DISASTER MITIGATION PROGRAMS IN TULSA,

OKLAHOMA: AN EXAMINATION OF

ORGANIZATIONAL SURVIVAL

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Research Problem

As societies have developed in various geographic areas and over time, cities and towns have developed in vulnerable locations across the world. In this thesis, "vulnerable locations" means geographical areas susceptible to natural and technological hazards. Settlement in vulnerable locations has contributed to the risk of natural hazards such as hurricanes or earthquakes damaging or destroying them. The resulting disasters that destroy settlements and the societies that live within them have caused people to combine efforts and to form groups that take specific actions to reduce disaster impact (Mileti, 1999).

Although many assume that the primary agencies responsible for reducing disaster threat in a community is the local government, this is not necessarily the case. Often, and for simple reasons, the local governing body has little influence on disaster mitigation programs in a community. These reasons include the facts that a complex public agency may have matters that are more pressing on the agenda and that disaster mitigation programs often are not a priority for a local government.

When governments or other official entities fail to reduce disaster threat, emergent groups step in to fulfill the community's unmet needs. Emergent Citizen Groups (ECGs) form from informal groups during the non-disaster time period (Neal, 1984; Quarantelli, 1983, 1994; Stallings & Quarantelli, 1985). These groups use technical expertise to lobby governing bodies to enact change (Stallings & Quarantelli, 1985).

The external environment affects ECGs, like other organizations. Environmental changes such as funding changes or policy decisions often cause organizations to cease to exist. Environmental changes are those not controlled by the organization. The external environment affects ECGs because of their typical reliance on external resources. The issue that arises with ECGs is how the membership and leaders ensure the organization accomplishes its goals (Quarantelli, 1983). This thesis reports on how an ECG survived when faced with an external environmental change.

This study examines how a formalized ECG in Tulsa, Oklahoma survived following a significant reduction of funding from the Federal government. The Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA), through Project Impact, provided funding to Tulsa and other cities for disaster mitigation programs. After FEMA cut funding to this program, the city of Tulsa continued the mitigation programs from the Project Impact era. This resulted from steps the organization took to ensure its survival. In other words, this organization changed its goals, used their networks, and mobilized resources in order to survive a change from the external environment that affected them.

Numerous scholars have addressed the problem of organizational survival and have noted several conditions that allow an organization to survive an external

environmental change. Organizational goals (Perrow, 1961; Quinn & Cameron, 1983; Simon, 1964; Zald & Ash, 1966; Zald & Denton, 1963), professional networking (Aldrich & Herker, 1977; Jackson & Stainsby, 2000; Tichy, Tushman, & Fombrun, 1979), resource mobilization (Jenkins, 1983; McCarthy & Zald, 1977) and organizational formalization (Adizes, 1979, Blau, 1956, Pugh et al. 1963) are common conditions for organizational survival. These studies explore the unique conditions that allow organizations to survive environmental changes.

As noted, this study examines how a formalized emergent citizen group was able to survive an external environment change. The Organizational survival literature primarily deals with survival of formal organizations. ECG's are typically not complex formal agencies, thus the conditions for surviving an external environmental change may be different from regular organizations. While numerous studies address the survival of non-profit agencies such as the one examined in this study (Zald & Denton, 1963), they are dated. This study contributes to the body of knowledge by providing a new study.

Significance of the Study

This study of an ECG that successfully addressed an external environmental change has several benefits. First, it contributes to the literature body of academic knowledge about organizational survival of ECGs. Second, it provides information that will allow policy makers to understand how policy affects local organizations. Finally, it identifies the conditions for ECG survival when faced with an external environmental change, which can enable other ECGs to develop and implement their own survival plans.

<u>Purpose Statement</u>

       A limited number of studies address the specific conditions that allow ECGs to survive an external environmental change. This study bridges the gap between the organizational research field and they study of ECGs. Drawling upon the ECG in Tulsa, Oklahoma as a case, this study identifies the critical characteristics of ECGs that are able to survive significant changes in the external environment. The purpose of this study was to identify the characteristics that allowed Tulsa Project Impact to survive, despite an external environmental change. Particularly because of the dearth of published information about such occurrences, the conditions identified in this case are applicable to similar organizations with similar concerns.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

The ability for an organization to survive a major change in the environment rests on a series of conditions. These include goal transformation, resource mobilization, professional networks and organizational formalization. I examine each condition in the following text, which begins with the conceptualization of organizational survival. Additionally, since the study examined an emergent citizen group, I present a review of the characteristics of these groups.

Organizational Survival

A clear definition of organizational survival does not exist in the literature. scholars define organizational survival as the ability of an organization to avert failure when faced with a drastic environmental change (Sutton, 1987). Several models exist within the literature that defines organizational survival.

Stated simply organizational death is the point at which the activities of an organization cease. After a death, the organization transfers activities to other organizations (Sutton, 1987). An organization does not die simply because it undergoes a name change. If the activities of the organization continue, albeit under a different name, the organization survives. Scholars view this type of change as part of the normal cycle of an organization (Katz & Kahn, 1978).

Weitzel and Jonsson's (1989) model of organizational decline described the process by which organizations decline and eventually die. In the first stage, the blinded stage, the organization is unable to recognize external problems that potentially affect them. If the organization does not recognize the problems in the blinded stage, they transition into the second stage, the inaction stage. If managers fail to take prompt action during this phase, the organization transitions into the third stage, faulty action. Despite action, in this case, problems in the organization multiply and corrective actions fail. If corrective actions are ineffective, the organization transitions to the fourth stage, which is crisis. When this stage begins, only radical changes can save the organization. Managers must facilitate major reorganization measures to save the organization. If these major changes are not effective, the organization transitions into the dissolution stage, and death is imminent (Weitzel & Jonsson, 1989).

Internally, organizations seem to go through a process before they die. This process helps to determine whether the organization will die or survive, and it separates successful organizations and dying ones. The process begins when the membership loses security and realizes the vulnerability of an organization. Prior to any substantial changes or announcements regarding this possibility, members tend to perceive their organization

as permanent. Once members of the organization know their careers may not be stable, they take decisive action. After members of an organization are aware of the potential death of the organization, they take collective action. Many of the activities that occur during this period include renewing the image of the organization or changing organizational goals. During this period, information about the status of the organization is vague, potentially affecting these efforts. If member efforts to avert organizational demise are not effective, the organization fails. When the organization dismantles, and the membership is no longer intact, the organization is dead. Conversely, if the right conditions are present, the organization survives (Sutton, 1987).

Emergent Citizen Groups

Since I examine the survival of a formalized emergent citizen group in this study, it is important to understand the characteristics of such groups. Emergence is the appearance of new informal groups during both the disaster and non-disaster time period (Neal, 1984; Quarantelli, 1983, 1994; Stallings & Quarantelli, 1985). Emergent groups carry out a myriad of tasks including information sharing, inter-organizational operations, policy setting, preliminary damage assessments, search and rescue, and other tasks (Quarantelli, 1994). Emergence also occurs when organizations modify existing structures to carry out new tasks (Drabeck & McEntire, 2003; Russel Dynes & Quarantelli, 1968; Stallings & Quarantelli, 1985). Scholars trace the emergence of informal groups d back to the Black Death pandemic (Gottried 1983).

ECGs are comprised of private individuals who work together in pursuit of collective goals. The key to ECGs is that the organization is not formal; thus, the group is

comprised of individuals working together. Several characteristics distinguish these groups from one another. The distinguishing factor in these groups is the types of goals the members pursue.

The first major type of group that appears is those with specific goals. This category of ECGs forms to deal with a specific disaster or problem in a specific location (Stallings & Quarantelli, 1985). A group could form after a hurricane such as the recent ones on the gulf coast. A group could also form to improve building codes in Haiti because of the recent disaster in the country. Those involved in these types of ECGs typically are part of a larger social movement.

A community with a collection of shared grievances is capable of rapid resource mobilization. Shared grievances escalate dramatically when a disaster occurs (E. Walsh, 1981), such as with the events surrounding the Three Mile Island (TMI) incident.

The TMI nuclear power plant is located on a strip of land near Harrisburg, PA. In March 1979, the plant came within approximately an hour of a complete meltdown.(E. Walsh, 1981). This disaster exposed several communities to the potential effects of nuclear incident. Before the incident occurred, two groups called Three Mile Island Alert (TMIA) and the Environmental Collation on Nuclear Power (ECNP), existed to oppose TMI. These groups' primary activities included the general goals of public awareness and education. ECNP had a legal case pending, arguing that the proximity of TMI to Harrisburg International Airport (MDT) put residents at risk (E. Walsh, 1981).

Prior to the incident, the pre-existing groups were relatively small with a few supporters. Post incident, as expected, interest in the groups rapidly grew. The groups

became involved in rallies in both Harrisburg, as well as Washington, DC. Attendance at one of the group's meetings increased fourfold in the weeks following the incident (E. Walsh, 1981).

In addition to the two preexisting groups, five new groups emerged immediately following the near disaster. The goals of these groups ranged from specifically countering the restart of one of the reactors to concern for water quality. These groups emerged in Harrisburg, State College, Lancaster, Middletown, Newbery and York—all locations, with the exception State College, within 20 miles of TMI. This example illustrates how ECGs forms with specific goals. Once the organization fulfils it goals, it typically fades away (Walsh, 1981).

The second type of non-disaster time ECG is one with general goals. The more common non-disaster time ECG is one that deals with general goals. Such organizations form to address general disaster concerns and issues in the greater community. These groups tend to derive their power from convincing officials that a disaster threat exists (Stallings & Quarantelli, 1985).

Regardless of the types of goals that an ECG has, those involved in disaster activities have similar characteristics. These groups tend to be relatively small with a membership base of about 100 and a core group of twelve. Membership in these groups is mostly informal, thus allowing for individuals from all lifestyles to participate. Technical experts and members of the media may support the group, but not take an active role in the group. Members tend to be middle aged and from white middle class backgrounds. The structures of such groups tend to be simplistic in that they have a circular structure,

with a few core members supported by fringe members. Although a hierarchal structure may exist, specific positions may mean very little. Fringe members typically pay dues, circulate petitions, attend meetings, and receive newsletters (Stallings & Quarantelli, 1985).

FEMA Project Impact

Project Impact was a federal program that emerged in the mid 1990s to counter growing disaster losses. Launched in the summer of 1997, reducing disaster losses was the intent of the program. Among other things, Project Impact introduced the concept of pre-disaster mitigation. Pre-disaster mitigation became the focus of federal efforts to reduce disaster losses (Wachtendorf, Connell, Tierney, & Kompanik, 2002).

FEMA designed Project Impact as a bottom-up, grass-roots approach to disaster mitigation. The program encouraged community-based initiatives to disaster problems (Wachtendorf, et al., 2002). Laying the groundwork for sustainable development was also one of the original intents of the program (Armstrong, 2000).

Stakeholder support was critical to the success of the program. Project Impact brought together organizations from local, state, federal, private, non-profit organizations, working towards a common vision (Armstrong, 2000). The broad vision for the program was to create disaster resistant communities (Armstrong, 2000; Wachtendorf, et al., 2002).

FEMA's Project Impact program benefited communities in numerous ways. One such benefit was the ability for communities to leverage resources. Project Impact also helped communities to recognize and address their hazard vulnerability risks. The

program also helped communities reach out to residents through numerous educational programs. Perhaps most important, Project Impact initiated numerous partnerships with members from all walks of life. These partnerships helped address disaster problems, while building relationships still strong today (Wachtendorf, et al., 2002).

Conditions for Organizational Survival

The research literature suggests that there are several conditions for organizational survival. Without the presence of these conditions organizations likely die. These conditions include goal transformation, the presence of professional networks, resource mobilization, and organizational formalization. A combination of two or more of these factors influences an organization's ability to survive a change in environment. Table 1 outlines the conditions for survival and the relevant literature that outlines keys for each condition Organizations that are unable to survive likely have a breakdown of one of the conditions noted.

Condition	Relevant Literature
Goal Transformation	Perrow 1961 Quinn & Cameron 1983 Simon 1964 Zald & Ash 1966 Zald & Denton 1963 Boin & Christensen 2008
Professional Networking	Aldrich & Herker 1977 Jackson & Stainsby 2000 Tichy, Tushman, & Forbrun 1979 Mitchell 1969 Boissevain 1974
Resource Mobilization	Jenkins 1983 McCarthy & Zald 1977
Formalization	Blau 1956 Adizes 1979 Pugh et al. 1968 Walsh & Denwar 1987

Table 1 - Conditions for Organizational Survival

Condition 1 - Goal Transformation

      Integral to organizational survival is the concept of goal transformation. When an organization is confronted with an environmental change, it either adapts goals and survives or fails (Zald & Ash, 1966). Organizations with narrow, inflexible, official goals will likely not survive external changes (Perrow, 1961; Zald & Ash, 1966).

      Both individual goals and organizational goals can affect the ability of an organization to survive (Simon, 1964). Failure to adapt its goals suggests that the organization likely will die (Zald & Ash, 1966). In many organizations, the official goals are intentionally vague. This allows managers to make decisions that move the organization towards their general goal. Specific goals constrict the ability of managers to adjust priorities (Perrow, 1961). Formal goals tend to be multiple, vague, and mutually conflicting, which creates the opportunity for ongoing interpretive shifts regarding the nature of the goals (Boin & Christensen, 2008). Specific goals do not allow organizations to evolve and change as necessary. The informal, or operative, goals drive the organization, enabling flexibility; these goals are more likely to appeal to group interests. These goals may reflect the ambitions of managers, or may appeal to specific stakeholders. The informal goals may bear little resemblance to the official goals (Perrow, 1961). Informal and formal organizational goals affect organizational survival by allowing managers to shift the activities of the organization.

      Successful adaptation of new organizational goals depends upon the membership base. The membership of the organization can reject the transformed goals, thus causing the organization to fail. A stable organization will avoid membership problems and

fulfill its organizational goal without alienating the membership base (Zald & Ash, 1966). One example of an organization that successfully transformed its goals as its environmental niche changed is that of the Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA). In response to an external environmental change, the YMCA changed the services it delivered. The YMCA originally formed as an evangelical association. One of the original goals of the organization was to convert people to Christianity. After this goal proved incompatible with the environment, YMCA adapted and became a general leisure organization. Despite the focus on Christianity, the official goals of the organization were vague (Zald & Denton, 1963). This change was possible because the organizational goals were intentionally vague. This adaptation would not have been possible if the YMCA had set forth specific goals.

A condition of organizational survival and goal transformation is flexibility. Organizations should strive to be innovative and adaptive to the environment (Quinn & Cameron, 1983). Inflexible, rigid organizations probably will not have the ability to transform goals and survive an environmental change. Furthermore, an internal goal conflict will affect the ability of an organization to change goals. Despite the challenges to organizational viability named above, organizational goal transformation is vital to survival in a changing environment.

Condition 2 - Professional Networks

Another condition of organization survival is the presence and depths of strong professional networks (Tichy, et al., 1979). Organizations are only as strong as their connection to stakeholders and other organizations. Organizational survival is dependent

on the depth of an organization's social network. Networks allow organizations to band together and solve complex problems. Individual organizations have difficulty solving complex problems (Jackson & Stainsby, 2000). Although there is some debate regarding the actual definition of this concept, there is a consensus among scholars that professional networks are critical to organizational survival.

Perhaps the most widely accepted definition of social networks as they pertain to organizations is by J.C. Mitchell (1969). Mitchell wrote that social networks are "a specific set of linkages among a defined set of persons, with the additional property that the characteristics of these linkages as a whole may be used to interpret the social behavior of the persons involved" (p. 2). This definition highlights the importance of professional networks. It demonstrates the importance of social networks, in that they affect the social behavior of people involved.

Four types of relationships exist among organizations.   These relationships are characterized as cooperation (among agencies in an uncertain environment), competition (the pursuit of individual goals), coordination (goals between agencies are similar and the environment is stable), and co-evolution (the pursuit of similar goals in an uncertain environment) (Jackson & Stainsby, 2000). Relationships such as these are common among organization. Networks play a vital role in public organizations. Networks exist between the hierarchies of bureaucracy. Thus, networking helps bridge this ever-widening gap. The positioning of networks between these two entities allows public managers to pool resources from spectrums outside the public sector. This is which is important because traditional public organizations are unable to cope with a changing

environment (Jackson & Stainsby, 2000). When discussed in this light, the values of networks become indisputable.

Scholars conceptualize the actual objects or ideas exchanged in social networks as the transactional content. There are four types of content that can be exchanged including: exchanges of affect (liking, friendship), exchanges of influence or power, exchanges of information, and exchange of goods and services (Tichy, et al., 1979). The types of objects exchanged are important for the purpose of this study. These exchanges are common in networked organizations.

Additionally, scholars define the nature of the social network links. The linkages are characterized by the intensity (strength), reciprocity (the extent of similar linkages), clarity of expectations (degree to which individuals agree on appropriate behavior), and multiplicity (multiple roles) (Tichy, et al., 1979). The natures of links are also important in understanding social networking.

Complex problems are a common thread in society's public sector. Networks allow managers to collaborate on common issues (Jackson & Stainsby, 2000), which can increase the potential for organizational viability. One common issue is funding. In contemporary times of budget shortfalls and cuts, city officials are most likely to eliminate non-essential agencies first. Managers must find innovative ways to ensure that their department or organization survives. Collaboration with others who have been successful can increase the chances for survival. Professional networking plays a pivotal role in an organization's ability to survive external change.

<u>Condition 3 - Resource Mobilization</u>

A third factor that affects an organization's ability to survive a change in environment is its capability to mobilize resources. Several lines of research discuss this notion. Most definitions center on the notion of collective behavior.

Resource mobilization theories differ from traditional approaches. Researchers define resource mobilization as the institutionalized actions that attempt to alter the elements of the social structure (McCarthy & Zald, 1977). Mobilization refers to the process by which a group secures collective control over resources for action. The key to mobilization is the process by which groups pool resources and direct change (Jenkins, 1983). This can enable organizations to change in ways that ensure survival. For example, organizations prevent failure through the process of resource mobilization. The Three Mile Island example earlier in this chapter illustrates how groups can seize the moment to mobilize resources. As mentioned, numerous anti-nuclear opposition groups formed in the wake of the accident. Organizations were able to harness the country's anti-nuclear sentiment to expand their organization, as illustrated by the rapid increase of membership. The new organizations effectively seized the moment and mobilized resources in an effort to fulfill their newly formed organizational goals (Walsh, 1981).

Certain motivations exist for mobilization. The members of the organization have distinct benefits they accrue. The larger the benefit to the organization or individual, the larger the motivation to mobilize resources is (Jenkins, 1983). Thus, for example, if members of an organization might lose their job due to closure, they will mobilize resources to prevent closure. Mobilization of resources is likely to occur during a crisis

period to counter situations over which an organization has little control (Jenkins, 1983). Such a crisis period might occur when a major shift in the external environment occurs.

Several possible outcomes following a mobilization movement are possible. These outcomes include success, cooptation (acceptance with no benefits), preemption (benefits without acceptance), and failure. Successful movements tend to be ones that pursue narrow goals, employ selected incentives, have sponsorship, and those that made demands during sociopolitical crises (Jenkins, 1983). These characteristics of successful mobilization movements suggest that an organization acts in a self-preserving role during crisis periods, while sticking close to organizational goals.

Condition 4 - Organizational Formalization

The final condition, organizational formalization, emerged after data collection. Formalization is one of the last stages an organization goes through. The concept of formalization stems from Weber's (1978) concept of burecratization. The stage is when the organization operates by a set of established rules. Blau (1956) indicates that these rules are formal and official. Blau argues that formalization occurres when there was an official distinction of the organization. Furthermore, Pugh et al. (1963) denote that formalization occurs the organization has written rules. Like other scholars, Adizes (1979) establishes similar indications of organizational formalization. This author writes that goal accomplishment, productivity, and efficiency are important indications of formalization.

Pugh et al. (1963) establish several criteria for formalized organizations.   The first criteria is roles. The organization must clearly define positions and have written job

descriptions. The organization must also have a clear line of authority. The organization

defines this authority through hierarchical structures. Members of the organization must

emphasize written communication through an appropriate chain. Finally, the

organization must establish sanctions for rule violations.

The degree to which an organization formalizes affects efficiency. In newly

formalized organizations efficiency increases. In young organizations, formalization

promotes administrative efficiency by increasing administrative power. It also serves as

a channel to direct interactions within the organization. Formalization establishes rules

and procedures, of which increase efficiency in young organizations (J. P. Walsh &

Dewar, 1987).

However as an organization ages, formalization can actually contribute to the

organization's decline and eventual death.   This decline is typically a result of rule-

maker's preoccupation with their status. In addition, those punished by the rules will

create or change rules to serve their own interest. These amended rules may not serve in

the best interest of the organization. Ambiguity within the organization is also a result of

formalization. The rules of the organization mire the members, causing them to forget

the original intent. It also occurs when members and leaders neglect the organization's

mission (J. P. Walsh & Dewar, 1987).

Summary

In this chapter, I presented the academic literature relevant to this study. It began

with a discussion of various models of organizational survival. Next, I presented the

conditions. This review established the foundation for the remainder of this thesis. In

chapter five, I synthesize the findings of the study using the existing literature. This

literature review also illustrated the lack of recent literature in the field. One of the

contributions this study makes is reinforces past literature.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

A determination of the conditions for organizational survival of an ECG was the purpose of this study. As I discussed in Chapter 2, several factors that affect the ability of an ECG to survive an environment change exist. In order to examine the conditions for organizational survival, I designed a qualitative study of the conditions for organizational survival.

In Chapter 2, I presented the scholarly literature related to organizational survival. This literature framed the study and allowed for the presentation of the study methodology. Fundamentally, this study examines the conditions that allowed Tulsa Project Impact to survive a major environmental change.

Stated differently, the research question of this study is: What are the conditions that allowed Tulsa Project Impact to survive an environmental change? In order to answer the question, I designed a study to examine these conditions. This chapter will outline how I designed the study.

This chapter describes the study's research methodology. It includes a discussion of the following areas: 1) Rationale for the use of qualitative methods, 2) Description of the research design and sample, 3) condition selection 4) Overview of information

needed, 5) Data collection methods, 6) Data analysis,7) Ethical and trustworthiness

considerations, and 8) Limitations of the study. I discuss each topic in terms of the

specific study. The chapter concludes with a brief summary.

Rationale for Qualitative Research Design

This study of organizational survival used various qualitative methods to analyze

the research question: What are the conditions that allowed Tulsa Project Impact to

survive an environmental change? I selected a qualitative methodology for several

reasons. The primary reason is that the ability to obtain thick rich data (Lincoln & Guba,

1985). This is a specific benefit with respect to this research question because of the

need for contextual information. Additionally, qualitative methods have a rich tradition in

disaster research (Phillips, 2002)

Qualitative methodology allows for holistic analysis of a research question.

Specifically, my research question required an understanding of the events surrounding

Tulsa Project Impact's survival. Holistic analysis of my research question allowed me to

understand how the managers of the organization were able to avoid organizational death.

Qualitative methods acknowledge the potential for multiple influences on a dependent

variable. Additionally, the use of this method allows for in-depth, rich analysis of the

research problem (Erlandson, Harris, & Allen, 1993).

Context is integral in qualitative research (Phillips, 2002). Much of the overall

context of research is lost in large N studies because of the lack of an understanding of

people's experiences. On the contrary, the context of the events surrounding

organizational survival is integral to the analysis of the research question. An additional

benefit of qualitative methods is the possibility of discovering new relevant questions.

This benefit is a result of qualitative methods being grounded in people's experiences (Phillips, 2002).

Additionally, qualitative methodology emphasizes a continuous process as the researcher gathers data and tests initial ideas. This process allows the researcher to expand the scope of the study as necessary to consider other conditions affecting the research question (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). With respect to the research question that grounds this thesis, qualitative methodology allowed me to expand the scope of the study as necessary. For example, I was able to consider other conditions playing a role in organizational survival. In addition, qualitative method allowed me to probe for additional details needed during the interview process. It also allowed me to consider other factors that may be influencing the survival of Tulsa Project Impact.

The tradition of qualitative research in the disaster research field extends back to the influences of the Chicago School. The 1920s gave rise to a new research tradition based on fieldwork. Researchers at the University of Chicago began going into the field to collect data, a technique not widely used at that time. According to Phillips (2002), Herbert Blumer and Jane Adams were among the pioneers of this technique. Henry Quarantelli, a student of Blumer, completed his thesis on the nature of panic in 1953. Quarantelli's work laid the foundation for the disaster research field.

As disaster research institutions emerged, researcher institutionalized the principles of the Chicago School. Disaster research institutions such as the Disaster Research Center (University of Delaware), Natural Hazards Center (University of Colorado at Boulder), Center for Disaster Research and Education (Millersville University of Pennsylvania), Center for the Study of Disaster and Extreme Events

(Oklahoma State University) and others continue the qualitative research traditions

started by the Chicago School. The ability for rich, holistic analysis (Lincoln & Guba,

1985) along with the solid tradition of qualitative analysis in disaster research (Phillips,

2002) combine to make qualitative methods the most appropriate method for this research

study.

Rationale for Case Study Design

Within the overarching qualitative approach, the case study approach is best

suited for this study. This approach allows for an intensive analysis of a specific social

unit (Berg, 2004; Cresswell, 1998; Merriam, 1998; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Stake,

2000). Furthermore, the case study design is ideal for gaining an in-depth understanding

of a specific phenomenon (Merriam, 1998).

This study benefited from the principles of the case study approach because it

examined distinct characteristics that required close examination. For example, the

specific actions the managers of Tulsa Project Impact took were important to

understanding how the organization survived. The use of a case study allowed me to

determine which conditions must be present for survival. Without the case study

approach, I could not have examined the various facets of the research question. Since

organizations are unique, I examined a specific case. This allowed me to determine how

this specific organization was able to survive. Future studies may expand the scope of

this study to compare multiple cases.

Research Sample

I used a purposeful sampling procedure for selection of this study's sample. I

selected this method to yield vivid information about the organization in this study.

Purposeful sampling is the best method to identify individuals that are key to the study. This is because specific people have knowledge about what happened in Tulsa. In fact, purposeful sampling is the typical selection method used in case studies (M. Patton, 1990). Since I sought to identify key individuals in the organization, I used a snowball sampling procedure (Miles & Huberman, 1994; M. Patton, 2002), which involves asking participants to identify others who are important to the study. I asked participants to identify individuals that were a part of the organization during the period of study. The criteria for participant selection were: 1) individuals who were stakeholders in Tulsa's Project Impact, 2) those who were involved with Tulsa's mitigation programs during the late 1980s to early 2000s, and 3) those who had knowledge of the disaster mitigation programs in Tulsa, Oklahoma of this era. I chose these criteria to obtain contextual information about the organization as well as to obtain data about the study period.

I selected Tulsa Partners INC as the research site for two specific reasons. First, Tulsa has a history of disaster loss in the city. The City undertook a remarkable transformation to reduce its disaster vulnerability. Second, I selected the site based upon proximity to Oklahoma State University, where I am a student. Tulsa, Oklahoma is approximately 60 miles east of OSU, thus it is the closest city that participated in Project Impact. Since the research site is easily accessible, extensive fieldwork became more feasible.

Condition Selection

Fundamental to framing the study was my selection of conditions for survival. Following a lengthy review of the literature, I selected three conditions to frame the study. Scholars suggest several conditions that affect organizational survival. As noted,

these conditions, goal transformation, professional networks, and resource mobilization served at the basis for the study. The fourth condition, organizational formalization, emerged throughout the course of my analysis. In the previous chapter, I outlined each condition in detail.

Overview of Information Needed

This study sought to determine the conditions for organizational survival for Tulsa Project Impact, a formalized ECG in Tulsa, Oklahoma. To understand the conditions for survival, I examined several factors. The factors included in this study were resource mobilization, professional networks, goal transformation, and organizational formalization. I also designed this study to allow new conditions to emerge. This is a principle of grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), and ensured that I included pertinent new findings. The information I needed to explain the research question included contextual information, perceptual information, and theoretical information.   This information included:

1) The context and setting of Tulsa Project Impact (& Tulsa Partners Inc.) and the influence of the external environment. In order to delineate the conditions for organizational survival, an understanding of the environment that the organization existed in is vital.

2) The perceptions of those involved in Tulsa Project Impact. These perceptions revealed some of the more subtle aspects of the organization that contributed to survival.

3) An in-depth and ongoing literature review that provided the theoretical context for the study.

Institutional Review Board

        The Oklahoma State University approved this study. The IRB approved the method and techniques I used for data collection. They also examined and approved the contact script, informed consent document, and interview guide. The IRB approved data collection for a period of up to one year.

Research Design Overview

        The following summarizes the steps I used to carry out this research. Following this list are in-depth descriptions of each step of the research process. Prior to data collection, I conducted a literature review to examine previous works on the topic. This step was critical in framing the study. I then developed an interview guide, contact script, and informed consent document. Next, the Oklahoma State University IRB reviewed and approved the study. This review evaluated the methods used for data collection, and IRB members ensured the study adhered to university standards (instrument and other materials available in appendix I, II, III). I identified potential participants from documents and via snowball sampling and then I contacted them via e-mail. After the participant responded to the email, I telephoned them to explain the purpose of the study. Once the individual agreed to participate, an interview time and location was established. I conducted open-ended interviews with a sample population of five participants. Individuals involved with Tulsa Project Impact and partner agencies were among the sample population. I conducted follow-up interviews as needed. Finally, I coded interview data and analyzed it using the C-Model as the primary analytic instrument.

Data-Collection Methods

Collection and Analysis

Document analysis began by searching local newspaper databases for articles regarding the organization of study. The primary paper I examined was Tulsa World, the local newspaper for Tulsa, Oklahoma. Tulsa World has a storied tradition and has covered Tulsa's disaster threat and the mitigation activities that Tulsa Project Impact participated in.

I searched Tulsa World's online database for relevant stores between 1983 and present time. The selection of this period allowed for analysis of the career of the organization before and after the project impact era. Analysis of articles from only the late 1990's would limit the depth of understanding about the organization, and the changes that took place. This allowed for an understanding of the history or "career" or the organization.

I evaluated newspaper articles based upon relevancy to the research question. Keywords such as "Tulsa Partners," "Project Impact," "Tulsa Project Impact," and "flooding" identified potentially relevant articles. These key words allowed me to identify articles relevant to the study. I evaluated the articles based upon the content, and determined if they were useful. Useful articles revealed information about the career and characteristics of the organization, as well as conditions for survival.

I searched for various aspects of the articles that would assist in answering the research question. The following elements were important to answer the research question; stories about the organization's activities, stories about Project Impact, stories about funding, leadership changes, and articles about flood threat and general mitigation

projects. My logic behind using these indicators was that these are the fundamental

elements of organizational survival conditions.

To augment newspaper articles, I obtained annual reports from Tulsa Partners Inc.

Similar to the criteria used to evaluate newspaper articles, specific elements of the reports

were vital to answering the research question. These elements included the

organization's activities, budgeting issues, and key leadership changes. Annual reports

from the late 1990's to early 2000's were a part of my analysis.

I obtained additional supporting documents from participants in the study. These

documents included conference presentations, meeting minutes, and bylaws from the

organization of study. These documents allowed for further analysis and helped to gain

an emic perspective into the organization. These documents were also helpful for me to

gain an understanding of the internal workings of the organization.

The use of document analysis benefited this study in numerous ways. Ease of

accessibility was one of the biggest advantages of this method. Management and access

of data was also easy. Ease of access and management was of benefit for this study

(Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008). My study dealt with information that was mostly public

record, so acquisition of documents was relatively easy.

The use of unobtrusive measures in organizational studies is common. Although

not required in all research, unobtrusive measures are common in multi-method research.

This technique strengthens the research. A benefit of unobtrusive measures is the relative

flexible application of the method. The researcher can gather data at their leisure from

numerous locations. Most unobtrusive measures involve obtaining public records, thus

data collection is relatively easy. Reliance on self-report likely excludes various

populations from the study (Webb & Weick, 1983). Thus, the use of unobtrusive

measures allowed me to gain a deeper understanding of the phenomenon. I was able to

learn about various stakeholders' roles in Project Impact. Due to the limited scope of the

study, interviewing all stakeholders was not possible. Thus, unobtrusive research

supplemented my knowledge gained from interviews.

Additionally, this method allowed me to gain insight into the study prior to using

other methods. The analysis of documents allowed me to gain understanding of the

career of the organization prior to conducting interviews. Background information also

helped me to grain credibility before the interview because I was familiar with what the

participants were discussing.

Interviews

While document collection and analysis was ongoing, the process qualitative

interviewing began. Interviews allowed me the opportunity to obtain in-depth

descriptions. Additionally, this method allowed me an opportunity to clarify statements

and probe for additional information (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008). In-depth interviewing

also provides the opportunity for the participant to offer their perception and feelings on

the event (Cresswell, 1994; Denzin & Lincoln, 2003; Marshall & Rossman, 2006).

Perception and feelings were important to this study because of the importance of human

dynamics in organizations. Individual thoughts and perceptions yielded information

regarding the thoughts and perceptions of the organization as a whole.

Interviewing, a fundamental element of qualitative research (Kvale, 1996;

Merriam, 1998), allows researchers to understand the participant's point of view (Kvale,

1996). In addition to the general benefits to qualitative interviewing, this method also has

a rich tradition in disaster research (Phillips, 2002). The interviewing tradition extends

back to the early work of the National Opinions Research Center (Russell Dynes &

Drabeck, 1994) as well as the storied work of the Disaster Research Center (Quarantelli,

1986). Disaster research and interviewing have enjoyed a long, healthy relationship over

the past 60 years. This relationship exists based upon the theoretical roots of the Chicago

School (Phillips, 2002).

Although the interview was a solid methodological choice, a few potential

drawbacks to this method exist. The varied cooperation level of participants is

potentially detrimental. Additionally, the interview is not a neutral data-gathering tool.

Data are a result of the interaction of the interviewer and participant, thus the potential for

bias on either side is possible (Fontana and Frey 2003, Schwandt 1997). To limit these

issues, I verified the statements of the participants against documents to ensure accuracy.

In addition, I pursued as many participants as possible, to expand sample size.

Interviewing continued until my data reached Theoretical Saturation (Glaser & Strauss,

1967).

Theoretical saturation is the point at which the researcher begins to hear similar

responses from the participants of the study. At this point, the researcher can be

relatively confident that the responses of the participants are accurate. Theoretical

saturation can occur at different points during the research process depending on the

specific study (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

Interview Guide

I developed a five-question interview guide based upon the research question. I

developed the guide using the research topic (organizational survival) and the three

conditions for survival (resource mobilization, professional networks, and goal transformation). I structured the guide around the C-Model. The C-Model aims to discover the career, characteristics, consequences, and conditions of an organization (Quarantelli, 1987). Each question examines one of the facets of the study. (See Appendix II for interview guide).

Interview Process

I contacted potential subjects via e-mail asking for their participation and describing the purpose of the study. The e-mail also asked for the person's participation and attempted to establish a potential interview date. After receiving a reply from a potential participant, I called them on the telephone to explain the purpose and scope of the study. Once we aggressed upon a time and location, the interview was scheduled (See Appendix I for copy of email protocol).

Before an interview began, I carefully reviewed the informed consent document with the participant. I followed the approved informed consent script and read the document aloud in its entirety to the participant. After I read the informed consent document, I gave the participant a chance to review it, and to ask any questions. When the participant was aware of their rights, they signed and dated the informed consent form. I then signed and dated the form as well. After both the participant and I signed the form, the interview began.

Prior to reading the first question, I asked the participant if they would be comfortable with me tape recording the interview. I explained that it was to ensure accurate transcription of the interview. In addition, I explained that the digital recordings

from the recorder would be stored under lock and key on an external jump drive. If the participant was okay with tape recording, I engaged the audio device for recording.

At the start of the interview, I carefully read the questions on the IRB approved interview guide. I gave the participant sufficient time to answer and elaborate on the questions I posed. I then interjected follow-up and probing questions as needed. At the end of the interview, I gave the participant the opportunity to add anything they felt was pertinent, and to ask the researcher questions.

Since this study employed the use of snowball sampling, I then asked the participant to identify individuals that they felt might be useful to the study. Finally, I thanked the participant for their participation and for their willingness to share their expertise. Follow up interviews were not necessary for this study, since I obtained the data needed in the first interview.

Data Analysis and Synthesis

During data collection, I needed a system to handle large volumes of data. The analysis process involved reducing the amount of information, identifying significant patterns, and developing a procedure to analyze the data. I continued this process throughout data collection. Simultaneous analysis allowed me to remain focused while avoiding repetitious work and preventing the data from becoming overwhelming (Merriam, 1998).

Following an interview, I first typed up my notes. Notes served as a supplemental tool to the audio transcriptions and allowed me to hypothesize about the research question during the interview. Once typed, I assigned the notes a random number. This

ensured the removal of identifying information. I then placed the digital notes on an external USB jump drive for secure storage.

Following the interview, I transcribed audio recordings. Immersing oneself in the data is important in gaining an understanding of the study (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008). I opted to transcribe the recordings myself because of this fact. I gave care to ensure the recordings were transcribed verbatim to protect against potential researcher bias.

The first step in the transcription process involved transfer and conversion of the audio files from the device to computer. I transferred the files via USB cable from the recorder into Voice Studio ® version 2.0 where I converted them to .WAV files. This conversion allowed for easy playback during transcription. Once converted, I labeled the .WAV files with the corresponding random number assigned to the interview to remove identifying information. Finally, I transferred the files onto an external jump drive for secure storage.

After conversion, I played back the audio recordings through headphones and transcribed them. Transcription using headphones ensured confidential prevented interception by a third party. Once transcribed, I labeled the transcript with the random number corresponding to the audio file. The removal of personal information from the transcriptions and recordings helped to limit researcher bias. The anonymous data was then ready for coding.

After I transcribed the recordings, a coding procedure began. I center the coding on the C-Model. The C-Model, as noted, seeks to understand the conditions that lead certain organizational characteristics, which in turn have consequences on the career of the organization. The conditions are specific to the phenomena such as the scope or

magnitude of an event. This leads to certain organizational characteristics such as structure. Consequences are intended and unintended results from the conditions. Finally, career is the history of the organization (Quarantelli, 1987).

I sought to identify indications of the conditions for survival. Thus, I assigned a color to each element of the C-Model, and I electronically highlighted the data. I followed this coding scheme throughout the course of the study.

I also conducted the process of memoing. Memoing involves writing notes about certain occurrences during the data analysis stage (Strauss, 1987). I kept track of what I thought was going on during the analysis. This process helps to identify new themes and capture new descriptors during the analysis process (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008). The memoing process helped me to shape my analysis and to guide the ongoing data collection process.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical issues regarding the protection of participants are always a top priority during research (Berg, 2004; Marshall & Rossman, 2006; Merriam, 1998). Thus, ethical considerations remained a priority throughout the course of this study. Two of the main safeguards to protect the participant include voluntary participation and informed consent (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008). The design of this study considered various ethical concerns. I did not anticipate any serious ethical threats since I conducted this study during the course of the participant's normal employment. Despite this, several protections were in place.

Informed consent remained a priority during this study. I reminded participants of their voluntary participation in the study. Additionally, prior to the start of the

interview, the participant read and signed the approved informed consent form. I also

allowed time for the participant to ask any questions they might have.

Additionally, I removed identifying information from the data. As noted on the

informed consent form, I protected the identity of participants. I also took precautions to

ensure anonymity of the participant's identity in the data itself. I avoided quoting

respondents in the analysis, even if the quote was unattributed. I took these precautions

on the advice of the Oklahoma State University IRB due to the small sample size and the

possibility for others to recognize quotes. I also ensured the data was stored in a secure

location under lock and key.

Issues of Trustworthiness

The issue of trustworthiness in qualitative methods addresses traditional

quantitative research issues such as validity and reliability (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008).

Qualitative researchers must seek to establish trustworthiness in their research. The

terms credibility, dependability, and transferability (Guba & Lincoln, 2003) are addressed

in qualitative studies. These issues should be at the forefront of the researcher's mind at

all times.

Credibility is a key component of the research design. This ensures that the

findings are accurate for the researcher, participants, and reader (Cresswell, 2003; Mason,

1996; Merriam, 1998). Furthermore, methodological validity ensures the conclusions

reached by the researcher are valid (Mason, 1996).

Methodological validity deals with the fit of the research question and the

research methods. Validity ensures that the methods chosen are appropriate to answering

the research question. This type of validity deals with the interrelationships between the

data and question (Mason, 1996).

I took specific steps to ensure methodological validity. I used multiple sources to

avoid methodological bias. Furthermore, I gathered the data using multiple sources e.g.

newspapers, annual reports, and interviews. The use of multiple types of sources also

enhanced the results and provided a richer description of the phenomenon.

Another trustworthiness issue is dependability. Dependability means that the

findings are consistent across all data collected (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). It is not a goal

to eliminate inconsistencies, but to acknowledge that they occur (Bloomberg & Volpe,

2008).

I ensured dependability in several ways. First, I kept a memo journal with my

thoughts. This allowed outside auditors to review the coding or data gathering process

for issues. In addition, I made all anonymous data and procedures available for external

review. Scholars recognize this process as the audit trail. Comprised of a series of

documents, the audit trail ensures the researcher followed appropriate research processes.

The trail contains items such as interview transcripts, correspondence, and coding

schemes (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

One final issue of trustworthiness worth noting is transferability. Generalizability

is not the goal of qualitative analysis; however, the issue of transferability is addressed

(Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Transferability refers to the extent to which the phenomenon

from one context can be used in another (M. Patton, 1990). The findings of this study

will likely be transferable to other settings since Tulsa Project Impact was a typical public

organization. Managers can use these findings to ensure their long-term organizational

existence. In addition, researchers can use these findings in future studies, and compare my findings with theirs. These findings may be applicable to other similar organizations.

Limitations to the Study

All studies have certain limitations. Some of these issues result directly from the research design, while others are general critiques of qualitative methodology. Acknowledging these limitations allowed me to take active steps to avoid them.

One of the general critiques of qualitative methods is researcher subjectivity. Researcher bias is perhaps of greatest concern. There is a potential the researcher can design the study in such a way as to influence the results, even in a subconscious manner (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008). There was only a slight potential in this study that my own interests could influence the study.

Another limitation to this study is that it used one case study. Since I used only one case, I was unable to verify the findings against other cases. Using only one case calls into question the accuracy of the data. In addition, a lack of baseline measurement is a common issue in one-shot case studies. Campbell & Stanley (1963) note that a weakness of a one-shot case study is that the researcher cannot verify the statements of the respondents. To rectify this situation, I engaged in an extensive document review. As I noted earlier in this chapter, I used numerous sources of documents to augment interviews. This allowed me to verify the statements from participants. It allowed me to be relatively confident of the accuracy of their statements.

Another limitation resulted from the research design. The potential issue with this study is the limited sample size. The sample for this study was relatively small, thus opening the potential for bias in the findings. The restricted sample size is a function of

the size of the organization of study. Additionally, the small sample size was a result of the time period of study. This study examined events that transpired nearly 10 years ago. Many involved with Project Impact moved onto new endeavors, making it difficult to track them down.

Identifying these potential limitations allowed me to take steps to avert potential problems. I took the following steps to protect against bias. The first I took was to consult with advisers about the coding scheme used to analyze data. We determined the best coding scheme to use was the C-Model. Additionally, I removed all personal information from data prior to coding. This prevented coding bias based upon the respondent. Anonymous coding ensured I did not let my personal bias influence the coding process.

To avoid the issues resulting from small sample size, I ensured to look for saturated sampling. Once I noticed the data was theoretically saturated, I became relatively confident in the results. Saturation occurred relatively quickly because of the rigorous document analysis process I undertook prior to interviews. Although the sample size was small, I am confident in the results I found. I also identified new participants via snowball sampling to increase the sample.

Selection bias was the final limitation in this study. Important to note, one way to limit bias is to schedule follow up studies. Researchers should examine different types of organizations. If the researcher finds similar results, it can be determined that bias was likely not present. Future researchers can examine different types of organizations. Multi-case comparison of different types of organizations was simply beyond the scope of this study.

In short, despite the potential limitations to this study, I took careful steps to avoid problems. I designed this study with these potential issues in mind, thus I \consciously avoided them. Not unique to this study, researchers have dealt with these issues in the past.

Summary

This chapter defined and justified the research design for this study. As noted, I answered the research question using qualitative methods. The methods chosen in this study examined the conditions for organizational survival.

The participant sample was comprised of three purposely-selected individuals. Participants identified two additional important individuals who I added to the sample via snowball sampling. The total sample size for this study was five participants. Additionally, I conducted an in-depth document analysis of newspaper articles and annual reports. The multi-method approach improved dependability.

Following data collection, I conducted an in-depth analysis. This process involved coding procedures using the C-Model. Once coding was complete, I sorted and separated the data. Additionally, I maintained an electronic memo journal during the research process, outlining the process.

CHAPTER IV

CASE STUDY

Introduction

In this chapter, I present the history or career of the organization of study. I begin presentation of the career during the formation of the emergent citizen group in the early 1970's. Contextual information regarding the roots of the organization is vital to the analysis. This information allows for an understanding of the various factors that allowed TPI to survive. This chapter presents the findings from the research study as they pertain to the career of the organization.

The history of Tulsa's disaster mitigation programs fit within in four distinct phases. Each phase differs in terms of the type of organization handling the programs. These four phases are prior to Pre-Project Impact, FEMA Project Impact, Tulsa Project Impact, and Tulsa Partners Inc. I discuss each phase in terms of the activities and characteristics of the organization delivering the programs. Table 2 on page 41 presents the organizations in Tulsa involved with disaster mitigation.

Phase 1 – Pre-Project Impact

To understand the historical significance of disaster mitigation programs in Tulsa, Oklahoma, one must go back to the early 1970's. Following a series of severe floods that affected the Tulsa metro area, a number of citizens became tired of being flooded out of their homes repeatedly. These citizens, fed up with the lack of flood management in Tulsa, started a loose association of individuals that would eventually lead to Tulsa Partners INC in the early 2000's. This organization is a non-profit organization concentrated on disaster mitigation. The original intent of this group was to lobby local lawmakers to address the flood problems (Meo, Ziebro, & Patton, 2004).

Organization	Time Period	Type	Description
Tulsan's for a Better Community	1970s -1990s	Emergency Citizen Group (ECG)	A group formed by citizens to reduce flood threat in Tulsa
Tulsa Project Impact Office	1998-2006	City of Tulsa Department	Office that formed to manage Project Impact and Tulsa's mitigation programs
Tulsa Project Impact Foundation	2000-2002	Private 501 (c) (3) non-profit	Supporting agency for T.P.I.
Tulsa Partners, Inc.	2002-Present	Private 501 (c) (3) non-profit	Current name of TPIF. Organization in existence today.

Table 2 - Disaster Mitigation Organizations in Tulsa, Oklahoma

The group got its start on June 8, 1974 in the flood soaked living room in the residence of Carol Williams. This initial group was comprised of citizens and other officials fed up with the flood problems in Tulsa. This group named itself "Tulsans for a Better Community." This simplistic name represented the general goals the members hoped to accomplish. This initial meeting would eventually completely change in how Tulsa managed floods (A. Patton & Chakos, 2008).

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Studying flood management in other cities was one of the initial actions of the new group. One of the group members traveled to Rapid City, South Dakota to study the city's management strategy. Rapid City had recently sustained a severe flood that devastated much of the city. The city managers formed a new innovative flood management strategy. Any strategy would be superior to Tulsa's strategy, mainly because Tulsa did not have an established flood management strategy. Tulsa officials lacked a comprehensive management strategy, and managers did not realize that individual channelization projects negatively affected other areas. After studying Rapid City's management policies, the group presented its findings to the mayor of Tulsa. This presentation focused on strategies to move at risk homes out of flood prone areas. Their initiatives led to the Mingo Creek Improvement Project in 1975 (Meo, et al., 2004).

The 1975 project was an extensive first step to control flooding in the city of Tulsa. This project included a channel project that included the removal of 33 homes. Removing these few homes would ultimately protect upwards of 700 homes downstream (Meo, et al., 2004).

In 1975, one of the group members attended the first annual Natural Hazards Center workshop in Boulder, Colorado. At this meeting, the member met Gilbert White, a renowned geographer who specialized in flood management strategies. His guidance and knowledge on the topic assisted the group back in Tulsa (Hinshaw, 2006).

The 1976 Memorial Day flood tested the initial measures of the group. The 1976 flood revealed the vulnerability of homes and businesses still located within the floodplain. Ten inches of rain in three hours caused $40 million dollars of damage (1976

dollars) and damaged upwards of 3000 buildings. This event would once again mobilize citizens to demand more substantial flood management measures (Meo, et al., 2004).

Following the 1976 event, Tulsans for a Better Community would elicit help from outside their small organization. This organization contacted their U.S. congressional representative and was able to secure funding for building acquisition through Section 1362 of the national flood insurance law. Tulsans for a Better Community was able to bring this money to the city of Tulsa through many of the developing networks (Meo, et al., 2004).

In 1976, following the Memorial Day flood, Tulsans for a Better Community and others created a new organization, the citywide Homeowners Collation. They combined numerous stakeholders into this collation to pull resources to fix the flood problems. This allowed the organization to gain access to greater resources, as well as improved the organization's political influence. Also during this time period, this organization, working with the United States Army Corps of Engineers (USACE) influenced the city of Tulsa to take several flood reduction measure (Meo, et al., 2004).

The policy innovation that resulted after this event encompassed a vast strategy of flood reduction. Most notably, the city enacted a moratorium on flood plain development. In addition to stopping flood plain development, Tulsa hired a full time hydrologist, developed comprehensive floodplain management policy, enacted storm-water drainage policies, developed an early warning system, and developed a master drainage plan for along the Mingo Creek (Meo, et al., 2004). The city facilitated many of these early programs through the Civil Engineering Department.

Tulsans for a Better Community and Homeowners Collation continued to work

with local leaders. Their work enhanced flood mitigation strategies. Tulsa's flooding

problems would become evident again in 1984 when the worst flood in city history struck

Tulsa. The 1984 Memorial Day flood caused $184 million dollars of damage (1984

dollars), damaged 7,000 buildings, and killed 14 people. Following this event, the city of

Tulsa took action, launching a joint venture between the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers

(USACE), a newly formed Storm Water Management Department, and other

stakeholders to develop a regional strategy (Meo, et al., 2004).

The flood mitigation programs continued in Tulsa throughout the late 80's and

early 90's. Highly successful, the mitigation programs set precedents across the country.

Tulsa's mitigation programs were thorough enough to attract the attention of James Lee

Witt, the current FEMA director.

Phase 2 – FEMA Project Impact

In June 1998, FEMA selected Tulsa along with 35 other communities across the

country, to participate in Project Impact. Among the second round of Project Impact

cities, Tulsa became Oklahoma's pilot city. FEMA started Project Impact as a cost

sharing initiative that provided seed money to help build disaster mitigation programs in

local communities. The creation of disaster resistant communities across the country was

the intent of Project Impact's creators. Changing the culture in cities was the

fundamental idea behind Project Impact. Additionally, FEMA wanted to stop the build

repair cycle that characterized many communities. A good fit for Tulsa, Project Impact

became a fundamental part of the city. Witt chose Tulsa based on the programs the city

had in place, and the prevailing disaster threat (Myers, 1998; A. Patton & Chakos, 2008).

Project Impact brought both funding and ideas to the table to be used to enhance Tulsa's

programs. Accomplished through technical assistance, network opportunities, and

funding, Project Impact inspired disaster mitigation programs in the city.

FEMA officials intended the grant to be finite, and to last a period of two years.

Communities had the option of extending the grant if needed. The grant had provisions

allowing numerous types of projects, both structural and non-structural. Tulsa officials

decided to expand their mitigation programs beyond floodplain management into new

areas.

Shortly after the FEMA announcement, the city of Tulsa created the Tulsa Project

Impact Office located within the public works department. The Tulsa Project Impact

Office, comprised of five full time staff, coordinated the activities between various

organizations. Handing the $500,000 FEMA grant was among many of the roles for the

new organization (A. Patton & Chakos, 2008). The office was responsible for building

partnerships between the vast arrays of stakeholders throughout the community.

The newly created organization encouraged the mitigation activities of numerous

partners as well as facilitated numerous projects. Project Impact partners in Tulsa

included the Tulsa Area Emergency Management Agency, the Home Builders

Association of Greater Tulsa, Tulsa Fire Department, Tulsa Police Department, State

Farm Insurance, EMSA, the American Red Cross among other agencies (For a complete

list see appendix IV). The Tulsa Project Impact Office coordinated the activities of these

agencies in order to steer Tulsa's disaster mitigation programs.

When James Lee Whitt arrived to sign the official Project Impact agreement in November 1998, he applauded the work that several of the city organizations had accomplished. Witt proclaimed that the damage-repair, damage-repair cycle was over in Tulsa. He toured the almost completed Mingo Creek retention basins and complimented Tulsa on its work (Espinosa, 1998). Witt's visit officially signaled the start of Tulsa Project Impact.

Following Witt's visit, the leadership of Tulsa Project Impact (TPI) got right to work. An extensive public education campaign was one of the first initiatives TPI undertook. In the months following the agreement, TPI released information to newspapers outlining preparedness for mobile homes (Froeschle, 1998), flooding preparedness (Pearson, 1998), and safe rooms (Bryant, 1998). The Tulsa Project Impact office shifted the focus of mitigation programs in the city away from the flood reduction programs. After receiving the Project Impact grant, the managers of TPI chose to focus on other hazards such as tornados, straight-line winds, and other extreme weather events.

In early 1999, TPI collaborated with the Home Builders Association of Greater Tulsa to promote safe room technology. Over the course of 1999, TPI handed out $5,000 grants to local builders to include safe rooms in new homes (Dudley, 1999; Million, 1999). Furthermore, TPI promoted safe room technology while promoting general tornado preparedness for residents (Dean, 1999; Million, 1999). In 1999, Tulsa commemorated the completion of the Mingo Creek flood control project.

The project completion signified a shift in the TPI activities. The Mingo Creek flood control project was one of the first mitigation projects in Tulsa. The early project

innovators from the 1970s who initiated the program had since become a powerful lobbying force in Tulsa (Lassek, 1999). Without the actions of the initial group, Tulsa likely would still suffer from severe flooding problems. This project was a prestigious accomplishment for the city of Tulsa. Through the support of many organizations, the Tulsa Public Works Department significantly reduced the flood threat for Tulsans.

Another initiative that TPI undertook was the promotion of hurricane roof clips. TPI lobbied for new legislation that would require new homes to be equipped with hurricane clips. These clips prevent roofs from becoming detached from homes during high wind conditions. Despite TPI efforts, Tulsa lawmakers opted to not require such measures (Mulkins, 1999).

TPI extended its efforts in the early 2000's, investigating new ways to protect homes and daycares. TPI worked with a Boston based company to promote laminated glass for new construction (Graham, 2000). TPI partnered with Tulsa based Sunglow Inc. to install 23 laminated windows in the Cross-Town Learning Center in Tulsa (Juozapavicius, 2000). Projects such as this reinforced TPI's commitment to disaster mitigation.

During the early 2000's, TPI began to shift focus towards public education. TPI carried out several public education campaigns including a display at Eastland Mall (Million, 2000), displays at local fairs (Nascenzi, 2000), and a continued media presence. TPI's activities continued and the organization was about to undergo a significant change.

Also in 2000, the Tulsa Project Impact Office began to take steps to ensure their long-term existence. The leaders of Tulsa Project Impact and the City of Tulsa saw Project Impact as seed money for long-term disaster mitigation programs in the city. The leaders adopted the view that they were making a lifetime commitment, far beyond the scope of the Project Impact grant. One manager indicated that although they were enjoying wonderful support from the city and FEMA, they knew that at some point this relationship might erode politically. The leadership of Tulsa Project Impact knew that there was a chance that their funding levels may change, given the uncertain nature of the political environment. They also were aware of how quickly public organizations can change. In May 2000, the City of Tulsa hired a non-profit expert to establish a 501 (c) (3) foundation to augment the activities of the TPI office. This person had worked extensively with non-profit management in the past, and had successfully established other non-profit organizations. The creation of the non-profit organization ensured that Tulsa Project Impact could fulfill the lifetime commitment they had promised.

Incorporation of the Tulsa Project Impact Foundation occurred in December 2000. The Tulsa Project Impact Foundation served as a support organization for the Tulsa Project Impact Office in the city of Tulsa. The creation of a non-profit organization allowed the city to receive donations for mitigation programs, apply for non-profit grants, and build a financial base to support their activities. Additionally, it allowed for a vast network of committees to form to tackle specific project activities. An executive board managed TPI throughout the course of its existence. Numerous committees supported the board on an as needed basis. The length and scope of committees resulted from the scope of the project they managed. Managers of TPI

anticipated that their funding level might change. This is one of the main reasons they established the 501 (c) (3). The creation of this organization also helped Tulsa Project Impact to stretch the grant money, by establishing cost-sharing programs that elicited financial support of the business sector.

At the start of March 2001, President Bush decided to cut funding to Project Impact. Bush concluded that the program "had not proven effective" despite overwhelming FEMA and local support (Associated Press, 2001). Despite the end of the federal program, TPI remained confident that it would survive. Program managers noted that an impact on the organization would be minimal. TPI leaders were able to secure outside funding through grants and donations, and was able to become self-funded (Associated Press, 2001). Self-funding was made possible by the 501 (c) (3), and the cost matching programs that local businesses participated in. Businesses and private individuals supported the foundation by making generous donations. The managers also stretched the grant money, leading to financial stability. The leadership of TPI also knew of the strong relationship they had with the City of Tulsa. They knew that city officials understood the importance of the work they were doing.

Phase 3 – Tulsa Project Impact

Although FEMA Project Impact ended, Tulsa officials wanted the program to continue in Tulsa. City leaders were pleased with the positive results from the program. The city leaders in Tulsa decided to continue funding Tulsa Project Impact at 100% for several years. This funding covered the cost of personnel, not activities. This continuation somewhat had to do with the tangible results that the city saw from the

Community Ratings System, in addition to the legacy of flood mitigation programs the city had. The continuation of city funding also resulted from city managers who understood the value of what Project Impact had done. Tulsa Project Impact was also fortunate to have a thrifty assistant manager who knew how to work the books and demonstrate the value of their programs. The city supported the staff with tax dollars from the city's storm water fund. Established in the 1980s, this fund supported flood reduction measures in the city. As mentioned, although the city covered staff expenses, project activities were not covered. Also integral to the continuation of the Tulsa PI office was the support from the Tulsa Project Impact Foundation and the community.

Additionally, the city of Tulsa received an extension to the FEMA Project Impact grant. This allowed Tulsa to finish many of the programs that they started on the original grant. The FEMA grant was completely over in April 2002. This one-year extension was vital and allowed Tulsa to find other ways to continue their programs.

During this time, Tulsa Project Impact Foundation received a major grant to support its activities. As a result of the September 11th terrorist attacks, the Bush Administration created the Citizen Corps program to promote volunteerism. Tulsa PI Foundation was able to secure a five-year, $275,000 grant to carry out Citizen Corps activities. This grant expanded the scope of TPI into supporting public safety, health and discouraging crime as well as expanding current mitigation activities. The Citizen Corps grant helped fund many of the disaster reduction programs in Tulsa by encouraging volunteers to help continue the mission of Tulsa Project Impact.

Several major programs resulted from the Citizen Corps. TPI received a three-year, $50,000 per year grant from the US Department of Health and Human Services to promote community public health year round. TPI also added a Community Emergency Response Training program. This 24-hour program trained citizens for basic disaster preparedness topics such as search and rescue and fire suppression. The Citizen Corps Program also brought Alert Neighbors, a local program that discouraged crime. Finally, this program also encouraged volunteer collaboration with the Tulsa Police Department through the Volunteers in Police Service program. The organizational chart for Citizen Corps/Tulsa Project Impact is available in appendix V.

In the waning months of 2002, The Tulsa Project Impact Foundation would undergo a name change. A new organization name, Tulsa Partners Inc (TP), was not only adopted but so too were new goals. TP expanded the scope of their project activities from ordinary hazards to include homeland security projects ("Tulsa Project Impact Foundations Directors Elected: New Name Adopted ", 2002), while still continuing many of their existing programs. This shift allowed for the acquisition of more funding and ensured the continued existence of the organization.

At this point, The Tulsa Project Impact office remained unchanged. The City of Tulsa covered the costs of staffing and office space. Tulsa Partners Inc. remained a supporting agency with a board of directors that helped to leverage funds towards disaster mitigation programs in Tulsa. The activities the TPI office had started continued, and the goal to build a disaster resilient community remained unchanged.

Phase 4 – Tulsa Partners Inc

In late 2006, after the Citizen Corps grant had expired and faced with financial constraints, the City of Tulsa transferred Citizen Corps activities to the Tulsa Chapter of the American Red Cross. Also during this time-period, the city of Tulsa decided to close the Tulsa Project Impact Office. Tulsa Partners Inc took over most activities associated with the office. Tulsa Partners Inc is the private organization that is still in existence today. Figure 1 below illustrates how Tulsa's mitigation programs were managed before, during, and after the FEMA Project Impact grant

Type	1970's	1980's & 1990's	'98	'01	'03	'06	Present Day
ECG	T.F.B.C.						
Public (city of Tulsa)		Civil Eng./Pub. Works	Tulsa Project Imp				
Private (501) (c) (3)				T.P.I. Found.	Tulsa Partners Inc		
			FEMA Project Impact				
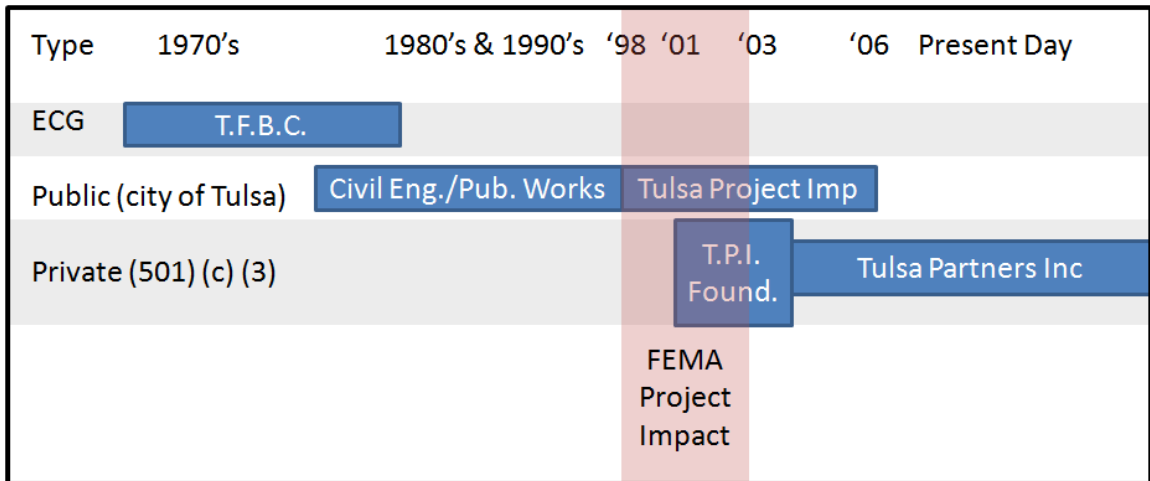
FIGURE 1 - Tulsa's Mitigation Organizations

Summary

In this chapter, I presented the history or career of the organization. These findings were a result of the data collection stage. I sorted the data into four distinct stages that help to understand how the organizations changed. These stages, pre-Project Impact, FEMA Project Impact, Tulsa Project Impact, and Tulsa Partners Inc. help to understand how program delivery evolved in Tulsa. This chapter also presented many of

the activities that Tulsa managers delivered throughout the study period. These findings

will be important in the next chapter of this thesis.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS

Introduction

This chapter has several purposes. The fundamental purpose is to present and

analyze the data collected throughout the course of this study. The chapter begins with a

discussion of the research topic organizational survival. This discussion includes an

analysis of the organization's activities while integrating relevant literature. Following

this section, I discuss the three conditions for survival at length. The conditions in this

study are:

1. Organizational Goal Transformation

2. Professional Networking

3. Resource Mobilization

4. Organizational Formalization

I based this synthesis and upon the findings of the study that involved interviews

of five purposively selected participants involved with the phenomena of study.

Additionally, I base my analysis upon numerous documents collected. These documents

include newspaper articles, organizational charts, meeting minutes, presentations, and

annual reports. The use of both interviews and documents helped to reduce bias in the results.

After I analyze each condition, the chapter ends with a summary. In the summary, I present a synthesis of the chapter, and discuss the pertinent findings. Finally, the chapter includes a brief mention of areas for future empirical inquiry.

Organizational Survival

Based upon the data I gathered, it is clear that the organization of study was successful in avoiding organizational demise. After FEMA Project Impact ended, Tulsa Project Impact survived. Managers ensured long-term existence through the internal structures and activities of the organization.

The organization survived based on several observations. Most notably, the data indicates that after FEMA Project Impact ended, the activities of TPI continued. TPI continued to offer disaster mitigation and education programs after FEMA Project Impact ended. Activities continued as normal, without a significant break in delivery. These findings are consistent with Katz & Kahn (1978) who suggest that an organization only dies if activities cease.

Additionally the membership in the organization remained the same after the end of FEMA Project Impact. The core group of the organization, consisting of five full time staff, existed after the end of FEMA PI. Additionally, the numerous stakeholders involved with the programs did not change. Continuity of membership is an indication of organizational survival (Sutton, 1987).

Based upon Weitzel and Jonsson's (1989) organizational decline, the organization survived the turbulent external environment. The managers of Tulsa Project Impact avoided decline and eventual death in the early stages of the model. Specifically, the mangers of Tulsa Project Impact were able to take decisive action just prior and during the "blinded" stage.

After receiving the FEMA Project Impact grant, the managers of Tulsa PI anticipated the potential for a sudden change in funding. The creation of the 501 (c) (3) organization to support the public agency allowed the organization to avoid the "blinded" stage. Thus, although the FEMA funding ended abruptly, the managers of Tulsa PI had anticipated that sometime such as this might occur. The organizations pre-emptive action created stable conditions. They used the 501 (c) (3) to support the Tulsa Project Impact Office. In addition, managers showed city official the tangible benefits of their mitigation programs. Managers avoided transitioning into the first stage (blinded) of Weitzel and Jonsson's organizational decline model.

Additionally, the actions to survive the environmental change are clear in the context of Sutton's study (Sutton, 1987). In the first stage, the membership of the organization loses security and realizes the vulnerability of their organization. This stage in Sutton's model was apparent in the early life of Tulsa Project Impact.

As noted above, the membership of Tulsa Project Impact took early action to prevent organizational death. From the start of the organization, the membership was aware of the vulnerability of public organizations such as it. Again, this had to do with the tumultuous political arena in which public organizations exist (Gortner, Nichols, &

Ball, 2007). This self-awareness resulted from the past careers of Tulsa Project Impact's

managers. The majority of the core group of managers had numerous years of experience

in public administration. This valuable insight, and the early steps they took to create the

non-profit agency to support Tulsa PI, helped to completely avoid organizational decline

and death.

Based upon the various models this section included, it is apparent that Tulsa

Project Impact survived the end of FEMA Project Impact. Noted at the beginning of this

study, several conditions enhanced Tulsa PI's ability to avoid organizational demise. A

discussion and analysis of the conditions for survival follows this section.

Condition 1 – Goal Transformation

As noted in the review of literature, when organizations are confronted with

environmental change, new goals are either adapted or the organization fails (Zald &

Ash, 1966). Additionally, organizations with narrow inflexible goals are unable to

survive environmental changes (Perrow, 1961; Zald & Ash, 1966). It appears the

survival of Tulsa Project Impact resulted from their ability to establish broad flexible

goals, and their willingness to change specific goals during environmental change.

Throughout the course of the study period, the leadership of Tulsa Project Impact

pursued broad, flexible goals. These goals allowed managers to easily acquire grants and

funding thus preserving the activities and goals of the organization. This is consistent

Zald & Ash (1966) who suggest similar findings. The city of Tulsa was able to preserve

their disaster mitigation programs after the end of FEMA project impact due to one

overarching broad goal.

Simply stated, the goal of Tulsa Project Impact and Tulsa Partners *was to build a disaster resistant city.* This goal was apparent in the original title for Tulsa Project Impact*: Project Impact, Partnerships for building disaster resistant communities.* Similarly, the mission statement for Tulsa Partners INC was: *To improve the safety of our region by promoting citizen involvement, creating public-private partnerships, and pooling agency resources to create a disaster-resistant & prepared community.*   These broad goals allowed the organization to carryout numerous programs under the broad spectrum of "disaster resistance." This goal was flexible enough to allow the organization to evolve and pursue grant money that was available at the time. Table 3 presents the major activities Tulsa Project Impact pursued before, during, and after FEMA Project Impact. Again, the pursuit of broad, flexible goals is a principle of organizational survival, and this finding is consistent with the literature (Zald & Ash, 1966).

Project	Funding	Focus	Activity Type	Relation to P.I.
Mingo Creek	City	Natural Hazard	Mitigation	Before
Tulsa Project Impact	Grant	Natural Hazard	Mitigation	During
OK Safe Rooms	Grant	Natural Hazard	Mitigation	During
Safe & Secure	Grant	Terrorism	Education	During
Citizen Corps	Grant	Volunteering	Education	During
Alert Neighbors	Grant	Crime	Education	During
Vol. in Police	Grant	Crime	Education	During
CERT	Grant	Natural Hazard	Education	During
Med. Reserve	Grant	Public Health	Education	After
Cultural Bank	Grant	Public Health	Education	After

TABLE 3 - Tulsa Project Impact Activities

This broad goal was a result somewhat of the legacy of disaster mitigation programs in the city of Tulsa. Since the emergence of the ECG Tulsan's for a Better Community in the early 1970's, all activities in Tulsa revolved around reducing the impact of disasters. The early work of this group, and the activities carried out by the

Tulsa Public Works and Civil Engineering Departments to reduce the flooding

vulnerability solidified the goals for the Tulsa Project Impact office and Tulsa Partners.

The activities carried out before, during, and after the FEMA Project Impact era

were under one broad goal. Activities carried out included disaster preparedness

education, flood mitigation activities, installation of safe rooms in homes, installation of

tempered glass in schools, policy consultation, and training for volunteers. Through the

specific activities varied throughout the course of the study period, they were all under

the board goal of disaster resiliency. Figure 2 illustrates how goals evolved as the

organizations changed.
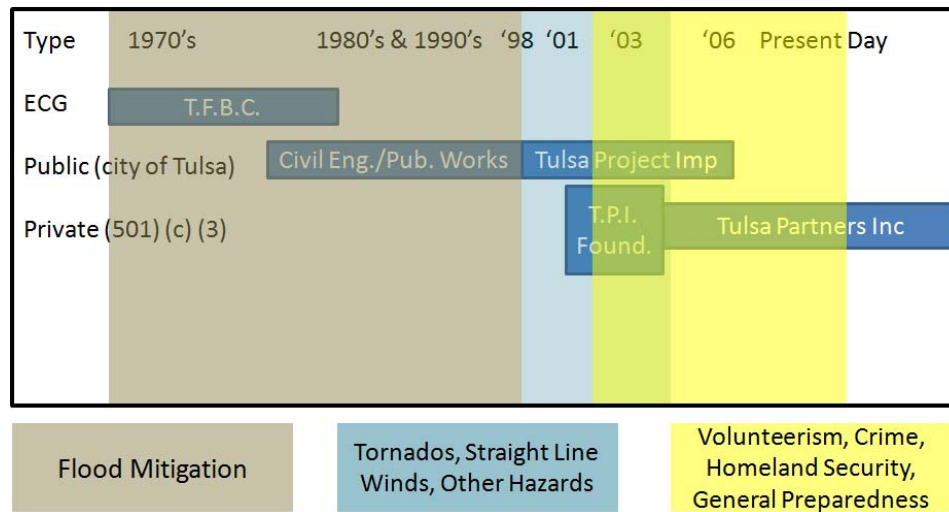
Figure 2 - Major Goal Domains

The most significant addition to the programs of this period was the addition of

the Citizen Corps program. This grant program provided cities funding to start

volunteerism programs concentrated on disaster and general preparedness. The Citizen

Corps program in Tulsa became a significant portion of the Tulsa Project Impact Office.

While this program did not provide funding for disaster mitigation programs, it still fit

within the goals of Tulsa Project Impact. The primary activities covered by the Citizen

Corps program focused on disaster education, crime prevention and other activities. The leadership of TPI saw this program as contributing towards their broad goal of creating a disaster resistant community. TPI's goal was apparent in the mission statement of the Citizen Corps program that was identical to the TPI foundation's statement. Had the Tulsa Project Impact Office established narrow goals, the implementation of this program would not have been possible.

The Citizen Corps program exemplifies how formal goals can be vague, and allow an organization to survive. It also shows the result of intentionally vague formal goals. As Perrow (1961) notes, intentionally vague goals lead to survival, based upon the flexibility this gives organizations. Perrow also notes that the informal goals of an organization typically drive the organization. The membership of the organization typically establishes informal goals. These informal goals typically drive the direction of the organization. Both the broad formal goal and driving informal goal allowed for the addition of the Citizen Corps program. The Citizen Corps program, not a disaster mitigation program, promoted volunteerism and community safety.

If the management of Tulsa Project Impact had pursued a narrow, inflexible formal goal, the organization may not have survived. Survival would not have been possible because the organization would have relied solely mitigation goals. Additionally, informal goals of improving Tulsa as a community allowed Tulsa Project Impact to add the Citizen Corps program as a core program. This is consistent with the findings of Perrow (1961) which suggest the informal goals drive the organization.

An indication of the broad goals within Tulsa Project Impact is the types of activities the office facilitated. During the study period, both structural mitigation and

non-structural mitigation programs were present. The Tulsa Public Works office carried many of the structural flood mitigation programs over to the TPI office. Other structural programs included safe room installation and roof clip installation. Non-structural programs became a staple for Tulsa Project Impact towards the end of FEMA funding. The integration of Citizen Corps into Tulsa Project Impact solidified Tulsa's commitment to non-structural mitigation through volunteerism and education.

Transformation of goals allowed Tulsa Project Impact to survive. The membership base must accept transformed goals or the organization will die (Zald & Ash, 1966). It is clear that the membership not only accepted new informal goals, but also openly embraced the expansion of the scope of Tulsa Project Impact.

Without the Citizen Corps program, the discourse of Tulsa Project Impact may have been significantly different. This grant became a substantial part of their budget ($275,000). The Project Impact Office may have still existed after the end of the FEMA grant. The city funded staff primarily through taxes, but they would not have had funding for activities. As noted, the Citizen Corps program changed the informal goals of the organization, and allowed for the long-term existence of Tulsa Project Impact. These findings are consistent with those of Zald and Ash (1966).

The variation of the types of programs in Tulsa indicates several things. Primarily it shows that the goals of Tulsa Project Impact were sufficiently broad to allow organizational survival. The TPI office facilitated many of the activities under the "disaster resistance" goal. Thus, the managers did not have to change their goal. It did not matter what activity the organization pursued, because it fit under their broad goal.

This broad goal was key, because it allowed for goal transformation. As noted in the literature, goal transformation is a key to organizational survival (Perrow, 1961; Simon, 1964; Zald & Ash, 1966). The goals and transformation of Tulsa Project Impact support the literature. Furthermore, it is clear that the managers of Tulsa Project Impact successfully transformed their goals. It is apparent that organizational goal transformation was a condition that allowed Tulsa Project Impact to survive the end of FEMA Project Impact.

Condition 2 – Professional Networks

The networks TPI built were equally vital to the survival of Tulsa Project Impact following the end of FEMA Project Impact. The partnerships the Tulsa PI impact office established became a vital part of the organization itself. Furthermore, the Project Impact grant might not have been possible without the vast networks already in existence.

Tulsa Project Impact was all about building networks of local, state, and federal stakeholders to improve the community. As mentioned in chapter four, one of the goals of FEMA Project Impact was to build a network of disaster resistant communities across the nation. The managers of Tulsa Project Impact took this notion seriously. Tulsa's networks started with a "nub" or core group of individuals, and expanded out concentrically to bring in more stakeholders. Mainly, TPI used networks to "help each other" before, during, and after disasters. They saw networking as an essential step to building a sense of pride in the community about their projects. New members within the network came from various places including local events, disasters, national conferences, and by word of mouth.

One of the main roles of public organizational networks is the ability for managers to bridge the gap between public and private. Networks are positioned between the bureaucracy, thus allowing managers to work outside the public spectrum (Jackson & Stainsby, 2000). It is clear that these networks were vital to Tulsa Project Impact's survival.

Tulsa Project Impact was built around the various networks and partnerships established to solve disaster problems. In fact, the main purpose of forming the TPI Foundation was to allow businesses and community members to donate to the cause. This allowed those working on Tulsa Project Impact to use the existing partnerships that built over the previous 40 years to support the program.

The public-private partnerships were vital to the organization's survival. The leadership of TPI used who they knew to spread the word about the project, and to get many large corporations on board such as State Farm Insurance and Home Depot (a complete list is available in appendix IV). TPI officials were able to demonstrate how businesses could benefit from partnerships by various incentives such as cost-sharing initiatives. As one manager put it, TPI would "lure" businesses and citizens into the same room and figure out how they could help each other. Since the TPI office served in a coordinating role between various agencies, networks were vital to identifying and securing new partners with the program.

Not surprising is the extent to which networks played a role in Tulsa. Networking is vital to the survival of public organizations (Jackson & Stainsby, 2000), and clearly it was vital to Tulsa Project Impact. What is also clear that Tulsa Project Impact was

comprised of a series of inter-organizational relationships, a fundamental component of networks (Tichy, et al., 1979). Without these relationships, Tulsa Project Impact would likely not have survived.

Aside from grant funding, Tulsa Project Impact relied extensively on networks to solicit donations. Inter-agency networks were the heartbeat of the activities Tulsa Project Impact offered. The managers used networks to identify possible donors and to find volunteers. Without the networks in place at the local level, Tulsa Project Impact would not have survived the loss of FEMA grant funding.

In addition to the networks in existence with the city of Tulsa, national networks played an important role in the life of this organization. Since the early flood control measures of the 70's and 80's, the members of the ECG began building networks across the country. An example of this is the network the early members built with Gilbert F. White, a highly regarded expert on floodplain management. White became a big supporter of Tulsa's programs and helped them out in numerous instances. He provided expert advice to help solve the city's flooding problems. In addition, Tulsa managers built networks with other cities experiencing flooding problems. Network building began during the early trips the group took to South Dakota. These early relationships remained vital in the future of the organization.

Relationships and networks between Project Impact cities existed before, during, and after the FEMA Project Impact era. Members of the TPI office knew and worked closely with the other Project Impact cities across the country. Some of the cities Tulsa worked with included Seattle, Washington and Deerfield Beach, Florida. Among other

things, they discussed projects, funding ideas, and models for structuring their

organization. Prior to receiving the FEMA grant, some of the managers from Tulsa

traveled to Seattle to learn about the types of activities offered, as well as how Seattle

managers handled the grant. Tulsa managers also had an open dialogue with Deerfield

Beach managers throughout the course of the grant. The managers of Project Impact

cities knew each other well, in some part due to annual project impact conferences.

These conferences, often regarded as a "tent revival" excited stakeholders, and provided

numerous opportunities for networking. National external networks (Aldrich & Herker,

1977) remained of great importance to the managers in Tulsa.

Tulsa Project Impact also used in-state networks to find funding sources. In

conjunction with Tulsa Area EMA, TPI collaborated with Oklahoma City EMA to apply

for a grant to install safe rooms in homes. Managers from both cities collaborated during

the writing process. Tulsa ended up receiving the grant, while Oklahoma City did not.

This collaboration would not have been possible without the networks in place.

Throughout the course of Tulsa Project Impact, networks were a key to survival.

It is apparent that networks existed at all units of analysis. What also is apparent is that

numerous types of relationships existed.

Of Jackson and Stainsby's (2000) four types of network relationships, the

managers in Tulsa exhibited three types. Primarily, Tulsa Project Impact coordinated

with other agencies. That is, they networked with agencies that had similar interests

during periods of environmental stability. This type of relationship was present during

the initial stages of Tulsa Project Impact. The formation of the Tulsa Project Impact

Office brought together numerous agencies that were independently working on similar programs. The Tulsa Project Impact office helped formalize many of the existing networks.

Beyond the initial stages of coordination between networked organizations, the established networks began to experience co-evolution, as the environment became unstable. Co-evolution is a relationship where networked organizations pursue a common goal in an unstable environment. This networking relationship existed after the FEMA funding ended. New partnerships with the Citizen Corps program exemplify co-evolution between agencies. The managers of Tulsa Project Impact used existing networks to recruit new partners that had similar goals with this new program. This relationship also extended into co-operation as turbulence in the environment persisted.

One final dimension of professional networking in the study is the type of objects exchanged. Networked organizations exchanged all dimensions of the Tichy et al. (1979) model. These dimensions include exchanges of affect, power, information, services (Tichy, et al., 1979).

The exchanges for affect and friendship are apparent in the types of activities Tulsa Project Impact managers pursued. Based upon the literature, pamphlets, and respondents in this study, Tulsa Project Impact was not only about creating a disaster resistant community, but also was also about building friendships and improving the community. The managers of Project Impact wanted to create a sense of good will throughout the community. Simply stated, they wanted to use this program to help each

other in the time of need.   Many of the friendships built during project are still vibrant today.

Networked partners also exchanged power and influence. This power exchange is apparent in the role that Tulsa Project Impact held. TPI was able to use its networks to empower smaller stakeholders, to deliver quality programs. This exchange is apparent in the diverse range of stakeholders involved in Tulsa Project Impact.

Fundamental to the networking of Tulsa Project Impact was the exchange of information. As noted earlier, not only did the management of TPI network with local and state officials, but also derived much support from other Project Impact cities. Information exchanged included ideas of possible projects, organizational layout, and new sources of funding. This is merely one example of the vast exchange of information that took place between partners throughout the course of Tulsa Project Impact.

The final dimension of Tichy's et al.'s (1979) model of exchange was present in Tulsa Project Impact. The exchange of services was a fundamental aspect of Tulsa Project Impact. Volunteer hours were the main way that services were exchanged. Volunteerism was a core component of Tulsa Project Impact, and the countless hours volunteered made many of TPI's activities possible. The exchange of all types of objects took place throughout the course of Tulsa Project Impact.

This section demonstrated how networks were vital to the survival of Tulsa Project Impact. Without the vast expanse of networks that were in place prior to the end of FEMA Project Impact's end, the organization would have died. The networks in Tulsa were multidimensional and encompassed numerous types of exchanges. The literature

indicates that networking is vital to organizational survival (Jackson & Stainsby, 2000),

and the findings of this study are consistent with the relevant literature.

<u>Condition 3 – Resource Mobilization</u>

The mobilization of resources remained an important condition for organizational

survival in this study. The Tulsa Project Impact Office effectively mobilized public

organizations, private corporations, and community members to donate their time and

money. Donations and time commitments were crucial to the success of the organization.

The key to mobilization is how a group is able to secure collective control over

resources for action (Jenkins, 1983). The management of Tulsa Project Impact was able

to secure collective control over resources by operating in a coordinating role to

administer disaster mitigation programs. Managers used resources to improve the

community, and to reduce the vulnerability of the community to disasters. This use is

consistent with the findings of McCarthy and Zald that suggest resource mobilization is

the attempt to alter elements of the social structure (McCarthy & Zald, 1977).

Members of the Tulsa PI office effectively obtained resources for a number of

reasons. The fundamental way that the members pulled resources into their organization

was through the Tulsa Project Impact Foundation. As mentioned in chapter four, this

organization served a support function for Tulsa Project Impact.

According to Jenkins (1983), resource mobilization only occurs if there is a

benefit to the organization. Aside from the general community benefits of TPI's

programs, the membership also had a motive to mobilize resources. Simply stated, the

more resources managers were able to mobilize into their organization, the greater the

likelihood the organization could withstand an environmental change. As mentioned earlier, the managers were aware of their vulnerability within the tumultuous political environment, thus took measures to secure long-term survival of the organization.

The creation of this 501 (c) (3) non-profit organization was likely the main reason Tulsa Project Impact continued after FEMA Project Impact ended. Among the Project Impact Cities, this is one model managers used to handle mitigation activities. Most notably, this allowed private businesses individuals to give tax-deductible donations to support TPI's activities. In addition, it allowed TPI to apply as a non-profit organization for grants they might not have been eligible for as the city of Tulsa. What the TPI Foundation also did was allow managers to stretch the grant money. What the managers did was lure businesses in to participate in programs, and to split the cost of programs. Tulsa Project Impact could have stretched the FEMA grant out several more years because of their sound fiscal management.

Resource mobilization is likely to occur during a crisis period. Furthermore, organizations are likely to mobilize resources to counter situations they cannot control (Jenkins, 1983). The Citizen Corps exemplified how TPI mobilized resources. Tulsa Project Impact received this grant following the end of the Project Impact grant. They were able to secure a one-year extension that allowed for the remainder of Project Impact activities to continue, and to bridge the gap to the Citizen Corps grant. The new grant demonstrates how managers of Tulsa were able to mobilize resources during a crisis period. Additionally, they were responding to changes they were unable to control.

Following the crisis period (losing the FEMA PI grant), the managers successfully mobilized resources. This is evident by the continued existence of Tulsa Project Impact in Tulsa. Tulsa was able to stick closely to its organizational goals, while searching for multiple outlets, a key to successful movements (Jenkins, 1983).

After FEMA project impact ended, donations and grants became the primary means for activity funding. The city of Tulsa funded the five full time staff members at the same levels as during FEMA PI, but did not fund activities. Furthermore, when the city of Tulsa decided to end the Project Impact program in 2006, this organization remained and is still in operation today.

Based upon the analysis of this condition, it is apparent that resource mobilization affected Tulsa Project Impact's ability to survive. Tulsa was able to pursue resources from all spectrums including grants, donations, and city funding to continue their programs. Without resource mobilization, Tulsa Project Impact may not have survived.

Condition 4 - Organizational Formalization

As I noted in Chapter 2, this condition emerged after data collection. What the data indicated is that organizational survival depended on the formalization of Tulsa Project Impact. This formalization occurred when the City of Tulsa moved their flood mitigation programs into the Public Works Department.

The EGC Tulsan's for a Better Community formalized into the City's Public Works Department. The City of Tulsa hired some of original members of the ECG to work in Public Works on flood mitigation. Additionally, the activities that the ECG

worked on transferred into the city. The organization changed form but the personnel and activities remained the same. I believe this is an indication of formalization.

When the activities and personnel formally moved into Tulsa city government, formalization occurred. The rules of the organization became formal, an indication of formalization according to Blau (1956). Also, the city designated Public Works as an official entity, also consistent with Balu's (1956) study. Finally, members of this entity accomplished goals and were productive, an important indication according to Adizes (1979).

Furthermore, the organization exhibited characteristics which Pugh et al. (1968) say indicate a formalized organization. The members in the organization worked in official positions. The city also established a clear line of authority through the department. An official hierarchal structure emerged, one that was not present in the ECG. Finally, the city bound members to rules and enforced sanctions.

Although formalization typically leads to decline and eventual death within an organization (J. P. Walsh & Dewar, 1987), this was not the case for Tulsa. I believe formalization was a major reason the organization actually survived. Most notably, formalization gave the organization the legal ability to receive funding. An informal, emergent group is not eligible for grant funding. Grant funding was a major driver for organizational survival. Without the backing of the City of Tulsa, disaster mitigation programs may have died much earlier.

Tulsa Project Impact was a relatively young organization. Perhaps this is one reason that formalization led to organizational survival. Walsh & Dewer (1987) found

that formalization in young organization actually increased efficiency. As noted earlier, as organizations age, formalization is likely to lead to decline and death. Different results, and maybe even death, might have occurred if TPI was an old organization. The organization's safety net was its relatively young age.

Areas for Future Research

This study undoubtedly will open the door for future empirical research. The findings of this study can facilitate similar studies. Future research should broaden the scope of this study by considering how other cities managed Project Impact.

Tulsa was among numerous cities across the country who received the FEMA Project Impact grant. Each city used a slightly different model to manage the grant, so undoubtedly devised different strategies to survive the end of the grant. Tulsa was among a select minority of cities that channeled their Project Impact grant through their public works department. Most cities handled the grant through emergency management. This contrast would likely produce different results from different cities.

A comparative case study of multiple Project Impact cities would also strengthen the findings of this study. Although many contrasting features exist, it is likely the conditions for organizational survival in Tulsa are similar to other cities. A comparative case study could compare and contrast different models to manage the grant.

Another area for further inquiry is a comparison of organizational survival between a Project Impact city, and a non-disaster related organization. Grant funding is common in all policy domains, and funding levels change constantly. The conditions for

organizational survival may be different in other policy domains. A study such as this might reveal conditions specific to disaster related organizations.

<u>Summary</u>

In this chapter, I presented and analyzed the findings from this study. The analysis showed that Tulsa Project Impact survived the end of FEMA's Project Impact. It also appears that all three conditions presented (goal transformation, professional networks, resource mobilization) significantly affected the ability of the organization to survive.

Tulsa Project Impact survived the end of the FEMA grant. An indication of this is the presence of the organization after 2001, the year when the grant ended. Tulsa Project Impact still exists presently in the form of Tulsa Partners INC, the original Tulsa Project Impact Foundation formed in 2000.

Goal transformation was vital to the survival of this organization. Throughout the course of the origination's existence, the managers maintained a broad, flexible goal to create a disaster resistant community. This broad goal allowed managers to bring in new programs such as the Citizen Corps program, which were not necessarily disaster mitigation focused. Their goals allowed the scope of the organization to expand. It also allowed the managers to pursue new grants. This was vital to survival.

Networking was also a major condition for survival. In fact, networks were the heartbeat of the organization. Tulsa Project Impact was essentially a coordinating agency that pulled stakeholders from all walks of life together towards a common goal. The managers used their networks to recruit and retain partners. Managers also actively

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worked with other Project Impact Cities to generate ideas and ways to build their programs. The networks built throughout the course of the program were vital to ensuring the long-term existence of the organization.

Resource mobilization played a key role in organizational survival. If managers were ineffective in finding new lines of funding after the end of FEMA Project Impact, the organization would have died. Critical to this was the creation of the non-profit organization that supported the public organization. Without the Tulsa Project Impact Foundation, programs such as the Citizen Corps program would not have started. Financial problems would have forced the Project Impact to close after FEMA PI ended. Equally important was the ability for corporations and individuals to donate to the foundation. Had the managers of Tulsa Project Impact not mobilized resources during a crisis period, the organization would have died.

Finally, organizational formalization affected the ability of TPI to survive. Without this, a legal basis to receive grant funding would be void. Also, since TPI was relatively young, formalization helped structure the organization. This structure also contributed to organizational survival.

Based on my analysis, I believe a causal link exists between the conditions. Without goal transformation, networking, and formalization, resource mobilization would not have occurred. If the organization's members could not mobilize resources, the organization would have died. TPI's death would have been abrupt. The death would have occurred almost immediately after FEMA ended Project Impact. In figure 3 below, I illustrate the casual link revealed in this study.
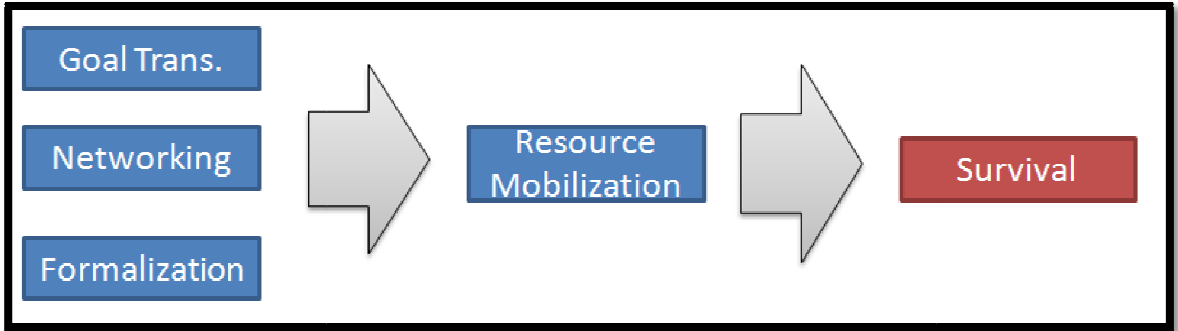
FIGURE 3- Causal Link for Organizational Survival

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APPPENDICES

Appendix I - Email Protocol

I'm currently a second year graduate student at Oklahoma State University, working on my Master's degree in Fire & Emergency Management Administration. My Master's Thesis that deals with the disaster mitigation programs that various organizations in Tulsa, Oklahoma carried out in the late 1990's. Specifically, I am examining the projects undertaken during Project Impact in Tulsa.

I am contacting you based upon your role in the Project Impact programs that took place. Your participation would help me to understand the role that local organizations played during Project Impact. On a larger scale, the lessons learned in this study can be applied to other local organizations that rely on federal programs.

I'd like to discuss this project with you further. I'd like to explain the study further, as well as hopefully set up a time where we can discuss your role in the programs. Please respond to this email if you are interested in participating. I will give you a call later to explain the purpose of this study further.

If you have additional questions, please feel free to contact either me or my advisor (Dr. Dave Neal). The contact information is listed below. I look forward to hearing back from you and would be pleased to answer any questions you might have.

Sincerely,

Kyle Overly

Contact Information:

Kyle Overly
kyle.overly@Okstate.edu
717-629-2288
Advisor :
Dr. David Neal
dave.neal@okstate.edu
405-744-2524

Appendix II - Interview Guide

Introduction – Brief background on the thesis and study

      Indicate that I am here to learn from the person being interviewed

      Indicate that whatever we discuss is confidential

      Fully explain and read the Informed Consent Form

      There are five general questions I would like to ask you about

      Just as a reminder you are not obligated to answer any question you are

      not comfortable answering.

Career

1) Could you tell me about TPI (Tulsa Project Impact) and what it has done, especially in regards to Project Impact?

Consequences

2) What were the goals of TPI with Project Impact both when funded by FEMA and after it lost funding?

     - What were the tasks/attitudes to accomplish these goals

Conditions

3) When Project Impact started in Tulsa what types of resources did you obtain?

     - after TPI lost funding how did you get needed resources?

     - money (sources), equipment, space, political or other contacts?

4) When Project Impact and during its history, what organizations and people did you work with?

     - what were their roles

     - of these, which were most important

     - what did the loss of funding have on

         - keeping old contacts

         - making new ones

Characteristics

5) During Project Impact, Describe TPI as an organization, both before and after the loss of FEMA funding

     - size, members (individuals, organizations) budget, office location, paid staff, volunteers, times met, etc.

Project Title:

Disaster Mitigation Programs in Tulsa Oklahoma: An analysis of organizational survival.

Investigators:

Principle Investigator: Kyle Overly, BA.
Project Supervisor: David Neal, Ph.D.

Purpose:

The purpose of this study is to examine the characteristics that allow an organization to survive an external environmental change. This study will identify what an organization must do to continue to exist after major external changes.

You are being asked to participate based upon your role in Tulsa Project Impact.

This interview will ask you to provide information about your role in the organization, the types of projects you were involved with, and other information about Tulsa's mitigation programs.

Procedures:

You will be asked to participate in an interview. During the course of the interview, I will be taking
notes. Also, I will tape record the interview to ensure my notes are accurate.

Risks of Participation:

There are no known risks associated with this project which are greater than those ordinarily encountered in daily life.

Benefits:

This study will identify the characteristics organizations need to survive an external environmental change. The results of this study will help organizations of all types to continue to exist.

Confidentiality:

The records of this study will be kept private. Any written results will discuss group findings and will not include information that will identify you. Research records will be stored securely at the Center for the Study of Disasters and Extreme Events, on campus at OSU, and only researchers and individuals responsible for research oversight will have access to the records. The data will be stored for a period of ten years, after which it will be destroyed. It is possible that the consent process and data collection will be observed by research oversight staff responsible for safeguarding the rights and wellbeing of people who participate in research. The informed consent formed will be stored separately from the data (notes, tape recordings,

transcripts) of this study. This ensures that identifying information cannot be linked to the data. This study examines the characteristics of the organization (Tulsa Partners INC.) so it will not be necessary to use direct quotes from interviews. This will ensure that you will not be identified based upon what you said during the interview. However since the study examines a single organization (Tulsa Partners INC), the name of the organization will be identifiable in the results of the study.

Compensation:

There is no compensation for participation in this study.

Contacts:

Principle Investigator:
Kyle Overly
226 Murray Hall
Stillwater OK, 74078
Phone: 717.629.2288
Email: kyle.overly@okstate.edu

Project Supervisor:
David Neal
210 Murray Hall
Stillwater, OK 74078
Phone: 405.744.2526
Email: dave.neal@okstate.edu

If you have questions about your rights as a research volunteer, you may contact Dr. Shelia Kennison, IRB Chair, 219 Cordell North, Stillwater, OK 74078, 405-744-3377 or irb@okstate.edu

Participant Rights:

Participation in this study is voluntary. You can discontinue participation at anytime without reprisal or penalty.

Signatures:

I have read and fully understand the consent form. I sign it freely and voluntarily. A copy of this form has been given to me.

_____   _____
Signature of Participant   Date

I certify that I have personally explained this document before requesting that the participant sign it.

_____   _____
Signature of Researcher   Date

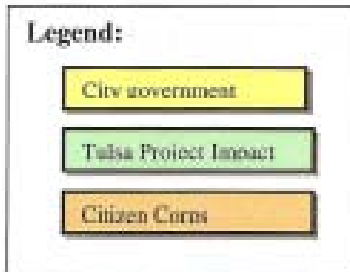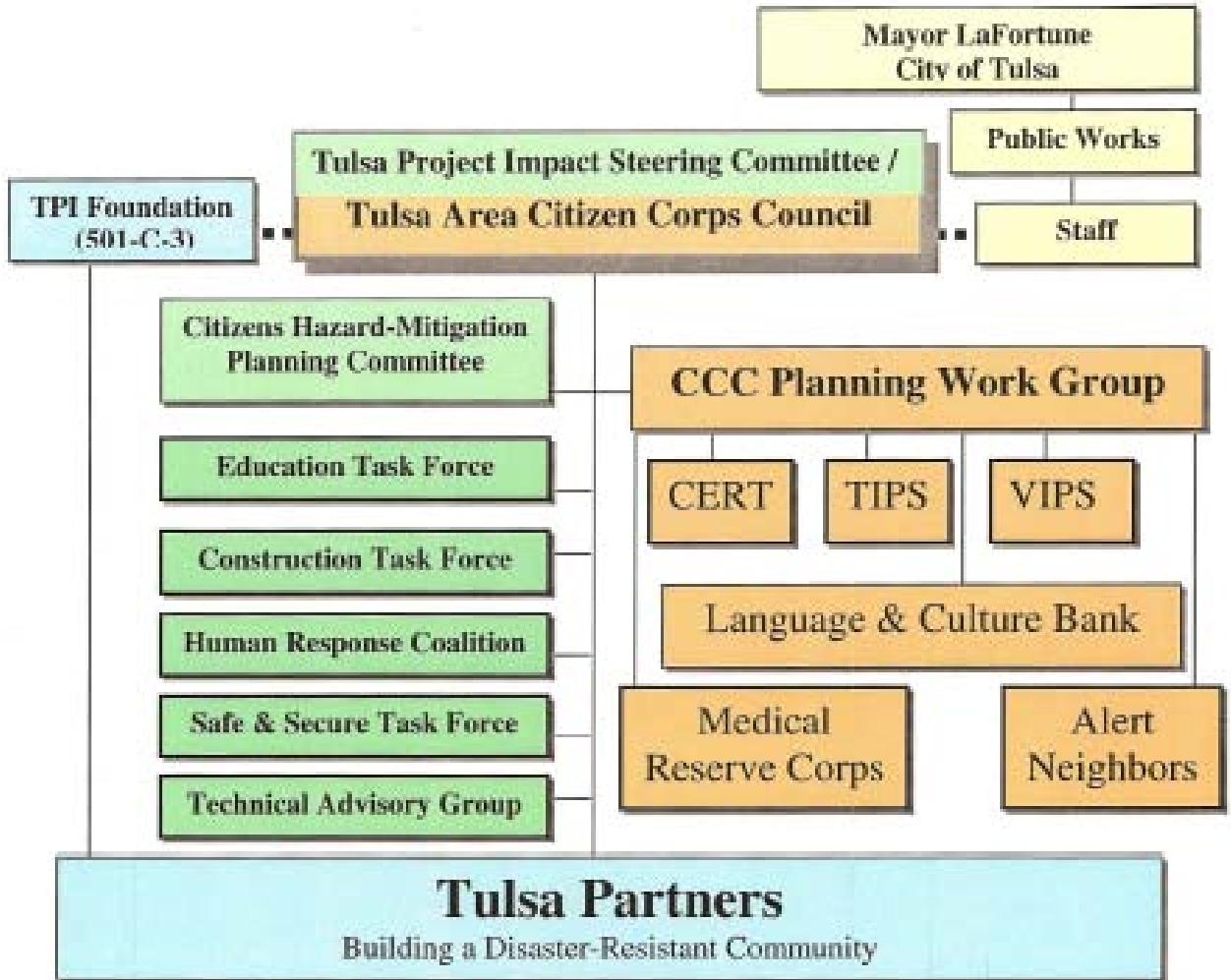## Appendix IV – Tulsa Project Impact Partners as of January 1999

Chickasaw Telecom, Inc.
Cinnabar Service Company, Inc.
Citizens Action for a Safe Environment
Community Affairs and Planning Section, City of Tulsa
Community Service Council
CRC & Associates, Inc.
Credit Counseling Centers of Oklahoma, Inc.
Deacon Company
Dr. Pam Greenwood
Emily Warner
Employee and Activity Recognition Committee, City of Tulsa Public Works
EMSA
Environmental Services Section, City of Tulsa Public Works
Environmental Systems Research Institute
Equipment Management Department, City of Tulsa
Espo Construction Company, Inc.
Family and Children Service
Farmers Insurance Group
Federal Emergency Management Agency
Finance Department, City of Tulsa
Fire Department, City of Tulsa
Fox Architects
Gary Boyle, Attorney
Gilcrease Museum, City of Tulsa
HKH Advertising
Holland Hall School
Home Builders Association of Greater Tulsa
Human Resources Department, City of Tulsa
Human Rights Department, City of Tulsa
Indian Nations Council of Governments
Internal Auditing Department, City of Tulsa
J.L. Media, Inc.
J.R. Enterprises of Cushing, L.L.C.
Joe L. Robinson & Associates, Inc., Architects
Joe Micek
John Young
Juanise Weatherman
Kendall-Whittier Associates
Kimberly Hicks

KTUL-TV Weather
LandPlan Consultants, Inc.
Legal Department, City of Tulsa
Lou Stackler
Louis, Levy, Inc.
Magic Circle Neighborhood Association
Mary Ann Summerfield
Mary Hulce
Mayor's Action Center, City of Tulsa
Mayor's Office for Neighborhoods, City of Tulsa
McGee Enterprises
Mental Health Association
Meshak & Associates, Inc.
The Metropolitan Environmental Trust
Metropolitan Tulsa Chamber of Commerce
Mike McCool
Mike Moody
Minshall Park Homeowners Association
Morrison & Associates – EDM
Municipal Courts, City of Tulsa
N.D. Henshaw, Investments
National Multiple Sclerosis Society, Oklahoma Chapter
National Weather Service
Neighborhood Housing Service of Tulsa
North Tulsa Neighborhood Alliance
Northeastern Oklahoma Chapter of Chartered Property & Casualty Underwriters
Office of the Mayor, M. Susan Savage
Office Services Reproduction Section, City of Tulsa
Oklahoma Voluntary Agencies Active in Disaster
Oklahoma Chapter of the American Public Works Association
Oklahoma Climatology Survey
Oklahoma Conservation Commission
Oklahoma Department of Civil Emergency Management
Oklahoma Department of Transportation
Oklahoma Floodplain Managers Association
Oklahoma Historic Preservation Office
Oklahoma Municipal League
Oklahoma Water Resources Board
Okvest, Inc.
Packard & Associates

Patterson Realtors
Performing Arts Center, City of Tulsa
Pinkerton & Finn, P.C.
Police Department, City of Tulsa
Project Assistant Citizens in Trouble
Public Service Company of Oklahoma
Public Works Department, City of Tulsa
R.D. Flanagan & Associates
Relations, Inc.
Remington Elementary
Representative Betty Boyd
Representative Russ Roach
Rich & Cartmill, Inc.
River Parks Authority
Safe Rooms, Inc.
Science & Public Policy Program, University of Oklahoma
Scott & Cathy Evans
Senator Penny Williams
Shadow Mountain Homeowners Association, Inc.
Shipley, Jennings & Champlin, P.C.
Simon Property Group – Eastland Mall
Sinclair Oil Corporation
Sisemore Kleisz & Associates, Inc.
South Peoria Neighborhood Connection
South Peoria Neighborhood House
Southwestern Bell
St. John Medical Center
State Farm Insurance
Stormwater Design Section, City of Tulsa Public Works
Stormwater Drainage Advisory Board
Street School, Inc.
Sun Refinery
Swift Water Resources Engineering, LLC
Telecommunications Department, City of Tusla
Terry Young
The Benham Group
The Patton Companies
The Salvation Army
The State of Oklahoma
Tran Systems Corporation

Tulsa Airport Authority
Tulsa Area Emergency Management Agency
Tulsa Authority for the Recovery of Energy
Tulsa City Auditor Phil Wood
Tulsa City Council
Tulsa Community College
Tulsa Convention Center
Tulsa County
Tulsa County Bar Association – Young Lawyers Division
Tulsa County Conservation District
Tulsa Metropolitan Area Planning Commission
Tulsa Utility Board
U.S. Army Corps of Engineers
U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development
U.S. Infrastructure
U.S. Postal Service
Urban Development Department, City of Tulsa
Valley Glen Addition
Western Neighbors
Whirlpool, Tulsa Division

Appendix V – Tulsa Project Impact/Citizen Corps Organizational Chart (2003)

Mayor LaFortune
City of Tulsa

Public Works

TPI Foundation
(501-C-3)

Tulsa Project Impact Steering Committee /
Tulsa Area Citizen Corps Council

Staff

Citizens Hazard-Mitigation
Planning Committee

CCC Planning Work Group

Education Task Force

CERT   TIPS   VIPS

Construction Task Force

Language & Culture Bank

Human Response Coalition

Safe & Secure Task Force

Medical
Reserve Corps

Alert
Neighbors

Technical Advisory Group

Tulsa Partners
Building a Disaster-Resistant Community

Legend:

City government

Tulsa Project Impact

Citizen Corps

VITA

KYLE RICHARD THOMAS OVERLY

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Science

Thesis: DISASTER MITIGATION PROGRAMS IN TULSA, OKLAHOMA: AN
          EXAMINATION OF ORGANZATIONAL SURVIVAL

Major FIRE AND EMERGENCY MANAGEMENT ADMINISTRATION

Biographical:

    Personal Data:

    Education:

    Completed the requirements for the Master of Science in Fire and Emergency
    Management Administration at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater,
    Oklahoma in July 2010.

    Completed the requirements for the Bachelor of Arts in Government and
    Political Affairs at Millersville University of Pennsylvania, Millersville,
    Pennsylvania in 2008.

    Experience:

    Professional Memberships:
                          International Association of Emergency Managers
                          Graduate & Professional Student Government Assn

    Selected Conference Presentations:
                          "Community Disaster Mitigation Program:
                          Innovative Solutions for Complex Problems."
                              FEMA Higher Education Conference
                              June 7-10, Emmitsburg, MD

                          "The Evolution of Wildfire Management Policy in
                          the US: A Comparative Analysis"
                              Intl' Wildfire Management Conference
                              June 18-20, Sydney, Australia

Name: Kyle R.T. Overly

Date of Degree: July, 2010

Institution: Oklahoma State University

Location: Stillwater, Oklahoma

Title of Study: DISASTER MTIIGATION PROGRAMS IN TULSA, OKLAHOMA: AN EXAMINATION OF ORGANZATIONAL SURVIVAL

Pages in Study: 88

Candidate for the Degree of Master of Science

Major Field: Fire and Emergency Management Administration

Scope and Method of Study: This study uses qualitative analysis to examine how Tulsa Project Impact, a formalized emergent citizen group, survived a major external environmental change. Tulsa Project Impact was formed from FEMA Project Impact, a federal grant that provided funding for disaster mitigation programs in local communities. This grant ended abruptly in 2000, leaving managers in Tulsa searching for ways to continue the city's mitigation programs. Using qualitative interviews and document analysis, the conditions for organizational survival are examined.

Findings and Conclusions: Based upon the data gathered throughout the course of this study, it is apparent that three conditions affected Tulsa Project Impact's ability to survive the environmental change. The conditions that affected organizational survival were organizational goal transformation, professional networks, and resource mobilization. Tulsa Project Impact was able to survive the change because they established a flexible, broad goal that allowed managers to expand the scope of the organization, and to pursue new grant opportunities. If the organization had narrow goals, new programs may not have been added because they would not be aligned with existing goals. In addition, the networks the organization had built were critical to survival. Tulsa Project Impact used networks to recruit new partners to support their programs. Perhaps most vital to the survival of Tulsa Project Impact was their ability to mobilize resources. The programs offered were funded from grants and donations. Tulsa Project Impact established a non-profit agency, which allowed for acquisition of donations and non-profit grants. This organization was vital after FEMA Project Impact ended, and allowed Tulsa's organization to survive. The combination of organizational goal transformation, professional networks, and resource mobilization allowed Tulsa Project Impact to survive after FEMA Project Impact ended.

ADVISER'S APPROVAL: Dr. David M. Neal