%, 10 - 15 years at 11%, Less than 6 months at 9%, 6 - 8 years at 9%, 8 - 10 years at 7%, 20 or more years at 7%. Table 11 and figure 6 show study participants' employment tenure.

Table 11

Study Participants' Employment tenure

#	Answer	Response	%
1	Less than 6 months	10	9%
2	6 months - 1 year	14	12%
3	1 - 2 years	13	11%
4	2 - 4 years	24	21%
5	4 - 6 years	15	13%
6	6 - 8 years	11	9%
7	8 - 10 years	8	7%
8	10 - 15 years	13	11%
9	20 or more years	8	7%
	Total	116	100%

*Figure 6.* Study participants' employment tenure

Participants work in different Industries. The top four are education at 22%, other at 12%, medical/dental/healthcare at 10%, business services/consultant at 9%. Table 12 and figure 7 show study participants' industries.

Table 12

Study Participants' Industries

#	Answer	Response	%
1	Manufacturing and Process Industries (Non-computer)	6	5%
2	Aerospace	5	4%
3	Banking/Finance/Accounting	6	5%
4	Insurance/Real Estate/Legal	6	5%
5	Federal Government (including military)	4	3%
6	State/Local Government	3	3%
7	Medical/Dental/Healthcare	12	10%
8	Transportation/Utilities	2	2%
9	Construction/Architecture/Engineering	5	4%
10	Wholesale/Retail/Distribution	7	6%
11	Education	25	22%
12	Marketing/Advertising/Entertainment	7	6%
13	Business Services/Consultant	10	9%
14	Computer Manufacturer (Hardware, software, peripherals)	2	2%
15	Computer/Network Services/Consultant	1	1%
16	Computer Related Retailer/Wholesaler/Distributor	1	1%
17	Other	14	12%
	Total	116	100%

Note: Table 12 exclude industries that participants do not work in.

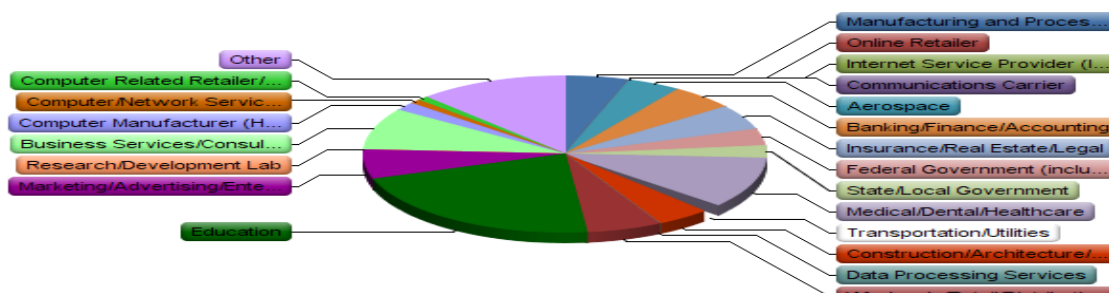


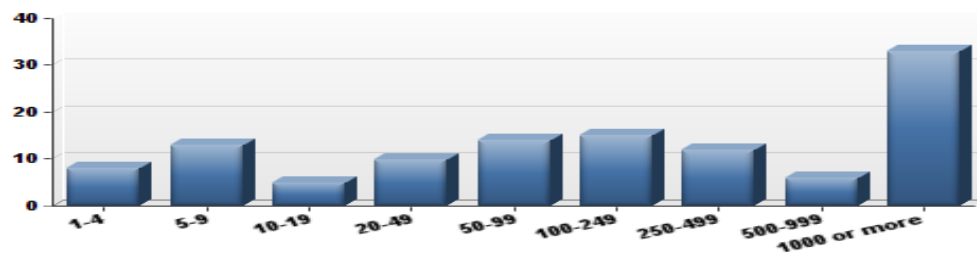
Figure 7. Study participants' industries

The participants work in a wide range of companies. They work in companies with 1000 or more employees at 28%, 50-99 employees at 12%, 100-249 employees at 13%, 5-9 employees at 11%, 250-499 employees at 10%, 20-49 employees at 9%, 1-4 employees at 7%, 500-999 employees at 5% and 10-19 employees at 4%. Table 13 and figure 8 show study participants' organization size.

Table 13

Study Participants' Organization Size

#	Answer	Response	%
1	1-4	8	7%
2	5-9	13	11%
3	10-19	5	4%
4	20-49	10	9%
5	50-99	14	12%
6	100-249	15	13%
7	250-499	12	10%
8	500-999	6	5%
9	1000 or more	33	28%
	Total	116	100%

*Figure 8. Study participants' organization size*

The majority of participants determined that over 80% of people in their organization contact with the outside world at 36%. Others thought that people in their organization contact the outside world 41 to 60% at 17%, 61 to 80% at 16%, 21 to 40% at 15%, Less than 20% at 14% and Do Not Know at 3%. Table 14 and figure 9 show study participants' respond.

Table 14

Organization Contact with the Outside world

#	Answer	Response	%
1	Less than 20%	16	14%
2	21 to 40%	17	15%
3	41 to 60%	20	17%
4	61 to 80%	18	16%
5	Over 80%	42	36%
6	Do Not Know	3	3%
	Total	116	100%

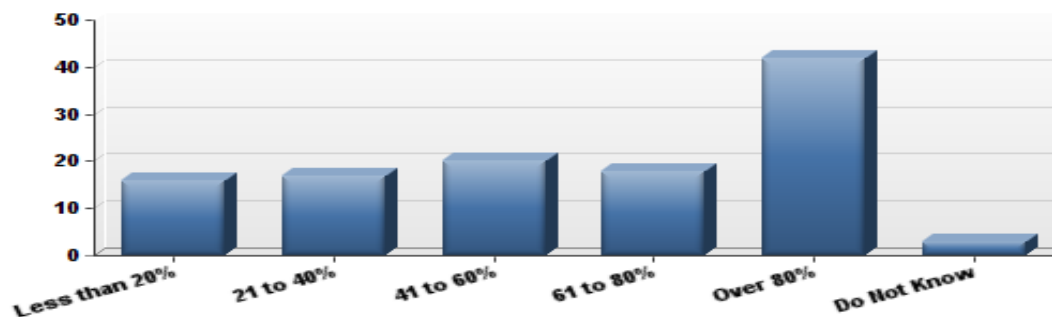


Figure 9. Organization contact with the outside world

When participants were asked: Is there a widely shared objective or decision rule that is applied in the face of conflicting goals (e.g., do what's right for the customer; quality comes first, etc.)? 41% answered yes, 32% respond do not know, and 28% replied no. Table 15 and figure 10 shared objective or decision rule that is applied in the face of conflicting goals.

Table 15

Shared Objective Or Decision Rule that is Applied in the Face of Conflicting Goals

#	Answer	Response	%
3	Yes. If Yes, what is it:	47	41%
7	No	32	28%
8	Do Not Know	37	32%
	Total	116	100%

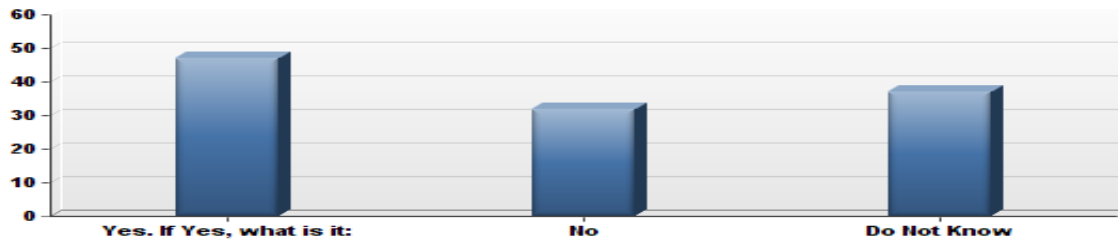


Figure 10. Shared objective or decision rule that is applied in the face of conflicting goals

According to the survey participants, senior management in their organizations spent 47.98% of their time running their business, 27.86% of their time building future business and 24.16% of their time fixing their business. Table 16 and figure 11 show senior managers time management.

Table 16

Senior Managers' Time Management

#	Question	Fixing the business	Running the business	Building the future business
1	Roughly, what percentage of the time does senior management spend(Your answer should add up to 100%)	24.16	47.98	27.86

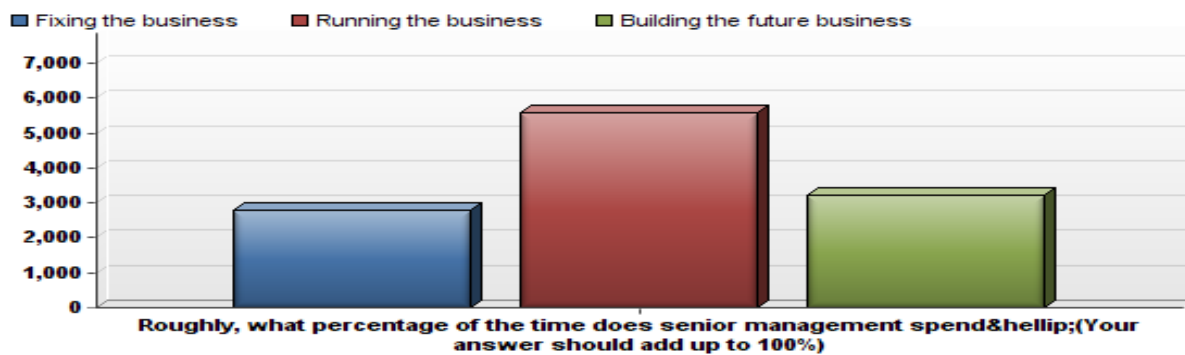


Figure 11. Senior managers' time management

Participants were asked to evaluate the following statements and select the statement that reflects their views of their organizations. The statements are as follow:

1. Is this organization more internally focused or externally focused.
2. Is this organization more organic and free flowing or hierarchical and rule-bound.
3. Is this organization more creative/innovative or equilibrium-oriented and stable.
4. Is this organization more people oriented or results oriented.
5. Is this organization more short-term focused or long-term focused.

The results show that most organizations are externally focused, hierarchical and rule-bound, equilibrium-oriented and stable, results oriented and long-term focused.

Table 17 and graph 12 show participants' views of their organizations.

Table 17

Participants' Views of their Organizations

#	Question	1	2	Total Responses	Mean
1	Internally focused: Externally focused	53	63	116	1.54
2	Organic and free-flowing: Hierarchical and rule-bound	49	67	116	1.58
3	Creative/innovative: Equilibrium-oriented and stable	48	68	116	1.59
4	People oriented: Results oriented	42	74	116	1.64
5	Short-term focused: Long-term focused	44	72	116	1.62

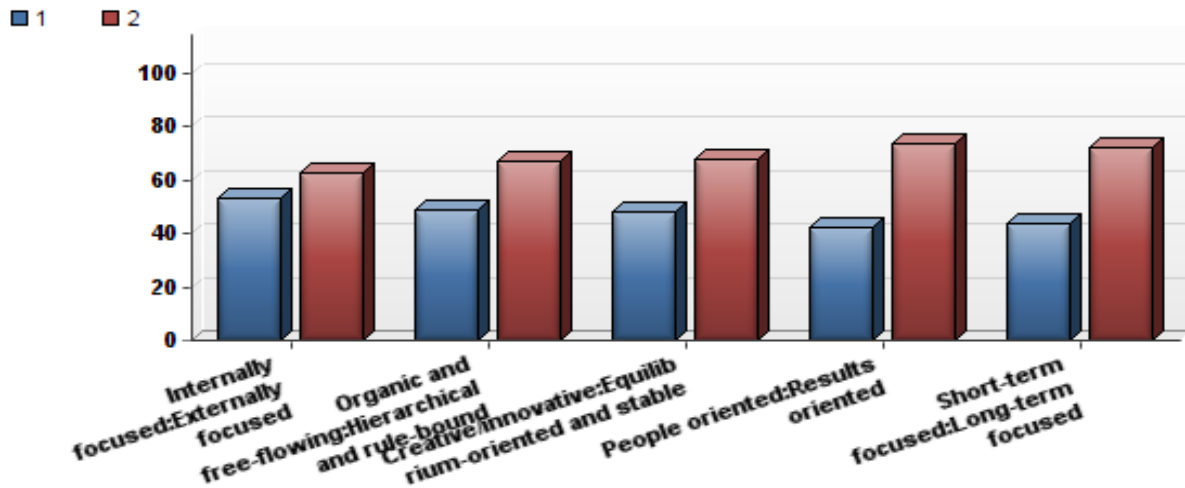


Figure 12. Participants' views of their organizations

Hypothesis Testing

This study has three independent variables, which are change capability, learning capability and shared leadership. The study dependent variable is organizational agility. The study test the hypotheses using Alpha level that was established at $p = .05$. Moreover, only correlations at $p = .01$ were selected, since correlation is highly significant at that level.

Consequently, the study has three Hypotheses, which are as follow:

- Ho1 There is no statistically significant relationship between change capability and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.
- Ha1 There is statistically significant relationship between change capability and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.

The second hypothesis is as follow:

- Ho2 There is no statistically significant relationship between learning capability and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.
- Ha2 There is statistically significant relationship between learning capability and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.

The third hypothesis is as follow:

- Ho3 There is no statistically significant relationship between shared leadership and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.
- Ha3 There is statistically significant relationship between shared leadership and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.

Next is the hypothesis testing for each individual variable of the study.

Change Capability Hypothesis

Change capability hypothesis states the following:

- Ho1 There is no statistically significant relationship between change capability and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.
- Ha1 There is statistically significant relationship between change capability and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.

After performing the correlation testing using the 2-tailed test and selecting correlations where $p = .01$, the study found correlations with change capability and many of the organizational agility characteristics. As a result, a sample of statements and their corresponding characteristics were selected to show the correlation between change capability and any of the 15 organizational agility scores. Table 18 show samples of agile variables correlated with change capability.

Table 18

Samples of Agile Variables Correlated with Change Capability.

Characteristic	Question	Agile Variable	Question
Change Capability	B4) considers the ability to change a strength of the organization	Strong Future Focus	B26) spends a lot of time thinking about the future.
Change Capability	B28) has a well-developed change capability.	Change-Friendly Identity	B24) has a strong reputation in the marketplace for its ability to change.

(continued)

Characteristic	Question	Agile Variable	Question
Change Capability	B29) is able to implement changes better than most organizations	Development Orientation	B25) has a strong commitment to developing people.
Change Capability	B30) has a track record of delivering on the goals of change initiatives	Develops Robust Strategies	B19) has strategies that can adapt to changing markets
Change Capability	B33) has change management, talent management, and strategic planning processes that are well coordinated	Flexible Resources	B15) has enough budget “slack” so that people can develop new products or better ways of working together
Change Capability	B34) has a shared, enterprise-wide change management model	Flexible Reward Systems	B11) has flexible reward systems that change to take advantage of opportunities
Change Capability	B46) can successfully manage several change initiatives simultaneously	Development Orientation	B14) supports individuals developing new knowledge and skills

The correlation tables in (see Appendix F) show that there is statistically significant relationship between change capability and any of the 15 organizational agility score. Here are few examples of the significant correlations between change capability and organizational agility. Strong future focus ($r = 0.585$), change-friendly identity ($r = 0.622$), development orientation ($r = 0.501$), develops robust strategies ($r = 0.693$), flexible resources ($r = 0.517$) flexible reward Systems ($r = 0.456$) and development orientation ($r = 0.433$). Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis. Testing learning capability hypothesis is next.

Learning Capability Hypothesis

Learning capability hypothesis is as follow:

- Ho2 There is no statistically significant relationship between learning capability and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.

- Ha2 There is statistically significant relationship between learning capability and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.

After performing the correlation testing using the 2-tailed test and selecting correlations where $p = .01$, the study found correlations with learning capability and many of the organizational agility characteristics. As a result, a sample of statements and their corresponding characteristics were selected to show the correlation between change capability and any of the 15 organizational agility scores. Table 19 show samples of agile variables correlated with learning capability.

Table 19

Samples of Agile Variables Correlated with Learning Capability

Characteristic	Question	Agile Variable	Question
Learning Capability	B10) is good at applying learnings from past experience	Development Orientation	B14) supports individuals developing new knowledge and skills
Learning Capability	B35) widely shares “best practices” information	Vertical Information Sharing	B31) has senior management spending considerable time interacting with the rest of the organization
Learning Capability	B38) has a track record of effectively sharing what is learned in one part with other parts that could benefit	Flexible Resources	B36) has work assignments that are flexible and easily changed
Learning Capability	B39) regularly reviews learnings from change efforts	Information Transparency	B45) allows information to flow freely from the outside to units and groups where it is most valuable

The correlation tables in (see Appendix G) show that there is statistically significant relationship between learning capability and any of the 15 organizational agility score. Here are few examples of the significant correlations between learning capability and organizational

agility. Development orientation ($r = 0.578$), vertical information sharing ($r = 0.498$), flexible resources ($r = 0.614$) and information transparency ($r = 0.528$). Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis. Shared leadership hypothesis analysis is next.

Shared Leadership Hypothesis

Shared leadership hypothesis is as follow:

- Ho3 There is no statistically significant relationship between shared leadership and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.
- Ha3 There is statistically significant relationship between shared leadership and any of the 15 organizational agility scores.

After performing the correlation testing using the 2-tailed test and selecting correlations where $p = .01$, the study found correlations with shared leadership and many of the organizational agility characteristics. As a result, a sample of statements and their corresponding characteristics were selected to show the correlation between change capability and any of the 15 organizational agility scores. Table 20 show samples of agile variables correlated with shared leadership.

Table 20

Samples of Agile Variables Correlated with Shared Leadership

Characteristic	Question	Agile Variable	Question
Shared Leadership	B9) develops leaders at all levels	Encourages Innovation	B2) encourages innovation
Shared Leadership	B16) encourages managers to develop the leadership skills of their direct reports	Vertical Information Sharing	B13) has formal mechanisms to connect senior management with people at all levels of the organization
Shared Leadership	B18) encourages everyone to share leadership activities	Sense of Shared Purpose	B17) has purpose, mission, values, and management systems that act as a coherent whole to drive behavior and performance

The correlation tables in (see Appendix H) show that there is statistically significant relationship between shared leadership and any of the 15 organizational agility score. Here are few examples of the significant correlations between shared leadership and organizational agility. Encourages innovation ($r = 0.524$), vertical information sharing ($r = 0.506$), sense of shared purpose ($r = 0.524$). Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis. Next chapter will discuss the study findings.

Summary

The study surveyed 116 managers and employees in Southern California to understand if a correlation occurs between the study variables. Consequently, the study found that change capability, learning capability and shared leadership correlate with many of the organizational agility characteristics.

Chapter 5: Findings and Conclusion

Introduction

Organizational agility is an important new field of organizational study. An organization that is agile can compete and endure longer than an organization that is inflexible and unable to change. Agility, in this case, is not only a function of altering organizations structures or reacting to their markets but a combination of different characteristics that create agile entities.

Previous scholars investigated organizational agility using different variables, settings or tools. Shafer (1997) examined organizational agility from a human resource perspective. Mulhern (2008) studied organizational agility through leadership in a library setting. Lopes (2009) discussed how agile organizations could learn and execute the appropriate respond to change. Mason (2010) discussed organizational agility as a tool for organizations to sustain their competitive advantage. Kharabe (2012) explored the relationship between enterprise systems and organizational agility. Latham (2014) observed the impact of organizational agility on teams' outcomes. In contrast, limited studies clarify the relationship between change capability, learning capability, shared leadership and organizational agility.

The characteristics in this study were based on Worley and Lawler (2010) "Agility and Organization Design: A Diagnostic Framework". In addition, the study conducted a survey using an instrument by Dr. Worley and Dr. Lawler that contains 15 agility characteristics. The instruments use all 15 characteristics to determine if the organization is agile. According to Worley and Lawler (2010), the characteristics are develop robust strategies, encourages innovation, information transparency, change capability, sense of shared purpose, flexible resources, shared leadership, development orientation, learning capability, flexible reward systems, vertical information sharing, change friendly identity, strong future focus, flexible

structure (surface area), and sustainability. Moreover, the study focused on three features to understand if each of them was correlated with at least one of the 15 agility characteristics. The three characteristics were change capability, learning capability and shared leadership.

Moreover, the purpose of this quantitative study was to discover the relationship between change capability, learning capability, shared leadership and organizational agility.

Consequently, the study intended to answer the following research questions:

- *To what extent, if any, is there a relationship between change capability and organizational agility?*
- *To what extent, if any, is there a relationship between learning capability and organizational agility?*
- *To what extent, if any, is there a relationship between shared leadership and organizational agility?*

As a result, the study surveyed 116 employees and managers in Southern California. This population was selected because employees and managers could recognize changes occurring internally and externally faster than any other group within an organization. In addition, employees and managers may have to react to new change initial. Survey participants were 52% males, 48% females, 55% managers and 45% employees. In addition, the majority of the participants hold master's degrees at 43%; other top groups were 4-year college degree at 31% and doctoral degree at 13%. Participants' top three industries were education at 22%, medical/dental/healthcare at 10%, and business services/consultant at 9%. Moreover, the bulk of the participants worked for their organizations' between 2 - 4 years at 21% and 4 - 6 years at 13%. Additionally, a larger number of participants worked for organizations with 1000 or more employees at 28%. Other groups include organizations with 50-99 employees at 12%, 100-249 employees at 13%, 5-9 employees at 11% and 250-499 employees at 10%. The study found that change capability, learning capability and shared leadership were correlated with many of the

organizational agility characteristics. Moreover, the study utilizes correlation testing using the two-tailed test at $p = .01$.

Research Questions

After performing correlation testing using the 2-tailed test and selecting correlations where $p = .01$, the study found change capability, learning capability and shared leadership correlate with and many of the organizational agility characteristics.

- *To what extent, if any, is there a relationship between change capability and organizational agility?*

The correlation tables in (see Appendix F) show that there is statistically significant relationship between change capability and many of the 15 organizational agility score. Here are few examples of the significant correlations between change capability and organizational agility. Strong future focus ($r = 0.585$), change-friendly identity ($r = 0.622$), development orientation ($r = 0.501$), develops robust strategies ($r = 0.693$), flexible resources ($r = 0.517$), flexible reward Systems ($r = 0.456$) and development orientation ($r = 0.433$).

- *To what extent, if any, is there a relationship between learning capability and organizational agility?*

The correlation tables in (see Appendix G) show that there is a statistically significant relationship between learning capability and many of the 15 organizational agility score. Here are examples of the significant correlations between learning capability and organizational agility. Development orientation ($r = 0.578$), vertical information sharing ($r = 0.498$), flexible resources ($r = 0.614$) and information transparency ($r = 0.528$).

- *To what extent, if any, is there a relationship between shared leadership and organizational agility?*

The correlation tables in (see Appendix H) show that there is a statistically significant relationship between shared leadership and many of the 15 organizational agility score. Here are

few examples of the significant correlations between shared leadership and organizational agility. Encourages innovation ($r = 0.524$), vertical information sharing ($r = 0.506$), sense of shared purpose ($r = 0.524$).

Consequently, the researcher proposed an organizational agility model at the beginning of the study that developed a more accurate model after the survey results were analyzed; the model is explained next.

The Organizational Agility Model SV

In this model, change capability, learning capability, shared leadership, shared purpose, and flexible resources are elements that create an agile organization. SV in this model stands for specific variables. The model started with the generalization of the effects of organizational change, learning, leadership, employees and design on organizational agility. Here was the generalized proposed model:

The Organizational Agility Model

This proposed model displays the relationship between the following:

1. The relationship between organizational change and organizational agility.
2. The relationship between organizational learning and organizational agility.
3. The relationship between leadership and organizational agility.
4. The relationship between leadership, employees, and organizational agility.
5. The relationship between organizational design and organizational agility.

The model was intended to show the effect of the variables on organizational agility. An organization ability to change is the foundation of an agile organization since continues change is the key to agility and flexibility. Change in the market could occur for a number of reasons. Such as, new technology, change in consumer preference, economic recession, new laws, new

competitors. An organization that cannot change, mostly like will not continue to exist.

Organizational learning is part of the model because an organization that cannot learn from its market, competitors, customers and new technologies cannot stay competitive. Learning, in this case, is not only essential to compete but is critical to remain agile in the marketplace.

Leadership in most organizations creates the culture and motivation for the organization to thrive in the environment. Organizational leaders influence members of the group to accept the entity missions, goals and act to achieve these aims. In addition, understanding the dynamic between leadership, employees, and organizational agility could support organizational efforts of developing an agile workforce. In the future, organizations may hire employees that are ready to change and understand that they may have to learn new skills constantly to stay relevant to their employer. Finally, an agile organization is design to alter itself to remain competitive. Design is not only concern with organizational structure, but with employees and recourses allocation as well. Figure 13 demonstrates the proposed Organizational Agility Model.

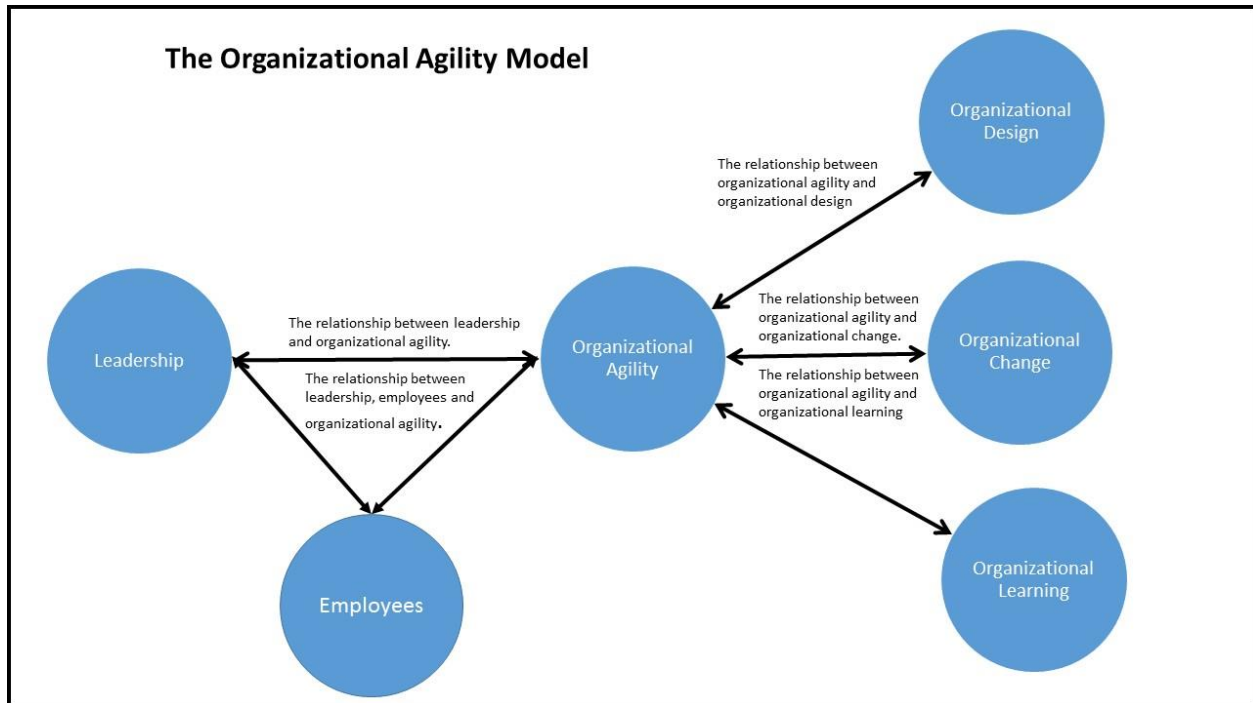


Figure 13. The proposed organizational agility model

As a result of the study findings, the model now reflects specific variables that create agile organizations. The model now displays the effects of change capability, learning capability, shared leadership, shared purpose and flexible resources on organizational agility. The new model is as follow:

The Organizational Agility Model SV

This model displays the relationships between the following variables:

1. The relationship between change capability and organizational agility.
2. The relationship between learning capability and organizational agility.
3. The relationship between shared leadership and organizational agility.
4. The relationship between shared purpose and organizational agility.
5. The relationship between flexible resources and organizational agility.

Figure 14 demonstrates the Organizational Agility Model SV.

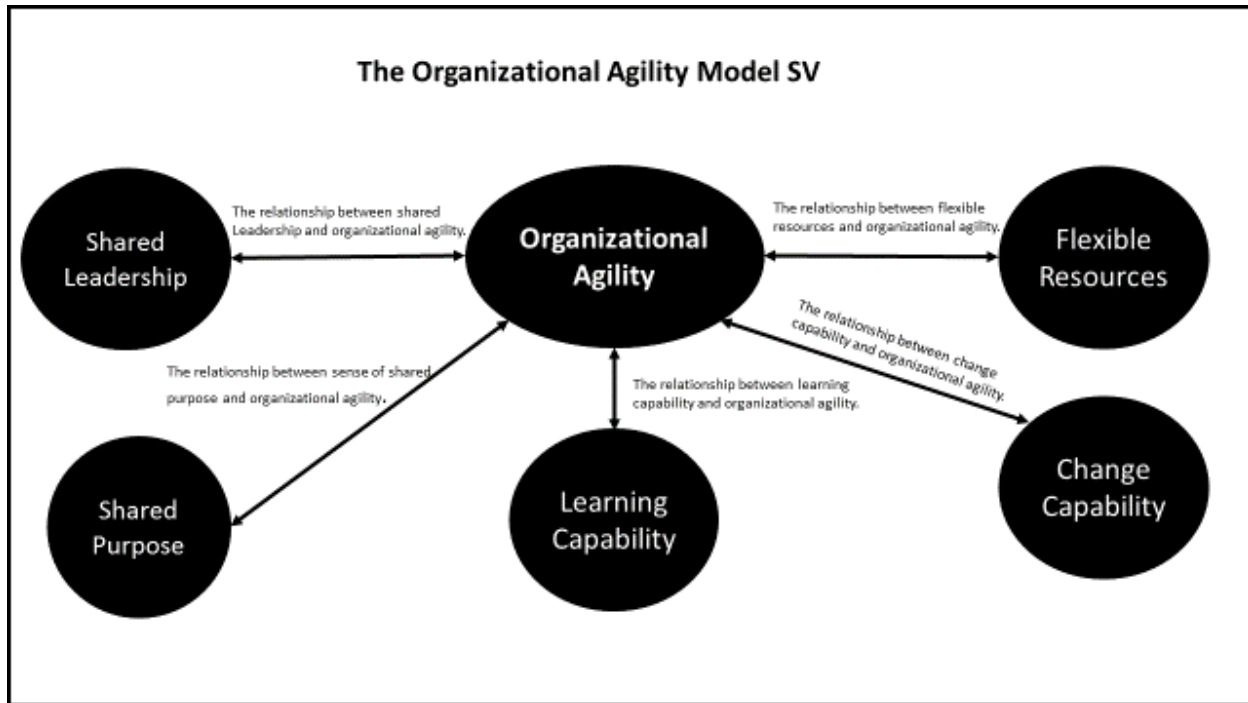


Figure 14. The organizational agility model SV

Consequently, the following is the researcher reflections and new insights on the model after conducting the study. The relationships between change capability, learning capability, shared leadership, shared purpose and flexible resources and organizational agility represent practices organizations could adapt to become agile. Numerous behaviors can utilize the relationship between change capability and organizational agility. Organizations that have employees that are ready to review its market position and implements changes as need could maximize their ability to stay competitive in their industry. Organizations can maximize their change capability by employing individuals, who are highly adaptable to change. Moreover, organizations could involve their employees in all change plans by including them in the process of creating these change schemes. Additionally, organizations could conduct a quarterly review of its position within its market. The review would include taking steps to transform the organization if the change is needed.

Three practices strengthen the relationship between learning capability and organizational agility. First, an organization could create a knowledge collecting and sharing process that gives any employee within the entity access to add or view information. Second, employee jobs include performing their duties as well as documenting insight that they experience while performing their work. These insights are discussed and shared within the organization. Third and more importantly, employees who learn about a new technology or competitor could share the information with everyone in the organizations.

On the relationship between shared leadership and organizational agility, the researcher found two insights. First, shared leadership have to exist throughout the organization. For shared leadership to be effective, every division in the organization shares the process of creating and executing their goals that align with the organizations overall goals. Second, each unit individually and the organization as a whole are responsible and accountable for their outcomes. Responsibility and accountability, in this case, is part of shared leadership since the group must share the reward and consequents of their actions.

Next is the relationship between shared purpose and organizational agility. Shared purpose is a significant part of agility since having a shared purpose aligns an organization to achieve its goals. Shared purpose manifested when the mental models of the organization emphasize the group purpose of existences, not the results they produce. The results are the outcomes of shared purpose, not the purpose itself.

Finally, flexible resources and organizational agility relationship are manifest by emphasizing flexibility. Flexibility utilizes employees, capital, and technology to keep an organization agile. Employees organized where they could produce a most efficient outcome for the organization. Capital flows freely within the organization to help profit from opportunities.

Finally, technology provides employees the tools to react to change. Next is an analysis of literature review in support of the Organizational Agility Model SV.

Literature Review Analysis in Support of the Organizational Agility Model SV

The study found that the literature agrees with the study findings. On change capability, the study found that agile organizations could deliver on its change plans and stay highly competitive in their markets. Burnes (2005) found that an essential way to stay competitive is an organization capacity to transform itself. Additionally, agile organizations create change capabilities and have the ability to react to change quickly. Biedenbach and Söderholm (2008) stated that change capability is essential to recognize and react to change. Similarly, Burnes (2005) emphasize that organizations constantly need to change themselves. Moreover, change capabilities include developing employees that are ready to change. Conner (1992) explains that individuals need to have the ability to adjust in order to deliver on change. Agile organizations are capable of change and can react to changing environment. As Kotter (2006) indicated that reacting to event in the marketplace is an organization approach to respond to change. Moreover, agile organizations have change capabilities that emphasis exploiting opportunities. Zeira and Avedisian (1989) linked effective change to competitive advantage that capitalizes on market opportunities. Next is an examination of learning capability findings.

On learning capability, agile organizations develop employees that learn and implement new insights to improve their organizations'. Consequently, employees can absorb new insights from a situation and apply what they learn in other incidents (Cashman, 2008). Employees in agile organizations can access new knowledge and apply them within their workgroups. In addition, employees could use new insights to alter their work goals and objectives. Hull and Covin (2010) explained that learning capability gives an organization the capacity to create

innovative products by utilizing new insights. Agile organizations collect information and make it available to everyone within the entity. Accordingly, free flow of information could contribute to making an organization a more effective learning unit (Schein, 1996). Next is an analysis of shared leadership results.

On shared leadership, agile organizations share influence between individuals within their organizations'. In addition, shared influence is fundamental to shared leadership. Cox et al., (2003) agrees as they stated that shared leadership is contingent on distributing influence among members of an organization instead of a top leader. Shared leadership and purpose occur when all employees are driving to achieve organizational objective while holding each other responsible for the outcomes. Conger and Pearce (2003) wrote that employees influence and lead each other to accomplish organizational objectives. In addition, Mayo et al. (2003) explained that team members could share leadership as long as they achieve comparable influence to each other.

Model Application

The model can apply to any organization that desires to be agile. In addition, this study proposes a linear change model which include five sequential steps. The first step, an organization starts by developing its learning capability. Learning capability helps the organization learn from the environment and apply new insights. The second step, the organization establish a shared purpose with all members of the organization. As a result, shared purpose unites the organization to achieve a common goal. The third step is to create share leadership within the organization. The fourth step, the organization applies resources where they are most effective. In this step, resources are evaluated and redeployed to capitalize on opportunities. The final step includes developing the organization changes capability. Changes

capability gives the organization the tools to achieve its change plan. Figure 15 demonstrates The Organizational Agility Model SV Five Steps.

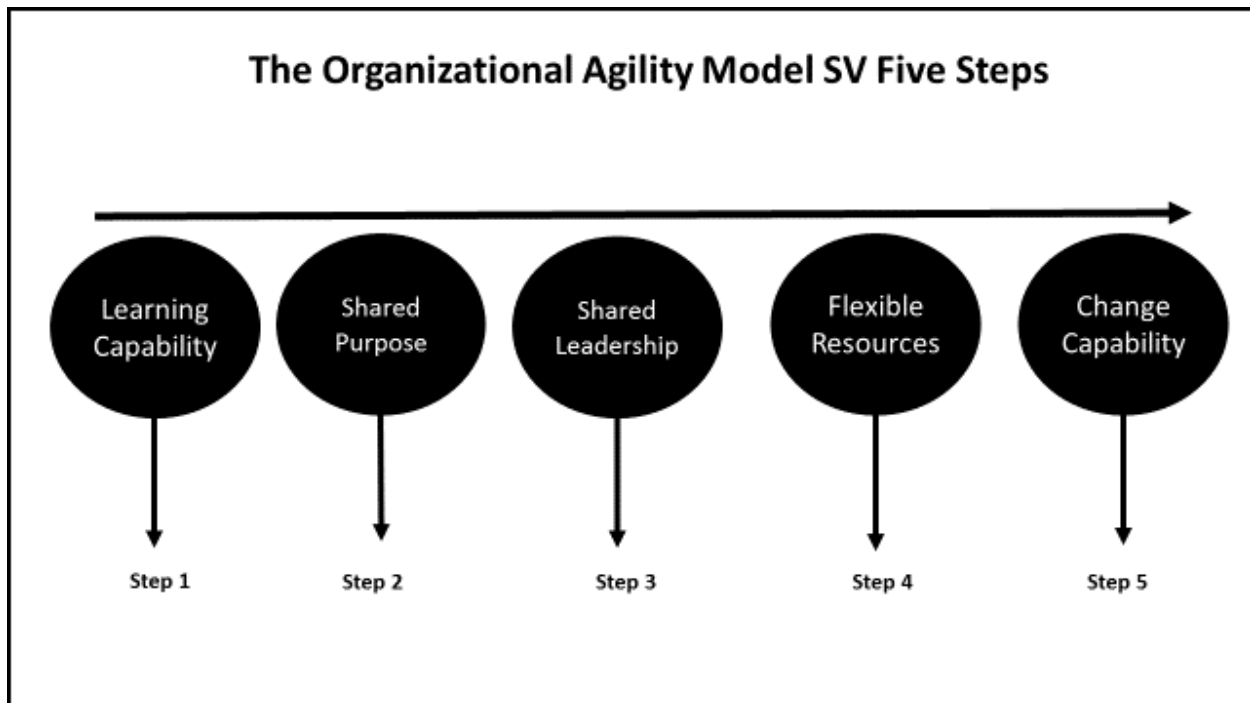


Figure 15. The organizational agility model SV five steps.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study showed a positive correlation between change capability, learning capability, shared leadership and organizational agility. Future researchers could study the following variables in relationship to organizational agility:

1. The relationship between shared purpose and organizational agility.
2. The relationship between flexible resources and organizational agility.

Understanding the relationship between independent variables (*shared purpose and flexible resources*) and dependent variable (*organizational agility*) could help support the Organizational Agility Model SV. Moreover, understanding all the model variables and their

correlation with organizational agility could help practitioners and researchers in building change programs that transform organizations into agile entities.

Limitations of the Study

The study limitations are concepts limitation. Some of the participants may not comprehend an understanding of organizational agility, change capability, learning capability or shared leadership.

Conclusions

Najrani (2016) wrote, “organizational agility is the ability to recognize change in the market and allocate resources to take advantage of that change” (p. 37). Organizations can achieve agility by developing change capability, learning capability, shared leadership, shared purpose and flexible resources. Learning capability helps an organization identify new changes and trends in the environment. Then, an organization capable of change takes new knowledge and implements a change plan that takes advantage of these new insights. Flexible resources are shifting all the organizations employees and recourses to achieve the new organizational objective by capturing new changes and trends in the environment. Learning and change capability cannot be effective if an organization does not command shared leadership and purpose. Shared purpose aligns an organization in the same direction. Shared leadership develops the drive that an organization uses to persevere their common purpose. In the end, applying these tools could help organizations in becoming agile entities and endure over time.

REFERENCES

- Abbott, M. L. (2011). *Understanding educational statistics using Microsoft Excel® and SPSS®*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley
- Al-Haddad, S., & Kotnour, T. (2015). Integrating the organizational change literature: a model for successful change. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 28(2), 234-262. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/JOCM-11-2013-0215>
- Alikhani, M., & Fazlollahtabar, H. (2014). A mathematical model for optimizing organizational learning capability. *Advances in Operations Research*, 5, 1-12. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2014/490210>
- Almahamid, S., Awwad, A., & McAdams, A. C. (2010). Effects of organizational agility and knowledge sharing on competitive advantage: An empirical study in Jordan. *International Journal of Management*, 27(3), 387.
- Argyris, C. and Schon, D. (1978). *Organizational learning: A theory of action perspective*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Avolio, B. J., Sivasubramaniam, N., Murry, W. D., Jung, D., & Garger, J. W. (2003). Assessing shared leadership: development and preliminary validation of a team multifactor leadership questionnaire. In J. A. Conger & C. L. Pearce (Eds.), *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership (143-172)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Bamford, D. R., & Forrester, P. L. (2003). Managing planned and emergent change within an operations management environment. *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*, 23(5), 546-564. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/01443570310471857>

- Bass, B. M. (1990). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. *Organizational Dynamics*, 18(3), 19-31.
[http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616\(90\)90061-S](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616(90)90061-S)
- Bass, B. M. (1997). Does the transactional-transformational leadership paradigm transcend organizational and national boundaries?. *American Psychologist*, 52(2), 130-139.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.52.2.130>
- Bass, B. M., Bass, R., & Bass, B. M. (2008). *The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Battilana, J., Gilmartin, M., Sengul, M., Pache, A. C., & Alexander, J. A. (2010). Leadership competencies for implementing planned organizational change. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21(3), 422-438. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.03.007>
- Beard, M. (2000). Organizational development. *Employee Assistance Quarterly*, 16, 117-140.
http://dx.doi.org/10.1300/J022v16n01_07
- Bernerth, J. (2004). Expanding our understanding of the change message. *Human Resource Development Review*, 3(1), 36-52. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1534484303261230>
- Bess, K. D., Perkins, D. D., & McCown, D. L. (2011). Testing a measure of organizational learning capacity and readiness for transformational change in human services. *Journal of Prevention & Intervention in the Community*, 39(1), 35-49.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10852352.2011.530164>
- Biedenbach, T., & Söderholm, A. (2008). The Challenge of organizing change in hypercompetitive industries: A literature review. *Journal of Change Management*, 8(2), 123-145. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14697010801953967>

- Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (2008). *Reframing organizations: Artistry, choice, and leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Bouckenooghe, D., Devos, G., & Van, B. H. (2009). Organizational change questionnaire—climate of change, processes, and readiness: Development of a new instrument. *Journal of Psychology, 143*(6), 559-599. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00223980903218216>
- Breu, K., Hemingway, C., Strathern, M., & Bridger, D. (2002). Workforce agility: the new employee strategy for the knowledge economy. *Journal of Information Technology, 17*(1), 21-31. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/02683960110132070>
- Bridges, W. (2009). *Managing transitions: Making the most of change*. Philadelphia, Pa: Da Capo Lifelong.
- Burgess, T. F. (1994). Making the leap to agility: Defining and achieving agile manufacturing through business process redesign and business network redesign. *International Journal of Operations & Production Management, 14*(11), 23-34. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/01443579410068620>
- Burke, C. S., Fiore, S. M., & Salas E. (2003). The role of shared cognition in enabling shared leadership and team adaptability. In J. A. Conger & C. L. Pearce (Eds.), *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership (103-122)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Burnes, B. (2004). Kurt Lewin and the planned approach to change: A re-appraisal. *Journal of Management Studies Oxford-, 41*(6), 977-1002. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.2004.00463.x>
- Burnes, B. (2005). Complexity theories and organizational change. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 7*(2), 73-90.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2370.2005.00107.x>

Burnes, B., & Cooke, B. (2013). Kurt Lewin's field theory: A review and re-evaluation. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 15 (4), 408-425.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2370.2012.00348.x>

Burns, J. M. (2012). *Leadership*. New York, NY: Open Road Integrated Media. Retrieved from <http://www.ebib.com>

Campbell, T. A. (2014). What could have been done? Circuit city: A case study of management and employee performance failure. *Performance Improvement*, 53(4), 16-23.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/pfi.21405>

Cashman, K. (2008). *Leadership from the inside out: Becoming a leader for life*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Chakravarty, A., Grewal, R., & Sambamurthy, V. (2013). Information technology competencies, organizational agility, and firm performance: Enabling and facilitating roles. *Information Systems Research*, 24(4), 976-997. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1287/isre.2013.0500>

Chen, M. (2005). Technology adoption in response to changes in market conditions: Evidence from the US petroleum refining industry. *Economics of Innovation and New Technology*, 14(8), 735-756. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10438590500117487>

Chiva, R., & Alegre, J. (2009). Organizational learning capability and job satisfaction: an Empirical assessment in the ceramic tile industry. *British Journal of Management*, 20(3), 323-340. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8551.2008.00586.x>

Choi, M. (2011). Employees' attitudes toward organizational change: A literature review. *Human Resource Management*, 50 (4), 479-500. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/hrm.20434>

- Conger, J. A. (2000). Effective change begins at the top. In M. Beer & N. Nohria (Eds.), *Breaking the code of change (99 – 112)*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Conger, J. A., & Pearce, C. L. (2003). All those years ago: The historical underpinnings of shared leadership. In J. A. Conger & C. L. Pearce (Eds.), *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership (1-18)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Conner, D. (1992). *Managing at the speed of change: How resilient managers succeed and prosper where others fail*. New York, NY: Villard Books.
- Cox, J. F., Pearce, C. L. & Perry, M. (2003). Toward a model of shared leadership and distributed influence in the innovation process: How shared leadership can enhance new product development team dynamics and effectiveness. In J. A. Conger & C. L. Pearce (Eds.), *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership (48-76)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Crocitto, M., & Youssef, M. (2003). The human side of organizational agility. *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, 103(6), 388-397.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/02635570310479963>
- Crossan, M. M. & Bedrow, I. (2003). Organizational learning and strategic renewal. *Strategic Management Journal*, 24(11), 1087-1105. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/smj.342>
- D'Aveni, R. A. (2013). 3-D printing will change the world. *Harvard Business Review*, 91(3), 34.
Retrieved from <https://hbr.org/2013/03/3-d-printing-will-change-the-world>
- De Geus, A. P. (1988). Planning as learning. *Harvard Business Review*, 66(2), 70-74. Retrieved from <https://hbr.org/1988/03/planning-as-learning>

- Dibella, A. J., Nevis, E. C., & Gould, J. M. (1996). Understanding Organizational Learning Capability. *Journal of Management Studies*, 33(3), 361-379.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.1996.tb00806.x>
- Dionisi, A. M., Barling, J., Akers, A., Lys, R., Wylie, J., Dupre, K....Robertson, J. (2014). The depleted leader: The influence of leaders' diminished psychological resources on leadership behaviors. *Leadership Quarterly*, 25(2), 344-357.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.09.003>
- Dodgson, M. (1993). Organizational learning: A Review of some literatures. *Organization Studies*, 14(3), 375-394. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/01708406930140030>
- Dove, R. (1999). Knowledge management, response ability, and the agile enterprise. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 3(1), 18-35. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/13673279910259367>
- Downes, L., & Nunes, P. (2014). *Big bang disruption: Strategy in the age of devastating innovation*. New York, NY: Portfolio/Penguin
- Doz, Y., & Kosonen, M. (2008). The dynamics of strategic agility: Nokia's rollercoaster experience. *California Management Review*, 50(3), 95-118.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/41166447>
- Drath, W. H. (2001). *The deep blue sea: Rethinking the source of leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Drew, S., & Smith, P. (1995). The learning organization: "change proofing" and strategy. *The learning organization*, 2(1), 4-14. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09696479510075598>
- Dubey, R., & Gunasekaran, A. (2014). Agile manufacturing: framework and its empirical validation. *International Journal of Advanced Manufacturing Technology*. 76(9), 2147-2157. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00170-014-6455-6>

- Eby, L. T., Adams, D. M., Russell, J. E. A., & Gaby, S. H. (2000). Perceptions of organizational readiness for change: Factors related to employees' reactions to the implementation of team-based selling. *Human Relations*, 53(3), 419-442.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0018726700533006>
- Elkjaer, B. (2004). Organizational Learning. *Management Learning*, 35(4), 419-434.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1350507604048271>
- Erwin, D. G., & Garman, A. N. (2010). Resistance to organizational change: linking research and practice. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 31(1), 39-56.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/01437731011010371>
- Fletcher, J. K., & Käufer, K. (2003) Shared leadership : paradox and possibility. In J. A. Conger & C. L. Pearce (Eds.), *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership* (21-47). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- French, J. R. J. (1956). A formal theory of social power. *Psychological Review*, 63(3), 181-94.
- French, J. R. P., & Raven, B. (1959). The bases of social power. In D. Cartwright (Eds.), *Studies in social power*. Ann Arbor: Research Center for Group Dynamics, Institute for Social Research (150-167). University of Michigan.
- Friedman, T. (2007). *The world is flat: A brief history of the twenty-first century*. New York. NY: Picador/Farrar, Straus and Giroux.
- Ganguly, A., Nilchiani, R., & Farr, J. V. (2009). Evaluating agility in corporate enterprises. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 118(2), 410-423.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpe.2008.12.009>
- Garvin, D. A. (1993). Building a learning organization. *Harvard Business Review*, 71(4), 78-91.
Retrieved from <https://hbr.org/1993/07/building-a-learning-organization>

- Garvin, D. A., & Roberto, M. A. (2005). Change through persuasion. *Harvard Business Review*, 83(2), 104-12. Retrieved from <https://hbr.org/2005/02/change-through-persuasion>
- Garvin, D. A., Edmondson, A. C., & Gino, F. (2008). Is yours a learning organization? *Harvard Business Review*, 86(3), 109-16. Retrieved from <https://hbr.org/2008/03/is-yours-a-learning-organization>
- Giesecke, J., & McNeil, B. (2004). Transitioning to the learning organization. *Library Trends*, 53(1), 54-67. Retrieved from <http://digitalcommons.unl.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1004&context=libraryscience>
- Gilley, A., Gilley, J. W., & McMillan, H. S. (2009). Organizational change: Motivation, communication, and leadership effectiveness. *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, 21(4), 75-94. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/piq.20039>
- Gilley, A., McMillan, H., & Gilley, J. (2009). Organizational change and characteristics of leadership effectiveness. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 16(1), 38-47. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1548051809334191>
- Gladwell, M. (2002). *The tipping point: How little things can make a big difference*. Boston, MA: Back Bay Books.
- Goh, S. C. (1998). Toward a learning organization: The strategic building blocks. *SAM Advanced Management Journal*, 63(2), 15. Retrieved from <http://www.freepatentsonline.com/article/SAM-Advanced-Management-Journal/20982068.html>

- Goh, S. C. (2003). Improving organizational learning capability: lessons from two case studies. *The Learning Organization: An International Journal*, 10(4), 216-227.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09696470310476981>
- Golaleh, E. & Merle, J. (2001). Restructuring for agility at Volvo Car Technical Service (VCTS). *European Journal of Innovation Management*, 4(2), 64-72.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/14601060110390558>
- Gunasekaran, A. (1999). Agile manufacturing: A framework for research and development. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 62, 87-105.
[http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0925-5273\(98\)00222-9](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0925-5273(98)00222-9)
- Hammer, M., & Champy, J. (1993). *Reengineering the corporation: A manifesto for business revolution*. New York, NY: HarperBusiness.
- Heisterberg, R., & Verma, A. (2014). *Creating business agility: How convergence of cloud, social, mobile, video, and big data enables competitive advantage*. Retrieved from <http://www.ebib.com>.
- Henderson, G. M. (2002). Transformative learning as a condition for transformational change in organizations. *Human Resource Development Review*, 1(2), 186-214.
- Heraty, N. (2004). Towards an architecture of organization-led learning. *Human Resource Management Review*, 14(4), 449-472. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2004.10.007>
- Hernandez, M. (2008). Promoting stewardship behavior in organizations: A leadership model. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 80(1), 121-128.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10551-007-9440-2>
- Higgs, M. & Rowland, D. (2000). Building change leadership capability: 'The quest for change competence'. *Journal of Change Management*, 1(2), 116-130.

- Holt, D. T., Armenakis, A. A., Feild, H. S., & Harris, S. G. (June 01, 2007). Readiness for organizational change: The systematic development of a scale. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 43, 2, 232-255. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0021886306295295>
- Horney, N., Pasmore, B., & O'Shea, T. (2010). Leadership Agility: A Business Imperative for a VUCA World. *Human Resource Planning*, 33(4), 34.
- Houghton, J. D., Neck, C. P., & Manz, C. C. (2003). Self-leadership and superleadership: the heart and art of creating shared leadership in teams. In J. A. Conger & C. L. Pearce (Eds.), *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership (123-140)*. Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage Publications.
- House, R. J., & Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Program. (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Huang, C. C. (1999). An agile approach to logical network analysis in decision support systems. *Decision Support Systems*, 25(1), 53-70.
[http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0167-9236\(98\)00091-8](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0167-9236(98)00091-8)
- Hugos, M. H. (2009). *Business agility : Sustainable prosperity in a relentlessly competitive world*. Retrieved from <http://www.ebib.com>
- Hull, C. E., & Covin, J. G. (2010). Learning capability, technological parity, and innovation mode use. *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, 27(1), 97-114.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-5885.2009.00702.x>
- Jansen, K. J. (2000). The emerging dynamics of change: resistance, readiness, and momentum. *Human Resource Planning*, 23(2), 53-55.

- Jaros, S. (2010). Commitment to organizational change: A critical review. *Journal of Change Management*, 10(1), 79-108. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14697010903549457>
- Joiner, B., & Josephs, S. (2007). *Leadership agility: Five levels of mastery for anticipating and initiating change*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Jones, G. R. (2010). *Organizational theory, design, and change*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Judge, W. Q., & Business Expert Press. (2011). *Building organizational capacity for change: The strategic leader's new mandate*. New York, NY: Business Expert Press.
- Judge, W. Q., Naoumova, I., & Douglas, T. (2009). Organizational capacity for change and firm performance in a transition economy. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20(8), 1737-1752. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09585190903087107>
- Judge, W., & Elenkov, D. (2006). Organizational capacity for change and environmental performance: an empirical assessment of Bulgarian firms. *Journal of Business Research*, 58(7), 893-901. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2004.01.009>
- Kassim, N. M., & Zain, M. (2004). Assessing the measurement of organizational agility. *Journal of American Academy of Business, Cambridge*, 4(1/2), 174-177.
- Kharabe, A. T. (2012). *Organizational agility and complex enterprise system innovations: A mixed methods study of the effects of enterprise systems on organizational agility* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses. (1143247461)
- Kim, W. C., & Mauborgne, R. A. (2006). Tipping point leadership. In Harvard Business School, Harvard business review on leading through change (19-44). Boston, MA: Harvard Business School.
- Kotter, J. P. (1988). *The leadership factor*. New York, NY: Free Press.

- Kotter, J. P. (2006). Leading change: why transformation efforts fail. In Harvard Business School, Harvard business review on leading through change (1-18). Boston, MA: Harvard Business School.
- Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (2007). *The leadership challenge*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Kumar, R. (2011). *Research methodology: A step-by-step guide for beginners*. Los Angeles, CA: SAGE.
- Latham, L. J. (2014). *Organizational agility: Exploring impact of adoption on team performance from the human resource perspective* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses. (1526000640)
- Lewin, K. (1946). Action research and minority problems. *Journal of Social Issues*, 2(4), 34-46.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4560.1946.tb02295.x>
- Limpibunterng, T., & Johri, L. M. (2009). Complementary role of organizational learning capability in new service development (NSD) process. *The Learning Organization*, 16(4), 326-348. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09696470910960419>
- Lin, C.-T., Chiu, H., & Chu, P.-Y. (2006). Agility index in the supply chain. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 100(2), 285-299.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpe.2004.11.013>
- Lin, C.-T., Chiu, H., & Tseng, Y.-H. (2006). Agility evaluation using fuzzy logic. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 101(2), 353-368.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpe.2005.01.011>
- Lin, H.-E., McDonough, E. F., Lin, S.-J., & Lin, C. Y.-Y. (2013). Managing the exploitation/exploration paradox: The role of a learning capability and innovation

- ambidexterity. *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, 30(2), 262-278.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-5885.2012.00998.x>
- Lopes, K. J. (2009). *Organizational agility: Exploring how the U.S. coast guard chooses and implements effective courses of action* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses. (304831927)
- Macri, D. M., Tagliaventi, M. R., & Bertolotti, F. (2002). A grounded theory for resistance to change in a small organization. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 15(3), 292-310. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09534810210429327>
- Marsick, V. J., & Watkins, K. E. (2003). Demonstrating the value of an organization's learning culture: The dimensions of the learning organization questionnaire. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 5(2), 132-151.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1523422303005002002>
- Martin, R. (2000). Breaking the code of change observations and critique. In M. Beer & N. Nohria (Eds.), *Breaking the code of change* (449 – 471). Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Mason, A. J. (2010). *Inside the black box: Investigating agility as a dynamic capability for sustaining a competitive advantage within consulting firms* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses. (807420305)
- Maxwell, J. C. (1998). *The 21 irrefutable laws of leadership: Follow them and people will follow you*. Nashville, TN: Thomas Nelson Publishers.
- Mayo, M., Meindl J. R., & Pastor, J. (2003). Social network approach. In J. A. Conger & C. L. Pearce (Eds.), *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership* (193-124). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

- McCann, J., & Selsky, J. W. (2012). *Mastering turbulence: The essential capabilities of agile and resilient individuals, teams and organizations*. Retrieved from <http://www.eblib.com>
- McGuinness, T., & Morgan, R. E. (2005). The effect of market and learning orientation on strategy dynamics: The contributing effect of organisational change capability. *European Journal of Marketing*, 39, 1306-1326. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/03090560510623271>
- Meyer, C. B., & Stensaker, I. G. (2006). Developing capacity for change. *Journal of Change Management*, 6(2), 217-231. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14697010600693731>
- Miller, D. (2004). Building sustainable change capability. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 36(1), 9-12. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/00197850410516058>
- Muijs, D. (2004). *Doing quantitative research in education with SPSS*. London, England: SAGE.
- Mulhern, J. K. (2008). *An exploratory case study of organizational agility in a consortium of small private college libraries* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses. (304404536)
- Najrani, M. (2016). The endless opportunity of organizational agility. *Strategic Direction*, 32(3), 37-38. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/SD-02-2015-0026>
- Neves, P. (2009). Readiness for change: Contributions for employee's level of individual change and turnover intentions. *Journal of Change Management*, 9(2), 215-231. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14697010902879178>
- Nonaka, I. (1991). The Knowledge-Creating Company. *Harvard Business Review*, 69(6), 96-104. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-7506-7009-8.50016-1>
- Northouse, P. G. (2010). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

- Oliveira, M. A., Valentina, L. D., & Possamai, O. (2012). Forecasting project performance considering the influence of leadership style on organizational agility. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 61(6), 653-671.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/17410401211249201>
- Ortenblad, A. (2001) On differences between organizational learning and learning organization. *The learning organization*, 8(3), 125-133.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09696470110391211>
- O'Toole, J., Galbraith, J., & Lawler, E. E. (2003). The promise and pitfalls of shared leadership: when two (or more) heads are better than one. In J. A. Conger & C. L. Pearce (Eds.), *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership* (250-267). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- O'Toole, J., Galbraith, J., & Lawler, E. E. (2002). When two (or more) heads are better than one: The promise and pitfalls of shared leadership. *California Management Review*, 44(4), 65.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/41166143>
- Pearce, C. L. & Sims, J. H. P. (2002). Vertical versus shared leadership as predictors of the effectiveness of change management teams: An examination of aversive, directive, transactional, transformational, and empowering leader behaviors. *Group Dynamics*, 6(2), 172-197. doi:10.1037//1089-2699.6.2.172
- Pedler, M., Burgoyne, J., & Boddell, T. (1991). *The learning company: A strategy for sustainable development*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill
- Peters, J. (1996) A learning organization's syllabus. *The Learning Organization*, 3(1), 4-10.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09696479610106754>

- Petrick, I. J., & Simpson, T. W. (2013). 3D printing disrupts manufacturing. *Research Technology Management*, 56(6), 12-16. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5437/08956308X5606193>
- Pettigrew, A. (2000). Linking change processes to outcomes. In M. Beer & N. Nohria (Eds.), *Breaking the code of change* (pp. 243 – 265). Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Prieto, I. M., & Revilla, E. (2006). Learning capability and business performance: a non-financial and financial assessment. *The Learning Organization*, 13(2), 166-185. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09696470610645494>
- Rafferty, A., & Simons, R. (2006). An examination of the antecedents of readiness for fine-tuning and corporate transformation changes. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 20(3), 325-350. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10869-005-9013-2>
- Robbins, S. P., & Judge, T. (2012). *Essentials of organizational behavior*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Romme, G., & Dillen, R. (1997). Mapping the landscape of organizational learning. *European Management Journal*, 15(1), 68. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0263-2373\(96\)00075-8](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0263-2373(96)00075-8)
- Schein, E. (1996) Culture: The missing concept in organization studies. *Administrative science quarterly*, 41(2), 229-240. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/2393715>
- Schein, E. H. (2010). *Organizational culture and leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Seers, A., Keller, T., & Wilkerson, J. M. (2003). Can team members share leadership? Foundations in research and theory. In J. A. Conger & C. L. Pearce (Eds.), *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership* (77-102). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

- Seibert, S. E., Sparrowe, R. T., & Liden, R. C. (2003) A group exchange structure approach to leadership in groups. In J. A. Conger & C. L. Pearce (Eds.), *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership (173-192)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Senge, P. M. (2006). *The fifth discipline: The art and practice of the learning organization*. New York, NY: Doubleday/Currency.
- Setili, A. (2014). *The agility advantage: how to identify and act on opportunities in a fast-changing world*. Retrieved from <http://www.ebib.com>.
- Shafer, R. A. (1997). *Creating organizational agility: The human resource dimension* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses. (304345905)
- Shafer, R. A., Dyer, L., Kilty, J., Amos, J., & Ericksen, J. (2001). Crafting a human resource strategy to foster organizational agility: A case study. *Human Resource Management, 40*(3), 197-211. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/EMR.2003.1207061>
- Smith, I. (2005). Achieving readiness for organisational change. *Library Management, 26*, 408-412. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/01435120510623764>
- Soparnot, R. (2011). The concept of organizational change capacity. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 24*(5), 640-661. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09534811111158903>
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2000). *Using multivariate statistics*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Tan, B. (1998). Agile manufacturing and management of variability. *International Transactions in Operational Research, 5*(5), 375-388. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-3995.1998.tb00121.x>
- Tennant, R. (2001). Building agile organizations. *Library Journal, 126*(7), 30.

- Teo, H.-H., Wang, X., Wei, K.-K., Sia, C.-L., & Lee, M. K. O. (2006). Organizational learning capacity and attitude toward complex technological innovations: An empirical study. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology*, 57(2), 264-279. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/asi.20275>
- Thames, B., & Webster, D. W. (2008). *Chasing change: Building organizational capacity in a turbulent environment*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Tsoukas, H., & Chia, R. (2002). On organizational becoming: rethinking organizational change. *Organization Science*, 13(5), 567-582.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1287/orsc.13.5.567.7810>
- United States Securities and Exchange Commission. (2008). *Circuit City 2008 annual report form 10-K*. Retrieved from <http://www.secinfo.com/d14D5a.t2Qs8.a.htm>
- Val, M. P., & Fuentes, C. M. (2003). Resistance to change: a literature review and empirical study. *Management Decision*, 41(2), 148-155.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/00251740310457597>
- Van, V. J., Groeneveld, S., & Kuipers, B. S. (2014). Talking the talk or walking the walk? The leadership of planned and emergent change in a public organization. *Journal of Change Management*, 14(2), 171-191. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14697017.2013.805160>
- Van, W. C., Aarts, N., & Van, H. A. (2011). Changed planning for planned and unplanned change. *Planning Theory*, 10(2), 144-160.
- Wang, C. L., & Ahmed, P. K. (2003). Organisational learning: a critical review. *The Learning Organization: an International Journal*, 10(1) 8-17.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09696470310457469>

- Weeks, W. A., Roberts, J., Chonko, L. B., & Jones, E. (2004). Organizational readiness for change, individual fear of change, and sales manager performance: An empirical investigation. *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*, 24(1), 7-17.
- Weerawardena, J. (2003). Exploring the role of market learning capability in competitive strategy. *European Journal of Marketing*, 37, 407-429.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/03090560310459023>
- Weick, K. E. (2000). Emergent change as a universal in organizations. In M. Beer & Nohria N. (Eds.), *Breaking the code of change (223 – 241)*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Weiner, B. J., Amick, H., & Lee, S. Y. (2008). Conceptualization and measurement of organizational readiness for change: A review of the literature in health services research and other fields. *Medical Care Research and Review*, 65(4), 379-436.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1077558708317802>
- Woerkum, C. M. J., Aarts, M. N. C., & Grip, K. (2007). Creativity, planning and organizational change. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 20(6), 847-865.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09534810710831055>
- Worley, C. G., & Lawler, E. E., III. (2009). Agility and organization design: A diagnostic framework (Working paper No. 566) Center for Effective Organizations Retrieved from <https://ceo.usc.edu/agility-and-organization-design-a-diagnostic-framework/>
- Worley, C. G., & Lawler, E. E., III. (2010). Agility and organization design: A diagnostic framework. *Organizational Dynamics*, 39(2), 194-204.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2010.01.006>

- Worley, C. G., Williams, T. D., & Lawler, E. E. (2014). *Assessing organization agility: Creating diagnostic Profiles to Guide transformation*. Hoboken, NJ: Jossey-Bass.
- Worley, C. G., Williams, T., Lawler, E. E., & O'Toole, J. (2014). *The agility factor: Building adaptable organizations for superior performance*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass
- Wruck, K. H. (2000). Compensation, incentives, and organizational change: ideas and evidence from theory and practice. In Beer, M., & Nohria, N. (Eds.), *Breaking the code of change* (269 – 305). Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Yeung, A. K. (1999). *Organizational learning capability*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Yukl, G. (1989). Managerial leadership: A review of theory and research. *Journal of Management*, 15(2), 251-289. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/014920638901500207>
- Yukl, G. A. (2002). *Leadership in organizations*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Yusuf, Y. Y., Sarhadi, M., & Gunasekaran, A. (January 01, 1999). Agile manufacturing: The drivers, concepts and attributes. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 62(1), 33-43. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0925-5273\(98\)00219-9](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0925-5273(98)00219-9)
- Zaleznik, A. (1998). Managers and leaders: Are they different? *Harvard business review on leadership*. (pp. 61-88). Boston, MA: Harvard Business School.
- Zeira, Y., & Avedisian, J. (1989). Organizational planned change: Assessing the chances for success. *Organizational Dynamics*, 17(4), 31-45.
[http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0090-2616\(89\)80025-7](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0090-2616(89)80025-7)

APPENDIX A

Protecting Human Research Participants Certificate

https://www.citiprogram.org/members/index.cfm?pageID=124

COLLABORATIVE INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING INITIATIVE (CITI PROGRAM) COURSEWORK REQUIREMENTS REPORT*

* NOTE: Scores on this Requirements Report reflect quiz completions at the time all requirements for the course were met. See list below for details. See separate Transcript Report for more recent quiz scores, including those on optional (supplemental) course elements.

- **Name:** Majed Najrani (ID: 4518194)
- **Email:** majed.najrani@gmail.com
- **Institution Affiliation:** Pepperdine University (ID: 1729)
- **Institution Unit:** GSEP

- **Curriculum Group:** GSEP Education Division
- **Course Learner Group:** GSEP Education Division - Social-Behavioral-Educational (SBE)
- **Stage:** Stage 1 - Basic Course

- **Report ID:** 17897394
- **Completion Date:** 12/02/2015
- **Expiration Date:** 11/30/2020
- **Minimum Passing:** 80
- **Reported Score:** 94

REQUIRED AND ELECTIVE MODULES ONLY	DATE COMPLETED	SCORE
Belmont Report and CITI Course Introduction (ID: 1127)	11/12/15	3/3 (100%)
History and Ethical Principles - SBE (ID: 490)	11/12/15	5/5 (100%)
Defining Research with Human Subjects - SBE (ID: 491)	11/12/15	5/5 (100%)
The Federal Regulations - SBE (ID: 502)	11/12/15	4/5 (80%)
Assessing Risk - SBE (ID: 503)	11/18/15	4/5 (80%)
Informed Consent - SBE (ID: 504)	12/02/15	5/5 (100%)
Privacy and Confidentiality - SBE (ID: 505)	12/02/15	5/5 (100%)

For this Report to be valid, the learner identified above must have had a valid affiliation with the CITI Program subscribing institution identified above or have been a paid Independent Learner.

CITI Program
 Email: citisupport@miami.edu
 Phone: 305-243-7970
 Web: <https://www.citiprogram.org>

Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative
at the University of Miami

APPENDIX B

Permission to use the Organizational Agility Survey Protecting Human

From: Majed Najrani student
To: Collins, Kevin
Subject: Fwd: Permission to use the Organizational Agility Survey
Date: Thursday, December 10, 2015 2:17:21 PM
Attachments: Agility Survey -English.docx
 Agility Survey Scales and Reliabilities-2012.docx

----- Forwarded message -----

From: Worley, Christopher <[REDACTED]>
Date: Mon, Nov 24, 2014 at 12:42 PM
Subject: RE: Permission to use the Organizational Agility Survey
To: Majed Najrani student <[REDACTED]>

Hi Majed wow, this is an earlier version.. I've attached the latest version and our "agreement" is that you can use the survey for your research (with all appropriate attribution) and you will send along the data for any results you get with if you use a large, public, for profit organization. In terms of the instrument's reliability, I've attached a sheet on that as well. Some of the "averages"

and reliabilities have probably changed a bit, but these are very representative
 chris

From: Majed Najrani student [REDACTED]
Sent: Monday, November 24, 2014 12:38 PM
To: Worley, Christopher
Subject: Permission to use the Organizational Agility Survey

Hi Dr. Worley,

This is Majed Najrani; we meet at your presentation for "the Agility Factor" last Wednesday. I am wondering if I can get your permission to use your survey "Organizational Agility Survey" (attached) for my dissertation. My dissertation title is "The effect of organizational change, learning and leadership on organizational agility". Also, can you please send me any data that can help me validity the instrument. Thank you so much for your help.

Have a great day,

Majed Najrani

[REDACTED]

APPENDIX C

IRB Approval Notice



Pepperdine University
24255 Pacific Coast Highway
Malibu, CA 90263
TEL: 310-506-4000

NOTICE OF APPROVAL FOR HUMAN RESEARCH

Date: January 20, 2016

Protocol Investigator Name: Majed Najrani

Protocol #: 15-12-139

Project Title: *The Effect of Change Capability, Learning Capability and Shared Leadership on Organizational Agility*

School: Graduate School of Education and Psychology

Dear Majed Najrani:

Thank you for submitting your application for exempt review to Pepperdine University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). We appreciate the work you have done on your proposal. The IRB has reviewed your submitted IRB application and all ancillary materials. Upon review, the IRB has determined that the above entitled project meets the requirements for exemption under the federal regulations 45 CFR 46.101 that govern the protections of human subjects.

Your research must be conducted according to the proposal that was submitted to the IRB. If changes to the approved protocol occur, a revised protocol must be reviewed and approved by the IRB before implementation. For any proposed changes in your research protocol, please submit an amendment to the IRB. Since your study falls under exemption, there is no requirement for continuing IRB review of your project. Please be aware that changes to your protocol may prevent the research from qualifying for exemption from 45 CFR 46.101 and require submission of a new IRB application or other materials to the IRB.

A goal of the IRB is to prevent negative occurrences during any research study. However, despite the best intent, unforeseen circumstances or events may arise during the research. If an unexpected situation or adverse event happens during your investigation, please notify the IRB as soon as possible. We will ask for a complete written explanation of the event and your written response. Other actions also may be required depending on the nature of the event. Details regarding the timeframe in which adverse events must be reported to the IRB and documenting the adverse event can be found in the *Pepperdine University Protection of Human Participants in Research: Policies and Procedures Manual* at community.pepperdine.edu/irb.

Please refer to the protocol number denoted above in all communication or correspondence related to your application and this approval. Should you have additional questions or require clarification of the contents of this letter, please contact the IRB Office. On behalf of the IRB, I wish you success in this scholarly pursuit.

Sincerely,

Judy Ho, Ph.D., IRB Chairperson

cc: Dr. Lee Kati, Vice Provost for Research and Strategic Initiatives

APPENDIX D

Information Sheet for Online Surveys

PEPPERDINE UNIVERSITY*Majed Najrani*

The Effect of Change Capability, Learning Capability and Shared Leadership on Organizational Agility

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Majed Najrani at the Pepperdine University, because you are an employee or a manager in Southern California. Your participation is voluntary. You should read the information below, and ask questions about anything that you do not understand, before deciding whether to participate. Please take as much time as you need to read this document. You may also decide to discuss participation with your family or friends.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study is to understand the connection between an organization ability to change, learn and lead in relationship to organizational agility.

PARTICIPANT INVOLVEMENT

If you agree to voluntarily to take part in this study, you will be asked to take part in this study, you will be asked to complete an online survey, which is anticipated to take about 5 minutes. You do not have to answer any questions you do not want to or do not know, click “DNK” in the survey to move to the next question.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

Your participation is voluntary. Your refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights, or remedies because of your participation in this research study.

ALTERNATIVES TO FULL PARTICIPATION

Your alternative is to not participate. Your relationship with your employer will not be affected whether you participate or not in this study.

CONFIDENTIALITY

I will keep your records for this study anonymous as far as permitted by law. However, if I am required to do so by law, I may be required to disclose information collected about you. Examples of the types of issues that would require me to break confidentiality are if you tell me about instances of child abuse and elder abuse. Pepperdine’s University’s Human Subjects Protection Program (HSPP) may also access the data collected. The HSPP occasionally reviews and monitors research studies to protect the rights and welfare of research subjects. There will be no identifiable information obtained in connection with this study. Your name, address or other identifiable information will not be collected. The data will be stored on a password protected flash drive in the principal investigators place of residence and the data will be stored for a minimum of three years after the study has been completed, and then the data will be destroyed.

INVESTIGATOR’S CONTACT INFORMATION

I understand that the investigator is willing to answer any inquiries I may have concerning the research herein described. I understand that I may contact Majed Najrani by email at [REDACTED]. You can also, contact the Dissertation Chairperson James DellaNeve at [REDACTED] if I have any other questions or concerns about

this research. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, contact Dr. Judy Ho, Chairperson of the Graduate & Professional Schools Institutional Review Board (GPS IRB) at Pepperdine University, via email at gpsirb@pepperdine.edu or at 310-568-5753.

RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANT – IRB CONTACT INFORMATION

If you have questions, concerns or complaints about your rights as a research participant or research in general please contact Dr. Judy Ho, Chairperson of the Graduate & Professional Schools Institutional Review Board at Pepperdine University 6100 Center Drive Suite 500 Los Angeles, CA 90045, 310-568-5753 or gpsirb@pepperdine.edu.

If you would like documentation of your participation in this research you may print a copy of this form.

By clicking on agree to participate; you are acknowledging you have read the study information. You also understand that you may end your participation at end time, for any reason without penalty.

You Agree to Participate

You Do Not Wish to Participate

APPENDIX E

Agility Survey

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study of leadership and change at your organization. For each of the items below, please select the response that most closely corresponds to your beliefs about your organization. There are no right or wrong answers; we are looking for your honest opinion. Your responses will be kept completely confidential; only summaries of the data will be presented.

Demographic Questions**What is your gender?**

- Male
- Female

What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- Less than High School
- High School / GED
- Some College
- 2-year College Degree
- 4-year College Degree
- Master's Degree
- Doctoral Degree
- Professional Degree (JD, MD)

Which of the following categories best describes your employment status?

- Manager
- Employee

How long have you worked at the organization?

- Less than 6 months
- 6 months - 1 year
- 1 - 2 years
- 2 - 4 years
- 4 - 6 years
- 6 - 8 years
- 8 - 10 years
- 10 - 15 years
- 20 or more years

What is your organization's primary business activity *at this location*? (Select one only)

- Manufacturing and Process Industries (Non-computer)
- Online Retailer
- Internet Service Provider (ISP) or Application Service Provider (ASP)
- Communications Carrier
- Aerospace
- Banking/Finance/Accounting
- Insurance/Real Estate/Legal
- Federal Government (including military)
- State/Local Government

- Medical/Dental/Healthcare
- Transportation/Utilities
- Construction/Architecture/Engineering
- Data Processing Services
- Wholesale/Retail/Distribution
- Education
- Marketing/Advertising/Entertainment
- Research/Development Lab
- Business Services/Consultant
- Computer Manufacturer (Hardware, software, peripherals)
- Computer/Network Services/Consultant
- Computer Related Retailer/Wholesaler/Distributor
- Other

How many employees work in your establishment?

- 1-4
- 5-9
- 10-19
- 20-49
- 100-249
- 250-499
- 500-999
- 1000 or more

○ 50-99

B. Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your organization		Not at all	A little	To some extent	To a moderate extent	To a large extent	Do not know
1.	develops strategies with flexibility in mind	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
2.	encourages innovation	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
3.	provides people an accurate sense of how the organization is performing	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
4.	considers the ability to change a strength of the organization	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
5.	has a purpose or mission that is widely shared	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
6.	reallocates resources (e.g., budgets) easily as circumstances require	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
7.	pays for skills and knowledge that contribute to performance	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
8.	is capable of shifting its structure quickly to address new opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
9.	develops leaders at all levels	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
10.	is good at applying learnings from past experience	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
11.	has flexible reward systems that change to take advantage of opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
12.	has a unifying purpose or mission other than profitability and growth	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
13.	has formal mechanisms to connect senior management with people at all levels of the organization	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
14.	supports individuals developing new knowledge and skills	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
15.	has enough budget “slack” so that people can develop new products or better ways of working together	1	2	3	4	5	DNK

	B. Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your organization	Not at all	A little	To some extent	To a moderate extent	To a large extent	Do not Know
16.	encourages managers to develop the leadership skills of their direct reports	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
17.	has purpose, mission, values, and management systems that act as a coherent whole to drive behavior and performance	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
18.	encourages everyone to share leadership activities	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
19.	has strategies that can adapt to changing markets	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
20.	encourages prudent risk-taking	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
21.	has a culture that embraces change as normal	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
22.	rewards seniority more than performance	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
23.	has a purpose or mission that is acted out on a day-to-day basis	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
24.	has a strong reputation in the marketplace for its ability to change	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
25.	has a strong commitment to developing people	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
26.	spends a lot of time thinking about the future	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
27.	has stated values that guide day-to-day behaviors	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
28.	has a well-developed change capability	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
29.	is able to implement changes better than most organizations	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
30.	has a track record of delivering on the goals of change initiatives	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
31.	has senior management spending considerable time interacting with the rest of the organization	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
32.	has core values that reflect a change-ready organization	1	2	3	4	5	DNK

	B. Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your organization	Not at all	A little	To some extent	To a moderate extent	To a large extent	Do not know
33.	has change management, talent management, and strategic planning processes that are well coordinated	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
34.	has a shared, enterprise-wide change management model	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
35.	widely shares “best practices” information	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
36.	has work assignments that are flexible and easily changed	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
37.	rewards people for performance on a timely basis	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
38.	has a track record of effectively sharing what is learned in one part with other parts that could benefit	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
39.	regularly reviews learnings from change efforts	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
40.	shares financial and business strategy information with all employees	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
41.	is known in the industry as an organization that effectively manages change	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
42.	has an explicit set of values that guide day-to-day decision making	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
43.	routinely engages in discussions about what might happen in our markets five years from now	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
44.	has flexible budgets that respond to marketplace changes	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
45.	allows information to flow freely from the outside to units and groups where it is most valuable	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
46.	can successfully manage several change initiatives simultaneously	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
47.	puts employees in touch with customers	1	2	3	4	5	DNK

B. Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your organization		Not at all	A little	To some extent	To a moderate extent	To a large extent	Do not Know
48.	ties compensation closely to the performance of the business	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
49.	easily reassigns key people and talent to respond to marketplace opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
50.	integrates sustainability into its operations	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
51.	puts as many employees as possible in contact with the external environment, especially with customers	1	2	3	4	5	DNK
52.	has a strong commitment to sustainability	1	2	3	4	5	DNK

1. What proportion of people in this organization would you say is in direct contact with the outside world (customers, suppliers, partners, regulators, etc.) as part of their job?

- Less than 20%
 21 to 40%
 41 to 60%
 61 to 80%
 Over 80%
 Do Not Know

2. Is there a widely shared objective or decision rule that is applied in the face of conflicting goals (e.g., do what's right for the customer; quality comes first, etc.)?

- Yes No Do Not Know

If Yes, what is it:

3. Roughly, what percentage of the time does senior management spend

- a. Fixing the business _____%
 b. Running the business _____%
 c. Building the future business _____%
 TOTAL 100%

4. Please consider each pair of values below and check the box indicating which orientation best describes how people think and act in the organization. We are very interested in knowing about the values that actually guide behavior and decision-making.

Is this organization more

- | | | |
|---|----|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Internally focused | or | <input type="checkbox"/> Externally focused |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Organic and free-flowing | or | <input type="checkbox"/> Hierarchical and rule-bound |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Creative/innovative | or | <input type="checkbox"/> Equilibrium-oriented and stable |
| <input type="checkbox"/> People oriented | or | <input type="checkbox"/> Results oriented |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Short-term focused | or | <input type="checkbox"/> Long-term focused |

APPENDIX F

Change Capability

The following statements show correlations between change capability and the flowing variables:

Change Capability and Strong Future Focus

B4) considers the ability to change a strength of the organization and B26) spends a lot of time thinking about the future.

Correlations			
		Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- considers the ability to change a strength of the organization	Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- spends a lot of time thinking about the future
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- considers the ability to change a strength of the organization	Pearson Correlation	1	.585**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	<i>N</i>	116	116
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- spends a lot of time thinking about the future	Pearson Correlation	.585**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	<i>N</i>	116	116
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

Change Capability and Change-Friendly Identity

B28) has a well-developed change capability and B24) has a strong reputation in the marketplace for its ability to change.

Correlations			
		Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has a strong reputation in the marketplace for its ability to change	Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has a well-developed change capability
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has a strong reputation in the marketplace for its ability to change	Pearson Correlation	1	.622**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	<i>N</i>	116	116
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has a well-developed change capability	Pearson Correlation	.622**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	<i>N</i>	116	116
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

Change Capability and Development Orientation

B29) is able to implement changes better than most organizations and B25) has a strong commitment to developing people.

Correlations			
		Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- is able to implement changes better than most organizations	Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has a strong commitment to developing people
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- is able to implement changes better than most organizations	Pearson Correlation	1	.501**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	<i>N</i>	116	116
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has a strong commitment to developing people	Pearson Correlation	.501**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	<i>N</i>	116	116
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

Change Capability and Develops Robust Strategies

B30) has a track record of delivering on the goals of change initiatives and B19) has strategies that can adapt to changing markets.

Correlations

		Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has a track record of delivering on the goals of change initiatives	Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has strategies that can adapt to changing markets
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has a track record of delivering on the goals of change initiatives	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	1 116	.693** .000 116
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has strategies that can adapt to changing markets	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.693** .000 116	1 116

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Change Capability and Flexible Resources

B33) has change management, talent management, and strategic planning processes that are well coordinated B15) has enough budget “slack” so that people can develop new products or better ways of working together.

Correlations

		Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has change management, talent management, and strategic planning processes that are well coordinated	Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has enough budget "slack" so that people can develop new products or better ways of working together
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has change management, talent management, and strategic planning processes that are well coordinated	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) <i>N</i>	1 116	.517** .000 116
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has enough budget "slack" so that people can develop new products or better ways of working together	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) <i>N</i>	.517** .000 116	1 116

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Change Capability and Flexible Reward Systems

B34) has a shared, enterprise-wide change management model and B11) has flexible reward systems that change to take advantage of opportunities.

Correlations

		Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has a shared, enterprise-wide change management model	Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has flexible reward systems that change to take advantage of opportunities
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has a shared, enterprise-wide change management model	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) <i>N</i>	1 116	.456** .000 116
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has flexible reward systems that change to take advantage of opportunities	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) <i>N</i>	.456** .000 116	1 116

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Change Capability and Development Orientation

B46) can successfully manage several change initiatives simultaneously and B14) supports individuals developing new knowledge and skills.

Correlations

		Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- can successfully manage several change initiatives simultaneously	Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- supports individuals developing new knowledge and skills
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- can successfully manage several change initiatives simultaneously	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) <i>N</i>	1 116	.433** .000 116
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- supports individuals developing new knowledge and skills	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) <i>N</i>	.433** .000 116	1 116

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX G

Learning Capability

The following statements show correlations between learning capability and the flowing variables:

Learning Capability and Development Orientation

B10) is good at applying learnings from past experience and B14) supports individuals developing new knowledge and skills

Correlations			
		Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- is good at applying learnings from past experience	Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- supports individuals developing new knowledge and skills
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- is good at applying learnings from past experience	Pearson Correlation	1	.578**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	<i>N</i>	116	116
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- supports individuals developing new knowledge and skills	Pearson Correlation	.578**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	<i>N</i>	116	116
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

Learning Capability and Vertical Information Sharing

B35) widely shares “best practices” information and B31) has senior management spending considerable time interacting with the rest of the organization

Correlations			
		Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...-widely shares “best practices” information	Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...-has senior management spending considerable time interacting with the rest of the organization
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...-widely shares “best practices” information	Pearson Correlation	1	.498**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	<i>N</i>	116	116
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...-has senior management spending considerable time interacting with the rest of the organization	Pearson Correlation	.498**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	<i>N</i>	116	116
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

Learning Capability and Flexible Resources

B38) has a track record of effectively sharing what is learned in one part with other parts that could benefit and B36) has work assignments that are flexible and easily changed

Correlations

		Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has a track record of effectively sharing what is learned in one part with other parts that could benefit	Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has work assignments that are flexible and easily changed
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has a track record of effectively sharing what is learned in one part with other parts that could benefit	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	1 116	.614** .000 116
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has work assignments that are flexible and easily changed	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.614** .000 116	1 116

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Learning Capability and Information Transparency

B39) regularly reviews learnings from change efforts and B45) allows information to flow freely from the outside to units and groups where it is most valuable.

Correlations

		Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...-regularly reviews learnings from change efforts	Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...-allows information to flow freely from the outside to units and groups where it is most valuable
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...-regularly reviews learnings from change efforts	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) <i>N</i>	1 116	.528** .000 116
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...-allows information to flow freely from the outside to units and groups where it is most valuable	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) <i>N</i>	.528** .000 116	1 116

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX H

Shared Leadership

The following statements show correlations between shared leadership and the following variables:

Shared Leadership and Encourages Innovation

B9) develops leaders at all levels and B2) encourages innovation

Correlations

		Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- develops leaders at all levels	Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- encourages innovation
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- develops leaders at all levels	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) <i>N</i>	1 116	.524** 116
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- encourages innovation	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) <i>N</i>	.524** 116	1 116

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Shared Leadership and Vertical Information Sharing

B16) encourages managers to develop the leadership skills of their direct reports and B13) has formal mechanisms to connect senior management with people at all levels of the organization.

Correlations

		Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- encourages managers to develop the leadership skills of their direct reports	Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has formal mechanisms to connect senior management with people at all levels of the organization
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- encourages managers to develop the leadership skills of their direct reports	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) <i>N</i>	1 116	.506** .000 116
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has formal mechanisms to connect senior management with people at all levels of the organization	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) <i>N</i>	.506** .000 116	1 116

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Shared Leadership and Sense of Shared Purpose

B18) encourages everyone to share leadership activities and B17) has purpose, mission, values, and management systems that act as a coherent whole to drive behavior and performance

Correlations

		Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- encourages everyone to share leadership activities	Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has purpose, mission, values, and management systems that act as a coherent whole to drive behavior and performance
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- encourages everyone to share leadership activities	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	1	.524** .000
	<i>N</i>	116	116
Think about how your organization traditionally operates. Would you say, in general, that your or...- has purpose, mission, values, and management systems that act as a coherent whole to drive behavior and performance	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.524** .000	1
	<i>N</i>	116	116

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).