

**DISPOSITIONAL RESISTANCE TO CHANGE AS A POSSIBLE FACTOR
AFFECTING PROGRESS IN AN OUTPLACEMENT PROGRAM**

by

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A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

Capella University

May 2012

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Abstract

The loss of one's job is considered a traumatic life-changing event. Both for legal protection as well as demonstrating good corporate citizenship, companies developed programs to aid their senior managers transition to new careers after being terminated from their jobs. As the trend of business re-engineering and downsizing increased, a new industry, the outplacement industry, was created dedicated to address the growing population of displaced individuals. The rapid and uncontrolled growth of the industry with widely diverse program offerings caused many to question the value of the services provided. Researchers continue to note the inability to define specific practices that achieve superior outcomes. This study examined the effects of Dispositional Resistance to Change (DRTC) on an outplacement program. It was proposed that DRTC would negatively affect both the time a participant would spend in the program in preparation for their job search as well as the time taken to achieve their new job. 167 respondents participating in an established outplacement program were surveyed using Oreg's (2003) Dispositional Resistance to Change Scale score for the independent variable. The dependent variable data were acquired using the same survey instrument. Quantitative correlation analysis was performed on the data. Neither of the two null hypotheses stating that DRTC was not correlated to time taken in the program nor time to next job was rejected. It is hypothesized that additional, overwhelming factors such as Maslow's (1943) needs primacy, or Argyris and Schön's (1978) defensive routines may present confounding and overwhelming effects on the research. Broader, qualitative investigations toward better defining both factors and outcomes are suggested.

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my family beginning with my grandfather, the “father of electric heat,” and extending to my grandchildren, who all have exhibited an unbridled passion for knowledge and creativity. The value and importance of education has been imbued upon each and every member in the generations before and after me.

We are all most fortunate for each generation to have been brought up in a supportive atmosphere of enabled inquiry in many, many fields of discipline. May we continue to “pass it forward.”

Acknowledgements

I was most fortunate for having met my most outstanding mentor in a course room early on in the program. Having watched family members go through a PhD program before me, I had already gained an understanding of the importance of this relationship. We communicated often. We shared and continue to share a common sense of humor, which, without same, could have caused me to go off the deep end at times.

Upon completion of the coursework, I knew that I could not simply leave the relationship as being a mere disembodied voice at the end of a telephone conversation. So, I flew out to meet the good Dr. Cyd Strickland in her neck of the woods. We spent the better part of the day together finding and discovering yet other common loves, good dogs, good food, and good wine.

It is said that the dissertation journey develops strong bonds. So it is in my case. This was not a particularly “easy” journey. And, without Cyd’s amazing abilities to move me through the crises that arose, I doubt if I could have succeeded in this effort. Thank you so much, my dear friend.

To my two committee members, Drs. Yorkovich and Hobbs, I thank you very much for stepping in as replacements for the initial two members and bringing clarity to the issues brought on by the loss of my committee. Your insights have allowed me to produce a greatly improved dissertation.

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Problem

The loss of one's job is a major life-changing event (Joseph & Greenberg, 2001). Beginning in the 1960s, a growing population of college-educated, white-collar workers continues to experience job loss from the effects of technological change and improved managerial techniques (Redstrom-Plourd, 1998). In earlier times, companies attempted to help their displaced employees cope by offering internal outplacement programs. However, the sheer numbers of displaced employees quickly outstripped employers' abilities to provide adequate support.

A relatively new industry, the outplacement industry, has developed to help individuals deal with job loss, reassess their careers, refresh or learn how to market themselves, and return to work in as short a time as possible. While the outplacement industry has experienced phenomenal growth since its inception in the 1960s, continuing questions arise regarding the effectiveness of outplacement services (Mader, 2004). Some academic literature has gone as far as to characterize the industry as primarily offering a cooling-off function to avoid possible litigation (Miller & Robinson, 2004). Researchers continue to note that employees and industry know little about the outplacement process (Martin & Lekan, 2008; Parris & Vickers, 2007) regarding both

factors that are supportive of effective practices as well as those that may impede the process.

One such impediment, resistance to change, has been a factor known to affect the career change process (Dowd & Sanders, 1994). Resistance to change has been considered the core issue to achieving change (Taut & Brauns, 2003). Even when the change can be beneficial to an individual, resistance to change may still occur (Oreg, 2003). Hartung (2010), noting that research in career motivation and career choice is incomplete, has suggested the use of Oreg's Dispositional Resistance to Change Scale to further understand the process. The objective of the current study was to investigate whether Dispositional Resistance to Change (DRTC) might be a factor affecting individuals working through an outplacement program.

Background of the Study

Globalization and rapid technological advances are among the top causes for businesses to adapt to their changing environment for both survival and growth. The need for organizational change continues to grow, placing organizations in a position of constant redefinition and endless change (Parish, Cadwallader, & Busch, 2007). Human resources, considered one of the most flexible assets in an organization, face the brunt of change in the form of layoffs, firings, and similar effects (De Witte, Vandoorne, Verlinden, & De Cuyper, 2005).

The increasing scope and magnitude of organizational activity has resulted in an ever-growing population of individuals involuntarily removed from their jobs. A lifetime career within one organization has become a rarity. Outplacement services, a concept

that arose in the 1960s as a way for corporations to show social responsibility, and later to avoid costly lawsuits, are now a routine part of executive and managerial termination (Insala, 2008). While outplacement services have grown to be a multi-billion dollar global industry (Insala, 2008), the effectiveness of outplacement remains in question (Gribble & Miller, 2009; Martin & Lekan, 2008; Parris & Vickers, 2007).

Many participants stall at various stages of an outplacement program (D. Miles, 2002); some never complete the program. Outplacement processes that do not optimize individuals' efforts to regain their place in a productive environment represent both a personal and a social loss. Some researchers have suggested that re-employment possibilities decrease as an individual remains in an outplacement program or remains unemployed longer (Mader, 2004). Thus, effectiveness of program measurement in terms of time is essential.

The reasons for directing individuals to outplacement are numerous. Executives and managers often become candidates for outplacement during mergers, with the resulting redundancy of management talent. When new senior management arrives in an organization, issues of personal chemistry can arise between the new senior executive and the existing old-school members of the organization (Martin & Lekan, 2008). Technological change may outstrip the capabilities of current management, resulting in a need to replace them with individuals more aligned with new technologies.

Individuals who resist organizational change may face the results of the organization removing them. This may occur due to a strategic need that does not allow time to win over resistance, but rather simply eradicates it (Kotter & Schlesinger, 2008). A key individual who is persistently resistant and blocks the change effort may offer no

alternative to removal (Recardo, 1995). Alternatively, as Prochaska, Prochaska, and Levesque (2001) noted, some management takes the strategy of simply removing resistors at the onset.

The key function of outplacement services is to aid both terminated employees and employers in managing the transition process (Redstrom-Plourd, 1998). As the outplacement industry grew, competitive pressures caused service providers to repackage their services into a hierarchy of offerings, with program durations ranging from one day to unlimited support, the latter continuing until clients find new employment, start their own business, or retire (Gribble & Miller, 2009). Some of the lower-cost services and less individualized packages have become a commodity with questionable effectiveness and impact (Martin & Lekan, 2008). Challenger (2005), viewing the industry as a provider, noted that organizations using a high quality form of outplacement services have shown a higher return on investment than those using lower quality forms of outplacement.

Some scholars view the entire field of outplacement as of questionable value. Miller and Robinson (2004) suggested outplacement services actually serve a far different purpose. Performing a meta-analysis of the works written by outplacement proponents, Miller and Robinson suggested the literature is highly rationalized to influence terminations to the benefit of the employer by providing a cooling-off period for the terminated employee. Noting the words from the outplacement giant in the industry, Challenger (2005) indicated the firm suggested outplacement services are useful to avoid possible litigation and to reduce severance payments.

Researchers who noted that central to the industry is the prescription that outplacement services should be in place prior to termination notice further supported Challenger's claim. Miller and Robinson (2004) also claimed that employers are more interested in helping those terminated to gain quick re-employment rather than quality re-employment. This goal would seem to support the industry use of time between jobs as a metric of program performance, which researchers have shown not to be a good predictor of effective outplacement.

Elements of an Outplacement Program

The outplacement industry typically identifies key process factors of (a) maintaining self-esteem and confidence, (b) understanding one's strengths and weaknesses; (c) understanding one's core personality; (d) developing personal marketing materials as well as skills, planning, interviewing; and (e) negotiating as being core to the outplacement process (D. Miles, 2002). Outplacement services may include provision of an office with administrative staff to assist with faxing and posting job applications; access to phones, faxes, photocopiers, computers, and printers; support in developing resumes; and access to financial counseling (Gribble & Miller, 2009). From the perspective of the terminated individual, Wanberg and Hough (1996) reported needed outplacement services differ, and instead should include

- Emotional and social support to cope with the situation and to stay motivated and committed to the job search;
- Information and advice on making financial decisions and adjustments;
- Guidance with examining and developing career goals;
- Information, advice, training, and feedback on planning and conducting a job campaign; and

- Administrative support.

Outplacement can be summarized as a process of recovery, assessment, goal setting, preparation, and conducting a campaign to achieve the next career goal. The literature reinforces an observation that each of the elements logically builds upon one another.

Stages

The literature suggested delivery of outplacement services occurs in stages (D. Miles, 2002). The first stage centers upon the initial transition from the terminating employer into the outplacement program. This is commonly called intake. Intake begins at the first moment the client (the term given to describe an involuntarily displaced individual) meets the consultant (the term given to an individual working in the employ of the service provider who works in a one-to-one relationship with a client). For many reasons, including mental health considerations, the need for the intake process to begin as early as possible after the removal decision is to minimize the effects of the termination. Delays in addressing the effects of termination have led to discouragement and motivational issues that could lead to greater difficulties in re-integration into the job market (De Witte et al., 2005).

The second stage is that of dealing with feelings of loss and self-doubt. Empirical support indicates that individuals need support in dealing with the trauma of job loss (Spera, Buhrfeind, & Pennebaker, 1994). Researchers have argued that the loss of one's job is perhaps one of the most traumatic events in adult life (Hartenstein & Waugh, 1984;

Joseph & Greenberg, 2001) and results in threats to identity, self-worth, and motivational and performance deficits (Joseph & Greenberg, 2001).

The third stage is assessment. The focus of this stage is to help the clients discover their capabilities and strengths as well as to identify their weaknesses and areas for improvement. Activities in this stage guide the clients to understand and identify new job and career opportunities (De Witte et al., 2005; Martin & Lekan, 2008).

The fourth stage consists of new skills training: the use of new technologies, understanding the changed job market, and honing interviewing and negotiation skills. D. Miles (2002) suggested in this stage, clients learn how to market themselves, which is a new phenomenon for most executives. The underestimation of the importance of acquiring excellent networking skills is a point discussed by many researchers.

The fifth and most often final stage is that of the client entering the job market and applying the skills learned and honed by the program. These learned tasks include applying networking and researching skills, along with responding to job opportunities and eventually entering into negotiations for a new job offer. The ability of the clients to use their social capital skills is paramount (Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004).

Within the program stages, researchers have discussed inadequate recognition of and dealing with traumatic loss (Bush, 1996; Caplan, Vinokur, & Price, 1997; Locker, 1997), resistance to evaluation (Taut & Brauns, 2003), resistance to networking (Carsman, 1997) and resistance to change (Conner, 1993) as possible factors that may impede progress within a program. However, the researchers have directed little research towards more fully understanding these impediments to success.

As noted above, resistance to change is at the core of change itself. Much research has centered on change and resistance to change, focusing mostly on the contextual aspects of change. Even when contextual aspects are favorable to change, change efforts sometimes experience failure. In his 2003 paper, Oreg observed, “Some individuals seem to resist even changes that are consonant with their interests. Who are these people?” (Oreg, 2003, p. 680).

Oreg, incorporating the components of affective, cognitive, and behavioral intent suggested by Piderit (2000), developed a scale to measure resistive personality characteristics that may exist regardless of contextual antecedents of resistance. This scale is called the Dispositional Resistance to Change Scale (DRTC) and it has seen broad use in research (Campbell, 2006; Hyland, 2007; Nov & Ye, 2008; Stewart, May, McCarthy, & Puffer, 2009). Oreg’s scale measures Dispositional Resistance to Change, summarizing affect, cognitive, and behavioral intent. In the current study, the scalar value resulting from the scoring of Oreg’s instrument were evaluated for correlation to both (a) time to next job and (b) time through the program, completing the stages discussed.

An exemplar of Oreg’s question would be those individuals terminated from their employment and now entering an outplacement program. These individuals have been involuntarily moved into a change situation in which accomplishment of learning or improving the skills necessary to reenter the job market is clearly in their interest, but—for reasons unknown—the time spent to complete the program and success levels vary widely (D. Miles, 2002). Some fare badly in the program; some fare well. A possible explanation to this variance may be an individual’s acceptance of change.

Measuring Success

Considerable literature in the field has dealt with defining what measures constitute success or effectiveness, with little agreement. From both the practitioner and researcher viewpoints, the length of time to the next job has been a common measure of program effectiveness (Gribble & Miller, 2009). Research has found that significant variation in time to next job relates to the intensity of the program (Westaby, 2004), and numerous client related factors such as severance pay, resources, and similar factors (Martin & Lekan, 2008). Time to next job may be highly dependent upon economic conditions and competition for any particular job (Wanberg, Kanfer, & Rotundo, 1999).

Confounding the use of time to next position as a measure of success or effectiveness has been a rise in individuals who do not return to their previous careers and instead end up starting their own businesses (Wooten, Timmerman, & Folger, 1999). This situation is an entirely different and even less researched metric concerning what the program accomplished. Feldman and Leana (2000) questioned whether individuals moved from their previous careers to self-employment as a first choice or in reaction to frustrations experienced in their job search.

For the purposes of measuring how participants perform within an outplacement program, an alternative measure was necessary. The stages of an outplacement program discussed above, dealing with loss, assessment, goal setting, and skills training as common elements of most programs, are all relatively independent of the external factors that determine time to next job and thus may offer a more consistent measure for comparison. The measures of time spent through these stages also offer a more consistent indication as to how an individual has progressed through the program:

achieving the necessary skills and personal growth before moving on to the task of re-entering the marketplace to achieve their newly defined goals.

Statement of the Problem

Researchers have noted that most business literature on outplacement is practitioner-based and filled with recommendations unfounded in sound research (Guinn, 1988; Mader, 2004). Researchers have continued to note that scholars know little about the outplacement process, yet determining the effectiveness of services offered is important (Butterfield & Borgen, 2005; Gribble & Miller, 2009; Martin & Lekan, 2008; Parris & Vickers, 2007). Study results have had little success in identifying specific outplacement activities and factors that either produce desired results or hinder the processes. Knowledge of factors such as DRTC that may negatively affect what practices current research considers important may lead to a better understanding of possible causality.

Purpose of the Study

Little research is available to identify and understand factors that may negatively impact existing outplacement support practices. The purpose of this study was to determine if a correlation existed between DRTC scores and outcomes of this particular outplacement program as measured by times in program as well as time to next job. The goal of the study was to use a correlational analysis between DRTC and the time spent by individuals in an outplacement program to determine if DRTC played a role in program outcomes. Discovery of additional moderating factors in the delivery of outplacement

support may improve the efforts of researchers attempting to understand what practices are effective.

Rationale

Martin and Lekan (2008) noted the inability to identify the elements in the outplacement process that aid in helping individuals recover from job loss. The noted lack of available measures to serve as dependent variables related to effectiveness or success of the overall program, hampered theory building. The outplacement process is a process achieving change. Theory suggests that resistance to change may very well have an impact on those processes (Carsman, 1997; Conner, 1993; Taut & Brauns, 2003).

Findings from this study add to the understanding of both negative and positive behaviors and attitudes that affect the process. A better understanding of the requirements to positively and proactively affect each individual entrant in an outplacement program will add to the body of knowledge. An understanding of the role of resistance to change may improve understanding of the current variability of effectiveness noted in the literature. The use of Oreg's DRTC scale as suggested by Hartung (2010) could add to the overall understanding of the outplacement process.

Oreg's DRTC scale has had broad application by a number of researchers. In the development of the scale, Oreg (2003) used a snowball sampling to study men and women ranging from the ages of 18 to 67 years. Oreg's second validation study looked at 197 Cornell University employees. The third, fourth, fifth studies utilized undergraduate students from Cornell. The sixth study applied to faculty members of Cornell. The seventh and last of the developmental studies applied to both employees

and graduate students involved in an office move. Oreg has subsequently used the scale to study resistance to change and work-related outcomes in a defense industry inter-organizational merger (Oreg, 2006),

- To establish the scale's meaningfulness across seventeen different cultures (Oreg et al., 2008),
- To study the impact of leader's characteristics as they applied to employee reactions to change (Oreg & Berson, 2009), and
- To study how Dispositional Resistance to Change affects occupational interests and choices (Oreg, Nevo, Metzger, Leder, & Castro, 2009).

Others have used Oreg's scale as well. Messer (2006) utilized Oreg's scale to investigate perceived organizational support, commitment, open communications, participation, and DRTC. Campbell (2006) surveyed 172 cadets at the U.S. Military Academy, looking for relationships between proactive change orientation, trust orientation, performance orientation, learning orientation, and DRTC. Hyland (2007) investigated DRTC and leadership styles.

Nov and Ye (2008) utilized the scale to study technology acceptance in the introduction of a new digitally based library system. Finally, Arciniega and Maldonado-Torres (2009) successfully employed the DRTC scale, demonstrating that high-scoring individuals appeared to be more attracted to conservative firms and low-scoring individuals appeared to be attracted to innovative firms. Oreg's DRTC scale has had broad application in efforts to understand the effects of dispositional resistance. The use of this scale in an outplacement program setting to understand if resistance affects the change process was a use consistent with existing studies.

Research Questions

The overarching question was, “Does Dispositional Resistance to Change (DRTC) affect the process and outcomes of an individual’s outplacement program experience?” Scholars have well accepted that the preferred outplacement process consists of a set of steps. These steps include (a) dealing with the trauma of job loss, (b) personal assessment, (c) goal setting, and (d) new job search skills training, including a special emphasis on networking skills. Research question 1 was, “How does the overall DRTC scale correlate to the time an individual takes to complete the steps of the outplacement program under study?”

Although scholars consider time-to-job metrics somewhat unreliable as a measure of program effectiveness, they are the mainstay of evaluation and marketing of outplacement programs. Research question 2 was, “Do high scores on Oreg’s DRTC scale correlate with longer times for participants’ achieving their next job or the goals they had set for themselves?” From these questions, the following hypotheses guided the study:

H1_O: There is no relationship between DTRC scores and the time it takes an individual to complete the outplacement program under study.

H1_A: There is a positive relationship between DRTC and the length of time it takes for an individual to complete the outplacement program under study.

H2_O: There is no relationship between the DRTC scores of an individual and the time it takes for an individual to reach the next job.

H2_A: There is a relationship between the DRTC scores of an individual and the time it takes for the individual to reach the next job.

Significance of the Study

This study has significance in that outplacement organizations desire tools to improve their understanding of clients' individual needs and issues that may affect their transition in the outplacement program. Researchers continue to seek to better understand measures of effectiveness in outplacement programs. Information in the current study has helped to fill the gap of knowledge regarding the dynamics of outplacement program activities.

The benefits of answering the research questions may help the study site in better validating their program to others. The benefits to future members of outplacement programs may be to give them an understanding of possible dispositional aspects of resistance that may affect their successful accomplishment of the program and their ability to proactively obtain help in working around their predispositions. The benefits to the academic community are to help fill the knowledge gap as to what factors affect the outplacement process.

Definition of Terms

Client. The term given by the outplacement firm to outplaced individuals in their programs.

Consultant. The individual who performs and directs the support services given to the client in the outplacement program.

Disposition. The tendency to behave and think in a particular way.

OutCo. This is the term chosen as a pseudonym for the study site. OutCo is a leading Midwestern provider of outplacement services.

Outcomes. For the purposes of this study, following job loss, outcomes refer to the achievement of an individual's next goal as developed in the individual's career planning efforts. This may be a new job, starting a self-owned business, retirement, and such. As a new measure, an additional outcome was the completion of the outplacement program support process, which readied the individual to move to his or her newly defined career goal.

Outplacement. A consulting and career counseling process that assists both employers and terminated employees in facing transition (Redstrom-Plourd, 1998).

Assumptions and Limitations

Researchers conduct studies by using assumptions or hypotheses as a foundation for the research (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The first assumption was that the responses from the participant would be truthful and comprehensive. While acknowledging the limitations of self-reporting, it remained the primary source of data. A second assumption was that the time intervals taken by participants in the discussed stages adequately reflected rates of achievement within the program. The longer a person remained in an outplacement program, the longer the economic loss as well the greater the difficulty in gaining re-employment. It seemed reasonable that the majority of participants would strive to progress through the program in an expedited manner. A major limitation of the study was that it covered only a single program. Generalization to other programs was limited.

Conceptual Framework

As discussed above, clients face difficult issues of change and may have personal dispositional aspects that could affect their progress in the program. This study was of individuals who had been involuntarily removed from their jobs and had entered an outplacement support program. The study took place at a major Midwest U.S. outplacement organization. Similar to other major outplacement programs, this organization provided a program in which support for dealing with loss, personal assessment, goal setting, and skills training was available to outplaced individuals. OutCo, similarly to other in their industry, experienced a wide variation in the time a client needed learn or relearn and master the skills necessary to compete in today's highly competitive job market.

A concept map is a graphical presentation of concepts and the relationships between concepts (Novak & Cañas, 2008). Concept maps allow the researcher and reader to visualize how conceptual elements work together (Merriam, 2009). A graphical conceptual framework appears in Figure 1.

Most contemporary research on RTC acknowledges and utilizes a multidimensional construct including affective, cognitive, and behavioral intent aspects. This study focused on the use of Oreg's (2003) DRTC scale to investigate whether it could perform as a predictive aid to rapidly identify individuals who might otherwise struggle for lengthy periods before the agency could identify them as needing special support.

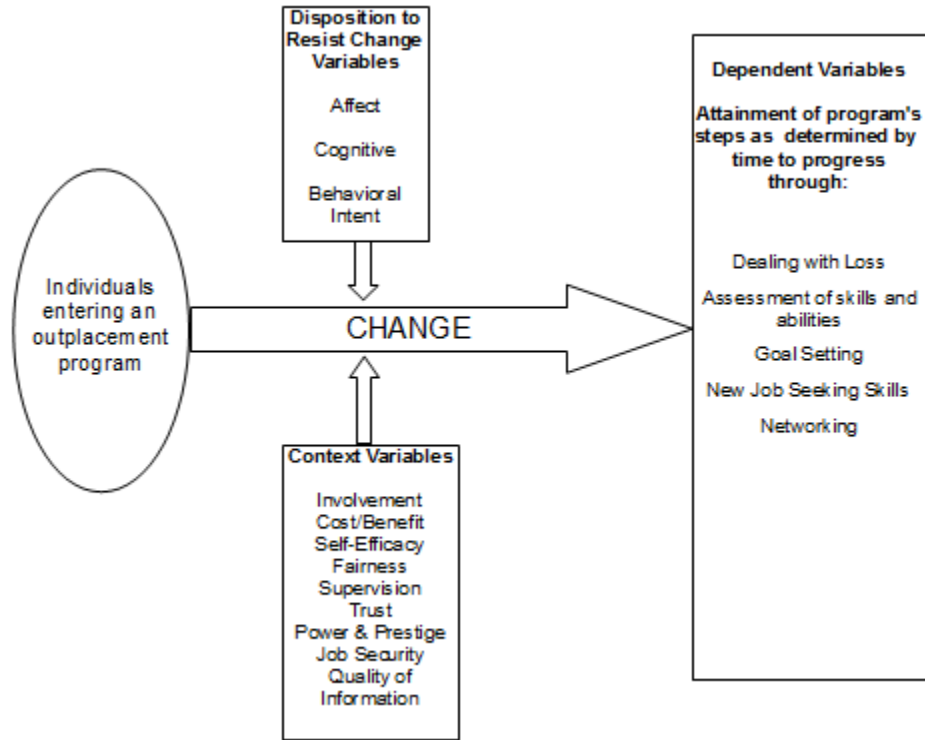


Figure 1. Conceptual framework of study.

The focus of the study was to investigate whether the effects of DRTC helped or hindered client progress in recovery from job loss. Recovery is not necessarily a job similar to the one lost. The solution may instead be retirement, self-employment, or volunteerism. Entry into one of the alternatives may be the result of progress, but might instead result from resignation or resistance to the main goal of reemployment. Thus, the measurement of the program results may or may not be an appropriate indicator of the effectiveness of the internal processes of the program. As an indicator of accomplishment, in place of time to next job, the time to achieve the steps of the program, which are less affected by both economic and market influences, was the dependent variable.

Nature of the Study

The study was a quantitative non-experimental study in which the goal was to determine if individuals' Dispositional Resistance to Change (DRTC) correlated to the time required for them to complete the study site's support program. This study took place at a large outplacement organization in the Midwest that had provided outplacement support for over 4,000 participants. Remaining at the crest of a wave of change in the outplacement industry, OutCo provided a continuous series of workshops, seminars, and job fairs for its members to support them in a self-directed approach. Data collection for the independent variable, DRTC, involved an Internet-based survey.

The results of the Likert-type questions in the survey were treated as interval type data. Collection of the dependent variable data, both time through the program and time to next job, was through inspection of OutCo's records monitoring participants' activities and transition times. The resulting data set underwent statistical analysis for correlation to attempt to understand if DRTC was a factor in a participants' progress to recover from loss of their jobs. To obtain a score of Dispositional Resistance to Change, the survey instrument utilized Oreg's (2003) well validated, 17-question Dispositional Resistance to Change Scale. The survey instrument also collected demographic information, including the respondents' estimates of time through the program and the duration of the job loss.

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

Chapter 1 was an outline of both the management dilemma and the knowledge gap existing in understanding outplacement practices. The chapter included research

questions appropriate for the outplacement context. Chapter 2 includes a presentation of the development of the outplacement industry and a meta-analysis of prior research performed in attempting to find and measure contributing factors to successful interventions. Resistance to change related to the issues found in delivery of outplacement services and the development of resistance to change are within the chapter, which ends with the applications of Oreg's DRTC scale in research.

Chapter 3 contains a description of the methodology, instruments, and procedures used for the study and the study environment in detail. Chapter 4 includes description and analysis of the data gained from the in-depth interviews and consultant notes. Chapter 5 discusses knowledge learned from the study, along with the issues and potential problems encountered during the conduct of the study. Recommendations for further study appear at the end of the chapter.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The literature review contains discussion of the growth of the outplacement industry and the gaps in performance created by competitive differentiation. These gaps created the motivation for researchers to study the new emerging business field. Noting that much of the early literature was practitioner-based without academic underpinning, researchers began to define the elements of outplacement and to suggest important and effective practices. The review outlines researchers' findings on important skills and traits for successful interventions.

However, the findings are somewhat clouded in that no generally accepted measure of either effective or successful outcomes exists. As discussed in Chapter 1, researchers have noted negative factors affecting the process, but discussion in the literature is sparse. This chapter ends with a literature review of the development of the field of study of resistance to change and of how such resistance may affect the outplacement process.

The Outplacement Industry

Outplacement, as a field of study, is a recent topic. Redstrom-Plourd (1998) placed the formal beginning of the outplacement industry as recently as the 1960s, with the beginnings of outplacement stemming from post-World War II efforts to bring returning GIs into the workplace. During the period between 1970 and 1980, many

entrepreneurs entered this new and rapidly growing industry. By 1980, Redstrom-Plourd noted that over 50 known outplacement firms were generating over \$80 million of revenue annually. By 1988, over 200 outplacement firms existed. Competition for business created efforts for differentiation among the firms and a repackaging of services to capture even more market share. Westaby (2004) found that superior programs provided a high level of support and services in terms of counseling time, psychological assessment, and broad campaign resources. Westaby suggested a typical hierarchy of programs offered by outplacement providers at the time included the following.

1. Executive unlimited: very high counseling time, very high psychological assessment, private office, high mailing resources, very high staff involvement.
2. Management unlimited: high counseling time, very high psychological assessment, private office, high mailing resources, high staff involvement.
3. Six-month limited: medium counseling time, medium psychological assessment, no private office, medium mailing resources, high staff involvement.
4. Three-month limited: medium counseling time, medium psychological assessment, no private office, high staff involvement.

The rapid entry of many firms with little co-ordination or standardization caused the industry to develop a questionable image (Redstrom-Plourd, 1998). Due to competitive practices, firms began to offer a broad variety of services, with few metrics examining the effectiveness of the services. Researchers and stakeholders suggested the growth of the industry and the resulting competition caused degradation in the services provided by outplacement firms. Martin and Lekan (2008) went as far as to refer to recent outplacement services as commodity-like in nature. Perhaps instigated by the

issues exposed in the field, research on the topic appeared to develop in earnest in the late 1980s.

The issue of outplacement effectiveness remains unanswered. Researchers have experienced difficulty in identifying specific outplacement activities that produce desired results (Gowan & Nassar-McMillan, 2001; Gribble & Miller, 2009) or make causality claims (De Witte et al., 2005). In an editorial opinion, Phillips (2009) suggested outplacement firms' performance had always been sketchy and offered that firms were trying to do too much for too many and the firms had moved to a "one-size-fits-all" approach, while research indicated such an approach did not work. Scholars have been largely unable to identify specific outplacement activities that produce desired results (De Witte et al., 2005; Gowan & Nassar-McMillan, 2001; Gribble & Miller, 2009). Few studies concerning negative factors that may affect the outplacement process appear in the literature.

The ability to define and measure effectiveness remains unanswered. Within an outplacement program, investigators discussed inadequate recognition of and dealing with traumatic loss, resistance to evaluation, resistance to networking, and resistance to change as possible factors that may impede progress within a program but apparently have not been topics of research. Client resistance in the career change process has been a known factor (Dowd & Sanders, 1994). Lonergan (2003) noted clients often appear to become stuck, even after having made a plan of action concerning their career change.

The phenomenon appears in such frequency that resistance to change in career planning may be a natural phenomenon (Magnusson, 2005). Hartung (2010), in a review of the 2009 career counseling and development literature, found that research in work

motivation and career choice behavior is still incomplete. Hartung, noting the research conducted by Oreg, Nevo, Metzger, Leder, and Castro (2009) on dispositional change and occupational interests, suggested Oreg's Dispositional Resistance to Change Scale might be useful in understanding clients' willingness to adapt to occupational change and their willingness to deal with the barriers that arise.

The length of time to the next job is a common measure of program effectiveness (Saks & Ashforth, 1999). However, some research findings have suggested some intensive programs that require more time to find the next job result in higher-paying jobs. Westaby (2004) found that displaced managers and executives participating in programs with higher levels of outplacement support took more time to find reemployment, had greater likelihood of reemployment, and had higher salaries in new jobs than did individuals participating in programs with lower levels of outplacement support. Significant variation in time to next job existed among executives due to factors such as (a) level of position sought, (b) severance and other resources available to sustain a search, (c) interest in relocation, (d) stage of career, (e) family circumstances, and (f) industry economics (Martin & Lekan, 2008).

The support level of the program offered to the individual may affect the time to next job. D. Miles (2002) studied 15 executives who exhibited resilience to the second stage of loss and moved quickly through their programs. One executive in the study relocated and semi-retired. A second went on to take three jobs before finally opening her own business. Of the remaining 13, the time to their next positions ranged from one day to 270 days ($\mu = 91$, $\sigma = 97$), which suggested that time to next position was not a significant measure of success in the study.

The number of individuals who do not return to their previous careers and end up starting their own businesses has increased (Wooten et al., 1999). This presents an entirely different and even less researched metric as to what the program accomplished. Wooten (1996) suggested four possible views of measurement as to a program's value: (a) examining the content of the program, (b) examining the effectiveness of the job search activity, (c) correlating cost of the effort to the benefits achieved, and (d) examining the client's satisfaction regarding the effectiveness of the process. Martin and Lekan (2008) relied upon consultant input after determining that length of time to the next job was not a valid indicator of success and found it extremely difficult to obtain client input about the outplacement process. Each of these approaches would appear to be fraught with problems in assessing effectiveness or value. Noting that research has turned to a search for factors to significantly affect the process, Martin and Lekan viewed personal growth, increases in resilience and optimism, and achievement of program goals as indicators of progress. The remainder of this section is a review of the literature on findings of important actions and traits of both the consultant and the client, along with methodologies and variables used for the studies.

Considerations for Outplacement Providers

Because the workforce has become more diverse, Pickman (1997) noted the increasing importance for programs to have the ability to engage effectively with many types of individuals. Programs must address a diverse set of needs that clients experience in their progression from job loss to achieving their next goal. Psychological trauma stemming from a termination has been the subject of detailed discussion in the literature.

Executives in particular suffer a tremendous sense of loss and a lowering of self-worth due to changes in professional status and removal from business social groups (Martin & Lekan, 2008). Gribble and Miller (2009) suggested researchers have well documented that displaced individuals can suffer from stigma, loss of identity and self-esteem, grief, destruction of existing habits, and the loss of social and support networks.

Agencies should consider addressing psychological loss as a pivotal part of outplacement (Gribble & Miller, 2009). Without support, clients can develop a lasting sense of bitterness and frustration (Challenger, 2005) that can lead to depressive symptoms (Caplan et al., 1997). Empirical evidence indicates that individuals need support in dealing with the trauma of job loss (Spera, Buhrfeind, & Pennebaker, 1994). D. Miles (2002), noting a majority of executives stall at the stage of coping with the stress and trauma of job loss, stated, “This phenomenon of differing time spent in completing the stage of dealing with loss in an outplacement program has been observed across a wide spectrum of senior executives” (p. 7). D. Miles noted that the phenomenon persisted across similar regimens of counseling techniques.

Personal assessment of personal capacities, abilities, ambitions, motivations, and knowledge are critical for development (Arellano, 2005). Taut and Brauns (2003) suggested a basic need for control, a need for a positive self-concept, and the basic human tendency to maximize rewards while avoiding punishment contribute to an individual’s attitude towards evaluation. Thus, while researchers have identified assessment as a critical component, a resistive disposition can hinder progress in this step.

One of the most agreed-upon critical tools for an outplacement client is the ability to network. Carsman (1997) suggested that in spite of the overwhelming need for networking, many clients refrain from or under-utilize networking. For the reluctant networker, as Carsman prefers to describe those individuals who resist networking, these individuals may face issues requiring change in six categories:

- conceptual issues regarding how networking functions,
- social skill deficiencies,
- a belief that the process is unethical,
- distorted cognitive processes,
- a perception of the cost emotionally and the time spent outweighs the value of the effort, and
- the inability to deal patiently with the lengthy process itself.

Client Attributes, Skills, and Behaviors

Researchers have tried to determine what aspects of the outplacement process produce effective results. The literature suggested successful clients displayed a willingness to listen and to expend significant energy and attention to the outplacement process (Martin & Lekan, 2008). An important finding was that the outplacement process needed to address individual differences of the client (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008; Herold, Fedor, & Caldwell, 2007; Saks & Ashforth, 1999). The research clearly indicated the one-size-fits-all approach to outplacement was inadequate. The literature identified a number of traits that correlated to successful outcomes as uniquely identified by the researchers and their studies.

Efficacy. The conviction that one can execute behaviors to produce a desired outcome has been referred to as efficacy (Bandura, 1977). Researchers have consistently found efficacy to influence thought patterns, actions, and emotional arousal. Bandura (1982) reported individuals would avoid activities believed to exceed their coping capabilities, but would undertake and perform those they judged as capable of achieving. Caplan et al. (1997) cited changes in self-efficacy as the most important determinant of job-seeking behavior.

Herold and Fedor (2007) investigated contextual (other changes going on) and personal (self-efficacy) factors related to commitment to change. They hypothesized a positive relationship between change self-efficacy and an individual's commitment to a given change. The findings of their quantitative study were that individual differences in change efficacy could affect one's commitment to change and individual differences in change efficacy interacted with change turbulence to influence change outcomes. The study findings also suggested that pervasive change could negatively influence individuals' commitment to change.

Armenakis, Harris, and Mossholder (1993) noted that while realization that a discrepancy exists can be a powerful motivator for change, the resulting reactions might become negative. For example, Nadler and Tushman (1990) discussed the possibility that awareness of discrepancy can result in counterproductive energy and warned that negative information could result in defensive reactions like denial, flight, or withdrawal. To minimize the possibility of a counterproductive reaction, Armenakis et al. suggested a change agent should build an individual's confidence such that he or she has the capability to correct the discrepancy.

Self-Esteem. Coopersmith (1967) defined self-esteem as the evaluation the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to him- or herself and to the extent to which the individual believes him or herself to be capable, significant, successful, and worthy. Saks and Ashforth (1999) studied the effects of self-esteem, job search self-efficacy, and perceived control over job search outcomes as they applied to job search behavior. Regression analysis failed to show a relation between positive job search behaviors and self-esteem.

Self-esteem may play into resistive behaviors, however, as suggested by Argyris and Comfort (1994). Stemming from Argyris' earlier work in learning and defensive routines, individuals' senses of competence, self-confidence, and self-esteem are highly dependent upon their theories-in-use and their protective defensive routines. In the case of change, a theory-in-use thinking model of protecting positions and power may inhibit the discovery of new sources of competence and skill, locking out the very information needed to overcome the sense of inadequacy that led to the protective behavior in the first place.

Employability. Fugate et al. (2004) argued that employability was a work-specific adaptability consisting of dimensions of career identity, personal adaptability, and the use of social human capital. Career identity included aspects of goals, hopes and fears, personality traits, values, beliefs, and similar attributes used in making sense of one's past, present, and future direction. Personal adaptability included individual differences of optimism, propensity to learn, openness, locus of control, and self-efficacy. Social capital, according to Fugate et al., was the goodwill in social networks, now more

often referred to as networking skills. Human capital referred to the individual's ability to utilize the personal factors of age, experience, training, and the like.

Later, Fugate and Kinicki (2008) developed and studied dispositional employability. They described dispositional employability as a constellation of individual differences that predispose employees to adapt proactively to their work and career environments. Fugate and Kinicki developed five dimensions of dispositional employability: (a) openness to changes at work, (b) work and career resilience, (c) work and career proactivity, (d) career motivation, and (e) work identity. The study focused on a program to resolve emotions about the job loss, enhance self-esteem, increase perceptions of self-control and competence, and facilitate cognitive restructuring. Using a web-based survey methodology and correlational analysis, at two- and four-month follow-ups, rates of full-time re-employment were higher for program participants than for control groups.

Coping. Coping has been defined as a person's ability to deal with taxing or stressful events with constantly changing cognitive and behavioral effort (Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis, & Gruen, 1986). Faced with unemployment, whether individuals view the event as positive or negative, the individuals must cope with the change (Hanisch, 1999). Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, and Welbourne (1999), in a study evaluating seven dispositional traits related to coping, used locus of control, generalized self-efficacy, self-esteem, positive affectivity, openness to experience, tolerance for ambiguity, and risk aversion as independent variables. Their correlational study results indicated high intercorrelations among the variables, which caused the researchers to develop a two-factor solution using positive self-concept and risk tolerance as final

factors. Their construct of self-concept had factors of locus of control, positive affectivity, self-esteem, and self-efficacy. Risk tolerance consisted of openness to experience, low risk aversion, and tolerance for ambiguity. Judge et al. found that the two dispositional constructs had significant relationships to coping with change and career outcomes.

Resilience. The construct of resilience, like coping, is one of the more comprehensive constructs used by researchers pertaining to change. Hagevik (1998), looking at the provider side of career counseling, suggested that turning a perceived loss into an ultimate gain both required and built resilience. Hagevik reasoned that resilience was central to success for individuals and organizations dealing with change. Hagevik's model of a resilient individual offered that the person displayed a positive outlook, used a focused approach with strong purpose and or vision, displayed a flexible attitude in that change was a manageable process, was organized in the ability to identify underlying themes in confusing situations, and was proactive. Hagevik noted proactive people demonstrated the ability to take risk and apply lessons from previous experiences.

Conner (1993) defined resilience as the ability to absorb high levels of change while displaying minimal dysfunctional behavior. Conner offered five basic characteristics of resilience:

1. A positive attitude displaying a sense of security and self-assurance based upon a view of life as complex but filled with opportunity;
2. A focused, clear vision of what is desired to be achieved;
3. A flexible stance when faced with uncertainty;
4. A capability to develop structured approaches to managing ambiguity; and

5. A proactive stance towards change.

While Conner and Hagevik seem to have similar views on elements of resilience, Paton, Smith, and Violanti (2000) suggested individuals could differ in resilient characteristics. Other researchers considering resilience as a factor of change offered additional considerations. Martin and Lekan (2008), in describing aspects of progress in an outplacement transition, characterized resilience as the ability to cope with emotional stress and tension, maintain a feeling of control in the process, recover from feelings of anger and denial of the job loss, and improve their health and physical well-being. Martin and Lekan suggested optimism, as a separate measure of progress, had dimensions of focus, self-worth, ability to psychologically rebound from the loss, and maintenance of energy levels.

Noting the wide variations that other researchers regarded as what the components of an outplacement process should be and what objectives it should achieved, Martin and Lekan (2008) focused on client progress during the outplacement process. They operationalized their dependent variable success as client progress through the transition and the quality of employment post-transition. Martin and Lekan measured progress through the transition by personal growth, resilience, optimism, and achievement. Post-transition employment had dimensions of job performance, satisfaction, and probability of advancement. Of issue in the study was that only ratings by the staff in the outplacement firm were available for the study.

To Bariel, Savoie, and Meunier (2007), change acceptance had a relationship to resilience, which they defined as optimism, self-esteem, and perceived control. The study findings indicated that some 23% of the respondents suggested a dispositional

pattern of discomfort to change, which may be explained by Oreg's (2003, 2006) theory of dispositional resistance. Fugate and Kinicki (2008) suggested the resilient individuals displayed positive self-assessments and optimistic views of life facets. Paton et al. (2000) defined resilience as "an active process of self-righting, learned resourcefulness, and growth" (p. 173). Resilience is the ability to function psychologically at a level far greater than expected, given the individual's capabilities and previous experiences. Paton et al. offered a list of traits as the level of self-control over cognitive re-experience, perceived meaning, behavioral self-blame, attributional style, hardiness, emotional stability, decisiveness, controlled risk-taking, self-awareness, tolerance for ambiguity, and self-efficacy.

Nikolaou, Gouras, Vakola, and Bourantas (2007), in attempting to define a personality profile of a change agent, suggested self-esteem, optimism, and perceived control as highly correlated variables pertaining to change behaviors in resilient individuals. Nikolaou et al. offered that resilient people had the ability to bounce back from negative emotional experiences and displayed flexible approaches in dealing with changing demands. The Nikolaou et al. study results indicated that resilient individuals assessed themselves as more ready to accept and apply change.

Conner (1993) offered a structure of change with resilience at the center of seven support patterns of nature, process, roles, commitment, culture, synergy, and resistance. This model, along with Nikolaou et al., suggested that non-resilient individuals may be more likely to experience negative emotions and resist change and provided a linkage between resilience and resistance to change as a moderator of outplacement processes (see Figure 2).

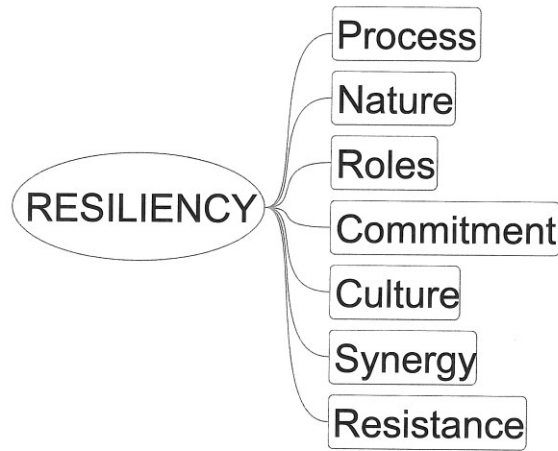


Figure 2. Conner resilience model.

Conner suggested seven patterns related to resiliency as it pertains to accommodating change. Conner envisioned “process” to mean the stages of change and used Lewin’s three phases of change: a stable condition, a transition, and a final new state. Nature of change is how disruptive the change is to those affected. Conner noted individuals are most vulnerable to change when they are most surprised. The forced removal from one’s job would represent a significant disruption. Roles in the model consist of sponsors of change, agents of change, advocates of change, and of course, the targets of change.

Conner posited that commitment deals with the actions and beliefs of the target of change to invest personal resources to achieve the change and suggested individuals achieved commitment in stages of preparation, acceptance, and adoption. The patterns of culture affect change in that beliefs, behaviors, and assumptions of an individual acquired

from the existing organization play an important role in how the individual views change. Synergy concerns the interaction of parties that can either develop self-destructive or enhancing relationships. Synergy between the program and client is important to the process of change. The last pattern Conner suggested is resistance to change.

Conner (1993) suggested that resistance occurred when an individual's expectations encountered significant disruption, whether in a positive or negative manner. Conner believed the Kubler-Ross model of evolution of stages dealing with loss was applicable to job disruption. Expanding upon Kubler-Ross's five-stage model, Conner offered that a negative response to change would have stages of immobilization, denial, anger, bargaining, depression, testing, and acceptance. However, Conner suggested that individuals who are more resilient might approach change with a more positive response. Here, the stages of positive resistance are uninformed optimism, informed pessimism, hopeful realism, informed optimism, and completion. Conner suggested the differences between negative and positive response to change was in how the individual perceived the change itself.

Conner (1993) developed two personality types of individuals who would react to change in extreme opposite manners: danger-oriented people and opportunity-oriented people. Danger-oriented people lack an overarching sense of purpose or vision for their lives. They have a low tolerance for ambiguity, typically feel insecure about their ability to manage uncertainty, respond in reactive rather than proactive fashion, often react to disruption by throwing up smoke screens to shift the focus of attention, and often blame and attack someone or something for the problems caused by the change. Opportunity-oriented people, on the other hand, consider change a potential advantage for them to

exploit. They have a strong life vision and assume new opportunities and choices will produce even more demanding challenges. They are able to compartmentalize the stress caused by disruption and do not engage in change efforts for which they do not have the necessary resources. Opportunity-oriented individuals are able to and know when to ask for help, use nurturing relationships to recover from the strain of change, and never assume the world will remain unchanged.

As previously noted, the literature holds little information regarding what aspects of the outplacement process may have negative impacts. As discussed above, how the individual interprets the loss of employment may be highly dependent upon the individual's disposition. Research has suggested that negative information, such as termination from a job, has far greater impact on resulting behavior. Ajzen (2001) noted that both cognitive and affective negative information have a much greater impact on evaluation (negativity bias). This concept has abundant research support in the fields of campaign advertising and marketing.

Ahluwalia, Burnkrant, and Unnava (2000), in investigating how consumers process negative information, noted the Merriam formula used in determining media exposure gave quadruple weight to negative news as compared to positive news. Ahluwalia et al. found that individuals with low commitment to a brand would exhibit a significant decline in attitude after exposure to negative information about the brand. They also noted that even though both high- and low-commitment consumers displayed similar levels of liking a brand, the low-commitment users displayed a significantly greater attitude change to negative information. The authors offered that low-commitment consumers treated negative information as having higher diagnosticity than

positive information, while high-commitment consumers considered positive information to be more diagnostic.

Klein and Ahluwalia (2005), continuing to study negativity, applied the similar observation of negative news having greater consideration by individuals to evaluation of political candidates. Their findings were that the negativity effect was not universal across all voters, but had a robust effect for voters who disliked the candidate.

Wattenberg and Briens (1999) questioned research suggesting negative campaign advertising would be a demobilizer of action in voters. In a review of 1992 and 1994 campaign advertising and voter recollections of the ads, Wattenberg and Briens found substantial evidence that independent voters who recalled negative ads over no ads at all would turn out to vote.

The preceding studies, along with Conner's (1993) observations, suggested that certain personality types were more affected by negative information and would act upon that information. The actions, as previously noted, might well result in behaviors that are counter indicative to achieving the task. Researchers consider one view of these behaviors as resistance to change.

Resistance to Change

Resistance to change (RTC) has been a core problem in achieving organizational change (Taut & Brauns, 2003). One of the critical factors in the high failure rate of major organizational change noted by researchers was the failure of management to recognize and deal with RTC (Avery, McGee, & Falk, 2000; Bovey & Hede, 2001a; Grover, Jeong, Kettinger, & Teng, 1995).

Many researchers have argued that organizational change is dependent upon individual change. The importance of addressing individual aspects of RTC has been proposed by many researchers (Carlopio, 1998). Argyris and Schön (1978) argued that organizations could not be understood by group behavior alone. Schneider, Brief, and Guzzo (1996), arguing that lasting organizational change requires altering the fundamental psychological feel of the organization, emphasized that if people do not change, there is no organizational change. Piderit (1999) suggested viewing change through the eyes of those who are the targets of the change would enhance the understanding of organizational change. Bovey and Hede (2001a) observed that for organizational change to take place, the participating people must first change themselves. Moran and Brightman (2000), commenting on individuals attempting to maintain status quo, argued that unless individuals change themselves, organizational change is not sustainable. These findings demonstrate the need to understand change at the individual level.

Historical Context

Scholars credit Kurt Lewin (1947) as the founder of social psychology. Lewin's work developed the social science mapping of psychological resistance to change. As a trained psychologist, Lewin adapted individual psychological field theory to apply to the study of social psychology. In contrast to the then-dominant positivist viewpoint, Lewin proposed that researchers should not describe the field influencing the individual in objective terms, but rather in the way the individual perceived it at that time. In Lewin's 1943 paper "Defining the 'Field at a Given Time,'" Lewin stated, "Field theory is probably best characterized as a method: namely, a method of analyzing causal relations

and of building scientific constructs” (p. 201). This conceptualization allowed the analytical process to include a broad variety of facts within constructs that could characterize objects and events in terms of interdependence. Commenting on the influence of past behaviors, Lewin felt those behaviors could only have an indirect effect.

Credited as the first known published reference to research on resistance to change in organizations (Dent & Goldberg, 1999), Coch and French (1948) conducted research at the Harwood Manufacturing Company. They attempted to answer two basic questions, “Why do people resist change so strongly?” and “What can be done to overcome this resistance?” (p. 512). Their study was a two-phased study that first developed a working theory by interviewing factory workers and then created an in-factory experiment employing two variations of a democratic procedure in handling transferees to a new job process.

In the experiment, the dependent variable was the time required to return to a standard rate of production and the independent variable was a subjective difference on methods for selecting the groups and communicating the change (Coch & French, 1948). They noted that the relearning period for an experienced operator was longer than the learning period of the new operator, indicating some resistive element. Their initial studies caused them to create a preliminary theory of resistance to change. Resistance to change and the slow relearning was primarily a motivational problem. Skill was a minor factor and motivation was the major determinant in recovery.

Credited by Dent and Goldberg (1999) as the originator of the concept of resistance to change, Lewin established what became one of the most powerful concepts of change management: the process of change as three steps: unfreezing, moving, and re-

freezing. Schein (1999), paying homage to Lewin's model of change and noting Lewin's definition of a steady state system as in quasi-stationary equilibrium, furthered the concept of unfreezing, positing that each required the presence of three processes, to some extent, for unfreezing to occur. First, Schein felt dissatisfaction or frustration with the status quo was necessary as a disconfirmation process. Second, the disconfirmation would have to initiate some amount of survival anxiety, making failure to resolve the disconfirmation emotionally problematic. Finally, a necessary step within unfreezing was the process of providing for psychological safety. Other scholars have applied and expanded this concept of safety to include allowing the participant the freedom to experiment in the learning of new behaviors during the change phase of Lewin's model.

Watson (1971) expanded the construct of resistance to change to view both the individual and the social system separately. For the individual, Watson proposed factors of (a) homeostasis, (b) habit, (c) primacy, (d) self-selective perception and retention, (e) dependence, (f) illusion of impotence, (g) superego, (h) self-distrust, (i) insecurity and regression, and (j) deprived or anxious forces. For social systems, Watson offered (a) conformity to norms, (b) systemic and cultural coherence, (c) sacrosanct activities, (d) rejection of outsiders, (e) hierarchy, (f) affluence and leeway, (g) restricted communication, and (i) the nature of innovation as possible factors.

Watson (1971) offered the opinion that researchers had oversimplified resistance to change as simple inertia in human nature. He suggested forces that provided a degree of stability in the individual or in organizations could be forces resisting change.

Suggesting homeostasis and complacency as basic psychological behaviors of man,

Watson suggested researchers needed to direct attention to the importance of reducing resistance to minimize the stress caused by change.

Argyris and Schön (1974) created a definition of resistance to change as a matrix of attitude towards change and the willingness of private or public testing of assumptions. Most accepting of change was an individual with a positive attitude towards change and the willingness to test personal assumptions about the change publicly. Conversely, an individual not open to change and unwilling to risk public testing of personal assumptions was highly resistant to change.

Diamond (1986), in a psychoanalytic examination of Argyris and Schön's contributions to organization theory and intervention, focused attention on the problem of individual and organizational resistance to change as it pertained to Argyris and Schön's cognitive psychological assumptions about learning, reasoning, and effectiveness. Key to Diamond's analysis was that the self emerges from infancy with two contradictory behavioral tendencies: the tendency toward learning and change and the tendency to protect one's self against the risk of change as a result of learning.

During the course of any intervention effort, regardless of the client's espoused level of commitment, psychological resistance to change and learning would generally emerge. Diamond (1986) proposed organization development must include strategies for dealing with preconscious and often unconscious psychological defenses against change that serve to obstruct learning. Diamond posited failure of intervention strategies in organization development would occur most frequently when people ignored these contradictory human factors.

Diamond (1986) posited the combination of knowledge acquired from interpersonal or object relations theory provided change agents with additional insights to aid the task of working through psychological resistances to change and learning in organization members. Diamond noted Argyris and Schön's work in organizational learning stood out as one of few attempts by organization theorists, outside a psychoanalytic framework, to contend with personal and interpersonal defensive tendencies associated with organizational change. However, Diamond felt Argyris and Schön's predominantly cognitive treatment of defensiveness and resistance to change failed to provide an adequate treatment of irrational elements of human behavior in organizations.

Diamond (1986) concluded that comprehensive or practical intervention strategies must focus on intrapersonal and interpersonal resistances to change, along with cognitive limits to learning among organization members. Diamond suggested an intervention theory-in-practice could realistically merge the dynamics of head and heart. Diamond suggested the theory should integrate psychological knowledge of resistance to change and concomitant ego defenses against the anxiety of change with psychological understanding of cognitive processes of reasoning and learning-in-action. This duality in approach has since appeared in many new theories of intervention. The separate efforts of Argyris, Schön, and Diamond established affect and cognition as factors of individual resistance to change.

While many researchers and theorists have continued independent development of concepts, the theme of affective, behavioral, and cognitive aspects of resistance to change have been abundantly present. Ajzen (2001) reinforced this viewpoint of the composition

of attitudes. Ajzen discussed issues of primacy of affect and cognition over evaluation and concluded a multi-component view allowing for both affect and cognition might influence evaluation. Ajzen noted personality types might prioritize their tendency to base attitudes on cognition or affect. At that time, the major focus of theory and research in the area was the use of attitudes to predict behavioral intent and, ultimately, overt behavior. Ajzen's 1991 theory of planned behavior posited that people acted in accordance with their intentions and perceptions of control over behavior. While attitudes towards behavior influence intentions, the intentions account for considerable variance in actual behavior.

Research Using Affect, Cognition, and Behavioral Intent

Bovey and Hede (2001a), in an argument very similar to that of Argyris and Schön, theorized that theorists often treat human aspects of change in a token manner. In a study designed to “identify, measure and evaluate some of the unconscious motivations associated with an individual's level of resistance to change” (p. 536), Bovey and Hede (2001a) developed constructs of unconscious processes and resistance. For unconscious processes, the study investigated the relationship between both adaptive and maladaptive defense mechanisms and resistance to change. Bovey and Hede's operationalization of the constructs resulted in identification of factors of humor and anticipation for adaptive defenses and denial, dissociation, isolation of affect, projection, and acting out as factors of maladaptive defenses.

The Bovey and Hede (2001a) study found individuals who subconsciously used maladaptive defenses were more likely to resist organizational change. Conversely, individuals who used humor to cope with feelings of anxiety were less likely to resist

organizational change. The analysis also revealed that unconsciously and falsely attributing one's own unacceptable feelings, impulses, and thoughts to another person had by far the strongest associations with behavioral intention to resist change, as compared to all other maladaptive defenses investigated.

In a second study that year, Bovey and Hede (2001b) developed a framework of four constructs for empirical testing: perception, cognitions, affect, and resistance. Their conceptual framework suggested that cognitions influenced affect, which in turn influenced behavioral intent. Using the same survey as in the first study, the second study showed that individuals were significantly more likely to resist change if they had a tendency to blame, to be inert and passive, to avoid life's difficulties, and to not take control of their own destiny.

Piderit (1999), in observing that conversations of a co-worker could shape employees' attitudes toward changes in their work organization, developed the proposition that attitudes with affective, cognitive, and intentional behavior dimensions could define employee responses to organizational change. Piderit (2000), reviewing studies of resistance to change, contended that the complexities of the phenomenon of resistance to change had been blurred by researchers overlooking potentially positive intentions that may motivate negative responses to change and that current studies produced dichotomous results.

Piderit (2000), in noting Argyris and Schön's perspective that resistance arises from defensive routines, also noted Diamond (1986) for pointing out a remedy for resistance involving a cognitive realignment of resisters' espoused theories and theories-in-use, with the underlying nature of resistance portrayed as highly emotional. In making

these observations, Piderit concluded all three conceptualizations of affect, cognition, and intent had merit, thus, “Any definition focusing on one view at the expense of the others seems incomplete” (2000, p. 786). Piderit reasoned that responses to change along the three dimensions of affective, cognitive, and behavioral states might often be counter to one another and might result in ambivalence in response to any given change.

Current literature has two major current lines in the study of resistance to change. Cynicism represents one of the major lines of current research and attempts to explain outcomes through the constructs of affect, cognition, and behavioral intent. The other major research line found in recent literature is in the work by Oreg and others who have adopted Oreg’s scale of Dispositional Resistance to Change.

Cynicism

Researchers have offered cynicism both as an explanation of resistance and as a precursor to resistance. Wanous, Reichers, and Austin (2000) suggested that cynicism might be a self-fulfilling prophecy in dooming change efforts. Wanous et al. found that cynicism had negative correlations with previous amounts of change in the organization and with motivation to keep trying to make change.

Stanley, Meyer, and Topolnytsky (2005) conducted studies on the relationship of cynicism to resistance to change. Stanley et al. critiqued Reichers, Wanous, and Austin, (1997) and Wanous et al. (2000) and suggested those studies did not address a specific change. Stanley et al. found that change-specific cynicism modestly correlated with the intention to resist change in two separate studies, while global forms of cynicism did not appear to correlate. While the Stanley et al. focus was on the cognitive component, Stanley et al. suggested strong emotions could accompany cognitive cynicism and that

further research was necessary to understand how the two components of affective and behavioral responses combined. While adopting Piderit's multiple factor model of affective, behavioral, and cognitive aspects, Stanley et al. suggested the behavioral component was a dependent variable predicated on measures of cognitive and affective components.

Qian (2007), noting Stanley et al. (2005) developed a concept of change-specific cynicism and demonstrated a linkage to intent to resist, proposed a model wherein change-specific cynicism and intent to resist change related to one another theoretically and empirically. The predictor variables in Qian's model were perceived quality of information, participative decision making (PDM), cynicism of colleagues, and trust in management. The dependent variable was intent to resist change. The results of the analysis showed that PDM had neither direct nor indirect (via change-specific cynicism) effect upon intentions to resist (Qian, 2007). Perceived quality of information, colleague cynicism, and trust in management were significant predictors of both change-specific cynicism and intention to resist change. The other major research line found in recent literature was the work done by Oreg and by others adopting Oreg's scale.

Oreg's Resistance to Change Scale

Oreg (2003) noted that some individuals might resist changes even though those changes were consonant with their interests. The questions Oreg asked were, "Who are these people? What are the personality characteristics that drive such resistances?" (p. 680). Oreg, finding that previous studies utilized assessment instruments designed for other purposes and only indirectly related to understanding resistance to change, developed an instrument to assess a generalized disposition to resist change.

Oreg (2003) identified a series of variables: reluctance to lose control, cognitive rigidity, lack of psychological resilience, intolerance to the adjustment period involved in change, preference for low levels of stimulation and novelty, and reluctance to give up old habits. Oreg used these variables as sources in an exploratory study to generate initial items for the Resistance to Change (RTC) Scale. A factor analysis resulted in four categorical factors: routine seeking, emotional reaction, short-term focus, and cognitive rigidity. Routine seeking explained 38.7% of variance with emotional reaction, explaining an additional 8% of variance. Short-term focus and cognitive rigidity added 5.6% and 5% variance explanation, respectively. The total scales' reliability coefficient Cronbach alpha was .92, with the subscale alphas of .89, .86, .71, and .68. Oreg's (2003) development of the RTC Scale appears to be the most utilized effort in determining reliability and validity, both internal and external, found in the current literature.

More recent work by Oreg (2006) was a study to consider potential antecedents and consequences of resistance. Oreg conceptualized resistance as a tri-dimensional construct of affective resistance, behavioral resistance, and cognitive resistance, depicting resistance as subjective and complex. The study measured both Dispositional Resistance to Change and contextual perceptions of job and environmental factors. The theoretical model used appears in Figure 3. The Resistance to Change Scale appears in the Appendix.

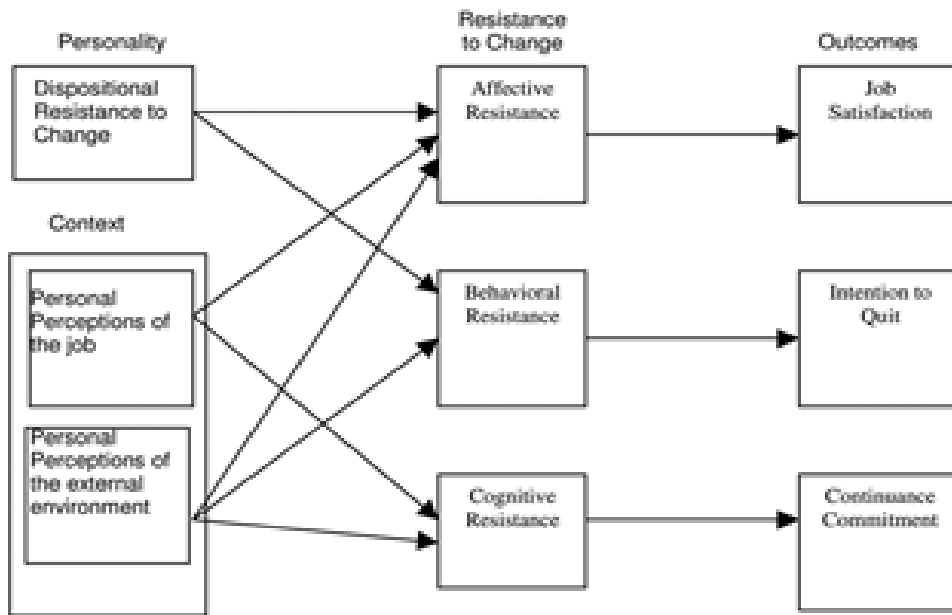


Figure 3. Oreg theoretical model. Adapted from “Personality, Context and Resistance to Organizational Change” by S. Oreg, 2006, *European Journal of Work & Organizational Psychology*, 15(1), 73-101. Copyright 2006 by Psychology Press Ltd. Reprinted with permission.

Dispositional Resistance to Change showed a strong association with affective resistance and a weaker but still significant relation to behavioral resistance. Anticipated changes in job outcomes were associated with affective and cognitive components, with job security showing a strong relationship with cognitive resistance, and threats to intrinsic rewards correlated to both cognitive and affective resistance. Oreg (2003) noted that of all antecedents, trust in management was the only variable affecting all three components of resistance to change. The study results also demonstrated relationships of potential outcomes and resistance to change, with (a) affective resistance negatively correlated with job satisfaction, (b) behavioral resistance positively correlated to intentions to quit, and (c) cognitive resistance negatively correlated to continuance

commitment. Continuance commitment is a key concern in clients maintaining a vigorous effort in the outplacement program.

Oreg's RTC scale has had considerable use in current research. Messer (2006) utilized Oreg's RTC scale to investigate perceived organizational support, commitment, open communications, participation, and Dispositional Resistance to Change. Messer found no significant correlation between perceived open communication and RTC. Neither perceived organizational support nor higher affective organizational commitment had significant correlation to RTC. However, the variable participation was a predictor of RTC, with a negative correlation ($r = -.146, p = .05$).

Campbell (2006) surveyed 172 cadets at the U.S. Military Academy, looking for relationships between proactive change orientation, trust orientation, performance orientation, learning orientation, and Dispositional Resistance to Change. Campbell found dispositional resistance to change had a negative correlation with proactive change orientation ($r = -.52, p < .001$), a negative correlation with learning orientation ($r = -.23, p < .01$), and a positive correlation with performance orientation ($r = .21, p < .01$). Proactive orientation is a factor of resilience. The RTC scale may provide early insights as to how a client may approach the sometimes-ambiguous challenge of a job search.

Hyland (2007) investigated Dispositional Resistance to Change and leadership styles in a convenience sample of former students of the author, as well as business colleagues and clients, along with current students and alumni of Teachers College ($n = 126$). The variables were Dispositional Resistance to Change, supervisor's leadership style, a scoring of the leader-member exchange (LMX) scale, change-related self-efficacy, and openness toward actual organizational change. As the author expected,

openness to organizational change had a significant correlation with Dispositional Resistance to Change ($r = -.323, p < .001$) and change related self-efficacy had a similar negative correlation with Dispositional Resistance to Change ($r = -.374, p < .001$). This observation would appear to further support Conner's (1993) inclusion of resistance to his resilience model.

Oreg et al. (2008) sampled undergraduates in 17 nations to demonstrate the scale validity across cultures. They suggested that the scale carried equivalent meaning and validity across nations sampled in their study, giving further demonstration of the scale's utility (or lack of sensitivity) across cultures. Stewart, May, McCarthy, and Puffer (2009) furthered the study of RTC into Russia and the Ukraine. Stewart et al. noted that the Dispositional Resistance to Change Scale may include components of other scales, but gave the best overall measure of resistance. Stewart et al. noted that all the studies continued to singly depend upon self-reporting. These two studies further confirmed the utility of the scale for many applications.

Oreg et al. (2009) used the DRTC scale to investigate attraction to occupational interests. Their study found that DRTC was higher in applicants for conventional jobs in comparison with applicants in investigative or innovative and enterprising jobs. A second study involved 106 individuals seeking either conventional interest jobs or artistic jobs (45 artistic and 61 conventional). While a *t* test comparing the mean scores of the two groups did not show a significant difference, additional testing against each of the four dimensional scores of the RTC showed significant differences in the routine-seeking dimension. As mentioned by Hartung (2010), DRTC may well play a role in how an individual moves through the process of career development.

Hidden Resistance

Argyris and Schön (1978) noted some organizations tend to create learning systems specifically inhibiting the double-loop learning that might call into question or challenge their norms, objectives, and basic policies. In future development, Argyris (1985) termed these actions as defensive routines. Argyris defined defensive routines as thoughts and actions used to protect individuals', groups', and organizations' usual ways of dealing with reality, and he believed the defensive routines were counter-productive when, in order to protect, they inhibited learning. Argyris noted human beings come into organizations programmed to create intricate networks and layers of organizational defenses that become self-reinforcing and self-proliferating. Suggesting that humans have been preprogrammed to do so by early socialization techniques, Argyris (1985) noted, "We are programmed with a theory in use about how to deal with others that is predisposed to create defensiveness and error, especially when there is threat" (p. 89).

Argyris (1985) went on to suggest that after creating a defensive routine, individuals then cover those routines with further defenses to hide the first layer of defense. Argyris proposed threat as the key component to the creation of defensive routines, regardless of subject matter, and true whether the message is communicated to individuals, groups, or intergroup. The generic response to threat was to bypass the causes of the threat.

Argyris (1985) determined defensive routines were probably the most important cause of failure in the implementation of sound strategy, regardless of the approach used. The intent of such routines is to reduce individual or organizational pain, and when done

properly, the routines prevent determining and correcting the very causes of the pain. The most insidious defensive routines are those protecting individuals from response based upon thoughtfulness, caring, diplomatic approach, and realism. The conforming behavior exhibited is that of outward acceptance of demands for conformity, while having a secret rejection of those demands.

Key features of defensive reasoning are the unawareness of the inferences made and the lack of testing those inferences publicly. Argyris (1985) found defensive reasoning to be inflexible and unchangeable. Argyris and Schön (1974) found that individuals mostly were unaware of how their attitudes affected their behavior and were unaware of how negative attitudes affected others. They noted individual espoused theories and theories in use were quite often different, with individuals unaware of the difference. The theories in use could remain tacitly in place because their incongruity with espoused theory was undiscussable (Argyris & Schön, 1978). The findings led Argyris and Schön to conclude, “We cannot learn what someone’s theory in use is simply by asking him. We must construct his theory in use from observations of his behavior” (1974, p. 7).

Kegan and Lahey (2001, 2009) developed a concept of the *big assumption*, suggesting that a competing commitment driven by the individual’s big assumption can exist while totally hidden from the individual. This un-addressed commitment competes with and overwhelms both the cognitive and emotional aspects of accomplishing change within the individual. The big assumption represents often unspoken core values and fears and may possibly affect responses of individuals as they pertain to perceptions and attitudes concerning resistance.

Heath and Heath (2010) offered a theory that may influence behavioral intent and actual action. Heath and Heath, using the metaphor of an elephant (emotion) and its rider (rational element), suggested that people run out of self-control due to exhaustion. They suggested that the rational element, trying to steer the huge emotional element, simply could run out of resources before change could occur. They defined resistance as a lack of clarity.

Summary

The outplacement industry has grown to provide a complex array of services that has continued to perplex researchers trying to better understand correlation and ultimately causality between the services provided and the outcomes. Still unable to adequately define measurable outcomes, researchers have attempted to identify behaviors and traits that appear to significantly affect the process. The literature appears to be unanimous regarding the need to address individual differences of the client. Constructs of coping and resilience have found resonance among many researchers.

Interestingly, researchers have rarely mentioned what does not work or what impedes the outplacement process. The literature provides adequate reason to consider the construct of resistance to change as a possible contributor in attempting to find linkages between practices and outcomes in the outplacement field. Oreg's RTC would appear to provide significant diagnosticity as it pertains to the outplacement process. As the review indicated, the scale may offer insight to a number of behavioral and attitudinal issues uncovered in the literature.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

Restatement of the Problem

Academic research has noted that most business literature on outplacement is practitioner-based and filled with recommendations unfounded in sound research (Guinn, 1988; Mader, 2004). Researchers continue to note that scholars know little about the outplacement process, yet determining the effectiveness of services offered is important (Butterfield & Borgen, 2005; Gribble & Miller, 2009; Martin & Lekan, 2008; Parris & Vickers, 2007). Study results have had little success in identifying specific outplacement activities and factors that improve or hinder outcomes in outplacement programs. Knowledge of additional factors, such as Dispositional Resistance to Change (DRTC), that moderate outplacement practices will lead to a more comprehensive understanding of the outplacement process and bring researchers closer to causality claims.

The exploration of the relationship between DRTC and outcomes of an outplacement program were the topics of the current study. Outcomes were defined both by the most oft-cited metric used both by practitioners and researchers: the time from the beginning of the outplacement program until the time the achievement of the next job. As discussed, this metric may be a very unreliable measure for research. An alternative metric proposed in the current study might better serve as the dependent variable for studying effectiveness of an outplacement program.

The time an individual takes to progress through the developmental stages of an outplacement program is under less influence from external factors. This period begins when an individual enters the program, through the stages noted earlier, and ends at the point where training is complete and the individual starts the job search or focuses on the next goal. This quantitative research required use of correlational analysis to determine if a relationship existed between an individual's time through the outplacement program studied and DRTC. The overarching question was, "Does Dispositional Resistance to Change (DRTC) affect the process and outcomes of an individual's outplacement program experience?" Scholars have well accepted that the preferred outplacement process consists of a set of steps. These steps include (a) dealing with the trauma of job loss, (b) personal assessment, (c) goal setting, and (d) new job search skills training, including a special emphasis on networking skills. Research question 1 was, "How does the overall DRTC scale correlate to the time an individual takes to complete the steps of the outplacement program under study?"

Although scholars consider time-to-job metrics somewhat unreliable as a measure of program effectiveness, they are the mainstay of evaluation and marketing of outplacement programs. Research question 2 was, "Do high scores on Oreg's DRTC scale correlate with longer times for participants' achieving their next job or the goals they had set for themselves?"

From these questions, the following hypotheses guided the study:

H₁₀: There is no relationship between DRTC scores and the time it takes an individual to complete the outplacement program under study.

H1_A: There is a positive relationship between DRTC and the length of time it takes for an individual to complete the outplacement program under study.

H2_O: There is no relationship between the DRTC scores of an individual and the time it takes for an individual to reach the next job.

H2_A: There is a relationship between the DRTC scores of an individual and the time it takes for the individual to reach the next job.

Research Design

This study took place under a post-positivist worldview in that problems studied under this viewpoint reflect a need to “identify and assess causes that influence outcomes” (Creswell, 2009, p. 7). Consistent with a post-positivist viewpoint, using quantitative analysis to test hypotheses using variables that can be numerically quantified and statistically analyzed is an appropriate methodology of inquiry (Swanson & Horton, 2005).

Scholars often segment quantitative research into experimental, quasi-experimental, and non-experimental types of studies. Within the non-experimental types of quantitative research, correlational research seeks relationships between two or more variables (Holton & Burnett, 2005). The design chosen for this study was a non-experimental cross-sectional correlative design using a well-validated, web-based questionnaire created by Oreg (2003, 2006) to provide the independent variable, Dispositional Resistance to Change (DRTC). The program activity data was in the form of dates of attendance: hence, duration times provided the dependent variable. Program

activity data were from numbers maintained by the outplacement organization in their SQL server database.

Population and Sample

Population

The population for this study included all the individuals who had completed or were in the process of completing OutCo's program. Approximately 3,000 individuals have passed through the program, offering a sizeable population that had undergone an outplacement process. The typical job levels these individuals held previously were beginning to upper management positions, with annual salaries generally ranging from \$50,000 to \$100,000.

Sample Size and Sampling Plan

Hypothesis testing involves making a decision as to whether the null hypotheses about the population can be rejected. To achieve this, using an adequate sample helps to assure sufficient statistical power to detect differences that may be important (Norišus, 2008). Cohen (1992) offered an oft-cited power primer to help a researcher determine the sample size necessary, given a specified power, significance criterion α , and effect size. For the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, using a power of .80 ($\beta = .20$), a medium effect size, and a significance criterion of $\alpha = .05$, Cohen suggested a minimum of 85 samples are necessary.

The population of OutCo's program is approximately 3,000 individuals. In a conversation with OutCo principals, an earlier e-mail offering to attend a seminar sent to recent members resulted in 46.8% reading the e-mail. Some 13% accepted the invitation.

Extrapolating OutCo's (the pseudonym used to refer to this study's research site) recent experience, expecting at least 180 acceptances was not unreasonable. Fowler (2009) reported instances of Internet-based invitation recruitment ranging from 60%-30% response rates. The goal was to gather 250 participants.

Probability sampling was the method used to select participants in the study. The key criterion for probability sampling is that every person representative in the population has an equal chance of inclusion in the sample (Bartlett, 2005). Time and cost are often major considerations concerning sample sizes. The entire process in this study was web-based and programmatically driven. The entire population received invitations, offering each individual an equal chance to participate. All individuals who elected to participate were included in the sample.

At least two unknowns could have affected the randomness of this process. The first was that as noted in chapter 1, the population might have included a significant number of individuals who lost their jobs due to resistance to change. If this were true, a normal distribution of DRTC scores might have been skewed. Contrarily, resistance to evaluation is a known effect (Taut & Brauns, 2003). Individuals scoring high on the DRTC scale might have been underrepresented in the study due to their discomfort regarding participation.

Setting

The study took place with a large outplacement organization in the Midwest. OutCo was founded in 2009 to serve temporarily as an outplacement program for a planned, massive reduction in force due to a purchase of a major institution in the

Midwest by a foreign entity. The resulting success to the program drew support from corporate leaders as well as United Way. As a result, OutCo has grown to over 4,000 participants. Remaining at the crest of a wave of change in the outplacement industry, OutCo provides a continuous series of workshops, seminars, and job fairs for its members, supporting them with a self-directed approach. OutCo then tracks all members as they progress through the steps of the program. Because each individual tailors the program for her or his specific needs, the effects of contextual variables identified by Oreg (2006) such as power and prestige, job security, intrinsic rewards, trust in management, information, leadership and social influence were greatly minimized. The minimization of these effects allows for a more focused exploration of the effect of dispositional resistance. Because this study took place via the Internet, minimal interaction occurred with the participants.

Instrumentation and Measures

The existing and well-validated questionnaire created by Oreg (2003) (see Appendix) was the instrument used to measure the independent variable, Dispositional Resistance to Change. The dependent variables, time through the program and time to next job/next career goal, were measured by extracting the relevant dates from the OutCo database. As a means of redundancy and accuracy check, questions regarding time in program, time to next job, and whether the new position meant a change in career were additions to the survey instrument.

Validity and Reliability

King, Keohane, and Verba (1996) stated that the goal of scientific research is “to make descriptive or explanatory inferences on the basis of empirical information about the world” (p. 7). Because it is possible to have knowledge of the external world, that knowledge is always—to some extent—uncertain. This leads to the consideration that one goal of research is to make resulting theories based upon empirical information less restrictive (more generalizable) without having to collect new data. An essential goal in achieving generalizable research for the researcher is to improve data and analytic quality.

Leedy and Ormrod (2010) suggested validity takes on different forms, depending upon different situations. Based upon their definitions, criterion validity, how the instrument correlates with another related measure, and construct validity, the degree to which the instrument measures a construct that cannot be measured by direct observation, apply to address validity. Leedy and Ormrod also suggested that internal consistency reliability, where all the items within a single instrument yield similar results, is important when evaluating whether an instrument yields consistent results.

Oreg (2003) developed a four-facet structure to define Dispositional Resistance to Change. Oreg used seven separate studies to develop and validate his scale. The first study used reluctance to lose control, cognitive rigidity, lack of psychological resilience, intolerance to the adjustment period involved in change, preference for low levels of stimulation and novelty, and reluctance to give up old habits as sources in an exploratory study to generate initial items for his resistance to change scale. No significant

differences appeared in the mean item scores between men vs. women, students vs. nonstudents, or different age groups. The factor analysis resulted in four categorical factors: Routine Seeking with an eigenvalue of 8.9- 38.7% of variance explained; Emotional Reaction with an eigenvalue of 1.9- 8% of variance explained; Short-Term Focus with an eigenvalue of 1.3- 5.6% of variance; and Cognitive Rigidity with an eigenvalue of 1.2- 5% variance explained. The total scales' reliability coefficient alpha was .92, with the subscale alphas being .89, .86, .71, and .68, respectively.

Oreg conducted second and third studies to validate the scale's structure. The second study involved the use of confirmatory factor analysis, yielding an overall alpha coefficient of .87 and subscale alphas of .75, .71, .71, and .69 for routine seeking, emotional reaction, short-term focus, and cognitive rigidity, respectively. The third study represented an attempt to confirm personality constructs of openness to experience, tolerance for ambiguity, risk aversion, generalized self-efficacy, self-esteem, and locus of control as they correlated to the resistance to change scale as well as a second confirmation of the structure. Confirmatory factor analysis showed a good fit to the scale's structure $\chi^2 = 132.36, p < .01$. Both the structure of the scale and convergent and discriminant validities were confirmed.

Study four required use of the Wonderlic Personnel Test to examine if a relationship between resistance to change and cognitive ability existed. Resistances to change alpha coefficients were .88 for the total resistance to change score and .82, .78, .78, and .78 for the individual four components. No significant relationships emerged between the scale and its subscales to the Wonderlic Personnel Test.

Studies five, six, and seven took place to establish the concurrent and predictive validity of the scale. Study five findings confirmed the ability to significantly predict students' choices to make schedule changes. Study 6 findings demonstrated the short-term focus subscale's ability to predict whether professors adapted to new technologies. Study seven results successfully predicted individuals' willingness to initiate voluntary change in the context of an office move. Study seven results also demonstrated test-retest reliability over a one-month period. Scale reliabilities for all the studies remained high.

Oreg's (2003) Dispositional Resistance to Change Scale has subsequently been used in a variety of studies, successfully demonstrating predictive and explanatory capability across culture, age, and work environments. As a result of these studies, the RTC to determine DRTC was an appropriate instrument for determining the independent variable for the present study. The DRTC Scale is operationalized on the website, <http://soc.haifa.ac.il/~oreg>.

Data Collection

OutCo treated their clients with the utmost respect and confidentiality. In the development of the study agreement with OutCo, taking extra care helped to assure participant confidentiality and respectful treatment. To that extent, OutCo sent their members a recruitment letter, stating the efforts to maintain confidentiality. The members who desired to participate indicated their acceptance with a return e-mail stating same, and then received a programmatically generated e-mail containing the informed consent letter. The e-mail also contained a unique embedded code, along with a link to

the server, maintained by the researcher, which generated the survey questionnaire. The questionnaire only contained the participant's unique identified code.

When the participant completed the questionnaire, the answers with the unique identifier went back to the server, which then populated a record of the responses in the researcher's database. Data returned on the Internet had no identifiable information. No identifiable information was in the response database, and no human intervention was necessary in obtaining the data. When the independent data collection phase was complete, the resulting database was moved from the computer that interfaced with the Internet to a secure computer not connected to the Internet.

For the dependent data, OutCo's database was programmatically manipulated to generate a third data set containing the unique code and the calculated times for both dependent variables. Then, and only then, using the unique identifier code, the independent and dependent data were merged for analysis. No manual entry occurred in the process, eliminating any new transcription error.

Data Analysis

Creswell (2009) suggested the researcher should present information gained from the data collection in steps to lead the reader through the process. The first step would be that of presenting information regarding the number of members who did and did not return the survey. From this information, the researcher needs to assess whether a response bias exists. One method of analysis suggested by Creswell (2009) for bias was wave analysis, used to examine whether responses begin to change over time.

Wave analysis arises from the assumption that individuals who return responses at the latter end of a survey period are more representative of non-responders (Creswell, 2009). The analysis in the present study evaluated the responses on a day-by-day basis. If a change in scoring had appeared, a response bias might have been a suspicion.

The next step was to present a descriptive analysis of the data along with histograms and scatter plots of the dependent and independent variables. Norišus (2008) suggested scatter plots help the researcher determine whether a pattern is present in the data and whether strange data points need examination prior to applying statistical analyses. Norišus noted that outlying points could have a large effect on correlation coefficients. Additionally, examination of the data for normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity verified the use of the parametric Pearson correlation coefficient for analysis was appropriate. If the data were not normally distributed, the non-parametric Spearman's rank correlation would be necessary for analysis. Cooper and Schindler (2008) suggested that parametric tests of significance are more powerful because their data are from interval and ratio measurements, as in the present study. They suggested the basic assumptions of the data include,

- The observations must be independent.
- The observations are from normally distributed populations.
- The populations should have equal variances.

For an overall assessment, correlation analysis using IBM SPSS 20.0 software took place to investigate the association between overall RTC and both the times to complete the program and time to next job. However, as suggested by Oreg et al. (2009), investigation into the particular scale dimensions to see particular contributions were

beneficial. Norišus (2008) suggested the use of multiple regressions of the four factors against both the overall performance rating as well as against the individual performance element scores would be an appropriate choice. Again, IBM SPSS 20.0 software was the software utilized for the data analysis.

While Likert-type scales represent ordinal data, most researchers use the data as continuous variables (Newsom, 2010). Newsom noted that when five or more categories are present, little harm results doing this. As well, when researchers combine two or more Likert-type items, the number of possible composite values rises rapidly. In the case of Oreg's scale, each of the four factors has at least four questions combined for a single score on that factor. Then, the four factor scores are combined into a final score. Researchers using Oreg's scale have consistently used the results of the scale as a continuous type variable.

Ethical Considerations

The ethical considerations of respect, beneficence, and justice concerning research in organizations appear very clearly explicated in the *Belmont Report* (1979). Respect dictates that researchers must fully inform participants of the study, and that participants have the right of an autonomous agent. Deliberate care was necessary to fully inform the participants and to allow them anonymity. Beneficence requires the researcher to secure the well-being of participants by ensuring the study does no harm, that its benefits are maximal, and that harm is minimal. In this study, the issue of potential harm was minimal based on no direct contact with participants and the data they provided were carefully controlled such that possible identification of any individual was

minimal. Justice indicates that no particular participant should be singled out for participation in or omission from a study. In the present study, the entire population was the sampling frame and the sampling technique represented an attempt to get all individuals to participate.

M. Miles and Huberman (1994) also introduced concepts of worthiness, benefits, intervention, and advocacy deserving of ethical consideration. The worthiness of this study is that the results may aid in understanding causes that may impede progress in an outplacement program. With this understanding, such causes may be addressed to limit the negative aspects caused by dispositional resistance, providing benefit in the future to both the organization and individuals. In the present study, participants may not have realized these benefits, but may feel gratified that their efforts contributed to future benefits for others.

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

This chapter contains a discussion of the data acquisition and analysis used to investigate the relationship between Dispositional Resistance to Change and both the time a participant took to achieve the next job as well as the time spent in the outplacement program working towards the job search. Data collection for both the dependent variables and independent variable for this study took place using an Internet-based survey conducted by the researcher. Additional data were from data mining of the study site's contact management database. After acquiring the data from the study site, the data for the dependent variables gained from the surveys became primary and the data from the site's database became supportive. The IBM SPSS 20 statistical software was used to describe and analyze the data.

The Survey

Data Acquisition

The survey took place by first having the study site e-mail the recruitment letter to 2,949 members of the organization who, between the period of February 25, 2010 and December 5, 2011, had gone through or were still participating in OutCo's outplacement program. These members received the recruitment letter in an e-mail titled, "Understanding Career Transition – A Research Study" on January 27, 2012. A week later, the potential participants received a second, duplicate e-mail as a reminder. The

study site managed the e-mail campaign utilizing the Swiftpage.com suite of e-mail campaign management tools.

Seven hundred and thirteen members opened the above e-mail. Of these 713 members, 284 responded in the affirmative by clicking on a link taking them to a collection form maintained at the study site's website. This intermediate form generated a list that the researcher used to send each potential participant the Informed Consent that included the link to the actual survey instrument hosted on a secure server at the researcher's office. This list, by the nature of its generation within the site's contact management system, contained each participant's unique code (contactID) that served from that point forward in place of any readable participant identification.

From the 284 potential participants, 167 actually completed the brief online survey. The survey concluded on February 14, 2012. At the end of the survey, the potential participants who did not complete the survey received an e-mailed request to participate in an anonymous survey asking why they did not complete the original survey. Twenty-five (21%) of the 117 that did not finish the original survey did fill out the second survey. Of these 25, 13 (52%) responded that they had become too busy and 7 (28%) responded that the Informed Consent letter was objectionable and caused them to not complete the survey. The remaining 20% had miscellaneous reasons, such as claiming not to have received the recruitment letter, inadvertent deletion of the recruitment letter, or technical issues.

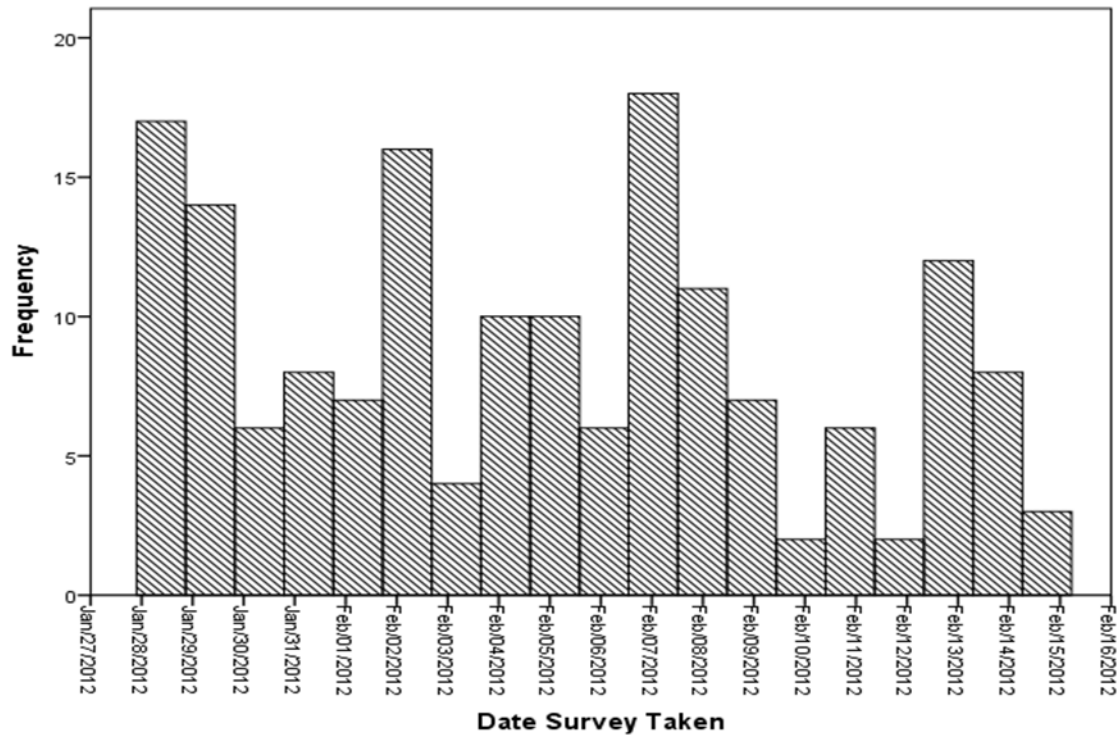


Figure 4. Numbers of daily survey responses during the survey period.

Figure 4 is a graph of the number of surveys received daily. On February 5, 2012, the affirmative responders who had not completed the survey received a duplicate e-mail containing the informed consent form as a reminder. This generated a brief spike in responses. On February 11, 2012, the remaining affirmative responders received notification of the survey cut-off date of February 14. This final reminder generated a last pulse of final responders. The approach of repeated reminders enhanced the possibility of motivating reluctant participants who might respond differently. The approach is consistent with the procedures suggested by Creswell (2008) as an effort to increase response rates as well as enhance wave analysis for non-responders.

The final survey database contained responses from participants who went through the program and achieved their next career goal including gaining new

employment or becoming self-employed as well as those who were still looking for a job at the end of the survey. The usable number of cases varied, depending upon the analysis performed. Table 1 is a summary of the scale-valued descriptive statistics for the survey portion of the data.

Descriptive Statistics: Scalar Data

Table 1. *Descriptive Statistics of Survey Scalar Data*

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Age (Years)	53.13	7.38	157
DRTC Score (1-6)	2.87	.58	167
Time in Program (weeks)	10.82	18.90	92
Time to New Job (weeks)	24.77	22.07	111
Job Search Time (weeks)	34.69	28.52	127

The variables DRTC score, time to new job, and time in program are the specific variables used to address both the study hypotheses. For hypothesis H1, the DRTC score represents the independent variable while time in program represents the dependent variable.

H1_O: There is no relationship between DRTC scores and the time it takes an individual to complete the outplacement program under study.

H1_A: There is a positive relationship between DRTC and the length of time it takes for an individual to complete the outplacement program under study.

H2_O: There is no relationship between the DRTC scores of an individual and the time it takes for an individual to reach the next job.

H2_A: There is a relationship between the DRTC scores of an individual and the time it takes for the individual to reach the next job.

For hypothesis H2, the DRTC score represents the independent variable while time to new job represents the dependent variable. The variable age was in the survey to help understand how well the survey covered the population. The variable job search time was to gain additional data to understand DRTC effects.

Survey Error

Error in surveys sampling a known population can occur for a large number of reasons. The major concerns that affect the quality; hence, representativeness of a sample are probability sampling error, measuring error, coverage error, and non-response error (Creswell, 2008; Fowler, 2009; “Response rate—An overview,” 2012; Roper Center, 2012). Addressing both coverage and sampling error, for the present study, all members of the organization had the opportunity to participate. Thus, any limitation of participants was either self-selection or non-response, which will be further discussed.

The use of good instruments with clear, unambiguous questions addresses measurement error issues (Creswell, 2008). As discussed in chapters 2 and 3, the Oreg’s scale used to determine the independent variable, DRTC, has shown significant reliability and validity in previous usage. The questions in the survey instrument of time to next job and length of time in the program were clearly stated. The final issue discussed by many writers (Creswell, 2008, 2009; Fowler, 2008); “Response rate—An overview,” 2012) is that of non-response and the possibility that those not responding differed in how they would answer the survey questions.

Scholars have written extensively about non-response error and its possible resulting bias in a survey. A seeming majority of writers suggested the antidote to non-response error is to “use rigorous administration procedures to achieve as large a return

rate as possible” (Creswell, 2008, p. 394). With the ever-increasing volume of e-mail communication, both wanted and unsolicited, and the fact that many members of the organization have moved on to new occupations, the low e-mail openings in the study may not be indicative of a non-response bias towards participating in a survey.

Reduction in response rate has been noted by Keeter, Kennedy, Dimock, Best and Craighill (2006), as well. They suggested lower response rates may be due to the sophistication of respondents in screening incoming requests and the growing number of solicitations they face.

The American Association for Public Opinion Research, also noting that response rates in general continue to decrease, cautioned that low response rates may “not necessarily differentiate between accurate and inaccurate data” (“Response Rate—An Overview,” 2012). The task for the researcher is to assess whether the non-response rate materially affects the results of the answers to the variables under study. The researcher can approach this situation by analyzing the coverage and representativeness of the responses (McKenzie, 2005) as well as by noting changes to the responses over time during the survey administration (Creswell, 2008, 2009).

Coverage and Representativeness

This section contains analyses of key variable survey responses to ascertain if the data adequately covered the range of responses anticipated. The DRTC Scores ($n = 167$) reported in the survey shown in Figure 5 ranged from 1.406 to 4.26, with a mean of 2.868 ($SD = .586$). The data were considered normally distributed ($W = .987, p = .130$) and offered a broad representation of responses possible. Oreg provided his scale to the

general public. A recent test of his scale indicated a mean DRTC score of the general population of 3.10 ($SD = 0.87, n = 2238$).

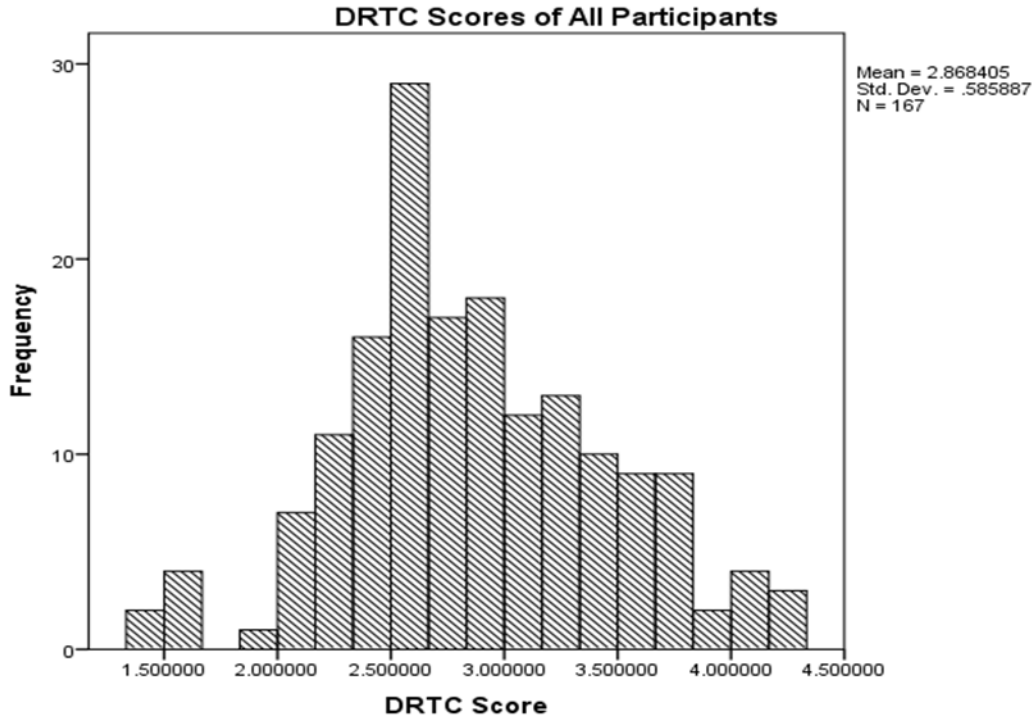


Figure 5. Histogram of DRTC scores for all participants in the survey.

One hundred and twenty four individuals responded to the question asking for the time in weeks necessary to either become re-employed or to achieve their next career goal since joining the program. Of the 124 individuals, 13 (10.5%) reported taking over 103 weeks to achieve their goal. An additional analysis took place to investigate if these 13 cases were significantly different in DRTC scores from the 111 cases reporting a distinct time. The non-parametric, two independent samples Mann-Whitney U test was applied to the two groups. No statistical difference in DRTC appeared between the members reporting distinct numbers vs. the 13 reporting over 103 weeks ($p = .769$).

Because times over 103 weeks to gain reemployment represent highly unusual numbers, as compared to data offered by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and the fact that this group of 13 did not have a statistical difference in DRTC scores, these 13 were eliminated from the correlation analysis. In the remaining 111 cases (Figure 6), the mean and median times to achieve their next career goals were 24.77 weeks and 18 weeks, respectively. Recoding each of the remaining 13 cases with a duration of 104 weeks shifted the mean and median of this data set to 33 weeks and 21 weeks, respectively.

These numbers, contrasted to a regional 2011 survey conducted by the Missouri Economic Research and Information Center (The State of St. Louis, 2011) surveying 408 dislocated workers, suggested the survey data is representative of the regional experience. The average continuous unemployment claims in the regional survey were 22.5 weeks. For managers throughout the nation in 2011, the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics reported a mean duration of unemployment for managers to be 45.1 weeks (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011b). The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics also reported a different metric of completed periods of job searches for five groupings of times taken to complete a job search or to give up looking. Table 2 shows a comparison of the survey responses with the BLS data for 2010 for all employment types (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011a) and the data for management, business, and financial operations occupations (U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011b).

Table 2. Comparison of Job Search Time to BLS Statistics

Period	Survey	BLS Data	
		All Employment	Managers 2011
Less than 5 weeks	14.5	34.0	14.7
5 to 14 weeks	22.6	25.9	20.2
15 to 26 weeks	21.8	13.8	15.4
27 weeks and over	41.1	26.3	49.7

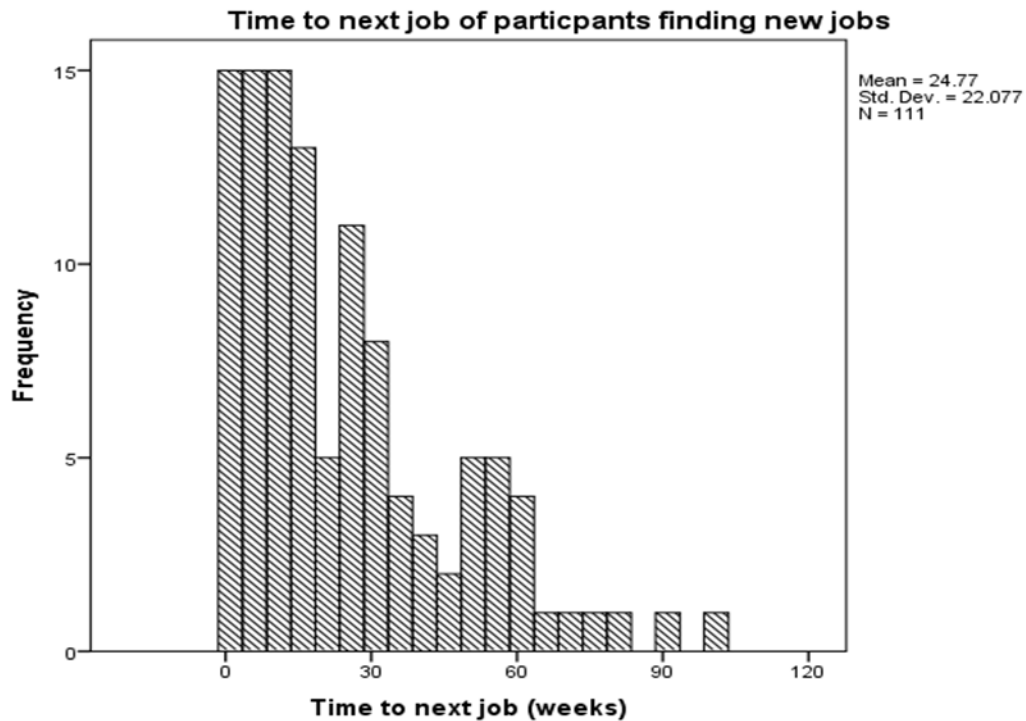


Figure 6. Histogram of time to next job for participants finding a new job. Survey Question: What was the time (in weeks) from when you joined OutCo and when you either re-entered the workforce or started your next career goal?

For the variable time in program, 92 respondents answered the question. The responses ranged from one week to over 103 weeks (2 reporting), with a mean time of 10.82 weeks (Figure 7). Investigating the low response rate indicated that in this program setting, many individuals had already started their job search prior to or immediately upon beginning the program. Because the OutCo program was self-directed, the result is

not surprising. An additional investigation between those who wait and those who start their job search immediately is in the correlation analysis section.

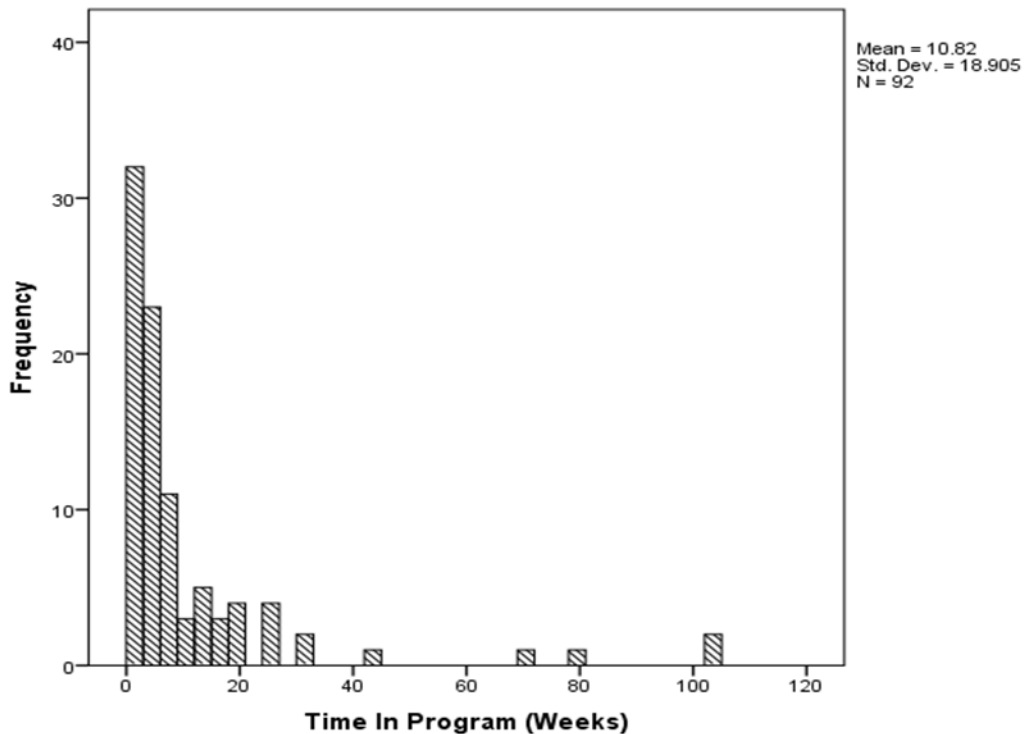


Figure 7. Histogram of participant reported time in program. Survey Question: Findings suggest that a series of steps consisting of recovery from the trauma of job loss, reassessment of one's skills and goals, and refinement of job search skills like found in OutCo's support system, improve the effectiveness of a job search. What was the time (in weeks) you spent in OutCo's program before starting your new job search campaign?

The OutCo program focused on mid-level managers earning between \$50,000 and \$100,000 annual salaries. These individuals would normally be those who have progressed in their careers and hence would be somewhat older than the entire population of workers. The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics reported the mean age of 43.84 years for all workers ($\sigma = 13.9, n = 139,869,000$) as compared to a mean of 53.13 years for the survey sample (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011a). Thus, the data shown in Figure 8

suggesting both the mean and the skewness of data towards individuals more senior in age would appear to be reasonable.

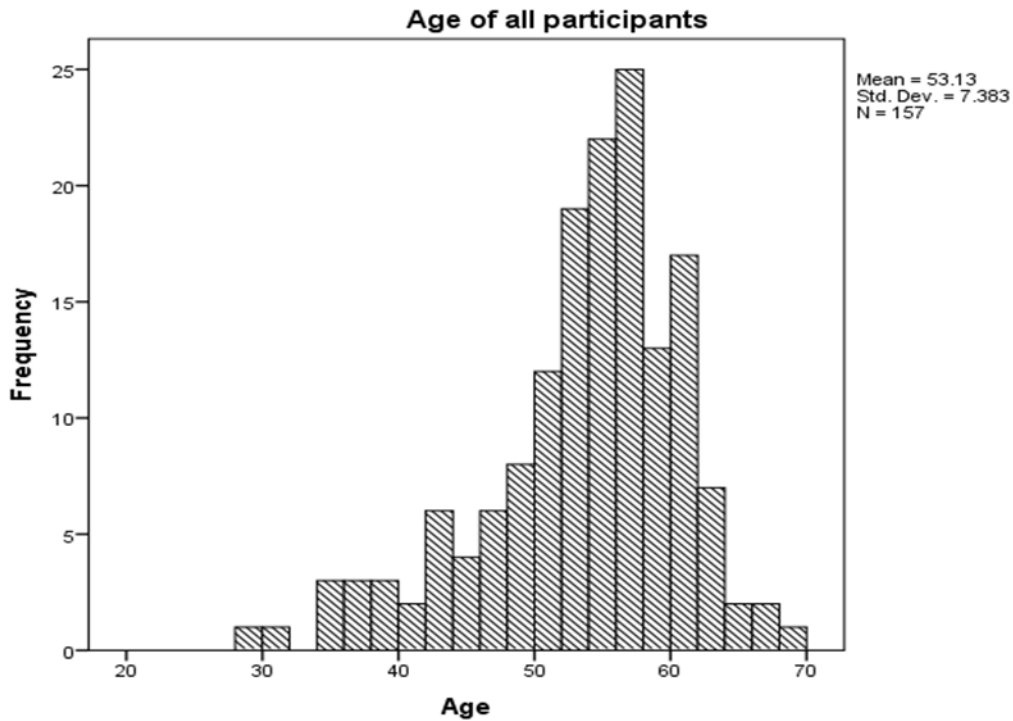


Figure 8. Histogram of age for all participants who reported their age ($n = 157$).

Job search time, which was included as an additional metric, was reported by 156 respondents. Of these 156, 24 individuals (15.2%) reported their job search time was over 103 weeks. Five others reported having abandoned their job search. The remaining responses ranged from 1 week to 103 weeks, with a mean of 34.69 weeks. Members of the outplacement program may have started their job search before joining the program. Analysis of those cases by examining their start dates in the program supported that assumption. Thus, times reported for job search time were not specifically correlated to the times reported taken since joining the program to achieve their next job.

Descriptive Statistics: Nominal Data

The survey captured additional data to better understand the survey coverage and representativeness. The survey sample demonstrated capture of a broad segment of the population in terms of gender, partnering status, and outcomes of participants' re-employment efforts. Table 3 is a summary of the frequencies of these parameters.

Table 3. *Frequencies of Demographic Variables*

Variable	N	%
Gender		
Male	83	49.7
Female	84	50.3
Partnering		
Married	100	59.9
Divorced	20	12.0
Single	37	22.2
Partnered	4	2.4
Missing	6	3.5
Re-Employed in Same Field		
Yes	51	30.5
No	32	19.2
No Observation	84	50.3
Economic Status		
Better Off	14	8.4
Worse Off	49	29.3
Same	22	13.2
No Observation	82	49.1
Became Self Employed		
As First Choice	8	4.8
Not as First Choice	27	16.2
No Observation	132	78.0

The percentage of men vs. women participating in the survey (Male = 49.7%, Female = 50.3%) as compared to 2011 BLS statistics (Male = 53%, Female = 47%) shows a good balance of participants and is reflective of the entire private workforce (U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011c). The ratio is closer when considering managerial jobs. For 2010, the BLS reports 51.5% of the management workforce jobs were held by women (U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011d).

Partnering status of participants was included as a check for bias in the responses. Sixty percent of the respondents reported being married, 12% divorced, and 22% single. Four individuals (2.4%) responded as partnered and the remaining six respondents chose not to answer the question. In comparison, the U.S. Bureau of Census (2011) reported 51% of the population as married, 12% as divorced or separated, and 31% as never married.

As discussed in the literature, those who eventually stop seeking a similar employment situation and start their own businesses represent a growing population, and due to measurement issues, confound the metric of time to next job. In the survey, 35 individuals (21%) reported transitioning into self-employment. Of these 35, 27 (77%) reported becoming self-employed as a second choice instead of becoming re-employed.

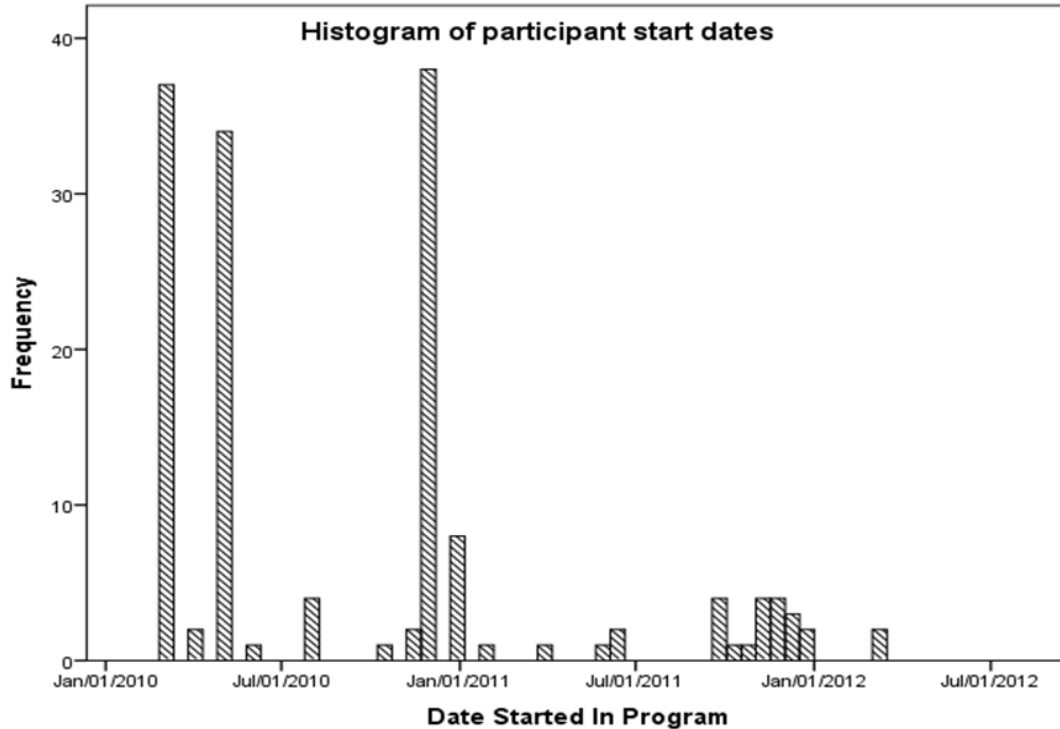


Figure 9. Histogram of participant start dates.

Figure 9 shows the survey participants who entered the program from February 2010 to January 2012 represented a balanced demographic over time. The time period depicted covers the entire time of the OutCo collection of data for the program. Based upon the data presented above, the survey data show adequate coverage and representativeness for the members of the OutCo program.

Non-Respondent Wave Analysis

In an effort to understand non-response bias, Creswell (2008, 2009) suggested late respondents to a survey are as close to non-respondents as possible. Conducting wave analysis, or comparing returns over the time frame of the survey, shed light on whether those not responding to the survey would offer differing answers to the questions of importance in the survey. The following sequence graphs suggest in the matter of age (Figure 10), DRTC score (Figure 11), time in program Figure 12), and Time to next job

(Figure 13), no differences in responses over time were present for the variables investigated during the survey.

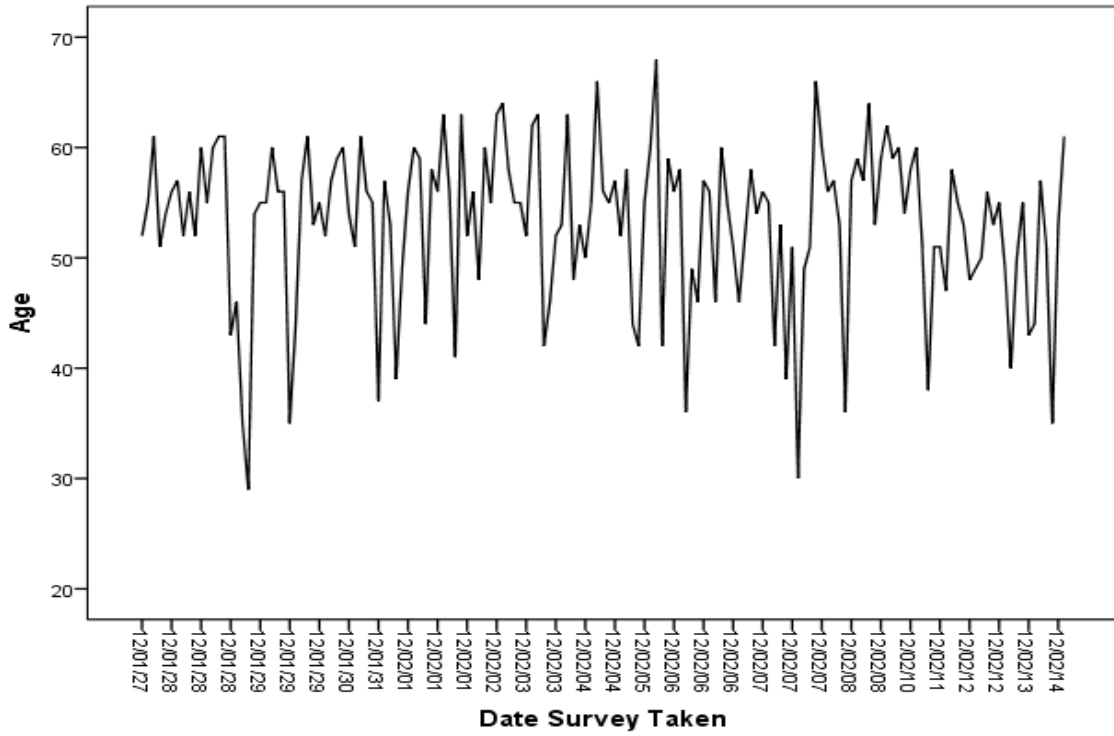


Figure 10. Sequence chart of participant ages over the duration of the survey.

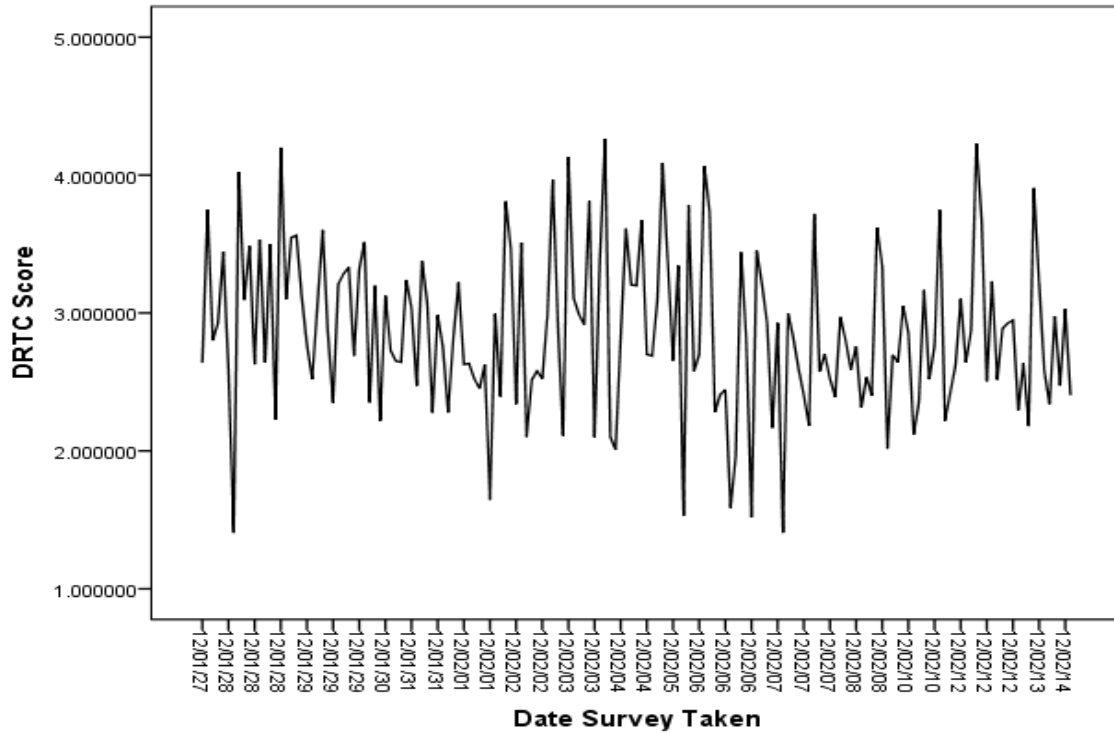


Figure 11. Sequence chart of DRTC scores over the duration of the survey

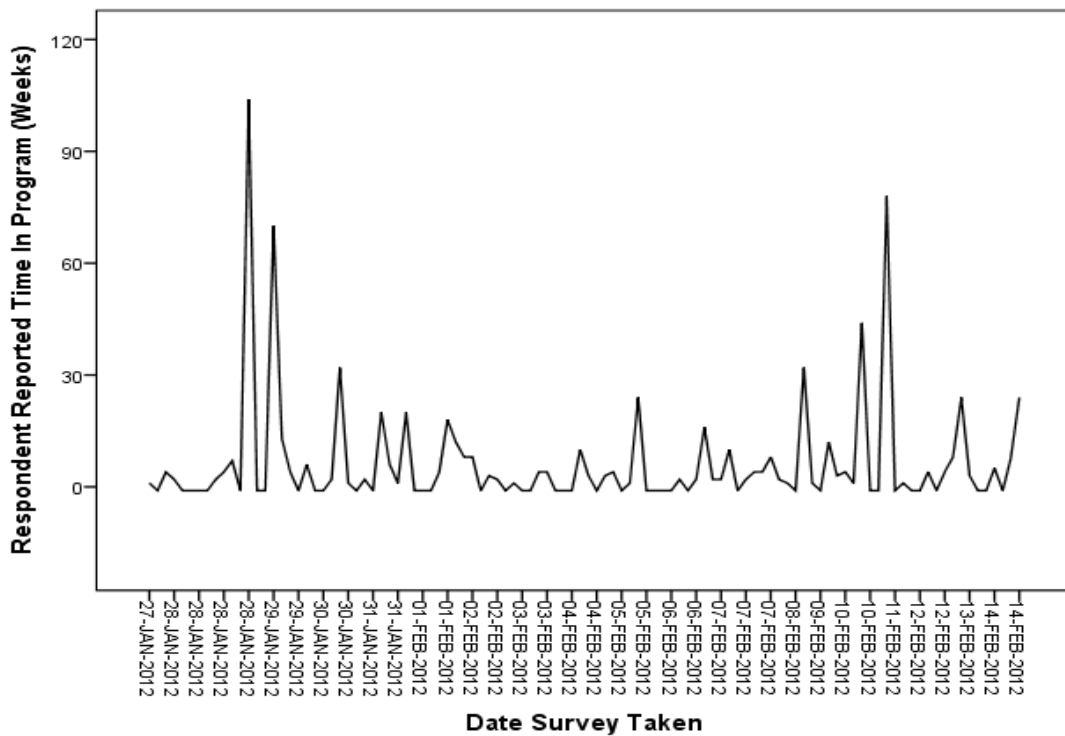


Figure 12. Sequence chart of reported time in program over the duration of the survey.

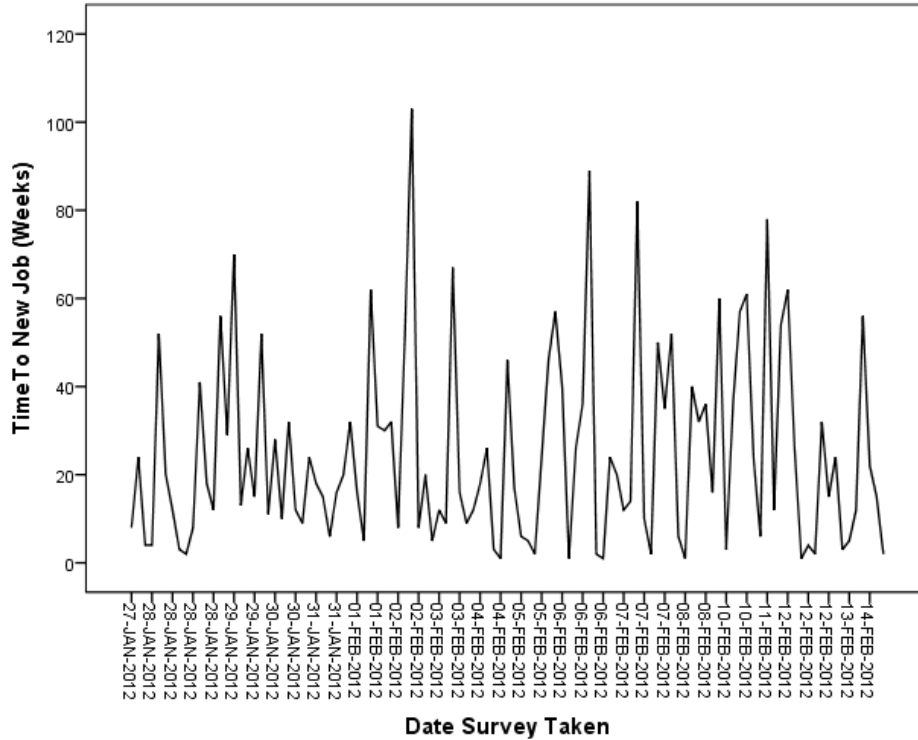


Figure 13. Sequence chart of reported times to new job over the duration of the survey.

Independent Variable Scale Reliability

Scale reliability is dependent upon the population sampled and researchers should evaluate it for each differing population (Norišus, 2008). The analysis determined the Cronbach alpha of the overall DRTC scale as well as for its subscales. The overall scale achieved a score of .821. The subscales of routine, emotion, focus, and cognition achieved alphas of .790, .912, .913, and .761, respectively. Norišus suggested that good scales have values larger than 0.8. George and Mallery (2003) suggested values greater than 0.9 are excellent, values between 0.9 and 0.8 are good, and values at least above 0.7 are acceptable. These results show acceptable results similar to previous studies of other populations, suggesting the scale is reliable in this population as well. Table 4 shows Cronbach alphas of the scale in differing studies.

Table 4. *Dispositional Resistance to Change Scale Cronbach Alphas of Selected Studies*

Study	Overall alpha	Routine	Emotion	Focus	Cognition
Current Study (outplacement)	.82	.79	.91	.91	.76
Oreg (2003)					
Study 1	.92	.89	.86	.71	.68
Study 2	.87	.75	.71	.71	.69
Study 3	.87	.74	.75	.74	.84
Study 4	.88	.82	.78	.78	.78
Study 5 (predicting voluntary change)	.81	.78	.79	.73	.81
Study 6 (predicting resistance to innovation)	.82	.68	.78	.76	.76
Study 7 (predicting reactions to imposed change)	.91	.80	.87	.84	.86
Oreg (2006) (attitudes towards large scale change)	.86				
Oreg et al. (2008) (DRTC across cultures) (mean of 17 studies)	.80				
Oreg et al. (2009) (DRCT and occupational interests)	.78	.69	.79	.69	.65
Oreg & Berson (2009) (Leaders' characteristics and DRTC)	.86				
Arciniega & Maldonado-Torres (2011) (DRTC and organizational attraction)	.77	.71	.70	.73	.78

Conclusion: Survey Data

The data obtained from the survey appear to be robust and sufficient for analysis.

For each of the study variables, DRTC, time to next job, and time in program, the data

appear to be broadly representative of the possible universe of responses available to the overall population. The ancillary variables supported this conclusion as well.

Study Site Database

The study design included acquiring additional data from the study site database. OutCo maintains, via its contact management system, ACT!, history of who joins the program, along with times and types of meetings in which a member participates. Unfortunately, during the data mining process, a less than satisfactory level of data integrity surfaced. Thus, the ability to directly relate the data from OutCo's database to the respondent survey data in terms of time became unsound. However, a review of the existing data in the database along with review and recoding by the management of OutCo provided a data set that could enrich participants' program involvement.

Data Acquisition

The data for analysis was made available by the study site in the form of a digital copy of its ACT! database. The ACT! database was managed by the underlying database engine Microsoft SQL Server 2008. Since Microsoft SQL Server 2008 R2 was the database system used by the researcher for the survey, attaching the study site's database to the researcher's server was a simple matter. A working table of program member data, including unique member code, ContactID, was created (see Table 5). Using this key field enabled generation of a table of meetings, types, and times for the survey respondents. At this point, all individual participant information was removed from the tables other than the key field of ContactID.

Descriptive Statistics: Scalar Data from Study Site Database

Table 5. *Descriptive Statistics of the Survey Participants (single meeting cases removed)*

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Number of Meetings	20.52	21.79	108
Meetings Per Week	0.54	0.52	108
Meeting Span (weeks)	43.83	25.05	108
General Meetings Attended	8.81	8.34	108
Recovery Meetings Attended	2.69	3.80	108
Self-Assessment Meetings Attended	1.07	1.58	108
Goal Setting Meetings Attended	1.19	1.76	108
Job Search Skills Meetings Attended	6.76	7.59	108

Reliability of Database Dependent Variables

The initial analysis of the database data indicated the meetings table had been used for numerous data-keeping purposes. Rigor of data logging appeared to be less than optimum, with numerous events never logged into the Act! database. A significant loss of one-to-one correspondence to the actual meetings managed by the Eventbrite (www.Eventbrite.com) events management website was apparent. The resulting generated meeting event data table required a somewhat subjective interpretation and manual coding to determine which events were participant events and which of the categories were accurate for those events. Only 138 of the 167 participants aligned with the database, representing yet a further reduction in quality. While the original intent of using the meeting history to corroborate the participants reporting of the dependent variable times was not possible, the view of meeting activity times, numbers, and types offered another dimension of participation to analyze.

Selected Analysis of the Database

Access to the entire OutCo entire database allowed comparison of the survey sample and the entire remaining membership. Analysis of the above scalar data indicated the data did not meet normality tests and would require non-parametric analysis. The Mann-Whitney U independent samples test was appropriate for the following observations.

Excluding those cases where only one meeting was listed for a participant, participants in the survey attended significantly more meetings than did the remaining population ($p < .001$), with the mean number of meetings attended for survey participants ($n = 108$) as 20.52 weeks and for the remaining population ($n = 1728$) as 9.80 weeks. Survey participants also had a higher intensity of meetings than the remaining membership, as measured by meetings per week ($p = .003$). Survey participants met on an average of .542 times a week, while the remaining members met at an average of .467 times a week. Finally, no significant difference was present between the survey participants and the rest of the membership regarding the time span over which the meetings took place. The members who opted to participate in the survey also appeared to participate significantly more in the outplacement program meetings than the other members.

Correlation Analysis

The purpose of this study was to determine if there was a correlation between DRTC scores and outcomes of this particular outplacement program as measured by times in program as well as time to next job. This section has a discussion of the

normality of the data representing the dependent and independent data, selection of the analytic approach utilized, and reports on the findings of the correlation analysis.

The number of cases available for analysis for hypothesis 1 was 92 meeting the goal of 85 cases required to meet the power level for detecting a medium sized effect. The number of cases available for the analysis of the second hypothesis was 111, meeting the power requirements for assuming the detection of a medium sized effect.

Normality of the Data

If the data under analysis are normally distributed, the preferred test for correlation is the Pearson correlation coefficient, which measures the linear association between two variables (Norišus, 2008). SPSS 20 offers two tests for normality, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (KS) and the Shapiro-Wilk test. The original development of the Shapiro-Wilk test demonstrated higher power to test for normality over many other approaches, including the KS analysis for small samples (Shapiro & Wilk, 1965). However, the test was generally considered valid for sample sizes between 3 and 50 (Park, 2008). Royston (1982) extended the range of the Shapiro-Wilk test to sample sizes of 2000.

The use of the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality (W) is now preferable for sample sizes of less than 2000 (Park, 2008). DRTC, TimeToNextJob, TimeInProgram, and JobSearchTime were the variables evaluated. Because each correlation used DRTC and one of the independent variables, three resulting datasets required analysis. For the DRTC and TimeToNextJob analysis, TimeToNextJob data failed the Shapiro-Wilk test ($W = .878, p < .001, n = 111$), while the DRTC data was normally distributed ($W = .980, p = .101, n = 111$), indicating a need for a non-parametric analysis for correlation.

As well, the TimeInProgram data for the DRTC and TimeInProgram analysis failed the Shapiro-Wilk test ($W = .520, p = < .001, n = 92$), while the DRTC score was normally distributed ($W = .986, p = .421, n = 92$). Finally, the data for JobSearchTime in the JobSearchTime and DRTC pairing failed the normality test ($W = .883, p < .001, n = 127$), while the DRTC scores were normal ($W = .986, p = .229, n = 127$). Thus, all correlation analysis was conducted as non-parametric using the Spearman correlation coefficient test.

Correlation

Because correlations may be present in data that have highly irregular patterns, resulting in erroneous inferences, Noriřus (2008) suggested a first step of correlation analysis starts with graphical presentation to see if a pattern is present in the data and unusual points are not dominant in the data. The scatterplots for these three data sets are in Figures 14, 15, and 16.

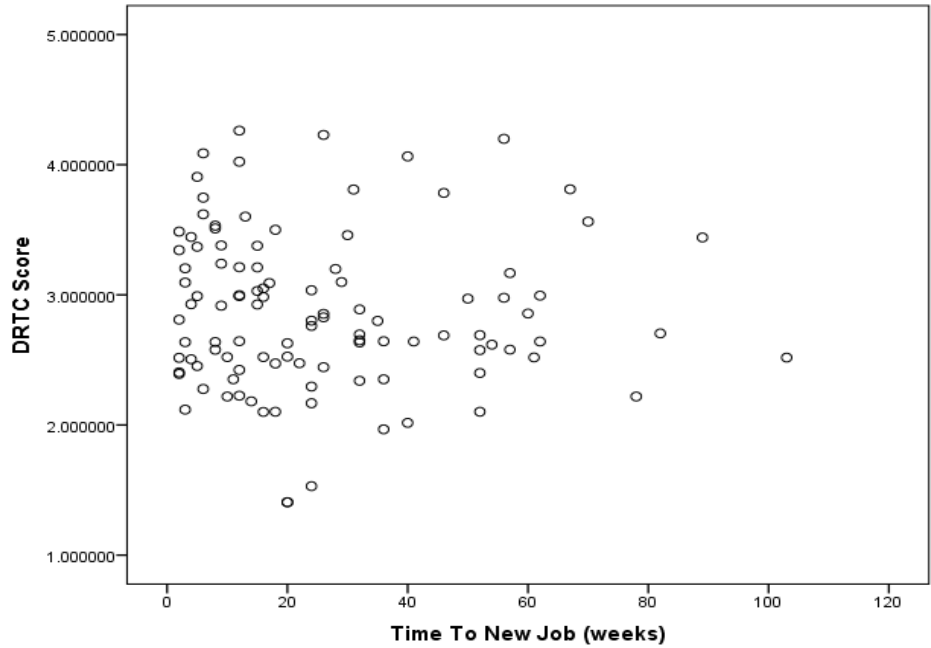


Figure 14. Scatterplot of time to new job v. DRTC score.

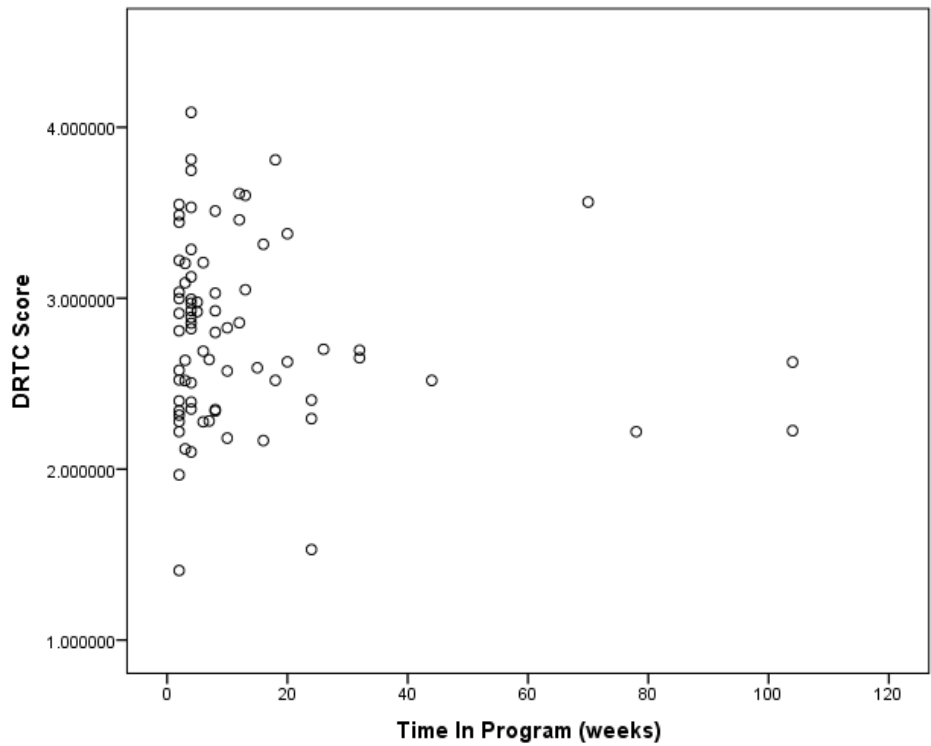


Figure 15. Scatterplot of time in program v. DRTC score.

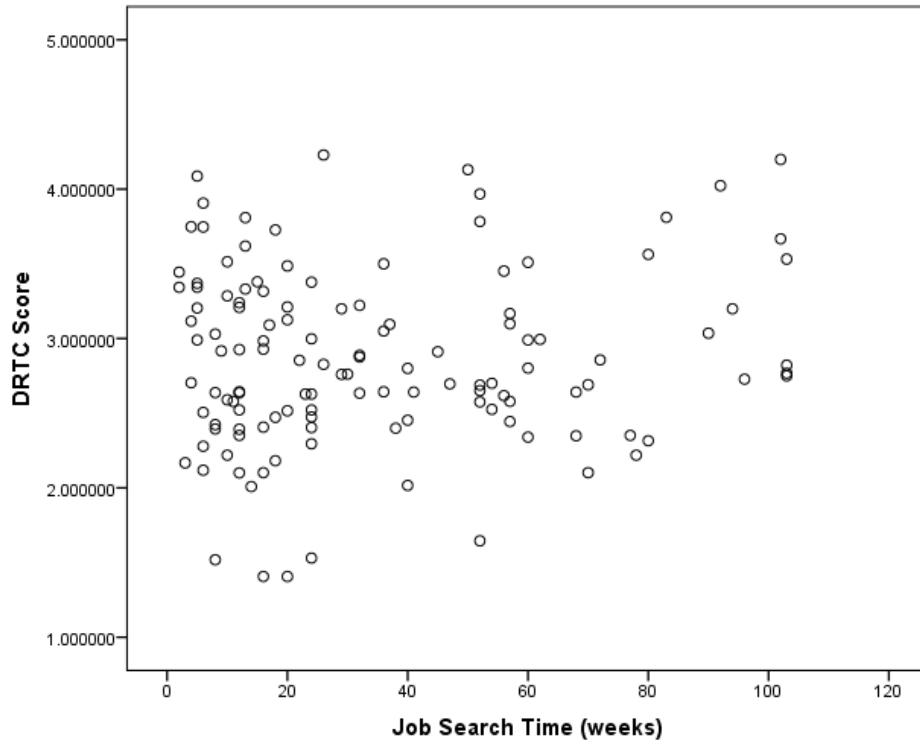


Figure 16. Scatterplot of job search time v. DRTC score.

A visual analysis of the three scatterplots would lead an observer to conclude that a linear association between DRTC and any of the three independent variables does not exist. The confirming correlation analysis results are in Table 6.

Table 6. Spearman's Rho Correlation Analysis Between DRTC Score and Time in Program, Time to New Job, and Job Search Time

Variables	r_s	P	N
DRTC and Time in Program	-.079	.452	92
DRTC and Time to Next Job	-.099	.300	111
DRTC and Job Search Time	.017	.847	127

The SPSS Spearman's rho correlation calculations confirmed no significant correlations between DRTC and the time it took a participant to achieve the next job, the

time spent in preparation of the job search, or the time spent in the job search. Thus, both the null hypotheses $H1_0$ and $H2_0$ cannot be rejected.

As discussed earlier, a number of respondents (13) reported times to their next job that went beyond the survey limit of 103 weeks. A non-parametric analysis using the Kruskal-Wallis test tool place to discover any significant DRTC difference between the population medians of those not reporting finding a job, those reporting finding a job between 1 and 103 weeks, and the 13 reporting times over 103 weeks. The Kurskal-Wallis test is the non-parametric alternative to one-way analysis of variance for testing the null hypothesis that all population means are equal (Norišus, 2008). No significant difference was present in DRTC score medians, $\chi^2(2, N = 167) = .291, p = .864$, between the three groups.

Some individuals in the survey either reported having spent more than 103 weeks in the program, did not report time in the program, or had started their job search at the same time (0 weeks). No significant differences in population DRTC means, $\chi^2(2, N = 167) = 3.162, p = .206$, were present among these three groups.

DRTC Sub-Scale Analysis

A similar correlation analysis took place using the subscales of the DRTC scale as the independent variable and TimeToNewJob, TimeInProgram, and JobSearchTime sequentially as the dependent variable. Again, the non-parametric Spearman's rho was used for analysis. Only one small but significant association emerged. The cognition first-order factor of the DRTC scale had a negative correlation with the TimeToNewJob dependent variable ($r_s = -.233, p = .016, n = 126$). This finding suggested the individuals who scored higher (*agree or strongly agree*) on the survey question number 14, I rarely

change my mind (stated in reverse due to reverse coding); 15, I don't change my mind easily; 16, Once I've come to a conclusion, I'm not likely to change my mind; and 17, My views are very consistent over time, achieved their next position more rapidly.

A final analysis took place of the data acquired about the choice of self-employment and economic status outcomes of those finding employment. Table 7 shows the reported economic results for those moving towards self-employment, while Table 8 shows the reported economic status for those moving between fields of employment.

Table 7. *Economic Outcomes for Those Moving Towards Self-Employment*

Choice to become self-employed	Better Off	Same	Worse Off
Not as First choice	2	2	12
Was First Choice	1	1	1

Table 8. *Economic Outcomes for Those Staying in Same Field or Moving*

Choice of Business Field	Better Off	Same	Worse Off
Same Field	11	14	25
Changed Fields	3	8	20

Thus, in terms of economic performance, the majority of those reporting their outcomes had experienced a worsening of their economic situations. Recalling the suggestion of Martin and Lekan (2008) that some intensive programs that took longer for the job seeker to find their next job resulted in higher paying jobs, the limited data in this study was used to see if any relationship between time to next job, job search time, or time in program and reported economic outcomes existed. None was found.

CHAPTER 5. FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

From its formal inception during the 1960s (Redstrom-Plourd, 1998), the outplacement industry experienced rapid growth well into the 1990s. As the industry grew, the rapid entry of many firms competing for market share resulted in a broad range of services and approaches towards outplacement, with little coordination or guidance as to proper and effective practices. As a result of this growth and the marketing claims made by the providers, the question of what programs and activities produced higher value to both the company and the outplaced clients arose. The importance of rapidly achieving re-employment is well known in terms of economic and psychological cost. As well, the longer an individual remains unemployed, the greater are the difficulties of gaining re-employment (Mader, 2004). Researchers believed the programs with high levels of support in terms of counseling time, psychological support and assessment, and broad job campaign resources offered superior value (Challenger, 2005; Westaby, 2004). But researchers continue to struggle to identify specific practices that lead to superior results in recovering from job loss. The goal of this study was to shed additional light on the complex process of outplacement services that might lead to a better understanding of the factors that may promote successful outcomes. Finding that little research was in place as to factors that may inhibit job loss recovery, specifically, the purpose of this study was to determine if DRTC may be a factor moderating program outcomes by examining if a correlation existed between DRTC scores and outcomes of this particular outplacement program as measured by times in program as well as time to next job. It

was proposed that individuals having stronger resistive dispositions may take longer to progress through an outplacement program and also take longer to achieve their next career goal. This theory is both supported by the literature (Carsman, 1997; Conner, 1993; Taut & Brauns, 2003) as well as anecdotally by outplacement executives.

To investigate this proposition, individual dispositional resistance was measured by Oreg's 2003 instrument given in an on line survey. In this same survey, participants were asked to specify the time they spent in the program preparing for their job searches, the time spent in their job searches, and the time they took to achieve their next career goal, if they had achieved that goal.

Summary of the Analysis

The study was conducted as a quantitative correlational analysis to test two hypotheses:

H1_O: There is no relationship between DTRC scores and the time it takes an individual to complete the outplacement program under study.

H1_A: There is a positive relationship between DRTC and the length of time it takes for an individual to complete the outplacement program under study.

H2_O: There is no relationship between the DRTC scores of an individual and the time it takes for an individual to reach the next job.

H2_A: There is a relationship between the DRTC scores of an individual and the time it takes for the individual to reach the next job.

Neither of the two null hypotheses was rejected by application of non-parametric Spearman correlation coefficient tests. Thus, results of this study suggest no meaningful

relationship exists between the overall DRTC scale and either the time an individual spent in the outplacement program or the time it took the individual to find a new job.

Oreg's DRTC scale has a four-facet structure to resistive disposition: a) routine seeking, b) emotional reaction to change, c) short-term focus, and d) cognitive rigidity. Oreg (2003) noted that the DRTC subscales highlight differently in different contexts. Thus, an investigation was made looking at each subscale individually. Each of these factors were tested for correlation to time to next job, time in program, and job search time using the Spearman correlation coefficient test. Only one of the factors was significantly correlated to an outcome.

A small negative but significant relationship was present between cognition and time to next job ($r_s = -.233, p = 0.016, n = 126$). In study three of the development of the DRTC scale, Oreg (2003) noted that generalized self-efficacy, as measured by the Chen, Gully, and Eden (2001) New General Self-Efficacy Scale, had a positive correlation with cognitive rigidity ($r = 0.22, p < 0.05$). Oreg offered that that relationship might be present because those confident of their abilities might more rigidly hold onto their views. A reasonable suggestion is that job seekers with more cognitive rigidity might "stay the course" with a particular job search approach or follow a job lead longer before trying other means.

Discussion

The study participants in OutCo's program, as well as those individuals in competitive programs, display a dramatically different pattern of behavior from the traditional, structured, high-support programs of the 1980s and 1990s. The process of

supporting individuals in their job loss recovery has been vastly altered by the advent of the Internet (C. Dodson, Vice President, Right Management, personal communication, April 9, 2012; K Phon, Vice President, Human Resource Management Corporation, personal communication, March 22, 2012; R. Wolf, CEO, Career Partners International – St. Louis, April 4, 2012).

Job seekers have rapidly moved to adopt the Internet as their major source of employment opportunities, self-help, and research. Knowledge and training is increasingly delivered by the Internet in the form of either proprietary video modules or self-help websites. Consultant directed programs are trending towards a self-directed cafeteria approach. Consultant contact with a client has moved from the corporate offices of the program provider to ad hoc local meetings and via the telephone or Internet. The change away from consultant led, highly structured support programs has been accelerated by the current economic downturn and companies allocating less monies for outplacement costs. While one of the firms contacted does have client activity tracking mechanisms in place, they do not utilize the tools they have to generate any management statistics. The others appear not to even have the software tools required to track activity. Further, the ability to track clients after they have moved to their next careers was not present in all the organizations. Thus, providers continue to be unable to measure and thus demonstrate as to how well their programs operate. These findings both confirm and extend the issues concerning the determination of program efficacy brought up by many researchers.

Finding no correlation between DRTC and either job search preparation or time to new job was somewhat unexpected. A relationship between DRTC and outcomes was

anticipated based upon Oreg's previous work using the DRTC scale in successfully predicting functioning at work at the time of an imposed work move (Oreg, 2003). Additionally, scholars have suggested that DRTC may be a factor in the processes of assessment and career counseling (Hartung, 2010). However, the literature noted that the metric of time to next job is highly complex and suggested many possible external factors could prohibit finding a single relationship.

Applying the concept of needs primacy suggested by Maslow (1943) might explain why no significant correlation of overall DRTC resistive forces was found. Gribble and Miller (2009) offered that effective career counseling may be impaired by conflicting needs fulfillment. Their opinion, using Maslow's theory of needs hierarchy, was that displaced persons may not effectively assess career goals and aspirations while dealing with needs of income and uncertainty. Another view of how needs primacy may affect the outplacement process is that the needs created by loss of identity and income security may overshadow dispositional traits of resistance to change. According to Maslow (1943), when a need of a more basic nature surfaces, such as safety, the individual may become dominated by that need. Maslow placed work and financial security within the domain of safety needs. Lewin (1947) suggested that to affect change, either stronger forces had to be applied to move away from homeostasis, or those forces resisting change had to be reduced. Perhaps in this study, demonstrated Dispositional Resistance to Change was totally overpowered by a more basic need: that of economic and identity survival.

Powerful, unsatisfied safety or security needs overshadowing a personality disposition that was measured during a time of low stress may well explain why

individuals may not exhibit resistance in a change-specific context such as the loss of employment and financial security. The individuals in this study may have displayed a broad range of disposition towards change, measured in a less threatening context as Oreg's questionnaire might suggest. Whether or not they would exhibit the same scores if the contexts of the questions were framed in terms of safety or security needs may be of question. In discussion with the outplacement executives, they too have noted clients' performance becoming dominated by financial loss and identity crises.

Cognitive rigidity, while considered to be a factor of DRTC, may serve to focus an individual on a path towards job recovery and complement the needs-driven effort towards re-establishment of safety. An additional factor that may have moderated DRTC's effect on the process is that of psychological safety (Schein, 1999) offered by programs such as OutCo's that can enhance the change process.

The literature also offers other factors that may make it difficult, if not impossible, to investigate DRTC on a quantitative basis alone. Argyris and Schön (1974) posited that defensive routines could hide actual theories of behavior that differ greatly from espoused theories of behavior given by an individual. It was their position that individuals were mostly unaware of their dichotomy of theories in play and only by observation, could an individual's true theory of operation be uncovered. Thus, while the survey elicited one set of responses, in operation, an entirely different set of behaviors may be applied.

Kegan and Lahey's (2001, 2009) theory of the big assumption may also explain why no correlation was found. Similar to Argyris and Schön's defensive routines, Kegan and Lahey suggest that unspoken core values and fears affect the responses of

individuals. Where one can espouse certain intents and values, when it comes time to act, overriding fears or assumptions can alter the intended actions of an individual. Thus, what one's espoused disposition may be might be totally overridden not by a superior unmet need, but, rather a conflicting unspoken assumption.

These possibilities would suggest that a more observational study approach may be necessary to understand whether DRTC may play a role in the progression through an outplacement program. While the study's main purpose was to study the effect of DRTC on certain outcomes, other data was available to look for effects upon the dependent variable outcomes.

The original intent of the study was to more fully utilize the study site's database, but, due to data integrity, certain goals were not met. However, program activity of the participants, as well as all of the membership was collected. While there was a significant difference between the participants of the study and the remaining members of the program in their number of meetings attended, there was no correlation found between DRTC and program activity both in quantity of meetings attended as well as the phases of outplacement process. Also, there was no correlation found between program activity and times to next job or job search time. Time in program, as expected, correlated with program activity. That is, the longer in the program, the higher number of meetings attended.

The economic outcomes of participants in this study were markedly poorer. While this may be a factor of the marketplace, the efficacy of this outplacement program may also be a factor. Economic success was investigated as a possible indicator of program success as a correlate of DRTC. Groupings of those reporting economic

outcomes were made with those reporting better off (n=14), economically the same (n=22), and worse off (n=49). Using ANOVA analysis, no significant differences were found in DRTC or its subscales between those reporting being better off, the same, worse off, or even those not reporting. As well, there were no relationships seen between time to new job, job search time, and economic outcomes.

Finally, the data would suggest that the program outcomes in terms job search time, is very similar to that of the national averages as shown in table 2. This would suggest that this program does not significantly differ in outcomes from the national average. The question of how to scientifically measure the efficacy of this program and whether or not this program represents an improvement over other programs remains unanswered. The ability to challenge Miller and Robinson's (2004) suggestion that outplacement programs are mere palliatives to temporarily keep terminated individuals from suing their former employers cannot be achieved.

The findings of this study confirm previous researchers' difficulties in determining specific practices that positively affect outcomes. This study's suggestion that measuring program success is problematic mirrors that of other studies. The outplacement executives contacted during this study confirmed these issues. The difficulties of correlating outcomes to activities might imply that deeper, yet to be determined factors may be in play or, that the outplacement process in this study, and perhaps others, has no demonstrable effect on job outcomes.

Implications

In conducting this study, the population considered represents a clear view of the possible effects of DRTC and job recovery free from many of the possible moderating contexts found in Oreg's 2006 study. The OutCo program is one of self-help and self-direction with minimal leadership involvement. Oreg and Berson (2009) studied the effects of leadership and employee resistance to change. Their study results indicated that leaders' openness values, transformational leadership behaviors, and personal disposition towards change influenced followers' resistance to change. That would suggest that the present study, replicated in programs with high contact involvement with program consultants, might achieve DRTC scores that are significantly different. Thus, the search for negative DRTC effects may be addressed best using a population such as in the present study. However, considering the use of the DRTC scale for positive effect may also offer opportunities in studying the outplacement process.

Oreg (2003), in developing the resistance to change scale, claimed that this scale was the first such instrument which specifically and directly addressed dispositional resistance traits. This study utilized this focused look at dispositional resistance in an attempt to determine if the scale was predictive of outcomes in a specific setting within the outplacement industry. Other researchers as well as Oreg, have broadened the use of the scale to look at career preference (Arciniega & Maldonado-Torres, 2011; Oreg et al., 2009) and leader-follower relationships (Hyland, 2007; Oreg & Berson, 2009). The use of Oreg's scale to further investigate effective career development has been suggested by Hartung (2010). An individual who has a better understanding of their dispositional environmental job preferences may allow that job seeker to better focus their efforts in

their job search. Also, studying consultant support from a viewpoint of leadership effects upon DRTC, as Hyland's study might suggest, may shed more light on the value of personal coaching and support.

The lack of DRTC impact on the program outcomes may indicate an underlying effect such as needs primacy or defensive routines as discussed above. There is a need to better understand if there are conflicting forces and whether or not, if those forces are addressed, whether understanding DRTC may offer opportunities to improve the outplacement process. However, these issues may be overshadowed by the changes occurring in the outplacement industry.

The advent of the Internet has significantly impacted the outplacement practice both in program content and the methods of delivery. As well, providers can no longer rely upon past definitions of best practices as a guide. And, at the same time, the tools of the past to manage and measure progress, no longer fully apply. Compounded by the new economics of the industry, the ability to reliably measure efficacy of the services provided becomes all the more important. Clearly, further research in this rapidly changing field is warranted. There is a need to step back and holistically look at the evolving new programs to better understand what and how services should be provided and how to measure their results as the industry re-orient itself.

Limitations

As is with most studies, this study was not without limitations. The intent of the study was to understand the effects of DRTC upon individuals in outplacement programs. A foundational decision was whether a quantitative study was feasible. Many

outplacement organizations do not have sufficient numbers of individuals available in a reasonable amount of time required for a dissertation. Study site opportunities were limited and did not necessarily offer optimum conditions. As encountered in searching for a study site for this study, major organizations are extremely reluctant to share their experiences with outside researchers.

Single Population

While the demographic analysis of this study would indicate that a broad representation of job seekers was achieved, this study addressed a single population undergoing a single program within the field of outplacement. With the goal of identifying what support to provide to job seekers in flux, generalizing beyond this study group may be difficult.

Cross-Sectional Study

The study addressed individuals at a single moment in time. While Oreg's scale demonstrated stability over a one-month period in one study (Oreg, 2003), other studies have suggested that, like other personality dispositions, DRTC may change over time and be moderated by leadership behaviors.

Lack of Granularity

As found in other studies, the lack of measurable detail within the program resulted in making only gross analyses of performance. While DRTC may have certain effects towards assessment, career decisions, and networking, without careful logging of activities, only the gross effect was measurable. Understanding at a more detailed level might allow an emphasis on what works and corrective actions taken where negative effects are present.

Self-Reported Data

Considerable literature details the issues concerning self-reporting (Bond, 1995; Fowler, 2009; Matlin, 1995; Spector, 1994). As well, the issues of hidden defensive routines and underlying assumptions as discussed previously, may impact the reliability of survey data. However, self-report surveys remain the mainstay of quantitative analysis. Based upon the observations of Martin and Lekan (2008) suggesting the need to gain observations both by the individual and the provider, this study represented an attempt to gain corroborative data from the provider's database. However, the supporting data was inadequate. The call for triangulation in understanding what the displaced individual wants and needs and what the outplacement industry provides remains largely unanswered.

Recommendations for Future Research

With the rapid change in both the method of delivery and content of services offered to displaced individuals, the need to understand what best serves those in need of help finding new jobs becomes all the more critical. The issue is further exacerbated by firms reducing their workforce that are no longer willing to pay for programs of longer lengths or the expense of individual counseling. Both from the provider viewpoint as well as from the viewpoint of the displaced individual, the need for prompt, effective help is critical. Rather than being able to focus on activities that may help or hinder the outplacement process, due to the forces of change in the field of outplacement, a broader understanding of what role outplacement providers may have to consider is necessary.

Refinement of Data

The data in many studies are those of self-report, with little corroboration from other sources. Researchers might enhance future studies greatly by developing a partnership with the study site towards achieving greater granularity of data. In the case of the present study's site, the transition towards more Internet-delivered support through a gateway for each client/member could allow detailed tracking of what, when, and how long any activity has taken. This detail, coupled with survey data, could provide greater corroborated data and may allow focused research on which specific offerings are valued and effective. Study sites may need to foster a greater sense of community in which alumni are more willing to share their final outcomes with the organization. As noted in Martin and Lekan (2008) and with the experience of this study, obtaining detailed information as to the outcomes of job seekers is problematic after they have moved on in their career choices.

Quantitative Analysis

A broader study of DRTC effects, enhanced by a more detailed definition and rigorous collection of dependent data, performed across a number of outplacement firms in the Midwest may provide directional insights to the opportunities discussed above. With proper planning and willingness of the study site partners, a rich dataset of performance measures could be put in place to monitor, in detail, how job-seekers choose and progress through the support services. The results could provide for both cross-sectional and well as longitudinal data across a number of programs for evaluation.

Qualitative Analysis

A clear and growing gap of knowledge is present within the field of outplacement. Instead of improving results knowledge, providers continue to admit that most of their

knowledge is anecdotal concerning what does or does not work, as well as how effective their services are. With the rapid redefinition of services, a new effort of grounded theory research may be in order to create new theories of how new outplacement processes work. As well, as discussed above, outplacement organizations may provide a more subtle effect such as community where individuals may draw psychological safety, support, and fresh ideas for their recovery and search for their next career choice. This new research should be guided by the extant base of knowledge of what has, to date, been inadequate to understand those processes that help the new job seeker to find quality employment in the shortest times.

Summary

This study further confirms the findings of earlier research that identifying specific practices that either help or hinder the outplacement process remains an elusive goal. The determination that DRTC was not found to correlate to either an individual's time taken to achieve their next job or the time they spent in the program preparing for their job search suggests that there may be additional underlying factors that confound the analysis of currently identified factors. Additionally, current outcome measures of efficacy or success appear to be unreliable.

The present high levels of unemployment, bolstered by the poor outcomes of the individuals in this study, would suggest an urgency to better understand and identify effective practices in the outplacement profession. The advent of the Internet has been cause for major change in the industry, further complicating the research effort.

However, the power of the Internet may also offer the opportunity for researchers to

improve upon the granularity of data and the ability to finally obtain triangulated knowledge in regards to the development of measures of efficacy and success.

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APPENDIX. SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Date:_(Program Generated)___

Gender M F (Radio Button)

Year Born _____ (Drop Down List)

Partnering Status: Single Married Divorced Partnered (Radio Button)

Findings suggest that a series of steps consisting of recovery from the trauma of job loss, re-assessment of one's skills and goals, and refinement of job search skills like found in GO! Network's support system, improve the effectiveness of a job search.

What was the time (in weeks) you spent in GO! Network's program before starting your new job search campaign? _____ (Drop Down List)

What was length of time (in weeks) your job search campaign took/has taken? (Drop Down List)

What was the time (in weeks) from when you joined GO! Network and when you either re-entered the workforce or started your next career goal? _____ (Drop Down List)

If you were re-employed, was it in the same field? Y/N

If you were re-employed, economically, are you: better off the same worse (Radio Button)

If you became self-employed, was it your first choice? Y/N

For the following questions, please click on the appropriate radio button to the right of each question that best fits your belief at this moment. Please answer all questions for the questionnaire to be valid.

When you are finished, please press the "Submit" button to complete the questionnaire. Thank you for your participation!

Oreg Resistance to Change Scale

	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Inclined to disagree	Inclined to agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	I generally consider changes to be a negative thing.						
2	I'll take a routine day over a day full of unexpected events any time.						
3	I like to do the same old things rather than try new and different ones.						
4	Whenever my life forms a stable routine, I look for ways to change it.						
5	I'd rather be bored than surprised						
6	If I were to be informed that there's going to be a significant change regarding the way things are done at work, I would probably feel stressed.						
7	When I am informed of a change of plans, I tense up a bit.						
8	When things don't go according to plans, it stresses me out.						
9	If my company changed the performance assessment form, it would probably make me feel uncomfortable even if I thought I'd do just as well without having to do any extra work						
10	Changing plans seems like a real hassle to me						
11	Often, I feel a bit uncomfortable even about changes that may potentially improve my life.						
12	When someone pressures me to change something, I tend to resist it even if I think the change may ultimately benefit me						
13	I sometimes find myself avoiding changes that I know will be good for me.						
14	I often change my mind.						
15	I don't change my mind easily.						
16	Once I've come to a conclusion, I'm not likely to change my mind.						
17	My views are very consistent over time.						

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