ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE IN THE WORKPLACE

DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC

by

Takeisha Shante Miles

_____

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

_____

Liberty University, School of Business

October 2022

Abstract

Failed change initiatives continuously plagued organizations throughout time, mainly because of the complexities involving the response to change. Researchers studied to understand the cause and effect of failed change efforts. The type of change often notes as a precursor to the kind of response, while the resistance to change was a catalyst to the 70% rate of failed change initiatives (Burnes & Jackson, 2011; Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015). Organizational change initiatives become further complicated, involving a crisis. This qualitative multiple case study included the phenomenon of unsuccessful change proposals during a crisis, its implications on job satisfaction and employee resistance, and the human resources sector's culpability in this matter. COVID-19, a recent global pandemic, was the crisis in this study. Disruptions in the food services sector were the industry of choice studied. The participants were 16 employees and managers of fast food and casual dining establishments in California, Virginia, and North Carolina who experienced the changes brought on by COVID-19. Data came from structured in-person and telephone interviews and field studies. The findings revealed multiple themes, including (a) fear-driven compliance, (b) change generates opportunities, exposes deficiencies, and alters the workplace, (c) people, stress, and communication impacts job satisfaction, (d) employee resistance, and (e) human resources management ambiguity. A key recommendation implored the human resource sector to increase its visibility and manage its involvement with change initiatives, especially during a crisis. The recommendation is further studies that include interviewing human resources personnel and exploring different business sectors impacted by COVID-19.

Keywords: organizational change, job satisfaction, employee resistance, human resources, COVID-19

ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE IN THE WORKPLACE

DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC

by

Takeisha Shante Miles

Dissertation

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Liberty University, School of Business

October 2022

Approvals

_____   _____

Takeisha Shante Miles, Doctoral Candidate   Date

_____   _____

Dr. Kimberly Johnson, Dissertation Chair   Date

_____   _____

Dr. Michael W. Coleman, Committee Member   Date

_____   _____

Edward M. Moore Ph.D., Director of Doctoral Programs   Date

Dedication

I would like to dedicate this study to my husband, Thierkeld Miles, my daughters Aviyah Lydia Miles and Isabella Chloe Miles, and my mother, Stacy Newsome. Thank you for your continuous words of encouragement, patience, and loving support throughout my doctoral journey. I completed this academic endeavor because you all were my biggest enthusiast.

Acknowledgments

I would like to start by giving thanks and praises to my Lord and Savior, Jesus Christ. The Lord and Savior Jesus Christ redeemed me and empowered me to persevere through this long academic journey despite health issues and family expansions. I would also like to articulate my deepest appreciation for the dissertation chair Dr. Kimberly Johnson whose words of affirmation, encouragement, patience, genuine concern, and continued scholarly guidance spurred me on to good works. I would like to give a special thanks to the committee member Dr. Michael Coleman and the admin member Dr. Nicole Lowes whose scholarly guidance proved to be a great asset. Additionally, I would like to thank all the research participants for their willingness to freely share their insights; without them, I could not complete the study. Lastly, I would like to thank Tinina Guzman, Grace Manning, Jan and Irv Nunley, and all my family and friends who prayed for me and encouraged me throughout this study.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Section 1: Foundation of the Study

This dissertation included the complexities of change during a crisis and the role of the human resources sector in change management. The responsibility of change agents in organizational change is essential for human resources personnel (Alfes et al., 2019). This inference was partly because of the nature of the organizational change with an employee-centric issue (Alfes et al., 2019). Change requires organizations to cultivate a resilient workforce capable of thriving in volatile environments (Prabhu, 2018). Most literature concluded that an employee's assumption regarding their control or influence on change outcomes determined their emotions toward organizational change (Alfes et al., 2019).

Furthermore, previous studies viewed employee resistance as inevitable and culpable for failed change initiatives (Repovš et al., 2019). However, the study results revealed an interesting change to the narrative concerning organizational change. The effects of organizational change during a crisis differed considerably concerning employee resistance. The perceived necessity for organizational changes during the COVID-19 crisis was met with universal compliance. The job satisfaction results varied among the participants but were consistent with the literature findings. The role of human resources was ambiguous because of the nature of the crisis and the understood purpose of its function. Change initiatives were successful when viewed from an operational standpoint. Nevertheless, as a contributor, the human resource personnel failed to address organizational change during the COVID-19 crisis adequately.

Background of the Problem

The impact of globalization changed business environments (Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015). The new norm was "change", and since then, organization managers have been grappling with its effects (Burnes & Jackson, 2011; Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015). The complexity of

change in the marketplace and workforce forced organizational managers to increase their focus on change management and continuously modify their business strategies, policies, and practices (Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015). Much attention centered on organizational change because scholars and practitioners knew that the correct response to change initiatives influenced an organization's overall effectiveness. Despite the popularity of extensive research on organizational change, the low success rates for change efforts persisted (Burnes & Jackson, 2011). Evidence revealed the reality that 70% of change initiatives failed (Burnes & Jackson, 2011; Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015). Many theories in the literature indicated that the percentage rate remained high with no significant differences to amend this issue. Managing change is problematic because it involves dealing with people (Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015). The hardships that led to change implementation failures involved inadequately addressing people-related issues. Organizational managers failed to align the value system of change with the value system of the recipients of change (Burnes & Jackson, 2011). Change agents focus on the disruptive element of change that impacts systems, technology, processes, and profitability but neglect to address the people-related issues (Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015). Therefore, the human resources (HR) sector must include a vital role in organizational change activities centered around people (Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015).

The interconnectedness of change management and human resource management (HRM) is essential because this relationship closes the gap between the theoretical and practical perspectives of change (Farquharson & Baum, 2002). Maheshwari and Vohra (2015) indicated that studies concerning HR professionals could improve or enhance employees' ability to deal with change, influencing effective change management. Employee behavior was the core of the change management issues, which explained the strong relationship between HR involvement or

practices and employee behavior or resistance (Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015). Competency in commissioning and managing change is essential to successful organizational change initiatives (Burnes & Jackson, 2011). Therefore, proficiency in managing employee attitudes toward change was a critical focal point, serving as a massive barrier to successful organizational change (Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015). Unfortunately, no unique solution exists to approach change, although certain change principles serve practitioners well when addressing organizational change (Burnes & Jackson, 2011). The principles include Kanter's ten commandments for successful change, Pugh's four principles of evolution, and Kotter's eight-step model to change. The nature of this study, involving a crisis, did not allow most practitioners the opportunity to employ these strategic theories when dealing with organizational changes because of COVID-19. Unprecedented times called for unprecedented methods to address change.

The willingness to change and the process required to change are various aspects considered in this study when addressing organizational change. Employees were tasked with modifying routines, competencies, and workloads (Tummers et al., 2015). This process would typically lead to employee resistance, increased turnover, and exhaustion, leading to a loss of job satisfaction. All aspects persisted in this study except for employee resistance. The organizational changes because of COVID-19 influenced what is known as passive job outcomes, which affected satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover. Passive job outcomes intensified because of the COVID-19 crisis. The effects of organizational change and the crisis overwhelmed most employees. However, this crisis served as a powerful tool that forced organizational managers to address the weaknesses, threats, and vulnerabilities that existed in their business practices (Seeger et al., 2005). Scholars have a strong consensus that organizational change is an essential topic of study because of an organization's ability to thrive

in a global economy (Burnes & Jackson, 2011), which is why this dissertation included an in-depth look into the human side of change to understand and assist with successful implementation.

An employee's emotional intelligence directly impacted job satisfaction because job satisfaction involved how people feel about the different aspects of their jobs (Shooshtarian et al., 2013). The study results included information employees received for better outcomes of job satisfaction. Furthermore, McGuinness and Cronin (2016) stated that employee resistance to change influences a misunderstanding and implications of change. This study included the notion that employees understood the implications of the changes created by COVID-19 and complied. A human resources system creates a framework that impacts how employees feel and respond to organizational change (Alfes et al., 2019). This study included persistent flaws in the HR employees' ability to address organizational change and contribute to meaningful change initiatives and desirable employee experiences. The literature on organizational change indicates that change can negatively impact the workforce in various ways (Alfes et al., 2019). However, the specifics of how the COVID-19 crisis amplified change management troubles were not conceptualized. Amis and Janz (2020) mentioned that radical changes transpired in work life because of COVID-19. The literature includes a revision of how a manifestation and a reevaluation of work were warranted because of COVID-19 (Amis & Janz, 2020). The focus of this study was to understand how social change impacted by the COVID-19 affected job satisfaction and employee behaviors in the restaurant industry. This study included how COVID-19 further complicated the already challenging task that the HR employees' had with addressing organizational change initiatives.

Problem Statement

The general problem addressed in this study was the failure of organizations to address the recurring human resources challenge of organizational change resulting in a loss of job satisfaction and employee resistance. Hechanova et al. (2018) stated that organizational change was not easy to introduce and required commitment to change among those who will implement the change. Gupta and Singla (2016) admitted that a positive and significant correlation exists between organizational change and job satisfaction. Furthermore, Repovš et al. (2019) declared that employee resistance is frequently the reason organizational managers fail to implement organizational change. The specific problem addressed in this study was the failure of organizational managers to address the recurring human resource challenge of organizational change during the COVID-19 pandemic within the food service industry in the United States, resulting in a loss of job satisfaction and employee resistance.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this qualitative multiple-case study was to add to the body of knowledge regarding change management and to address the failure of organizations to address the recurring human resources challenge of organizational change during the COVID-19 pandemic. The study included human resource personnel within the food service industry in the United States, with the resulting loss of job satisfaction and employee resistance. The human resources employees acknowledged the complexities of managing change in organizations (Barratt-Pugh & Bahn, 2015). The literature included an affirmation that organizational change can negatively impact the workforce in different ways (Alfes et al., 2019) but was not specific on the influence of crisis. This research probe explored how social changes because of COVID-19 in the restaurant sector impacted job satisfaction and employee behaviors. Furthermore, the study included the issue concerning HR's failed attempts to address organizational change.

Research Questions

This study included questions regarding the essence of the human resources challenge regarding organizational change and how a crisis magnifies the trends of job losses, satisfaction, and employee resistance. Qualitative research questions are appropriate in illustrating currently scarce information to produce a deeper understanding of this new phenomenon surrounding COVID-19 (Stake, 2010). The research questions presented can lead to understanding a complex evolving issue (Dasgupta, 2015). The following qualitative questions were in this research to uncover how external factors impacted organizations and individual workers.

RQ1. How do organizations fail to address the recurring human resources challenge of organizational change?

> **RQ1a.** What organizational actions and behaviors contribute to the failure of organizations to address organizational change during the COVID-19 pandemic?
>
> **RQ1b.** What organizational actions and behaviors contribute to successful organizational change during the COVID-19 pandemic?

RQ2. How does organizational change influence job satisfaction?

> **RQ2a.** How is organizational change different amid the COVID-19 pandemic?
>
> **RQ2b.** How does organizational change due to the COVID-19 pandemic impact a firm's ability to maintain job satisfaction?

RQ3. Why does employee resistance exist during organizational change?

> **RQ3a.** How is employee resistance to organizational change manifested during the COVID-19 pandemic?

RQ4. What human resource factors exist in the food services industry that position organizations for successfully enacting organizational change initiatives during the COVID-19 pandemic?

Nature of the Study

Researchers explore empirical methodologies that address specific problems (Creswell, 2014). Different procedural methods and approaches assisted in measuring and interpreting the collected data. The qualitative research approach assisted with the understanding of the human resources issues of organizational change during the COVID-19 pandemic. Researchers desire to understand the social problems concerning humanity, which is consistent with qualitative research studies (Creswell, 2014).

Discussion of Research Paradigm

The post-positivist research paradigm was the primary framework in this study and was used in empirical studies regarding social sciences. Post-positivism influenced the interpretation of the data generated in this research because of the alignment with worldviews or belief systems, which guided the methodological assumptions. This research paradigm conceptualized an objective reality in a critical way that influenced the morals and ethics relevant to the inquiry (Roy, 2014). Post-positivism researchers acknowledged that only an imperfect approximation of reality could emerge in research (Roy, 2014). The Post-positivism concept was consistent with the biblical worldview that acknowledged their finite mind and nature (Job 11:7). Postpositivism considered the presuppositions I held; therefore, the research was approached through processes of external regulation for accountability and minimization of bias.

Postpositivism emphasizes logical reasoning and considers theoretical explanations as a sufficient means of viewing common occurrences like organizational changes because of COVID-19 that impact job satisfaction and employee resistance (Roy, 2014). Researchers using questionnaires and other inferred evidence embrace this paradigm. This study includes the post-positivist inquiry in a natural setting to understand how organizational change influenced job

satisfaction and employee resistance amid COVID-19 within the food service industry. A post-positivist paradigm can afford the use of qualitative research and can assist a researcher in the endeavor of interpreting the data reasonably and faithfully (Sedmak & Longhurst, 2010).

Discussion of Design

The case study design was a qualitative research method bound by time and location (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The replication of real life occurs in the case study design (Larrinaga, 2017). The case study design allows a researcher to analyze a particular case or multiple cases to understand specific relationships between the questions (Wrona & Gunnesch, 2016). This methodology worked best with the research problem regarding organizational change related to job satisfaction and employee resistance. A method is appropriate when the involvement of a strategic process of analyzing and interpreting observations generated through claims closely related to real-life situations (Dasgupta, 2015). The case study design was a qualitative method that allowed examining causalities of why occurrences transpired in an inquiry that sought to understand how organizational change influenced job satisfaction and why employee resistance existed during organizational change.

Different methods in the case study research design exist that include an explanation of certain phenomena in the world. Multiple cases within the food service industry illustrate the concern of failed attempts from organizations to address the recurring human resources challenge of organizational change during the COVID-19 pandemic (Creswell & Poth, 2018). This results in a loss of job satisfaction and employee resistance. The scope of the research questions involved multiple perspectives. Therefore, the collective case study method using numerous cases was the most credible method to conduct an extensive exploration of organizational change, loss of job satisfaction, and employee resistance in the food service sector.

The use of collective or multiple case study research enables the researcher to learn from different vantage points concerning organizational change amid COVID-19 (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The generalization of multiple cases includes theories concerning organizational change and the loss of job satisfaction, and employee resistance in specific situations and the natural world (Gummesson, 2014). The questions of how or why are in a case study research to understand issues where sufficient knowledge is lacking (Dasgupta, 2015). Therefore this research design was appropriate because of the unique nature of COVID-19 and its impact on organizational change.

Scientific investigation does not require population samples to examine the issue of failures to address organizational change amid the COVID-19 pandemic but rather cases to investigate, collect data, and interpret the results (Ridder, 2017). The scientific investigation can make the research plausible by keeping the focus on comparing the different aspects of the research problem and exploring reality's ambiguity (Larrinaga, 2017). The cross-case analysis in this multiple-case research design helped me identify patterns in the relationship between the failure to address organizational change amid the COVID-19 pandemic and the loss of job satisfaction and employee resistance. The results of this multiple case study research design employed in this analysis provided additional insight into how externalities impacted the human resources challenge of effective change management.

Discussion of Method

This study included a flexible design using qualitative methods, specifically, a multiple case study design. The research method assisted me in understanding the human resources challenge of addressing organizational change during the COVID-19 pandemic within the food services industry. The results included a loss of job satisfaction and limited employee resistance,

ensuring that reliable knowledge came through the research process (Sedmak & Longhurst, 2010). The flexible research design gave me the freedom to allow the research to develop during data collection, which was essential in research involving the COVID-19 phenomena. Therefore, the information was helpful in preventing new challenges and changes for organizations and employees that impact job satisfaction and employee resistance. Additional inputs from organizations and employees considered during the research process supported the research questions' exploratory nature by using relevant and opportune feedback (Sedmak & Longhurst, 2010).

The flexible design using qualitative methods includes a systematic and transparent research technique to answer the research questions. An understanding of why organizations failed to address the recurring human resources challenge of organizational change and the influence of job satisfaction and limited employee resistance during the COVID-19 pandemic occurred (Sedmak & Longhurst, 2010). The data obtained in the form of words and observations can assist a researcher in understanding the organization's and employees' experiences during a crisis. The qualitative research method was appropriate to understand how organizational behaviors and actions influence organizational change, which directly impacts job satisfaction and limits employee resistance. Qualitative research requires in-depth data, which gives descriptions and explanations in a specific context, which helps to generate a conceptual framework. In addition, qualitative research helps the researcher answer the research questions while also considering additional questions not yet contemplated (Sedmak & Longhurst, 2010).

Why the Quantitative and Mixed Methods were not Chosen

A quantitative method is appropriate to test, measure, and analyze statistical significance (Stake, 2010). The quantitative method aligns with linear attributes to display similarities,

differences, correlations, and relationships within the data. The mixed method includes

qualitative and quantitative techniques to show a phenomenon. Theoretically speaking,

researchers use these methods to study the human resources issue of organizational change, job

satisfaction, and employee resistance. However, previous researchers explored the objective

linkage between organizational change and other factors with little attention to the subjective

experience of change (Rafferty & Jimmieson, 2017). Therefore, the qualitative method was the

best to fill that gap in the literature.

Why the Other Designs were not Selected

The multiple case study design was appropriate because the other research designs are

behavioral type studies, and organizational change does not fall within those parameters. The

phenomenological researcher seeks to decipher the meaning of an event (Tomkins & Eatough,

2013), while the researcher attempts to understand employees' experiences during an event. The

narrative researcher explores individuals to provide an interpretive narration of subjective

experiences (Thomas, 2012). This study included a premise on understanding a generalized

perspective of organizational change. The grounded theory research is best when frameworks

and guidelines are present in the study with readily available social settings to conduct

explorative surveys and interviews (Gilgor et al., 2016). The nature of COVID-19 restrictions did

not allow for the utilization of this research design. The ethnography design assists the researcher

in understanding how a culture functions, behaves, dialects, and ideologizes (Creswell & Poth,

2018). The ethnography design was not appropriate for this research analysis, which included a

focus on job satisfaction, employee resistance, and organizational change amid a pandemic. The

convergent parallel design was not appropriate because the research questions for this study were

exclusively qualitative in nature.

Discussion of Triangulation

Triangulation includes surveying and measuring a study accurately through a combination of methodologies (Jick, 1979; Oppermann, 2000). Triangulation includes opportunities for the researcher to validate their results, confidently affirm their findings, and view data in new ways that appropriately assess the problem. In addition, triangulation can reveal any irregularities or deviant dimensions of a phenomenon and decrease research bias (Jick, 1979; Oppermann, 2000). As a research approach, triangulation enables the researcher to refine the answers to a problem by approaching the research question differently (Oppermann, 2000). Triangulation approaches include methodological triangulation, data triangulation, investigator triangulation, and multiple triangulation sources (Oppermann, 2000). Methodological triangulation includes various research methods to measure a factor, whereas data triangulation includes the same approach for different data sets to test the trends in the data set. Investigator triangulation employs various researchers or *investigators* with diverse backgrounds to assess a problem. Finally, multiple triangulation combines two or more triangulation approaches to overcome difficulties in research probes dealing with bias and validity. This research included methodological triangulation as an approach to conceptualize organizational change issues during a crisis. The primary source of data collected for this qualitative study was interviews with the research participants.

Summary of the Nature of the Study

The human resource issue of organizational change because of the COVID-19 pandemic and its impact on maintaining job satisfaction and avoiding employee resistance was understood through a scientific paradigm that recognized objective reality limitations. Therefore, the use of the qualitative method was appropriate for this research probe. To fully comprehend the COVID-

19 pandemic's impact on organizational change, job satisfaction, and employee resistance, a subjective research probe was necessary with a flexible method using a multiple case study design.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework in a study includes factors or variables associated with the exploration that helped to theorize and interpret the data (Essink-Bot et al., 2013). The conceptual framework included relationships between concepts that enabled inferences and depicting of understandings (Essink-Bot et al., 2013). The factors considered in this research inquiry included human resources employees' involvement in organizational change issues. Other factors include the attributes of organizational change, the connection between organizational change and job satisfaction and employee resistance, and the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic. In addition, the challenges related to organizational change that result in a loss of job satisfaction and employee resistance. Understanding these research concepts brought clarity on an organizational manager's response to change and influence the workforce.

Figure 1

Conceptual Framework Model
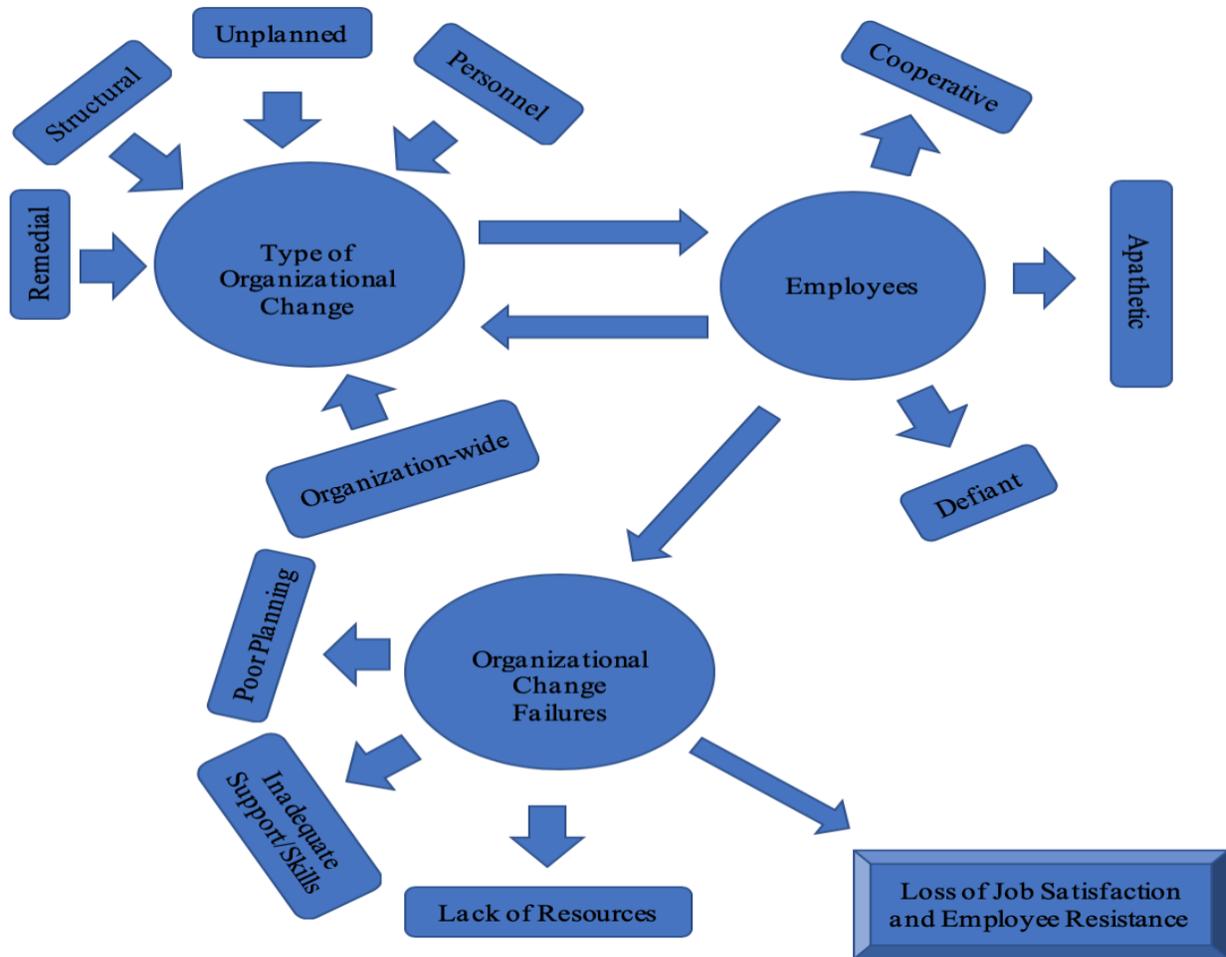
Note. The Research Framework describes the connection between organizational change and job satisfaction, and employee resistance.

The findings revealed that the type of organizational change that impacted job satisfaction and employee resistance during the COVID-19 crisis involved organization-wide change, personnel change, unplanned change, and remedial and structural change. Changes resulting from COVID-19 were organizational-wide because of federal and state government mandates. The data revealed that change impacted every aspect of restaurant operations, from food handling to customer interactions. Some changes impacted every business sector influenced by COVID-19. The line cook at Corner Bakery Cafe expressed that *nothing was the same after COVID-19. Personnel change was experienced because of sickness that interrupted the*

workforce and a mass exit because of employees leaving. The findings revealed that many restaurant managers struggled with employee retention because of personnel changes caused by the COVID-19 crisis. The COVID-19 crisis caused many unplanned changes throughout restaurants, including mask-wearing, social distancing, curbside assistance, and outside dining. The findings revealed that radical, incremental, and transformational change occurred because of the COVID-19 crisis in the restaurant sector. The changes arose because of the type of crisis people experienced involving public health issues.

The changes also occurred because of the specific mandates implemented by the government. The findings revealed that the type of changes associated with the COVID-19 crisis did have an influence on employee response, as indicated in the conceptual framework diagram. Research participants were cooperative and did not express any apathy or defiance toward the changes they perceived because of the COVID-19 crisis. The only defiance discovered in this study was when organizational managers, in compliance with federal mandates, proposed the vaccine mandate. The cooperative nature of the participants in the restaurant sector resulted in successful organizational change. However, the data revealed that the changes successfully implemented were because of the participants' compulsory nature, which had adverse effects on the recipients' job satisfaction. The data also revealed the participant's lack of resources or tools to survive the changes. In addition, inadequate support skills and poor planning did occur throughout the changes. The continuous changes and lack of information and competencies to manage a unique crisis like COVID-19 contributed to this phenomenon. The nature of organizational changes during a severe crisis causes employees to show bias and resistance to logistical changes in the workplace.

Research Concepts

Discussion of Concept 1

Human Resources Role in Organizational Change. The literature indicated that human resource employees acknowledge the complexities of managing change in organizations (Barratt-Pugh & Bahn, 2015). Most organizational change management initiatives failed because of a breakdown in communication and change management practices (Barratt-Pugh & Bahn, 2015). The change process often involves change agents who are in HR management and the change recipients who are the employees (Barratt-Pugh & Bahn, 2015). Human resource professionals engage in a critical role in organizational change effectiveness because they create positive employee perceptions that increase employee commitment to change (Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015). HR professionals enhanced employees' capabilities to cope with and manage change (Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015).

Human resource management was a core driver of organizational change because managing change involved managing behaviors (Bruns, 2014). The conscientiousness of the human resource professionals aligned with the successful implementation of organizational change (Chang-Howe, 2019) because organizational change increases employees' job demands and stress (Lee et al., 2017). Human resource professionals act as change managers who guide organizations through transitional phases (Hechanova et al., 2018). Change managers' tasks entail inspiring adjustments, empowering action, communicating buy-in, providing tools to pivot, and tracking progress (Hechanova et al., 2018). Therefore, human resource professionals perform an intricate role in the successful implementation of organizational change initiatives (Chang-Howe, 2019).

This study revealed that organizational employees in the food services sector continue to struggle with a complete understanding of HR's role in organizational change. Employees were not aware of HR's professional responsibility as the primary change agent to assist with change efforts during the COVID-19 crisis. The employees perceived HR professionals as absent and even obsolete during the change process, which impacted job satisfaction and organizational change implementations. Change agents during this crisis defaulted to the managers of the establishments. Change initiatives were successful because of the nature and severity of the COVID-19 crisis; however, HR professional role in change initiatives was derelict because of the marginal involvement reported by employees and managers.

Discussion of Concept 2

Change Management During a Crisis. This research analysis included the understanding that the COVID-19 pandemic magnified challenges in organizational change. Change occurs when opposing values, forces, or events influence the status quo (Zhang, 2016). The COVID-19 crisis served as the primary disruption in this research study. The external environment in restaurants can seem volatile and ever-changing (Neneh, 2016). The challenges of organizational change caused external factors and settings that created challenges for managers to guide employees' behaviors during unpredictable times (Zhang, 2016). This research included an understanding of how the external environmental changes challenged organizational change that impacted job satisfaction and employee responses. Changing expectations of society also affect organizational change and employee responses (Kusano & Sanada, 2019). Grønstad et al. (2019) argued that contextual factors might influence the association between work and the employee's health. This research inquiry included the discovery that health concerns were the key factor in both compliance with operational changes

and the loss of job satisfaction because of fears. Health concerns and violations regarding vaccinations were seen as the only form of resistance in this study. Lastly, Stolnik et al. (2016) asserted that personnel change was the most critical change for organizations because of employee resistance that impacts successful implementation. The study results revealed that personnel change impacted job satisfaction because of employee turnover and work overload but has little to no bearing on employee resistance.

Discussion of Concept 3

Loss of Job Satisfaction and Employee Resistance. The challenges of organizational change relate to the loss of job satisfaction (Shah et al., 2017). The reason was that a higher amount of organizational change relates to lower job satisfaction (Muzanenhamo et al., 2016). Employees' adaptability to organizational change impacts the level of job satisfaction (Cullen et al., 2014). Furthermore, the different types of organizational change affect job satisfaction (SHRM, 2020). Normally, organizational change challenges relate to employee resistance, which is regularly observed in the literature (Ferreira et al., 2018). Different organizational changes and situational variables determine the employee's resistance factors (Ferreira et al., 2018). Situational factors included organizational structural changes, processes, values, and beliefs (Stolnik et al., 2016). Empirical studies include the suggestion that the direct relationship between employee or workforce resistance and organizational change aligns with the skills retained by employees (McGuinness & Cronin, 2016). The resistance to change is in human behavior (Schulz-Knappe et al., 2019). The study results revealed that during times of crisis, employee resistance was minimal. The participants view the situational factors during a crisis differently; therefore, behaviors that follow depart from the expected norms of resistance. The only form of resistance from participants observed in this study was vaccine mandates that

personally impacted their health. Organizational change involving resistance to business practices did not occur in this study.

The conceptual framework model within this document illustrates the factors associated with the specific research problem concerning failed attempts to address organizational change resulting in the loss of job satisfaction. Employee resistance during the COVID-19 crisis did not influence these variables in the same manner expressed in the literature because of extraordinary circumstances that led to atypical behaviors and universal compliance. The variables annotated within the circle were catalysts that directly influenced the phenomenon of loss of job satisfaction and employee resistance, which were key components of the study. The words surrounding the variables described the circles' concepts. However, these variables did not have an influence on the ultimate outcome of change management proposals because of successful organizational change initiatives reported during the time of crisis. The type of organizational change influences employees' responses, which impacts job satisfaction. The arrows indicate how all the factors within the diagram connect. This study revealed that the normal reasoning behind why organizations failed to effectively address organizational change was not present in these findings because of the COVID-19 crisis's partial responses. The study results indicated that organizational changes during a crisis should prevail as an outlier regarding the typical effects of organizational change.

Research Theories

The research theories included in this research topic are change (a) management theory, (b) duality theory, (c) theory of constraints, (d) theory of planned behavior, and (e) Herzberg's theory of job satisfaction. Change management theory involves organizational change literature that indicates four issues common to all change efforts: context, content, process, and criterion

issues (Cataldo, 2005). Duality theory is an analysis that implies that stability and change, order and disorder, and predictability and unpredictability operate by mutual specifications rather than mutual exclusivity (Sutherland & Smith, 2011). The theory of constraints is a traditional view of change management that premises resistance to change and reveals an alternative perspective and a practical approach for better managing change (Mabin et al., 2001). The theory of planned behavior included an understanding of employee intentions to support organizational change (Jimmieson et al., 2008). Finally, Herzberg's theory of job satisfaction includes a focus on how work attitudes relate to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction caused by different underlying job factors like organizational change (Bitsch & Hogberg, 2005).

Actors

Change Agents

The primary change agents in this research were top and middle restaurant managers. Leaders, as change agents, tasked with propelling change through positive affirmations, motivating and supporting employees have an impact on organizational changes (Palumbo & Manna, 2019). The restaurant managers were the primary catalyst of change within the restaurant sector. Therefore, I interviewed restaurant managers to assess their failures in addressing organizational change during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Change Recipients

Employee reactions are critical success factors for organizational changes (Morin et al., 2016; Neill et al., 2019). Therefore, employee engagement was necessary for the enactment of change (Hornstein, 2015). The restaurant managers provided guidance to understand job satisfaction and employee resistance to change during the COVID-19 crisis.

Customers

The customers provided an external perspective on organizational changes. I observed regular customers and casual customers to provide data inputs for this research study. Random selection was appropriate when doing business with customers during the observation process. The customers assisted in the objectivity of the study regarding organizational change failures.

Constructs and Variables

Organizational change variables directly impacted the research outcomes and conclusions. These variables affected the effectiveness of organizational change implementations and initiatives. Furthermore, these constructs influence organizational behaviors, which impact change. The variables associated with this research inquiry that impact an organizational manager's ability to effectively address change, leading to a loss of job satisfaction and employee resistance, included organizational commitment, organizational culture, and external business environments. Other factors include the type of change implemented and the attitudes toward change, which influenced organizational change capabilities.

Discussion of Relationships Between Concepts

The conceptual framework diagram illustrated the variables associated with the research investigation concerning organizational change and the loss of job satisfaction, and employee resistance. The type of organizational changes that impact businesses include (a) transformational change, (b) personnel change, (c) organization-wide change, (d) structural change, (e) unplanned change, (d) and remedial change (SHRM, 2020). Organizational change directly impacts employees since organizations include people (Stolnik et al., 2016). Organizational change affects employees inversely because of individual personalities, values, experiences, educational backgrounds, and hierarchal levels within the business (Juliboni &

Garibaldi, 2018). Employees also have different intrinsic motivations that impact their response to organizational change (Stolnik et al., 2016).

The diagram illustrates that the different types of organizational change impact employees and that employees influence organizational change. The conceptual framework diagram highlights the variables that usually cause organizational change failures as a direct connection between employee responses and the type of organizational change being implemented. As shown in the diagram, the critical determinant of organizational failures was how change recipients or employees reacted. However, the study's results revealed that during the COVID-19 crisis, employees' reactions toward change were positive, leading to universal compliance and change initiative success. Employees' or change recipients' reactions emerged by their attitudes toward the change and the contextual conditions of the change (Holten et al., 2019) as annotated by the variables surrounding the circle labeled organizational change failures. The diagram includes the interconnected variables ultimately influenced by job satisfaction and employee resistance. The specific variables concerning the COVID-19 pandemic, including safety concerns, health concerns, unemployment, and coping issues, were uncovered in this qualitative research.

Summary of the Conceptual Framework

The research framework emphasizes the variables, concepts, and theories surrounding the research problem. The factors align with assumptions regarding the failed attempts to deal with organizational changes, which generally led to job dissatisfaction and employee resistance. The variables outlined in the conceptual framework challenged the human resource personnel's ability to manage change. The conceptual framework provided a foundation for expanding the research. The revealing of additional variables such as safety concerns, health concerns,

unemployment, and coping issues occurred. To understand the occurrence of failed attempts and organizational change during a novel global pandemic required a baseline understanding of the challenges the human resources professionals experienced when addressing change management plans and implementations. The study result's included how human resources professionals failed to address organizational changes because of their lack of involvement.

However, change initiatives did not fail because of the type of changes necessitated during a crisis; nevertheless, the human resources professionals failed to address these changes. The conceptual framework highlighted the variables that had an influence on the effectiveness of managing organizational change during normal circumstances. The study results revealed the additional variables that influenced change management during a time of crisis.

Definition of Terms

Change Management

Change management is the process of managing roles, responsibilities, challenges, and conflicts associated with the change (Dhingra & Punia, 2016). Change involves phase shifts from factors like technology, organizational evolution, and market instability (Dhingra & Punia, 2016). Change management often originates with leadership's visions and competencies for implementing changes as a goal (Holten et al., 2019). Managing change requires a clear strategy, identifiable outcomes, achievable objectives, and change in the recipient's acceptance (Alqatawenah, 2018). The process of change management involves the use of principles, methods, and practices to continuously update the direction, structure, or capabilities of a firm (Belias et al., 2019).

COVID-19

COVID-19 is a pandemic that led to illness and national fatalities (Roberto et al., 2020).

The virus originating from China in late 2019 spread rapidly and changed society and the global economy since its detection (Roberto et al., 2020). COVID-19 was an evolving phenomenon that impacted the way businesses conduct daily operations (Roberto et al., 2020). Multiple researchers studied the effects of the swift changes caused by COVID-19 to answer a myriad of questions regarding the workplace as disruptions occurred in our global economy.

Employee Resistance

Employee resistance is an emotional or affective response to change that includes fear, frustration, and aggression (Repovš et al., 2019). This type of resistance is an inevitable consequence of organizational change strategies and has the most significant impact on effective transformations (Juliboni & Garibaldi, 2018). Employee resistance involves behaviors that recipients of change used to reject certain change implementations that went against their values. The different levels of tolerance for change influenced employee resistance.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a problematic term that generated different meanings with no definitive consensus; however, the standard definition indicates that job satisfaction is an emotional feeling expressed in certain behaviors regarding employment (Kashmoola et al., 2017). Job satisfaction is widely debated and discussed amongst human resource management professionals because of the significant predictor of retention (Wnuk, 2017). Perceptions and employee experiences drive individual responses that influence job satisfaction. This subjective nature of job satisfaction is continuously studied by the psychology of business professionals (Wnuk, 2017).

Organizational Change

Organizational change is an alteration of a core aspect or function of an organization's operation or business practice (Hallencreutz & Turner, 2011). Organizational change is a

complex process that prompts organizations to choose change agents, generate relevant information pertaining to employees' concerns, and create new regulations to support change (Lee et al., 2017). The diverse types of organizational change include structural change, remedial change, transformational change, and organization-wide change. Structural change is a qualitative transformation and evolution of a system marked by organizational changes (Schilirò, 2012). Remedial change is a remedy of a current situation planned and includes addressing significant problems. Remedial change involves the correction of difficult circumstances (Preston, 1993). Transformational change is an adjustment associated with large-scale revolutionary change within a short timeframe (Termeer et al., 2017). Organization-wide change involves the scope of change that transcends the entire organization (Valentine, 2018).

Assumptions, Limitations, Delimitations

The consideration of the assumptions, limitations, and delimitations impacted the validity and reliability of the study. Understanding these nuisances enabled the proceeding with informed caution to minimize fallacies and justified the study's relevancy. The following section will include a discussion on certain norms, restrictions, and boundaries experienced in this research inquiry. To ensure reasonable expectations were appropriate when conducting this research inquiry, addressing certain caveats occurred.

Assumptions

An assumption regarding this case study included the notion that organizational managers failed to address organizational change because of the COVID-19 pandemic. Previous studies indicated that organizational behaviors or responses to change emerged from critical factors that involved the inability to deliver satisfying results (Malmstrom, 2016). In the past, organizations and practitioners experienced challenges in implementing change initiatives (Malmstrom, 2016).

Additionally, many obstacles to the success of organizational change are in research. A crisis, which is a negative phenomenon, further complicates successful change strategies (Meiste & Jakstiene, 2015). Another theory was that certain behaviors and actions contributed to successful organizational change during COVID-19. Critical actions to assist with change implementations were affective commitment to change, organizational fairness or justice, and organizational support for employees or change recipients (Tsai & Harrison, 2019).

Formal communication was also an action that supported the organizational change process. Another belief was that organizational change because of COVID-19 influenced job satisfaction. Many studies concluded that job satisfaction was influenced by several different factors: work environment and conditions, career development possibilities, and employee engagement (Gorenak et al., 2019). These factors are organizational change initiatives disrupted in some facet (Gorenak et al., 2019). The notion that employee resistance transpired because of organizational change as a result of COVID-19 was a supposition of this case study. Charoensukmongkol (2017) conveyed that an employee's resistance to organizational change consisted of three significant aspects. The factors include an affective attitude that represented how a person feels about the change, a cognitive perspective that revealed how a person thinks about the change, and a behavioral attitude, which means the actions a person intended to take as a result of the change. Employee resistance is a consequence of organizational change (Charoensukmongkol, 2017). Furthermore, a fundamental premise is that all participants will express their true feelings regarding job satisfaction and resistance to change openly and honestly. The ethical obligation of the researcher to preserve the integrity of empirical studies is to provide consent to the prospective participants. Informed consent ensures awareness of their contributions and the risks while pointing out the voluntariness of inputs and the potential

benefits of participating in the study (Jacobson et al., 2020). This form of transparency and openness encouraged trustworthy participation from the research subjects.

Migrating some of the risks that these assumptions related to COVID-19 led to investigating if organizational managers failed to address organizational changes associated with COVID-19. Approaching the research with what, why, and how questions led to an understanding of potential failed attempts to manage organizational change. Revealing commonalities assisted in the development of principles used to theorize and analyze connections between organizational change efforts and COVID-19 responses (Garavan et al., 2018). A link ensuring the lack of job satisfaction and employee resistance emerge from the crisis. The contemporary literature concerning organizational change and its association with COVID-19 helped to mitigate misconceptions regarding correlations. Lastly, to ensure the validity and reliability of responses, anonymity was applied to the case studies' findings regarding the participant's feedback to discourage false reporting. Research revealed that anonymity was a useful technique for eliciting accurate survey responses because respondents felt open to divulging sensitive information without fear of repercussions (Petersen et al., 2015).

Limitations

Limitations within this case study included the difficulty of choosing cases that involved a healthcare and employment crisis. The availability of cases to observe presented a challenge. Furthermore, the complexity and volatile nature of a phenomenon (pandemic) in human affairs further complicated the process of obtaining data and concluding prompt findings (Larrinaga, 2017). To minimize each limitation, I selected case studies and research participants based on availability and volunteerism. In addition, the consideration of ethics regarding bias, autonomy, and protected groups occurred. Social distance was essential during the interviews, that assisted

in the limited contact posed by restrictions. Azungah (2019) stated that gaining access to research sites was an intricate part of qualitative research that required comprehensive conversations or interactions with organizational employees or research participants. Gaining access involves negotiations and engagement with gatekeepers (Azungah, 2019); therefore, to conduct research during a time when social distance was the norm, I consulted with management to conduct a field study in the restaurant industry.

Delimitations

The scope of this multiple case study was an exploration of the food service, specifically the restaurant sector's employees and managers impacted by the COVID-19 crisis. Personnel, including management and workers, was a consideration in this study regarding organizational change, job satisfaction, and employee resistance. The boundary of this study consisted of food industries in California, North Carolina, and Virginia.

Significance of the Study

Change is an intricate element in business that shapes and reforms habits within the workplace (Kumar et al., 2015). Managing change systematically enables individuals to cope with shifts in the workplace (Tamilarasu, 2012). Human resource professionals continuously challenge the many facets of organizational change, including adaptation, regulation, and implementation (Tamilarasu, 2012). Organizational change involves a departure from the prevailing initiatives, strategies, practices, and operations previously employed by a firm (Tamilarasu, 2012). The literature included the complexities of dealing with organizational change and its impact on job satisfaction and employee resistance throughout the years. Empirical studies include how COVID-19 interrupted the nature of work (Amis & Janz, 2020). The missing element in the literature was how the recent pandemic affected employees who

adapted to the continuous change because of social, political, and medical mandates. This research inquiry reflected on how change during a crisis impacted the workforce. In addition, this research inquiry included how COVID-19 affected job satisfaction and employee resistance caused by different organizational changes.

Reduction of Gaps

This study included an insight into how tragedy influenced the distinct types of organizational changes that directly impacted employee behaviors and actions. The connection between the loss of job satisfaction and change during a crisis was essential in this study. The connection between employee resistance and change proposals regarding certain mandates that arose from the COVID-19 crisis was also in this study. This study included insights into how a crisis complicated organizational change that impacted employees. These findings could encourage HR practitioners to implement contingency plans to improve the effectiveness of their change management practices.

Implications for Biblical Integration

This research inquiry included an emphasis on organizational managers' failure to address change during a severe pandemic, resulting in the loss of job satisfaction and employee resistance. Solving this problem could help restore job satisfaction and the appropriate response and interactions of employees, which benefits all stakeholders and brings glory to God (Phil. 2:3-4, NASB). Christian ideals and beliefs affected how I viewed and responded to organizational change with a transformational Christ-centered perspective as a guiding ideology. Change management that improves and restores all things was a practice that actively participated in God's redemptive plan (Keller, 2012). Viewing organizational change from a biblical perspective enabled the researcher to make suggestions to improve employee well-being, influence job

satisfaction, and enhance the quality of life that affects employee acceptance (Keller, 2012).

Neglecting to address organizational change provides no direction for employees. The lack of

knowledge destroys people (Hos. 4:6), which is why solving this problem would allow

organizations to assist employees in transitional phases. Ultimately, drawing attention to the

shortcomings of some human resources practitioners that fail to address organizational change

was to optimize change management initiatives, which are inevitable (Eccl. 3:1). This research

process was consistent with the Christian virtues found in Galatian 5:22 to ensure God's glory in

this research endeavor.

Relationship and Benefits to the Field of Study

The human resources management sector initiates and facilitates change in organizations,

which means the belief in change is contingent upon the reception of human resources practices

(SHRM, 2020). Kang (2015) expressed that micro-change management issues were human

resources issues because of the people side of change. Understanding organizational change was

paramount for the human resources field of study because of the distinctive components, scopes,

and scales that impact organizational culture and individuals differently (Worley & Mohrman,

2014). Managing organizational change involve managing individual, which is the core of the

human resources management professionals' duties (Worley & Mohrman, 2014). Therefore,

understanding how externalities like COVID-19 affected the human resource professionals'

ability to address organizational change would help practitioners recognize how to better service

personnel.

Summary of the Significance of the Study

This research inquiry included the qualitative method to understand the human resources

problem that involves organizational managers' failure to address the recurring challenge. In

addition, this research inquiry included how organizational changes during the COVID-19 pandemic within the food service sector resulted in a loss of job satisfaction and employee resistance. Ineffective organizational changes impact job satisfaction and employee resistance, which does not allow organizational managers to avoid retention and other internal issues (Wnuk, 2017). Understanding how a crisis complicates organizational change that impacts employees would enable HR practitioners to implement contingency plans to improve change management effectiveness.

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

Change viewed as inevitable will emerge in business because of the many distinct factors, including globalization, investment in human capital, knowledge, and fluctuations. In addition, technological advances shifted in preferences and expectations, the formation of international standards, and social, economic, and political developments. (Hosgörür, 2016). Change can be conceived as a constant element of business (Sohmen, 2016). Organizational managers devised strategies to deal with and adjust to the rapid changes that occurred inside and outside their business environments (Rodat, 2018). The frequency and pervasiveness of change in organizations attract the attention of many scholars and practitioners (Rodat, 2018; Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). Gupta and Singla (2016) noted the impact of trends in organizational change and its importance in the realm of strategic development. The assumption was that effective organizational change directly correlates to a business' competitiveness (Gupta & Singla, 2016; Park & Eun-Jee, 2015). Therefore, change is compulsory for an organization's sustainability (Mustafa et al., 2019). Historically, effectively leading change throughout the trajectory of business cycles presented a challenge for organizations (Strodtbeck, 2016). The challenges dealing with organizational change intensified with time (Strodtbeck, 2016). Kumar et al. (2016)

explained that organizational managers experience continual disruptions that require organizational flexibility, creativity, and innovation.

Change management is a solution to the ongoing cycle of disruptions in business and a solution (Mellina, 2015). The custom for organizational managers exists to change as they react to extreme competition, vigorous internal environments, customer requirements, and emerging technologies (Binci et al., 2019). Environmental variables shifted when the change occurred in business that impacted employee behaviors and cultural systems (Chinoperekweyi, 2020). Therefore, organizational managers must accept change if they desire to grow (Mellina, 2015). The rate and capacity of change vary; however, the ability to absorb change yields results for organizations (Mellina, 2015). Organizational managers experience continuous assessment and renewal of direction, structure, and capabilities to respond to changing preferences and environmental factors (Mitra et al., 2019). Despite the attention and recent developments in organizational change, approximately 70% of all change initiatives failed (Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). Change readiness among personnel directly impacted by the change was a significant catalyst to the successful implementation and management of organizational change (Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). The reaction to change by managers dictates the outcome; therefore, managing change within an organization involves a complex process that mitigates fears and minimizes resistance while maximizing stability and a sense of security (Samal & Chatterjee, 2020).

The nature of change research is broad in scope and context mainly because organizational change can take multiple forms, including strategic, operational, and technological (Chaudhry, 2018; Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). A change could include planning or evolution (Chaudhry, 2018). A change could vary in impact based on an organization's size, business model, market positioning, focus, and niche (Chaudhry, 2018). Change has bearings on

an organization's business structure, regulations, operations, practices, and human capital (Chaudhry, 2018). A change impacts employees in many ways that influence their performance, collaboration, and interactions with all stakeholders (Chaudhry, 2018). Leadership can stabilize and effectively guide the change process to ensure chaos and opportunities associated with change (Sohmen, 2016). The challenge for change leaders is to propel change initiatives forward within certain restraints (Sohmen, 2016). Failed change initiatives afforded organizational managers the ability to learn from their mistakes and move forward (Sohmen, 2016). The difficulties in dealing with change often occur because of incompatible objectives of the change and employee expectations (Hosgörür, 2016). This research includes how failures to address and manage organizational changes caused by COVID-19 impact employee resistance and job satisfaction in the food service industry.

Elements of Change Management

Change management relates to processes that ensure transformations occur following the planned or unplanned change an organization is undergoing (Hosgörür, 2016). Managing change involved strategies that impact business culture, policy, structure, and systems (Hosgörür, 2016; Lines et al., 2015). Alqatawenah (2018) described change management as a method of using best practices to effect change based on organizational objectives and the purpose for change. Change management is not a problem-solving mechanism but an agent that helps organizational managers avoid future problems through change initiatives (Iljins & Skvarciany, 2015). Therefore, change management is vital for the growth and sustainability of businesses. The scientific definition of change management is a phenomenon that aligns with organizational efficiencies through structural changes. Managing change is a systematic practice that could alter systems, behaviors, and structures to achieve desired improvements in an organization's

effectiveness. Change management includes processes that managers can use to monitor organizational change performance. The method of managing change involves perpetual updates of the purpose, direction, structure, and capabilities of an organization (Belias et al., 2019). The management of change includes adapting and handling situations that enable organizational managers to effectively introduce change into the fabric of their business (Belias et al., 2019). Change management also involves the perception of well-managed change processes (Hechanova et al., 2018).

The implementation of positions regarding change management exists in organizations. (van der Voet & Vermeeren, 2017). According to classical approaches, controlling change is a phenomenon that involves methodical approaches to changing mindsets and sensemaking rather than changing behaviors and sense-giving. As a strategic practice, change management include influencing attitudes rather than exerting power; therefore, communication is vital to successfully addressing organizational change. Change management rises above routine devotion to technicalities in a process but encompasses inspirational leadership that guides plans (Hornstein, 2015). The methodology introduced by change management renews an organizational manager's direction and competencies to serve the essentials for change (Hornstein, 2015). Identifying an organizational manager's vision and responding with change proposals and strategies is essential for sustainability purposes (Hornstein, 2015). Holten et al. (2019) created change management as a reflection of managerial reasons and competencies for executing the change in an organization. The vision of an organization when managing change includes acknowledging past disappointments of change as a fundamental revolution inspired by transformational leadership (Alqatawenah, 2018).

The approach to change management is a great debate and discussion (Lines et al., 2015). Setting realistic expectations, timeframes, and efforts for change is vital when seeking to avoid resistance and promote the acceptance of the change (Lines et al., 2015). Involving all change agents in the change process is a strategic approach to successful implementation (Lines et al., 2015). Nevertheless, navigating the complexities of change management introduces unique considerations such as (a) organizational ambidexterity, (b) employee acceptance or approval, (c) adaptation challenges, (e) conveyance of change, and (f) organizational capabilities (Morin et al., 2016). An integrative approach to change management is the leading thought in modern-day business practices, yet the adopted methods entailed methodical conventions concerning the change (Chinoperekweyi, 2020). Chinoperekweyi (2020) conveyed that successful change requires multiple theoretical lenses grouped together to improve the integration of concepts while avoiding the fragmentation of thought. The classical approach to change management includes an assumption that repetition and predictability are congruent with change processes and presenting a unidimensional or linear system to change (Chinoperekweyi, 2020). Contemporary thought stressed the necessity of a diverse perspective approach that employed an interactive mix of change philosophies. The technical rational perspective approach exemplifies problem-solving as a technical means to change as a momentary disturbance that needs control. This top-down approach to change management includes managers tackling problems and seeking to manage change in an orderly fashion to achieve efficiency and effectiveness.

The founding father of change management Kurt Lewin created the classical approach of change as three steps (CATS) which involve his unfreezing, moving on, and refreezing stance (Cummings et al., 2016; Hechanova et al., 2018; Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). Lewin's unfreezing stage includes motivating change in organizations and individuals (Gupta & Singla, 2016). The

moving-on stage includes the implementation of change, while the refreezing stage includes stability or permanent change within reach. Historically, all western theories of change followed Lewin's *CATS* premise for over five decades (Cummings et al., 2016). Scholars agreed that all theories of change could reduce to this an idea devised by Kurt Lewin. This simple three-step change model is an idea with a noble origin that was objectively self-evident. Cummings et al. (2016) alluded to Lewin's model as the endings, transitions, and new beginnings stages, whereas Armenakis et al. (1999) created this model as the readiness, adoption, and institutionalization phases. Lewin's CATS model minimized the tendency to resist change by overcoming apathy and changing preexisting mindsets to create a need for change (Hechanova et al., 2018). Some scholars questioned the simplicity of Lewin's approach to change (Cummings et al., 2016). The argument was that the CATS model inappropriately conceptualizes all organizations as linear with its rigid ideas that did not consider the complexities of change that require flexibility and adaptation. The claims of CATS as a partial view of change management did not hinder the model's overall standing in the literature.

Another model included in the study of change management was Kotter's Eight-Step Model. The model elicits a clear goal for change planned and communicated well, which prepares members to deal with change in a tangible way (Hechanova et al., 2018). Greiner (1979) introduced a seven-step process to effectively implement change within a business based on an organization's history and maturity (Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). Bullock and Batten (1985) introduced a change management model that emphasized the interpersonal dealings connected to change. Nadler et al. (1997) took a step further by highlighting the psychological dimensions of change. In addition, four themes emerged that underscored the change process: (a) content, (b) process, (c) criterion, and (d) contextual issues (Appelbaum et al., 2017a; Samal & Chatterjee,

2020). Content issues involve factors that define an organization's relationship with its external environment concerning change, whereas contextual issues include aspects that operate within its internal and external environment (Appelbaum et al., 2017a; Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). Process issues pertaining to the actionable items involving implementing the proposed change include the reactions of the organizational members affected by the change (Appelbaum et al., 2017b; Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). Finally, criterion issues include outcomes of change implementation (Appelbaum et al., 2017a; Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). When these four variables are congruent, the issue of change resistance magnifies (Samal & Chatterjee, 2020).

The design and execution of programs geared toward transformation are central to organizational change and performance (Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). The survival of organizations is contingent upon their ability to address changes that underscore economic, geopolitical, technological, and socio-cultural environments. Samal and Chatterjee (2020) indicated that the change management framework often includes labels to include readiness to change, resistance to change, rate of change, and scale of change when alluding to organizational change concepts. Constant change is a potential hindrance to organizational effectiveness, and management of change is a potential success factor to organizational effectiveness (Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). The key to change management is ensuring that people can handle inevitable change. The task of leadership is managing change within business operations and managing the effects of change on individuals.

Elements of Organizational changes

In general terms, change is transient and involves transitioning from state to state (Rodat, 2018). Change is observing modifications in the structure of an object or situation in time (Rodat, 2018). A manager can gauge change by studying what remains constant versus what

transforms (Rodat, 2018). The need for organizational change existed since the conception of business and is more complex (Morin et al., 2016). Organizational change involves many forms, which include (a) technological, (b) economic, (c) social, (d) competitors, (e) customers, employees, (f) and governmental authorities (Morin et al., 2016).

The forms and sources may interact and overlap during the change process (Morin et al., 2016). Consequently, organizational change requires organization managers to address multiple issues continuously and simultaneously to obtain optimal results. The three basic types of organizational change include (a) personnel changes, (b) changes in organizational structure, (c) and technological changes (Stolnik et al., 2016). Some scholars argue that personnel changes are the most important type of change because of employee resistance which hinders successful organizational changes.

Therefore, a big focus in organizational change literature gears toward employee motivation, acceptance, and minimizing the stress related to change (Stolnik et al., 2016). Organizational change is a process that changes and adapts existing organizations based on specific needs. Therefore, defining what needs changing and examining how that change can include implementation is foundational for successful organizational change. Understanding how change impacts employees and which changes they are willing to accept and commit to is vital to the success of organizational change implementations.

An attempt to develop a universal definition for organizational change includes the focus of many scholars and practitioners (Appelbaum et al., 2017b). The definition of organizational change includes the basis of a researcher's viewpoint (Park & Eun-Jee, 2015). Struckman and Yammarino (2003) provided a comprehensive approach to the subject of change by defining the phenomenon of organizational change as a managed system, process, and behavioral response to

a trigger or event that occurs (Appelbaum et al., 2017a). Organizational change encompasses various approaches in an organization. The approaches range from cultural changes or downsizing to mergers and acquisitions, which makes defining this occurrence complex in general terms (Appelbaum et al., 2017b).

Organizational change is evaluating change agents' web of beliefs and habits to accommodate new experiences, specifically defined as a change in the function, form, demographic, and purpose of an organization (Orth & Cheng, 2019). Van de Ven et al. (2011) defined organizational change as the change in an organizational entity that differs in form, quality, and state over time (Hong et al., 2019; Park & Eun-Jee, 2015; Shirokova et al., 2014). Some authors emphasized the processes of change in their definitions, while others focused on the content of change; however, they all referred to some sort of organizational reform in principles and practices (Shirokova et al., 2014). Other definitions focus on the features of organizational change while emphasizing the components of the organizations (Park & Eun-Jee, 2015; Rosenbaum et al., 2018). The detail-oriented definition of organizational change refers to an organization's transformation influenced by the interactions of critical components in the systems (Park & Eun-Jee, 2015).

Organizational change refers to the ability to enact and manage permanent change (Shirokova et al., 2014). Organizational change is the ability to identify new opportunities for development and the wisdom to introduce the necessary internal changes for success. Organizational change is technical, with managerial innovations, executive declines, and systems' evolution (Park & Eun-Jee, 2015). Another definition of organizational change includes the realignment of business that impacts strategy, work, people, and processes (Park & Eun-Jee, 2015; Rodat, 2018). Rodat (2018) viewed organizational change as planned alterations of

business components that include the mission, vision, strategy, goals, capabilities, and structures to improve organizational effectiveness (Park & Eun-Jee, 2015). Organizational change has the definition of calculated methods that enable organizational managers to behave differently to accommodate new contingencies, values, personnel, processes, and innovations (Neill et al., 2019; Seeger et al., 2005). Cummings et al. (2016) defined organizational change as a process of transitioning from the organization's current state to a desired future state under the manager's goal to increase effectiveness (Gupta & Singla, 2016; Wulandari et al., 2020). Other definitions view organizational change according to the origin, size, impact, and type of change (Rosenbaum et al., 2018).

Organizational change involves the shift in the behavior of the entire organization's employees to change business operations and practices (Gupta & Singla, 2016). Changes in any capacity are insufficient if learning and a change in thinking do not emerge (Arif et al., 2017; Shirokova et al., 2014). Scholars believe that organizational change is synonymous with values and strategy because organizational change is associated with fundamental modifications to policy, culture, and mindsets (Mustafa et al., 2019; Shirokova et al., 2014). Organizational change is difficult for affiliates because of behavioral and value modifications, which often may cause fear and frustration (Hechanova et al., 2018).

While the literature includes a focus primarily on past change at the organizational level, the focus shifted to viewing change at the individual level because individual behavior includes the determining factor of successful organizational change (Gurd & Gao, 2016). The challenging task of discovering why people accept or reject the change is of the utmost importance if organizational managers seek members who are receptive to organizational change. Research suggests that the content of change is influential on the reception of change and the recipients'

reactions to change. Therefore, leaders of change encourage exhibiting interest and effort toward change requests (Mustafa et al., 2019). Change can occur with trust in management, managerial support, organizational climate, employees' participation, personal impact, job security, and information availability have an influence on successfully implementing organizational change (Aslam et al., 2018).

Organizational change is a stress agent for individuals affected by the change (Arif et al.; Lee et al., 2017; Nery et al., 2019). Research indicates that organizational change may have an influence on the health and well-being of recipients (Nery et al., 2019). Stress does not stand alone because of change; instead, it reduces motivation and increases uncertainties, doubt, fear, and withdrawal (Nery et al., 2019). Other adverse consequences resulting from planned organizational change include cynicism, anxiety, fatigue, increased employee turnover, little commitment to change, job dissatisfaction, and resistance to change (Aslam et al., 2018). These factors all contributed to the failures of organizational changes.

Conversely, organizational change outcomes could enhance innovation, increase motivation, increase satisfaction, attract and engage employees, inspire creativity, optimize problem-solving, promote learning, and improve efficiencies (Jordan et al., 2015). Organizational change outcomes are diverse, with spontaneous circumstances that impact the successful implementation of change (Hong et al., 2019). The intensity of organizational change varies in frequency and severity and influence employees' reactions and reception of change (Lee et al., 2017). The differences in roles, competencies, and responsibilities associated with organizational changes prompt businesses to evaluate their personnel to enhance support and adoption of change (Nery et al., 2019). The literature includes the suggestion that organizational

managers' readiness for change involves a commitment to change and implementation, which results in compassion toward change (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015; Narine & Persaud, 2003).

Organizational change is a strategic choice that causes managers to rethink capabilities, redirect competencies, and reconfigure resources leading to adapting to an unfamiliar environment (Jeong & Shin, 2019). Strategic change includes innovative ideas, which lead to new opportunities (Jeong & Shin, 2019). Organizational change heightens organizational managers' creativity and could show a survival tactic for firms to remain competitive in volatile environments (Jeong & Shin, 2019). Organizational change is a strategic goal contingent upon how well an organization's human resources management (HRM) systems align (Jeong & Shin, 2019). When human resources (HR) practices integrate with an organization's strategic goal, organizational managers enact organizational change. The internal environment impacts the external environment (Jeong & Shin, 2019).

The different elements of organizational change include the type of change activity and the process by which change occurs. The elements include the barriers to change, the timeframe regarding the change, the depths of change, the readiness for change, and the themes of change (Appelbaum et al., 2017b). Among the most critical dimensions of organizational change that influence change includes the basis of the organization's purpose, type of interests, status, business structure, supply chain management, and fiscal management (Rodat, 2018). Furthermore, organizational leaders' strategic vision, short-term and long-term goals, practices, marketing, strategic management, and leadership has an influence on change within the organization. Productivity and quality management, decision-making, information systems, business communication, human resources management, and organizational culture has an

influence on changes within an organization (Rodat, 2018). Every facet of the business has a role in organizational change.

Type of Organizational Changes

The term organizational change involves a set of theories, strategies, and techniques toward altering an organization's setting to enhance performance outcomes and the workforce (Schuller et al., 2015). Many facets of organizations are foreseeable or unpredictable (Rodat, 2018). Change relates to the natural evolutionary processes of organizations that are predictable and directed toward the modernization of organizations (Rodat, 2018). Other changes determined by factors from the external environment were surprising and posed challenges for organizational managers that must respond to these changes (Rodat, 2018). The definition of change type is the key trait that describes the kind and form of change (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015). The qualities that makeup change characterizes by the change type (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015). Stace and Dunphy (1988) stated changes that involved a shift in attitude, behavior, and culture were qualitative, which is different from changes and encompasses the introduction of business processes, structures, and technologies. Furthermore, the technical aspects of change consist of the modifications of tangibles. For example, the physical routines of jobs; whereas social change refers to the conversion of the intangible established relationships within an organization (Waldersee et al., 2003)

To remain competitive, organizational managers engage in change to pursue new opportunities and gain experience (Neill et al., 2019). Therefore, managers must identify by engaging the correct method to deal with change (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015). Corporate managers impact differently on the type of change they encounter (Fløvik et al., 2019). Organizational change forms differ from leadership, cultural, and technological changes to

downsizing, lay-offs, mergers, and acquisitions (Neill et al., 2019). Some scholars classify change types by two dimensions; the first is the level at which change occurs (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015). The second dimension is the actual type of change occurring. Other scholars view change from a three-dimensional perspective, the first and second dimensions are the level and type of change, and the third dimension is the mode of change. Such classifications were essential when determining the scale and duration of change.

The heterogeneous natures of the diverse types of organizational change have different influences on employees' reactions to change (Lee et al., 2017). Other organizational changes disrupt the work environment in distinct ways, affecting members differently (Fløvik et al., 2019). Different types of changes are suitable to different organizational types (Fløvik et al., 2019). For example, a technical change to production might disrupt productivity, while a social change may affect communication between employees (Waldersee et al., 2003). The importance of understanding the different types of organizational change that influence individuals differently).

The different categories of organizational change include (a) strategic and non-strategic change, (b) incremental and radical change, (c) quantum change, (d) changes of identity, and (c) coordination and control. In addition, the other categories are human-centered classifications of change, organizational level, and planned and emergent change (Cao et al., 2003). Other types of organizational change include change as a development, transition, and transformation (Simion et al., 2019). The current literature includes classifying and distinguishing various types of change; for example, incremental change is from transformative change or convergent from radical change (Shirokova et al., 2014). Dichotomizingis the different organizational change

types to ensure distinct classifications of change types. The table below includes the different

types of organizational changes.

Table 1

Classifications of Organizational Changes

Change Type	Definitions	Author and Date
Gradual	Change that impacts the basic structure or order	Gersick, 1991
Radical	Change that destroys and replaces existing structure and order	Gersick, 1991
Incremental	Small scale change	Stace and Dunphy, 1988
Transformational	Large scale change	Stace and Dunphy 1988
Change of Degree 1	Changes in the primary system rule	Levy, 1986
Change of Degree 2	Paradigm shifts	Levy, 1986
Convergent	Compatible change	Tushman et al., 1986
Frame Modification	Changes in strategy, power, structure, and control	Tushman et al., 1986
Evolutionary	A small number of changes	Miller and Friesen, 1984
Revolutionary	A considerable number of changes (extreme)	Miller and Friesen, 1984

Note. Organizational change types by definitions and authors (Simion et al., 2019).

Classifications of Organizational Changes Explained

Organizational changes group into broad categories that distinguish between radical and

incremental changes (Bigelow & Arndt, 2005; Feng et al., 2016; Fragouli & Ibidapo, 2015;

Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). Radical changes are comprehensive and include abrupt and drastic

changes on a large scale (Feng et al., 2016). This form of change is ordinarily short and

unpredictable. Incremental changes are gradual (step by step) and considered stable, prompting

organizational managers to adapt regularly to this type of change throughout the trajectory of their business existence. Other classifications of organizational change include transformational, developmental, evolutionary, and revolutionary changes (Feng et al., 2016; Parastuty et al., 2015). These particular classifications are governed by the scale of changes and the timeframe of the change implementation. Some organizational change types are appropriate to accomplish the needs of a business (Urasawa, 2018). An example of this phenomenon was when the global pandemic shocked the world's social and economic systems. Different types of organizational changes have emerged at the same time to include structural, gradual and radical, incremental and transformational, and evolutionary and revolutionary (Parastuty et al., 2015; Urasawa, 2018).

Incremental change occurs in individual parts or stages of an organization and includes issues separately and at different times (McClure, 2018; Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). This type of change is informally introduced in small dosages (Fragouli & Ibidapo, 2015). Incremental changes generally describe departmental changes within an organization, whereas continuous changes involve organization-wide changes (de Waal & Heijtel, 2017; Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). Incremental changes are changes to the direction of an organization and involve minor improvements free of radical modifications. The organization's hierarchy and culture include finetuning practices and procedures (Fragouli & Ibidapo, 2015; Shirokova et al., 2014). The concept of incremental organizational change is from the theory of logical incrementalism described as customary (Shirokova et al., 2014). Managers who include incremental changes are least likely to experience opposition or resistance by organizational employees because of their familiarity and easy implementational processes (Fragouli & Ibidapo, 2015). In contrast, managers who enforce radical changes are prone to resistance because of the difficulties

concerning adaptation and adjustment (Fragouli & Ibidapo, 2015). Radical change required

creative leadership that could manage risk well.

Strategic organizational changes are gradual changes for adaptation to environmental

changes (Parastuty et al., 2015). On the other hand, frame modification change types (business

strategy, structures, people, and processes) consist of primarily revolutionary changes, unplanned

and discontinuous (Edelman & Benning, 1999; Hong et al., 2019; Samal & Chatterjee, 2020).

This particular type of change could also occur as a response to the s global pandemic because of

significant environmental changes that caused a sharp shift in the worldwide economy (Hong et

al., 2019; Waclawski, 2002). Any change that transforms an organization's resources' alignment

is revolutionary (Edelman & Benning, 1999). Past literature on large-scale (transformational)

change leaned toward the notion of this type of change being crisis-driven and triggered by

externalities. Transformational changes are painful dramatic changes that include distress

through organizations that must endorse and adopt them (Edelman & Benning, 1999). Some

scholars questioned the inevitability of extreme organizational change types like transformational

and revolutionary and argued that the perception of change evolves as time passes by.

Change conceptualizes into two categories: episodic and continuous (Hong et al., 2019;

Parastuty et al., 2015). Episodic change has a scope that is slow and less frequent yet strategic in

content (Hong et al., 2019). Parastuty et al. (2015) defined episodic change as an intermittent

change at distinct periods while continuous change continually evolved. This type of change is

the motivation for an organization's inability to remain relevant in its business, while constant

change reflects an organization's inability to remain stable (Hong et al., 2019). Continuous

change is an existing practice and a vision toward disruptive business advances (Bigelow &

Arndt, 2005).

Transformational change involves large-scale emergent changes that are continuously revised (Leenders et al., 2020). This change type may involve different transformations in several areas of an organization (Rodat, 2018). Transformational change involves the reconceptualization of an initial perceived broken system (Kindler, 1979). Transformational change is radical, uncontrollable, risky, expensive, complex, and purposeful for the long term (Simion et al., 2019; Troy, 2017). Radical and transformative change occurs if interest correlates with competitive or reformative objectives (Lauren, 2020). Therefore, transformational change may happen if significant events disrupt the current state of an organizational manager's routine (Skogland & Hansen, 2017). An example of transformational change is a realignment of business processes that impact organizational culture (Kumar et al., 2016). Transforming an organization is necessary when current business conditions are not resilient (Simion et al., 2019). Overall, transformational change includes significant matters that organizational management experiences, including strategy, mission, cultural, environmental, and leadership issues (Fragouli & Ibidapo, 2015). Implementing successful transformational change is a rarity because of the complexities and disruptive nature of this type of change that reshape the entire organization (Appelbaum et al., 2018; Feng et al., 2016). The transformation includes the deep structure of change and should occur as growth from one stage of a process, development, or condition to another (Howard & Hirani, 2013).

Transformational change explicitly occurs at the level of an organization and involves the rejection of old practices (Bigelow & Arndt, 2005). A paradigm shift in thinking occurs during the transformational change, which causes organizational managers to rethink how their business practices are currently structured and managed (Bevan et al., 2007; Bigelow & Arndt, 2005). Transformational change is a revolutionary change initiated by executives who rose to strategic

rebirth in organizations (Bigelow & Arndt, 2005). This type of change includes abruptly

changing a course of action in business to produce radical results (Troy, 2017). The voluntaristic

nature of transformational change places the burden on managers to inspire employees to accept

proposing changes (Bigelow & Arndt, 2005). Troy (2017) posited that transformational change is

apparent by nature or function that creates intermittent or discontinuous step-by-step

improvements. Transformational changes include worse-case scenarios that must receive

attention through change initiatives when all other possibilities end (Troy, 2017).

Transitional change is a unique type of change geared toward long-term strategies

(Simion et al., 2019). This type of change occurs under unusual circumstances when

organizational managers experience a crisis or emergency. The implementation process of

transitional change caters to the human side of change by disseminating information to

employees to ensure proper planning occurs. This type of change deals with transitioning from

the present state to a more futuristic state, making change difficult to address in current situations

because of insufficient information regarding the final state. Change as a transition occurs when

a business undergoes significant changes that require organizations to adapt to new conditions.

This adaptive process did not involve adjusting processes but replacing them with new

conditions. Dismantling the old state and creating strategies to develop a new state were the crux

of transitional changes.

Personnel changes in business include increases and decreases in the workforce,

employee relations, non-traditional employees (contractors and consultants), and changes in the

organization (Mackay, 1987). Employees are an organization's primary strategic resource and

impact a firm's competitiveness and growth (Igielski, 2015). An aspect of personnel change that

directly influences organizations is human capital. Changes in human capital involve the

advancement of intellectual capital that adds value to organizations. Factors determining intellectual capital include education, experience, task, contextual performance, and decision-making. Changes in these personnel traits alter the quality of organizations. Personnel changes involve alterations to the internal customers or staff (employees and managers) of an organization. Other personnel changes include leadership changes, orientation, communication, interpersonal, critical thinking, teamwork, technical expertise, creativity, and innovation. Personnel changes coincide with personnel sustainability which refers to a member's loyalty in the company (Trunina et al., 2020). The shutting down of divisions and transferring of personnel or the influx of new personnel directly impacts the success of organizational change (Leinonen et al., 2018).

Change that affects the overall entity is an entire organizational change (Hong et al., 2019). This type of change consists of distinct changes, including reorganization, downsizing, partial closures, outsourcing, mergers and acquisitions, and closures (Fløvik et al., 2019). Like other organizational changes, an entire organizational change includes opportunities to boost a business' economic value and enhance its internal environment (Fragouli & Ibidapo, 2015). This type of complex change includes material (large-scale) alterations to an organization's internal work structure (Chang & Kang, 2019; Chatterjee et al., 2018; Grønstad et al., 2019). Organizational changes transform how businesses operate and how employees and management engage with their work (Kumar et al., 2016).

Structural change includes two types, which are transient and perpetual change (Zhang, 2018). Structural change includes principles that optimize business performance by revolutionizing organizational structure (Waldersee et al., 2003). Redesigning leadership tasks and responsibilities (hierarchical control), decentralizing business practices (job consistency),

and reorganizing workflows (orderliness) are appropriate for changes (Waldersee et al., 2003). Structural changes in the process of moving operations and business activities (Magacho, 2017; Molinder, 2018). Structural change is necessary for organizational managers to adapt to their environments while anticipating current market trends for competitive and sustainable purposes (Bec et al., 2019; Rodat, 2018).

Structural change and planning develop over time (Urasawa, 2018). This type of change is an economic condition that transpires when the functioning of an organization or system changes (Bec et al., 2019). Factors that influence structural change include economic development, scarcity or resource availability, international monetary reserves, innovation, technological development, and political changes (Bec et al., 2019). In addition, structural changes refer to the dramatic shift in how a country or entity operates because of significant economic development (Hidvegi, 2019). This research inquiry includes information on how the different types of organizational changes influence human resource professionals' ability to address changes as a result of COVID-19.

The Scale of Organizational Changes

Change's scale is the degree of change required to achieve strategic goals (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015; Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). The scale of organizational change varies on the basis of different circumstances and situations (de Waal & Heijtel, 2017; Evans et al., 2015). Large-scale change involves paradigm shifts, which are structural and functional modifications (Bevan et al., 2007; Evans et al., 2015). The large-scale changes are to achieve transformational performance improvements through substantial shifts in business practices, processes, and operations (Evans et al., 2015). Change occurs at more than a single level, and the dimension in businesses includes this type of change. Large-scale change is a holistic alteration in both

processes and behaviors across an organization that leads to the desired outcome (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015). All stakeholders in the change process collaborate to yield successful change proposals. Furthermore, the alignment of business processes, resources, and human capital is necessary to function at a large scale. Small-scale change is a minor change insignificance that occurs within organizations. Small-scale organizational changes consist of the day-to-day adjustments that enable organizational leaders to adapt to current events in their business environment (Edelman & Benning, 1999). Small-scale change enacts because this scale of change is easy to initiate and manage (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015).

Large-scale change occurs in transformational change, radical change, and revolutionary change (Waclawski, 2002). Large-scale change impacts an organization's culture, strategy, mission, vision, and leadership (Narine & Persaud, 2003; Waclawski, 2002). The literature divides on the effectiveness of large-scale change.; Some critics denoted that this degree of change is dangerous and poses operational problems, while others herald that this type of change often outperforms small-scale gradual changes (Waclawski, 2002). The early stages of large-scale organizational change are disruptive (McFarland & Jestaz, 2016). The long-term nature of large-scale changes is a source of uncertainty that influences employee resistance and turnover (Belschak et al., 2020). Large-scale organizational change involves a change in the character and philosophy of a business leader, which alters functions and performances (Ledford & Mohrman, 1993; Narine & Persaud, 2003). The most fundamental aspects of an organization change because of the magnitude of change (Ledford & Mohrman, 1993). Large-scale organizational change construes as a collection of continuous small-scale adjustments produced from incremental transformations (Edelman & Benning, 1999). This research includes large and small-scale changes in the food service sector as a result of COVID-19.

Business Practices

   Organizational change is an essential feature in strategic management because of the

conclusion that change produces competitive advantages for organizations on a national and

international scale (Mustafa et al., 2019). When strategic management connects with

organizational change, decision-making and implementation efficiency occur. The proper

planning and analysis of change initiatives help organizational managers achieve their desired

change (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015). Strategically planning for change happens over time and

involves utilizing an unobstructed vision and timetable to address the critical factors that impact

the success of change efforts. Critical factors or change enablers include the vision and goals for

change, leadership guidance and commitment to change, employees' roles, training and

development, and human resource management. Change as a product is to advance skills,

methods, and performance standards that are no longer relevant to an organization's current

situation (Simion et al., 2019). During change developments, human resource management

professionals intend to minimize risks, improve operative organizational components, and

motivate employees (Simion et al., 2019). The critical factors or enablers of organizational

change further develop in the following sections.

Planned and Unplanned Changes

   Change management can include an intentional or unintentional phenomenon in business

(Hong et al., 2019). The concept of change is a significant concern in all scientific fields because

of the stability and unpredictability of events (Rodat, 2018). Modern organizational change

approaches involve aligning inner changes with external environments. Various typologies

conceptualize the change process models. The models include the teleology model for planned

and purposeful change efforts, the dialectic model for balance and stabilize change, the

evolutionary theory for adaptive change, and the life cycle model for sequential change (Hong et al., 2019). Change as a general means of conception is an advancement over time that involves transforming systems or processes from a special status to the next in a planned or unplanned manner (Hosgörür, 2016). Change is a deliberate effort contributing to an organization's growth or a spontaneous occurrence as a reaction to an event. Therefore, change can emerge in two opposing categories: planned and unplanned. Planned change is a desirable conversion of organizational elements, whereas unplanned change is an inevitable alteration of business features resulting from unexpected circumstances.

Planned change management includes organizational culture to ensure acceptance from members involved in the change (Dark et al., 2017). Unplanned change impacts corporate culture because of its limitation for proactive development because of its reactive nature (Dark et al., 2017; Rodat, 2018). Organizations must enact continuous change initiatives to ensure progress; therefore, organizations must prepare to adjust permanently to possible evolutions and change strategies (Rodat, 2018). The importance of planning for change does not eliminate unexpected predicaments and assists with preparations for the anticipated events within the change process. Planned change reflects imposed change, which refers to the type of change initiated by leadership. Unplanned change interconnects with organizational change that occurs because of emergencies. Unplanned change originated from unanticipated events or crises (Knowles & Saxberg, 1988). The frequency and persistence of organizational change is the cause of most change in planning and adapting to continuous fluctuations within a business (Parastuty et al., 2015).

Change as an Organizational Development

Change as a development correlates with convergent change, which involves fine-tuning situations and circumstances to achieve a specific outcome (Lauren, 2020). Continuous improvement of processes and activities transpires at the conception of the organizational change (Ionescu & Bolcaş, 2018). If organizational managers effectively respond to change in their environment, internal capabilities must continue improving and evolving. Organizational development facilitates change in organizations that position people as the focal point or at the heart of the change process (Ionescu & Bolcaş, 2018). In addition, a humanistic approach to change optimizes resources and increases competitiveness. Organizational development is a planning process resulting from a change in the organizational culture to improve working conditions through behavioral theory and practices. Change as an organizational development is a realignment of how activities occur (Shirokova et al., 2014). This approach to change improves the strategy and structure of an organization. From a macro perspective, successful organizational change positions around a realizable mission and design, a healthy organizational culture, wholesome leadership, and a flexible organizational structure (Waclawski, 2002).

Additionally, change as an organizational development involves reorientation that alters an organizational manager's strategic direction, market orientation, and services (McClure, 2018). This imminent and abrupt change shifts an organization's strategy, structure, operations, and management dynamic. Reorientation impacts the human resource sector by associating with denser inter-organizational relationships. Change that involves reorientation impact commitment, trust, communication, and conflict within organizations.

Role of Change Managers and Leadership in Organizational Change

The extensive studies about the change manager's role in organizational changes show that leaders are central to change (Chaudhry & Joshi, 2017). A survey conducted by people from

the American Management Association in the early 90s revealed that an overwhelming number of respondents from Fortune 500 companies felt that a leader is the most critical to change. These assumptions include that leaders are the people who initiate and manage change. Other empirical researchers revealed that the work climate susceptible to change is by a leader's management style and commitment to change (Manole & Alpopi, 2015). Internal agents or managers are critical initiators of change dynamics because they manage the interdependencies between the firm and externalities while acting as a change catalyst and improving functions. In addition, internal agents manage organizational change shocks, deal with implementation challenges, lead change development plans, and devise change strategies (Alagoz et al., 2018; Palumbo & Manna, 2019). Effective change agent personnel support and champion the organizational change process by stressing its meaningfulness to stakeholders (Alagoz et al., 2018; Palumbo & Manna, 2019). Leaders as change agents are responsible for propelling change through positive affirmation, motivating and supporting employees who will feel the impact of the organizational changes (Palumbo & Manna, 2019).

Change agents communicate the essence of organizational changes, which create commitment around organizational changes, and challenge existing ancient practices while cultivating evolutionary changes (Palumbo & Manna, 2019). The essential task of change leaders is to guide the organizational leaders through confusion associated with organizational changes and assist with the transitional phase (Hechanova et al., 2018). Furthermore, leaders help to increase the urgency for change by getting the vision right and communicating effectively with others. In addition, leaders need to inspire action, foster immediate success, urge perseverance, and create a change that sustains.

Leaders as change agents are vital to the enactment process of organizational change (Rønningstad, 2018). The managers must handle the challenges of change fatigue, employee resistance, personal preferences that do not align with the appropriate change, and personal limitations (Heyden et al., 2017; Rønningstad, 2018). Overcoming resistance to change includes a crucial role for leaders and how a change manager handles active and passive resistance to change, including deviant behaviors, refusal, and apathy, influencing the success of organizational change efforts (Rønningstad, 2018). Change managers conduct emotional work, labor, and balancing as a coping mechanism to the challenges experienced during the change processes.

Leaders encourage the flow of new ideas as another way to minimize resistance to change (Rønningstad, 2018). Leaders are in charge of the assignment to legitimize ideas that support the trajectory of the organizational changes, which ensures that the change recipients' values align with the organization's mission statement. The leader moderates the change process and assumes the roles of consultant, coach, trainer, and researcher (Wulandari et al., 2020). As a consultant or coach, a change leader provides organizational members with data and instructions to help with wise decision-making regarding organizational changes and implementations. As a trainer, a change leader helps incorporate members with the basic skills to deal with change, including data analysis and usability. Furthermore, a change leader that act as a researcher assist with the validity and reliability of information or plans needed to enact change in organizations. Change leadership focuses on crafting a vision that reinforces the urgency of change while minimizing the complacency of executions (Hornstein, 2015). Change leaders must groom recipients of change in a manner that prepares them to support and adopt change. This supportive leadership style influences employees' behavior and guides their perceptions of change.

Change leadership is a set of principles, techniques, or activities that guide individuals toward accepting change while minimizing the propensity of resistance (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015). An effective change leader uses transformational and transactional leadership styles to mitigate and manage crises caused by organizational changes (Suryaningtyas et al., 2019). Transformational leaders refine systems that impact the organization while adjusting to the external environment leading the changes (Suryaningtyas et al., 2019). In contrast, transactional leaders work with the daily endeavors of organizational changes (Suryaningtyas et al., 2019). Leadership styles are crucial to an organization's readiness for change because it affects the dynamic and interaction of organizational members (Tucker et al., 2015; Wulandari et al., 2020). Other managerial styles that influence the change process include authoritarian and participative styles (Joshi & Jha, 2017).

The participative or democratic leadership style is a preference for change management because of the premise of protection against resistance and loyalty (Joshi & Jha, 2017). The democratic leadership style is ideal for leaders because the emphasis is on effective communication and information sharing that leads to optimal decision-making. Participative leadership is impractical because of the amount of time allowed for unity. In contrast, scholars argue that the authoritarian or autocratic leadership style is undesirable for strategic change. Authoritarian or autocratic leaders often lead to trust issues among organizational members, increasing resistance against strategic change and ultimately failing change initiatives. Leadership styles impact strategic management, organizational culture, and other variables influencing organizational readiness to change (Wulandari et al., 2020). Therefore, leaders must possess moral compasses and operate under the dictates of ethics (Rahaman et al., 2020). Ethical

leadership involves leaders who conform to appropriate norms. Honest leadership increase trust decreases deviance, deters dysfunctional resistance, reduces turnover, and improve efficacy.

Organizational change includes actions by leaders that result in new behaviors exhibited in the workforce that benefit the entire organization (Petrou et al., 2018). Leaders communicate organizational changes in hopes that employees will accept and adapt to the changes and introduce changes. Managing organizational change is daunting because of the complexities and momentum involved with change (Gupta & Singla, 2016; Joshi & Jha, 2017). Additionally, leaders must make sense of organizational plans to develop and support the change (Kieran et al., 2020). Change leaders use their creative mindsets to forge a new reality as architects and masterminds of change (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015). These leaders are aware of their business environment, the challenges to the status quo, communicating a compelling idea, building coalitions around their vision, encouraging team efforts, and the need for persistence through the change process (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015; McFarland & Jestaz, 2016).

The literature distinguishes between the top and middle managers' roles during the change process (Joshi & Jha, 2017). Historically, top managers are responsible for managing strategic organizational change, but middle managers are the strategic process to change management. Middle managers are responsible for the smooth transition and implementation of change because of the proximity factor (Rahaman et al., 2020). The importance of middle managers' strategic contributions to change management's increased value (Joshi & Jha, 2017). Change management emphasizes the leaders' ability to communicate a compelling vision to stakeholders to advance a strategy that aligns with organizational goals (Pollack & Algeo, 2016). Whether a top or middle manager, they must develop and uphold ownership of the change.

Role of Employees in Organizational Change

Change management aligns with how an organizational manager handles the technical side of change (Singh, 2020). People management is an intricate part of organizational change. The human aspect of organizational change deals primarily with employee resistance. People resist change because of fear, lack of understanding, and frustration (Rahaman et al., 2020; Singh, 2020). Individual readiness for change increases the likelihood of successful change implementations (Singh, 2020). Employees' attitudes toward change are an essential determinant factor of practical change implementations. Employees' attitudes mirrored their beliefs about the change, which impacted productivity. Commitment to change directly reflects an individual's attitude toward the change. Committed employees with positive attitudes promote growth and competitive advantages and drive successful organizational change.

Appelbaum et al. (2017a) indicated that the inherent problem of organizational change is that people who are the most significant factor in organizational change could sometimes serve as the biggest hindrance to achieving positive change. The willingness of employees to welcome change dictates the outcome of the change (Appelbaum et al., 2017b). The human element of organizational change includes individual responses to change (Appelbaum et al., 2017b; Neill et al., 2019). Employee reactions are critical success factors for organizational changes (Morin et al., 2016; Neill et al., 2019). Employee engagement is necessary for the enactment of change (Hornstein, 2015).

Choi (2011) coined the four attitudinal constructs to describe employees' attitudes toward organizational change. The constructs include an employee's readiness for change, commitment to change, openness to change, and skepticism about organizational change (Hornstein, 2015; Mustafa et al., 2019). Models, methods, and techniques are to help organizational managers manage individuals' receptiveness to change (Belias et al., 2019). Studies have been conducted to

address the stress that results from organizational change and its impacts on an employee's overall well-being (Lee et al., 2017). Stressors impacting employees dealing with organizational change include job satisfaction, employee commitment, trust, increased workloads, reduced work engagement, and increased skepticism (Aslam et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2017). The various types of organizational change have exceptional levels of intensity, which impacts employees' attitudes, readiness, and outcomes differently (Lee et al., 2017; Mustafa et al., 2019). Furthermore, organizational change outcomes influence employee engagement, motivation, perspectives, problem-solving, creativity, and satisfaction (Jordan et al., 2015).

Organizational changes directly benefit employees' loyalty and the reception of change (Muzanenhamo et al., 2016). Individuals experience a reaction process as a result of organizational change (Gupta & Singla, 2016). Organizational change produces a perceived efficacy; consequently, if a change is not appropriate, the level of employee satisfaction may not occur (Gupta & Singla, 2016). Employee job crafting behaviors, including reduced job demands and increased job resources, are tools to help employees with organizational change transitions to ensure employees can cope and adjust to changes (Petrou et al., 2018). These behaviors help to elicit favorable responses from employees concerning organizational changes (Petrou et al., 2018). Collective behavior modifications require effective organizational change because employees are active recipients of change (Augustsson et al., 2017). Employee attitudes and beliefs about change dictate the progress and outcome of the change.

Furthermore, organizational members perform a critical role in ensuring the success of change efforts mainly because they are recipients and implementers of the change plans (Moses & Gerwel, 2016). During change, employee behavioral support is crucial to obtaining results during implementation (Tsai & Harrison, 2019). Three critical actions that assist with the

endeavor to gain employee support for change include endorsing employee participation, employing effective communication, and validating the change. These actions fostered employee support for change, generating results for organizations.

Research results indicated that readiness for change is a critical foundation for the implementation process (Moses & Gerwel, 2016). Readiness for change includes the reactions of organizational members and their decisions to accept or resist change (Bakari et al., 2017; Moses & Gerwel, 2016). Organizational readiness for change is belief in the change initiatives (Moses & Gerwel, 2016). Readiness to change includes the attitudes and opinions of employees who are confident in an organizational manager's capability to implement change. Readiness to change is the cognitive and affective side of attitudes toward change (Chaudhry, 2018). Employees' awareness is essential for the emotional aspect of change and serves as another element of readiness (Moses & Gerwel, 2016).

A change elicits emotional reactions, which influence negative and positive responses (Moses & Gerwel, 2016). Therefore, proactive employees who anticipate future change could take the appropriate steps to cope effectively with organizational change (Tummers et al., 2015). High failure rates regarding successful organizational change link to an organizational manager's inability to manage change readiness (Chênevert et al., 2019). Employee openness to change involves the opinion that change would yield benefits for the organization and its members (Chaudhry, 2018). Employee openness relates to the intentional and affective aspects of attitudes. Furthermore, commitment to change includes managers' willingness and intentions to take actions that include the creation of change voluntarily.

Human resource practitioners influence employee attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors that impact the resistance to change (Tummers et al., 2015). HRM researchers who investigate

effective organizational changes consider passive employee outcomes, including job satisfaction, commitment, and turnover. Understanding the notion of passive employee outcomes allows researchers to effectively manage an employee's well-being, burnout, and staffing costs. Nevertheless, managing passive employee outcomes is only one of the solutions when dealing with organizational change because employees could experience job satisfaction and present passive behaviors. Therefore, active employee outcomes must coincide when striving for successful organizational change.

Role of Human Resources (HR) in Effective Organizational Changes

The common practice of organizational managers is to leverage human resource (HR) practitioners to achieve widescale organizational success (Kareem & Mijbas, 2019). Human resource development (HRD) improves employee competencies to enhance an organization's effectiveness and position. HRD also enhances organizational performance, practices, capabilities, and strategies. Consequently, organizational managers who plan for changes must seek human capital to meet and cope with their change in direction.

People are at the center of successful change management, and strategic HR systems influence success (Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015; Sahoo & Sharma, 2015). The literature includes the emphasis that if the people side of change aligns with the business strategy, the employees will enact successful change proposals (Sahoo & Sharma, 2015). Study results indicated that managers who introduce change management prosper when HR practitioners perform a significant role in the change process (Manole & Alpopi, 2015). Therefore, HR practitioners implement and manage change(Raeder, 2019). HR practitioners' functions include competitive advantages resulting from effective change management (Manole & Alpopi, 2015). HR practitioners assume change promoters' roles that add value to organizations during the change

process (Manole & Alpopi, 2015). HR leaders are change catalysts that guide the change process (Bashir et al., 2015). The relationship between HR and organizational change reflects the importance of people as a strategic source of change (Barratt-Pugh & Bahn, 2015). Regarding organizational change, employees may show discriminatory behavior and cooperation during the implementation process, emphasizing the need for strategic human resource management (SHRM) (Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015; Petrou et al., 2018). Some scholars agree that the fabric of change management and human resource management is connected, yet they still need to be more specific (Farquharson & Baum, 2002). Change management involves three schools of thought: (a) individual perspective, (b) group dynamics, and (d) open systems. The open systems school of thought includes the interconnectedness of HRM and change management toward employee attitudes and motivations (Farquharson & Baum, 2002). Employees can emerge as valuable assets when HR policies connect with business objectives. The integration of HR policies and systems with the business strategy opportunities emerge and constraints that streamline change initiatives. Prior research includes the premise that HR practices enhance firm performance because of the positive effect on employees' attitudes and contributions (Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015).

HR professionals seek skillful negotiations when managing long-term change because they realize the complexities that occur with this emotional process (Barratt-Pugh & Bahn, 2015). A strategic HR practitioner's approach to change management includes the vision and goals that the employees associate with the change and utilize the resources while assessing the performance. HR practitioners deal with the continuum of behaviors between change agents and the change recipients (Baran et al., 2019; Barratt-Pugh & Bahn, 2015). The function of the HR practitioner is to assist with the process of sensemaking, which gathers information with the

intent to incorporate the importance of sensemaking in the change process (Barratt-Pugh & Bahn, 2015). HR practitioners create positive outcomes for organizations during transformations by enhancing competency and promoting training and development. In addition, the practitioners provide performance appraisals, manage rewards, and consider employee motivation while improving performance and optimizing results (Chaudhry & Joshi, 2017). HR competencies evolve as a result of changes in business trends (Mcdonnell & Sikander, 2017). Additionally, HR practitioners provide an outlet for grievances during the change process and relay relevant information to organizational members throughout the change process (Chaudhry & Joshi, 2017). These HR practitioners help increase employees' motivation, beliefs, and trust during the change process. Employees can adapt to change more fluently when the HR practitioners engage.

The correlation between employee perceptions of HR practices and their ability to support organizational change through sustainable behaviors could produce positive results (Alfes et al., 2019; Pellegrini et al., 2018). When organizational managers realize sustainability and feel valued by the organizational leaders, employees are more prone to internalize and make sense of stated sustainability (Pellegrini et al., 2018). Clear parameters are set at the conception of a change proposal, which causes change to appear efficient at the initial stage (Raza et al., 2018). Phoolka (2018) affirmed the importance of organizational change readiness to the successful implementation of the change programs. HR practitioners strategically improve employee change readiness, which benefits change plans (Phoolka, 2018).

During transformational (radical) changes, HR practitioners can offer practical conceptual frameworks to change agents for optimal crisis management (Manole & Alpopi, 2015). The strategic development of human resource functions assists managers with operational capabilities, management of better practices during a crisis, and contingency plans to hedge

against future problems. During an emergency, HR practitioners manage the four internal dimensions of an organization, including leadership, business culture, organizational structure, and strategy. Assessing the HRM system practitioners use, analyzing employee development processes, and measuring adaptation capacities, enables managers to design and construct organizational strategies. The strategies include venturing to provide stability for organizations during standard and turbulent times.

The Problem

The specific problem addressed in this study was the notion that organizational managers failed to address the recurring human resources challenge of organizational change during the COVID-19 pandemic within the food service industry in the United States. Failing to address the human resource challenges resulted in a loss of job satisfaction and employee resistance. Samal and Chatterjee (2020) indicated that the failures of change initiatives within the organizational change management context commonly attribute to employee resistance. Therefore, identifying the sources of resistance would help managers develop successful change programs (Lines et al., 2015; Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). Leaders are responsible for successfully implementing organizational changes because they often include a crucial role in managing crises and change (Bakari et al., 2017; Fragouli & Ibidapo, 2015). A crisis is an integral part of development in an organization because of reform and adaptation (Fragouli & Ibidapo, 2015).

Organizational Change Management Failed Initiatives

Organizational change modifies how work occurs in an organization that impacts organizational members and stakeholders (Phoolka, 2018). This phenomenon is a type of alteration, modification, translation, and transformation involved in the overall work environment. A consensus among researchers in the literature exists that indicates if

organizations did not change, they would perish. Some of the reason includes increased efficiencies regarding an organization's mission, strategy, structure, and culture. In addition, policies, systems, process, capabilities, technology, product, externalities, and human capital requires some change to remain competitive. The sustainability of an organization is contingent upon the successful change plans of the organization.

Organizational change is an inevitable occurrence that must transpire at some point in an organization's lifecycle; nevertheless, change can never suddenly lead to opposition and failure (Phoolka, 2018). The importance of research includes the premise that most change management initiatives failed (Barratt-Pugh & Bahn, 2015; Brunetto & Teo, 2018). Approximately two-thirds of planned organizational change initiatives fail (Bakari et al., 2017; Georgalis et al., 2015). Some literature includes the suggestion that as many as 90% of organizational change management efforts will fail to produce the desired end (Aslam et al., 2018; Muzanenhamo et al., 2016).

The consensus among researchers in the literature indicates that most change managers' attempts fail to achieve strategic objectives that involve human factors (Muzanenhamo et al., 2016). The failure of organizational change programs often starts with an organizational manager's inability to effectively unfreeze and create readiness to ensure change proposals are not met with resistance (Phoolka, 2018). Successfully introducing change is the most challenging task organizational managers experience when addressing organizational change. Leaders fail to create necessary change, depending upon their methods, essential to address a particular issue. The failure to address the issue concerning change readiness and employees' attitude toward change can result in missing opportunities and futile development efforts. Understanding the motivations and willingness of employees to adopt change plans is crucial to the successful

implementation of organizational change, which is why change readiness is the source of any change management strategy. Change readiness consists of employees who possess positive views about the organizational change and an organizational manager's ability to enact change. When employees disagree with organizational changes, failure to implement the proposed change results.

The failure to address organizational change may occur because of wrong assumptions, failed attempts to engage change recipients, lack of communication, and mismanagement and understanding of culture (Barratt-Pugh & Bahn, 2015). Employee compliance is foundational to successful change agendas; failures could persist when organizational managers choose the wrong approach to organizational change. Failures occur when organizational managers do not consider the human side of organizational change, focusing primarily on the problem and not on employees (Bakari et al., 2017).

The integrity and efficiency of leadership are other factors that influence success or failure in organizational change (Bakari et al., 2017). Change can only occur if change strategies are appropriate for the employees to follow (Muzanenhamo et al., 2016). Organizational change endeavors by managers who underperform lead to failing change initiatives (McFarland & Jestaz, 2016). The key reason for leaders underperforming is the inability to engage people effectively with the change (McFarland & Jestaz, 2016). People often resist all kinds of change so intensely for reasons still not comprehensible by scholars. A myriad of intersecting issues can cause employee resistance, making decisions to locate the origin of a problem. Change effort failure is by organizational members who resist change (Lines et al., 2015). The resistance to change is any dissenting actions that impede change efforts.

The people aspect of change is unpredictable because individual reactions to change are unpredictable (McFarland & Jestaz, 2016). The basis for a critical determinant of successful change is the responses from change recipients (Holten et al., 2019). Recipients of change react to the content, value, and contextual conditions surrounding change. Organizational changes are costly ventures by managers that often fail to live up to goals and objectives toward change, mainly because of employees' uncontrollable levels of contributions (Morin et al., 2016).

The determination of employees' loyalty depends on successful change implementation, which can lead to achieving the outcome (Schuller et al., 2015). Factors that affect the success of organizational change range from leadership styles to managerial procedures to business culture. Leaders of change introduce the vision, communicate the expectations, and set the changing climate for change recipients. The organizational procedures include the best practices, while the business culture reflects the change. The commitment to change is another factor that determines the success of organizational change initiatives (Feng et al., 2020). Organizational change failure arises when managers lack effective internal communication (Neill et al., 2019). Ineffective communication plagues the organizational change process because employees will only embrace change if they believe in its practicality. Internal communications from managers articulate the organization's vision to the employees, provide clarity of direction, urge beliefs, encourage higher performance, decrease misinformation, and align employee behaviors with strategic goals. Organizational change communication is an appropriate strategy to help employees adjust to change (Petrou et al., 2018). Flexibility is another factor to foster change, impacting the change rate of success (Gupta & Singla, 2016). An additional factor that contributes to failing change initiatives is the lack of employee self-efficacy, which reflects that employees can succeed in a particular area, but not in other situations (Neill et al., 2019).

Researchers suggested that organizational change initiatives fail because the change was never implemented (Appelbaum et al., 2017b). Successful implementation of organizational change requires changes in processes, culture, and structure (Appelbaum et al., 2017b; Gupta & Singla, 2016). Leaders who neglect to address the fundamental human aspects of management fail at implementing organizational change initiatives (Appelbaum et al., 2017a). Unfortunately, no accepted implementation model exist that guide successful change efforts (Brunetto & Teo, 2018). Resistance is another barrier to successfully implementing change (Lines et al., 2015). Failed change initiatives hinder quality, efficiencies, sustainability, problem-solving, and competitiveness (Schuller et al., 2015). Furthermore, failed organizational change initiatives by managers increase costs, turnover, and waste (Schuller et al., 2015).

A leader's behavior plays an essential role in the success of change efforts (Neves & Schyns, 2018). Change can create a context or environment, cultivating destructive leadership behaviors because of the lack of checks and balances during transitions. These dangerous behaviors contribute to the failure rates of organizational changes. Scholars argued that specific organizational characteristics facilitate negative behaviors that are manifest in change leaders. The environment where change occurs influences leadership and employee behaviors that influence the success rate. Furthermore, organizational change, cognitively and emotionally challenges, change recipients and agents (Bleijenbergh, 2018).

Organizational change success rates are relatively low because managers fail to integrate approaches when dealing with change (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015). Change must occur systematically and constructively to minimize the destructive barriers to change, for example, resistance. When managers introduce change for contingency, they must consider the

consequences of change. Change agents require situational and contingency methods to understand how to vary change strategies for the optimal fit to serve their changing environment.

A universal plan for addressing change is ineffective when change is not tailored to the unique change situation and often results in a failing change (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015). Nevertheless, the failure of change initiatives goes well beyond an organizational manager's inability to introduce a sound plan. The root cause of change initiative failures is the incongruence of values between the organization and the adopted approach and type of change. Change initiatives must align with business strategies and values. The failure to address this notion frequently disrupts the progress of change within organizations. Therefore, another element of organizational readiness is a cultural analysis to ensure an organization can survive after a change (Moses & Gerwel, 2016). Cultural norms regulate organizational members' behaviors; therefore, the process can lead to understanding the culture and the impact of how the change will help change agents address the alignment of value issues.

Researchers suggest that employee beliefs directly correlate to employee ownership of the change (Moses & Gerwel, 2016). Involving organizational members in the planning process acts as a powerful tool to reduce the resistance to change by employees. Employees involved in the change process feel a sense of ownership and control, which increases the likelihood of change acceptance (Chaudhry, 2018; Moses & Gerwel, 2016). Consequently, trust in the change increases the readiness to change (Wulandari et al., 2020). Trust in the change and the worth of change impact self-efficacy, change appropriateness, managerial support, and personal benefits. The literature includes the premise that trust between the change agent and the change recipient increases the chances for successful change implementation. Trust has a negative effect on the change but can create organizational commitment.

Commitment to change can classify into three types: (a) affective, (b) normative, and (c) continuance (Appelbaum et al., 2017b). Affective commitment to change is the stance on the inherent need for and benefits of change, whereas normative commitment is the sense of obligation to support a particular change. Continuance commitment to change connects to the costs associated with the failure to support change initiatives (Appelbaum et al., 2017a). The research included how affective commitment has a significant role in the change process and is crucial to successful change efforts (Appelbaum et al., 2017b).

Commitment to change is a mindset to a course of action and is essential for successfully implementing change (Appelbaum et al., 2017a). Commitment to change is the positive behavior that aligns with the strategic vision to work toward the results. Samal and Chatterjee (2020) indicated that change could only receive implementation if employees are willing to support and participate in the change process. Organizational inducements impact the confidence and optimism of employees as they relate to change and foster an environment of trust that often leads to employee commitment to change (Chaudhry, 2018). The initial momentum of organizational change is difficult to sustain because of the internal and external forces working together to create barriers that impact sustainable employee commitment (Narine & Persaud, 2003). If organizational managers cannot effectively address the challenges of organizational change during ordinary times, the challenge only magnifies during times of crisis (Seeger et al., 2005).

Concepts

Organizational change is typologies and characteristics (Shirokova et al., 2014). Most studies regarding organizational change distinguish between incremental and radical change. Different models and frameworks include critical elements and processes that influence

organizational change. These distinctive elements and factors also influence organizational change. Effective organizational change occurs when systems that impact organizations include culture, politics, and technology. In addition, these elements align with organizational components such as mission, vision, tasks, network, people, and process. This section will include two critical concepts regarding job satisfaction and employee resistance that influence the results of organizational change initiatives.

Job Satisfaction and Organizational Change

Organizational change is a difficult task that organizations undertake for the sake of progress (Muzanenhamo et al., 2016). These changes or alterations that businesses deal with influence the organizational life and behaviors of the workforce. Change impacts the work environment, structure, strategy, workplace culture, and human capital. Organizational change traditionally affects workgroups and individuals (Prabhu, 2018). The impact of organizational change on these particular groups or individuals varies because of different perceptions and perspectives. The process of how employees perceive and interpret change has an influence on their emotions concerning job satisfaction (Mikkelsen & Olsen, 2019).

Job satisfaction involves an individual's emotional state, either positive or pleasurable, as a result of the appraisal from managers or supervisors regarding work performance (Øygarden et al., 2020). Personnel perceptions and satisfaction are in human resource practitioners' duties because of their vital role in the organizations (Sisti et al., 2019). Organizational change initiated by managers undermines personnel perceptions and satisfaction because of their failed attempts to address and manage change effectively. Job dissatisfaction can harm an employee's performance (Øygarden et al., 2020). Organizational managers who initiate change ultimately attempt to modify the structure, practices, goals, and capabilities of employees within the

organization (Yousef, 2017). Attitudes toward organizational change involve an employee's overall judgment regarding change initiatives. Yousef (2017) indicated that a person's approach to change aligns with cognitions about change, affective reactions to change, and behavioral trends regarding the change. Cognitive responses regarding change consist of opinions regarding the advantages, usefulness, and management (Yousef, 2017). Affective responses refer to the degree of sensitivity regarding satisfaction with change. Behavioral trends toward change are the actions that occur before or after a change.

Job satisfaction is a complex concept regarding an employee's unique opinion on change (Muzanenhamo et al., 2016). Ultimately, job satisfaction is an employee's pleasant or positive emotional state after a comparative assessment of their work experience. The intrinsic and extrinsic aspect of an employee's job is a consideration regarding their perception (Muzanenhamo et al., 2016; Prabhu, 2018). Personal preferences, positive work associations, and the dynamics of organizational culture influence an employee's job satisfaction (Muzanenhamo et al., 2016). The overall assessment of work-related experiences that guide an individual's values, ideals, and beliefs is another view of job satisfaction. This viewpoint of job satisfaction is a multidimensional concept that includes an employee's perception, opinion, and analysis of their current job. Some definitions of job satisfaction relate to the particular job an employee performs. At the same time, other definitions contain a more comprehensive definition to include all job-related factors that contribute to an employee's satisfaction. Job-related factors that impact employee satisfaction include job opportunities, the use of skills, and the type of work. In addition, the factors include performance dynamics, managerial practices, work environment, policies, and organizational changes (Øygarden et al., 2020).

Empirical studies connect job satisfaction to attitudes toward organizational change and reveal direct and indirect correlations (Yousef, 2017). The findings include the premise that satisfaction regarding working conditions, pay, leadership, and job security influence affective and behavioral attitudes toward change (Cherif, 2020; Yousef, 2017). Furthermore, cognitive and affective attitudes toward change increase when employees meet specific criteria (Yousef, 2017). Chang and Kang (2019) discovered that job satisfaction directly affects attitudes toward organizational change. Schouten and Van Der Vleuten (2013) posited that the impact of organizational changes on job satisfaction determines the negative correlation between these factors (Yousef, 2017). Additionally, organizational commitment acts as a mediator between the perceived efficacy of organizational change processes and job satisfaction. Yousef (2017) indicated that various facets of job satisfaction have direct and indirect effects on attitudes toward organizational change based on the dimensions of organizational commitment.

Researchers characterize job satisfaction as indispensable for organizational performance (Gupta & Singla, 2016). Attitudes toward a job may vary depending upon the aspects of the job and the work environment. Job satisfaction influences the dynamic of work to include efficiency, productivity, and commitment. Gupta and Singla (2016) stated that job satisfaction influences productivity. In addition, job satisfaction remains intact when managers manage change efficiently. Emotions and perceptions often guide behavior. The assumption is that the more satisfied employees are with the job, the more productivity will emerge. Gupta and Singla (2016) explained that job satisfaction refers to the ability of workers to fulfill a particular need that results in some form of enjoyment for an employee. Vroom (1982) defined job satisfaction as the emotional state of a worker toward a particular job (Gupta & Singla, 2016). This definition

appeals to the psychological disposition of individuals toward their work, which appeals to feelings.

Employee job satisfaction is a critical success factor because it can lead to increased commitment levels and decreased job-related problems (Gupta & Singla, 2016). The planning of change positively correlates with job satisfaction, while the oscillation frequency negatively correlates (Mouza & Souchamvali, 2016). Other factors that increase the probability of job satisfaction include suitable compensation and advancement opportunities. In addition, leadership dynamics and styles, working environment, organizational structure, business culture, and work climate increases the probability of job satisfaction (Gupta & Singla, 2016). The success of organizational managers depends on the performance of their human resources practitioners, which emphasizes employees' skills, competencies, attitudes, motivations, and commitment (Cherif, 2020). Employees have positive attitudes toward change when HRM practitioners promote employee beliefs, which impact their involvement, identification, and loyalty. HRM practices are considered a method or tool to encourage employee job satisfaction. Furthermore, scholars noted the strong correlation between employee satisfaction and effective HRM practices, including recruitment, training and development, compensation, and performance appraisal.

The effectiveness of change initiatives is a prevailing concern for organizations because of the impact of sustainability in organizations (Muzanenhamo et al., 2016). The uncertainty of organizational change affects employees and influences their attitudes and job satisfaction. Uncertainties about organizational change negatively influence motivation and commitment, affecting employee satisfaction (Haynie et al., 2016). The uncertainties within the organizational change process can stimulate job dissatisfaction among employees (Haynie et al., 2016;

Muzanenhamo et al., 2016). The types of organizational change include downsizing, growth, personnel change, job redesign, and management change. In addition, types of organizational change include reconstructing, mergers and acquisitions. These types of job changes can influence employee behaviors and attitudes uniquely and can impact organizations (Muzanenhamo et al., 2016). Past organizational changes can also have an influence on employee attitudes and behaviors because past experiences can shape present expectations. An example of how the different types of organizational change influence job satisfaction differently include downsizing. However, when an organization downsizes, job dissatisfaction can also increase because of the additional demands and increased workload resulting from having fewer employees (Muzanenhamo et al., 2016).

Communication is a significant factor when job satisfaction and organizational change interconnect (Muzanenhamo et al., 2016). Job satisfaction increases when change is timely, accurate, and transparent. Contrastingly, job satisfaction decreases with insufficient information regarding change, prevailing insecurities about change, and a lack of confidence in leadership. Furthermore, inefficient coping mechanisms decrease job satisfaction (Øygarden et al., 2020). Researchers find job control effective coping mechanisms when discussing employee attitudes toward change (Nguyen et al., 2018). Agreeing with certain change efforts impacts job satisfaction (Øygarden et al., 2020).

Most organizational changes involve a certain level of uncertainty that causes stress for employees (Haynie et al., 2016). How employees cope with and react to these stressors caused by change is vital to organizational leaders. Barriers to successful change initiatives are hindrance stressors (Haynie et al., 2016). Meta-analytic results confirm the negative correlation between hindrance stressors unfavorably impacting job attitudes and job satisfaction. Change

that involves uncertainties produce many obstacles for employees leading to increasing job dissatisfaction (Haynie et al., 2016). Organizational changes signify disruptions to the norm, which could challenge an employee's work motivation or job satisfaction.

Challenges of Organizational Change as it Relates to Employee Resistance

Empirical studies emphasize that every type of change includes resistance (Singh, 2020). Rodat (2018) noted that resistance to change is an ordinary and universal human and social experience. Negative attitudes toward organizational change are the critical catalyst for employee resistance. Overcoming conflict caused by change is an essential feature of successful change management. Therefore, addressing employee resistance is necessary for successfully managing organizational conflict from change campaigns. While numerous reasons exist for less-than-optimal change results, recognizing employee resistance is a significant contributor to failing change initiatives (Georgalis et al., 2015). Employees are critical to the change process because they can classify as either change recipients or change implementers.

Consequently, the literature includes the propensity of resistance to change based on the contextual experiences relating to change outcomes and implementation (Georgalis et al., 2015). The lack of congruence between the employees' values and change objectives leads to employee resistance (Schuller et al., 2015). Researchers indicated that an employee's perception of fairness in change management influence an employee's attitude toward organizational change (Georgalis et al., 2015). Additionally, the methods of change, including the leaders' role in the implementation process, influenced employees' reactions to change (Holten et al., 2019). Resistance to change is an attempt or conduct that challenges the efforts to alter the norm (Georgalis et al., 2015). Maintaining the norm when experiencing change is the natural response of change agents who resist organizational adjustments (Georgalis et al., 2015).

Resistance is an inevitable consequence of organizational change initiatives and is the most critical opposition to any organizational transformation (Juliboni & Garibaldi, 2018). Fear is the reasoning behind the low threshold or tolerance for change. Resistance to organizational change can begin because of fear of the unknown. Institutionalized resistance to organizational change can occur as a pattern of behavior that change agents exhibit. A rigorous critique that intends to suppress and reject organizational change plans is the essence of institutionalized resistance. Personnel can be highly resistant to change, especially involving changes within the organizational culture (Skogland & Hansen, 2017). Successfully implementing change campaigns is contingent on the level of resistance to change organizations encounter (Hornstein, 2015). The degree to which employees cooperate with change efforts determines successful organizational change plans (Hornstein, 2015).

The concept of resistance to change originates from Lewin's model of organizational change, which includes the driving forces that cause the unfreezing, moving, and freezing effect of change (Lines et al., 2015). These are the catalysts that either create or resist change. The resistance to change categorizes into three dimensions. The first dimension is cognitive, which includes how employees conceptualize change. The second dimension is practical, which emphasizes the emotional and psychological response. The next dimension is behavioral, which involves an employee's actions and responses. The first two dimensions (cognitive and affective) are the reason for resistance, while the last dimension (behavioral) is the manifestation of resistance. Different types of resistive behaviors to a change include reluctant compliance.

Reluctant compliance includes change agents doing the minimum requirement for change initiatives. In addition, the change agents' delay involves the procrastination of employees who verbally consent to change efforts but fail to follow through on agreements (Lines et al., 2015).

The lack of transparency involves employees' deliberate attempts to hide or conceal helpful information for successful change implementation. Restricting education includes avoiding or confining the expansion of the change message or strategy. Other restrictive behaviors include arguing, open criticism, and obstructing or subverting change initiatives. In addition, restrictive behaviors include spreading negative propaganda throughout the organization regarding the change. Furthermore, restrictive behavior can lead to resignations during the implementation process.

Many personal reasons exist for the resistance to implementing change (Will, 2015). Resistance to change occurs with differing opinions concerning how the change should transpire. Another opposition to change occurs when the justification for the change is not necessary. Change proposals may not be feasible for an organization's current climate or culture, which often produces resistance. Organizational readiness and communication have an influence on employee behaviors; therefore, when inappropriate strategies occur with the introduction of change initiatives, employee resistance often follows (Will, 2015). Furthermore, the skills of both employees and managers may differ from organizational change objectives, which can lead to motivational problems and, ultimately, resistance. Other factors that motivate managers but may not motivate employees include opposing worldviews about organizational change, equality concerns regarding fairness, additional mandates, and separation anxiety from team members and norms (Rodat, 2018; Will, 2015).

The resistance to change is a significant hindrance to the successful implementation of change within organizations (Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). The resistance to change occurs from an individualistic viewpoint with much attention toward employee attitudes (Rodat, 2018; Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). Individual past experiences with change influence the commitment and

reception of current change initiatives (Moses & Gerwel, 2016). Factors that empower resistance to change include fear, mistrust, ambiguity, hostility, and conflict (Georgalis et al., 2015; Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). Therefore, scholars conceptualize resistance to change as a pathological method to ensure successful change implementation (Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). Resistance to change occurs at the organizational and group level (Georgalis et al., 2015; Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). Resistance at the organizational level includes issues within the organizational culture, conflict and power dynamics, and improper change direction (Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). The group level of resistance to change includes incompatible group norms or values and groupthink.

Trust in management, effective communication about the change, and employee involvement are all central to the reception of organizational change and reducing resistance (Caliskan & Isik, 2016). Empirical studies include the premise that change process factors are potential links to resistance (Appelbaum et al., 2017a). Trust in management is a dominant variable to all resistant components. Change management support from leaders manifests in many forms, including competencies in dealing with changes, a high level of communication, and relevant feedback (Appelbaum et al., 2017b). The relationship between change managers and change agents is essential when discussing resistance because of the correlation between employee perceptions of justice and resistance to change (Georgalis et al., 2015). Researchers suggest that the perception of unfair employee treatment during the change process could lead to resentment, decreased motivation, lowered productivity, and producing employee resistance. Resistance to change reduce with organizational, procedural, distributive, and interactional justice (Appelbaum et al., 2017b). Retaliatory tendencies that arise when dealing with organizational change are minimal when employees perceive the change as fair and equitable (Appelbaum et al., 2017b). Furthermore, employees often resist change when they feel

threatened and impending loss because of the change (Appelbaum et al., 2017a). Justice

researchers theorize that fairness in the change process results in successful change

implementation (Appelbaum et al., 2017a). In general, fairness or justice predicates openness,

acceptance, cooperation, and satisfaction regarding the change (Appelbaum et al., 2017b).

Resistance to change is a negative or undesirable response; however, positive resistance

attributes exist (Moses & Gerwel, 2016). Scholars argue that positive intentions could motivate

resistance to change. This premise includes the information that productive resistance transpires

when the change's resistance adds benefits from employee feedback (Appelbaum et al., 2017a).

The resistance to change enables managers to understand change agents' assumptions, which

allows them to streamline communication. In addition, anticipated and controlled expectations or

unwanted effects could manage the pace of change (Rodat, 2018). Dealing with resistance to

change involves focusing on individual factors that influence change, making change vital for

change managers to acknowledge resistance as a natural response to a disruption of the norm

(Samal & Chatterjee, 2020).

Theories

Organizational change encompasses many different beliefs regarding management,

proper approach, effectiveness, failures, and successes (de Waal & Heijtel, 2017). The leading

theory concerning the management of change initiatives is planning the change approach. The

planned change approach defaults to phases to-establish change that makes rational project

selection plausible. Planned change is often a managerial approach with a perspective that

reflects that the organizational environment is stable and predictable. Change is identifiable and

can move throughout the change process through clear steps. Employee resistance will not hinder

change efforts and employees' beliefs. This approach employs task-oriented skills that establish

routines to achieve organizational goals. Change members gain person-oriented skills during the

planning change approach to promoting collaborative interactions. In addition, setting a

supportive organizational culture and climate and promoting organizational practices encourage

equitable treatment of organizational members.

The emergent change approach is unpredictable, unrestricted, and continuous. That could

relate to an altering environment (de Waal & Heijtel, 2017). The emergent perspective includes

the volatile individual parts of organizations that adapt individually and incrementally. Individual

parts include employees who deal with impromptu daily routines, contingencies, failures, and

opportunities and prompt diverse adaptation methods for coping with change. Emergent change

is minor and often unnoticeable in practice. This approach employs a bottom-up approach that

includes the organization's individual parts to implement the necessary changes without

bureaucratic direction from the top. The emergent perspective includes innovative change

allowing experiments while encouraging risk-taking to yield the appropriate results for practical

change implementations. An organizational climate that embraces emergent change includes

clear direction, a developed common purpose, and active management to evaluate the changes

effectively.

Theories and approaches regarding organizational change can appear complex and

confusing (Alase, 2017). Change management theories are complex, mainly because

organizational change as a concept is complex because of the ambiguities that exist with

transformations (Islam et al., 2020). Change theories include the premise that claims to possess

the remedies or *know-how* for amending organizational problems. Change theories are

inaccessible and incomprehensible to the novice person. Alase (2017) claimed that a review of

organizational change could ease some of the confusion surrounding change theories. In

addition, organizational change helps to guide change agents toward the appropriate approach that fits the situation. Caldwell (2003) identified a pivotal inhibitor to the successful implementation of change theory as a complex interface between the different change agents within an organization (Andrews et al., 2008).

Another critical perspective includes the premise that some organizational change theories reflect instrumental motivations and reasoning with questionable relevancies (Andrews et al., 2008). The usefulness of organizational imperialism includes cultural domination, imposition, and fragmentation. The challenges of organizational imperialism include challenges and rejection by many scholars as a plausible way to manage organizational change. Instead, an alternative approach to conceptualize change management involves sharing implications known for its *cultural emancipation* and receiving high acceptance. Change is not an exclusive tendency to a particular organization but rather a universal norm that must receive acceptance. Another vigorous critique of organizational change theory is the assumption that managerialism, which ignores power differentials, categorizes change in general terms while ignoring unique situations. Managers who focus on the presents of change while ignoring the continuity of change reject the idea of change management.

Another pervasive theory of organizational change is the micro-level cognitive organizational theory (COT) (Ad van den et al., 2017). The micro-level COT involves four sets of theoretical constructs: (a) asperity, (b) intricacy, (c) opacity and viscosity (Ad van den et al., 2017). The features of the organization's texture determine the consequences of organizational change. Asperity refers to the restrictiveness of culture regarding an organization's identity, which is problematic with change (Ad van den et al., 2017). The requirement and intricacy include the intra-organizational or sub-divisional interconnectedness of business units, which

complicates the organizations (Ad van den et al., 2017). Opacity involves the structural limits of organizational change, including the length, costs, and risks of change. Opacity varies on the configuration of organizations, while viscosity refers to the length of time business managers take to correct violations as a result of change initiatives (Ad van den et al., 2017). Other constructs of the COT include organizational change as a catalyst to subsequent changes and organizational change as a deterrence to intrinsic appeal for internal audiences that may or may not translate into actual appeal (Ad van den et al., 2017). Lastly, the relationship between an intrinsic and actual appeal receives moderation by engagement.

The conceptualization of organizational change theories and approaches dominated the topic of discussion for more than three decades. Minimal insight or credible recommendations on turning organizations around exist (Alase, 2017). The older theories of organizational change resembling the theory of unfreezing, moving, and refreezing change could be straightforward in the approach compared to the more recent complex theories (Lewin & Dorwinc, 1951). Newer change theories are more theoretically-based rather than practical. Many authors seek to simplify the contemporary approaches to organizational change to help make sense of change as a concept (Alase, 2017). Alase (2017) stated that a need exists for the re-conceptualization of organizational change to implement change initiatives properly and feasibly. However, the consensus of what constitutes a good change theory may need to be revised, even with some wholesome approaches to change by organizations (Alase, 2017).

The appropriate approach to handling change is acknowledging the organizational climate, culture, and leadership dynamic surrounding the change (Alase, 2017). Acknowledging these functions establishes an organizational leader's readiness for the transformations. The interplay of different ideologies and perspectives can help organizations conceptualize

organizational change more transparently. Alase (2017) argued that no discipline involves a single ideology that explains the fullness of organizational change. Diverse disciplines and worldviews scratch the surface of issues pertaining to organizational change (Alase, 2017). Understanding this notion provides opportunities for managers to develop new theories with stronger and broader implications on how change works and interacts with its agents. Four theories explaining the *hows and whys* of organizational change include the life cycle change theory. The life cycle change theory includes the survival of organizations to a living organism, and the teleological change theory includes the purpose and goals of organizations to promote cooperation. The dialectical change theory is a complex theory that can inspire opposition and conflict during the change process. The evolutionary theory t includes the necessity of change and adaptation to avoid a static organization. Arranging different theories into a typology eventually helps with the analytical phase of the change process. The change process reveals when organizational change mechanisms are understood. For example, the differences between sporadic and continuous change begin with the diverse perspectives of the observers. Organizational change is not a fantasy but rather a sort after mechanism that caters to problems in business).

Four common issues to all change efforts are in the organizational change literature, including the contextual problems that include forces in business environments and content issues that include the substance of organizational change. In addition, process issues emphasize actions taken during the change process, and criterion issues are the center of the outcome of change (Cataldo, 2005; Kuna, 2017). Change managers and consultants utilize management theories to understand how organizational change initiatives challenge norms that trigger conflict (Kuna, 2017). Change management theories include the premise of processes that optimize

stakeholders' changing preferences and needs. These theories center around the thorough planning and execution of change initiatives that are strategical, tactical, and functional (Oettl et al., 2018).

In many changes, management theories change recipients, and their response to change are factors in successfully implementing change (Islam et al., 2020; Sætren & Laumann, 2017). These theories include the phenomenon of resistance to change and highlight the importance of controlling opposition to complete the change process. Change management theories reflect on employee behaviors because managing people is the source of effectively managing change (Islam et al., 2020). Employees' involvement with the change process often determines the success and failures of change initiatives. Prompting change management philosophies to stress the different typologies of employee behavior during the change process includes employee (a) resistance, (b) readiness, (c) attitudes, (d) and motivations (Islam et al., 2020). Change management theories from the West include scrutinizing employee behaviors in the Western context influenced by cultural standards (Islam et al., 2020). In addition, change management theories feature effective leadership styles such as (a) transformational, (b) transactional, and (c) authentic leadership, which directly influence the change process and success.

Change strategies that make the discontinuous change management concepts help change managers shift the behaviors of change recipients in favor of the organizational change (Pulinka, 2020). This theory includes the notion that organizational change must receive direction from management or change leaders. Change leaders' choice of change management approaches includes the level of opposition, relationship management, power of the initiators, and commitment to change. The necessity or urgency of change and the rate of risk of failure threatens that change can occur in the future.

Change management theories include the implementation process using four implementation strategies. The strategies include (a) intervention, (b) participation, (c) persuasion, and (d) edict tactics that align with setting and executing strategic goals and expectations of change plans (Pulinka, 2020). A change management approach can include two factors on the intricate components of organizations (referred to as the *E*-type change) and the soft features of change (known as the *O* change type) (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015; Pulinka, 2020). The change management scheme of type *E* corresponds with the discontinuous, guided or top-down approach to change. In contrast, the *O* change type takes on a participative approach that includes planning and is discontinuous in nature. Theory *E* is the overall economic value of change that includes incentives, layoffs, and downsizing. Theory *O* centers on organizational capabilities that involve organizational culture and human resource factors (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015; Pulinka, 2020).

The eight-step model is the best change management model, similar to the *O* change model (Pulinka, 2020). The purpose of the change model is to reflect steps or stages in a strict order to the proper sequence to ensure successful change management. Motivation, commitment, collaboration, vision, and communication are critical factors. The eight-step model is a relevant l model but not equipped for frequent or spontaneous change. This led to the double operating order theory that accounts for the continuous change in organizations. The most complex change management approach reflects change and learning as inseparable concepts that influence the sustainability of organizations. Organizational learning, an organization's self-knowledge process, includes proper situational awareness for effective and lasting change. Organizational learning is a guide to a procedure similar to the type *E* change approach. Learning as a change management theory or principle must include continuous practical support to change plans.

Prospect theory includes the principles of employee resistance to organizational change (Adriaenssen & Johannessen, 2016). Prospect theory, created by Kahneman and Tversky (1979), asserted that leaders could intervene to ensure change efforts succeed if people know why they resist organizational change. Kahneman and Tversky identified seven propositions that explain how managerial strategies deter change. The prospect theory includes seven measures that support the implementation of successful organizational change (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). This theory asserts that risk relates to assumptions that determine the trajectory of change outcomes. The prospect theory reflects how people make assessments on perceived gains or losses resulting from a choice. Consequently, the prospect theory includes that resistance to change will occur if a high risk of potential loss exists as a result of organizational change. The reason for resistance to change is that most people are risk-averse and fearful of losing something they have already received, including income, job responsibilities, rights, positions, and knowledge (Adriaenssen & Johannessen, 2016).

Herzberg's theory of job satisfaction includes the premise of how work attitudes relate to job satisfaction and how job dissatisfaction relates to different underlying job factors (Bitsch & Hogberg, 2005). Job satisfaction is the most work attitude orientation with significant bearing on individual behaviors (Bitsch & Hogberg, 2005). Job satisfaction is a general attitude toward a worker's current job and organization by certain feelings, beliefs, and thoughts regarding their employment. The motivation to work theory is premised on the belief that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not extremes on a continuum. Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are responses caused by distinct factors and are not interchangeable. Herzberg's theory identifies five factors as solid determinants of job satisfaction. The five factors include (a) achievement, (b) recognition, (c) work, and (d) responsibility (Bitsch & Hogberg, 2005). Achievement involves an

individual's relationship with their job involvement and content (Bitsch & Hogberg, 2005; Saehya & Blum, 2020).

Growth is the sixth factor in Herzberg's theory (2011). Herzberg et al. concluded that the factors could prevent or cause dissatisfaction but are not the cause of actual satisfaction. The factors are hygiene or motivator factors. Hygiene factors associated with working conditions and environments include (a) compensation, (c) interpersonal relationships, and (d) company policies. Motivators allude to higher-order needs to have (a) self-development, (b) opportunities, (c) achievements, and (d) recognition (Hur, 2018). Herzberg's two-factor theory included the premise that hygiene and motivator factors affect various aspects of job satisfaction and are distinct from those that lead to job dissatisfaction. Therefore, the opposite of job satisfaction is no job satisfaction rather than job dissatisfaction (Hur, 2018; Saehya & Blum, 2020). The opposite of job dissatisfaction is no job dissatisfaction rather than job satisfaction, nullifying a correlation between satisfaction and dissatisfaction and making the two concepts separate and unipolar regarding employment. However, researchers support the notion that job satisfaction correlates with motivation (Hur, 2018).

Other theories in the change management discipline include the duality theory, which implies that stability and change, order and disorder, and predictability and unpredictability function under the same order (Sutherland & Smith, 2011). The theory of constraints (TOC) includes a traditional view of change management that aligns with the resistance to change and practical means to deal with change (Mabin et al., 2001). TOC includes a focus on constraints that prevent organizational employees from optimizing at maximum performance (Moroz et al., 2016). These constraints consist of (a) system limitations, (b) a lack of knowledge, (c) time constraints, (d) market restrictions, and (e)capacity limits. TOC includes a set of analytical tools

that includes the thinking process or assumptions, which includes a set of systematic procedures and rules that has leverage points to orchestrate a plan to achieve organizational changes. The three simple assumptions of TOC are basic assumptions, which contend that everything within a system is by a cause and effect relationship. Basic assumption two implies that all contradictions include resolution without compromise. Assumption three includes that no resistance exists to improvement; individuals will embrace change when they can see the benefits for themselves.

Managers use the theory of planned behavior to understand the intentions and motives of employees to support organizational change (Jimmieson et al., 2008). Fu and Juan (2017) postulated that the theory of planned behavior is a prudent model that includes an explanation of human conduct. Human behavior includes (a) intentions, (b) attitudes, (c) subjective norms, and (d) perceived behavioral control (David & Rundle-Thiele, 2018; Shin & Kim, 2015; Wang et al., 2015). The theory of planned behavior includes the premise that behavioral intention is a measure of the power or strength of an individual's willingness to perform certain behaviors (Fu & Juan, 2017; Shin & Kim, 2015).

Attitudes reflect an individual's reaction to certain situations and behaviors (Fu & Juan, 2017; Shin & Kim, 2015). Subjective norms refer to the social pressures that individuals believe exist, forcing them to perform or not to perform the behavior. This phenomenon relates to the perception of expectations held by others (Fu & Juan, 2017). The behavioral control concept includes the extent to which a person perceives the limitations of their capabilities and capacities (Fu & Juan, 2017; Shin & Kim, 2015). Perceived behavioral control is ultimately the perception regarding the degree of ease or difficulty in performing a particular behavior (Fu & Juan, 2017). The theory of planned behavior includes the importance of an individual's intention to engage in a behavior (Wu, 2015). Furthermore, the expectancy theory includes an individual's behavior.

The expectancy theory determines cognitive appraisals concerning the consequences of an individual's behavior and the potential risks in their current situation (Shin & Kim, 2015).

Constructs and Variables

The treatment of organizational change by change recipients is evaluating change characteristics, which is a critical construct that includes the degree of commitment to organizational change (Lee et al., 2017). The commitment to organizational change is the mindset that confines an individual to the behavior or course of action to accomplish organizational change goals and successfully implement change initiatives. The commitment to change as a variable or construct vital to successful organizational change includes three forms: affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment.

Affective commitment to organizational change is the desire and cooperative effort to support change initiatives because of the belief that the change will reflect inherent benefits to the change recipients (Lee et al., 2017). Normative commitment refers to the sense of obligation or responsibility to support the change, while continuance commitment includes costs associated with the failure to provide support for change initiatives (Lee et al., 2017). The commitment to change includes acknowledging the importance of employee participation to achieve change results (Lee et al., 2017).

Another variable affiliated with the successful management of change is the organizational culture (Skogland & Hansen, 2017). Organizational culture is the core of businesses that consist of mutual levels. Organizational culture pertains to how members think, behave, and perform, which impacts the focus of organizational change (Palumbo & Manna, 2019; Suwaryo et al., 2015). Culture is the pattern of collective assumptions of values and

behaviors within the social interaction, which determine social norms and practices (Barratt-Pugh & Bahn, 2015; Dark et al., 2017; Fragouli & Ibidapo, 2015; Suwaryo et al., 2015).

From an organizational perspective, cultural values among members result in similar viewpoints (Savovic, 2017). Any change to a culture that disrupts these patterns, assumptions, and understanding will produce different customs or resistance (Barratt-Pugh & Bahn, 2015). The organizational culture includes standard systems understood by the members, distinguishing one organization from another (Camelia et al., 2019). Jordan et al. (2015) indicated that organizational culture is a vital issue or element in organizational change efforts. Organizational culture is an essential factor that aligns with employees' suitability or strategic fit, business practices, and the organization's current structure (Suwaryo et al., 2015). Any transformation involving the human resource sector and organizational structure can sometimes take work to enact. Organizational culture is essential to organizational change because it increases organizational effectiveness. Organizational effectiveness is intricate in achieving change goals and acts as behavior guidance that may impact resistance (Moses & Gerwel, 2016; Suwaryo et al., 2015). Organizational culture is a critical determinant of the success or failure of change initiatives (Moses & Gerwel, 2016). This occurrence is that the ability to enact changes throughout an organization is contingent on the organizational culture (Dark et al., 2017). Organizational culture has four cultural orientations. The orientation includes power that favors individuals with power, a rules-based role, an achievement that includes common goals, and support from building trust(Suwaryo et al., 2015). The orientation impacts the way individuals conceptualize and respond to change. Palumbo and Manna (2019) suggested that change could only transpire by changing an existing organizational culture (Dark et al., 2017).

Additionally, organizational culture is a term interchangeable with the term employee (Moses & Gerwel, 2016). Furthermore, researchers refer to the term organizational culture as organizational climate (Camelia et al., 2019). Organizational culture impacts change commitment and readiness differently. Empirical researchers revealed that a positive correlation exists between organizational culture and organizational commitment. In addition, the researchers reveal a negative association between organizational culture and the readiness to change (Suwaryo et al., 2015). These findings are vital for change managers seeking to address organizational changes successfully. Organizational culture impacts an organization's strategy, structure, and process.

Scholars suggest that organizational change would only succeed if the organizational culture changed simultaneously to fit the new norms strategically. Organizational culture has a leading role in the performance of an organization mainly because it influences expressions and triggers emotions during a change (Camelia et al., 2019). Organizational culture impacts an organization's trajectory, change initiatives, implementation process, leadership, employee involvement, training, communication, and ethics. Ethical issues concern the concepts of rightness and unfairness. Employees' perceptions guide the acceptance or resistance to change. These perceptions originate in an organization's culture that impacts organizational change. Organizational culture as a tool cultivates supportive environments and influences a social control mechanism that encourages or hinders practices for successful change (Arif et al., 2017).

The external environment is another critical variable concerning organizational change (Arif et al., 2017). Achieving organizational change gained momentum and curiosity when external crises arose. Change plans succeed when organizational leaders identify the environmental conditions necessary for the change. External environments include forces outside

an organization's boundaries that impact a firm's efficiencies (Meddour et al., 2016). Establishing an external environment that enhances an organization's positioning is a pivotal element in supporting the implementation of organizational activities and changes. External drivers influence the external environment prompting an organizational response (Emamisaleh & Rahmani, 2017).

The business environment comprises a set of relationships between stakeholders in the environment who determine the course of these relationships through their individual decisions (Mason, 2007). These interactions continuously create the business environment, which is ever-changing. Businesses' external environment is ever-changing and complex, requiring organizational leaders to adapt to their surroundings (Neneh, 2016). The successes and failures of organizations are contingent upon critical external environmental factors. External factors pressure organizations to change their internal operations when shifts in the external environment occur (Kusano & Sanada, 2019). When organizational managers fail to align with changing expectations of their external environment, a legitimacy gap arises, often leading to a crisis. The external context of organizations impacts the change processes, content, goals, and coping mechanisms but excludes factors dealing with social, political, and sectoral environments (Guard & Gao, 2016). Approaching the organizational change imposed on firms from their external environment includes sensemaking strategies from a cognitive perspective (Lundgren-Henriksson & Kock, 2016). Contextual researchers of organizational change stress the importance of an effective response to environmental changes (Hong et al., 2019). Organizations require contexts in their change process that include a motivating force and corresponding structure to help change constituents survive the disruptive change from their external

environment. External threats are change drivers that enable organizational members to move forward with desirable changes (Hong et al., 2019).

Related Studies

Table 2

Organizational Change Amid COVID-19

Author(s)	Title, Year
Baccarani et al.	Climate change and organizational management: A new paradigm. (2021).
Li et al.	Employee coping with organizational change in the face of a pandemic: The role of transparent internal communication. (2021).
Aitken and von Treuer	Leadership behaviors that foster organizational identification during change. (2021).
Imran and Iqbal	How change leadership affects adaptability? Investigating the moderated mediation effect of cognitive resistance and change efficacy. (2021).
Maruti et al.	Everything will be fine: A study on the relationship between employees' perception of sustainable HRM practices and positive organizational behavior during COVID-19. (2020).

Note. **List of Related Studies**

Background of the Restaurant Industry

The background of the restaurant industry and its personnel was an essential subject in this research probe. The restaurant industry has grown for over 50 years and is a staple in the American diet (DiPietro et al., 2007). The casual dining industry was popular in the 1970s and 1980s when specializations and quicker services emerged as a strategic shift to appeal to customers (DiPietro et al., 2007). These shifts in the industry caused a knowledgeable staff who serve at a much higher level. Services rendered at a casual dining restaurant differ from quick service restaurants regarding expectations.

However, many services changed to some degree because of the COVID-19 pandemic (DiPietro et al., 2020). Before the food service industry disruption because of the COVID-19 pandemic, estimates reported that approximately 15.6 million people in the United States were working in the restaurant industry, with expected growth to reach over 16 million by the year 2026 (DiPietro et al., 2007). According to the National Restaurant Association, the anticipation of sales projections was almost $900 billion. Irrespective of the COVID-19 pandemic's impact, the restaurant industry leaders were responsible for ensuring that employees receive training on the safe handling of food (DiPietro et al., 2007). Researchers indicate that food handling during the pandemic did not meet the standards regarding proper food safety behaviors—pressures to ensure employee acceptance with heightened food safety protocols complicated this ensuing issue.

The restaurant industry remains customer-centric, emphasizing customer satisfaction to yield profitability to ensure sustainability (Koshki et al., 2014). Service quality and customer satisfaction remain at the core of marketing and management priorities in the restaurant industry because these factors are prerequisites for consumer loyalty. Managers in the service sectors, like the restaurant industry, are cognizant of employees' interactions with customers because a favorable atmosphere and good service impact customer value (Koshki et al., 2014; Po-Tsang & Hu, 2010). Competitive advantages increase and sustain in the food service industry when customer value is high and pressure employees to perform at a high caliber (Po-Tsang & Hu, 2010). The restaurant industry is a primary U.S. industry with a growing demographic of foreign-born workers (Tsai & Bruck, 2009). Since 2000, immigrant workers have steadily increased within the restaurant industry.

Furthermore, reachers documented multiple instances of workplace hazards in restaurants that result in serious injuries ranging from cuts and burns to respiratory issues and cancers (Tsai & Bruck, 2009). Additionally, musculoskeletal pain and disorders can occur because of working within the food service industry. Repetitive motions, lifting, and other duties are reasons for these disorders. Although research scarcity exists regarding mental health, some scholars believe that restaurant workers' mental health is an occupational concern from organizational practices (customer-centric) and social relationships at work. Consequently, the daily average turnover of the restaurant industry in the United States approximates $1.8 billion (Yerdavletova & Mukhambetov, 2014).

Organizational Change During a Crisis

Crises are a common feature of modern life within organizational landscapes (Seeger et al., 2005). Crises are clear catalysts of change, whether imposed on organizations by externalities and outside forces or initiated by management behaviors and outcomes. Crises are critical lessons for organizations that fail because of multifaceted shortcomings (Seeger et al., 2005). Crisis can also cultivate collaboration, cooperation, and support during unprecedented times. Organizational crises are events that create high levels of uncertainty and present threats and perceived threats to an organization's status (Fragouli & Ibidapo, 2015; Seeger et al., 2005). Crises are categorized as low-probability yet high-consequence events threatening an organization's fundamental goals. Making sense during a crisis is difficult because of a low probability attribute that defies logic and interpretations (Seeger et al., 2005).

Organizational change as a discipline aligns with planning strategic change that allows organizational participants to behave and adjust differently to accommodate new contingencies (Seeger et al., 2005). People conceptualize organizational change during a crisis differently;

change during a crisis is a force that prompts managers to focus on particular issues within the firm. Change, from the perspective of managers, is more reactive than proactive when a crisis emerges. From a broader perspective, normative readjustments and organizational learning arise when a crisis necessitates change (Seeger et al., 2005). Swift changes in business environments challenge organizations and often cause a crisis (Fragouli & Ibidapo, 2015).

The context of this crisis impacts business operations, reputation, and development within the organizations (Fragouli & Ibidapo, 2015). Theoretical includes the assumption that no organization avoids a crisis as long as it operates within a globalized context. Crisis management is crucial to the sustainability and management of organizations. Crisis management is the systematic attempt to avoid and manage organizational crisis events (Fragouli & Ibidapo, 2015). Crisis management characterizes by two significant dispositions: planning and analyzing contingencies during a crisis (Fragouli & Ibidapo, 2015). Crisis management planning encompasses a series of normative assertions that increase the efficiencies of crisis interventions. Analyzing organizational contingencies involves investigating the sizeable social context in crisis management to include the character of the societal fabric and past crisis events (Fragouli & Ibidapo, 2015). These dispositions control crises through interventions once enough information is available.

The Impact of COVID-19 on the Workplace

The COVID-19 crisis created unprecedented times (Diab-Bahman & Al-Enzi, 2020). The coronavirus disease (COVID-19) is a novel global health crisis (Saha et al., 2020). This disease is a contagious acute respiratory syndrome that has spread rapidly since its inception in the Wuhan City of China. Since the outbreak, this pandemic has claimed the lives of hundreds of thousands of people in the United States of America alone (Saha et al., 2020). The COVID-19

pandemic crippled many economic markets, shutting down entire industries in many parts of the country (Heggeness, 2020). The COVID-19 pandemic crisis created change in the business environment (Diab-Bahman & Al-Enzi, 2020). Organizational leaders learned that doing business was difficult to sustain, and they were scrambling to innovate to stay competitive during the outbreak of COVID-19. Countless questions by employers and employees emerged in response to the global pandemic. COVID-19 caused some people and jobs to become idle, irrelevant, and extinct, while some continued to work remotely.

Consequently, the pressure caused by this global crisis left many organizational actors stressed in the new workspace environment (Diab-Bahman & Al-Enzi, 2020). The work-life balance complicated social interactions, for example. Social distancing was everyday life in many parts of the country (Hanage et al., 2020; Heggeness, 2020; Newbold et al., 2020; Saha et al., 2020). According to health officials, these practices were appropriate to stop the spread of the disease (Hanage et al., 2020; Heggeness, 2020). The workplace looked different as the employers mandated unique personal protective masks in some places (Hanage et al., 2020). The workplace is a critical exposure risk prompting governments and organizations to limit social interactions. COVID-19 disturbed the workplace and the productivity of organizations (Matli, 2020). Remotely working was the norm for challenging work experience in some sectors (Diab-Bahman & Al-Enzi, 2020; Matli, 2020). Hybrid models allow employees to work from home and their traditional workplace enacted when the disease is less pervasive (Diab-Bahman & Al-Enzi, 2020). The new form of work used before COVID-19 is teleworking. This form of working was necessary during the 1970s and aligned with the term remote working from the workplace (Diab-Bahman & Al-Enzi, 2020). Teleworking is a method to utilize technical communications as a substitute for physical interactions. Teleworking for employees provides a flexible way to

conduct business and organizes into three key categories: home-based telework, where work obligations are completed from a personal residence through virtual means—for example, teleworking from remote offices, which entails work done at satellite workplaces that include separation from others, and mobile telework that primarily include traveling. Telework practices and policies impact a business' continuity plan when employees perform their working tasks according to the norms (Abulibdeh, 2020). This study included information on how the work environment of HR personnel reflects the inability to address change initiatives adequately. COVID-19 reflected how working from home or in the community was inconsistent with standard rules. In the food service sector, physical distancing dominates as a form of disease prevention in the workplace (Newbold et al., 2020).

Anticipated and Discovered Themes

An anticipated theme conjectured in the research proposal was that the fast-food sector had different experiences with the changes brought by COVID-19 than the causal dining in restaurants. The findings indicated that this assumption was not entirely accurate. Restaurant managers had to shift their services differently from the fast food sector, including changing their dining format. Managers at specific locations provided curbside assistance for takeout orders, and the experience of the research participants was the same. A common consensus exists regarding the mandatory changes that both food service segments had to endure. No matter the segment an individual worked in, they all expressed the same type of stress, fears, changes, and supervision.

Another theme that this research proposal included is that the customer-centric nature of the food services industry would cause pressures that would impact employee acceptance regarding the mandatory changes. The findings revealed that unruly customers impacted job

satisfaction more than employee acceptance. Multiple participants indicated that a sense of paranoia was circulating in public, causing customers to act unbecomingly. When asked if any problems occurred in the workplace, more than half of the research participants mentioned unpleasant customers who complicated their work experience with demands or complaints.

The anticipated theme that COVID-19 changes would impact workplace hazards did not occur in this study. Instead, the opposite occurred; research participants felt safer with the suggestions of implementing new regulations. An anticipated theme, substantiated by the findings, was that the organizational changes from COVID-19 impact mental health. Interviewees voiced their fears, stress, burnout, and work-life imbalances because of the organizational changes during this crisis. Management created employee hotlines to cope with the phenomenon of mental health issues created by the crisis. Mental health was evident throughout the study because of the pressures and changes caused by COVID-19.

The unanticipated themes in this research inquiry were unanimous employee compliance regarding operational changes and opportunities generated from this crisis. In addition, deficiencies emerged because of changes, the discussion of bodily autonomy emerged, and the perceived ambiguous nature of the human resources sector during a time of crisis. These themes should have been included in the initial proposal because I did not assume that the presence of these factors would influence job satisfaction and employee resistance.

Summary of the Literature Review

This literature review included scholarly journals to uncover the nuisances of organizational change and change management. Organizational change and change management are foundations to emphasize the importance of the human resource sector. The element of organizational change and change management is a discipline to form a basis for practicality in

business—a review of organizational changes and business practices that are in each change agent. A discussion of the role of human resources in effective organizational change occurred to frame the premise for this study. In addition, an exploration of the problem of failed change management and the ability to address these shortcomings align with the need for further studies concerning this ongoing issue. Concepts regarding job satisfaction and employee resistance were the basis for this research endeavor's key components. Theories regarding organizational change with constructs and variables to include organizational culture and external environments included supporting ideas and factors that impact successful organizational change. Annotation included related studies that involved COVID-19, organizational change, human resource management and failed change efforts. Finally, organizational change during crises, the impact of COVID-19 on the workplace, and anticipated and discovered themes served as a precursor to this research study.

Summary of Section 1 and Transition

Section 1 includes the foundation for this study involving the perpetual problem of failing attempts to address organizational change initiatives that the human resource sector experience. A deeper inquiry into how a crisis, like a global pandemic, further complicates and magnifies these issues. The specific problem regarding the failure of organizations to address the recurring human resources challenge of organizational change during the COVID-19 pandemic within the food service industry in the United States resulted in a loss of job satisfaction and employee resistance. The purpose and significance of this study included the necessity for more studies to address the issues and difficulties concerning failed organizational change during crises.

Qualitative questions guided the research and my understanding of the distinction regarding failed change management practices during a crisis (COVID-19) and their impact on

individuals' satisfaction and resistance to change. An understanding and determination occurred regarding the best method for multiple case studies. The study includes a conceptual framework with the factors and variables in this research to assist with analyzing the data. This section outlined key terms, assumptions, limitations, and delimitations associated with this study involving the failure to address organizational changes during the COVID-19 crisis. In addition, this section includes an annotation of a biblical paradigm and how this problem impacts God's economy. A review of the professional and academic literature serves as the basic concepts of change management and continuous organizational changes. The notion of the inevitability of change emerged, and the expected changes that organizational managers experience. The literature includes insight into the historical context of change management challenges, theories on managing change effectively, and research on why these challenges persist in the human resource sector. A change could look different depending on the context and confines, further revealing the need for additional empirical studies regarding this phenomenon.

The next section of this research occurred as a baseline for this qualitative study, including the role of the research in detail. The disclosure of the participants, population, and sampling includes explaining in depth to frame a reliable and verifiable research inquiry. A presentation of the data collection occurred in the results of the study. In addition, the study included an in-depth overview of data analysis, reliability, and validity. The overall premise of this research project served as an articulating and defense in this next section.

Section 2: The Project

According to Thomas (2012), the core of research investigations is to understand how people live in the world. The purpose of human inquiry in the social sciences is to enhance confidence and reduce doubt (Thomas, 2012). Questioning the notion of possibilities is at the

crux of investigations because truth-seeking is the goal of research. Further, Thomas (2012) postulated that research enhances the meaning of life. In addition, research purposes discredit the notion of random chances in the social sciences (Krause, 2019). Social science research methodology generalizes from samples to finding the broader meaning of phenomena.

Research is falsifiable and empirically researchable (Raza, 2018). Fundamental assumptions must include researchers' clarification, articulation, and underpinning to avoid constructing ideologies and misrepresentations of universal thought. Qualitative approaches to research do not begin with strict theories but rather problems of interest (Aaltio & Hopfl, 2009). A researcher's task is gathering, analyzing, and interpreting data while searching for new knowledge. The qualitative research approach includes reflecting that involves subjectivity, making gathering information paramount for researchers to strategically position themselves as examiners willing to reflect on ethical considerations.

Research methods ensure that the researcher obtains reliable knowledge throughout the research process (Sedmak & Longhurst, 2010). Methods used in research investigations link to the prevailing epistemology (Sedmak & Longhurst, 2010). Qualitative research methods are generally associated with an interpretive perspective, although any epistemological positioning that guides the research can exist. In this research inquiry, I used a post-positivism paradigm. A post-positivism paradigm critically conceptualizes an objective reality through logical reasoning, theoretical explanations, morals, and ethics relevant to the study (Roy, 2014).

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this qualitative multiple case study was to add to the body of knowledge regarding change management and to address the failure of organizations to address the recurring human resources challenge of organizational change during the COVID-19 pandemic within the

food service industry in the United States, resulting in a loss of job satisfaction and employee resistance. Human resource professionals acknowledge the complexities of managing change in organizations (Barratt-Pugh & Bahn, 2015). The literature includes an affirmation that organizational change can negatively impact the workforce in various ways (Alfes et al., 2019). The literature did not include specifications on how a crisis influenced organizational change. This research inquiry described how social changes because of COVID-19 in the restaurant sector impacted job satisfaction and employee behaviors. Furthermore, this research probe included the issue concerning HR professionals' failed attempts to address organizational change.

Role of Researcher

Qualitative researchers possess skills in interpreting the needs of their research participants (May, 1978). In this research probe, I strived for objectivity despite the norms, values, and beliefs influencing my opinions. Garud and Ahlstrom (1997) stated that a researcher's effort at grasping reality could intertwine with their efforts. Therefore, the ethical conduct of this research relied on my ability to perceive and enact the research in a responsible manner (Cumyn et al., 2019). Research ethics is a discipline that includes standards of conduct and deciphers how to behave facing complex problems. Ethical behavior in this research study included societal values, research priorities, moral utilization of resources, validity measures, proper selection of participants, and independent review.

The roles of the researcher are to form questions, recruit respondents, inquire about events and feelings about the research inquiry, define the data, identify tools for analysis and utilize personal judgment when assessing the hypothesis or problem (Moon, 2015). During the analysis phase, research tools perpetuate and reinforce the decisions or determinations made by the researcher, while the competencies of the researcher guide the quest to draw inferences and

meaning from the data. The social context and personality of the researcher influence their worldview, which impacts their beliefs and judgment (Aaltio & Hopfl, 2009). Nevertheless, I interpreted the data with the respondents' intent, lacking presumptions.

Researcher's Actions

The literature included the fact that researchers must undertake six tasks or actions to conduct a study effectively: networking, collaboration, managing research, doing research, publishing research, and evaluating data (Kyvik, 2013). I regarded the failed attempts to address organizational change because of COVID-19 and its impact on job satisfaction and employee resistance. Networking or frequent communication with fellow doctoral candidates was not in this study. Therefore, the exchange of ideas and information was not plausible in this research context. The only form of networking used in this study was during recruiting of eligible research participants. Collaboration was another task that was not practical for this research inquiry. However, managing the research was an accomplished task in this multiple case study. This research study conformed to the qualitative method through the flexible design and multiple case study method. I analyzed the data by conducting basic research customary in the social sciences and humanities.

The research process was conducted remotely (over the phone) and in person at the selected restaurants. I had minimal contact with the research participants because of the surge of COVID-19 cases in the geographical area during the time of the study. Nevertheless, interviews and observations were to obtain the necessary information for this research. I evaluated the raw data to understand and articulate the challenges of change management during a crisis. I disseminated the results of this study to the research chair, committee, and administration.

Bracketing

I relied on a small sample size of 16 participants with a semi-structured procedure when conducting the research. Consequently, questions concerning the validity and reliability of research results could arise (May, 1978). The subjective nature of this qualitative research, which involves personal judgments and bias, presents problems during the analysis and interpretation process, which require techniques to mitigate those troubles. Elbert and Seikowsky (2017) asserted that humans follow sequential and analytical cognitive patterns based on information and perceptions concerning the fractured external environment. As a result, the amount of information varies, causing bias in decision-making. Behavioral biases influence individuals' decision-making and increase the risk of misjudgments (Elbert & Seikowsky, 2017). These risks were by probability annotated by the prospect theory. The prospects included the choices made by decision-makers.

Misjudgments and imposed biases were not in this study. I used notes to express thoughts to capture the participants' exact wording. Using the notes addressed the inclination to fill in the blanks with information that did not occur from the actual data. According to Hurd (1999), bracketing can decrease the personal bias of researchers by removing the propensity to aggregate the missing data during times of uncertainty. This process reduced harm to the integrity of the data caused by non-responses. Furthermore, Hurd (1999) posited that cognitive psychology affirms the use of bracketing to improve the imputation of personal biases in the research process. Fischer (2009) referred to bracketing as a mechanism that safeguards researchers from imposing personal preferences. Bracketing helps to remove assumptions during the research process while still maintaining awareness.

Memoing personal thoughts versus actual data assisted me in the endeavor to safeguard the integrity of this research during the analysis phase. Bracketing enabled me to engage with the

data and evolve the findings without inputting any personal experiences or beliefs into the study outcome. I did not let assumptions, experiences, values, thought processes, or personal beliefs control the research process. Through the use of bracketing, self-awareness, and transparency, I avoided personal biases to examine the data objectively. Lastly, using caution was necessary to address bias during the interview process, which caused the participant to agree with the statements—approaching the research with an objective stance to understand experiences rather than substantiate them helped to mitigate biased reporting in this study.

Summary

The role of the researcher entails a responsible handling of the data and an ethical interaction with research participants to understand a phenomenon in the social sciences (Cumyn et al., 2019). The researcher's task includes managing, evaluating, and publishing the research of interest (Kyvik, 2013). When dealing with a research probe, the human element is a factor of concern, which reflects the importance of techniques to reveal and manage assumptions that may have otherwise impacted the research process (May, 1978). Bracketing served as a shield for this research because I endeavored to view the data objectively while keeping inherent assumptions, beliefs, and values.

Research Methodology

I used the qualitative research methodology that employed epistemology to approach the specific problem of failures to address organizational change during a crisis. Understanding how and why things happened was the underpinning of this qualitative research. Qualitative research is a tool or technique that guided the inquiry process in this study. The qualitative research method assisted me in explicitly expressing a set of epistemological assumptions. I identified the problem at the conception of the research process and before the actual investigation transpired.

The qualitative research method was appropriate to utilize and conceptualize how organizational behaviors, or the lack thereof, influence organizational change and directly impacted job satisfaction. In addition, the qualitative method was appropriate for researching employee resistance to change. This qualitative research inquiry included an in-depth look at the data to show why certain phenomena occurred, which provided a greater understanding of the current issue within the HR sector.

Discussion of Flexible Design

Answering the research question required a flexible design because the flexible design fits the qualitative method. This design supported a reliable, systematic, and transparent research method equipped to address issues concerning organizational change and behavior (Sedmak & Longhurst, 2010). The flexible design fits a researcher's assumptions and includes a broader understanding of organizational change during a crisis and its impact on the workplace and workforce. The flexible design includes prevailing interpretive perspectives, which assist with conceptualizing employee responses. The use of observations and words is essential to a research study that includes understanding the difficulties of organizational change during a crisis and employees' response to change disruptions. Thoughts and feelings regarding change were in this research, which deemed the flexible design appropriate for this study. The COVID-19 crisis is an ongoing emerging situation that necessitates a design that includes emerging, developing, and changing techniques during the research process. The flexible design was appropriate for the objectives of this study because of the specific research questions. Keutel et al. (2014) indicated that organizations failed to address change during a crisis, igniting resistance and impacting the satisfaction of employees.

Discussion of Method

Multiple case studies include a replication logic where contrasting results maximize insights and knowledge gathered from the research inquiry (Keutel et al., 2014). This method was appropriate for this study because of the research sector. The restaurant industry has different segments that the global pandemic impacted in diverse ways. For example, the fast food industry has unique features, including indoor dining facilities. Furthermore, prominent chain restaurant managers experienced the changes differently than the local mom-and-pop diner.

An example of this phenomenon was that more prominent food chain managers experienced more difficulties with accommodating guests for outside dining than smaller diner managers. Furthermore, the mom and pops dining managers experienced more significant staffing difficulties because of the effects of COVID-19 in comparison with more prominent food service chain managers. Multiple case study researchers use small sample sizes to explore different organizational sectors and better understand issues (Kalleberg et al., 1994). The multiple case study method was the most appropriate method for this study.

Replicating the project at different points was appropriate for this study because the researcher compared diverse workplaces and organizational cultures. Kalleberg et al. (1994) indicated that change manifested within different work environments fails to include organizational change. Multiple case studies align with empirical grounding and the facilitation of analytical generalities to view the issue concerning change management through different lenses (Keutel et al., 2014). Other methods were inappropriate, making the research plausible and appropriate for using the multiple case study method. Lastly, the multiple case study method best aligned with my post-positivist paradigm and was appropriate to utilize in this case.

Discussion of Triangulation

Triangulation is an essential strategy that includes a comprehensive understanding of an issue studied (Bruning et al., 2018). Triangulation not only enhanced the knowledge of this research topic, but it included excellent reliability. Triangulation includes five attributes, (a) sources of evidence, (b) methods, (c) researchers, (d) theories, and (e) technique. The multiple case study method was appropriate for triangulation because of the evidence and procedure. Multiple case studies include opportunities to affirm claims using different sources, eliminating coincidences or flukes, and strengthening the reliability and validity of the survey (Kalleberg et al., 1994). Triangulation is a validation strategy approach to generalization and a way to obtain additional knowledge (Salzborn et al., 2011). The multiple case study method coincided with the methodological triangulation instrument that validated claims by multiple data sources. Lastly, this research inquiry aligned with triangulation between case study methods because of the emerging validity implications.

Summary of Methodology

This study is a flexible design using qualitative methods with a multiple case study design. This design included an in-depth exploration concerning the human resources challenge of addressing organizational change during a crisis, such as the COVID-19 pandemic impacting job satisfaction and employee resistance. The design and method for this study were appropriate because of the elements necessary to answer the research questions. The flexible research methodology aligns with the quest to understand the struggles of organizational change within organizations during crises because it includes a versatile technique that evolved as issues progressed (Sedmak & Longhurst, 2010). This methodology allowed me to pivot when appropriate while staying focused. Lastly, this research method included a much-needed test of validity and reliability for the study while closely aligning with the post-positivist paradigm.

Participants

Research participants are vital constituents in qualitative studies because their perceptions and experiences contribute to the understanding and meaning a particular problem or issue (Creswell, 2014). Recruiting participants was a complex task, given the existence of vulnerable populations and the ethical considerations. The participants in this multiple case study represented the restaurant industry's population. The eligible participants in this qualitative study were members of the restaurant community affected by the human resources problem regarding an organization's failure to address organizational change during the COVID-19 pandemic. These eligible participants included restaurant and fast food employees and managers in the food service sector before and after the COVID-19 outbreak. The participants were 18 years of age and older to avoid liabilities involving minors. The study included managers' and employees' experiences with changes caused by COVID-19 to gain a comprehensive understanding of why and how human resource personnel failed to address organizational change initiatives during a crisis. I chose the participants to obtain information from the stakeholders affected by the changes caused by the COVID-19 pandemic in the food service industry.

The participants comprised 16 respondents from the food services sector during the onset of the COVID-19 crisis. The participants included nine employees and seven managers. The demographics of the participant pool consisted of 10 females and six males of different ethnic groups. These participants were randomly selected based on their willingness to participate.

Population and Sampling

A statistical population is an investigation of the interest of an entire group (Banerjee & Chaudhury, 2010). This definition includes other criteria such as heights, weights, and events (Banerjee & Chaudhury, 2010). Selecting the appropriate population includes identifying the

location and other restrictions, including age, sex, and occupation, which coincide with the research question or purpose. The population in this epidemiological research comprised groups of people not necessarily bound to the demographic meaning of an entire group within the same geographical area. The sample inferred to a specified part of the population. The sample size of 16 was representative of the population of people from different nationalities and ages in the food services sector before and after organizational changes because of the COVID-19 crisis.

Discussion of Population

The characteristics of the eligible study population were all restaurant, and fast food employees and managers in California, North Carolina, and Virginia exposed to COVID-19 regulation changes. These characteristics were appropriate for this study because this population addressed the research questions. The food services stakeholders included managers and employees in the population to learn many perspectives regarding the failed attempts to address organizational change during a crisis that impacted job satisfaction and employee resistance. The size of the eligible population aligns with the availability of potential respondents in the population (Creswell, 2014). The size was also contingent upon the accessibility of the people despite the changes from COVID-19 in the United States.

Discussion of Sampling

A sample is the population subset and can conceive as the target population for the study (Banerjee & Chaudhury, 2010). The sampling method is designed to help the researcher select research participants (Creswell, 2014). The sampling techniques in this study were the purposive, snowball, and random sampling methods. The purposive sampling methods encompassed volunteers who willfully agreed to participate, while the snowball samples were other participants from the referral process from the initial participants (Banerjee & Chaudhury, 2010).

The random sampling methods in this study consisted of a simple random sample with equal consideration of all individuals in the population. A random sampling process is a strategic way of randomly selecting individuals (Banerjee & Chaudhury, 2010; Creswell, 2014). The primary sampling method used in this study was the random sampling method because this type of method matched the population studied. I selected restaurant employees because they were identifiable and willing to participate in the research. The selection process was relegated to individuals willing and able to participate, not to my judgment. This sampling method allowed me to obtain a representative sample from an unbiased population, which enhanced the reliability of the results.

Sample Frame

Sampling frames are lists and other mechanisms or devices used as critical elements to define probable respondents in the population (Acharya et al., 2013; Creswell, 2014). The sampling frames can include mail or published lists (Creswell, 2014). Sampling frames were appropriate for this study because, in a random sample, generalizations occur from the actual population from the sampling frame (Acharya et al., 2013). However, sampling frames were not readily available at the time of this study; therefore, I did not utilize this tool to recruit participants. The lack of sampling frames did not impede the validity of the samples in this research study.

Desired Sample and Sample Size

The desired sample in this multiple case study were managers and employees in fast food and casual dining restaurants, affected indirectly or directly by organizational changes because of COVID-19. The fast food restaurant sample included participants from Chick-fil-A, McDonald's, Subways, Five Guys, Qdoba, Bojangles, Burger King, and Little Caesars. The

casual dining restaurant samples were from Breakfast Republic, Corner Bakery Café, Elateia, Silver Diner, Red Lobster, Pizza Hut, and Calypso. The fast-food employees and casual dining employees felt the impact differently by the COVID-19 crisis because of their basic business model. Therefore, doing the research is essential for me to explore different sectors within the restaurant industry to comprehensively understand change management, job satisfaction, and employee resistance during a crisis.

Qualitative researchers rely on sampling methods to achieve theoretical saturation and select information-rich cases that contribute to the enlightenment of a particular problem (van Rijnsoever, 2017). Determining the minimum sample size to reach saturation with no information is a problematic estimation (van Rijnsoever, 2017). van Rijnsoever (2017) suggested that theoretical saturation is desirable to minimize the chances of incomplete coding. The literature includes the premise that an adequate sample size for a qualitative study is estimated between 20-30 and usually below 50. However, most researchers contend that achieving saturation depends on the researcher's discretion and varies from one situation or experience to another (van Rijnsoever, 2017). I considered sample-size saturation theories and used my best judgment to determine saturation. In this qualitative study, saturation occurred in 16 samples.

Research Locations

- Chick-fil-A, Chula Vista, CA

- McDonald's, Hampton Roads, VA

- Subways, Chula Vista, CA, Hampton Roads, VA

- Five Guys, Hampton Roads, VA

- Qdoba, Hampton Roads, VA

- Bojangles, Raleigh, NC

- Burger King, Elizabeth City, NC

- Little Caesars, Elizabeth City, NC

- Breakfast Republic, San Diego, CA

- Corner Bakery Café, San Diego, CA

- Elateia, Los Angeles, CA

- Silver Diner, Hampton Roads, VA

- Red Lobster, Hampton Roads, VA

- Pizza Hut, Elizabeth City, NC

- Calypso, Raleigh, NC

Explanation of Research Locations

Belsito and Reutzel (2019) indicated that small and medium-sized enterprise (SME) employees do not accept organizational change, which can result in decreasing job satisfaction. Fink et al. (2015) stated that the plausibility of investigating a qualitative shift in SMEs is necessary because of a higher amplitude of change relative to their size, which can present challenges in managing qualitative change. Furthermore, the restaurant industry experience operational challenges because of retention issues and continuous changes because of high turnover rates (Diego et al., 2018). For those reasons, these restaurants were appropriate for this study. The industry was feasible for me to conduct a multiple case study at the establishments to understand how the COVID-19 crisis impacted organizational change, job satisfaction, and employee resistance in an ever-changing industry.

Summary

Qualitative research studies are popular in business, management, and organizational studies (van Rijnsoever, 2017). Qualitative research studies include detailed and comprehensive

insights into different organizational happenings, perspectives, and motivations. The participants were the focal point of this qualitative research study because I desired to learn about organizational change issues. The population in this study was the aggregate unit of analysis, and the sample size was the representative portion of the population. The sample size for this study consisted of 16 participants where saturation emerged, meaning that I exhausted efforts for additional information. In this research study, the desired samples were managers and employees in fast food and casual dining restaurants across the United States, affected indirectly or directly by organizational changes because of COVID-19.

Data Collection and Organization

Data collection and organization are crucial parts of a research effort that enables the researcher to understand the research probe (Mahlamäki & Nieminen, 2020). The data collection process is necessary to ensure efficiencies are acquired from the data within the appropriate research timeframe (Zennaro et al., 2018). Creswell (2014) stated that data collection steps set the boundaries for studies, which include gathering information. The information can include unstructured or semi-structured interviews, observations, documents, visual material, and protocols for data-collecting methods (Mahlamäki & Nieminen, 2020). Furthermore, data collection procedures align with the sites and participants for the study, the type of data collected, and a plan to develop the information (Creswell, 2014). Data organization is a plan or system that researchers use to arrange the material to retrieve the data. Researchers often use a research log as a tool in their quest to organize the data.

Data Collection Plan

Qualitative interviews were the primary data collection source conducted with the participants face-to-face and individually in a one-on-one format. In addition, telephone

interviews proceeded, given the feasibility of this format during the COVID-19 crisis. Telephone interviews enabled me to collect information from employees and managers through the use of open-ended questions regarding their views and opinions on their experience with the organizational changes brought on by COVID-19. I interviewed employees and managers to gain information on their past and current job satisfaction and experience with embracing new changes and protocols (job resistance). Job satisfaction and employee resistance impacted the change agents (managers) and change recipients (employees and managers). This allowed me to understand and differentiate organizational change's challenges from a change agent and change recipients perspective. The data collection plan for this research included qualitative observations involving a field study that provided me with firsthand accounts of organizational change issues in the restaurant industry. Interviews and direct interactions were the tools that assisted in gathering information for this research study. This type of data collection was relevant for this multiple case study, given the nature of this study.

Member Checking. Follow-up interview questions were not necessary to validate responses and ensure accuracy. I did not need to clarify recorded responses from interviewees. Member checking is not to scrutinize participants but to ensure data consistency (Creswell, 2014). The data was consistent, and although I used member checking to assist with the identification of themes that emerged during the research study, it was not necessary in this case. Follow-up interviews were not necessary for this study.

Instruments

Interview Guides. The semi-structured interview guide (Appendix A) included a research question corresponding to the participant's thoughts, feelings, and actions as a result of the organizational changes because of COVID-19. Each interview question was appropriate to

allow the participant to explain their experiences and feelings regarding the changes in the workplace as a result of COVID-19 regulations. The interview questions did not include a particular philosophy or thought but reflected on the individual experiences and feelings the managers and employees expressed. I used the guide throughout the interview process and ensured that consistent questioning and reasoning were appropriate during the research study.

Qualitative Observations Guide. I used a semi-structured observation guide (Appendix B) to help collect data that involved using my five senses. This subjective method added a different perspective to the study. To limit any biases in reporting, I used the observation guide to uncover problems, reveal the context, and consistently report instances. The observation guide came in the form of a checklist highlighting the research problem, the research site, the date, the time, and the observation area. This checklist ensured continuity in the field study.

Data Organization Plan

I used data as the main asset to conduct this study. The data was imperative to access easily. Creswell and Poth (2018) stated that data management or organization jump-starts the data analysis process. Barbosa and de Sena (2011) suggested that if researchers fail to document and organize relevant data, vulnerabilities, inconsistencies, and overlapping efforts in the collection process may occur.

A standard solution I adopted to avoid data collection errors while documenting datasets was to develop information system (IS) tools. Creswell and Poth (2018) explained that researchers typically organize their data into digital files to create a file naming system early in data management and analysis. The organization of the data in this research study occurred by using a consistent application of a file naming system to ensure that the data and material were in a good location. A searchable database organized by data form, participants, and date of

collection ensured that I could quickly locate the files in the database. I labeled the files, texts, and recordings and saved the file to a removable hard drive to ensure data backup, preventing potential data loss. I selected standard software to use throughout the research project. The data files were kept secure to protect the interest of all stakeholders involved in this research project. Upon the successful defense of this research project, I will transfer the files to a hard drive and store the files in a personal safe. I will reset the computer to ensure no data leaks and potential harm occur.

Summary of Data Collection and Organization

Data collection and organization were vital starting points of the research process and needed much care to ensure relevant information emerged. I used different means to collect the data, including interviews and field studies. The interview questions were for the overarching research question concerning the human resource personnel's failures to address organizational changes during a crisis, which impacted job satisfaction and employee resistance. I outlined an organization plan that entailed the orderly account and storage of information on a database. I included information concerning the steps to safeguard the information obtained from this study.

Data Analysis

Data analysis is the core of research projects because data analysis helps a researcher identify specific themes derived from the raw material to help comprehend the problem of interest (Zennaro et al., 2018). The data analysis process began with familiarizing myself with the transcribed interviews and case notes derived from the research study. I used a technique to understand the patterns and themes discovered in the research inquiry. The cross-case analysis applies to generalities in the data (Mahlamäki & Nieminen, 2020). The data analysis process makes sense out of the gathered information (Creswell, 2014). Creswell (2014) stated that the

analysis process involves dissecting and segmenting the data to understand its meaning. The data analysis process begins with collecting data and ends with an account of the findings (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

Emergent Ideas

The practice of reading and memoing emergent ideas helps to get a sense of the database (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Researchers read through the transcripts several times to immerse themselves in the details of the findings. Creswell and Poth (2018) argued that reading the entire transcript of the interviews multiple times is an essential practice that gives the researcher a broader perspective of the data before breaking it into parts. Rapid reading helps the researcher approach the data with fresh new eyes (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Note-taking occurs during the reading process, which is for researchers when exploring the field study and interview data. The investigator scans the text to make sense of the data without getting involved in the details of coding. The role of taking notes is to synthesize the data to help with the analysis, guide the examination process, and act as sketching for reflective thinking to capture concepts and ideas.

Coding Themes

Describing and classifying codes into themes is the next step in the analysis process (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The researcher formulates codes or categories in describing the observations to help make sense of the text collected from the methods (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Creswell and Poth (2018) described the coding process as the researcher's attempt to build, apply and develop themes as they interpret the data. Coding is vital in case of studies because a researcher can aggregate the texts into small categories with descriptions of particular cases (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Themes or codes in qualitative research align to dismantle dichotomies, examine silences, address contradictions, focus on elements, interpret metaphors, and classify

information dimensions. The specific themes discovered in this research study are in section 3 of this study.

Interpretations

Developing and assessing interpretations involves making careful judgments and considerations about the coding process's patterns, themes, and categories (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Creswell and Poth (2018) described the interpretation process as abstracting beyond the codes and themes to gain a broader perspective and meaning of the information from the collection process. Developing interpretations involves relating codes, themes, or the *families* of information to the analytic context in the literature (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The researcher learns lessons, makes sense of the data during the interpretation process, obtains answers to specific questions, uncovers expectations, discovers the participants' interests, and discovers alternative interpretations. A detailed disclosure of the interpretations for this study is in section 3 of this study.

Data Representation

Representing and visualizing the data is the final phase in the analysis process. It involves displaying and reporting the data while creating a point of view with the information from the study (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Creswell and Poth (2018) explained that visual representation of the data could come in the form of comparison tables that contain text or hierarchical tree diagrams that show abstractions in the form of boxes. In this step, the researchers display specific data pertaining to the research question and purpose, the themes discovered, and the totality of relevant data (Creswell & Poth, 2018). For case study analysis and representation, Creswell and Poth regard this process as a detailed description of the case and its setting. I accomplished this goal in this research. The visualization of the data is in section 3.

Analysis for Triangulation

Triangulation is the standard strategy qualitative researchers use to address skepticism and doubts in research studies (Stake, 2010). Triangulation included in this research study substantiated the information received by other research instruments. Triangulation increases care in gathering and understanding the data (Stake, 2010). I triangulated evidence to clarify the meanings of the information and increase my confidence in the findings. I used the qualitative analysis methods of conducting in-depth interviews with different stakeholders, such as managers and employees, to triangulate the data. I looked for and annotated the similarities and differences in the information from these multiple perspectives. Researchers report consistencies in the data and the problematic information, which strengthens a study's reliability and internal validity (Creswell, 2014).

Summary of Data Analysis

I used the analysis software Nvivo to analyze the raw data from interviews and observations. The analysis process began with data collection and concluded with data reporting. I used the prevailing techniques of reading and memoing emergent ideas, coding themes, interpreting the data, triangulating the evidence, and responsibly representing the data. The data analysis process continued until this research project was complete to ensure that new evidence received a recording.

Reliability and Validity

Qualitative validity and reliability involve procedures that ensure the accuracy and consistency of the findings (Creswell, 2014). Validity occurred on the basis of determining the accuracy of the conclusions of the researcher, participants, and end users' perspectives. Qualitative validity encompassed the research data and process's trustworthiness, authenticity,

and credibility. Establishing the validity of this research was essential because it strengthens the authority of theoretical propositions with minimal bias and a more comprehensive depiction of the phenomenon (Ihantola & Kihn, 2011). Qualitative reliability involves the research data's dependability, stability, and trustworthiness (Creswell, 2014). Threats to reliability in the research are subject to discrepancies or errors at every stage of the research process (Ihantola & Kihn, 2011). These elements were vital to this research project because of the integrity of the results.

Reliability

This research study included protecting integrity because I responsibly handed the data through clear and standard methods. Credibility was through descriptive note-taking and memoing to minimize any ambiguities that could lead to misinterpretations of the data. Interviews were brief, clear, and complete, and I ensured that all participants thoroughly answered the questions to strengthen the reliability and eliminate guesswork. Transferability emerged during the reading process, where I checked the transcripts for mistakes. A qualitative codebook was digitally appropriate to ensure codes stayed consistent. Dependability came from detailed field notes, quality recording devices, and the transcription of digital files (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Finally, confirmability was through proper coding and the analysis of the transcribed data.

Validity

This research inquiry includes the assurance of the study's validity by triangulating the data using different stakeholders (managers and employees) to corroborate the evidence. Specific perspectives become clear while building coherent themes from several sources to validate a study (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Bracketing is clarifying the biases held by the researcher through

a transparent disclosure establishing an open and honest narrative to help dispel any doubts or concerns about a researcher's integrity (Creswell, 2014). Bracketing was appropriate in this study by adding my comments to the study that explained how I was interested in the findings based on their paradigm. Furthermore, I addressed saturation in this research study by deciding what was relevant and significant to the study.

Bracketing

Bracketing relates to bias even though they are not interchangeable terms (Mungaray, 2017). I bracketed my understanding of the issue to obtain a neutral perspective of others concerning the matter. The main objective of bracketing for the researcher is not to influence the participants in the research study (Mungaray, 2017). A bracketing technique was to address bias in this research study effectively g on the intentionality of things. I explored the data for what it was and did not add or subtract from its meaning. This process is similar to the technique of anticipated themes. Mungaray (2017) stated that bracketing suspends socially constructed understandings so that researchers can observe all the intentions equally. Bias is always present in the research because it is inherent to the researcher and their thinking; however, the researcher can minimize bias to make room for an objective look at the data (Mungaray, 2017). Bracketing was a tool to understand the data without imposing my worldview. This process occurred by studying the data carefully to understand the information rather than imposing a judgment.

Summary of Reliability and Validity

Research studies proceed by researchers who are susceptible to fallibilities (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Techniques to ensure that the research data is both accurate and credible are vital to the integrity of the findings. This research study included a quality recording device, detailed note-taking, proofreading practices, and coding practices to ensure the reliability of this study.

Furthermore, I used bracketing, triangulation, and saturation techniques to achieve qualitative validity.

Ethical Assurances Plan

Ethical assurances in the research were essential to the overall reliability and validity of the study. Good research should include sound ethics, informed consent, fair reporting, and responsible analyses (Brody & Miller, 2003). To ensure this study was completed in an ethical manner with minimal risk of harm, I informed each participant of the purpose of the study. I acquired informed consent through signed permission forms. I ensured that the identities of all the participants were anonymous to maintain their confidentiality. The ideas and experiences of the participants received respect. No deceptive practices occurred in this study, and I took caution to avoid exaggerations during the data gathering and analysis process. Finally, no participant was under obligation regarding this research inquiry, thus, maintaining the voluntary nature of this study.

Summary of Section 2 and Transition

Section 2 included a detailed plan on how I approached this multiple case study research. This section included the purpose of the research and the role of the researcher. In addition, this section included the research methodology and the appropriateness of the flexible design and multiple case study method. The participants, population, and sampling are in this section. The data collection and organization plan was in the literature. The data analysis process emerged. Furthermore, an account of how this qualitative study achieved reliability, validity, and ethical assurance occurred.

In the next section, the presentations of the findings from this multiple case study emerged. Themes and an interpretation of the data and the relationship of the findings occurred.

A discussion of the finding's application to human resource practices emerged to provide insight into possible general practice improvements. Strategies and recommendations for further studies and takeaways occurred in the last section of the dissertation.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

Overview of the Study

A qualitative multiple case study occurred over three months to understand the human resources problem involving the failures to address organizational change, which leads to a loss of job satisfaction and employee resistance. The focus of this study was to explore organizational change challenges during a crisis. The restaurant sector was the segment in which the research occurred. The location included California, North Carolina, and Virginia. The primary data source was 16 recorded interviews included in the study. The managers and employees provided various perspectives. The participants' answers revealed an understanding of how organizations failed to address organizational change. In addition, the participants' answers revealed the influences of job satisfaction, such as why employees resist organizational change. Furthermore, the study included the role of the human resources sector in organizational change. The findings revealed that organizational change manifests differently during a crisis like the COVID-19 pandemic. The type of change that the restaurant sector endured received wide acceptance because of its gravity, perceived importance, and mandatory nature. The data revealed that employee resistance regarding operational and procedural changed did not exist. The only resistance was a workforce vaccination mandate. However, the loss of job satisfaction manifested in this study despite the successful implementation of the change. The radical nature of the changes because of COVID-19 caused fear, stress, panic, work fatigue, and workplace conflicts that decreased job satisfaction. These findings revealed that the role of the human

resource personnel was ambiguous to employees. The HR professions failed to address organizational change despite the change outcome, which revealed the continued struggle involving change management.

Presentation of the Findings

Introduction

Creswell (2014) described qualitative research as an approach researchers use to explore the meaning of social or human problems ascribed by individuals or groups. The qualitative research method includes emerging questions, multi-sourced data collections, data analysis, and interpretations to construct general themes that align with the broader understanding of a problem. An inductive research style includes the individualistic perspective to draw upon a holistic complexity in society (Creswell, 2014). Therefore, this qualitative probe aimed to understand from firsthand experiences, using the multiple case study method, the complexities of managing and addressing changes during a crisis. I sought to grasp how the human resources issue concerning the efforts to confront organizational changes properly impacts job satisfaction and employee resistance. The strategic niche sector surveyed in this study was food service managers and employees. These two participant groups experienced the same line of questioning but from different perspectives. Managers provided insight into how they coped with the changes from the global pandemic crisis in the workplace and how they worked with HR personnel to manage these changes. The employees provided a personal account of how they felt management and HR personnel dealt with the COVID-19 crisis, specifically equipping them to handle these mandated changes and how that impacted their job satisfaction and resistance. The four qualitative research questions and their sub-questions included in this study were:

1. How do organizations fail to address the recurring human resources challenge of organizational change?

    a. What organizational actions and behaviors contribute to the failure of organizations to address organizational change during the COVID-19 pandemic?

    b. What organizational actions and behaviors contribute to successful organizational change during the COVID-19 pandemic?

2. How does organizational change influence job satisfaction?

    a. How is organizational change different amid the COVID-19 pandemic?

    b. How does organizational change because of the COVID-19 pandemic impact a firm's ability to maintain job satisfaction?

3. Why does employee resistance exist during organizational change?

    a. How is employee resistance to organizational change manifested during the COVID-19 pandemic?

4. What human resource factors exist in the food services industry that position organizations for successfully enacting organizational change initiatives during the COVID-19 pandemic?

Specific interview questions noted in the addendum section are constructed and aligned with the research questions. The research subjects were willing to address each question openly, sharing their perspectives on their experiences with change during the COVID-19 crisis.

Overview

The primary data source extracted for research purposes was individual interviews conducted in person and by telephone. The participants gave their acknowledgment and consent

to record the interview. The duration of the interviews ranged from 5 to 22 minutes, which was contingent on the willingness of the respondents to share the extent of their experiences regarding workplace changes because of COVID-19. The interviews included using open-ended questions. The sample size used in this multiple case study design was 16 participants, comprised of nine employees and seven managers. After reaching saturation, I used this sample size, concluding that no additional information was included in the study.

The demographics of the participant pool consisted of 10 females and six males of different ethnic groups. All participants were over 18 and worked before and after the COVID-19 crisis. The process of random sampling occurred to select the participants. The basis of choosing the participants was based upon their willingness to participate. Coding helped me to maintain the anonymity of each participant throughout this analysis. In addition, coding aligned with what specific interviewees articulated without divulging their identities. The research participants with the letter *E* designation were employees, the respondents with the letter *M* were managers, and the *GM* designation identified the General Manager. The coding information is in the visualization of the data and appendix sections.

Research Locations and Duration

The basis of the fast food restaurants from the randomly selected research participants depended on the availability of the managers and employees from Chick-fil-A, McDonald's, Subways, Five Guys, Qdoba, Bojangles, Burger King, and Little Caesars. Research participants randomly selected casual dining establishments that included The Breakfast Republic, Corner Bakery Café, Elateia's Greek and Mediterranean Restaurant, Silver Diner, Pizza Hut, and Calypso. These organizations spanned the United States, including California, North Carolina, and Virginia. The strategy for choosing these locations centered on where I resided at the time of

the study. The interviews occurred over a 3-month span starting in mid-December of 2021 when the researcher's initial IRB board received approval.

I employed qualitative observations to ensure that multiple forms of data came into this study. I took field notes on the behaviors and activities of managers and employees in an unstructured manner. The research sites where qualitative observations occurred were Subways, McDonald's, Cheddars, Golden Corral, and Chili's. Creswell (2014) described as a complete participant; the researchers must visit research sites. I established various times to visit each restaurant to ensure observation at all shifts to eliminate data bias caused by factors like rush hour or night shift idleness. Therefore, the conduction of these qualitative observations occurred in the mornings, afternoons, and late at night. I conducted observation for an hour at each visit. The findings from these observations are in the following sections.

Themes Discovered

As discovered from the literature, organizational change initiatives fail from a conservative perspective more than two-thirds of the time (Bakari et al., 2017; Georgalis et al., 2015). Projections of failed organizational change efforts occur as much as 90% in some scholarly findings (Aslam et al., 2018; Muzanenhamo et al., 2016). This study included that change management efforts receive implemented during a crisis mainly because of panic. The first theme discovered from the data was that change initiatives succeed during a crisis. Furthermore, another theme discovered in this research probe was that change generates opportunities and exposes deficiencies. A theme extracted from this study was that COVID-19 brought about radical, transformational, and incremental changes that altered the workplace and work-life balance. Another theme from this study was that frustration with management, coworkers, and customers from radical change initiatives negatively impacts job satisfaction.

Additionally, the premise that the disruption of a status quo is stressful received confirmation from this study. Any form of communication plays an intricate role in enhancing job satisfaction and avoiding employee resistance. Regarding employee resistance, a theme uncovered by this study was that resistance during the COVID-19 crisis occurs when threats challenge autonomy. Lastly, a theme discovered in this research study was that the role of the human resources personnel was ambiguous to employees yet clear to managers. The interviews received transcription using Otter's artificial intelligence software system and the data coding using the qualitative data analysis system NVIVO. Below is a table of the emerging themes discovered.

Table 3

Themes Discovered

Research Concepts	Themes Discovered
Change Management During Crises	Panic Influences Successful Change Efforts (Fear-Driven Compliance)
Organizational Change	Change Generates Opportunities
Organizational Change	Change Exposes Deficiencies
Organizational Change	Change Alters the Workplace and Stability
Job Satisfaction	Leadership, Colleagues, and Customers Influence Job Satisfaction
Job Satisfaction Negatively Impacted	Stress because of Change Impacts Job Satisfaction
Job Satisfaction & Employee Resistance	Communication Impacts Job Satisfaction and Employee Resistance

Employee Resistance	Resistance Occurs when Bodily Autonomy is Threatened/Challenged
Human Resource Management	Role in Change Initiatives are Perceived as Ambiguous

Note. The themes discovered are characterized by their implications for the research.

Interpretations of the Themes

Panic Influences Successful Change Initiatives

As previously annotated, organizational change initiatives fail at an exceedingly high rate because of many factors (Aslam et al., 2018). This study concluded that change initiatives were widely embraced, accepted, and implemented during a crisis, specifically the COVID-19 global pandemic. The interviews revealed a unanimous consensus that change was necessary to cope with this crisis. All of the research participants noted that they embraced the changes in their workplace as advised by the Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) because of the unknowns of the pandemic, which caused panic, especially during the onset of this crisis. When a radical change occurs because of a crisis, this study results showed that a compliance response resulted, enabling successful change efforts for organizations in the food service sector. As E2 put it, "Things had to change to ensure that we all remained safe; I am okay with washing my hands every hour and wearing a mask if it means my family will be safe." This premise is confirmed by Seeger et al. (2005), who asserted that crises are the catalyst of change that cultivate cooperation and support during turbulent times. The data revealed that operational change initiatives succeeded during this time of crisis mainly because of the reactive nature of the change (Seeger et al., 2005) and the perceived severity of the harms associated with the COVID-19 crisis. This was affirmed by E8, who stated:

Of course, I followed all the new regulations and guidelines; I didn't know what to expect, and I did exactly what they told us to do. And when things changed up, so did I. Listen, all I know is that I ain't trying to catch COVID.

The COVID-19 pandemic's crisis context involved swift changes, which caused a frantic reaction from many employees, prompting them to comply with the proposed operational changes (Fragouli & Ibidapo, 2015). As E3 explained, "Everything happened so fast, I mean, there were so many changes happening at once, but all I can remember was fear. I did what I was told because what else would I do?" This study showed that panic-driven compliance only pertained to operational changes regarding mask-wearing, hand washing, sanitizing, social distancing, outside dining, online ordering, and food deliveries. Other proposed changes were met with some resistance and will be discussed in a later section of this analysis. The literature included that employee resistance is the common culprit of failed change initiatives (Stolnik et al., 2016). However, this study's results show that when unprecedented times cause radical changes because of a perceived threat within an organization and these changes are perceived as reasonable, as M1 stated, "fear-driven employee compliance is almost inevitable." These findings uncovered that failed change initiatives are on the reasoning for the change, the timing of change, and the situation surrounding the change, which is why the reactions to change during a crisis differ from change during stable times.

Fear was a prevalent theme seen throughout this research study for many different reasons. E7 expressed that she observed fear all around her as she stated, "Everybody was fearful because we didn't know what to expect; you got closings happening, coworkers quitting, people getting sick, I got sick, I mean craziness happening." M1 noted, "I had to keep my guys under wraps and composed while trying to manage my own fears." The literature included the premise

that people resist change because of fear (Rahaman et al., 2020; Singh, 2020); this study also uncovered that people comply with change because of fear. The distinguishing factor between these two responses is the situational aspect of the change and the type of change. This crisis brought about changes that were radical, transformational, and revolutionary by nature. These particular changes caused employees to rely heavily on the guidance and direction of their superiors because of the unknowns of COVID-19. E5 explained his experience with the changes by venting:

> In a state of panic, a lot of people were looking for answers instead of looking at both sides, and I think the idea that I didn't have a choice in the matter made me more apprehensive about accepting all the changes rather than me being able to sit down, evaluate my choices and then come to my own decision.

The radical and transformational nature of the change prompted a compilatory response from all of the employees and managers interviewed. E4 indicated that his compliance was by the fear of job security when he stated:

> But, you know, it became kind of really surreal, to be honest; it was like, it felt like, you know, you're kind of fearing that we might fully, you know, get cut. Because rumors were spreading that the whole restaurant might get shut down, so yeah, that level of uncertainty is definitely there to make you follow the rules, and when you raise a family, yeah, you will act to keep your job.

Therefore, fear manifested in many different forms, resulting in a consensus of compliance during the COVID-19 crisis in the restaurant sector across the United States.

Organizational Change Generates Opportunities

This study included the premise that the changes brought on by the COVID-19 crisis created new opportunities for employees that would not have been available to them otherwise. New skills were gained, and advancements occurred because of personnel shortages brought on by the COVID-19 pandemic. E1 suggested that the current position held at Chick-fil-A was partly because of the changes from COVID-19.

The participant stated that,

> So, before COVID, I was in the back prepping for about two years; actually, I only did the dining room once at that point. After COVID, I only did dining room, that was great, well, I don't want to say the great thing that COVID did for me, but it got me trained on the register and doing a lot more different positions. I didn't have those opportunities before COVID, I just like cleaned the dining room and other hospitality before COVID happened, and I'd help run food sometimes, but now I do the front counter register and take orders.

Job availabilities and positional changes arose for many research participants, including the managers. M1 proudly stated that they are in their leadership position at McDonald's because of their promotion received because of personnel shortages. M1 stated, "I was here the longest before COVID hit, I had to step up, and they recognized it and promoted me to manager; it has been a blessing." M3 celebrated that she was recently promoted to manager at the Silver Diner due in part to COVID-19. Other opportunities arose for individuals outside the realm of their current jobs. For example, E4 detailed, "The uncertainty of even having a job tomorrow made me want to seek many financial alternatives. Started investing a little bit more." The General Manager of Bojangles expressed that her employees were privy to additional incentives because of the pandemic, including increased wages, additional training and development programs,

work schedule flexibilities, and personal days off. Other research participants stated that they received pay increases because of the changes brought on by the COVID-19 crisis (M1, E7, E8, & M3). These opportunities were available to these employees and managers directly because of the changes they endured during crises. The change also brings about opportunities for organizations to change current operations that may appear obsolete, which improves efficiencies and brings about competitive advantages.

M5 stated,

> COVID-19 caused us to pivot and branch out into the catering business, which proved advantageous to our business. The change in our business model caused us to capture a market we would not have thought of otherwise.

This study's results included that change opens opportunities for businesses and personnel to advance, develop and diversify.

Organizational Change Exposes Deficiencies

Effective organizational change occurs when systems such as culture, operations, and technology align with components to include people and processes (Park & Eun-Jee, 2015). This study's results revealed deficiencies in specific systems because of the forced changes influenced by COVID-19. The restaurant industry's primary objective is the safe handling of food (DiPietro et al., 2020). This transcends to the proper hygiene of the workers and appropriate cleaning protocols. The qualitative observations of this study, coupled with the affirmation of the research participants, revealed that the proper cleaning protocols were not appropriate before COVID-19. While conducting their observations in McDonald's in Virginia Beach, I noted that every worker had gloves on that they changed periodically. The cashier did not handle the food, which was the practice I observed before COVID-19.

Signs received placement on the tables as soon as a customer left that annotated a need for disinfecting before another person sat down, a practice that had never occurred before COVID-19. I observed at Golden Corral that the self-service options changed to include mandatory glove-wearing when handling the food in the buffet lines. Condiments at fast food restaurants like McDonald's were no longer available for customers to use from a shared dispenser. Every employee wore a mask, and a restaurant employee was continuously in the lobby cleaning.

E6 stated,

> Um, well, of course, they took everything away and were like, hey, you can't touch all the stuff; we must hand it to you. And even attitudes have changed. Like, they went from not caring what's going on to very polarized opinions of, hey, we can do what we want, versus can you please start doing precautions because a lot of people don't do precautions.

E6 went on to say,

> After COVID-19 hit, they tried to get us to wipe Everything down every hour, which was a pain. We would try to keep Everything clean, and I would change my gloves. Most of the people I worked with didn't even care; they would just be like I did my job. And now they're kind of trying to do it, like changing their gloves when walking around the restaurant and switching tasks.

Cleanliness and hype vigilance for health and well-being evolved from the changes because of COVID-19. The protocols should occur before the crisis, yet these changes revealed the carelessness in the restaurant sector's operational area. Regarding proper cleaning practices, M2 expressed, "We should have been doing this way before COVID but hey, glad we are getting it

right now." Change can bring to light aspects of a business that need addressing, bringing about more efficient practices that will benefit the organization and its personnel.

Radical Changes Alter the Workplace and Work-life Balance

Radical change is a disruptive change that replaces existing structures on a large scale (Feng et al., 2016). This type of change is drastic, wide-ranging, and unpredictable yet short-lived (Feng et al., 2016). The employees in the restaurant industry experienced this form of change because of the COVID-19 crisis, as I observed in the state of California. The dining format changed, and customers could no longer dine inside the restaurant; they could only sit outside. Pop-up domes were put in the restaurant parking lot to accommodate outside dining. Plexiglass was put in the restaurants as a barrier between the customers and employees. Mandating social distancing was to decrease the capacity size of the restaurants. These drastic changes altered the way restaurant industry employees conducted business. E9 said, "It was pretty challenging at times to interact with the customers because of the new updates." The fast food sector went to a drive-thru-only business model during the onset of COVID-19, which slowed down the ordering of food process.

E6 stated,

> COVID changed how we did business; social distancing made it so hard to
> communicate with the customers and each other. There were no longer gatherings
> or hangouts with other employees. We couldn't even use the locker rooms
> anymore. You weren't supposed to sit at the same table as people you're not
> related to. It changed the dynamic of our workplace and probably decreased
> morale. And so it was kind of rough.

The research participants agreed that COVID-19 altered their workplace, which caused some adjustments. The mask mandate was the most prevalent change altering the way the employees and managers operated daily. Every participant mentioned the mask mandate regarding the changes they had to cope with within the workplace.

E4 grumbled,

> Yeah, like I had to wear a mask all the time at work. And that was really rough. Especially like during the summer, that first summer, because we had to wear a mask. The worst thing was we had to wear gloves, and that was absolutely miserable because you're getting soaked in sweat, and trying not to get it in the customers' stuff was hard. Yeah, so that was, that was the worst. So yeah, that was definitely really rough to get through that.
>
> E2 explained how wearing a mask all day was uncomfortable yet necessary to ensure

everyone remained safe. Other radical changes in the workplace were health questionnaires that made E7 feel secure; she stated,

> Changes included wearing masks and doing daily COVID questions. And the COVID questions are basically, you know, just answering those if you have a fever, headache, or nausea, or something, all those COVID questions we had to answer. I was so happy to do those COVID questions.

These disruptive changes to the way the restaurant employees conducted their daily tasks brought about some discomforts, socialization issues, and reassurances for those concerned about their health. GM explained how she was not thrilled to open the lobby to customers again; she stated,

Understanding that this is fast food and the company as a whole has now moved

back into having the lobbies open. I understand that we want to get back to a

sense of normalcy, but I am not a fan necessarily of my lobby being open.

The disruptive change of going back to old procedures after adhering to new policies that include

a sense of security for employees is another example of how radical change can alter the

workplace. Regarding work-life balance, many research participants expressed how COVID-19

caused them to pause and reevaluate what mattered in life (E3, E5, E7, GM, M3, M4, & M6).

The changes and closures brought on by COVID-19 enabled these employees and managers to

spend more time with their families and focus on other aspects of their lives apart from their

jobs.

GM stated,

I spent more time paying attention to my children. When COVID came out, I

found that we did some things that ordinarily we probably, not that we couldn't

have done; we just probably wouldn't have done. Like we did three or four

puzzles, like a 5000-piece puzzle; it was so much fun working on it for hours with

my boys. Just having them there and doing that was fun. So you know, we just

adjusted accordingly.

E5 expressed the joy of spending time with his *little girls* and having the time to do so because of

the shift in the work schedule because of COVID-19. The study results uncovered another aspect

of work-life balance regarding the impact of the radical changes of COVID-19. Many researcher

participants expressed their exhaustion because of their workload increasing (E2, M1, E3, E4,

E6, M2, E9, M4, M5, & M6). E2 stated, "I hardly got a break, and the bad thing about it is they

didn't even pay me extra." E4 explained, "A lot of people were coming in, and it got more hectic

because it was more to-go orders, and we had to get them out in a timely fashion." The COVID-19 crisis changed many aspects of the fast food and restaurant's standard operating procedures, emphasizing a contact-free model, which caused employees and managers to have more responsibilities. E8 mentioned, "To-go orders were a constant thing that backed us up a lot." Another change because of COVID-19 that impacted employees' workload, impacting their work-life balance, was the worker shortage across the United States. A participant from Subway expressed his displeasure with the much longer hours and less time spent with family because of the constant calling out, sickness, or quitting. The participant stated, "I am always by myself, they have me working alone, and I don't get time to get and hardly have time off. Look, I am closing now, and I have to open tomorrow; I am just frustrated." GM pointed out that:

> Many people don't want to work now. The government did an excellent job by,
> you know, giving unemployment. But the way it was administered, almost
> everybody got it. So people got relaxed not having to work. And so they're not so
> many diligent workers or workers at all. This puts pressure on my guys, who
> actually come in to do the work.

The study results included how radical changes could alter the workplace, having varying effects on the workers depending on the severity and the proximity of the change. In addition, the study results included the aspects of how radical changes during a crisis could improve and disrupt work-life balance depending on the situation.

Leadership, Colleagues, and Customers Impact Job Satisfaction

A critical factor that impacts organizational change involves leadership intervention or guidance (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015). The study results included the premise that leadership dynamics influence an employee's job satisfaction. An overwhelming consensus came from the

respondents that leadership guidance was of the utmost importance during this crisis (E1, E2, E3, E4, E5, E7 & E9). The continuous changes and requirements from the CDC and the state governance include leadership to provide constant updates to their employees. The study results found that some leaders communicated these changes better than others, directly impacting employee job satisfaction. Many employees expressed frustration with management and their lack of transparency, guidance, and undesirable styles when they needed help the most. E2 stated,

> So they just notified us whenever there was a new change in regulation because
> things were changing really, really fast. So it seemed like every day I would get to
> work, they would be like, we are doing something different; it was very random.
> They notified us, but that was really it, so I would say I was guided more than
> informed, which was confusing at times.

> E9 expressed his frustration with his manager and said, "the manager was not an expert, and she was really extremely rude and made me not want to work." This employee went on to say he hated his job; when asked what impacts his job satisfaction, he replied,

> I would definitely say the manager and partially the customer. The manager
> because they put like the regulations in place. And sometimes, it will be helpful;
> sometimes, it wasn't. And then, customers and coworkers impact how I feel about
> my job and how satisfied I am.

Leadership is responsible for initiating change and providing the proper tools and guidance to accomplish initiatives. When the perception exists that leadership is not achieving this goal, frustrations are articulated by many employees.
E4 stated,

In the workplace, I think I did have somewhat of a breakdown; I think I went off

on my manager because of their lack of leadership in certain areas and just a little

bit too much workload on top of the amount of staff that we had. Things were

kind of out of control and out of my care.

The study results revealed how employees paid close attention to management during this time

of the crisis, and these observations shaped their satisfaction with their job at that time.

Regarding how management handled the crisis and its impact on satisfaction, E2 stated:

It definitely was a level of lack of going above and beyond on their part

(colleagues). It was like, putting in bare minimum efforts, and then the way

management was set up, they kind of all buddy, buddy, so a lot would go swept

under the rug, which led to internal drama. And they kept switching management

too. It was such a mess, so yeah, I was not happy.

E2 continued to express how the perceived mismanagement of personnel during this crisis "left a

void in what workers felt management was doing to compensate for the new changes." GM

articulated that job satisfaction in most cases is contingent upon "people, people, people." The

study results revealed that when changes were implemented because of COVID-19, the response

of fellow workers had bearings on their job satisfaction.

E2 noted,

I was so frustrated because, I guess, as far as like nobody was being held

accountable. Just people just keep getting sick and having to miss work. And it's

making it harder on the people that aren't sick. Our work piles up, and it's like we

work in a restaurant; just wash your hands, wear your mask properly, wear your

gloves, easy stuff my coworkers just won't do, then we all suffer.

E9 stated that their coworkers did not all oblige to the new regulations, and it was very upsetting to them, to the point they did not want to work with them anymore because of the perceived recklessness. When I conducted observations at Subways in California, a discussion with an employee revealed the current displeasure with their job because of the workforce. As the employee indicated while preparing the sandwiches, he was furious, slamming work tools, sighing and grunting, and wearing a scowl on his face. I asked the employee how his day was, and he began to vent about feeling stuck at work alone because his coworker likes to use COVID-19 as a get-out-of-work-free card. This made the employee agitated because he did not receive appropriate compensation and was overworked and underpaid. The employee expressed how management did not provide adequate help to do his job efficiently. Opening and closing the store was too much for this employee to handle, and he stated that he wanted to quit the job. The study results revealed that hostilities began to arise because of the challenges from the changes brought on by COVID-19. These conflicts had a direct effect on job satisfaction. E4 said,

> There was definitely some hostility amongst the team, you know, a lot of people were always on edge, and management kind of had their ups and downs with how you know, their patience with us and how they managed the situations. Everybody, you know, just had a lot of tasks to do, and it became overwhelming and mundane at the same time. It was just a lot easier to get along with people before the pandemic; we didn't really have to fight about mandates and things.

These shifts in the workplace impacted the employees' job satisfaction in such a way that multiple research participants experienced a mass exit of workers.

M1 detailed,

Not only did the workers officially quit or just stop coming, but other managers

quit as well for varying reasons. Either they were not comfortable with working

under such conditions in such close proximity with others, or they were

overworked because of constant personnel shifts.

The COVID-19 crisis caused customers to act unruly toward employees, which impacted their

job satisfaction. E9 expressed, "Some customers had a problem with the mask mandate. I mean,

some people didn't like it. They didn't want to wear masks which caused problems in the lobby

at times." Regulations changed for both the employees and the customers causing friction

between the two.

E5 stated,

One of the biggest problems, I would say, is customers. So when you're talking,

when you're taking somebody's order, whatever the case might be, some people

are really tight when it comes to keeping the mask up and social distancing. Also,

when you got the mask up, a lot of people can't hear you. And so, you have a

tendency to bring the mask down and try to talk so that they can hear you, but

then they blow upon you. So it makes customer service a little difficult, especially

when it's peak hours and they have to wait long, never a good day. But I will say

one of the major issues was we got a lot of attitudes from customers that is

frustration, but you gotta let roll off your back.

Many participants concurred that this crisis seemed to escalate the difficulty of dealing with

customers, which negatively impacted job satisfaction (E1, E2, M1, E4, E5, M2, M3, & E9).

Organizational Change Causes Stress Which Impacts Job Satisfaction

A common theme articulated throughout this study was the increased level of stress each participant experienced during the COVID-19 crisis. The uncertainty in organizational change is a common stressor for change agents (Haynie et al., 2016). Stress directly impacts the level of enjoyment or contentment an individual feels with their employment. Multiple interviewees expressed that the stress level caused, by all the changes, impacted their job satisfaction when asked how satisfied they felt with their current position (E2, E3, E4, E5, M2, M3, E9, M4, M5, & M6). Stress because of change placed a burden on employees, which influenced their emotions.

E3 stated,

> I was very stressed all the time, like burned out. It's draining having to change all the time; I mean, I get it, and believe me, I obeyed, but it was just not a good thing. I really do not want to work in the restaurant industry anymore, to be honest.

Radical changes because of a crisis can change the thoughts and feelings of employees toward their jobs, leading to high employee turnover as multiple interviewees expressed their experiences with other coworkers. Many participants suggested that the stress they experienced impacted their mood with customers and coworkers (E2, E4, E5, & E9). E5 stated:

> I was under a lot more stress. It was very stressful when they started adding more stuff to do. I kept forgetting what I was doing and where I was supposed to go to the point I didn't want to be around anyone at that point. Like I didn't want to serve with a smile, but I knew I had to; I had to focus on the customer even when I was mad.

This study revealed that the continuous changes from the COVID-19 crisis made many

employees disgruntled, which impacted work efficiencies, as GM indicated. GM indicated that:

> COVID changed the way people worked; you had some employees come and
>
> work like they should, while you had others do the bare minimum and put forth
>
> no effort and take out their frustrations on my customers. I had to counsel a few
>
> employees and remind them of the customer-centric service we provide at
>
> Bojangles.

Stress emerges throughout the interviews proving a significant factor in change management

during crises.

Communication Impacts Job Satisfaction and Employee Resistance

Failed change management initiatives are a result of failing communications (Barratt-

Pugh & Bahn, 2015). The breakdown in communication concerning change management

practices is the culprit of the challenges organizational managers experience when trying to

implement new change efforts (Barratt-Pugh & Bahn, 2015). The study's results indicated that

communication was influential in how employees responded to the changes brought about by

COVID-19. Employees felt equipped to cope with the changes when they felt like they were

receiving the proper guidance from management and the HR personnel. E7 said, "Oh, I felt like

my manager did a great job of keeping us in the know, and that really helped me cope with the

changes; I felt prepared." E1 expressed, "My manager and HR were good about telling us what

was going on and when the CDC was changing things, they let us know, and I appreciated that."

Communicating changes when they happen helps the employees shift their behaviors,

expectations, and thought processes, which helps them cope with the changes. Communication

changes impacted how employees felt about their job; E7 noted, "I love my manager; she made

sure we were prepared, she never kept us in the dark, and that made me feel comfortable; I felt like I was equipped to handle the changes because of her." Effective communication involves clear and consistent communication. E4 stated, " I guess from a host perspective, when I was given the guidance, I mean, we just kind of followed the protocol. We knew what to do, so we did it." The study results uncovered that resistance to change falls when communication aligns with change. The employees expressed that when they received proper guidance from management or their HR personnel, they did not resist but rather followed because they perceived it as essential, especially when dealing with a crisis that impacts every stakeholder. M1 noted,

> I always kept my guys informed and passed down Everything that was given to me regarding new regulations or operational procedures because I found that when I did that, it built trust, and when my employees trust me, they will work hard for me. They know I have their best interest at heart, so they do what they are supposed to do, and I have little problems.

Conversely, when proper communication is not available, the opposite effect happens. E2 said,

> I mean, we received no guidance, really, I heard what was going on from the news and whatnot, but truthfully, the management doesn't actually care for people following the guidelines and whatnot. So obviously, it doesn't help people; if the management's not enforcing it, they did not really guide people to the change.

E3 expressed her discontentment with the lack of communication during the change when she asserted:

All right, so they just kept us up to date as far as the things that have changed, but they never explained stuff to us like why they are cutting our hours or why we have to close the dining room today; it's just do this, and that's it. So yeah, talk about being in the dark about things.

Lack of clear and consistent communication decreased the motivation of some research participants even to want to work (E2, E3, E4, E5, M2, & E9). M2 stated she only did her job to help the customers but not to help the company because she perceived that the level of care from management and human resources was lacking. M2 explained:

Listen, upper management doesn't care about me, so why should I care about them? I mean, I do my job for my customers, that's it. They can't even tell me what's going on, so it is like, okay, I am going to do me to keep my job, but that's it.

E4 framed as such,

Guidance was very practical but not really applicable. Guidance basically boiled down to deal with it or go with the flow. So it left a void in the workers. I am someone that does good under pressure. So I feel like I can handle it. But I would often go home feeling burdened or tired from a long day.

The lack of effective communication was burdensome for the employees who were seeking direction during a turbulent time, which caused a loss of job satisfaction and willingness to accept change.

Employee Resistance is Present when challenges of Bodily Autonomy Exist

Change is complex when met with resistance to the proposed efforts. Most change management initiatives fail because of employee resistance (Ferreira et al., 2018). Most change

involves forms of resistance from employees for many reasons. This study included an interesting perspective regarding employee resistance. Many of the change initiatives did not depend on the nature and reasoning for the changes. The study results revealed that employees were not resistant to operational changes during crises because of the perceived risks of non-compliance. However, a form of resistance occurred in this study. The resistance to change involved a perceived violation of bodily autonomy. The only resistance among the participants articulated was the resistance to taking a mandated vaccination. M3 stated:

> I actually recently lost a job at a restaurant because of COVID because, well, of my decision. They created a vaccination policy, and I decided not to go that route, so because I decided not to get vaccinated, they let me go.

E5 stated when asked if he resisted any changes because of COVID-19,

> Oh yeah, the vaccine, the vaccine, the vaccine, I resisted taking that. They began a forced mandate on everybody, and I said no. I have to be concerned with my own personal health status before getting vaccinated because some of the vaccines have caused blood clots and rashes; I mean, people react differently to the vaccine, so I can't just get it because they told me to.

The changes that involved an individual's personal health were the unwillingness to cooperate. When asked why they resisted this change, the consensus was that it violated their personal space. Bodily autonomy was of grave concern for those who said they resisted the mandate to get vaccinated (E4, E5, M2, & M3). These people were not willing to change their health status for the sake of employment. E5 stated, "I am not going to jeopardize my health for a job, no way. So, I am still appealing the vaccine mandate, so we will see what happens." M1 informed me that the primary type of resistance to change that they experienced from their employees was the

pressure concerning the vaccine. M1 stated that employers lost a lot of employees because they would not adhere to that mandate. The study results revealed that resistance to the changes brought on by COVID-19 emerged when a perceived violation of an individual's health existed.

The Role of Human Resources Perceived as Ambiguous

Human resource personnel is responsible for enacting and facilitating change in organizations (SHRM, 2020). To effectively manage people, HR must effectively manage change. Chaudhry and Joshi (2017) indicated that the HR personnel's duty during times of change is to provide an outlet for grievances and relay pertinent information to change recipients. Failed change initiatives are a human resource management challenge that persists within organizations (SHRM, 2020). The study results revealed that the HR sector's involvement in the change process during the COVID-19 crisis was ambiguous to employees. However, management had a clear depiction of HR's role during the crisis. From many of the employee's stances, they could not comment on HR's role in change management during the COVID-19 crisis because they needed to know what their involvement entailed (E2, E4, E5, E6, E7, & E9). E5 stated, "I had no interaction with HR during the pandemic because they telework. I never spoke to them or see them, so I cannot comment on their assistance with the changes." E9 said, "HR did not really play a role, I guess, I mean, I don't have interactions with them, so I really do not know." These employees had no interaction with HR during the implementation period of COVID-19 protocol changes. Others had little interaction with HR and deemed them useless during the COVID-19 crisis. E2 said, "I don't think HR management has done enough, but I try not to give them too much grief about it."

E7 annotated,

I don't answer with HR unless it's necessary, like for pay or whatever. Our HR

department has done a lot of working from home, so I don't know if they were

helpful; I think upper management hears from HR, not us.

E9 stated, "Um, I didn't really experience a lot with HR because they didn't really say much to us. I didn't put in a complaint, so I didn't have to answer to them." These type of responses regarding no interaction or little to no correspondence with the HR sector during the COVID-19 sector was common. Many of the employees could not respond to HR's role in change management because they were simply unsure. HR's role was unclear to employees if HR was part of change management initiatives.

E4 indicated,

I don't know what they did; we really didn't see them anymore, they were either in

a frame building during COVID, or they worked remotely. Oh, we used to have a

phone we could talk to them in-house, but that became only by appointment, and

a lot of people did not have the phone number.

Other employees expressed that HR did not provide clear instructions or help with the transitional process regarding the changes brought on by COVID-19, but instead, they told them what the changes were and when they needed to occur (E2, E4, E5, E6, E7, & E9). E6 expressed that they shared a grievance with HR, but as she put it, "They were not hearing the seriousness of us being overworked, the ones that are willing to work because of the ones who left."

E2 expressed,

I couldn't say much about them, to be honest. They were actually pretty confused

because, like certain procedures and stuff, they would kind of not be coordinating

with management, and there was a lot of confusion all over the place. Yeah, we

kind of were as the employees on our own, like had to fin for ourselves and make
sure we got things right.

This study revealed that employees experienced a lot of ambiguity regarding what HR's purpose was in the change efforts because of COVID-19. However, HR has an essential role in change management efforts from a managerial perspective.

M1 stated,

HR was instrumental in the COVID-19 changes. So, the ladies in our HR department were really nice during the whole thing. And they were really good about, like, helping reinforce what the guidelines are for the time. Every time there was a new mass requirement or the loosening of the requirements, they would let everybody know, okay, just sign this form, and you don't have to do anything anymore. So, I think they're just really good at keeping everybody updated as to what's expected from them.

GM described her experience with HR as follows:

A very useful asset. They assisted with bonuses and total pay raises. They helped by acknowledging my guys for their work efforts, and when things got hectic and my employees were getting scared and even some quit, our HR department remained level-headed and rewarded as they saw fit to ensure we were doing our best to manage retention.

M3 expressed this sentiment regarding HR:

They were actually pretty good. As far as communication with our HR, he is a great person and the only person; I never experienced one person accomplishing what he did, especially during this time managing the rules. He put out information, and it was very well communicated. They implemented pay increases to boost morale and compensate

for the workload. They were very communicative throughout all the changes, and when

the vaccine came out, they also were very communicative and let people know the

information and why it was important to get it.

Management had a clear picture of HR's involvement and their efforts to ensure that the

personnel received care during this change because of crises. This study did have a few outliers

where employees did feel that the HR personnel did help with the changes because of COVID-19

(E1, E3, & E8).

E7 even stated,

I feel like HR has been quite supportive as far as like making sure that we have the time

off per se. And then also, you know, there were certain jobs that would give you COVID

pay and such if you were to get sick, so I feel like they were pretty open, and they wanted

you to be open as well.

Overall, the HR sector was not visible to the employees during the change implementations

brought on by COVID-19, yet they were in constant communication with management.

Representation and Visualization of the Data

Figure 2

Type of Organizational Changes
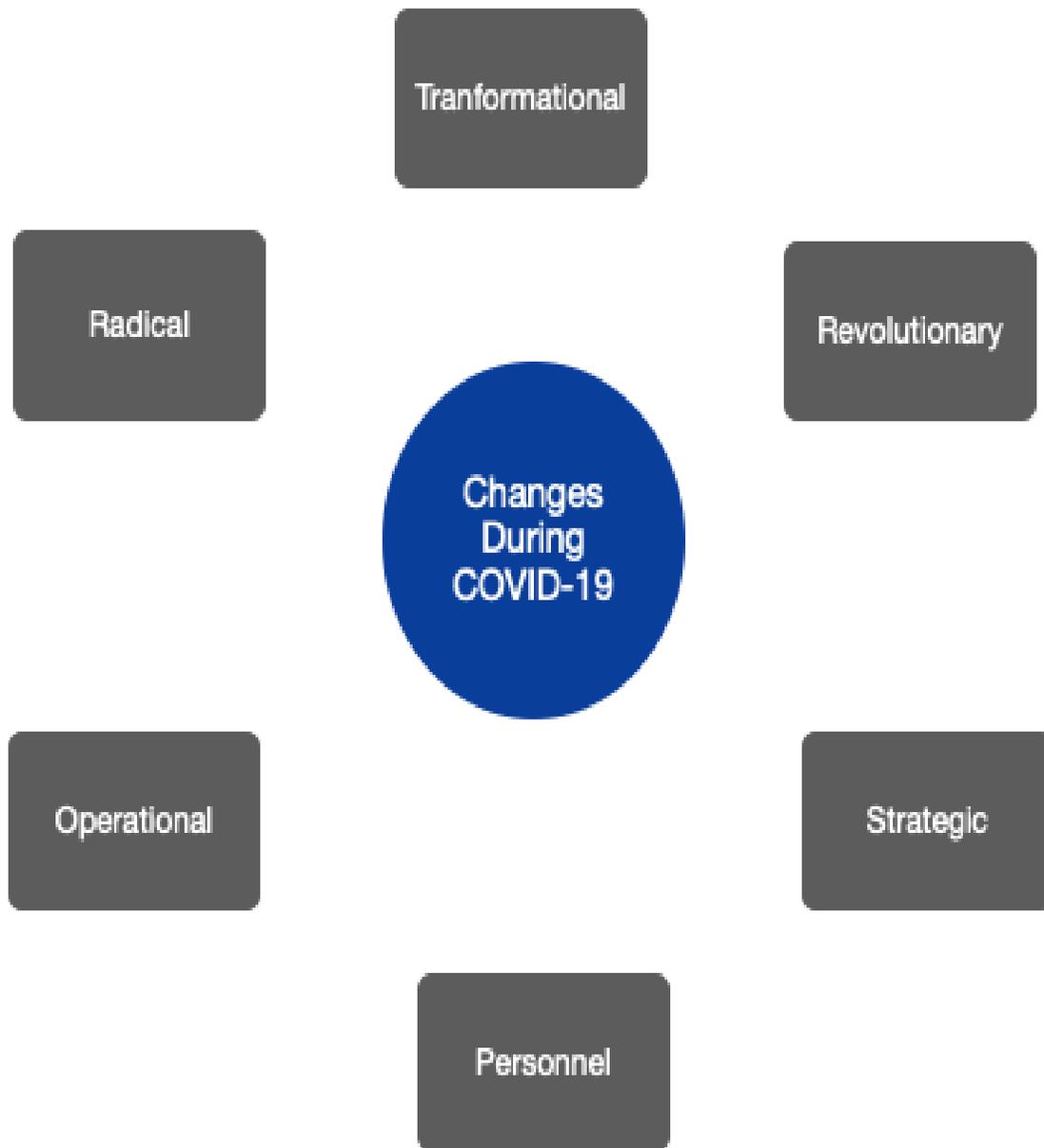
Note. Types of changes experienced during the COVID-19 crisis

Figure 3

Themes/Codes

Note. Themes/Codes discovered from the data color-coded by categories

Figure 4

Themes/Codes Cont.
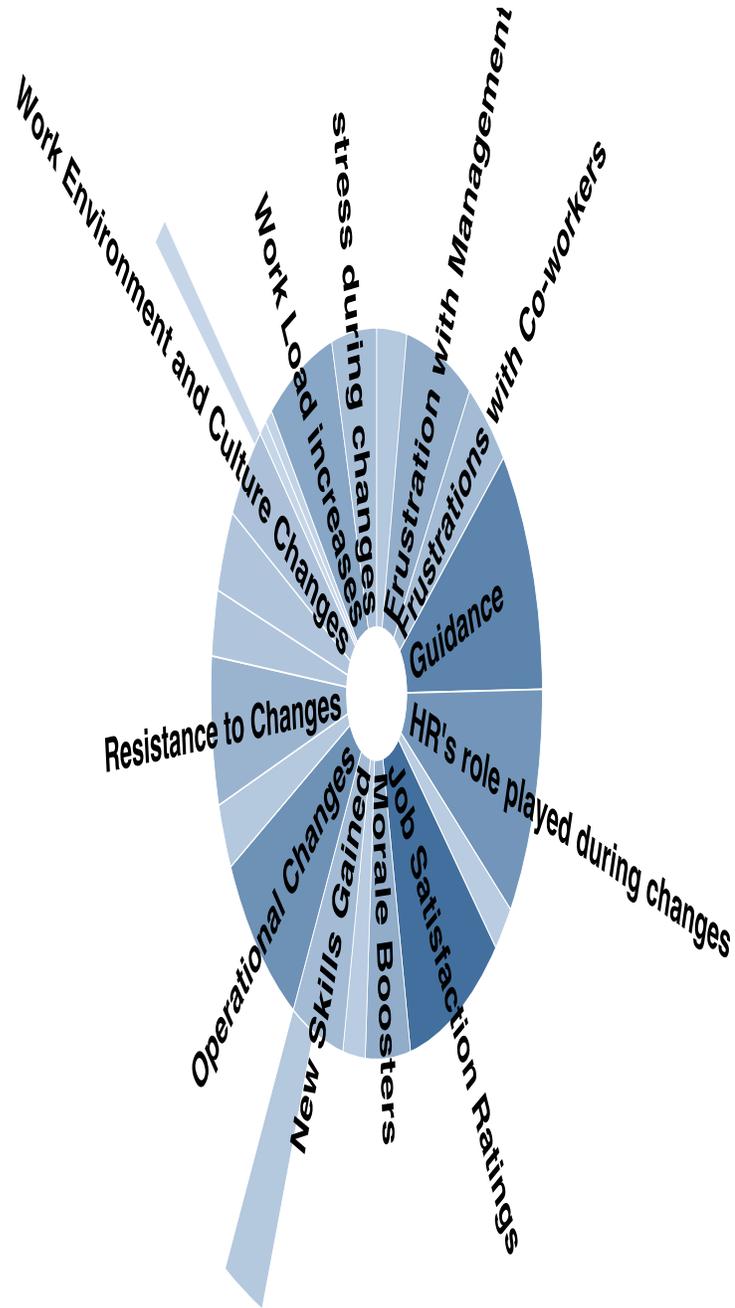
Note. Themes/Codes discovered from the data depicted in a circle graph

Figure 5

Research Participants/Interviewees
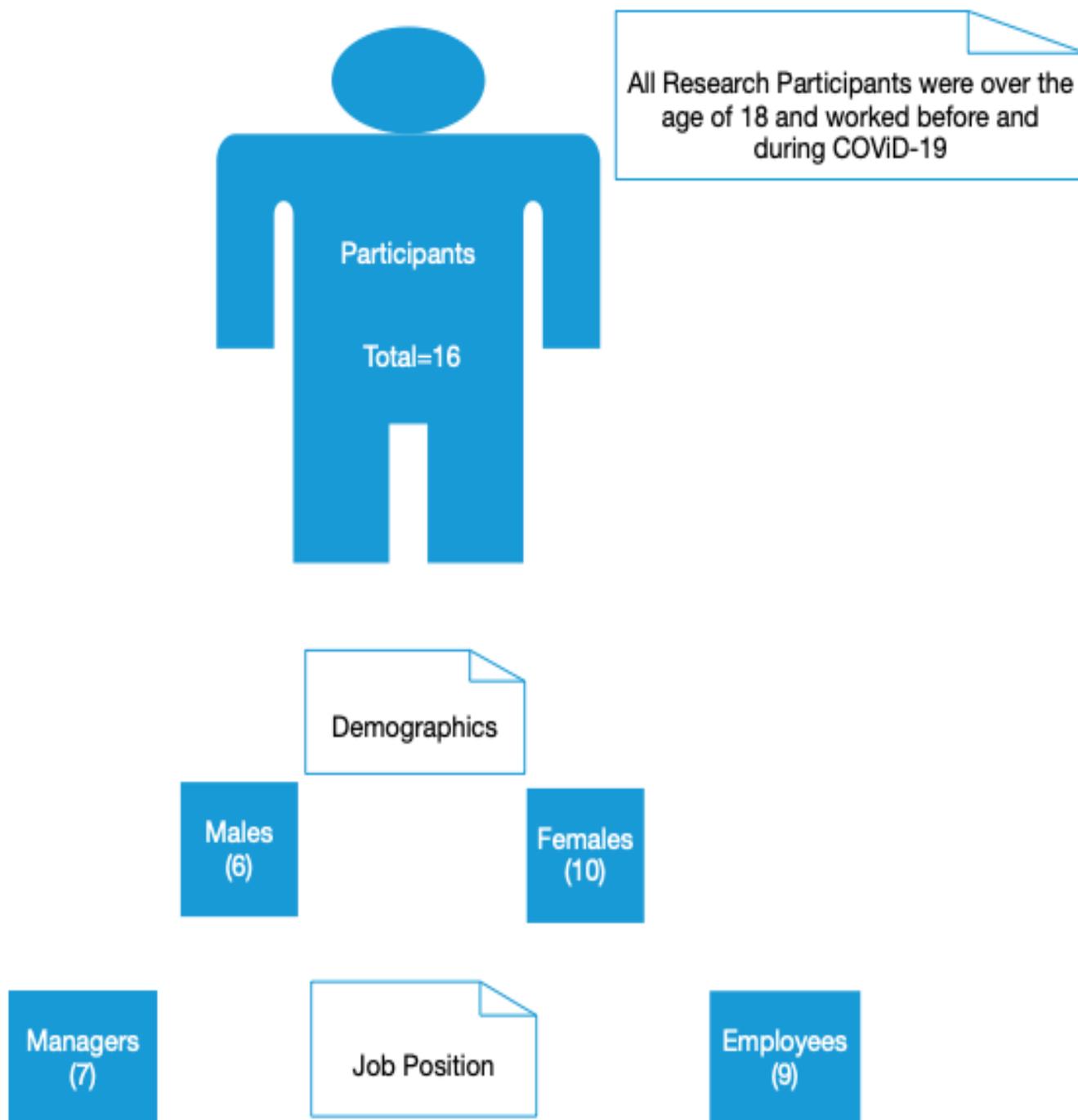
Note. Depiction of research participants involved in this study

Table 4

Research Participants

Participants	Yrs. of Experience	Location	Restaurant	Position
Participant 1	3yrs	*California*	*Chick-fil-A*	*Cashier*
Participant 2	5yrs	*California*	*The Breakfast Republic*	*Cook*
Participant 3	3yrs	*Virginia*	*McDonald's*	*Manager*
Participant 4	10yrs	*California*	*Corner Bakery Cafe*	*Line Cook*
Participant 5	5yrs	*California*	*Aleteia*	*Waiter*
Participant 6	7yrs	*California*	*Aleteia*	*Bartender/Waiter*
Participant 7	6yrs	*Virginia*	*Five Guys and Qdoba*	*Janitor*
Participant 8	5yrs	*Virginia*	*Subways*	*Manager*
Participant 9	6yrs	*North Carolina*	*Bojangles*	*Cashier*
Participant 10	10yrs	*Virginia*	*Red Lobster*	*Cook*
Participant 11	7yrs	*North Carolina*	*Bojangles*	*General Manager*
Participant 12	8yrs	*Virginia*	*Silver Diner*	*Manager*
Participant 13	3yrs	*North Carolina*	*Burger King and Little Caesars*	*Cashier*
Participant 14	8yrs	*North Carolina*	*Pizza Hut*	*Manager*
Participant 15	5yrs	*North Carolina*	*Kalypso*	*Owner/Manager*
Participant 16	20yrs	*Virginia*	*Food Services*	*Manager*

Note. Research participants' work experience

Table 5

Code Description

Participants	Code	Restaurant	Position
Participant 1	*E1*	*Chick-fil-A*	*Cashier*
Participant 2	*E2*	*The Breakfast Republic*	*Cook*

Participant 3	M1	McDonald's	Manager
Participant 4	E3	Corner Bakery Cafe	Line Cook
Participant 5	E4	Aleteia	Waiter
Participant 6	E5	Aleteia	Bartender/Waiter
Participant 7	E6	Five Guys and Qdoba	Janitor
Participant 8	M2	Subways	Manager
Participant 9	E7	Bojangles	Cashier
Participant 10	E8	Red Lobster	Cook
Participant 11	GM	Bojangles	General Manager
Participant 12	M3	Silver Diner	Manager
Participant 13	E9	Burger King and Little Caesars	Cashier
Participant 14	M4	Pizza Hut	Manager
Participant 15	M5	Kalypso	Owner/Manager
Participant 16	M6	Food Services	Manager

Note. Codes used to describe research participants in this study. The code description includes

the letters E for employees, M for managers, and GM for the general manager.

Figure 6

Multiple Case Study Locations
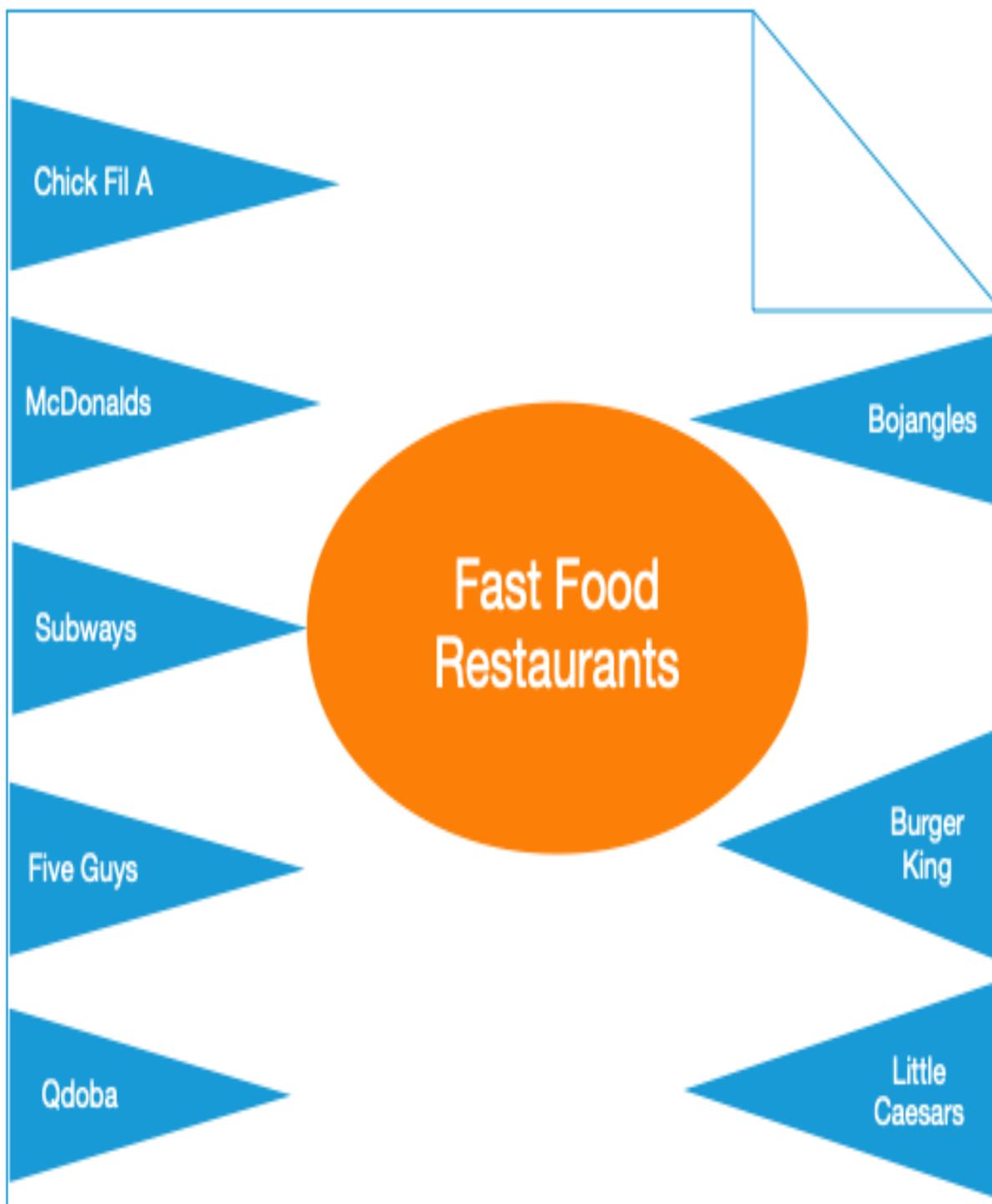
Note. Fast Food establishments where the participants worked in the study

Figure 7

Multiple Case Study Locations Cont.
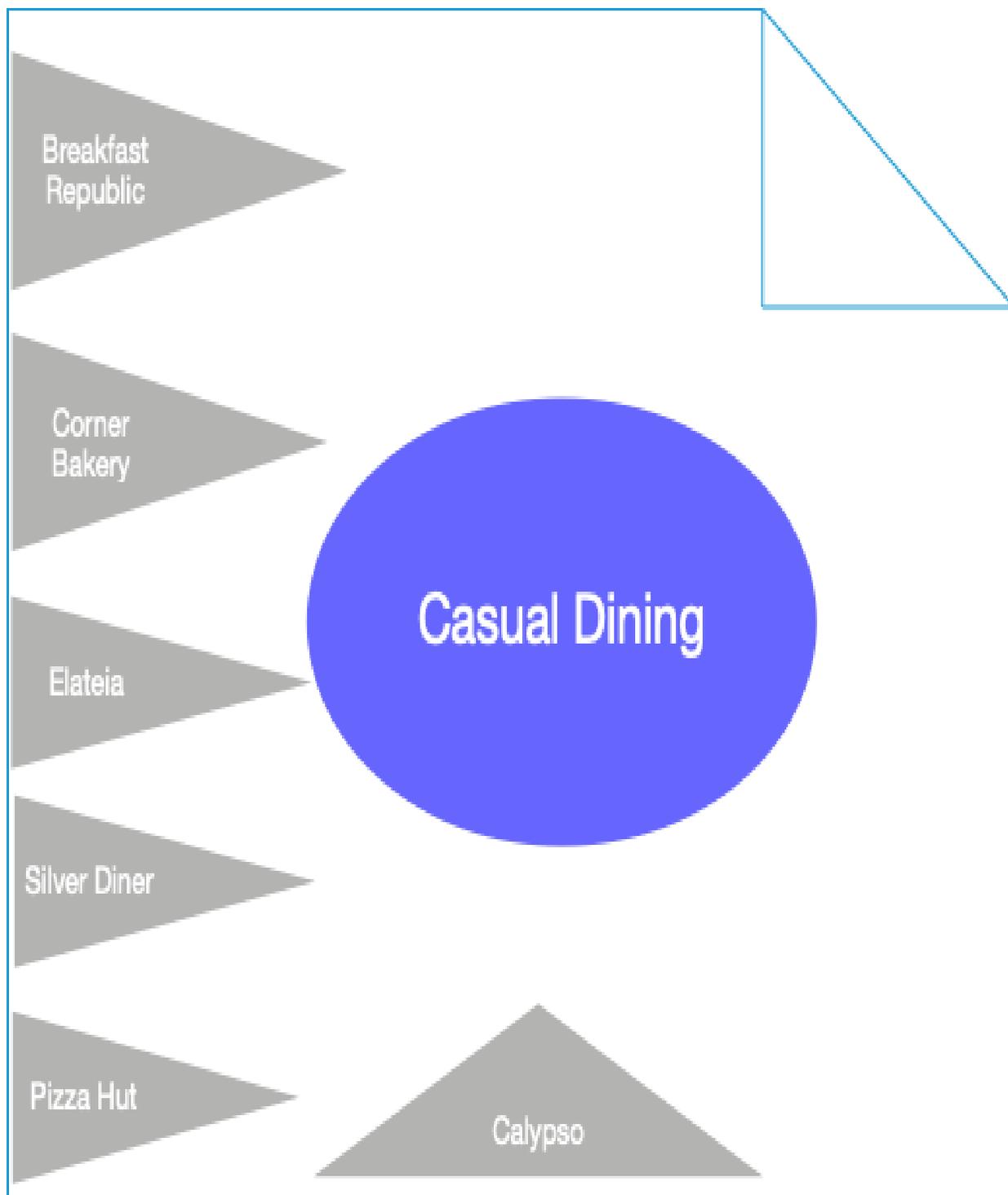
Note. Casual Dining establishments where the participants worked in the study

Table 6

Key Interview Quotes

Participants	Interview Excerpt	Category	Theme
Participant 2 (E2)	"The whole COVID thing caused much fear. I mean, I was going to follow what I was told because I had to. We knew nothing about this virus. They told me to wear the mask, and I did; wash my hands, I did. Change my ways for sure. I have to stay safe for me and my family, you know."	Change Management During Crises	Panic Influenced Change
Participant 3 (M1)	"You know we didn't receive much pushback. My guys listened to what we had to implement for the most part. I would say that fear played a part in that; we didn't know what to expect, so we followed what the CDC told us."		
Participant 4 (E3)	"I battled a lot of fear during this pandemic. I always follow rules, but I made sure I did so even more. I still struggle with fear and just my job as a whole."		
Participant 9 (E7)	"Oh, I follow the rules and all the changes. When they tell us to do something, it is for our good, so yes. We don't know what could happen if we get COVID, and being around so many people, I was quick to follow all that the CDC told us to stay safe. I am not catching COVID for no one. I can't take that risk, so yes, I obeyed everything I was told. "		
Participant 13 (E9)	"Yes, I followed all the rules because I was scared what would happen if I caught it and brought it back to my family."		
Participant 1 (E1)	"It was stressful after COVID, but overall, my job satisfaction was okay."	Job Satisfaction	Factors that Impacted Job Satisfaction
Participant 2 (E2)	"I mean, I would say my job satisfaction is not high. The people I work with don't want to follow the rules, so that makes me mad, like I am trying to stay safe, and they won't wear their masks right. So yeah, the		

	people and my managers don't really care like that, so yeah."		
Participant 6 (E5)	"I mean, in terms of a number, I would give it a 4. Morale is really low with all the changes and the working conditions. I work a lot, and they don't pay me for it. Yeah, that's what I will say on that one."		
Participant 11 (GM)	"We try to incorporate incentives for our guys to boost morale and improve job satisfaction. So, we gave pay raises and were sure to communicate what was going on when we received the information. We hosted pizza parties to show that we care about our people."		
Participant 13 (E9)	"If you mean a number? Well, maybe a two. My manager was not good, which makes me hate my job. The manager was not an expert and was really extremely rude and made me not want to work."		
Participant 16 (M6)	"I mean, I love my job. It got really stressful, but I have been doing this for 20 years. I love my job."		
Participant 3 (M1)	"Regarding the mandates passed on down by corporate, I saw a mass exit from some of my employees who just were not willing to get the shot."	Employee Resistance	Factors that Contributed to Resistance
Participant 6 (E5)	"Oh yeah, the vaccine, the vaccine, the vaccine, I resisted taking that. They began a forced mandate to everybody, and I said no. I have to be concerned with my own personal health status before getting vaccinated because some of the vaccines have caused blood clots and rashes; I mean, people react differently to the vaccine, so I can't just get it because they told me to."		
Participant 12 (M3)	"I actually recently lost a job at a restaurant because of COVID because, well, of my decision. They created a vaccination policy, and I decided not		

	to go that route, so because I decided not to get vaccinated, they let me go."		
Participant 1 (E1)	"Umm, I can't say much about human resources because I never talked to them."	Human Resource Management During Change	Perceived Effectiveness
Participant 2 (E2)	"Naw, I don't know their role."		
Participant 3 (M1)	"HR was instrumental in the COVID-19 changes. So, the ladies in our HR department were really nice during the whole thing. And they were really good about, like, helping reinforce what the guidelines are for the time. Every time there was a new mass requirement or the loosening of the requirements, they would let everybody know, okay, just sign this form, and you don't have to do anything anymore. So, I think they're just really good at keeping everybody updated as to what's expected from them."		
Participant 4 (E3)	"Umm, I can't say much about HR, I mean, they told us what was going on with the CDC regulations, but I do not know their role played in helping with the changes, sorry."		
Participant 5 (E4)	"I can't say much about HR; not sure what they did."		
Participant 6 (E5)	"Ahhh, HR, no, I don't know if they played a role in assisting with the changes."		
Participant 7 (E6)	"HR, not really sure I guess they talked with the managers."		
Participant 9 (E7)	"I feel like HR has been quite supportive as far as like making sure that we have time off per se. And then also, you know, there were certain jobs that would give you COVID pay and such if you were to get sick, so I		

	feel like they were pretty open, and they wanted you to be open as well."
Participant 11 (GM)	"A very useful asset. They assisted with bonuses and total pay raises. They helped by acknowledging my guys for their work efforts, and when things got hectic and my employees were getting scared and even some quit, our HR department remained level-headed and rewarded as they saw fit to ensure we were doing our best to manage retention."

Note. Interview Excerpts from the research that provided key insights into specific themes.

Relationship of the Findings

In this research, I intended to gain additional insight into the HR sector's problem regarding proper change management. Many change initiatives fail within organizations for several reasons, including the type of change implemented, the degree of change proposed, and the circumstances surrounding change (Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015). Change management efforts consistently failed throughout many sectors (Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). I sought to understand how a crisis impacts organizational change initiatives. The findings correlate with the food services sector, given all insights gleaned from change agents in this sector. These findings do not transcend other sectors and should only align with other business sectors with further research. The uniqueness of this study was that the intent is on change management during a crisis.

Additionally, I sought to understand how failing change efforts impact job satisfaction and employee resistance. The findings revealed that change efforts during a crisis are different from typical organizational change efforts. The result of this study indicated that the type of

change has little bearing on the success rate because research participants comply with the operational changes because of the change g during a crisis. The research participants were eager to comply with the changes brought on by COVID-19 in the restaurant industry because of the perceived risks in the business sector. Employees received continuous exposure to potential virus carriers that threatened their well-being. Many respondents expressed their concerns about the non-compliance of others and the importance of following the instructions passed on by the CDC to ensure their safety as frontline workers. The interviewees provided continuous service through the pandemic crisis and wanted assurance that they were safeguarding themselves. The interviewees perceived that compliance with the operational changes included wearing a mask, social distancing, curbside assistance, closed lobbies, outside dining, glove-wearing, and excessive sanitizing measures were necessary modifications despite their hardships.

However, the study results did conclude that most change initiatives did succeed in the restaurant sector, but job satisfaction received negative influence by these changes. An overwhelming majority of respondents expressed how much fear they felt throughout the changes brought on by COVID-19. Fears ranged from job security because of restaurant closures to health concerns because of the proximity of customers and colleagues. The research respondents rated current job satisfaction low after the COVID-19 changes by the research respondents. Some voiced their displeasure with their job because of overwork loads caused by personnel shortages. Layoff caused retention issues, sicknesses, and personnel changes. In addition, layoffs cause undue strain on employees, directly impacting their job satisfaction. Many respondents, including some managers, expressed feeling *burnt out at work* resulting from the COVID-19 changes in the workplace (E2, E3, E4, E5, M2, GM, M3, E9, M4, M5, & M6). From the findings, the additional work required, with no increase in income, caused

dissatisfaction among many workers. Operational changes include a change in business models of the restaurant industry that caused stress for many workers who voiced their discontentment with the uncertainties brought on by COVID-19 changes.

The findings included the premise that job satisfaction was contingent upon work relationships. Participants who felt that management and the human resources personnel kept them informed with effective communication rated their job satisfaction higher than those who perceived that guidance was lacking. Interviewees received incentives, such as pay increases and morale boosters, to compensate for the extra work and struggles. The changes caused by the COVID-19 crisis made the participants rate their job satisfaction at a lower rate than those who felt that they worked more but did not receive compensation. Another factor that impacts job satisfaction is the interactions with co-workers.

A few participants lamented that they could no longer assemble with fellow employees and organically interact with each other (E1, E4, E5, E6, &E8). Social distancing caused friction for some respondents with co-workers, which changed their work environment and work experience (E2, E6, &E9). A disconnect between the employees, articulated by some individuals, reflected the complaints about their work relationships with other employees as strained because of the new mandates (E2, E4, E5, & E9). Other job satisfaction ratings received negative influence by frustrations articulated by some respondents involving co-workers' non-compliance with some changes (E2 & E9). Customer interactions impacted job satisfaction. As the research proposal included, the change directly impacts job satisfaction. Higher job satisfaction ratings were contingent upon how well-equipped individuals felt they were to manage the changes brought on by COVID-19. Lower job satisfaction ratings resulted from the problems of worker shortages, strenuous changes, and a lack of support with no human resource intervention.

In this proposal, I sought to understand the phenomena of employee resistance during organizational change. The findings revealed that the vaccination mandate was employees' only resistance to change. The threat of COVID-19 was perceived as a risky crisis that warrants total compliance in the food sector. A sector that manages food must include extra precautions with health and sanitation measures. Therefore, operational changes received no resistance; the only resistance to change occurred when a perceived threat to bodily autonomy emerged. Many research participants voiced that they felt violated by their employers refusing to get vaccinated or losing their jobs (E4, E5, M2, & M3). E5 is actively appealing the mandate and filing for an exemption, while another individual lost their previous job because of the changes in their restaurant's regulations brought on by COVID-19. The reason for the abnormality of the study is that change management manifests itself differently during times of crisis, mainly when a crisis directly affects the well-being of the change agents.

The role of the human resource personnel was the core of this research proposal considering that change management is an HR problem (SHRM, 2020). The findings did reveal that although change initiatives did not fail during the COVID-19 crisis in the food service sector, HR involvement did. The data showed that employees were not aware of HR's involvement in change. The employees would articulate guidance from management rather than from HR. Many research participants revealed that HR was out of the picture because of changes in their work structure. Many respondents indicated that their HR department personnel teleworked and were no longer available for questions or complaints. E5 stated that a new system put in place included an appointment with an HR person to voice struggles with the changes from the crisis. Still, employees needed to familiarize themselves with the new process of filing grievances or seeking information. The findings included that the HR sector's role in change

management received the perception as ambiguous to the employees yet clear to the managers. Management better understood HR's role in facilitating change during the pandemic crisis. This limited the HR personnel from serving employees and assisting with change initiatives, a responsibility allotted to HR managers and food service management (Jeong & Shin, 2019).

The Research Questions

1. How do organizations fail to address the recurring human resources challenge of organizational change?

The failure to address organizational change comes in many forms. Leadership is responsible for implementing change (Phoolka, 2018). Failures exist when leaders neglect to bring about the necessary change because of faulty methods and a misunderstanding of employee readiness (Phoolka, 2018). In addition, failures exist because of misguided assumptions, failed attempts to engage change recipients, lack of communication, and mismanagement and understanding of culture (Barratt-Pugh & Bahn, 2015). Misappropriated change strategies and a problem-centric rather than people-centric approach to change lead to failing attempts to address organizational change (Bakari et al., 2017). The findings included that the changes experienced by these individuals were many and abrupt. E1 explained the changes by proclaiming, "Oh, I experienced rapid changes, especially how we interacted with customers. We had to wear masks and wash our hands every hour. We had to maintain a distance between customers, making it hard to communicate." The changes brought on by the COVID-19 crisis were radical, transformative, and mandatory, which aligned with significant intervention from leadership. The findings showed that the failure to address organizational change came from poor communication. Some research participants expressed how leadership and the HR personnel could have done a better job communicating how to implement the changes effectively; instead,

they communicated the need for the changes. M1 provided some insight into managers' struggles

when implementing changes required by the CDC. M1 stated,

> We all were trying to figure this thing out; whenever I received information on
>
> what changes needed to be followed from the CDC, I informed my guys. Now,
>
> did I know exactly what to do from there at the time? Of course not, things were
>
> changing all the time, and I was just letting them know what I knew.

Organizational leaders and managers often fail to address change, especially during a crisis that

unexpectantly disrupts a sector, because of a lack of information and knowledge. Unexpected

change should include a reactive response rather than initiative-taking, which makes change

challenging to address. The findings showed that employees did not feel they could deal with the

changes because their leadership did not have the experience to deal with the change.

 E9 bluntly stated that he felt his manager did not know what she was doing. Change that

causes confusion throughout the organizational structure is a change that will not receive

addressing, no matter the outcome. Effective change is successful when received by the change

recipients. These findings showed that change emerged because it was mandatory given the

circumstances; however, change was only sometimes successful because many of the

respondents needed help coping with the changes.

a. What organizational actions and behaviors contribute to the failure of

organizations to address organizational change during the COVID-19 pandemic?

The typical action which impacts effective attempts to address organizational change is a

need for more guidance. Some employees stated that the guidance they received from leadership

and the CDC was good enough to help them with the changes because of COVID-19. In contrast,

a vast majority stated that their guidance needed to be improved to help them personally cope

with the changes. Guidance was available, but the tools to implement the change were not. For example, E6 stated,

"Yeah, they would tell us what to do like clean every hour and to change our gloves every hour, but we didn't have enough gloves to do it. I mean, management cared, but it seemed like, at times, they didn't. It was like, hey, do this, but if you couldn't do it, it was like, hey whatever."

The behavioral issue that contributed to failed attempts to address organizational change was expectations that came without the resources to comply. M2 interestingly stated this issue like this,

I mean, no, they (upper management) didn't really provide guidance to us; it was more like this is the change. So, I am like, okay, now what, you expect me to serve food in a certain way now, but you are not going to show me how? What sense does that make?

When asked if M2 felt equipped to handle the changes because of the guidance received, she sternly responded with a -word response of, *No*. This common issue was throughout the findings. Participants did not feel they had the proper competencies and training to achieve the desired change, especially from an operational standpoint.

       b.   What organizational actions and behaviors contribute to successful organizational change during the COVID-19 pandemic?

The findings revealed that the organizations that included training and incentives for their employees during the COVID-19 crisis were successful in the organizational change efforts of addressing a problem while accommodating change recipients. The research participants, who stated that they felt they received practical guidance from their leadership, received some form of

training. E7 asserted that she felt equipped to cope with the changes because of the weekly

training. E7 informed me that Bojangles constructed training programs to address the changes

caused by the COVID-19 crisis. E8 stated that their restaurant gave them pay raises to help cope

with the increasing workload. This inspired the employees to continue to work with a purpose

and a common goal in mind as they perceived their managers showed compassion for their well-

being. Another organizational action that contributed to successful organizational change was

cross-training, which included opportunities for advancement.

The findings included that the organizations that had employees learn new aspects of the job

and work in areas not available if the COVID-19 crisis did not occur. The employees gained new

competencies and contributed to the successful implementation of the change. The employees

felt better equipped to deal with the changes and problems that arose in the workplace. An

example of this situation is that cross-training alleviated worker shortages during the COVID-19

crisis. According to M1, hiring was not a popular endeavor during the beginning of COVID-19,

and with employees quitting at a high rate or getting sick, filling specific jobs was imperative.

Cross-training was necessary during that time, which translated to successful change efforts.

2. How does organizational change influence job satisfaction?

This research included the premise that organizational change during a crisis decreased job

satisfaction mainly because of fear and stress. In addition, the study results included that

organizational change generates opportunities that positively impact job satisfaction.

Organizational change disrupts the status quo, which can create a stressor; when a crisis further

complicates organizational change, fear arises as a close companion of stress. The results of the

findings showed that organizational change negatively influences job satisfaction. Employees

and managers voiced their current struggles describing the changes as stressful. The GM

described her job satisfaction as follows, "I love what I do because I love people, but I am being really transparent right now; I don't know how much longer I will be doing this." The changes brought on by COVID-19 caused much job fatigue, as articulated by the previous comment. E8 stated that his job satisfaction was affected by the changes negatively; he expressed enduring much stress because of the recent changes. GM articulated that although he loves what he does as a cook, change is challenging, especially when continuous. Organizational change because of COVID-19 led to additional work for employees, which impacted their job satisfaction. Many of the research participants stated that they felt overworked, resulting in an overwhelmed feeling. The study results revealed that the uncertainty of organizational change breeds fears that negatively impact job satisfaction.

The findings in this study included that organizational change creates new opportunities that improve job satisfaction. Multiple participants stated that they were able to learn new skills because of the personnel shortage and changes because of COVID-19 (E1, E2, M1, E4, E5, E7, & M3). E1 reluctantly admitted that although they wish this crisis never took place, it did create an opportunity for her to work in her current position. As a result, E1's job satisfaction rating was relatively high. Three managers received promotions because of the COVID-19 crisis. The three managers stated that their seniority had a part in the selection of their current position when retention issues emerged because of the pandemic (M1, M2, & M3). The organizational change influenced an opportunity for employees to receive pay increases, which improved job satisfaction. E7 stated, "Even though so much stuff changed, they paid us more, so hey, I am happy." Organizational change can impact job satisfaction in various ways depending on the type of change.

The findings revealed that job satisfaction affects stability. M1 stated, "Consistency impacts my job satisfaction, like consistency in what I am doing and in what management is expecting." Consistency influences organizational change, as E2 expressed, "Everything kept on changing like every day; it seemed, I mean no real traction in my workflow, it was more like do this, no do that it was bad." Change, by nature, disrupts organizational norms, which complicates job satisfaction. E7 expressed what impacted her job satisfaction by stating, "I am the type of person who thrives off of clear guidance and a routine; that's why training is so important to me. I need to know what I am doing and why. I need to be prepared for things."

E2 expressed his feelings by stating,

> I like to be held accountable, and when others are held accountable, too, I like guidelines to be followed and things like that. Because you're in a restaurant, we must maintain high standards of sanitizing. Management was not stressing the importance of this.

Management was a direct factor that impacted many respondents' job satisfaction. For example, E7 asserted,

> To me, one of the most significant factors is management. And am I given the tools that I need to do my job well? Well, the person that I am, I have certain expectations, and my expectations are for you to have everything and all that I need to meet those expectations, like training behind it.

The unplanned organizational change experienced by employees during the COVID-19 crisis did not include the type of consistency, clear guidance, and routine that impacted job satisfaction. The study results showed that although all participant's job satisfaction ratings were not low, a

vast majority articulated low job satisfaction ratings because of the disruptive nature of organizational change, especially during a crisis.

    a.   How is organizational change different amid the COVID-19 pandemic?

The results from the findings showed many differences during the COVID-19 pandemic concerning organizational change. When asked to describe their job experience before COVID-19, a vast majority of the research respondents described their work experience before COVID-19 as what they saw as usual. E8 stated, "My work experience was good; I mean, it was normal, I guess. No crazy changes: I just did my job and went home." E5 explained with a chuckle, "Before COVID, work relationships were much closer, customers were less bossy, and life was easier, to say the least." Organizational change during a crisis is unpredictable, inconsistent, unplanned, radical, and unsettling, which causes stress and fear throughout the workforce. The type of changes that occurred because of COVID-19 made work more strenuous for all research participants. The main difference in organizational change during the COVID-19 pandemic was that it involved mandatory changes outside of the organization implemented by law. M1 described it in this manner, "We had to follow what the CDC told us to do." Governmental mandates that force organizations to change their operational procedures for public health make change inevitable and imminent." In the case of organizational change during the COVID-19 crisis, the findings revealed that change was receptive and met with little to no opposition in the food sector yet impacted job satisfaction because of the constant changes and retention challenges.

    b.   How does organizational change due to the COVID-19 pandemic impact a firm's ability to maintain job satisfaction?

An organizational manager's ability to maintain job satisfaction during organizational change is contingent upon their knowledge of what impacts employees' job satisfaction and their efforts to improve their satisfaction. The study results indicated that most job satisfaction received is influenced by the employee feeling equipped to do their jobs well, monetary compensation for the level of work exerted, and appreciation for contributions. In addition, the study results concluded that the work environment's culture, and relationships within the workplace, including managers and co-workers, influence the employees' well-being and work-life balance regarding job satisfaction. An organizational manager's ability to maintain job satisfaction correlates to their willingness to address and improve contentment. A mixed reaction revealed what efforts management took to improve job satisfaction. Some research participants articulated that management did little to improve job satisfaction during and after the COVID-19 crisis. E5 expressed that management eventually became aware of what he termed as *the employees'* mindset on the job. "It seemed as if they tried to make things a little bit more lighthearted with casual conversation. But they didn't implement any changes to relieve the burden." Furthermore, E6 stated,

> No, they didn't do much to improve job satisfaction; in fact, I really think they
> made it worse. We no longer were able to hang out with each other in the break
> room; there were no more parties or hangouts, and people began to turn on each
> other." E4 expressed similar sentiments when he stated, "Yeah, they didn't do
> much to improve our job satisfaction; instead, they were cutting hours, laying off,
> and we didn't have parties like we used to. The morale as a whole was different
> after COVID-19.

The study results revealed another aspect of an organizational manager's ability to maintain job satisfaction during a crisis. Inquiring about the thoughts and experiences of employees and providing training to cope with the changes articulates to employees that their employers care, which improves job satisfaction. When asked what efforts took place by management to improve job satisfaction, E1 asserted,

> One big thing they did was like a survey asking people how satisfied they are with their job and what could be changed and stuff. And so then, when I said, I really want to be trained on other positions, I want to learn the register, I want to learn how to take orders in the drive-thru. Within a week or so, I had one of the managers talk to me about getting trained in the position. So, I really felt like they read the surveys and took them to heart, and wanted to help improve job satisfaction.

Management took the time to assess what employees need to feel satisfaction in their jobs and then acted on the information gained from their inquiry. This form of satisfaction is an example of how firms can maintain job quality during a crisis. E3 affirmed this premise by stating, "I feel like when they really want to, they'll listen to what you're saying and try to apply it." E3 also pointed out that different managers have different priorities, and some endeavor to implement things to assist with job satisfaction while others may not. E7 mentioned that management would give her the leeway to schedule her own hours on stressful days. also, in addition, E7 stated, "My manager tried to boost morale, you know, pizza parties and you know different things, she would bring doughnuts, just trying to show us that she cared about us." E8 noted that compliments and advice from leadership helped him feel appreciated, which impacted job satisfaction. From a managerial perspective, each respondent stated that they took care to try to implement some

intervention to help their employees cope with change to boost and maintain employee job satisfaction.

M1 described his efforts as,

> Yeah, giving proper breaks is absolutely necessary whether it's slammed or not. I would also say that having them know what proper hygiene is was big, man, making sure I was keeping my guys safe. Another thing is I would give them free meals and get the time off as well. Corporate set it up that they would get paid for going to classes to get trained. So, I mean, it's a win-win situation; they would be eligible to go to school. So, I mean, those are all sorts of packages that the company gives, not to mention there's an opportunity for growth if anyone is looking to move up.

GM stated,

> I try to remind myself that before I became a manager, I was a worker. One of the best pieces of advice that I was given by a former manager was always the supervisor you want to work for. I am a hands-on General Manager meaning I do not just do paperwork in the office. I work the register; I drop chicken on the floor, I clean the bathroom, and I model what I expect.

These findings showed that leading by example, coupled with the element of empathy, assisted managers in the endeavor to maintain job satisfaction for their employees during the perilous times of COVID-19. M5 further emphasized this point by expressing that the purpose of pivoting and creating a new business model was not just for bottom-line purposes but for the betterment of their employees. Therefore, understanding employees' needs and wants and aligning with organizational objectives and governmental mandates was the formula for maintaining job satisfaction during the COVID-19 crisis.

3. Why does employee resistance exist during organizational change?

The information from the literature reflects how attitudes toward organizational change are the catalyst of employee resistance (Singh, 2020). How employees perceive change influences their response to the change. The type of change has a part in employee resistance. The findings confirmed this theory; when participants were asked about their response to the changes brought on by COVID-19 in the workplace, a unanimous consensus emerged that all respondents complied with the new mandates. When asked why they responded this way, E5 stated, "given the circumstances and the amount of information we had on the virus, I complied because I had to. It was a matter of safety at that point." E2 concurred by asserting, "I followed what I was told and did everything according to the book because I had to be safe." The perception of the change caused all participants to comply with the changes with no resistance.

As GM indicated, health and wellness are a priority within the restaurant industry because the proper handling of food is an essential part of the mission. The business model of fast food and family dining restaurants, created by management, aligns with the perception of protecting employees and customers. The findings revealed employee resistance when change perceives as unnecessary, harmful, or unachievable. E4 phrased it as, "I obeyed because I had to, I have to make sure I protect my family, so I did what I was told. Yes, it was hard, but it was necessary. Wearing a mask all day ain't easy, but we got through it." Employee resistance changes when changes seem irrelevant or unreasonable. Organizational change is receptive when employees deem it vital to their ability to work or their personal well-being.

    a. How is employee resistance to organizational change manifested during the COVID-19 pandemic?

Organizational change occurs with some form of resistance; however, during the COVID-19 crisis, the study results showed no opposition within the food sector concerning operational changes. The only resistance concluded in the study results was an employee's ability to work without receiving the vaccination mandated by government officials mandating. A few participants protested that a change proposal concerning their job was a direct violation of their bodily autonomy outside the realm of their employer's scope of authority. Organizational leaders had to enforce governmental vaccine mandates were a change proposal that some employees did not perceive as reasonable.

E5 stated,

> Even though I didn't necessarily agree with everything, I didn't resist any of the changes dealing with how I do my job. I will say there was a mandatory vaccination, which I thought was a little inappropriate for someone else to legislate what I put in my body. So, I did hold out as long as possible for that and then eventually applied for an appeal for the booster shot. I got vaccinated, but I didn't want to take the boosters, so I'm still going through my appeal for that.

The finding included that managers who are the facilitators of change from an organizational standpoint could resist certain proposed changes if they did not align with their values. M1 gave insight into this idea when he started his resistance to the changes brought on by COVID-19. M1 stated, "I followed everything the CDC told us to do and made sure my guys were on board. But I was not going to enforce or force something on my guys that I personally didn't agree with." M1 expressed an understanding of the mass exit he witnessed because of the vaccine mandate. The study results indicated that organizational change manifested differently during the COVID-19 crisis. Many employees did not resist any of the operational changes in the restaurant sector

because the changes seemed necessary for public health, depending on the type of change. The findings did include that some form of employee resistance to changes was a mandatory vaccination that was unreasonable to some food sector workers.

4. What human resource factors exist in the food services industry that position organizations for successfully enacting organizational change initiatives during the COVID-19 pandemic?

This study's findings included the disconnect between the human resource personnel and employees. When asked what role their HR department personnel had in assisting with changes because of COVID-19, only three employees were able to respond. E1 stated that the ladies from HR were pleasant during the crisis and helped reinforce the employees' guidelines. In addition, the HR personnel informed me that HR would "inform us when there was a new mass requirement or the loosening of the requirements, they would let everybody know they had to sign this form of what is required of us." E3 indicated that the HR department was supportive and ensured that employees received adequate time off. E3e stated, "And then also, you know, they would give you COVID pay and such if you were sick, so I feel like they were pretty open, and they wanted you to be open as well." E8 noted that HR gave them bonuses and increased their total pay during the COVID-19 crisis. E8 stated that they thanked the employees for their contributions acknowledging that they understood their hectic workload and fears. E8 mentioned that the HR department tried to take care of those who stayed and did not quit. Other interviewees expressed that they did not know HR's role during the COVID-19 crisis. E2 articulated that he did not think HR did enough to assist with the changes brought on by COVID-19.

He went on to say,

I would say they had done the minimum as far as COVID goes; when we were

reporting that people were sick and still working, they would say they can keep

working, which was just weird. Like you would think they would be more

assertive as far as wanting to protect their employees, but that's not actually the

case.

E2 indicated that HR confused them with specific procedures that they did not coordinate with

management. E7 indicated that the HR department was in touch with their supervisors or

corporate but never contacted them directly. Other employees indicated they did not know HR's

role in change management during the COVID-19 crisis (E2, E4, E5, E6, E7, & E9).

From a managerial perspective, managers provided some insight regarding the HR

department personnel's role in assisting with changes during the COVID-19 crisis. M1 annotated

that the HR personnel communicated with managers regularly and worked with payroll to ensure

proper compensation during the crisis. M1 indicated that HR personnel provided a hotline for

employees struggling with mental health and stress because of the COVID-19 crisis. HR

personnel assisted with providing COVID-19 testing and the resources to ensure their employees

could obtain the vaccination. M1 ended by stating that the HR department did a job well done.

M3 stated that their HR personnel did a pretty good job in communication. HR personnel was

responsible for providing incentives to employees who received the vaccine. M3 stated that they

were communicative concerning relaying new information throughout the organization. M6

annotated that the HR department was responsible for "trying to get the people on board that we

had to hire and for promoting individuals when it was appropriate to do so." The findings

revealed that human resource factors such as effective communication, management of rewards,

compensation packages, employee hotlines, and the regulation of compliances align with the successful implementation of change management during the COVID-19 crisis.

The Literature

The literature heavily emphasizes organizational change during *regular times* and the factors that impact job satisfaction and employee resistance. Although the findings substantiated many of the claims, they emphasized organizational change during a crisis. The literature includes the type of organizational changes and their impact on an employee's mentality and behaviors. The findings affirmed the premise that the type of organizational change impacts employees differently. The changes experienced by the research participants negatively impacted their job satisfaction at a higher rate in comparison to their resistance.

Employee resistance is common in failing organizational change (Singh, 2020). The findings included that in a time of crisis, employee resistance was not the main reason for organizational change failures; in fact, the implementation of the organizational changes process during the COVID-19 crisis in the food services sector was successful. The study results included unanimous compliance, and successful change efforts existed, but job satisfaction suffered. Employees suffered feelings of mental anguish at the time of some of these changes. For example, some employees struggled to breathe through their masks, which caused mental anguish. Some research participants struggled with fears and job security because of the uncertainties surrounding the COVID-19 crisis. Panic was prevalent among the respondents, and friction among co-workers and management heightened because of these changes. Differing opinions, which lead to diverse behaviors, complicate the work environment. For example, some participants were adamant about mask-wearing and social distancing, while some of their colleagues were not causing friction and animosity within the workplace.

Confirmed by the findings in the literature was the importance of communication during organizational change. Some of the participants perceived that effective communication was exercised throughout the change process, and they were more likely to comply joyfully with all the changes. Employees who did not experience effective communication from managers throughout the change process were more prone to dissatisfaction with their job. The findings discovered that mandatory organizational change from a government entity is less likely to resist change proposed by individuals in organizations. However, whether mandated or suggested, the effect on employees is similar if the implementation process receives proper orchestration. The literature included that organizational change fails at a much higher rate than succeeding; again, this depends on the nature and reasoning of the change (Samal & Chatterjee, 2020). These findings were different because the change was during a crisis and mandatory by an outside entity other than the organization. The findings also included how opportunities could arise from disruptions in the status quo. The literature includes this premise when alluding to the competitive advantages that arise resulting from successful organizational change. This study included highlights on how those advantages translate to the employee side, and many positions and job opportunities opened for individuals because of the changes.

The literature included the premise that change in organizations must always align with the human resources sector because change always involves people (Sahoo & Sharma, 2015). Studies indicate that organizational change efforts succeed when the HR personnel is a part of the process (Manole & Alpopi, 2015). These findings paint a different picture than the standard assumptions. The HR department was insignificant and essential in the change process previously. Many employees needed help to identify HR's role in change management, and some managers articulated that they did not deal directly with human resources. Despite the perceived

absence of HR personnel during the change process, the mandates were successful through the guidance of an outside entity, such as the Center for Disease Control (CDC).

This study included that the HR personnel struggled with visibility and relevance during change efforts. The findings revealed that a connection between human resources and employees did not exist. The human resource sector was out of place during the COVID-19 crisis in the food services sector. The changes in their work structure (teleworking) impacted HR's ability to influence the change process. This study identified the primary change agents as the managers when the change should ideally involve HR. Despite flaws in change management, change efforts did not struggle as expected. The type of change and circumstances behind the change during a crisis depends on the type of change.

The Problem

The problem explored in this research probe was the failure of organizations to address the recurring human resources challenge of organizational change during the COVID-19 pandemic within the food service industry. The results reflected in a loss of job satisfaction and employee resistance. The findings interestingly included the discovery of nuances within the problem. First, the data affirmed that human resource sector personnel struggled to address organizational change. HR's absence during the pandemic revealed that the human resource personnel's role was a misunderstanding within the organizations. The HR personnel should take greater responsibility when dealing with change management in organizations. The HR personnel sometimes delegate their responsibilities to management, which are just some of the vital actors in change. The HR sector is a crucial component that should adhere to employees' needs while coping with change. The findings included that organizational change initiatives did not fail because of the mandate by the government during the COVID-19 pandemic.

The findings included that organizational change during a crisis manifests differently than during regular times. Specific factors that influence an ordinary change, like employee resistance, do not appear similarly during a crisis. The study of the literature influenced the results. For example, food service personnel deals with health dynamics, such as adequately handling food. The COVID-19 crisis influenced public health concerns. These related elements influenced the receptivity and response to the changes. Another sector that experienced changes during the COVID-19 crisis could have different results regarding job satisfaction and employee resistance in this study.

Summary of the Findings

This research inquiry included the premise that the human resource sector struggles to address organizational change, which directly impacts job satisfaction and employee resistance. The findings included the emphasis that changes successfully occurred during the COVID-19 crisis, and implementation was challenging because of the efforts of HR or management. The success came from the mandate by a government entity other than the organization. The efforts of management were not minimal because they were integral in implementing the changes. When effective communication and clear guidance were prevalent, a smoother transition resulted.

This study was an exploration of the factors that impact successful organizational change. The findings included that organizational change differs during a crisis, while some key factors remain the same. A factor that remains constant, no matter the type of change or situation surrounding the change, is the impact on job satisfaction. Irrespective of successful organizational change, job satisfaction is always contingent upon how effective HR personnel and management are at ensuring coping mechanisms, communication, and precise guidance are

in place during the change process. This study includes a potential understanding of how organizations fail to address the HR challenges of organizational change and how this influences job satisfaction and employee resistance. In addition, the study includes what human resource factors are critical to the success of organizational change. Job satisfaction was contingent upon how sound organizations incentivized their employees to deal with the mandatory changes brought on by COVID-19. The findings uncovered that employee resistance was not a significant factor in business changes; however, problems arose when vaccine mandates were relevant. The study result emphasized that the HR sector's role in change management during this crisis was not as transparent to employees as to managers. In addition, the study's results revealed that organizational change efforts could be implemented successfully yet still impact employees negatively. I propose additional research to explore the hardships HR personnel face when addressing change management.

Application to Professional Practice

The human resources sector is integral for producing a business environment of confidence and trust that impacts organizational effectiveness in crucial situations (Gulbro, 1993). Practices related to employees' contribution to the growth and survival of firms, especially in turbulent times when changes transpire. Human resource management practices assist organizations in their strategic goals, which is vital when dealing with organizational changes during a crisis (Lim et al., 2017). Human resource personnel plays an essential part in change management because their purpose is to assist with psychological or motivational characteristics, which entails studying how individual changes in job satisfaction affect organizational performance. Human resource managers focus on problem-solving processes that help sustain and develop human capital. Changes are essential with the threat of disruption in the

cohesiveness of organizational culture. Improving certain business practices within the HR sector could improve specific outcomes such as job satisfaction or HR involvement during organizational changes.

Improving General Business Practice

The findings of this study include the emphasis that the employee's perception of the human resources sector was ambiguous during the change process because of the COVID-19 crisis. HR personnel practices during change management must consider the soft relational approach to the management of employees that involves social exchange that includes job security and providing employees with the tools they need to cope with disruptions (Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2009). The study results included the premise that the HR personnel focused primarily on a hard transactional approach geared toward quantifiable objectives. For example, when asked about HR's role in change management, some employees described their marginal contributions as only transactional. The employees stated that the HR sector is involved in enforcing mandates, ensuring compliance, and monitoring behaviors. Employees did not report that the HR personnel had a role in ensuring that stress management was appropriate or that coping mechanisms were in place to cater to the mental health of employees dealing with fear. The HR personnel needed to be included in action during the change process during the COVID-19 crisis and missed an opportunity to provide employees with sufficient power and responsibility to manage change and enhance job satisfaction.

This study's results included the premise of a disconnect regarding HR's function during organizational changes. Management understood the role of HR, while employees seemed oblivious. HR personnel must make clear their responsibilities to properly assist employees with change management. This means investing in resources to sustain them during turbulent times,

developing training to assist with changes, and incentivizing goals to better the individual and the organization (Lim et al., 2017). The study results included that HR personnel should do a better transparent job with intervening practices that empower employees to cope with change in a healthy manner in improving job satisfaction and employee retention. HR practices must act visible and consistently to provide employees with advantages that assist in the change process (Li et al., 2019). The findings included the revelation that the HR personnel needs to do a better job maintaining close relations with employees during times of change to support suitable transitions. Employees thrive when resources are readily available at their disposal. A close relationship with the HR personnel and management to ensure functional working conditions is essential during a time of change (Nyamubarwa & Chipunza, 2019). The HR personnel must function as a vital communicators during change initiatives to ensure that the unique needs of individual employees are met. This process would improve job satisfaction during the hardships of organizational changes during a crisis.

Human resource practices align with organizational strategies by increasing employee performance and commitment ("Human resource practices," 2020). Furthermore, the purpose of HR practices positively affects employees to contribute to their well-being and job satisfaction. The findings included that HR's perceived absence in the change management ordeal produced the opposite effect. Respondents experienced a loss of job satisfaction because they lacked the resources available to them to cope with the changes in a meaningful way. Employee motivation develops through a range of HR interventions that this study revealed were lacking. Some participants received training to help cope with the changes brought on by the COVID-19 crisis. Other employees were not fortunate to receive training. Employees need proper attention toward

training, development, involvement, and personal maintenance. Proper training could improve the outcome of job satisfaction during a crisis.

Another aspect that the findings included regarding HR's ability to address organizational change was the lack of support for individuals struggling with changes that involve mandatory vaccinations. The task of an HR professional is managing employee outcomes by focusing on individual attitudes and behaviors (Li et al., 2019). This begins with improving employee perceptions of HR practices. Exploring employees' opinions and subsequent reactions to change initiatives could clarify apprehensions and help provide valuable information for decision-making, which leads to compliant behaviors. Providing employees with the proper support to assess situations such as vaccine mandates could prevent some employee resistance. Perceiving HR practices as a tool that helps employees cope with difficult decisions could influence the human relations climate and lead to employee receptivity. For example, providing resources that include certain apprehensions without forcing a viewpoint upon individuals could help with the employee resistance found in the study. Strategic communication and implementations could assist employee beliefs even when mandatory change exists.

Potential Application Strategies

The literature includes the information that human capital is primarily a complex resource to manage because of the individuality of employees (Florence et al., 2018). The findings in this study included an affirmed stance from the diverse perspectives explored throughout the study on the topic involving organizational change during a crisis. Therefore, human resource management must work to ensure the proper engagement of employees. The proper management of employees is more significant during organizational changes. As revealed in the study, HR personnel must first abolish the stigma attached to them regarding their absenteeism during

change management. The HR professional must strive not to be perceived as impersonal but as an entity employed to serve the needs of employees (Nyamubarwa & Chipunza, 2019).

This task should come by rebranding the HR sector as a close confidant for employees rather than just a corporate-level asset. The HR personnel should act as people managers and allies to serve the needs of employees during organizational changes. The task occurs by building meaningful relationships with employees to serve them better in their time of need. The literature included describes that going beyond job role activities could increase engagement in the workplace and improve job satisfaction ("Going the extra mile," 2020). The HR employees should embrace this principle to modify the ambiguous perceptions of their role in change and foster natural relationships with employees. The findings included the employees with the perception that management was least likely to report a loss of job satisfaction because of organizational changes during a crisis. The HR personnel must build a rapport with employees if they seek to address organizational change as critical change agents effectively.

Implementing HR practices could promote flexibility in the workplace while encouraging job enrichment (Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2009). This practice would emerge as a strategy to improve job satisfaction during organizational change, which appears as the most significant challenge observed in the study. These HR practices would include continuous training, reward systems, and contingent pay for a more transactional approach. The findings included that the organizations that embraced these practices had less stressful feelings among employees and found more satisfaction in their jobs than the organizations that did not embrace such practices. To ensure HR personnel caters to the relational approach, mentorship programs, advice hotlines, mental breaks, and accountability partners should be available for employees who struggle to cope with change.

The findings found that the majority of the respondents were r stressing, fearful or angry because of the changes because of COVID-19. Establishing tools for addressing feelings must ensure that minimum workplace problems do not occur. Employees have psychological needs that must align with organizational change because change directly affects how employees perceive their work environment ("Going the extra mile," 2020). Human resource practices are some of the most potent organizational factors influencing employees' psychological contracts (Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2009). Setting up programs that directly confront these issues would impact job satisfaction and employee resistance. Factors that affect the psychological state of employees and their attitudes toward work include clarity of roles, support from management, meaningful work or contributions, proper rewards and compensation, and acknowledgment of contributions ("Going the extra mile," 2020). Human resource managers that consider these factors in their practices would enable positive attitudes that translate into positive actions during organizational changes. Further care regarding the mental state of employees must include dealing with changes because of a crisis. HR personnel should observe and reflect on everyone to address unique concerns because of organizational changes (Nyamubarwa & Chipunza, 2019). The implementation of specific training on coping with stress, fears, and workplace conflicts should specify training regarding the actual changes. Practical training that includes competencies and employee wellness could correlate with the insights from some respondents wishing for an outlet during the COVID-19 crisis.

The findings included the premise that organizational change during the COVID-19 crisis negatively impacted job satisfaction at a high rate. Job satisfaction is the overall measure of the degree to which an employee feels satisfaction r with their employment (Florence et al., 2018). Job dissatisfaction is a function of the relationships between the expectation and the desire for a

job (Florence et al., 2018). This involves psychological, cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components. The HR personnel should first understand the individual factors that affect these components through questionnaires, surveys, individual evaluations, joint meetings, and professional counseling. Understanding what impacts the psychological state of employees, especially during times of change and crises, could help manage expectations that influence job satisfaction. These employee engagement tactics align with job rewards that often influence positive behaviors. The HR personnel should appear as the primary number of support during organizational change. Implementing these HR practices will help mend the faulty perception of human resource management observed in this study.

Summary of Application to Professional Practice

The findings in this study exposed some deficiencies in the HR sector involving their responsibilities to address organizational change resulting in a loss of job satisfaction and employee resistance. Human resource manager exists to implement policies and practices that influence employee attitudes and behaviors (Florence et al., 2018). This study included that support from the HR personnel was the exception, not the norm, thus, prompting a need to reevaluate HR's intentions during organizational changes. Acting as a support system and providing training was the key recommendation to change the perception of the HR sector's role in organizational change, which influences job satisfaction and employee resistance. The recommendations inspired by the participants revealed the few employees who receive training and support from management and HR. In addition, employees, who were aware of HR's role in the change process, reported higher job satisfaction than employees who felt isolated when dealing with changes because of the crisis. Organizational change is successful when change proposals are a positive influence; however, issues remain when one of these factors is

problematic, issues remain. An awareness of these problems is the first step in the resolution process.

Recommendations for Further Studies

The findings included that further studies are evident to fully understand the recurring issue of effectively addressing organizational change that impacts job satisfaction and employee resistance. The scope of this study was specific to the restaurant sector across the United States; however, organizational change manifests differently depending on the business sector. For example, the experience with changes because of the COVID-19 crisis will affect the airline industry, medical field, or military differently. The type of organizational change influences employee resistance and job satisfaction; therefore, expanding this study to include different sectors will enable a broader perspective on factors that impact an organizational manager's ability to address organizational change effectively.

This study included the restaurant and fast food industry within the food services sector. Further studies could include experience in supermarkets or grocery stores, food trucks, and take-out-based organizations like Uber Eats. The findings include those challenges to organizational changes during a crisis that impact employee retention. Therefore, further studies should include an understanding of how this problem impacts employee retention and job commitment. Further studies should include a description of understanding organizational change challenges from human resource personnel. This research inquiry results could help other employers understand their perspective on their responsibilities during the change process since this study only included managers and employees. The study results may lead to an insider's perspective on the challenges of dealing with organizational changes.

Reflections

Conducting research to understand different perspectives was an exciting yet humbling experience. The human resources field includes the people side of business and transactions. The people element of change aligns with an interesting perspective on the *whys and the hows* of outcomes. Exploring challenges concerning organizational change during a crisis that impacted all parties in this research probe, including myself, was a problematic yet enlightening task. Recording heartfelt testimonies contribute to my personal and professional growth to make a difference in a field that caters to the needs of employees and understands that people are made in the image of God (Gen. 1).

Personal and Professional Growth

Personally, conducting this research on such a controversial topic was humbling. Holding personal views and being careful not to reflect any of those views or biases in the research was a tall task. Losing family and friends to the COVID-19 crisis made this research a sensitive topic. Hearing heartfelt testimonies of respondents struggling through different scenarios because of this crisis further sensitized the topic. Empathizing with individuals articulating struggles and vulnerabilities because of changes reflected a heart of appreciation for less complicated personal situations. I understood the struggles of work demands placed on employees because of personnel shortages, added responsibilities, and increased demands for more patience in the researcher toward restaurant employees.

I was conceptualizing the fears that arose because of changes caused by the COVID-19 crisis provided the research respondent with insight into how to comfort others struggling in these areas. The COVID-19 crisis significantly disrupted the business sector, resulting in deaths, sickness, disruptions, job losses, fears, paranoia, and workplace conflict. Another aspect of personal growth during this research inquiry was accepting rejection well. Visiting different

restaurants during the COVID-19 crisis and asking for potential interviews was a humbling experience. Some individuals were willing to freely share their experiences, while others were not receptive to the idea. I had to accept rejection, stay motivated and persevere until saturation occurred. Many fears were still present because of the nature of this crisis, which further complicated the research process making the task challenging to obtain face-to-face interviews. However, the continued pursuit of information to endure enabled me to accomplish the goal.

Lessons from this research concerning professional growth were to consider the worst situations as an opportunity to make the best of the situation. Although the pandemic changed the way the food services sector operates, it reflects the opportunities for growth and development in many ways. The pandemic showed business leaders that pivoting and rebranding could yield competitive advantages. As an HR professional, the findings spurred me to think creatively and innovative when managing people during crises while balancing compliance and regulatory requirements with employee well-being. The findings revealed the importance of viewing employees as unique assets rather than disposable tools. The distance approach of HR practitioners emerged in the study and was noted for future professional contributions. Understanding people while solving problems in the HR sector was a primary lesson from this research experience. A story behind an action will remain, and is a reason for perception, and includes a person within an organization. Understanding how to reconcile this premise during times of change and challenges is a lesson from the study results.

Biblical Perspective

Scripture emphasizes that there is a time for every matter under heaven (Eccl. 3:1, ESV). This includes a time for a change. The study results revealed that change is a continuous process in business, which requires proper addressing to ensure successful implementations and

employee responses. Transformation is a biblical concept necessary for growth. This premise transcends into the business sector, as viewed in the findings of this study. The intent of the study was on the human resource practitioners whose role is to address change to ensure successful implementations that influence job satisfaction and employee resistance. From a biblical perspective, the HR sector is an entity set up to exemplify the principle of doing good for others and sharing what they have (Heb.13:16). The HR structure enables practitioners to bear the burdens of the employees (Gal. 6:2) while providing means to alleviate issues within the workplace. Organizational changes during a crisis require HR practitioners to help the weak (Act 20:35) by employing sound practices that engage in charitable deeds to meet the pressing needs of the employees so that the HR sector would not appear unfruitful (Titus 3:14, NASB). Unfortunately, the findings revealed a struggle in this area of looking out for the interest of others (Phil. 2:4).

Change during a turbulent time, such as a crisis, made planning impossible. In addition, the change reflects unrest because of the lack of information and uncertainty, and as the Scripture says, "Desire without knowledge is not good, and whoever makes haste with his feet misses his way." (Prov.19:2, ESV). This aspect of uncertainty caused much fear within the workplace, which caused a loss of job satisfaction and conflict among fellow employees and managers. The fear and panic caused by this crisis attest to the Proverbial truth that anxiety weighs down on a man's heart (Prov. 12:25). The role of the HR practitioner is to assist with the changes from this crisis by providing a proper coping mechanism. Equipping employees for every good work is a biblical principle that could apply to this study. HR practices are tools that are meant to sharpen employees (Prov. 27:17) and spur them on to good works (Heb. 10:24).

Properly addressing organizational change enables organizational leaders to move in another direction. From a biblical worldview, this change could reflect good or bad. Organizational change that does not help better others but only suits the needs of an organization could lead to the perception as harmful. Change that shows partiality by benefitting a few while victimizing others is a bad change (James 2). Change that causes harm to change recipients or threatens their physical and mental well-being is bad. When change is not correct, these scenarios could occur. Conversely, organizational change that exposes deficiencies and reflects opportunities for others is a good change. Organizational change from leaders that protect employees from harm is a good change. As previously stated, the mere implementation of organizational change initiatives does not create success. Organizational change is effective when the modifications do not negatively impact change recipients in the workplace.

Organizational change that includes clear guidance with directions for safe and proper execution is another example of good change because Scripture informs us, "Where there is no guidance, a people fall, but in an abundance of counselors there is safety" (Prov. 11:14). The findings included that when individuals receive the proper guidance, their work relations and personal welfare are safe. These employees do not struggle with fears and struggle to the same degree as employees lacking guidance. The Bible says, "For by wise guidance you can wage your war, and an abundance of counselors there is victory" (Prov. 20: 18). The war waged in this study was the fight to enact mandatory changes by a crisis without damaging the workforce. The counselors to assist in this war were managers and the HR department personnel. The findings showed that when counselors are absent, success skews even when change outcomes prevail.

Lastly, from a biblical perspective, resistance should arise when evil is present. Resistance to change was not evident in this study on a large scale because most employees

perceived the changes as necessary and suitable for their well-being. The only resistance present in this study was when employees perceived an inevitable change as violating their bodily autonomy, which perceives as a wrongful request of organizations. The vaccine mandates' controversial nature is outside this research's scope. However, in this case, one aspect remains true regarding employee resistance: "if you do anything you believe is not right, you are sinning" (Rom. 14:23, NLT). The employees who decided to resist the changes felt they must stand on their convictions.

Summary of Reflections

The research process described a learning experience. I learned some fascinating perspectives and some telling themes that will benefit the human resources sector. Personal growth transpired because this study enabled me to explore a controversial topic from an objective standpoint and report on the findings irrespective of personal perspectives. Professional growth occurred because of this qualitative research study. I learned important insights on what to do during organizational changes during a crisis and what not to do when seeking to manage the wellness of the workforce. These insights and takeaways, accompanied by my biblical worldview, will enable future leaders to use their God-given gifts and abilities to transform the world for good (Liberty University's Mission Statement).

Summary of Section 3

Section 3 included the findings from the field study conducted to understand the recurring human resources problem involving practical change management efforts. The interviews from the participants and field study revealed that challenges to addressing organizational changes related to employee resistance during a crisis manifest differently from the typical changes experienced by organizations. From the findings, the main difference was the

notion of resistance. The research included marginal resistance to changes brought about by

COVID-19. The resistance to change came from the situation warranting the changes. However,

job satisfaction received negative influence by the changes from the COVID-19 crisis. The

human personnel still need to work on addressing these changes because of their lack of

visibility. Therefore, recommendations and suggestions for further studies are to address this

chronic issue in the human resources sector. My personal reflections as they pertain to the study

are in this section. Lastly, a discussion on a biblical perspective reflecting on organizational

change for the betterment of the workforce.

Summary and Study Conclusion

Organizational change management issues persist in the human resources field because of

the complexities that arise when dealing with people (Singh, 2020). Managing change is an

endeavor that organizations often struggle to conquer. This dissertation included exploring the

difficulties of addressing organizational change during times of crisis, which further complicated

the problem. The findings revealed that organizational change successes were contingent upon

the actual changes implemented. The nature of the crisis and its perceived severity impacted

employee resistance resulting in compliance; however, job satisfaction remained unchanged. The

organizational changes from the COVID-19 crisis produced undue stress that impacted managers

and employees. Multiple change recipients reported low levels of job satisfaction because of

stress. The only resistance to change found in this study involved protests concerning

vaccinations that perceive as a bodily violation. The successful implementation of the

operational changes because of the COVID-19 crisis occurred. However, the relational *human*

element to change was not because of the human resource personnel's minimal involvement in

the food services industry. This study included the premise that HR's failure to address

organizational changes remained a factor. Therefore, this study recommended that HR practitioners mend their perception of their purpose in organizational change by becoming more involved and visible during the implementation process. Furthermore, I suggest future studies that explore other business sectors and segments.

References

Aaltio, I., & Hopfl, H. J. (2009). Reflexivity in research: The role of the researcher, the research process, and the nature of facts in the study of organizations. Tamara Journal of Critical Organisation Inquiry, 7(3/4), 6-8.

https://www.tamarajournal.com/index.php/tamara/article/view/53

Abulibdeh, A. (2020). Can COVID-19 mitigation measures promote telework practices? *Journal of Labor and Society, 23*(4), 551-576. https://doi.org/10.1111/wusa.12498

Acharya, A. S., Prakash, A., Saxena, P., & Nigam, A. (2013). Sampling: Why and how of it? *Indian Journal of Medical Specialities, 4*(2), 330-333. https://doi.org/10.7713/ijms.2013.0032

Ad van den, O., Elliott, K., Witteloostuijn, A.V., Barlage, M., Polos, L., & Al., e. (2017). A cognitive organization theory (COT) of organizational change. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 30*(6), 903-922. https://doi.org/10.1108/jocm-08-2016-0164

Adriaenssen, D. J., & Johannessen, J.-A. (2016). Prospect theory as an explanation for resistance to organizational change: Some management implications. *Problems and Perspectives in Management, 14*(2), 84-92. https://doi.org/10.21511/ppm.14(2).2016.09

Aggarwal, U., & Bhargava, S. (2009). Reviewing the relationship between human resource practices and psychological contract and their impact on employee attitude and behaviours: A conceptual model. *Journal of European Industrial Training, 33*(1), 4-31. https://doi.org/10.1108/03090590910924351

Aitken, K. & von Treuer, K. (2021), "Leadership behaviours that foster organisational identification during change", *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, Vol. 34 No. 2, pp. 311-326. https://doi.org/10.1108/JOCM-01-2020-0029

Alagoz, E., Ming-Yuan, C., Hitchcock, M., Brown, R., & Quanbeck, A. (2018). The use of external change agents to promote quality improvement and organizational change in healthcare organizations: A systematic review. *BMC Health Services Research, 18*, 1-13. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12913-018-2856-9

Alase, A. O. (2017). The tasks of reviewing and finding the right organizational change theory. *International Journal of Educational Leadership and Management, 5*(2), https://doi.org/10.17583/ijelm.2017.2631

Alfes, K., Shantz, A. D., Bailey, C., Conway, E., Monks, K., & al., e. (2019). Perceived human resource system strength and employee reactions toward change: Revisiting human resource's remit as change agent. *Human Resource Management, 58*(3), 239-252. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.21948

Al-Haddad, S., & Kotnour, T. (2015). Integrating the organizational change literature: A model for successful change. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 28*(2), 234-262. https://doi.org/10.1108/jocm-11-2013-0215

Alqatawenah, A. S. (2018). Transformational leadership style and its relationship with change management. *Verslas: Teorija ir Praktika, 19*, 17-24. https://doi.org/10.3846/btp.2018.03

Amis, J. M., & Janz, B. D. (2020). Leading change in response to COVID-19. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 56*(3), 272-278. https://doi.org/10.1177/0021886320936703

Andrews, J., Cameron, H., & Harris, M. (2008). All change? Managers' experience of organizational change in theory and practice. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 21*(3), 300-314. https://doi.org/10.1108/09534810810874796

Appelbaum, S. H., Cameron, A., Ensink, F., Hazarika, J., Attir, R., & Al., e. (2017a). Factors that impact the success of an organizational change: A case study analysis. *Industrial and Commercial Training, 49*(5), 213-230. https://doi.org/10.1108/ict-02-2017-0006

Appelbaum, S. H., Karelis, C., Henaff, A. L., & McLaughlin, B. (2017b). Resistance to change in the case of mergers and acquisitions: Part 2. *Industrial and Commercial Training, 49*(3), 139-145. https://doi.org/10.1108/ict-05-2016-0033

Appelbaum, S. H., Profka, E., Depta, A. M., & Petrynski, B. (2018). Impact of business model change on organizational success. *Industrial and Commercial Training, 50*(2), 41-54. https://doi.org/10.1108/ict-07-2017-0058

Arif, M., Zahid, S., Kashif, U., & Sindhu, M. I. (2017). Role of leader-member exchange relationship in organizational change management: Mediating role of organizational culture. *International Journal of Organizational Leadership, 6*(1), 32-41. https://doi.org/10.33844/ijol.2017.60339

Armenakis, A. A., Harris, S. G., & Field, H., S. (1999). Making Change Permanent: A Model for instituitionalizing change interventions. *Research in organizational change and development,* 12, 97- 128. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0897-3016(99)12005-6

Aslam, U., Muqadas, F., Imran, M. K., & Saboor, A. (2018). Emerging organizational parameters and their roles in implementation of organizational change. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 31*(5), 1084-1104. https://doi.org/10.1108/jocm-08-2017-0300

Augustsson, H., Richter, A., Hasson, H., & von Thiele Schwarz, U. (2017). The need for dual openness to change: A longitudinal study evaluating the impact of employees' openness

to organizational change content and process on intervention outcomes. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 53*(3), 349-368. https://doi.org/10.1177/0021886317691930

Azungah, T. (2019). Challenges in accessing research sites in Ghana: A research note. *Qualitative Research in Organizations and Management, 14*(4), 410-427. https://doi.org/10.1108/qrom-07-2018-1671

Baccarani, C., Brunetti, F. and Martin, J. (2021), Climate change and organizational management: toward a new paradigm, *The TQM Journal, 33*(3). 640-661. https://doi.org/10.1108/TQM-05-2020-0094

Bakari, H., Hunjra, A. I., & Niazi, G. S. (2017). How does authentic leadership influence planned organizational change? The role of employees' perceptions: Integration of Theory of Planned Behavior and Lewin's Three Step Model. *Journal of Change Management, 17*(2), 155-187. https://doi.org/10.1080/14697017.2017.1299370

Banerjee, A., & Chaudhury, S. (2010). Statistics without tears: Populations and samples. *Industrial Psychiatry Journal, 19*(1), 60-65. https://doi.org/10.4103/0972-6748.77642

Barbosa, E. B., & de Sena, G. J. (2011). Data Information System to promote the organization data of collections- Modeling considerations by the Unified Modeling Language (UML). *Journal of Information Systems and Technology Management, 8*(1), 73-86. https://doi.org/10.4301/s1807-17752011000100004

Baran, B. E., Filipkowski, J. N., & Stockwell, R. A. (2019). Organizational change: Perspectives from Human Resource Management. *Journal of Change Management, 19*(3), 201-219. https://doi.org/10.1080/14697017.2018.1502800

Barratt-Pugh, L., & Bahn, S. (2015). HR strategy during culture change: Building change

    agency. *Journal of Management and Organization, 21*(6), 741-754.

    https://doi.org/10.1017/jmo.2014.95

Bashir, R., Ali, A., Hussain, M. J., & Ashfaq, A. B. (2015). Effective management of human

    resources – Proposing a recipe for organizational leaders. *Global Management Journal*

    for Academic & Corporate Studies, 5(2), 96-102. https://gmjacs.bahria.edu.pk

Bec, A., Moyle, C.-l. J., & Moyle, B. D. (2019). Community resilience to change: Development

    of an index. *Social Indicators Research, 142*(3), 1103-1128.

    https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-018-1960-x

Belias, D., Velissariou, S., Papailias, S., Manta, F., & Rossidis, I. (2019). Change management –

    Obstacles and perspectives for the integration of changes in Greek public hospitals.

    Advances in Management and Applied Economics, 9(2), 37-50.

    https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-12453-3_9

Belschak, F. D., Jacobs, G., Giessner, S. R., Horton, K. E., & Bayerl, P. S. (2020). When the

    going gets tough: Employee reactions to large-scale organizational change and the role of

    employee Machiavellianism. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 41*(9), 830-850.

    https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2478

Belsito, C. A., & Reutzel, C. R. (2019). SME employee performance appraisal formalization and

    trust in leadership change. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 28*(2), 434-

    456. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJOA-07-2019-1832

Bevan, H., Glenn, R., Bate, P., Maher, L., & Wells, J. (2007). Using a design approach to assist

    large-scale organizational change: "10 high impact changes" to improve the national

health service in England. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 43*(1), 135-152. https://doi.org/10.1177/0021886306297062

Bigelow, B., & Arndt, M. (2005). Transformational change in health care: Changing the question. *Hospital Topics, 83*(2), 19-26. https://doi.org/10.3200/HTPS.83.2.19-26

Binci, D., Belisari, S., & Appolloni, A. (2019). BPM and change management. *Business Process Management Journal, 26*(1), 1-23. https://doi.org/10.1108/bpmj-06-2018-0158

Bitsch, V., & Hogberg, M. (2005). Exploring horticultural employees' attitudes toward their jobs: A qualitative analysis based on Herzberg's Theory of Job Satisfaction. *Journal of Agricultural and Applied Economics, 37*(3), 659-671. https://doi.org/10.1017/s1074070800027152

Bleijenbergh, I. (2018). Transformational change towards gender equality: An autobiographical reflection on resistance during participatory action research. *Organization: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Organization, Theory and Society, 25*(1), 131-138. https://doi.org/10.1177/1350508417726547

Brody, H., & Miller, F. G. (2003). The Clinician-Investigator: Unavoidable but manageable tension. *Kennedy Institute of Ethics Journal, 13*(4), 329-46. https://doi.org/10.1353/ken.2004.0003

Brunetto, Y., & Teo, S. T. (2018). Editorial special issue: The impact of organizational change on public sector employee outcomes. *Australian Journal of Public Administration, 77*(2), 149-153. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8500.12326

Bruning, C., Godri, L., & Takahashi, A. R. (2018). Triangulation in Case Studies: Incidence, appropriations and misunderstandings in Management researches. *Administração: Ensino e Pesquisa, 19*(2), 1-18. https://doi.org/10.13058/raep.2018.v19n2.889

Bruns, H.-J. (2014). HR development in local government: How and why does HR strategy

    matter in organizational change and development? *Business Research, 7*(1), 1-49.

    https://doi.org/10.1007/s40685-014-0002-z

Bullock, R. J., & Batten, D. (1985). It's just a phase we're going through: a review and synthesis

    of OD phase analysis. *Group & Organization Studies*, *10*(4), 383-412.

    ttps://doi.org/10.1177/105960118501000403

Burnes, B., & Jackson, P. (2011). Success and failure In organizational change: An exploration

    of the role of values. *Journal of Change Management, 11*(2), 133-162.

    https://doi.org/10.1080/14697017.2010.524655

Caldwell, R. (2003). Models of change agency: a fourfold classification. *British Journal of*

    Management, *14*(2), 131-142.

    https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8551.00270

Caliskan, S., & Isik, I. (2016). Are you ready for the global change? Multicultural personality

    and readiness for organizational change. *Journal of Organizational Change Management,*

    29(3), 404-423. https://doi.org/10.1108/jocm-07-2015-0119

Camelia, G., Ioana-Valentina-Alexandra, M., & Larisa-Andreea, N. (2019). Organizational

    culture: A case study of the impact of ethical organizational culture on the efficiency of

    Accor hotels. *Romanian Economic and Business Review, 14*(2), 86-96.

    http://www.rebe.rau.ro/REBE-SU19.pdf#page=86

Cao, G., Clarke, S., & Lehaney, B. (2003). Diversity management in organizational change:

    Towards a systemic framework. *Systems Research and Behavioral Science, 20*(3), 231-

    https://doi.org/10.1002/sres.530

Cataldo, D. R. (2005). The application of change management theory to HR portal implementation in subsidiaries of multinational corporations. *Human Resource Management, 44*(1), 35-53. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.20039

Chang, J., & Kang, Y. (2019). Instrumental variable estimates of the effect of management practices on firm performance in Korean firms. *Journal of Labor Research, 40*(1), 106-125. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12122-018-9273-z

Chang-Howe, W. (2019). The challenge of HR integration: a review of the M&A HR integration literature. *Journal of Chinese Human Resources Management, 10*(1/2), 19-34. https://doi.org/10.1108/jchrm-03-2019-0009

Charoensukmongkol, P. (2017). Contributions of mindfulness during post-merger integration. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 32*(1), 104-118. https://doi.org/10.1108/jmp-02-2016-0039

Chatterjee, A., Chanda, S. S., & Ray, S. (2018). Administration of an organization undergoing change. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 26*(4), 691-708. https://doi.org/10.1108/ijoa-07-2017-1202

Chaudhry, S. (2018). Managing employee attitude for a successful information system implementation: A change management perspective. *Journal of International Technology and Information Management;, 27*(1), 58-90. Journal of International Technology and Information Management (JITIM) | California State University, San Bernardino (csusb.edu)

Chaudhry, S. J., Hand, M., & Kunreuther, H. (2020). Broad bracketing for low probability events. *Journal of Risk and Uncertainty, 61*(3), 211-244. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11166-020-09343-4

Chaudhry, S., & Joshi, C. (2017). Transformational leadership, HR practices and affective commitment to change: A theoretical perspective. *Journal of Organisation and Human Behaviour, 6*(3), 37-45. https://www.publishingindia.comhttps://publishingindia.com

Cherif, F. (2020). The role of human resource management practices and employee job satisfaction in predicting organizational commitment in Saudi Arabian banking sector. *The International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy, 40*(7/8), 529-541. https://doi.org/10.1108/ijssp-10-2019-0216

Chênevert, D., Kilroy, S., & Bosak, J. (2019). The role of change readiness and colleague support in the role stressors and withdrawal behaviors relationship among health care employees. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 32*(2), 208-223. https://doi.org/10.1108/jocm-06-2018-0148

Chinoperekweyi, J. (2020). Exploring philosophical proclivity of change management articles: Technical-rational perspective versus other change philosophies. *Organization Development Journal, 38*(2), 15-26. https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Justine-

Choi, M. (2011). Employees' attitudes toward organizational change: A literature review. *Human resource management*, *50*(4), 479-500. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.20434

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approach.* Sage.

Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2018). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches* (4th ed.). Sage.

Cullen, K. L., Edwards, B. D., Casper, W. C., & Gue, K. R. (2014). Employees' adaptability and perceptions of change-related uncertainty: Implications for perceived organizational

support, job satisfaction, and performance. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 29*(2), 269-280. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-013-9312-y

Cummings, S., Bridgman, T., & Brown, K. G. (2016). Unfreezing change as three steps: Rethinking Kurt Lewin's legacy for change management. *Human Relations, 69*(1), 33-60. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726715577707

Cumyn, A., Ouellet, K., Côté, A.-M., Francoeur, C., & St-Onge, C. (2019). Role of researchers in the ethical conduct of research: A discourse analysis from different stakeholder perspectives. *Ethics & Behavior, 29*(8), 621-636. https://doi.org/10.1080/10508422.2018.1539671

Dark, F., Whiteford, H., Ashkanasy, N. M., Harvey, C., Harris, M., & Al., e. (2017). The impact of organisational change and fiscal restraint on organisational culture. *International Journal of Mental Health Systems, 11*, 1-7. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13033-016-0116-0

Dasgupta, M. (2015). Exploring the relevance of case study research. *Vision, 19*(2), 147-160. https://doi.org/10.1177/0972262915575661

David, P., & Rundle-Thiele, S. (2018). Social marketing theory measurement precision: A theory of planned behaviour illustration. *Journal of Social Marketing, 8*(2), 182-201. https://doi.org/10.1108/jsocm-12-2016-0087

de Waal, A., & Heijtel, I. (2017). Developing a change approach for the transition to a high performance organization. *Measuring Business Excellence, 21*(2), 101-116. https://doi.org/10.1108/mbe-03-2016-0015

Dhingra, R., & Punia, B. K. (2016). Relational analysis of emotional intelligence and change management: A suggestive model for enriching change management skills. *Vision, 20*(4), 312-322. https://doi.org/10.1177/0972262916668726

Diab-Bahman, R., & Al-Enzi, A. (2020). The impact of COVID-19 pandemic on conventional work settings. *The International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy, 40*(9/10), 909-927. https://doi.org/10.1108/ijssp-07-2020-0262

Diego, B., DiPietro, R., Marissa, O., & Partlow, C. (2018). Social evaluations of restaurant managers. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 30*(3), 1827-1844. https://doi.org/10.1108/ijchm-11-2016-0617

DiPietro, R. B., Harris, K., & Jin, D. (2020). Employed in the foodservice industry: Likelihood of intervention with food safety threats Alternate title: Intervention with food safety threats. *International Hospitality Review, 34*(2), 243-262. https://doi.org/10.1108/ihr-07-2020-0021

DiPietro, R. B., Murphy, K. S., Rivera, M., & Muller, C. C. (2007). Multi-unit management key success factors in the casual dining restaurant industry: A case study. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 19*(7), 524. https://doi.org/10.1108/09596110710818275

Edelman, L. F., & Benning, A. L. (1999). Incremental revolution: Organizational change in highly turbulent environments. *Organization Development Journal, 17*(4), 79. http://hdl.handle.net/10400.12/4770

Elbert, R., & Seikowsky, L. (2017). The influences of behavioral biases, barriers and facilitators on the willingness of forwarders' decision makers to modal shift from unimodal road freight transport to intermodal road–rail freight transport. *Zeitschrift für Betriebswirtschaft;, 87*(8), 1083-1123. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11573-017-0847-7

Emamisaleh, K., & Rahmani, K. (2017). Sustainable supply chain in food industries: Drivers and strategic sustainability orientation. *Cogent Business & Management, 4*(1), 1-18. https://doi.org/10.1080/23311975.2017.1345296

Essink-Bot, M.-L., Lamkaddem, M., Jellema, P., Nielsen, S. S., & Stronks, K. (2013). Interpreting ethnic inequalities in healthcare consumption: A conceptual framework for research. *European Journal of Public Health, 23*(6), 922. https://doi.org/10.1093/eurpub/cks170

Evans, J. M., Baker, G. R., Whitney, B., & Barnsley, J. (2015). Culture and cognition in health systems change. *Journal of Health Organization and Management, 29*(7), 874-892. https://doi.org/10.1108/jhom-06-2014-0101

Farquharson, L., & Baum, T. (2002). Enacting organisational change programmes: A centre stage role for HRM? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 14*(5), 243. https://doi.org/10.1108/09596110210433772

Feng, C., Huang, X., & Zhang, L. (2016). A multilevel study of transformational leadership, dual organizational change and innovative behavior in groups. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 29*(6), 855-877. https://doi.org/10.1108/jocm-01-2016-0005

Feng, C., Robin, M., Fan, L., & Huang, X. (2020). Commitment to change. *Personnel Review, 49*(5), 1069-1090. https://doi.org/10.1108/pr-05-2018-0163

Ferreira, A. I., Cardoso, C., & Braun, T. (2018). The mediating effects of ego-resilience in the relationship between organizational support and resistance to change. *Baltic Journal of Management, 13*(1), 104-124. https://doi.org/10.1108/bjm-06-2017-0171

Fink, M., Frank, H., Gundolf, K., & Kailer, N. (2015). Management of qualitative change in small and medium-sized enterprises: A kaleidoscope of theoretical and empirical

research. *Review of Managerial Science, 9*(2), 219-224. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11846-014-0153-5

Fischer, C. (2009). Bracketing in qualitative research: Conceptual and practical matters. *Psychotherapy Research, 19*, 583-590. https://doi.org/10.1080/10503300902798375

Florence, Y. Y., Yan, N., Chang, Y. H., & Zhang, Z. (2018). Human resource management practices to improve project managers' job satisfaction. *Engineering, Construction and Architectural Management, 25*(5), 654-669. https://doi.org/10.1108/ecam-02-2017-0030

Fløvik, L., Knardahl, S., & Christensen, J. (2019). Organizational change and employee mental health: A prospective multilevel study of the associations between organizational changes and clinically relevant mental distress. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment & Health, 45*(2), 134-145. https://doi.org/10.5271/sjweh.3777

Fragouli, E., & Ibidapo, B. (2015). Leading in crisis: Leading organizational change & business development. *International Journal of Information, Business and Management, 7*(3), 71-90. https://d1wqtxts1xzle7.cloudfront.net/37674331/IJIBM_Vol7No3_Aug2015-with-1021-1042

Fu, X., & Juan, Z. (2017). Understanding public transit use behavior: integration of the theory of planned behavior and the customer satisfaction theory. *Transportation*, *44*(5), 1021-1042. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11116-016-9692-8

Garavan, T., Wang, J., Matthews-Smith, G., Nagarathnam, B., & Lai, Y. (2018). Advancing national human resource development research: Suggestions for multilevel investigations. *Human Resource Development International, 21*(4), 288-318. https://doi.org/10.1080/13678868.2018.1429171

Garud, R., & Ahlstrom, D. (1997). Researchers' roles in negotiating the institutional fabric of technologies. *The American Behavioral Scientist, 40*(4), 523-538. https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764297040004014

Georgalis, J., Samaratunge, R., Kimberley, N., & Lu, Y. (2015). Change process characteristics and resistance to organisational change: The role of employee perceptions of justice. *Australian Journal of Management, 40*(1), 89-113. https://doi.org/10.1177/0312896214526212

Gersick, C. J. (1991). Revolutionary change theories: A multilevel exploration of the punctuated equilibrium paradigm. Academy of management review, 16(1), 10-36. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1991.4278988

Gilgor, D. M., Esmark, C. L., & Golgeci, I. (2016). Building international business theory: A grounded theory approach. *Journal of International Business Studies, 47*(1), 93-111. https://link.springer.com/article/10.1057/jibs.2015.35#citeas

Gorenak, M., Špindler, T., & Brumen, B. (2019). The influence of competencies of managers on job satisfaction of employees in the hotel industry. *Organizacija, 52*(2), 81-94. https://doi.org/10.2478/orga-2019-0006

Greiner, L. E. (1979). Organizational Transitions: Managing Complex Change. The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 15(1), 115–117. https://doi.org/10.1177/002188637901500114

Grønstad, A., Kjekshus, L. E., Tjerbo, T., & Bernstrøm, V. H. (2019). Organizational change and the risk of sickness absence: A longitudinal multilevel analysis of organizational unit-level change in hospitals. *BMC Health Services Research, 19*, 1-11. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12913-019-4745-2

Gulbro, R. D. (1993). Small businesses' perceptions of HRM practices: Comparing entrepreneurs to general managers. *Journal of Business and Entrepreneurship, 5*(2), 45. https://repository.ulm.edu/jbe/Gummesson, E. (2014). Service research methodology: From case study research to case theory. *Revista Ibero- Americana de Estrategia, 13*(4), 8-17. https://doi.org/10.5585/ijsm.v13i4.2180

Gupta, S., & Singla, A. (2016). Organizational change and job satisfaction: An analysis of mediating effect of organizational trust. *Indian Journal of Commerce and Management Studies, 7*(3), 7-13. https://www.ijcms.in/index.php/ijcms/article/view/

Gao, T. (2016). Understanding change recipients' responses to organizational change in Chinese hospitals. *Chinese Management Studies, 10*(4), 675-691. https://doi.org/10.1108/cms-10-2015-0242

Gurd, B., & Gao, T. (2016). Understanding change recipients' responses to organizational change in Chinese hospitals. *Chinese Management Studies*. https://doi.org/10.1108/cms-10-2015-0242

Hallencreutz, J., & Turner, D.-M. (2011). Exploring organizational change best practice: Are there any clear-cut models and definitions? *International Journal of Quality and Service Sciences, 3*(1), 60-68. https://doi.org/10.1108/17566691111115081

Hanage, W. P., Testa, C., Chen, J. T., Davis, L., Elise, P., & Al., e. (2020). COVID-19: US federal accountability for entry, spread, and inequities—lessons for the future. *European Journal of Epidemiology, 35*(11), 995-1006. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10654-020-00689-2

Hanza, M. M., Goodson, M., Osman, A., Porraz Capetillo, M. D., Hared, A., & al., e. (2016). Lessons earned from community-led recruitment of immigrants and refugee participants

for a randomized, community-based participatory research study. *Journal of Immigrant and Minority Health, 18*(5), 1241-1245. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10903-016-0394-2

Haynie, J. J., Harris, S. G., & Flynn, C. B. (2016). The mitigating effects of core self-evaluations in uncertain environments. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 37*(2), 226-240. https://doi.org/10.1108/lodj-05-2014-0098

Hechanova, M. R., Caringal-Go, J. F., & Magsaysay, J. F. (2018). Implicit change leadership, change management, and affective commitment to change. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 39*(7), 914-925. https://doi.org/10.1108/lodj-01-2018-0013

Heggeness, M. L. (2020). Estimating the immediate impact of the COVID-19 shock on parental attachment to the labor market and the double bind of mothers. *Review of Economics of the Household, 18*(4), 1053-1078. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11150-020-09514-x

Heyden, M. L., Fourne, S. P., Koene, B. A., Werkman, R., & Ansari, S. (2017). Rethinking 'Top-Down' and 'Bottom-Up' roles of top and middle managers in organizational change: Implications for employee support. *The Journal of Management Studies, 54*(7), 961-985. https://doi.org/10.1111/joms.12258

Hidvegi, M. (2019). Crises and responses: Government policies and the machine-building cartels in Hungary, 1919–1949. *Enterprise & Society, 20*(1), 89-131. https://doi.org/10.1017/eso.2018.4

Holten, A.-L., Hancock, G. R., & Bøllingtoft, A. (2019). Studying the importance of change leadership and change management in layoffs, mergers, and closures. *Management Decision, 58*(3), 393-409. https://doi.org/10.1108/md-03-2017-0278

Hong, P. C., Kallarakal, T. K., Moina, M., & Hopkins, M. (2019). Managing change, growth and transformation. *The Journal of Management Development, 38*(4), 298-311. https://doi.org/10.1108/jmd-01-2018-0011

Hornstein, H. A. (2015). The integration of project management and organizational change management is now a necessity. *International Journal of Project Management, 33*(2), 291. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2014.08.005

Hosgörür, V. (2016). Views of primary school administrators on change in schools and change management practices. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Egitim Bilimleri, 16*(6), 2029-2055. https://doi.org/10.12738/estp.2016.6.0099

Howard, A., & Hirani, K. (2013). Transformational change and stages of development in the workplace. *Journal of Integral Theory and Practice;, 8*(1/2), 71-86. https://integrallife.com/journal-of-integral-theory-and-practice

Hur, Y. (2018). Testing Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation in the public sector: Is it applicable to public managers? *Public Organization Review, 18*(3), 329-343. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11115-017-0379-1

Hurd, M. D. (1999). Anchoring and acquiescence bias in measuring assets in household surveys. *Journal of Risk and Uncertainty;, 19*(1), 111-136. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-017-1406-8_5

Igielski, M. (2015). Changes in personnel policies of enterprises conditioned by the identification of knowledge workers. *Management, 19*(2), 35-51. https://doi.org/10.1515/manment-2015-0012

Ihantola, E.-M., & Kihn, L.-A. (2011). Threats to validity and reliability in mixed methods accounting research. *Qualitative Research in Accounting and Management, 8*(1), 39-58. https://doi.org/10.1108/11766091111124694

Iljins, J., & Skvarciany, V. (2015). The role of change management in trust formation in commercial banks. *Verslas : Teorija ir Praktika, 16*(4), 373-378. https://doi.org/10.3846/btp.2015.557

Ionescu, V.-C., & Bolcaş, C. (2018). Organizational development through change. *Manager*(28), 47-55. https://econpapers.repec.org/article/butmanage/v_3a28_3ay_3a2018_3ai_3a1_3ap_3a47-55.htm

Islam, M. N., Furuoka, F., & Idris, A. (2020). Employee championing behavior in the context of organizational change: A proposed framework for the business organizations in Bangladesh. *Journal of Asia Business Studies, 14*(5), 735-757. https://doi.org/10.1108/jabs-01-2019-0019

Jacobson, N. C., Bentley, K. H., Walton, A., Wang, S. B., Fortgang, R. G., & Al., e. (2020). Ethical dilemmas posed by mobile health and machine learning in psychiatry research. *World Health Organization, 98*(4), 270-276. https://doi.org/10.2471/blt.19.237107

Jick, T. D. (1979). Mixing qualitative and quantitative methods: Triangulation in action. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 24*(4), 602. https://doi.org/10.2307/2392366

Jeong, I., & Shin, S. J. (2019). High-performance work practices and organizational creativity during organizational change: A collective learning perspective. *Journal of management, 45*(3), 909-925. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206316685156

Jimmieson, N. L., Peach, M., & White, K. M. (2008). Utilizing the Theory of Planned Behavior to inform change management: An investigation of employee intentions to support organizational change. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 44*(2), 237. https://doi.org/10.1177/0021886307312773

Jordan, P. J., Werner, A., & Venter, D. (2015). Achieving excellence in private intensive care units: The effect of transformational leadership and organisational culture on organisational change outcomes. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management, 13*(1), 1-10. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v13i1.707

Joshi, M., & Jha, S. (2017). Choice of an authoritative style when implementing a survival urgency-based strategic change. *Journal of Strategy and Management, 10*(2), 168-186. https://doi.org/10.1108/jsma-06-2014-0041

Juliboni, M. C., & Garibaldi, A. V. (2018). Organizational change in a scenario of political upheaval and economic crisis: A Brazilian case. Management Research Review, 41(10), 1118-1136. https://doi.org/10.1108/MRR-01-2017-0003

Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (1979). Prospect Theory: a decision making under risk. *Econometrica*, *47*(2), 263-291. https://doi.org/10.2307/1914185

Kalleberg, A. L., Knoke, D., Marsden, P. V., & Spaeth, J. L. (1994). The National Organizations Study: An introduction and overview: Organizational research designs. *The American Behavioral Scientist, 37*(7), 860-870. https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764294037007002

Kang, S. P. (2015). Change management: Term confusion and new classifications. *Performance Improvement, 54*(3), 26-32. https://doi.org/10.1002/pfi.21466

Kareem, M. A., & Mijbas, H. A. (2019). Mediating role of dynamic capabilities on the relationship between human resource development and organizational effectiveness. *Organizacija, 52*(3), 187-203. https://doi.org/10.2478/orga-2019-0012

Kashmoola, B., Ahmad, F., & Kheng, Y. K. (2017). Job satisfaction and intention to leave in SME construction companies of the United Arab Emirates (UAE). *Business Management Dynamics, 7*(3), 1-9. https://doi.org/10.23956/ijermt.v6i10.74

Keller, T. (2012). *Every good endeavor: Connecting your work to God's work.* Penguin Group.

Keutel, M., Michalik, B., & Richter, J. (2014). Towards mindful case study research in IS: A critical analysis of the past ten years. *European Journal of Information Systems, 23*(3), 256-272. https://doi.org/10.1057/ejis.2013.26

Kieran, S., MacMahon, J., & MacCurtain, S. (2020). Strategic change and sensemaking practice: Enabling the role of the middle manager. *Baltic Journal of Management, 15*(4), 493-514. https://doi.org/10.1108/bjm-11-2018-0395

Kindler, H. S. (1979). Two planning strategies: Incremental change and transformational change. *Group and Organization Studies, 4*(4), 476-484. https://doi.org/10.1177/105960117900400409

Knowles, H. P., & Saxberg, B. O. (1988). Organizational leadership of planned and unplanned change. *Futures, 20*(3), 252. https://doi.org/10.1016/0016-3287(88)90081-x

Koshki, N., Esmaeilpour, H., & Ardestani, A. S. (2014). The study on the effects of environmental quality, food and restaurant, services on mental image of the restaurant, customer perceived value, customer satisfaction and customer behavioral intentions: Case study of Boroujerd's restaurants. *Kuwait Chapter of the Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review, 3*(10), 261-272. https://doi.org/10.12816/0018407

Krause, M. S. (2019). Randomness is problematic for social science research purposes. *Quality and Quantity, 53*(3), 1495-1504. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-018-0824-4

Kumar, V., Loonam, J., Allen, J. P., & Sawyer, S. (2016). Exploring enterprise social systems & organisational change: Implementation in a digital age. *Journal of Information Technology, 31*(2), 97-100. https://doi.org/10.1057/jit.2016.13

Kumar, S., Kumar, N., Deshmukh, V., & Adhish, V. (2015). Change management skills. *Indian Journal of Community Medicine, 40*(2), 85-89. https://doi.org/10.4103/0970-0218.153869

Kuna, S. (2017). Paradoxical processes impeding public management reform implementation: Perspectives of management consultants. *Public Personnel Management, 46*(2), 188-207. https://doi.org/10.1177/0091026017709826

Kusano, M., & Sanada, M. (2019). Crisis and organizational change: IASB's response to the financial crisis. *Journal of Accounting & Organizational Change, 15*(2), 278-301. https://doi.org/10.1108/jaoc-02-2018-0019

Kyvik, S. (2013). The academic researcher role: Enhancing expectations and improved performance. *Higher Education, 65*(4), 525-538. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-012-9561-0

Larrinaga, O. V. (2017). Is it desirable, necessary, and possible to perform research using case studies? *Cuadernos de Gestion, 17*(1), 147-171. https://doi.org/10.5295/cdg.140516ov

Lauren, E. (2020). Understanding the type and pace of organisational change in the Maltese budgetary framework. *European Research Studies, 23*(1), 75-93. https://doi.org/10.35808/ersj/1537

Ledford, G. E., & Mohrman, S. A. (1993). Self-design for high involvement: A large-scale

    organizational change. *Human Relations, 46*(2),

    143. https://doi.org/10.1177/001872679304600202

Lee, K., Sharif, M., Scandura, T., & Kim, J. (2017). Procedural justice as a moderator of the

    relationship between organizational change intensity and commitment to organizational

    change. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 30*(4), 501-524.

    https://doi.org/10.1108/jocm-08-2015-0139

Leenders, J., Bleijenbergh, I. L., & Brink, M. C. (2020). Myriad potential for mentoring:

    Understanding the process of transformational change through a gender equality

    intervention. *Gender, Work and Organization, 27*(3), 379-

    394. https://doi.org/10.1111/gwao.12385

Leinonen, M., Nikkanen, R., & Otonkorpi-Lehtoranta, K. (2018). Organizational change and

    employee concerns in the Finnish Defence Forces 1. *Nordic Journal of Working Life*

    Studies, 8(3), 135-153. https://doi.org/10.18291/njwls.v8i3.109544

Levy, A. (1986). Second-order planned change: Definition and conceptualization. Organizational

    dynamics, 15(1), 5-23. https://doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616(86)90022-7

Lewin, L., Dorwinc, A., (1951). Field Theory in Social Science: Selected Theoretical Papers.

    (1951). *Social Service Review, 25*(3), 409–410. https://doi.org/10.1086/638467

Li, J. Y., Sun, R., Tao, W., & Lee, Y. (2021). Employee coping with organizational change in the

    face of a pandemic: The role of transparent internal communication. *Public Relations*

    Review, *47*(1), 101984. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pubrev.2020.101984

Li, S., Rees, C. J., & Branine, M. (2019). Employees' perceptions of human resource

    management practices and employee outcomes: Empirical evidence from small and

medium-sized enterprises in China. *Employee Relations, 41*(6), 1419-1433. https://doi.org/10.1108/er-01-2019-0065

Lim, S., Wang, T. K., & Lee, S.-Y. (2017). Shedding new light on Strategic Human Resource Management: The impact of Human Resource Management Practices and Human Resources on the perception of Federal Agency Mission Accomplishment. *Public Personnel Management, 46*(2), 91-117. https://doi.org/10.1177/0091026017704440

Lines, B. C., Sullivan, K. T., Smithwick, J. B., & Mischung, J. (2015). Overcoming resistance to change in engineering and construction: Change management factors for owner organizations. *International Journal of Project Management, 33*(5), 1170-1179. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2015.01.008.

Lundgren-Henriksson, E.-L., & Kock, S. (2016). Coopetition in a headwind - The interplay of sensemaking, sensegiving, and middle managerial emotional response in coopetitive strategic change development. *Industrial Marketing Management, 58*, 20-34. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indmarman.2016.05.012

Mabin, V. J., Forgeson, S., & Green, L. (2001). Harnessing resistance: Using the theory of constraints to assist change management. *Journal of European Industrial Training, 25*(2/3/4), 168-191. https://doi.org/10.1108/eum0000000005446

Mackay, L. (1987). Personnel: Changes disguising decline? *Personnel Review, 16*(5), 3-11. https://doi.org/10.1108/eb055574

Magacho, G. R. (2017). Structural change and economic growth: Advances and limitations of Kaldorian growth models. *PSL Quarterly Review, 70*(280), 35-57. https://www.resurchify.com/impact/details/21100892908#:~:text=PSL%20Quarterly%20Review%20is%20a%2

Maheshwari, S., & Vohra, V. (2015). Identifying critical HR practices impacting employee

perception and commitment during organizational change. *Journal of Organizational*

Change Management, 28(5), 872-894. https://doi.org/10.1108/jocm-03-2014-0066

Mahlamäki, K., & Nieminen, M. (2020). Analysis of manual data collection in maintenance

context. *Journal of Quality in Maintenance Engineering, 26*(1), 104-119.

https://doi.org/10.1108/jqme-12-2017-0091

Malmstrom, M. (2016). Cognitive micro-foundations at work: How organizations resist change

in work practice. *Baltic Journal of Management, 11*(4), 473-

492. https://doi.org/10.1108/bjm-01-2016-0002

Manole, C., & Alpopi, C. (2015). Agents of change in the public sector in Romania.

Management Research and Practice, 7(2), 20-33. http://mrp.ase.ro/no72/f2.pdf

Mason, R. B. (2007). The external environment's effect on management and strategy: A

complexity theory approach. *Management Decision, 45*(1), 10-28.

https://doi.org/10.1108/00251740710718935

Matli, W. (2020). The changing work landscape as a result of the Covid-19 pandemic: Insights

from remote workers life situations in South Africa. *The International Journal of*

Sociology and Social Policy, 40(9/10), 1237-1256. https://doi.org/10.1108/ijssp-08-

2020-0386

Mausner, B., Herzberg, F., & Snyderman, B. B. (2011). The Motivation to Work. United States:

Transaction Publishers. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315124827

May, J. P. (1978). Qualitative advertising research-A review of the role of the researcher.

Journal of the Market Research Society, 20(4), 203.

https://www.researchgate.net/journal/Journal-of

McClure, R. (2018). The influence of mediating variables on market oreintation during organizational change. *Academy of Marketing Studies Journal, 22*(1), 1-25. https://doi.org/10.1108/08858621011077745

Mcdonnell, L., & Sikander, A. (2017). Skills and competencies for the contemporary human resource practitioner: A synthesis of the academic, industry and employers' perspectives. *The Journal of Developing Areas, 51*(1), 83-101. https://doi.org/10.1353/jda.2017.0005

McFarland, W., & Jestaz, D. (2016). Talent development in the digital age: A neuroscience perspective. *Industrial and Commercial Training, 48*(2), 74-79. https://doi.org/10.1108/ict-09-2015-0062

McGuinness, S., & Cronin, H. (2016). Examining the relationship between employee indicators of resistance to changes in job conditions and wider organizational change. *Evidence-Based HRM, 4*(1), 30-48. https://doi.org/10.1108/ebhrm-04-2015-0013

Meddour, H., Majid, A. H., & Yusoff, R. Z. (2016). Organizational capacity, organizational motivation, external environment and knowledge transfer and sharing: A conceptual framework. *International Journal of Economic Perspectives, 10*(4), 47-57. https://d1wqtxts1xzle7.cloudfront.net/40162357/Paper1-libre.pdf?1447908230=&response-content-disposition=inline%3B+filename%3DOrganizational_Capacity_Organizational_M.pdf&

Meiste, R., & Jakstiene, S. (2015). Crisis diagnosis in anti-crisis management process in a company. *Oeconomia Copernicana, 6*(4), 49-58. https://doi.org/10.12775/oec.2015.028

Mellina, E. (2015). Powering on change management potential: Model and case study to help build organizational change capacity. *Effective Executive, 18*(1), 34-41.

https://orchango.com/wp/wp-content/uploads/2015/02/powering-on-change-management-potential-for-EE-India.pdf

Mikkelsen, A., & Olsen, E. (2019). The influence of change-oriented leadership on work performance and job satisfaction in hospitals – the mediating roles of learning demands and job involvement. *Leadership in Health Services, 32*(1), 37-53. https://doi.org/10.1108/lhs-12-2016-0063

Miller, D., & Friesen, P. H. (1984). A longitudinal study of the corporate life cycle. *Management science*, *30*(10), 1161-1183. https://doi.org/10.1287/mnsc.30.10.1161

Mitra, A., Gaur, S. S., & Giacosa, E. (2019). Combining organizational change management and organizational ambidexterity using data transformation. *Management Decision, 57*(8), 2069-2091. https://doi.org/10.1108/md-07-2018-0841

Model, S. (2005). Triangulation between case study and survey methods in management accounting research: An assessment of validity implications. *Management Accounting Research, 16*(2), 231-254. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mar.2005.03.001

Molinder, J. (2018). Why did Swedish regional net migration rates fall in the 1970s? The role of policy changes versus structural change, 1945-1985. *The Scandinavian Economic History Review, 66*(1), 91-115. https://doi.org/10.1080/03585522.2018.1433228

Moon, C. (2015). The (un)changing role of the researcher: The Journal of the Market Research Society. *International Journal of Market Research, 57*(1), 15-16. https://doi.org/10.2501/ijmr-2015-002

Morin, A. J., Meyer, J. P., Émilie, B., Jean-Sébastien, B., Marylène, G., & Al., e. (2016). Longitudinal associations between employees' beliefs about the quality of the change

management process, affective commitment to change and psychological empowerment. *Human Relations, 69*(3), 839-867. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726715602046

Moroz, E., Szkutnik, J., & Lazanyi, K. (2016). Application of the Theory of Constraints in Knowledge Management. *Management, Enterprise and Benchmarking in the 21st Century*, 205-214. https://kgk.uni-obuda.hu/sites/default/files/15_

Moses, J., & Gerwel, P. C. (2016). The impact of institutional culture on change initiatives in an electric utility company in Africa. *African Journal of Economic and Management Studies, 7*(3), 295-313. https://doi.org/10.1108/ajems-08-2015-0093

Mouza, A. M., & Souchamvali, D. (2016). Effect of Greece's new reforms and unplanned organizational changes on the stress levels of primary school teachers. *Social Indicators Research, 128*(3), 981-994. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-015-1065-8

Mungaray, K. R. (2017). Does the formal understanding of qualitative research enhance the assessment of risk in an audit? *American Journal of Management, 17*(2), 86-94. http://www.na-businesspress.com/AJM/Mungaray_abstract.html

Mustafa, N., Nakov, L., & Islami, X. (2019). The impact of organizational changes on increasing SMEs competitiveness. *Acta Universitatis Danubius. Oeconomica, 15*(2), 93-114. https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3351243

Muzanenhamo, G. N., Allen-Ile, C. O., Adams, A., & Iwu, C. G. (2016). The relationship among change implementation, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior in the Business Process Outsourcing industry in South Africa. *Problems and Perspectives in Management, 14*(3), 473-482. https://doi.org/10.21511/ppm.14(3-2).2016.03

Nadler, D., Tushman, M., Tushman, M. L., & Nadler, M. B. (1997). *Competing by design: The power of organizational architecture*. Oxford University Press.

Narine, L., & Persaud, D. D. (2003). Gaining and maintaining commitment to large-scale change in healthcare organizations. *Health Services Management Research, 16*(3), 179-87. https://doi.org/10.1258/095148403322167933

Neill, M. S., Men, L. R., & Cen, A. Y. (2019). How communication climate and organizational identification impact change. *Corporate Communications, 25*(2), 281-298. https://doi.org/10.1108/ccij-06-2019-0063

Neneh, B. N. (2016). Market orientation and performance: The contingency role of external environment. *Environmental Economics, 7*(2), 130-137. https://doi.org/10.21511/ee.07(2).2016.14

Nery, V. d., Sanches, F. K., & Neiva, E. R. (2019). Attributes of the organizational change and Its influence on attitudes toward organizational change and well-being at work: A longitudinal study. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 55*(4), 477-496. https://doi.org/10.1177/0021886319848125

Neves, P., & Schyns, B. (2018). With the bad comes what change? The interplay between destructive leadership and organizational change. *Journal of Change Management, 18*(2), 91-95. https://doi.org/10.1080/14697017.2018.1446699

Newbold, S. C., Finnoff, D., Thunström, L., Madison, A., & Shogren, J. F. (2020). Effects of physical distancing to control COVID-19 on public health, the economy, and the environment. *Environmental and Resource Economics, 76*(4), 705-729. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10640-020-00440-1

Nguyen, D. T., Teo, S. T., Pick, D., & Jemai, M. (2018). Cynicism about change, work engagement, and job satisfaction of public sector nurses. *Australian Journal of Public Administration, 77*(2), 172-186. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8500.12270

Nyamubarwa, W., & Chipunza, C. (2019). Debunking the one-size-fits-all approach to human
    resource management: A review of human resource practices in small and medium-sized
    enterprise firms. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management, 17*, 1.
    https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v17i0.1108

Oettl, C. A., Beck, K., Raufer, F. M., Priglmeir, A. T., Böhm, M., & Al., e. (2018). Zero Email
    initiative: A critical review of Change Management during the introduction of Enterprise
    Social Networks. *Journal of Information Technology Teaching Cases, 8*(2), 172-183.
    https://doi.org/10.1057/s41266-018-0033-y

Oppermann, M. (2000). Triangulation -- a methodological discussion. *The International Journal
    of Tourism Research, 2*(2), 141-146.
    https://doi.org/10.1002/(sici)1522-1970(200003/04)2:2<141::aid-jtr217>3.0.co;2-u

Orth, P. B., & Cheng, A. S. (2019). Organizational change in the US Forest Service: Negotiating
    organizational boundaries in the collaborative process. *Environmental Management,
    64*(1), 64-78. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00267-019-01145-y

Øygarden, O., Olsen, E., & Mikkelsen, A. (2020). Changing to improve? Organizational change
    and change-oriented leadership in hospitals. *Journal of Health Organization and
    Management, 34*(6), 687-706. https://doi.org/10.1108/jhom-09-2019-0280

Palumbo, R., & Manna, R. (2019). Making educational organizations able to change: A literature
    review. *The International Journal of Educational Management, 33*(4), 734-752.
    https://doi.org/10.1108/ijem-02-2018-0051

Parastuty, Z., Schwarz, E. J., Breitenecker, R. J., & Harms, R. (2015). Organizational change: A
    review of theoretical conceptions that explain how and why young firms change. *Review
    of Managerial Science, 9*(2), 241-259. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11846-014-0155-3

Park, S., & Eun-Jee, K. (2015). Revisiting knowledge sharing from the organizational change perspective. *European Journal of Training and Development, 39*(9), 769-797. https://doi.org/10.1108/ejtd-06-2015-0042

Pellegrini, C., Rizzi, F., & Frey, M. (2018). The role of sustainable human resource practices in influencing employee behavior for corporate sustainability. *Business Strategy and the Environment, 27*(8), 1221-1232. https://doi.org/10.1002/bse.2064

Petersen, J. S., Allman, P. H., & Lee, W. C. (2015). Surveys in class action wage and hour cases and the use of anonymous respondents. *Journal of Legal Economics, 22*(1), 25-VI. https://jlegalteam.com

Petrou, P., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2018). Crafting the change: The role of employee job crafting behaviors for successful organizational change. *Journal of Management, 44*(5), 1766-1792. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206315624961

Phoolka, S. (2018). Effect of demographics on change readiness of executives working in Indian mobile service sector. *Journal of Strategic Human Resource Management, 7*(2), 24-39. https://d1wqtxts1xzle7.cloudfront.net/60686433/Effect_of_Demographics_on_Change_Readiness_of_Executives_

Pollack, J., & Algeo, C. (2016). Project managers' and change managers' contribution to success. *International Journal of Managing Projects in Business, 9*(2), 451-465. https://doi.org/10.1108/ijmpb-09-2015-0085

Po-Tsang, C., & Hu, H.-H. (2010). How determinant attributes of service quality influence customer-perceived value: An empirical investigation of the Australian coffee outlet industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 22*(4), 535-

551.

 https://doi.org/10.1108/09596111011042730

Prabhu, V. P. (2018). Organizational change and proactive personality: Effect on job

performance and job satisfaction. *The Journal of Applied Business and Economics, 20*(4),

178-202. https://doi.org/10.33423/jabe.v20i4.356

Preston, B. (1993). Developing the organization through teamworking initiatives. *Industrial and

Commercial Training, 25*(1), 9. https://doi.org/10.1108/eum0000000001597

Pulinka, Á. (2020). Complexity of change and its relationship with the levels of cooperation

needed during a change process. *Vezetéstudomány, 51*(5), 15-26.

https://doi.org/10.14267/veztud.2020.05.02

Raeder, S,. (2019). The role of human resource management practices in managing

organizational change. *Organization, 50*(2), 169-191. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11612-

019-00465-1

Rafferty, A. E., & Jimmieson, N. L. (2017). Subjective perceptions of organizational change and

employee resistance to change: Direct and mediated relationships with employee well-

being. *British Journal of Management, 28*(2), 248-264. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-

8551.12200

Rahaman, S. H., Camps, J., Decoster, S., & Stouten, J. (2020). Ethical leadership in times of

change: The role of change commitment and change information for employees'

dysfunctional resistance. *Personnel Review, 50*(2), 630-647. https://doi.org/10.1108/pr-

03-2019-0122

Raza, M. (2018). Embracing qualitative research: An act of strategic essentialism. *Qualitative Research in Organizations and Management, 13*(4), 306-314. https://doi.org/10.1108/qrom-09-2018-1680

Raza, M. A., Khan, M. M., & Mujtaba, B. G. (2018). The impact of organizational change on employee turnover intention: Does stress play a mediating role? *Public Organization Review, 18*(3), 313-327. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11115-017-0380-8

Repovš, E., Drnovšek, M., & Kaše, R. (2019). Change ready, resistant, or both? Exploring the concepts of individual change readiness and resistance to organizational change. *Economic and Business Review for Central and South-Eastern Europe, 21*(2), 309-337,343. https://doi.org/10.15458/85451.82

Ridder, H. (2017). The theoretical contribution of case study research designs. *Business Research, 10*(2), 281-305. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40685-017-0045-z

Roberto, K. J., Johnson, A. F., & Rauhaus, B. M. (2020). Stigmatization and prejudice during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Administrative Theory & Praxis, 42*(3), 364-378, https://doi.org/10.1080/10841806.2020.1782128

Rodat, S. (2018). Organizational change: Framing the issues. *Revista de Stiinte Politice, 59*, 23-33. https://d1wqtxts1xzle7.cloudfront.net/63918111/Articol_Simona_Rodat_RSP_Nr._59_20

Rønningstad, C. (2018). Us and them – First-line management and change resistance. *Nordic Journal of Working Life Studies, 8*(2), 5-22. https://doi.org/10.18291/njwls.v8i2.106152

Rosenbaum, D., More, E., & Steane, P. (2018). Planned organisational change management. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 31*(2), 286-303. https://doi.org/10.1108/jocm-06-2015-0089

Roy, A. (2014). Aboriginal worldviews and epidemiological survey methodology: Overcoming incongruence. *International Journal of Multiple Research Approaches, 8*(1), 117-128. https://doi.org/10.5172/mra.2014.8.1.117

Saehya, A., & Blum, S. C. (2020). Motivating senior employees in the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 32*(1), 324-346. https://doi.org/10.1108/ijchm-08-2018-0685

Sætren, G. B., & Laumann, K. (2017). Organizational change management theories and safety: A critical review. *Safety Science Monitor;, 20*(1), 1. https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Gunhild-Saetren/publication/317717072_Organizational_change_management_theories_and_safet

Saha, J., Barman, B., & Chouhan, P. (2020). Lockdown for COVID-19 and its impact on community mobility in India: An analysis of the COVID-19 Community Mobility Report. *Children and Youth Services Review, 116*, 105160. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2020.105160

Sahoo, C. K., & Sharma, R. (2015). Managing grassroot-level change in an Indian PSU: The role of people-centric strategies. *South Asian Journal of Management, 22*(3), 28-47. https://sajm-amdisa.org

Salzborn, S., Brosig, B., & Schmidt, P. (2011). Antisemitism research using methodological triangulation: A case study in Germany. *Quality and Quantity, 45*(6), 1201-1215. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-009-9286-z

Samal, A., & Chatterjee, D. (2020). Rethinking organizational change: Towards a conceptual

framework. *South Asian Journal of Management, 27*(2), 30-53. https://sajm-amdisa.org/

Savovic, S. (2017). Organizational culture differences and post-acquisition performance: The

mediating role of employee attitudes. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal,*

38(5), 719-741. https://doi.org/10.1108/lodj-02-2016-0043

Schilirò, D. (2012). Structural change and models of structural analysis: Theories, principles, and

methods. *Journal of Advanced Research in Law and Economics, 3*(2), 31-48.

https://doi.org/10.2478/v10257-012-0007-0

Schouteten, R. L. J., & Vleuten, T. (2013). Organizational change and job satisfaction among

voluntary and paid workers in a Dutch voluntary organization.

http://hdl.handle.net/2066/120951

Schuller, K. A., Kash, B. A., & Gamm, L. D. (2015). Studer Group® ' s evidence-based

leadership initiatives. *Journal of Health Organization and Management, 29*(6), 684-

700. https://doi.org/10.1108/jhom-10-2013-0211

Schulz-Knappe, C., Koch, T., & Beckert, J. (2019). The importance of communicating change.

Corporate Communications, 24(4), 670-685. https://doi.org/10.1108/ccij-04-2019-0039

Sedmak, M., & Longhurst, P. (2010). Methodological choices in enterprise systems research.

Business Process Management Journal, 16(1), 76-92.

https://doi.org/10.1108/14637151011017958

Seeger, M. W., Ulmer, R. R., Novak, J. M., & Sellnow, T. (2005). Post-crisis discourse and

organizational change, failure and renewal. *Journal of Organizational Change*

Management, 18(1), 78-95. https://doi.org/10.1108/09534810510579869

Shah, N., Irani, Z., & Sharif, A. M. (2017). Big data in an HR context: Exploring organizational change readiness, employee attitudes, and behaviors. *Journal of Business Research, 70*, 366. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2016.08.010

Shin, Y., & Kim, M.-j. (2015). Antecedents and mediating mechanisms of proactive behavior: Application of the Theory of Planned Behavior. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management, 32*(1), 289-310. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10490-014-9393-9

Shirokova, G., Berezinets, I., & Shatalov, A. (2014). Organisational change and firm growth in emerging economies. *Journal of East European Management Studies, 19*(2), 185-212. https://doi.org/10.5771/0949-6181-2014-2-185

Shooshtarian, Z., Ameli, F., & Aminilari, M. (2013). The effect of labor's emotional intelligence on their job satisfaction, job performance, and commitment. *Iranian Journal of Management Studies, 6*(1), 29-45. https://ijms.ut.ac.ir/article_30123_3079.html?lang=

SHRM. (2020). Retrieved October 3, 2020, from https://shrm.org/

Simion, C. P., Popescu, M. A., & Bucovețchi, O. M. (2019). Analysis of different change types in the management process of an organisation. *Advanced Engineering Forum, 34*, 326-332. https://doi.org/10.4028/www.scientific.net/aef.34.326

Singh, R. (2020). Role of human and technical aspects in organizational change. *AKGIM Journal of Management, 10*(1), 43-46. https://akgim.edu.in/aayam

Sisti, L. G., Mariani, M., De Vito, C., Isonne, C., Nardi, A., & Al., e. (2019). Paying attention to personnel in organizational changes: The impact of hospital mergers. *European Journal of Public Health, 29*, 524. https://doi.org/10.1093/eurpub/ckz186.381

Skogland, M. A., & Hansen, G. K. (2017). Change your space, change your culture: Exploring

   spatial change management strategies. *Journal of Corporate Real Estate, 19*(2), 95-110.

   https://doi.org/10.1108/jcre-07-2016-0024

Sohmen, V. S. (2016). Change management and theory U leadership. *International Journal of*

   Global Business, 9(2), 102-110. https://doi.org/10.1504/ejim.2008.019696

Stace, D. A., & Dunphy, D. C. (1988). Translating business strategies into action: managing

   strategic change. Strategic Change, 1(4), 203-216.

   https://doi.org/10.1002/jsc.4240010404

Stake, R. E. (2010). *Qualitative research: Studying how things work.*: Guilford Press.

Stolnik, V., Hunjet, A., & Kozina, G. (2016). Organizational changes and the impact of stress on

   employees of local government. *Economic and Social Development*, 93-100.

   https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Fran-

   Galetic/publication/319451011_Varazdin_Development_and_Entrepreneurship_Agency_

   in_cooperation_with_Economic_and_Social_Development_Develo.pdf#page=100

Strodtbeck, G. K. (2016). An introduction to organization change. *The Journal for Quality and*

   Participation, 39(2), 35-38. https://asq.org/perl/msg.pl?prvurl=/quality-

   participation/2016/07/social-responsibility/an-introduction-to-organization-change.pdf

Struckman, C. K., & Yammarino, F. J. (2003). Organizational change: A categorization scheme

   and response model with readiness factors. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0897-

   3016(03)14079-7

Suryaningtyas, D., Sudiro, A., Eka, T. A., & Dodi, I. W. (2019). Organizational resilence and

   organizational performance: Examining the mediating roles of resilent leadership and

organizational culture. *Academy of Strategic Management Journal, 18*(2), 1-7. https://doi.org/10.4108/eai.6-12-2018.2286329

SurveyMonkey. (2021). Retrieved from https://www.surveymonkey.com

Sutherland, F., & Smith, A. C. (2011). Duality theory and the management of the change-stability paradox. *Journal of Management and Organization, 17*(4), 534-547. https://doi.org/10.1017/s1833367200001437

Suwaryo, J., Daryanto, H. K., & Maulana, A. (2015). Organizational culture change and its effect on change readiness through organizational commitment. *Bisnis & Birokrasi, 22*(1), 68-78. https://doi.org/10.20476/jbb.v22i1.5431

Tamilarasu, V. (2012). Change management. *International Journal of Management Prudence, 4*(2), 26-31. http://www.publishingindia.com/ijmp/19/change-management/184/1439/

Termeer, C. J., Dewulf, A., & Biesbroek, R. G. (2017). Transformational change: Governance interventions for climate change adaptation from a continuous change perspective. *Journal of Environmental Planning and Management, 60*(4), 558-576. https://doi.org/10.1080/09640568.2016.1168288

Thomas, S. (2012). Narrative inquiry: Embracing the possibilities. *Qualitative Research Journal, 12*(2), 206-221. https://doi.org/10.1108/14439881211248356

Tomkins, L., & Eatough, V. (2013). The feel of experience: Phenomenological ideas for organizational research. *Qualitative Research in Organizations and Management, 8*(3), 258-275. https://doi.org/10.1108/qrom-04-2012-1060

Troy, W. J. (2017). ASQ needs transformational change. *The Journal for Quality and Participation, 40*(2), 4-7. https://archive.org/details/pub_journal-for-quality-and-participation#:~

Trunina, I., Zagirniak, D., Pryakhina, K., & Bezugla, T. (2020). Diagnostics of the enterprise personnel sustainability. *Problems and Perspectives in Management, 18*(2), 382-395. https://doi.org/10.21511/ppm.18(2).2020.31

Tsai, J., & Bruck, A. (2009). Sociocultural contexts and worker safety and health: Findings of a study with Chinese immigrant restaurant workers. *AAOHN Journal, 57*(2), 51-8. https://doi.org/10.1177/216507990905700204

Tsai, K. L., & Harrison, W. (2019). Organizational actions in gaining employee support for change: The roles of affective commitment to change, organizational justice, and organizational cynicism. *Journal of Organizational Psychology, 19*(5), 141-155. https://doi.org/10.33423/jop.v19i5.2516

Tucker, D. A., Hendy, J., & Barlow, J. (2015). The importance of role sending in the sensemaking of change agent roles. *Journal of Health Organization and Management, 29*(7), 1047-1064. https://doi.org/10.1108/jhom-12-2013-0279

Tummers, L., Kruyen, P. M., Vijverberg, D. M., & Voesenek, T. J. (2015). Connecting HRM and change management: The importance of proactivity and vitality. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 28*(4), 627-640. https://doi.org/10.1108/jocm-11-2013-0220

Tushman, M. L., Newman, W. H., & Romanelli, E. (1986). Convergence and upheaval: Managing the unsteady pace of organizational evolution. California management review, 29(1), 29-44. https://doi.org/10.2307/41165225

Urasawa, S. (2018). Structural change and business cycles in Japan: Revisiting the stylized facts. *Journal of Business Cycle Research, 14*(2), 243-281. https://doi.org/10.1007/s41549-018-00035-2

Valentine, M. A. (2018). Renegotiating spheres of obligation: The role of hierarchy in organizational learning. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 63*(3), 570-606. https://doi.org/10.1177/0001839217718547

van der Voet, J., & Vermeeren, B. (2017). Change management in hard times. *American Review of Public Administration, 47*(2), 230-252. https://doi.org/10.1177/0275074015625828

van Rijnsoever, F. J. (2017). (I Can't Get No) Saturation: A simulation and guidelines for sample sizes in qualitative research. *PLOS ONE*, 1. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0181689

Ven, V. d., H, A., & Sun, K. (2011). Breakdowns in implementing models of Organization Change. *The Academy of Management Perspectives, 25*(3), 58. https://doi.org/10.5465/AMP.2011.63886530

Vroom, V. H. (1982). Work and motivation (Rev. ed.).

Waclawski, J. (2002). Large-scale organizational change and performance: An empirical examination. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 13*(3), 289-305. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.1032

Waldersee, R., Griffiths, A., & Lai, J. (2003). Predicting organizational change success: Matching organization type, change type and capabilities. *Journal of Applied Management and Entrepreneurship, 8*(1), 66-81. https://doi.org/10.1108/01437730410544746

Wang, H.-K., Yen, Y.-F., & Tseng, J.-F. (2015). Knowledge sharing in knowledge workers: The roles of social exchange theory and the theory of planned behavior. *Innovation : Management, Policy & Practice, 17*(4), 450-465. https://doi.org/10.1080/14479338.2015.1129283

Will, M. G. (2015). Successful organizational change through win-win. *Journal of Accounting & Organizational Change, 11*(2), 193-214. https://doi.org/10.1108/jaoc-06-2013-0056

Wnuk, M. (2017). Organizational conditioning of job satisfaction. A model of job satisfaction. *Contemporary Economics, 11*(1), 31-44. https://doi.org/10.5709/ce.1897-9254.227

Worley, C. G., & Mohrman, S. A. (2014). Is change management obsolete? *Organizational Dynamics, 43*(3), 214-224. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2014.08.008

Wrona, T., & Gunnesch, M. (2016). The one who sees more is more right: How theory enhances the 'repertoire to interpret' in qualitative case study research. *Zeitschrift für Betriebswirtschaft, 86*(7), 723-749. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11573-015-0799-8

Wu, C.-L. (2015). Using the Theory Of Planned Behavior to explain and predict behavior intentions in Taiwan. *Journal of International Education Research, 11*(3), 153-162. https://doi.org/10.19030/jier.v11i3.9366

Wulandari, R. D., Supriyanto, S., Qomaruddin, M. B., Damayanti, N. A., & Laksono, A. D. (2020). Role of leaders in building organizational readiness to change – case study at public health centers in Indonesia. *Problems and Perspectives in Management, 18*(3), 1- https://doi.org/10.21511/ppm.18(3).2020.01

Yerdavletova, F., & Mukhambetov, T. (2014). Restaurant market in Kazakhstan: A portrait in comparison with the US market. *Teorija ir Praktika, 15*(3), 269-278. https://doi.org/10.3846/btp.2014.27

Yousef, D. A. (2017). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction and attitudes toward organizational change: A study in the local government. *International Journal of Public Administration, 40*(1), 77-88. https://doi.org/10.1080/01900692.2015.1072217

Zennaro, I., Battini, D., Sgarbossa, F., Persona, A., & De Marchi, R. (2018). Micro downtime: Data collection, analysis, and impact on OEE in bottling lines the San Benedetto case study. *The International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management, 35*(4), 965-995. https://doi.org/10.1108/ijqrm-11-2016-0202

Zhang, P. (2018). Endogenous sector-biased technical change and perpetual and transient structural change. *Journal of Economics, 123*(3), 195-223 https://doi.org/10.1007/s00712-017-0555-3

Zhang, X. (2016). Co-evolution between institutional environments and organizational change. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 29*(3), 381-403. https://doi.org/10.1108/jocm-12-2014-0218

Appendix A

Interview Guide

Area of interest	Interview questions	Corresponding RQ
Work history	How long have you been working at your current job?	Background information on participants
Work experience	What is your current position?	To determine whether the participant is an employee or manager
Changes in the workplace	What changes have you experienced in your workplace due to COVID-19?	RQ1
	What guidance have you received as a result of the changes?	RQ1a & RQ1b
	How do you feel the guidance given has helped you with the changes?	RQ1a & RQ1b
	Please explain how equipped you were to handle these changes brought on by COVID-19?	RQ1a & RQ1b
Problems	Have you encountered any problems in the workplace as a result of the changes due to COVID-19?	RQ1 & RQ1a
Feelings	Please explain your work experience before the COVID-19 changes.	RQ2
	Please explain your work experience after the COVID-19 changes.	RQ2a
	Please explain your current job satisfaction.	RQ2
	What impacts your job satisfaction?	RQ2
	What efforts have been taken by management to improve your job satisfaction?	RQ2b
Actions & Responses	What was your response to the changes brought on by COVID-19?	RQ3
	Why did you respond in this way?	RQ3

	Did you ever attempt to resist any changes due to COVID-19?	RQ3a
	If yes, then why?	RQ3a
Human Resources Involvement	What role, if any, has your HR department played in assisting with changes due to COVID-19?	RQ4

Appendix B

OBSERVATION GUIDE

RESEARCH TOPIC: ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGES DURING COVID-19
SITE/LOCATION:
DATE:
TIME:

AREA OF OBSERVATIONS	
CONVERSATIONS	
CONTEXT	
RESTAURANT APPEARANCE	
WORKFORCE MOOD	
REFLECTIONS	

Appendix C

Participants	Code	Restaurant	Position
Participant 1	E1	Chick-fil-A	Cashier
Participant 2	E2	The Breakfast Republic	Cook
Participant 3	M1	McDonald's	Manager
Participant 4	E3	Corner Bakery Cafe	Line Cook
Participant 5	E4	Aleteia	Waiter
Participant 6	E5	Aleteia	Bartender/Waiter
Participant 7	E6	Five Guys and Qdoba	Janitor
Participant 8	M2	Subways	Manager
Participant 9	E7	Bojangles	Cashier
Participant 10	E8	Red Lobster	Cook
Participant 11	GM	Bojangles	General Manager
Participant 12	M3	Silver Diner	Manager
Participant 13	E9	Burger King and Little Caesars	Cashier
Participant 14	M4	Pizza Hut	Manager
Participant 15	M5	Kalypso	Owner/Manager
Participant 16	M6	Food Services	Manager

Table 5: Codes used to describe research participants in this study. The code description includes the letters E for employees, M for managers and GM for the general manager.