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**Leading Change: Examining the Relationships between
Leadership Style, Organizational Culture and Change Readiness in
Christian Universities of the State of Oregon**

Dale Seipp Jr.

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Leading Change: Examining the relationships between leadership style,
organizational culture and change readiness in Christian universities of the State of
Oregon

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Dirk Barram, Ph.D., Chair

David Brandt, Ph.D., Committee Member

Paul Shelton, Ph.D., Committee Member



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Student Name: Dale Scipp Student ID#: 1130596
Cohort #: 8 Concentration: Mgmt

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Approval Signatures:

 Date 10-28-19
Chair

Dirk Barram
Chair (print)

 Date 10-28-2019
Member

Paul Shelton
Member (print)

 Date 10-30-2019
Member

David Brandt
Member (print)

 Date 11/4/19
Justine Haigh, PhD - Director, DBA Program

Abstract

This research explores current literature surrounding key components of leading change in the context of higher education. Current issues impacting higher education and driving the need for change are examined and concepts related to understanding organizational culture, leadership style and change readiness are discussed. Using the context of the Council of Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCCU) located in the State of Oregon, this study incorporates three instruments, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), the Organizational Culture Index (OCI) and the Organizational Change Recipients' Belief Scale (OCRBS), to examine the relationships between leadership style, organizational culture and institutional change readiness.

Keywords: current issues in higher education, change leadership, organizational culture, leadership styles, organizational change, change readiness.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

The headlines of industry daily news bulletins announced, “Sweet Briar College Closes.” For more than a century, Sweet Briar College, an all-women’s liberal arts college located in rural Virginia, had provided a quality product and educational service to its students and alumni, receiving national rankings by U.S. News and World Report and Princeton Review. The announcement for many represented just another institution of higher education was out of the competitive arena. However, as the news spread, and more information became available, significant questions were asked. How could an institution with a sizable endowment (in excess of \$84 million) determine it was no longer financially viable? What other factors did decision makers weigh in reaching such a significant decision? If an institution, with financial resources, a solid brand identity and a long history could not find a way forward, how perilous is the future for other small educational institutions?

May 2018, the shockwaves reverberate across the country as a similar announcement is made. This time the epicenter was much closer to home as Marylhurst University, an institution with a 125-year history, located in the Portland, Oregon

metropolitan area, made clear that it would cease operations. An institution that had been known for innovation and adapting to the changing educational market had failed (Lederman, 2018). The ramifications of closure announcements like these have served as a tsunami warning to the industry and provide a reminder of the evolution concepts of Charles Darwin, “It is not the strongest of the species that survives, nor the most intelligent that survives. It is the one that is most adaptable to change” (Megginson, 1963, p. 4).

Statement of the Problem

In recent years, significant changes have appeared on the American higher education landscape, causing leaders of colleges and universities to closely examine every detail of the institutional operation, from the basic business model, to program offerings and product mix, to delivery methods, regulatory compliance (American Society of Higher Education [ASHE], 2001), and outcomes assessment data (Drew, 2010). Many of the issues facing higher education leaders today are based on hard facts and statistics such as geographic shifts, declining high school graduate populations, changing ethnic mix of that market segment, rising costs, and increased competition for public and private funding (Bransberger & Michelau, 2016). Other challenges are based on public perception and cultural values, including the debt load of students, the necessity of the college degree, the variety of delivery methods and types of institutions providing educational experiences, and concerns around the return-on-investment of education (Bransberger & Michelau, 2016). College and university presidents are charged with

providing solid leadership to navigate these turbulent times and chart a course for their institutions to not only survive but to flourish (Davies, Hides, & Casey, 2001).

One segment of the wide variety of post-secondary institutions across the country that seems particularly vulnerable to these shifts are the typically small, faith-based colleges who constitute the membership base of the Council of Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCCU). These schools also tend to be located in small towns or suburbs with declining populations and limited or remote access to practicum, applied learning, and internship opportunities. In addition to the challenges facing other private and public schools, presidents at these institutions must also balance the religious and denominational traditions of their founders and church leaders with the social and political issues of their communities (Henck, 2011).

One of the hallmarks of the American college and university system has been the significant role and voice of the academic faculty in shared governance of the institution. While faculty members are charged with the development, assessment, and oversight of the curriculum and other key academic policies and procedures, the president serves as the chief executive officer (CEO) and is responsible for strategic vision casting, goal setting, and philanthropic development. In order to address issues facing these institutions and attain goals to remain viable, presidents must provide strong leadership but also carefully navigate the dynamics of the academic culture (Lewis, 2011; Morrill, 2013; Pope, 2004).

This research project focused on four primary areas: (a) current issues facing higher educational institutions today driving the need for change, (b) understanding the

role of organizational culture, (c) styles of leadership, and (d) an institution's readiness for change. The intention of this study was to examine if there are significant relationships between organizational culture, styles of leadership and organizational change readiness.

Purpose of the Study

In the article "Walking the Tightrope: Christian Colleges and Universities in a Time of Change" (Henck, 2011), the author provides an excellent launch point for the need of this study. Henck provides a comprehensive summary of the current issues facing higher education, an understanding of institutional culture, outlines the call for change and suggests thoughtful recommendations for leading change. The article provides a helpful theoretical framing of institutional culture, especially in the Christian college context and lays a foundation for further research related to institutional culture types and navigating change.

ASHE (2001) identified the following pressing issues facing colleges and universities today:

- Significant changes in the faculty; with up to 40% retiring in the next decade.
- New voices and perspectives will infiltrate the academic ranks, largely from increasingly diverse ethnic and cultural backgrounds.
- New accountability measures mandated by state and federal governments and accrediting agencies.
- The tension of a growing emphasis on collaboration and a heightened sense of competition.

- Increased pressure from external environments to demonstrate the relevance of the college degree.
- Responding to the diversification of faculty, staff and students who make up the institutional community.

Drew (2010) categorizes these major challenges as (a) fiscal and people resource issues, (b) flexibility, creativity, and change capability, (c) responding to competing tensions and remaining relevant, (d) maintain academic quality, and (e) effective strategic leadership. He recognizes the complexity of issues facing leaders in higher education and raises the question of what is required to be an effective leader today.

Davies et al. (2001) discuss the tension that exists between the collegiality ethos traditionally characteristic of university leaders and the responsiveness, businesslike approach which is increasingly required. They draw upon the differentiation of leadership versus management to substantiate their argument that changing times require new approaches to leadership (Davies et al., 2001).

The challenges facing higher education leaders are in many ways global. Several authors discussed similar issues faced by university leaders in other parts of the world and recognized the need for change in higher education leadership and culture (Akbulut, Kuzu, Latchem, & Odabasi, 2007; Drew, 2010).

An element of culture that is unique to the American higher education environment is the element of shared governance between faculty and administration. While institutions deal with this concept in various manners (organizational climate), it is a concept that has been at the heart of the academy for decades. Several authors writing

on this topic shared the benefits and values associated with this approach that include trust, collaboration, enhanced sense of community, responsibility, and accountability. However, it was also noted that with the increasing complexity of issues and the speed at which change is impacting higher education, the notion of shared governance is increasingly challenged (Lewis, 2011; Morrill, 2013; Pope, 2004).

Educational leaders today desire to position their institution for missional success and viability for the future. The problem is that with several significant issues requiring institutions to adjust and change, leaders are often challenged by the organizational culture and traditions of higher education and the way their own leadership style may ready their institution for implementing the necessary change.

The opportunity to conduct research and analysis that could provide guidance to university presidents and other campus leaders as they guide their institutions through times of significant change is relevant, useful and interesting. The purpose of this study is to determine what relationships, if any, exist between organizational culture, leadership style and organizational change readiness in private, 4-year, Christian colleges and universities in the State of Oregon in 2018.

Significance of the Study

Institutions are complex groupings of people and ideas and develop organizational cultures and climates that are unique to them. Institutions of higher education have maintained significant elements of its culture and traditions, many of which date back to the Middle Ages and the establishment of the first universities in Europe. However, in the face of the significant issues facing higher education today, institutions and their

leaders are evaluating what elements may need to change to remain viable for the future. Understanding the relationships that exist between the organizational culture, the leadership style of the president/executive officer and the institution's readiness for change could have significant ramifications on the ways in which the organization evolves and flourishes or diminishes or survives.

Scholars have written extensively regarding the processes of organizational change, the necessary prerequisites for change, and the basis of resistance to change (Armenakis, Harris, & Feild, 1999; Holt, Armenakis, Feild, & Harris, 2007; Jansen, 2000; Weeks, Roberts, Chonko, & Jones, 2004) as well as the readiness to engage and lean in to organizational change (Bernerth, Armenakis, Feild, & Walker, 2007; Holt et al., 2007). Others have explored the relationship between leadership behaviors, particularly transformational leadership, and organizational change (Fisher, 2006; Herkness, 2005; Kull, 2003; Underdue Murph, 2005).

While the degree of required change and the need for successful innovation efforts have never been greater, research tells us that the vast majority of change efforts fail (Choi & Behling, 1997; Kotter, 1995). Given such a poor history of successful organizational change, it is crucial that understanding how to lead for effective, innovative and rapid change must be shared with organizational leaders.

Definition of Terms

1. Change-oriented leadership: Engaging in behaviors deemed essential to bringing about change in an organization such as "creating vision" (for example, "shares thoughts and plans about the future," and "encourages

thinking along new lines”) and “action for implementation” (for example, “pushes for development and growth,” and “initiates new projects” (Arvonen, 2005, pp. 14-15).

2. Council of Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCCU): “A higher education association of more than 180 Christian institutions around the world. With campuses across the globe, including more than 150 in the U.S. and Canada and nearly 30 more from an additional 18 countries, CCCCU institutions are accredited, comprehensive colleges and universities whose missions are Christ-centered and rooted in the historic Christian faith. Most also have curricula rooted in the arts and sciences. The CCCCU’s mission is to advance the cause of Christ-centered higher education and to help our institutions transform lives by faithfully relating scholarship and service to biblical truth” (CCCCU, n.d., para. 1).
3. First-order change: Change that reshapes the way an organization operates without altering the identity of the organization (Bess, Prilleltensky, Perkins, & Collins, 2009; Perkins et al., 2007; Weick & Quinn, 1999). Examples in the higher education context would be adding a new course within a department or adjusting the reporting lines for a service area within the organizational structure.
4. Higher education: Colleges and universities recognized by the congressional Higher Education Act whose accreditation provides eligibility in Title IV

programs and Federal student financial aid (Rodenhouse & Torregrosa, 2000, p. v).

5. Leadership: “The process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives” (Yukl, 2006, p. 8)
6. Leadership style: “The total pattern of explicit and implicit leader’s actions as seen by employees. It represents a consistent combination of philosophy, skills, traits, and attitudes that are exhibited in a person’s behavior” (Newstrom & Davis, 1993, p. 226).
7. Non-profit organization: “An organization whose purpose is to serve the public rather than to earn a profit for its shareholders” (Colley, Doyle, Logan, & Stettinius, 2003, p. 207).
8. Organization: “An organization is a structured social system consisting of groups and individuals working together to meet some agreed-upon objectives” (Greenberg & Baron, 2003, p. 3).
9. Organizational Change: Organizational is any [non-trivial] change, radical or incremental, sudden or protracted, in the strategy, goods, products, services, people, technology, or culture of a firm (Daft, 1995).
10. Organizational Culture: “A pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore,

to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems” (Schein, as quoted in Tharp, 2009, p.5).

11. Planned change: Intentional, thoughtful modifications to the systems, structures, or products of an organization that satisfy an internal or external need (de Caluwe & Vermaak, 2003).
12. Processes: The stages, steps, or phases necessary to leading change. For example, Kotter and Cohen’s (2002) eight steps include “creating a sense of urgency, building a guiding team, developing a vision and strategy,” and so forth (p. 7).
13. Readiness for change: Readiness is the sum of organizational members’ beliefs, attitudes and intentions regarding the need for contemplated changes and the organization’s capability to successfully carry out the changes. These beliefs’ attitudes and intentions precede the members’ actions of supporting or resisting a contemplated change (Armenakis, Harris, & Mossholder, 1993).
14. Second-order change: Change that reshapes the very identity of the organization (Perkins et al., 2007; Weick & Quinn, 1999). Examples for higher education could include a change in the types of degree programs offered (liberal arts, technology, professional, trade skills, etc.), the levels of programs offered (associates, bachelor, graduate, certificate, continuing education, etc.), the demographics of the students that are served and the delivery modalities and pedagogies used to deliver the curriculum.

15. Transactional leadership: Managing people and processes in such a way that the leader and the follower receive something of value. Often identified with organizational stability and predictability (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Burns, 1979). Transactional leaders “lead through social exchange” (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 3).
16. Transformational leadership: Engaging followers in “such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality” (Burns, 1979, p. 20). Transformational leaders appeal to a “follower’s sense of self-worth” (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 4) to elicit commitment to a shared vision, shared values and goals that move them to accomplish more together (leader and followers) than they could otherwise (Vardaman, 2013).

Theoretical Framework

This study centers on the field of organizational leadership with specific focus on the issue of leading change, in the context of higher education. In the following paragraphs, the theoretical framework of the study is reviewed beginning with the broad field of organizational change and moving to the narrower interest of leading change. Since this is a study of change leadership, relevant theories of leadership will also be examined explicitly transformational, transactional, and change oriented leadership.

Organizational change theory. Organizational theories regarding change may be divided into two groups: theories of changing, and theories of change. Theories of changing are more practical and strive to explain how to initiate, complete, and enculturate people and organizations to innovations. Theories of change are more

theoretical and seek to explain why change occurs (Bennis, 1966). Social psychologist Kurt Lewin (1890-1947) is viewed as the father of the theories of changing movement. He proposed that numerous variables impact the process of changing including the conflicting desires for stability and a certain level of instability, values, and habits (Lewin, 2000). Lewin's model; Field Theory, argues that the full range of variables constitutes the field on which the drama of change plays out. Lewin was the first to develop a step-model of changing and it incorporates three steps: "unfreezing, moving and freezing" (Lewin, 2000, p. 330). Unfreezing overcomes the equilibrium between the forces of stability and instability by either increasing the desire to change or reducing resistance to change. Moving is the process of implementing the desired change and freezing is the process of institutionalizing the innovation so that it becomes part of the culture. Other step-models of changing have their roots in Lewin's work including Lippitt, Watson, and Westley (1958), Kotter and Cohen (2002), Black and Gregersen (2008), and Beckhard and Harris (1977/2009).

Types of organizational change. It is important to note that not all change efforts are equal in impact on the organization. Weick and Quinn (1999) and Bess et al. (2009) distinguish between first- and second-order change. First-order change is equivalent to what transactional leaders do: manage the status quo. First-order change is intended to help an organization do the same thing just more efficiently. Second-order change is analogous to what transformational leaders do: disrupt and modify whole systems. Second-order change aims to position the organization to do something new and different. Bass and Bass (2008) theorized that transactional leaders work within the

existing system (first-order change) to meet personal needs and the needs of followers, while transformational leaders strive to change the system (second-order change).

Organizational change, readiness, and resistance. Daft (as cited in Kull, 2003) states that organizational change may be defined as change, either radical or incremental, in the strategy, goods, products, services, people, technology, or culture of a firm. Kull (2003) goes on to define resistance to change as “the natural response to new or discrepant information generated by a change initiative” (p. 13).

Armenakis et al. (1993) observe, “Readiness . . . is reflected in the organizational members’ beliefs, attitudes, and intentions regarding the extent to which the changes are needed and the organization’s capacity to successfully make those changes” (p. 681). Therefore, they argue, these beliefs and intentions are the cognitive precursors to the behaviors that develop active support for or resistance to change. Armenakis et al. (1993) argue that prescriptions for the enhancement of readiness for change are effective in that they reduce resistance to change.

Therefore, readiness for change can be expressed as a comprehensive attitude that is influenced simultaneously by the content (i.e., what is being changed), the process (i.e., how the change is being implemented), the context (i.e., circumstances under which the change is occurring), and the individuals (i.e., characteristics of those being asked to change) involved. Additionally, readiness reflects the extent to which an individual or individuals are collectively, cognitively and emotionally inclined to accept, embrace, and adopt a particular plan to purposefully alter the status quo (Griffith, 2010; Holt et al., 2006).

Leadership theory.

Transformational leadership. James MacGregor Burns (1979) first distinguished between transforming and transactional leadership. He defined transforming leadership as moving others to embrace and achieve shared goals that are important to “both leaders and followers” (Burns, 1979, p. 19). In this way both leaders and followers achieve new heights of “motivation and morality” (Burns, 1979, p. 20). Bass and Riggio (2006) developed Burns’ transforming leadership theory into the Full Range of Leadership Model. It included four core components: “idealized influence (both attributes and behaviors), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration” (Bass & Riggio, 2006, pp. 6-7). According to Bass and Riggio (2006), transformational leadership is the “best-fitting model for effective leadership in today’s world” (p. 224). “At its core, [it is] about issues around the processes of transformation and change” (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 225).

Bass and Avolio (1994a) identify four characteristics that typify transformational leaders: idealized influence; inspirational motivation; intellectual stimulation; and individualized consideration. Additionally, the transformational leader solicits followers to rise above their own self-interests for the good of the group, organization, or society; to consider their longer-term needs to develop themselves, rather than the needs of the moment; and to become more aware of what is really important (Bass, 1990a, p. 52)

Significant research has been completed demonstrating the relationship of transformational leadership to organizational effectiveness (e.g., Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996). Researchers and scholars, such as Herkness (2005), Underdue Murph

(2005), Kull (2003), Mackert (2001), and Bass and Avolio (1994b, 2004) have also begun to explore the connections between transformational leadership practices and organizational readiness for, and resistance to change. Herkness, for example, documented the enhanced receptivity to the implementation of lean manufacturing practices, a radical departure from traditional manufacturing methods, when leaders employed transformational leadership behaviors to augment transactional behaviors in what Avolio and Bass (2001) termed full range leadership. Underdue Murph documented a relationship between transformational leadership and complex organizational change in her meta-analytic study. Kull expands on Mackert's psychoanalytically based theory of conductivity to speculate that transformational leadership will result in greater conductivity (reduced resistance to change), by positively impacting the followers' sense of agreement with the change, their understanding of the benefits from the change, personal meaning, organizational fit, and knowledge and investment in the change while reducing their feelings of friction. Kull was able to demonstrate a positive relationship between transformational leadership and reduced resistance to change.

Bass and Avolio (1994b, 2004) continued their work in the pursuit of further understanding of the concept of transformational leadership through the development of an assessment instrument. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) used in this study (Bass & Avolio, 1994b, 2004) has been widely used and repeatedly demonstrated to be a valid and reliable instrument for characterizing leadership in general, identifying

transformational leadership in particular, and selecting particularly effective leaders (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Griffith, 2010).

Transactional leadership. Burns (1979) described transactional leadership as a kind of negotiated process in which each party exchanged something for what it wanted without the moral elevation or attention to the needs of others found in a transformational leader-follower relationship. Burns at first described transactional leadership as the opposite of transforming leadership. Later, however, he came to agree with Bass who held that “transformational and transactional leadership were not opposite ends of a single dimension but multidimensional” (Bass & Bass, 2008, p. 619). They viewed the transactional style as useful (and customary) when management is needed more than leadership. Whitesel (2007) identifies this construct as tactical leadership saying that tactical leaders “make change happen in a unifying way” (p. 36). Transactional leadership may be preferred when the environment is stable, the tasks at hand are routine and standardized, and the organization has a hierarchical authority structure (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Bass (1990a) identified three components of transactional leadership: “a) contingent reward, b) management by exception, and c) laissez-faire” (p. 22). Through contingent reward the leader identified what was expected of followers and what followers could expect from leaders or the organization. If the payoff was material, then the exchange was purely transactional. If the payoff was psychological, the exchange was transactional but done in a transformational way (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Management by exception is divided into two sub-components: active (being vigilant and

assertive regarding organizational expectations, correcting deviance from the standard) and passive (intervening only when there is an obvious breach of organizational expectations). Laissez-faire leadership neither inspires nor corrects followers, but “abdicates responsibilities, [and] avoids making decisions” (Bass, 1990a, p. 22).

Transactional leadership may be seen as a leadership paradigm in which the leader provides benefits to the followers in exchange for the desired behavior or actions. Transactional leaders “approach followers with an eye to exchanging one thing for another: jobs for votes, or subsidies for campaign contributions. Such transactions comprise the bulk of the relationships among leaders and followers, especially in groups, legislatures, and parties” (Burns, as cited in Bass, 1990a, p. 23).

Laissez faire is understood to be the lowest possible level of transactional leadership and is not considered to be a successful leadership style. The MLQ bases the transactional leadership scale on contingent reward and management-by-exception-active. The management-by-exception-passive and laissez-faire subcomponents are grouped together and labeled as “passive avoidant” (Avolio & Bass, 2004, p. 111).

Change-oriented behavior. In the 1950s, researchers at The Ohio State University (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 2004) and the University of Michigan (Katz & Kahn, 1952; Katz, Maccoby, & Morse, 1950) independently identified two behaviors of effective leaders: consideration and initiating structure. Consideration centered on concern for employees while initiating structure centered on concern for production. Late in the 20th century, Ekvall (1988) and Ekvall and Arvonen (1991) identified a third leader behavior which they called change-centered or change-oriented

behavior. Change-oriented behavior included four components: “being a promoter of change and growth, having a creative attitude, being a risk-taker, and having visionary qualities” (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991, p. 23). Early in the 21st century, Yukl (2004) developed a similar theory which he called the “tridimensional leadership theory” (p. 75). Like Ekvall and Arvonen’s change-centered leadership theory, Yukl, Gordon, and Taber’s (2002) theory had four components: “visioning, intellectual stimulation, risk-taking, and external monitoring” (p. 28). Ekvall and Arvonen and Yukl are the primary theorists behind change-oriented leadership (Vardaman, 2013).

Research Questions

Given the current challenges facing higher education and the need to respond quickly and effectively to these significant challenges this research study attempts to ask three questions.

1. Is there a relationship between an organization’s culture and the leadership style of the president?
2. Is there a relationship between an organization’s culture and the change readiness of the organization?
3. Is there a relationship between the leadership style of the organization’s president and the organization’s readiness for change?

Methodology

A descriptive and quantitative research approach is appropriate to gather the primary data and attend to these research questions. Descriptive correlational research

reports the way things are and identifies possible relationships among two or more variables that can be used to test hypotheses.

This study incorporates three instruments, the MLQ, the Organizational Culture Index (OCI) and the Organizational Change Recipients' Belief Scale (OCRBS), to examine the relationships between leadership style, organizational culture and institutional change readiness. This is a brief introduction to each of those instruments, with more detail of each instrument outlined in Chapter 3 of this paper.

Organizational Culture Index. The OCI, developed by Wallach in 1983, describes corporate culture as the shared understanding of an organization's employees regarding beliefs, values, norms and philosophies, which define expected standards of behavior, speech, presentation of self and the way that things should be done. The intended purpose of the instrument is to measure organizational culture or subculture along three cultural domains. The survey is a self-reported questionnaire using 24 adjective-style items with four response options (0 “does not describe my organization” to 3 “describes my organization most of the time”). Three dimensions are identified and scored based on the survey responses. These categories are: bureaucratic (eight items); innovative (eight items); supportive (eight items). Scores are derived for each dimension by summing or averaging across the constituent items.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. The MLQ, developed by Bass and Avolio (2004) is a fully validated instrument used widely to determine the styles of leadership present in an organization and evaluates three different leadership styles: Transformational, Transactional, and Passive-Avoidant. It allows individuals to measure

how they perceive themselves with regard to specific leadership behaviors (using the Leader/Self form), but the heart of the MLQ comes in the rater/other feedback that is enabled with the Rater form. Participants are asked to respond to 45 items in the MLQ 5x-Short (the current, classic version) using a 5-point behavioral scale (“Not at all” to “Frequently if not always”). Approximately 15 minutes is required for completion.

Organizational Change Recipients’ Belief Scale. Many attempts have been made to measure the readiness of an organization and its members to change, and conversely, the degree to which resistance to change is present, have been studied. Holt and his fellow researchers (Holt, 2002; Holt et al., 2007) developed and validated an instrument that determines readiness for change through the measurement of the presence of five antecedents to change:

1. Self-efficacy: the belief that the individual has the capacity to make the change.
2. Personal valence: the belief that the change will benefit the individual.
3. Organizational valence: the belief that the organization will benefit from the changes.
4. Senior leader support: the recognition that the senior leadership of the organization supports the change.
5. Discrepancy: the recognition of the need for change.

This work was continued and refined, resulting in the development and repeated validation of the OCRBS (Armenakis, Bernerth, Pitts, & Walker, 2007). This 24-question instrument assesses the presence or absence of a slightly modified set of beliefs,

including efficacy, principal support, valence, discrepancy, and appropriateness, the belief that the postulated change will address the discrepancy (Griffith, 2010).

Research Hypotheses

This study will examine six institutions, located in the State of Oregon, who hold membership within the CCCU, to explore the relationships outlined in the following hypotheses.

H1: There is a significant positive correlation between an organization's culture, as measured by the OCI, and its president's leadership style, as measured by the MLQ.

H2: There is a significant positive correlation between an organization's culture, as measured by the OCI, and its change readiness, as measured by the OCRBS.

H3: There is a significant positive correlation between an organization's leadership style, as measured by the MLQ, and its change readiness, as measured by the OCRBS.

Introduction Summary

Organizational and institutional leaders today are facing significant challenges and pressures to adapt in an ever-changing environment (Kouzes & Pozner, 2007). How educational leaders guide their institutions through these challenges and opportunities will determine if and how these organizations survive and are positioned for mission fulfillment, sustainability and viability for the future. Successful leaders understand the change process and anticipate opportunities to lead organizations towards a positive outcome. "Organizational behavior recognizes that organizations are dynamic and always changing" (Greenberg & Baron, 2003, p. 8). Understanding the leadership style of the

president, the organizational culture of the institution and the potential impact of these variables on the readiness for change in the organization could have important ramifications for the future of the institution. This presents the leader with continual opportunities to lead in times of change (Taylor, 2014). “Leadership is an intentional change process through which leaders and followers, joined by a shared purpose, initiate action to pursue a common vision” (Laub, 2004, p. 5).

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Current Issues Facing Higher Educational Institutions

In the article “Walking the Tightrope: Christian Colleges and Universities in a Time of Change” (Henck, 2011), the author provides an excellent launch point for the topic of this literature review. Henck provides a comprehensive summary of the current issues facing higher education, an understanding of institutional culture, outlines the call for change and suggests thoughtful recommendations for leading change. The article provides a helpful theoretical framing of institutional culture, especially in the Christian college context and lays a foundation for further research related to institutional culture types and navigating change.

ASHE (2001) identified the following pressing issues facing colleges and universities today:

- Significant changes in the faculty; with up to 40% retiring in the next decade.
- New voices and perspectives will infiltrate the academic ranks, largely from increasingly diverse ethnic and cultural backgrounds.

- New accountability measures mandated by state and federal governments and accrediting agencies.
- The tension of a growing emphasis on collaboration and a heightened sense of competition.
- Increased pressure from external environments to demonstrate the relevance of the college degree.
- Responding to the diversification of faculty, staff and students who make up the institutional community.

Drew (2010) categorizes these major challenges as; (a) fiscal and people resource issues, (b) flexibility, creativity, and change capability, (c) responding to competing tensions and remaining relevant, (d) maintain academic quality, and (e) effective strategic leadership. He recognizes the complexity of issues facing leaders in higher education and raises the question of what is required to be an effective leader today (Drew, 2010).

Davies et al. (2001) discuss the tension that exists between the collegiality ethos traditionally characteristic of university leaders and the responsiveness, businesslike approach which is increasingly required. They draw upon the differentiation of leadership versus management to substantiate their argument that changing times require new approaches to leadership (Davies et al., 2001).

The challenges facing higher education leaders are in many ways global. Several authors discussed similar issues faced by university leaders in other parts of the world and recognized the need for change in higher education leadership and culture (Akbulut et al., 2007; Drew, 2010).

Taylor and Machado-Taylor (2010) provide insight into the shifting dynamics of higher education in a global context and demonstrate the need for new and visionary leadership. They propose a framework of visionary leadership as a three-factor model incorporating: (a) institutional preparedness, (b) environmental circumstances, and (c) personal attributes (Taylor & Machado-Taylor, 2010, p. 183). Their argument for the necessity of higher education in society and how it shapes the human experience, but must also remain relevant to society, is at the center of the issues facing institutions today.

A brief history of leadership styles and definitions is provided in “The Changing Role and Practices of Successful Leaders” (Hopen, 2010). The author reflects on some of the leading voices of the 20th century who shaped the thinking about leadership. She goes on to identify significant factors affecting 21st century leaders related to technology, global reach, proliferation of knowledge, the composition of the workforce, social responsibility, and the importance of partnerships. The author concludes by citing the need for strategic leadership defined by Ireland and Hitt as “a person’s ability to anticipate, envision, maintain flexibility, think strategically, and work with others to initiate changes that will create a viable future for the organization” (Hopen, 2010, p. 9). It is such a skill set that is required for today’s university leadership.

While it is understood that “the job of a leader is to get people to do things they have never done before, to do things that are not routine, and do things they would not otherwise do” (Cartwright, 2005, p. 258), Cartwright argues that the ideal leader is one who has the ability to change an embedded culture by creating vision and turning that

into reality. He cautions though that the search for visionary leaders may, in fact, be causing considerable damage, as oftentimes the dynamism and charisma of a ‘larger-than-life’ personality and his/her grandiose strategies can alienate an organization. A good example of this can be found in “A Contested Institutional Culture” (Morin, 2010), as she reflects on the failed presidency of Gene Nichol at the College of William and Mary, one of America’s preeminent universities. Morin recounts several incidents during the president’s first months in office where he failed to develop a cultural awareness of the institution and sought to implement changes that were counter-cultural to the rich tradition and conservative heritage of the institution.

His tenure was a time of tumult and upheaval, and the culture and traditions of the college were rocked in many ways. Nichol’s experiences highlight the necessity of understanding and integrating into an institution’s culture and incorporating input from multiple constituencies to affect change successfully. (Morin, 2010, p. 93)

This example provides an opportunity to consider alternative change leadership approaches and styles. Anderson (2000) reflects on MacGregor’s Theory X and Theory Y leadership models, the differences between an autocratic, directive approach and that of an arranger, collaborative, coordinator. He argues that while most organizations and institutions are still led by Theory X style leaders, a change to Theory Y leaders seems to be underway. Regardless, leaders must be “authentic—to know what you believe, have courage to speak from those beliefs, and possess the will to do what you say” (Anderson, 2000, p. 13).

Ramaley (2000), writing from a point of personal experience as a leader in the higher education community, integrates scholarly inquiry and a culture of evidence to build her theory of leading change. In “Change as a Scholarly Act: Higher Education Research Transfer to Practice,” she writes, “Learning is a means for institutional leadership to create a meaningful context for transformational change” (Ramaley, 2000, p. 77). She continues to outline that effective change leadership entails “rigorous scholarship, as well as good decision making, is characterized by clear goals, adequate preparation, appropriate methods, significant results, effective presentation, reflective critique, and ethical practice and respect for those involved or potentially affected by the work” (Ramaley, 2000, p. 77).

As one of the leaders in the field of change management, John Kotter has observed dozens of companies and organizations attempt to implement change. He writes in “Leading Change: Why Transformation Efforts Fail” that “in almost every case, the basic goal has been the same: to make fundamental change in the way business is conducted in order to help cope with a new, more challenging market environment” (Kotter, 1995, p. 59). Based on his observations and research, he outlines eight steps to successfully transform an organization (Figure 1).

Kotter (1995) argues, “Major change is usually impossible unless most employees are willing to help, often to the point of making short-term sacrifices” (p. 9). The need for individual survival determines the desire and behavior to make sacrifices. Kotter further argues “people will not make sacrifices, even if they are unhappy with the status

quo, unless they think the potential benefits of change are attractive and unless they really believe that a transformation is possible” (p. 9).

Mento, Jones, and Direndorfer (2002) review Kotter’s work and draw comparisons with two other models of change management in their work. They conclude with outlining the significant responsibilities that leaders today must shoulder.

The thought for the 21st century change leaders is that they must be astute decision makers and marketers, trusted innovators, agents of change, preachers of difficulties, master integrators, enterprise enablers, technology stewards and knowledge handlers. They will need first-rate managerial, technical, interpersonal and scientific skills. Complex systems and issues will need to be embraced and they must reach the decisions about the amounts of time, money, people, knowledge and technology they are willing to commit to meet what should be a common end goal that was well communicated and accepted all around the company. (Mento et al., 2002, p. 58)



Figure 1. Kotter's eight steps to transforming your organization. From "Leading Change: Why Transformation Efforts Fail," by J. P. Kotter, 1995, *Harvard Business Review*, 73(2), p. 61.

Organizational change can be planned. “Planned change is the systematic attempt to redesign an organization in a way that will help it adapt to significant changes in the environment and to achieve new goals” (Stoner, Freeman, & Gilbert, 1995, p. 412). Song (2009) suggests “The effect of planned organizational change on organizational behaviors depends on the institutionalization of planned organizational change” (p. 209). An organization that anticipates and plans for change is even more prepared when the plans can be adjusted for the actual change.

However, there is no guarantee that planned change will be successful. “Planned and predictable organizational changes do not always produce the expected results . . . Even well-designed changes fail in some organizations and succeed in others” (Song, 2009, p. 200). Regardless, the benefit of understanding the organizational culture and making preparation for change outweighs the challenges of not planning for the imminent change.

Organizational Leadership

Contemporary theorists have suggested that leadership style and leader behavior are key factors in the success or failure of organizational change efforts (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Burns, 1979; Golm, 2009; Yukl, 2004). The literature on leading change in organizations generally assumes that transformational leadership is the more effective leadership style for change agents (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Eisenbach, Watson, & Rajnandini, 1999; Lowe & Galen, 1996), yet others argue that the change-oriented leadership model more fully explains a leader’s effectiveness in change initiatives (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991; Yukl, 2004). For the purpose of this study the working definition of

leadership is “the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives” (Yukl, 2006, p. 8) and leadership style is “the total pattern of explicit and implicit leader’s actions as seen by employees” (Newstrom & Davis, 1993, p. 226). Therefore, it is important to understand leadership styles and what impact they may have on organizational change.

Leadership styles.

Transformational leadership. The concept of transformational leadership was initiated by Downton (1973) in *Rebel Leadership* as he described leadership that could bring about revolutionary change. While he was the first to write about transformational leadership, he did not actually use the term (Bass & Bass, 2008). In 1979, James MacGregor Burns (p. 4) coined the term “transforming leadership” in order to distinguish the style from transactional leadership. Transforming leadership moved followers to embrace and achieve shared goals important to “both leaders and followers” (Burns, 1979, p. 19). The result was that both followers and leaders reached higher levels of achievement; transforming leadership “converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents” (Burns, 1979, p. 4). In contrast, transactional leadership was like an exchange between a merchant and a customer, but instead of paying money and receiving goods, they may exchange “jobs for votes, or subsidies for campaign contributions” (Burns, 1979, p. 4).

Burns (1979) was significantly influenced by the field of psychology and especially the developmental theories of Kohlberg and Maslow. Maslow’s hierarchy of

needs which consists of five levels and include “physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs, and, self-actualization” (Maslow, n.d., “Father of Modern Management”) provided the framework for Burns to postulate that transforming leadership moved leaders and followers toward the higher ranges of the pyramid, that is, to new heights of “motivation and morality” (Burns, 1979, p. 20).

Moral leadership was a key component of Burns’s theory of transforming leadership. Moral leadership moves people “to accomplish an explicitly moral purpose, usually involving transformation” (Hanson, 2006, pp. 291-292).

“Pseudotransformational, or inauthentic transformational leaders” (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 13) may exhibit some of the characteristics of transformational leaders but are driven by selfish ambition and skewed moral values and therefore do not achieve either true transformational or moral leadership.

While a variety of writers have proposed theories of transformational leadership (Bennis & Nanus, 2003; Sashkin & Sashkin, 2003; Tichy & Devanna, 1990), Bass’s (Bass, 1990a, 1998, 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2006) theory has been the subject of extensive research in a variety of settings and is widely adopted (Dumdum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2008). Building on the work of James MacGregor Burns, Bass and Riggio (2006, p. 7) created the “Full Range of Leadership model” (FRL) that included the transformational and transactional leadership styles. Transformational leadership had four core components: “idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration” (Bass, 1990a, p. 22; Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 6).

Idealized influence suggests that leaders “behave in ways that allow them to serve as role models” (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 6) and that followers believed in and trusted them as leaders. The combination of hero-like behavior by leaders and emulation and trust by followers was thought to powerfully increase a leader’s influence. Inspirational motivation expresses that leaders not only stirred but motivated followers. They did this as they “provide meaning and challenge to followers’ work” (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 6), fostering a sense of being a team, encouraging the sense of a shared vision, and identified goals that would stretch the team. At the same time the transformational leader was clearly committed to the team and its shared vision. Valuing creative thinking and ensuring that followers are not publicly criticized provides the definition and context for intellectual stimulation; as the leader sets the pattern of questioning assumptions and calling for fresh thinking. Transformational leaders view themselves as teachers, coaches, or mentors who know followers well enough to give them what they need, such as encouragement, autonomy, clearer standards, or task structure (Bass & Riggio, 2006). A willingness by leaders to treat followers differently in order to develop followers’ abilities exemplifies the concept of individualized consideration. According to Bass and Riggio (2006), transformational leadership was the “best-fitting model for effective leadership in today’s world” and is “at its core, about issues around the processes of transformation and change” (pp. 224-225).

A meta-analysis of transformational and transactional leadership studies by Dumdum et al. (2008) supported the claim that transformational leadership is positively linked to effectiveness and follower satisfaction. Transformational leadership is often

seen as a more effective leadership style than transactional leadership due to transformational leadership's four sub-components. Transformational leadership is similarly named as the preferred style for change agents (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Burns, 1979; Herrington, Bonem, & Furr, 2000; Wofford, 1999). However, studying overall leader effectiveness and follower satisfaction is not the same as studying change leadership effectiveness. While there is some empirical support for the assumption that transformational leadership is an effective way to lead change, more research is needed.

In addition, some theorists (Ekvall, 1988; Norris, 2010; Yukl, 2004) have suggested that transformational and transactional leadership theory do not adequately explain leadership effectiveness and have identified change-oriented leadership as a missing component.

Transactional leadership. Burns (1979) at first described transactional leadership as the opposite of transforming leadership. However, by 1985, Bass had “formulated a multidimensional theory of transformational and transactional leadership” (Bass & Bass, 2008, p. 619) that did not define the concepts as polar opposites and Burns agreed. Bass (1990b) identified three components of transactional leadership: “contingent reward, management by exception, and laissez-faire” (p. 22). Through contingent reward the leader identified what was expected of followers and what followers could expect from leaders or the organization. If the payoff was material, then the exchange was purely transactional. If the payoff was psychological, the exchange was transactional but done in a transformational way (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Management by exception was divided into active (being vigilant and assertive regarding organizational expectations, correcting

deviance from the standard) and passive (intervening only when there was an obvious breach of organizational expectations). Laissez-faire neither inspired nor corrected followers but “abdicates responsibilities, avoids making decisions” (Bass, 1990b, p. 22). Laissez-faire was considered the lowest possible level of transactional leadership and was not considered to be a successful leadership style. In later iterations of the FRL model, management-by-exception passive and laissez-faire were labeled as “passive-avoidant” (Avolio & Bass, 2004, p. 111) behavior rather than as components of transactional leadership.

The FRL model of leadership is popular, but it has been critiqued by Yukl (2004). For example, Yukl claimed that both management-by-exception-passive and idealized influence are suspect when judged by the criteria that behavioral components of leadership meta-categories “must be effective, clearly defined, and observable” (Yukl, 2004, p. 87). He contended that passive monitoring does not impact effectiveness and that idealized influence mixes leader behavior with follower perception and is, therefore, not a clearly defined concept (Yukl, 2004).

Change-oriented behavior. During the mid-twentieth century, studies at The Ohio State University (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 2004) and the University of Michigan (Katz & Kahn, 1952; Katz et al., 1950) independently identified two behaviors of effective leaders: consideration and initiating structure. Consideration measures a leader’s concern for workers while initiating structure measures a leader’s concern for “goal attainment” (Fleishman, 1953, p. 2). In groundbreaking research among workers in a Swedish company, Ekvall (1988) identified change-centered leadership as a third

dimension distinct from initiating structure and consideration. In 1991, Ekvall and Arvonen analyzed data from managers in Sweden, Finland, and the United States that confirmed change-centered leadership as an independent leadership style. The existence of change-centered or change-oriented behavior as distinct from initiating structure and consideration behavior has since been confirmed by others (Norris, 2010; Yukl, 2004; Yukl et al., 2002). Ekvall and Arvonen (1991) found four components of change-centered leadership: “being a promoter of change and growth, having a creative attitude, being a risk-taker, and having visionary qualities” (p. 23). They suggested that change-oriented behavior was not identified in earlier leadership studies because those studies were completed “in stable industrial situations in which changes were not of particular interest” (p. 22). However, change-oriented behavior by itself did not rank as the most effective leadership style in Arvonen’s research as he further developed the model. He described eight leader profiles that were blends of change, production, and employee-centered behaviors. For example, the “integrative manager” was rated as most effective by direct reports while the “creative manager . . . a genuine change making person” (Arvonen, 2005, pp. 17-18) was described as being of limited usefulness and lacking emotional intelligence. The integrative manager was adept at all three leader behaviors. Yukl also developed an alternative to two-dimensional leadership models which he named “tridimensional leadership” (Yukl, 2004, p. 75) or “flexible leadership” (Yukl & Lepsinger, 2004). The flexible leadership model similarly suggested that leaders need to be skilled in “efficiency-oriented, people-oriented, and change-oriented behaviors” (Yukl & Lepsinger, 2004, p. 13) and use the behavior appropriate to the situation to achieve

organizational effectiveness. Efficiency-oriented behaviors include actions that would lead to increased production and reliability. Efficiency was defined as operating the organization “in a way that minimizes cost” (Yukl, 2004, p. 77) while reliability meant achieving consistent quality and delivery of products or services (Yukl, 2004). People-oriented behavior included human relations and human resources. Human relations referred to the way people in the organization get along and the depth of their desire to work for that particular organization. Human resources meant the abilities of members to fulfill the organizational purpose, whether that was manufacturing a product or delivering goods or services. Adapting or change behaviors refer to responding to “external threats or opportunities” (Yukl, 2004, p. 78) in a way that enhances the organization’s competitiveness and future. Yukl et al. (2002, p. 28) proposed a change-oriented leadership behavior model that has four components: “visioning, intellectual stimulation, risk-taking, and external monitoring,” which are similar to Ekvall and Arvonen’s (1991) and demonstrate support for a theory of leader behavior that includes change leadership behavior as a discrete component.

Bass and Riggio (2006) speculated that “adaptive firms are led by transformational leaders” (p. 102). Adaptive organizations recognize and act decisively on the need to evolve in response to a changing business environment. According to Yukl (2004), some of the components of transformational leadership can be mapped to the components of the flexible leadership model, for example inspirational motivation is similar to envisioning change, and intellectual stimulation is similar to encouraging innovative thinking. This raises the question of whether transformational leaders by

default engage in change-oriented behaviors or whether the assumed effectiveness of transformational leaders in change efforts arises from the components of transformational leadership itself. Herold, Fedor, Caldwell, and Liu (2008) studied the effects of transformational leadership and change specific behaviors on employee commitment to high employee-impact change efforts. They found that “transformational leadership was not associated with leaders’ change appropriate behaviors” (Herold et al., 2008, p. 353). Change behavior was found to be less important for securing employee commitment if the leader was considered to be transformational. When the leader was not viewed as transformational, change behavior became more important for securing employee commitment to change. However, Herold et al. reported the data in terms of meta-categories (such as transformational leadership and change leadership) and not in terms of the components that made up the meta-categories, so it is difficult to understand the specific leader behaviors in transformational or change leadership that impacted employee commitment to change. It should also be noted that Herold et al. were studying follower commitment to change and not leader performance.

Liu (2010) also studied the impact of transformational leadership on change efforts, specifically “participants’ affective commitment to the larger organization” (p. 83). He distinguished between “change-selling behavior,” a transformational leadership role, and “change-implementing behavior” (p. 83), a transactional leadership role. While transformational leadership was found to be significantly correlated to employee commitment to change, this was the case only when transformational leadership was perceived to be genuine and not simply the way one could succeed in leading change.

Employee attitudes toward the organization and its leadership prior to a change initiative will greatly influence whether employees commit to the change or not. Like the Herold et al. (2008) study above, Liu studied the impact of transformational leadership on employee commitment to change rather than perceived leader effectiveness. The Liu study also reported the data in terms of transformational leadership as a meta-category and change leadership as a two-factor construct (that is, change-selling and change-implementing behaviors). The aggregation of data into broad categories makes it difficult to understand which transformational leadership behaviors are most effective in winning employee commitment to change. Use of a more robust construct of change behavior (Ekvall, 1988; Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991; Norris, 2010; Yukl, 2004; Yukl & Lepsinger, 2004) may have revealed more clearly which leader change behaviors are most effective in securing employee commitment to change.

Golm (2009) studied the relationship between transformational, transactional, and change-oriented leadership and their influence on leadership effectiveness. She concluded that “both transactional and transformational leadership appear to be important to leading change” (Golm, 2009, p. 65), while “change-oriented leadership had the least impact on ratings of leadership effectiveness” (p. 68). Transactional and transformational leadership were reported to be more important indicators of leader effectiveness than change-oriented behavior, and transactional leadership had the greatest impact of all. (Vardaman, 2013)

Burke and Litwin (1992), drawing on the literature of leadership and identifying transformational and transactional dynamics within content variables, argue that

transformational dynamics require new employee behavior as a consequence of environmental pressure. These include leadership, mission, culture and strategy.

Transactional dynamics are comprised of the psychological and motivational variables that determine individual performance and include management practices, structure, policies and practices. Particularly significant to this study is their assertion that this classification can be useful in diagnostic situations by permitting feedback to be provided to change agents and leaders according to which set of dynamics they can control (Griffith, 2010).

Understanding the Role of Organizational Culture and Climate

Institutions are complex groupings of people and ideas and develop organizational cultures and climates that are unique to them. Institutions of higher education have maintained significant elements of its culture and traditions, many of which date back to the Middle Ages and the establishment of the first universities in Europe. However, in the face of the significant issues identified above, institutions and their leaders are evaluating what elements may need to change to remain viable for the future.

Understanding the terms *culture* and *climate* is important and, while often used interchangeably, they are distinctly different. Schneider, Brief, and Guzzo (1996), provide a good understanding of these concepts as they write, “Climate and culture are interconnected. Employees' values and beliefs (part of culture) influence their interpretations of organizational policies, practices, and procedures (climate)” (p. 9). They go on to discuss that an organization is comprised of people and argue that for real change to occur, either attitudes of those people must change or the people themselves

must change. They argue that “organizations as we know them *are* the people in them; if the people do not change, there is no organizational change” (Schneider et al., 1996, p. 7).

As research in the field of organizational culture has been explored, varying perspectives of what makes or defines that culture have been developed. In their article, Connolly, James, and Beales (2011) articulate these nuanced ideas. Through their research they boil down culture to a distinction between what an organization is or how an organization functions. They demonstrate that leaders must understand organizational culture, as it is “a key contingency which organizations can and must get right if they are to succeed” (Connolly et al., 2011, p. 426).

Demonstrating the importance of understanding organizational culture for the ability to impact change, the authors of “Instruments for Exploring Organizational Culture: A Review of the Literature” (Jung et al., 2009) explore a wide variety of qualitative and quantitative instruments that have been developed to probe into organizational culture. What they found as they studied 70 various instruments was that there is no one tool that is best suited for all environments; that the contextual framework and purpose for the assessment were important factors to consider in selecting the right instrument to utilize. This is an acknowledgement that organizational cultures can be complex and unique (Jung et al., 2009).

As one of the leading researchers and authors on the topic of organizational culture, Edgar Schein (2004) has written extensively on the topic. His levels of culture

model (Figure 2) provides a basic structure for the ideas of organizational culture, divided into the artifacts, espoused values, and basic underlying assumptions of an organization.

The Three Levels of Culture.

1. Artifacts

- Visible and feelable structures and processes
- Observed behavior
- ⇒ Difficult to decipher

2. Espoused Beliefs and Values

- Ideals, goals, values, aspirations
- Ideologies
- Rationalizations
- ⇒ May or may not be congruent with behavior and other artifacts

3. Basic Underlying Assumptions

- Unconscious, taken-for-granted beliefs and values
 - ⇒ Determine behavior, perception, thought, and feeling
-

Figure 2. The three levels of culture. From *Organizational Culture and Leadership* (3rd ed.), by E. H. Schein, 2004, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, p. 24.

Heracleous (2001) uses Schein's levels of culture model to examine the role of organizational culture in the context of organizational change. Through a case study approach, Heracleous arrives at the conclusion that "in-depth knowledge of the organizational culture can assist clinicians in identifying appropriate change strategies that would fit with the organization's unique cultural context" (p. 439).

Several authors also discussed varying dimensions of organizational climate and its impact on change management. These dimensions were categorized in different ways.

James and Jones (1974) outlined them as individual autonomy, the degree of imposed structure, a reward orientation, and an atmosphere of consideration, warmth, and support. Allen (2003) sets them up as conceptual juxtapositions of insecurity v. security, trust v. mistrust and optimism v. cynicism.

Wallach (1983) states that there is not necessarily a good or bad culture; that an organizational culture is good (or effective) “if it reinforces the mission, purposes and strategies of the organization” (p. 32). While organizational cultures, like personalities, are complex, it is important to understand and operate within the expectations and rules of the culture, in order to function well within that organization. The OCI, as developed by Wallach, profiles culture in three dimensions, bureaucratic, innovative and supportive (Wallach, 1983). While not every organization may fit into a singular mold and there may be a flavoring of each category, this instrument provides insight into the ethos and functionality of that entity.

Bureaucratic cultures reflect hierarchy and systematic processes and lines of communication; the chain of command is evident and followed. This culture is typically based on power and control and can provide stability to the organization. Training, clear protocols and sound structures make things work but a bureaucratic culture will not likely attract and retain creative and ambitious employees.

Innovative cultures are typified by dynamic and entrepreneurial ideas and people; creativity, challenge, risk and results are key buzzwords that exemplify these spaces. Employees with ambition and drive usually find this organizational culture a place to

thrive, however, because of the constant pressure to achieve and change, stress and burn-out are also often associated with this type of organization.

Supportive cultures “warm and fuzzy places” to work, almost an extended family environment. There is a strong commitment to building and maintain levels of trust, equity, collaboration and harmony among employees.

In “Higher Education Culture and Organizational Change in the 21st Century,” Craig (2004) provides a framework for understanding organizational culture and the need for change. She shares key theorists’ perspectives and definitions for common terms related to organizational culture. Rooted in these theories, Craig identifies several strategies helpful to prepare organizational cultures for change and transformation. However, as leaders engage their organizational cultures in bringing or responding to change, it is important to consider the research of organizational change readiness and change management.

Organizational Change

As the clamor for change resonates with institutional leaders and they work to explore and understand the organizational culture and climate within which they operate, it is important for them to also consider what organizational change means and to gauge the level of change readiness present within their community. To appreciate the breadth and depth of scholarly thinking on the subject of change theories, one need only consult the various works that attempt to develop a typology of these theories. Van de Ven and Poole (1995), for example, offer an enlightening overview of change theories that permits

us to classify them according to both the type of change occurring and whether one or multiple entities are involved.

The Van de Ven and Poole typology. Individual organizational entities, Van de Ven and Poole (1995) argue, are subject to two particular classes of change theory. Life cycle changes, the authors maintain, embody inexorable processes of change, the trajectory and outcome of which are preordained at the outset: “The developing entity has within it an underlying form, logic, program, or code that regulates the process of change and moves the entity from a given point of departure toward a subsequent end that is prefigured in the present state” (p. 515). While external forces may be present in the environment in which the entity finds itself, they can do no more than mediate the eventual, pre-ordained outcome. Teleological theories, in contrast, hold that the development of an organizational entity is the result of planned progress from the current state to some future, envisioned state (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995). These theories posit no preordained trajectory. Rather, the change path is the result of a conscious effort that evaluates the current state, envisions the future state and formulates specific plans to move the entity toward this future state. “It is assumed that the entity is purposeful and adaptive; by itself or in interaction with others, the entity constructs an envisioned end state, takes action to reach it, and monitors the progress” (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995, p. 516).

Multiple organizational entities, whether entirely separate entities in, for example, one industry, or sub-entities within one organization and competing for resources and priority, are acted upon by the two additional theories of change (Van de Ven & Poole,

1995). Their Dialectic Theory assumes that each entity exists in a “pluralistic world of colliding events, forces, or contradictory values” (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995, p. 517). Thus, a balance of power is maintained between competing organizations, or competing factions that embrace differing values or priorities within one organization. Change occurs only when one faction gains sufficient organizational power to disrupt this status quo and move the organization toward a new future state that is the synthesis of the desired future states of the competing entities.

Finally, multiple entities within a population of organizations are subject to evolutionary change. Van de Ven and Poole (1995) argue that populations of organizational entities within industries or competitive spaces move forward in a fashion analogous to biological evolution. In its simplest form, this theory argues that the environmental forces serve to force the adaptation of the organizations. In a variation of the basic theme, population ecologists hold that the environment acts to select the organizational form that best fits the particular niche occupied by the organization and extinguishes those less capable forms (Hannan & Freeman, 1984), a survival of the fittest perspective.

The Armenakis and Bedeian typology. Armenakis and Bedeian (1999) offer an alternative typology of change theories and research that is worthy of examination. The authors examined content factors, those elements that constitute the substance of organizational change. These factors include those that “comprise the targets of both successful and unsuccessful change efforts and how these factors relate to organizational effectiveness” (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999, p. 295). Among these are strategic

orientations of the organizations, their structures, and performance and incentive systems that are intended to support the effectiveness of the change (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999).

Armenakis and Bedeian (1999) next identify context factors. The authors deem these to be those factors that exist in an organization's internal or external environment and which impinge upon the need to change, or upon the change process. These factors would include such external influences as governmental regulations, technological advances, and competitive pressures. Internal influences would include the degree of specialization of work required by current technology, the amount of slack present in the organization, and the organization's experience with previous change efforts. Finally, the authors identify process issues. These, they maintain, are the issues related to the actions undertaken during the change process. These actions may occur at the environmental level, at the organizational level in order to respond to actions occurring in the environment at large, and at the individual level as behaviors are changed as part of the change process (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Griffith, 2010)

Burton, Lauridsen, and Obel (2004) share the need to examine organizational climate and organizational change strategy in tandem in an effort to reduce the tension, conflict, and resistance to change that seems inevitable. "First and foremost, the CEO should be quite aware of the organization's climate in setting the strategy for the firm, because some climates can hinder the implementation of some strategies" (Burton et al., 2004, p. 79). They go on to write that "effective execution of strategy relies on an appropriate and responsive culture, which is itself the result (at least in part) of prior

strategic positioning decisions, and which in turn responds to climate” (Burton et al., 2004, p. 68).

One of the primary reasons leaders encounter resistance to change or the changes implemented do not stick is related to the readiness or willingness of an organizational culture/climate to change. Jones, Jimmieson, and Griffiths (2005) draw upon prior research to make the claim that

the notion of readiness for change can be defined as the extent to which employees hold positive views about the need for organizational change (i.e. change acceptance), as well as the extent to which employees believe that such changes are likely to have positive implications for themselves and the wider organization. (p. 362)

Bouckennooghe, Devos, and Van den Broeck (2009) outline change readiness factors and discuss the development of an instrument to measure change readiness. They reinforce the importance of preparing an organization for change as they write, “When readiness for change exists, the organization is primed to embrace change and resistance is reduced. If organizational members are not ready, the change may be rejected, and organizational members may initiate negative reactions” (Bouckennooghe et al., 2009, p. 561).

Shirey (2013) provides a synopsis of Kurt Lewin’s theory of planned change process. The three steps of: (a) unfreezing, (b) transitioning and (c) re-freezing are outlined in the context of the health professions. The article provides a practical application of the theoretical principles of one of the 20th century’s pioneers in group

dynamics and organizational development. Shirey articulates an understanding of the effectiveness of this change management model in her industry and allows for considering the applicability of this process in other contexts.

Readiness for Change

Leaders planning for and executing organizational change would be well served to understand organizational readiness for change in order to increase the likelihood of success in their efforts. Significant scholarly work on the subject has been completed and models of change readiness developed.

Readiness for change—organizational and contextual models. Armenakis et al. (1993) adamantly argue that readiness for change be considered distinct from the concept of change resistance. They note that readiness is “reflected in organizational members’ beliefs, attitudes and intentions regarding the extent to which changes are needed and the organization’s capacity to successfully make those changes” (p. 681). They observe that readiness is the cognitive precursor to the behaviors of either resistance to change efforts or support for change efforts within an organization. Indeed, the authors argue that failed change efforts may most often be traced to inattention to the creation of change readiness before the implementation of the change efforts themselves. They pursue and extend the concept of making an explicit distinction between change readiness and resistance that they introduced in their earlier work (Armenakis, Mossholder, & Harris, 1990) and suggest that framing the construct in terms of readiness for change is more appropriate to the proactive frame of mind required of leaders, managers and other interventionists charged with readying organizations for change.

Armenakis et al. (1993) offer a graphical description of their model of readiness for change (Figure 3).

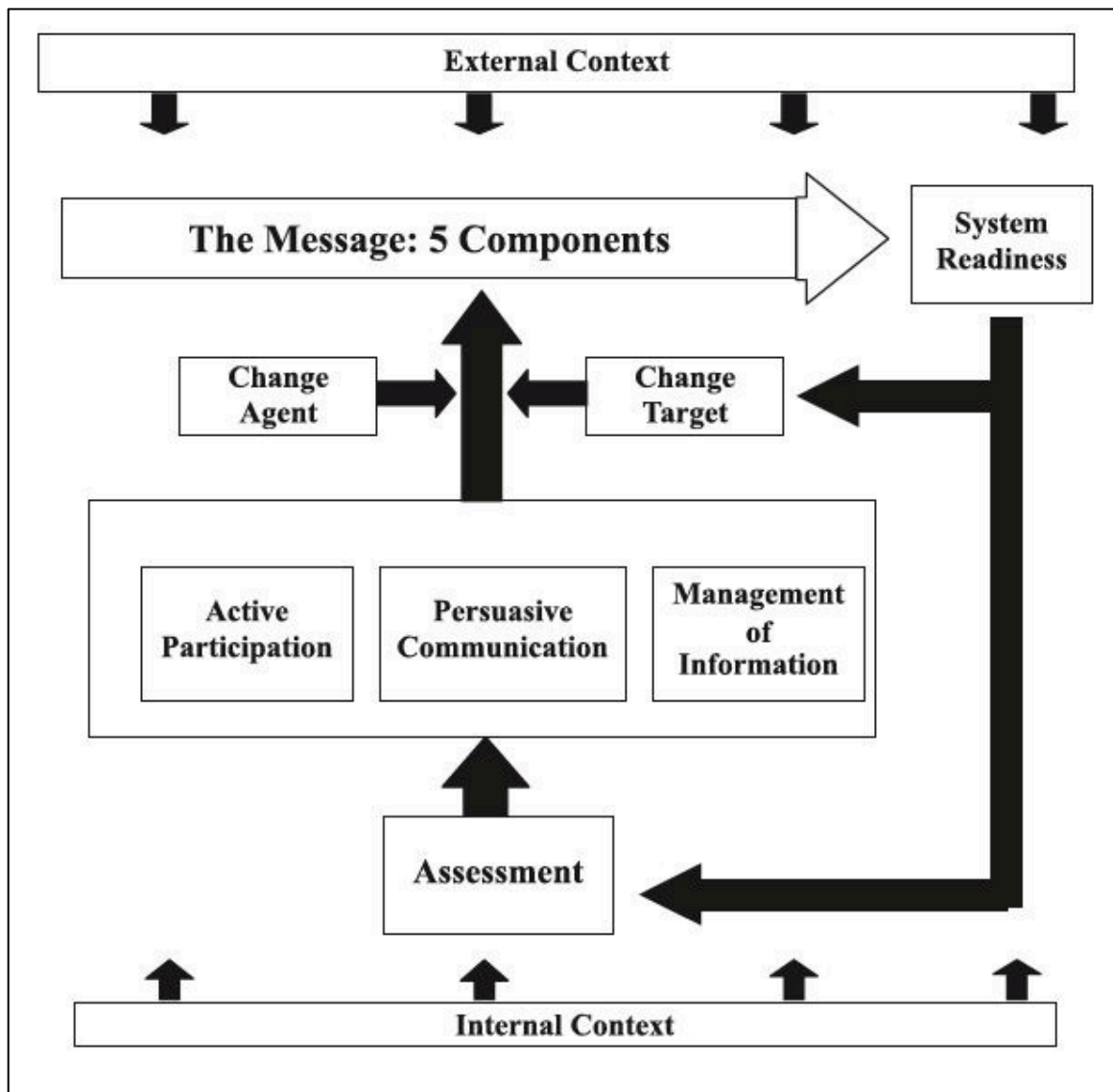


Figure 3. Creating readiness for change. From “Creating Readiness for Organizational Change,” by A. A. Armenakis, S. G. Harris, & K. W. Mossholder, 1993, *Human Relations*, 46(6), 681–704.

The message. Armenakis et al. (1993) suggest that the message conveyed to the organizational members is the primary instrument for enhancing readiness for change. It must contain two distinct elements. First, it must clearly state the discrepancy, that is, the difference between the current organizational state and the desired future state. This message must be congruent with existing contextual factors, in particular, changes in the competitive environment, governmental regulations, and similar environmental factors that will be recognized as changing the situation in which the organization exists. In addition, it must be clear to the members that the current organizational performance has deteriorated as a result of the contextual changes and is less than that desired in the future state. Finally, the communication must adequately convey the leaders' vision and build support for the appropriateness of the desired end state. Armenakis et al. (1993) comment, "For example, convincing members of an organization that changes are necessary to become No. 1 in an industry on some measure rests on their acceptance of being No. 1 as an appropriate end-state" (p. 685).

Efficacy. Perceived self-efficacy is the judgment of how well one can carry out prescribed courses of action required to deal with anticipated situations (Bandura, 1982). Armenakis et al. (1993) draw on this definition, commenting that the change agent must build the target's confidence that it possesses the capability to successfully carry out the change and to correct the identified discrepancy. They are supported in this contention by Bandura's (1982) observation that individuals will avoid those actions that they believe themselves incapable of undertaking successfully but will embrace those that they feel capable of performing.

Interpersonal and social dynamics. Armenakis et al. (1993) caution that interventional attempts to create readiness for change are attempts to build collective awareness of organizational problems and support for proposed solutions, and that the change agent is not the only source of discrepancy and efficacy information acting upon the change targets. They note that individual responses may differ due to individual cognitive differences. They also note that social differentiation theory suggests that responses will be determined, in part, by the cultural memberships of the target. Finally, they urge consideration of the network of social relationships in which the change targets are enmeshed.

Influence strategies. Bandura (1977) offers two strategies for influencing individual cognitions: persuasive communications and active participation. Armenakis et al. (1993) suggest that these strategies are particularly effective in creating readiness for change and suggest that external communications may be used to good effect. Organizational leaders must engage, they argue, in frequent, rich communications to the change targets explaining the need for change, the rationale behind the proposed change, and why the organization is believed to be capable of undergoing the desired transformation. Leaders should avail themselves of external information in support of the change by widely circulating external material such as consultant reports, news media coverage, and the like that lends credence to the changing environment and the existence of a significant discrepancy. Active participation by change targets in activities that permit self-discovery of the discrepancy, for example, participation in planning sessions,

business reviews, and similar appraisals of the organization's health, will lend credence to the message and build support for change.

Change agent attributes. Armenakis et al. (1993) note that characteristics of the change agent, in particular, credibility, trustworthiness, sincerity, and perceived expertise will influence the effectiveness of the readiness creating message. Targets will be more receptive to messages from highly credible, trustworthy, sincere individuals with high levels of expertise.

Armenakis et al. (1993) note that the existing degree of change readiness as well as the degree of urgency in carrying out the change program will have material impact on the components of the change program. They propose the change readiness program typology depicted in Table 1.

Table 1

Change Readiness Program Typology

Conditions	Program Nomenclature	Salient Characteristics
Low readiness/low urgency	Aggressive	Persuasive communication Active participation External information
Low readiness/high urgency	Crisis	Change agent attributes Persuasive communication Change agent attributes
High readiness/low urgency	Maintenance	Persuasive communication Active participation External information
High readiness/high urgency	Quick response	Persuasive communication

Note. From "Creating Readiness for Organizational Change," by A. A. Armenakis, S. G. Harris, and K. W. Mossholder, 1993, *Human Relations*, 46(6), 681-704.

Low readiness/low urgency. This combination of low organizational readiness and urgency calls for the employment of all of the intervention strategies. This aggressive

program is appropriate because employees are not ready for change but there is ample time to employ all the methods of change readiness improvement.

Low readiness/high urgency. This crisis program is used when the organization is facing a significant threat to its survival, time is limited, and a significant shock to the organization may be required. Due to the limited time available, the use of external communication and active participation may not be feasible.

High readiness/low urgency. Maintenance situations such as this call for intervention efforts dedicated to maintaining the level of change readiness in the face of a largely non-threatening and, perhaps, static situation. Efficacy and discrepancy messages must be kept viable and visible.

High readiness/high urgency. In this instance, organizational changes can be implemented almost immediately. The change agent must focus on maintaining the readiness and energy of the change targets and the change process unfolds. Rich persuasive communication is appropriate but active participation and the use of external communication may not be feasible due to the time constraints (Griffith, 2010).

Readiness for change—change target models. In addition to contextual and change effort issues, a number of researchers argue that readiness for change is related to characteristics held by the change targets and that these characteristics must be considered when planning organizational change interventions. McClusky (1990) offers his Theory of Margin (TM) as a starting point for the understanding of these characteristics. TM holds that individuals are more willing to face change when they possess higher levels of Margin in Life (MIL), defined as the vitality or freedom of action

necessary to face these changes. MIL is comprised of three individual components, load, power and margin. Load is an intangible feeling, thought, function or set of tasks that dissipates energy. High levels of load place psychological burdens on individuals. Power is defined as a source of energy that balances the load. Power is positive and creates pleasure, strength or richness. MIL, then, is determined according to the formula: $\text{Margin} = 1 - \text{Load} / (\text{Load} + \text{Power})$. Situations in which load is greater than power channel individual energies into self-maintenance, reduce the ability of individuals to deal with changing situations, and reduce readiness for change.

Hanpachern, Morgan, and Griego (1998) examined the Theory of Margin and endeavored to conduct an empirical study to determine the relationships between MIL and readiness for change. To do so, the authors examined eight aspects of MIL, including job knowledge and skills, job demands, social relations in the workplace, management leadership relations, organizational culture, health, self, and family in an effort to determine if these variables, individually or in combination, are capable of predicting organizational change.

As anticipated, overall MIL scores had a significant positive relationship to readiness for change. Further, all five of the work-related aspects of MIL were positively correlated to readiness for change, but no correlation was found between readiness for change and non-work-related aspects of MIL. Demographic variables did not have a significant influence on MIL, however, employees with less tenure were found to be readier for change as were those employees who worked in managerial areas.

Hanpachern et al. (1998) conclude that the results of this investigation suggest that employees who have a positive MIL for job demands, job knowledge and skills, social relations in the workplace, organizational culture, and management – leadership relations are likely to be ready for change. Thus, change agents may be able to increase readiness for change by increasing the power (e.g. satisfaction) and reducing the load (e.g. burden) related to these dimensions. Actionable items that may be carried out in order to increase readiness for change include providing job training to ensure that employee job skills are adequate in order to increase power and reduce burden, as well as providing training and coaching of managers to facilitate the empowering of employees, again reducing burden and increasing power and improving management-leader relations (Griffith, 2010).

Change Management

Understanding the cognitive dissonance that may be at play in the change process is the central point of Burnes and James's (1995) article "Culture, Cognitive Dissonance and the Management of Change." They argue that employee involvement in the change process is essential for sustained change to occur and that leadership needs to examine the anticipated impact and cost of change prior to initiating change strategies, as sometimes there are unintended consequences of change (Burnes & James, 1995).

An element of culture that is unique to the higher education environment is the element of shared governance between faculty and administration. While institutions deal with this concept in various manners (organizational climate), it is a concept that has been at the heart of the academy for decades. Several authors writing on this topic shared

the benefits and values associated with this approach that include trust, collaboration, enhanced sense of community, responsibility, and accountability. However, it was also noted that with the increasing complexity of issues and the speed at which change is impacting higher education, the notion of shared governance is increasingly challenged (Lewis, 2011; Morrill, 2013; Pope, 2004).

The level of effectiveness demonstrated by a leader during times of change and innovation contribute to the desired outcome. A descriptive research study with both dependent and independent variables where a survey questionnaire was used for data collection was conducted by Gilley, Dixon, and Gilley (2008). They explored the effectiveness as it relates to the implementation process of change and innovation (p. 153). Their qualitative research study was conducted in two public institutions in the Midwest and Mountain West and a private institution in the South. The study was descriptive with both dependent and independent variables where a survey questionnaire was used for data collection (p. 162).

The Gilley et al. (2008) study suggests that “employees at all levels recognize their leaders’ abilities, or lack thereof, to drive change and innovation” (p. 166). This is one reason why effective leaders build relationships with employees that become followers. In times of change, the loyalty of followers who implement the process may result in successful change. A leader that has not built relationships with workers may find them resistant to change and unsuccessful in the outcome. Leaders should never take for granted that workers will understand the need for change and implement the process (Taylor, 2014).

Chapter Two Summary

Significant research has been completed in the areas of leadership style, organizational culture and organizational change readiness. Such studies have explored these issues across many sectors of business, industry and non-profit environments and provided insightful frameworks for managing change.

Organizations must change to remain competitive in today's era of organizational "learning and innovation" (Demers, 2007, pp. xiii-xiv). However, to lead and navigate change in the context of higher education can be difficult and challenging. This literature review has provided background information on the issues facing many institutions of higher education and insight into understanding leadership style, organizational culture and organizational dynamic of change readiness. Whether an organization is grappling with incremental or radical change (Demers, 2007; Weick & Quinn, 1999), a leader's behavior, or style, is believed to be vital to the outcome of the change effort. It may not be enough for a leader to follow a list of steps to change if the leader's behavior does not engage, empower, and encourage followers to embrace the change. Leaders must understand the organizational culture and the organization's readiness for change in order to increase the likelihood of change to be successful and lasting.

Chapter 3

Method

Based on the above examination of current literature and the significant shifts impacting the higher education industry, exploring what relationships exist between organizational culture, leadership style and organizational change readiness in Christian colleges and universities is timely and important for providing insights to institutional leaders as they work to implement change on their campuses.

Research Design

This study analyzes the potential relationships between organizational culture and leadership style and change readiness within the CCCU in Oregon.

A descriptive and quantitative research approach is appropriate to gather the primary data and attend to the research question. Descriptive correlational research reports the way things are and identifies possible relationships among two or more variables that can be used to test hypotheses.



Figure 4. Hypothetical relationships.

Hypotheses

H1: There is a significant positive correlation between an organization's culture, as measured by the OCI, and its president's leadership style, as measured by the MLQ.

H2: There is a significant positive correlation between an organization's culture, as measured by the OCI, and its change readiness, as measured by the OCRBS.

H3: There is a significant positive correlation between an organization's leadership style, as measured by the MLQ, and its change readiness, as measured by the OCRBS.

Population

The population identified for this study consists of CCCU member institutions, based in the State of Oregon. The CCCU is a higher education association of more than 180 Christian institutions around the world. With campuses across the globe, including more than 150 in the U.S. and Canada and nearly 30 more from an additional 18

countries, CCCU institutions are accredited, comprehensive colleges and universities whose missions are Christ-centered and rooted in the historic Christian faith. Most also have curricula rooted in the arts and sciences. The CCCU's mission is to advance the cause of Christ-centered higher education and to help these institutions transform lives by faithfully relating scholarship and service to biblical truth.

Though they are diverse in size, scope, and mission, every CCCU institution shares three basic commitments:

- **Biblical Truth:** Each CCCU institution is committed to integrating the Holy Scriptures—divinely inspired, true, and authoritative—throughout all aspects of the institution, including teaching and research. The professors pursue academic excellence because they are committed to God as the author of truth, and they know that truth has implications for every academic discipline.
- **Christian Formation:** Each CCCU institution is committed to fostering Christian virtues rooted in the Scriptures and nurtured through the institution's curricular and co-curricular programs. The purpose is to form students of moral commitment who live out Christian virtues such as love, courage, and humility in every aspect of their lives.
- **Gospel Witness:** Each CCCU institution is actively committed to advancing God's redemptive purposes in the world by graduating students who live and share the Gospel in word and deed. The graduates are hopeful realists who recognize the brokenness of the world but believe that God has called them to

work for its healing—as doctors, teachers, marketers, engineers, parents, soccer coaches, and in a host of other ways.

In examining the variety of institutions represented within the membership of the CCCU, the six institutions in the State of Oregon reflect a sample of the overall institutional mix within the broader membership yet provide the researcher ease of access to campuses for administering the survey and conducting any necessary follow up for this project. The focus of this population also provides consistency related to the social, economic and demographic context and the many issues within the competitive marketplace yet opportunity to explore how each institution may be positioned and approaching change within this context in unique ways.

The six CCCU member institutions located in Oregon are:

- Corban University (Salem, Oregon)
- George Fox University (Newberg, Oregon)
- Kilns College (Bend, Oregon)
- Multnomah University (Portland, Oregon)
- Northwest Christian University (Eugene, Oregon)
- Warner Pacific University (Portland, Oregon)

Instrumentation

To determine whether there are positive correlations between the variables of organizational culture, leadership style and organizational change readiness, a quantitative method using a cross-section survey design will be used in this study. The data for this study will be drawn from the following survey instruments, combined into

one survey yet with each used in its entirety. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient test will be used to examine the data and ascertain any correlational relationships between the variables.

Organizational Culture Index. The OCI, developed by Wallach in 1983, describes corporate culture as the shared understanding of an organization's employees regarding beliefs, values, norms and philosophies, which define expected standards of behavior, speech, and presentation of self. The intended purpose of the instrument is to measure organizational culture or subculture along three cultural domains. The survey is a self-reported questionnaire using 24 adjective-style items with four response options (0 “does not describe my organization” to 3 “describes my organization most of the time”). Three dimensions are identified and scored based on the survey responses. These categories are: bureaucratic (eight items); innovative (eight items); supportive (eight items). Scores are derived for each dimension by summing or averaging across the constituent items. The internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach’s alpha) for organizational culture in bureaucratic, innovative, and supportive cultures as reported for the OCI are 0.71, 0.87, and 0.77 respectively.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Bass and Avolio’s (2004) well known and frequently used MLQ has undergone substantial revision and development since its original emergence onto the scene of scholarship in the discipline of leadership. Much of this evolution has been the result of responses to valid criticism and an ongoing effort on the part of its authors to increase its usefulness and validity. The original six-factor model has been expanded with the addition of several additional factors identified during

subsequent research (Bass & Avolio, 1994a). The most significant of these ongoing studies, was the movement to the nine factors incorporated in the full range model:

1. Idealized Attributes
2. Idealized Behaviors
3. Inspirational Motivation
4. Intellectual Stimulation
5. Individual Consideration
6. Contingent Reward
7. Management-by-Exception: Active
8. Management-by-Exception: Passive
9. Laissez-Faire Behavior

Data incorporated 56,749 raters from around the world in a variety of industries who evaluated the perceived leadership behaviors of 8,238 leaders, with raters including individuals at levels below, equal to, and above that of the leader being rated.

Confirmatory factor analysis of the nine-factor model yielded the coefficient alpha goodness of fit results depicted in Table 2.

Table 2

Confirmatory Factor Analysis—Nine Factor Model of MLQ

Fit Measure	Rater (Self)	Rater (Above)	Rater (Same Level)	Rater (Below)	Rater (Not Specified)
Goodness of Fit Index	0.93	0.91	0.92	0.91	0.91

Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index	0.91	0.89	0.90	0.90	0.89
Confirmatory Fit Index	0.89	0.91	0.91	0.91	0.91
Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05

Note. From *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Manual and Sampler Set*, by B. M. Bass and B. J. Avolio, 2004, Menlo Park, CA: Mindgarden.

In each case, one or more of the measures exceeds the accepted minimum coefficient alpha of .90 and is less than the allowable root mean squared error of approximation of .08. Bass and Avolio (2004) conclude, “In summary, testing the nine factor model across regions and by rater level, by and large showed strong and consistent support for the full range 9-factor model. In all cases, the nine factor model produced the best fit” (p. 79). Antonakis, Avolio, and Sivasubramaniam (2003) conducted a similar analysis of the validity of the MLQ instrument, concluding, “Our results indicate that the current version of the MLQ, (Form 5X) is a valid and reliable instrument that can adequately measure the nine components comprising the full-range theory of leadership” (p. 286).

Organizational Change Recipients’ Belief Scale. Many attempts have been made to measure the readiness of an organization and its members to change, and conversely, the degree to which resistance to change is present, have been studies. Holt and his fellow researchers (Holt, 2002; Holt et al., 2007) developed and validated an instrument that determines readiness for change through the measurement of the presence of five antecedents to change:

1. Self-efficacy: the belief that the individual has the capacity to make the change.
2. Personal valence: the belief that the change will benefit the individual.
3. Organizational valence: the belief that the organization will benefit from the changes.
4. Senior leader support: the recognition that the senior leadership of the organization supports the change.
5. Discrepancy: the recognition of the need for change.

This work was continued and refined, resulting in the development and repeated validation of the OCRBS (Armenakis et al., 2007). This 24-question instrument assesses the presence or absence of a slightly modified set of beliefs, including efficacy, principal support, valence, discrepancy, and appropriateness, the belief that the postulated change will address the discrepancy (Griffith, 2010).

The OCRBS was subjected to a series of four studies to assess its content validity, internal consistency, and criterion related validity in accordance with the standards for construct validity established by the American Psychological Association (1995). The initial study, designed to assess content validity, was conducted using 19 executives enrolled in an executive MBA program. A content adequacy questionnaire consisting of 26 items was administered electronically and Cohen's kappa statistic was used to determine the level of agreement among the respondents that the items represented the defined constructs. The kappa value for the study was determined to be .86 ($p < .05$), while a value exceeding .70 is generally considered to be acceptable (Armenakis et al., 2007).

The second study used to validate the OCRBS was conducted among 150 employees of a not-for-profit medical research firm (MD). All 26 items had standard deviations of greater than 1.0, indicating their usefulness in the construction of the instrument. Items with standard deviations of less than this value are generally considered to add little to the construction of a scale and may be eliminated (Armenakis et al., 2007). The second phase of this study involved the construction of an intercorrelation matrix. Research convention dictates that items that correlate at less than .40 with other items in the proposed scale should be eliminated. This analysis resulted in the elimination of one item originally intended to measure personal valence (Armenakis et al., 2007).

The third validation effort conducted was exploratory factor analysis that was conducted at a newly independent division of a major manufacturer (PM). One further item was eliminated as the result of this analysis, having a factor loading below the .40 criterion level. The remaining 24 items were found to account for 64.45% of the variance.

The remaining 24 items were subjected to confirmatory factory analysis during a study conducted at a public safety organization (PSO) facing a major organizational change. The Goodness of Fit Index of .90 was equal to the generally accepted level, the Comparative Fit Index was .96 as compared to the minimum desired level of .90, and the root mean square error of approximation of .05 was lower than the recommended maximum level of .08 (Armenakis et al., 2007).

Internal consistency reliabilities (coefficient alpha) were acceptable for each of the subscales as shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Coefficient Alphas by Subscale and Organization Studied for the OCRBS

	Discrepancy	Appropriateness	Efficacy	Principal Support	Valence	Overall Readiness
MD	0.92	0.95	0.86	0.87	0.90	0.94
PM	0.89	0.89	0.76	0.75	0.82	0.90
PSO	0.70	0.92	0.76	0.69	0.78	0.92

Note. From "Organizational Change Recipients' Belief Scale: Development of an Assessment Instrument," by A. A. Armenakis, J. B. Bernerth, J. P. Pitts, and H. J. Walker, 2007, *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 43(4), 481-505.

Convergent validity was demonstrated for the OCRBS by virtue of the five-factor a priori structure. Criterion related validity was assessed using simple regression equations in order to determine the amount of variance in procedural justice, distributive justice, affective change commitment, normative change commitment, and organizational commitment as measured by instruments administered to the employees of PM during the third study. The OCRBS scale was found to predict a significant amount of the variance in each of these measures.

Thus, Armenakis et al. (2007) have developed a short self-report questionnaire that meets the psychometric standards of the American Psychological Association. The researchers further maintain that both researchers and practitioners may use the OCRBS during all three phases of organizational change: readiness, adoption, and institutionalization (Armenakis et al., 2007).

Demographic information.

- Position (faculty, staff, administrator, executive, board member)
- Length of service at current institution (range of years)
- Length of service in higher education (range of years)
- Gender of participant (consider any correlation of same gender as the president)
- Age of participant (range of years)
- Gender of institutional president
- Denominational affiliation of the institution

Data Collection

The following steps will be taken to collect the necessary data to complete this study.

- Develop integrated survey in SurveyMonkey, using the instruments identified above in their entirety. All questions from each assessment tool will be incorporated using the appropriate Likert-scale or evaluation method. The additional demographic details will be asked in an appropriate manner to track responses in a manner that allows for straight-forward data analysis.
- Seek approval and participation from the president at each institution.
- Secure email addresses of all employees at each participating institution or determine how survey will be distributed in partnership with each institution.
- SurveyMonkey instrument to be distributed to employees and their presidents at the CCCU member institutions in Oregon.

- Data collection through SurveyMonkey to allow for ease of data gathering, input, confidentiality, security, storage and ability to export results for analysis.

Data Analysis

Once the data have been collected, the researcher will examine what, if any correlations exist between the variables of organizational culture, leadership style and change readiness using appropriate statistical methods (Pearson Correlation Coefficient test). Further analysis, using ANOVAs to explore differences between institutional leadership style categories and institutional change readiness will also be examined, should the data lead in that direction.

Chapter 4

Results

Based on the above examination of current literature and the significant shifts impacting the higher education industry, exploring what relationships exist between organizational culture, leadership style and organizational change readiness in Christian colleges and universities is timely and important for providing insights to institutional leaders as they work to implement change on their campuses. This chapter will provide understanding related to the collection of data from four Christian universities in the State of Oregon and exploring the hypothetical relationships in this study and understanding the relationships between a variety of groups within those respondents (based on gender, role at the institution, age group, length of service at current institution and tenure of employment in higher education).

Organizational and institutional leaders today are facing significant challenges and pressures to adapt in an ever-changing environment (Kouzes & Pasner, 2008). How educational leaders guide their institutions through these challenges and opportunities will determine if and how these organizations survive and are positioned for mission

fulfillment, sustainability and viability for the future. Successful leaders understand the change process and anticipate opportunities to lead organizations towards a positive outcome. “Organizational behavior recognizes that organizations are dynamic and always changing” (Greenberg & Baron, 2003, p. 8). Understanding the leadership style of the president, the organizational culture of the institution and the potential impact of these variables on the readiness for change in the organization could have important ramifications for the future of the institution. This presents the leader with continual opportunities to lead in times of change (Taylor, 2013). “Leadership is an intentional change process through which leaders and followers, joined by a shared purpose, initiate action to pursue a common vision” (Laub, 2004, p. 5).

Results of this study are drawn from 392 respondents from four institutions that are all members of the CCCU and located in Oregon. With a response rate of 35.3%, the respondents provide perspectives and insights into the important dynamics related to leading change within these organizations.

Data Collection

Of the six institutions originally identified, five were invited to participate in the research study, as one was determined to fall outside the parameters of the study. (The institution that was excluded had a substantially smaller employee base from which to draw and offered a uniquely different set of academic programs, which did not seem congruent with the other five institutions invited to participate). Four of the five invited universities accepted the invitation to participate in the study and encouraged participants to submit their data, one institution declined to participate. Participation agreements were

signed by the president/designee of each institution and the researcher provided email templates to each institution, with links to the survey instrument for distribution by the institution contact to the intended participants (trustees, faculty and staff). Each institution provided an email invitation (Appendix A), a reminder email (Appendix B) and a final reminder email (Appendix C). A total of 1,109 invitations were distributed among the four participating institutions, with 489 surveys being initiated, a 44.1% response rate overall. Of the 489 surveys started, 392 were completed with enough data, based on the scoring instructions for all three survey instruments, to be included in the final analysis, a 35.3% overall response rate. Table 4 provides response rate information by institution.

Table 4

Survey Response Rate

Institution	A	B	C	D	Cumulative
Survey invitations sent	178	437	271	223	1109
Surveys started	113	233	80	63	489
Initial Response rate	63.5%	53.3%	29.5%	28.3%	44.1%
Surveys completed (fully)	102	173	66	51	392
Completed Response rate	57.3%	39.6%	24.4%	22.9%	35.3%

The three survey instruments included in the study, measuring leadership style, organizational culture, and change readiness belief, were scored based on each of the instrument scoring instructions. The results of all surveys were entered into an Excel workbook for scoring and statistical analysis. Only surveys that were deemed fully completed were included in the statistical analysis and hypothesis testing.

Demographics

The data from the completed surveys provide a cross-section of perspectives from various viewpoints across an institution. Factors of role, gender, age, years worked in the higher education industry, and years worked at the current institution are well represented in the sample data. Of the 392 completed surveys, Table 5 provides the distribution by role of the participant at each institution. While there is some variability in the terminology between institutions, the roles of trustee, administrator, staff, faculty, and executive cabinet member are common. Across all participating institutions, 10.2% of respondents identified as trustee, 33.9% as faculty, 36.5% as staff, 18.8% as administrator/executive cabinet, and 0.5% not reporting, reflecting a distribution of roles that appears to appropriately reflect organizational structures. Respondents from Institution B represented a higher percentage of faculty and administrators and a lower percentage of staff than the other three participating institutions. Historically and anecdotally, the perspectives represented by these groups would be expected to differ and, in some cases, have been cause for institutional tension related to matters and understanding of shared governance. With the number of respondents breaking fairly evenly in thirds of trustee/administrators, faculty, and staff, the varying perspectives are all well represented as the results of this study are analyzed.

Table 5

Respondents by Role

Role	A	B	C	D	
Trustee	15 14.7%	9 5.2%	6 9.1%	10 19.6%	40 10.2%
Executive Cabinet	7 6.9%	1 0.6%	2 3.0%		10 2.6%
Faculty	24 23.5%	78 45.1%	20 30.3%	11 21.6%	133 33.9%
Staff	52 51.0%	33 19.1%	32 48.5%	26 51.0%	143 36.5%
Administrator	4 3.9%	52 30.1%	4 6.1%	4 7.8%	64 16.3%
Other			2 3.0%		2 0.5%
<i>n</i> =	102	173	66	51	392

Table 6 provides the gender distribution of respondents. With the average of 55.4% identifying as female, 42.3% as male, and 2.3% as blank or other, the variable of gender appears to reflect consistency across the four institutions. While Institutions A, C, and D respondents were very similar (52% female, 45% male), Institution B represented a bit different distribution of 59.5% female, 38.7% male. While the percentage of female respondents is higher, this does generally reflect the overall population of employees within the higher education industry and provides an opportunity to see if, and to what extent, gender impacts the relationships between institutional leadership, organizational culture and organizational readiness for change.

Table 6

Respondents by Gender

Gender	A	B	C	D	
Female	53 52.0%	103 59.5%	34 51.5%	27 52.9%	217 55.4%
Male	46	67	30	23	166

	45.1%	38.7%	45.5%	45.1%	42.3%
Blank or Other	3	3	2	1	9
	2.9%	1.7%	3.0%	2.0%	2.3%
<i>n</i> =	102	173	66	51	392

Table 7 shows the age ranges of respondents and reflects a normal distribution of the population by age across the four participating institutions, with the median falling within the 45-54 age group. On average for all institutions, 3.6% of respondents were between the ages of 18-24, 18.1% in the age range 25-35, 19.9% ages 35-44, 19.6% between 45-54, 25.5% in the age range 55-64, and 12.5% as 65 or older, with 0.8% not reporting age. While the largest single group was the age range of 55-64, 61.1% of the respondents were less than 55 years of age. This distribution allows for examination of often perceived differences between younger and older employees, especially related to a willingness and readiness to embrace change.

Table 7

Respondents by Age Range

Age Range	A	B	C	D	
18-24	6	4	2	2	14
	5.9%	2.3%	3.0%	3.9%	3.6%
25-34	21	31	11	8	71
	20.6%	17.9%	16.7%	15.7%	18.1%
35-44	13	41	15	9	78
	12.7%	23.7%	22.7%	17.6%	19.9%
45-54	18	36	14	9	77
	17.6%	20.8%	21.2%	17.6%	19.6%
55-64	29	37	19	15	100
	28.4%	21.4%	28.8%	29.4%	25.5%
65+	14	23	4	8	49
	13.7%	13.3%	6.1%	15.7%	12.5%
Blank	1	1	1		3
	1.0%	0.6%	1.5%	0.0%	0.8%
<i>n</i> =	102	173	66	51	392

Table 8 outlines the years worked in the higher education industry and reflects a normal distribution of the population across the four participating institutions, with the median falling within the 6-10 years of experience. On average for all institutions, 17.6% of respondents have worked less than 3 years in the industry, 20.2% have worked 3-5 years, 19.6% 6-10 years, 14.0% between 11-15 years, 27.6% more than 15 years, and 1.0% not reporting. The amount of professional experience within the industry also prompts questions related to change readiness. While the largest group in the outlined years worked in higher education was more than 15 years, the number of respondents again broke fairly evenly into thirds, when looking at larger blocks of time, with one-third with less than 5 years' experience, one-third with between 5-15 years, and a third

with more than 15 years' experience. These results allowed for exploration of the nuances based on professional, industry experience.

Table 8

Respondents by Years Worked in Higher Education

Years Worked in Higher Education	A	B	C	D	
Less than 3	20	26	15	8	69
	19.6%	15.0%	22.7%	15.7%	17.6%
3-5 years	27	35	12	5	79
	26.5%	20.2%	18.2%	9.8%	20.2%
6-10 years	14	42	7	14	77
	13.7%	24.3%	10.6%	27.5%	19.6%
11-15 years	8	29	11	7	55
	7.8%	16.8%	16.7%	13.7%	14.0%
More than 15 years	33	40	20	15	108
	32.4%	23.1%	30.3%	29.4%	27.6%
(Blank)		1	1	2	4
	0.0%	0.6%	1.5%	3.9%	1.0%
<i>n</i> =	102	173	66	51	392

Table 9 identifies the years worked at the institution and reflects a normal distribution of the population across the four participating institutions, with the median falling within the 3-5 years. On average for all institutions, 30.4% of respondents have worked less than 3 years for the current institution, 21.4% have worked 3-5 years, 19.9% 6-10 years, 12.5% between 11-15 years, 15.1% more than 15 years, and 0.8% not reporting. Of note, while roughly one-third of respondents had worked in higher education for more than 15 years, nearly 85% had worked at their current institution less than 15 years, meaning that those years of experience had been gained at more than one institution. Also, more than half the respondents in this study had worked for their

current institution less than 5 years. These shifts in working at different institutions could have impact on understanding of organizational culture and also on creating or understanding a readiness for change.

Table 9

Respondents by Length of Service at Current Institution

Length of Service at Current Institution	A	B	C	D	
Less than 3	31	51	21	16	119
	30.4%	29.5%	31.8%	31.4%	30.4%
3-5 years	25	36	15	8	84
	24.5%	20.8%	22.7%	15.7%	21.4%
6-10 years	15	40	7	16	78
	14.7%	23.1%	10.6%	31.4%	19.9%
11-15 years	8	22	14	5	49
	7.8%	12.7%	21.2%	9.8%	12.5%
More than 15 years	22	24	8	5	59
	21.6%	13.9%	12.1%	9.8%	15.1%
(Blank)	1		1	1	3
	1.0%	0.0%	1.5%	2.0%	0.8%
<i>n</i> =	102	173	66	51	392

Descriptive Statistics

Prior to testing the research hypotheses, a visual examination of the data was performed using frequency distribution testing on all variables. Table 10 presents the key variables from each survey instrument with the mean (average) value, the standard deviation value (how reported values of the group are concentrated around or spread out from the mean) and the skewness factor, which reflects the degree of distortion from a symmetrical or “normal” bell curve. If the skewness is not substantial (less than -2 or

greater than 2) then the data can be considered approximately normal (West, Finch, & Curran, 1996).

Table 10

Basic Statistics by Variable

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness
Bureaucratic	13.8444	3.6648	-0.177
Innovative	13.8010	3.9564	-0.426
Supportive	15.9362	4.9103	-0.683
Valence	3.9043	1.1958	-0.377
Personal Support	5.2004	1.0461	-0.716
Appropriateness	5.2409	1.4161	-1.091
Efficacy	5.1247	1.2018	-0.802
Discrepancy	5.6854	0.9360	-0.587
Transformational	2.7504	0.7825	-0.629
Transactional	1.7145	0.7689	0.218
Passive Avoidant	0.8839	0.8822	1.150

Using the descriptive statistics outlined in Table 10, histogram graphs for each variable were developed (see Figures 5-15). All variables appeared to present a unimodal shape and a normal distribution, with a few demonstrating some levels of skewing, but all within the “normal” spectrum.

As represented in Figure 5, the Bureaucratic variable, with a mean value of 13.84, a standard deviation of 3.66 and skewness of -0.17, demonstrates a normal bell curve, reflecting that the distribution of responses for this variable are spread out in fairly equal

proportions from the mean. A normally distributed curve increases the level of confidence that the data accurately reflects a true (not by chance) outcome.

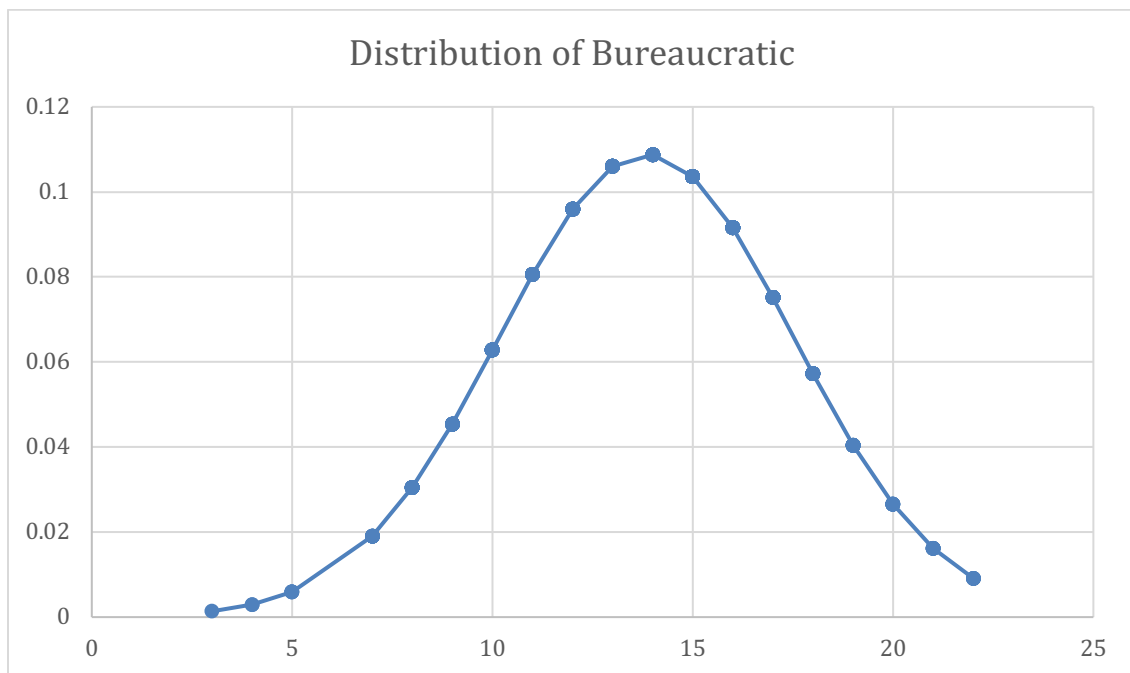


Figure 5. Distribution of Bureaucratic.

Figure 6 shows the Innovative variable, with a mean value of 13.80, a standard deviation of 3.95 and skewness of -0.42, also reflecting a normal bell curve.

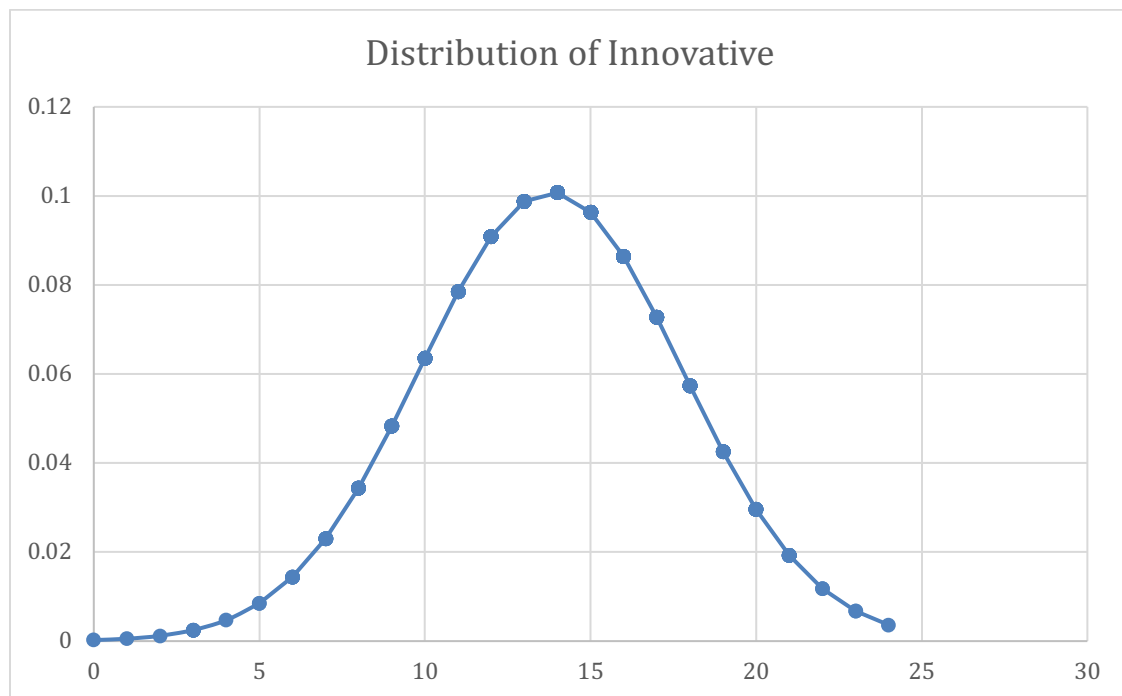


Figure 6. Distribution of Innovative.

Figure 7 shows the results of the Supportive variable, with a mean value of 15.93, a standard deviation of 4.91 and skewness of -0.68, demonstrates a normal bell curve, but reflects a slightly negative skew, with the curve having a longer tail to the left of the mean value. This reflects that more responses were scored slightly higher to this variable than might be the norm. This indicates that participants in this study classify their organizational culture as more slightly more supportive than might be the norm. However, the skewness factor is still well within the range of normal distribution.

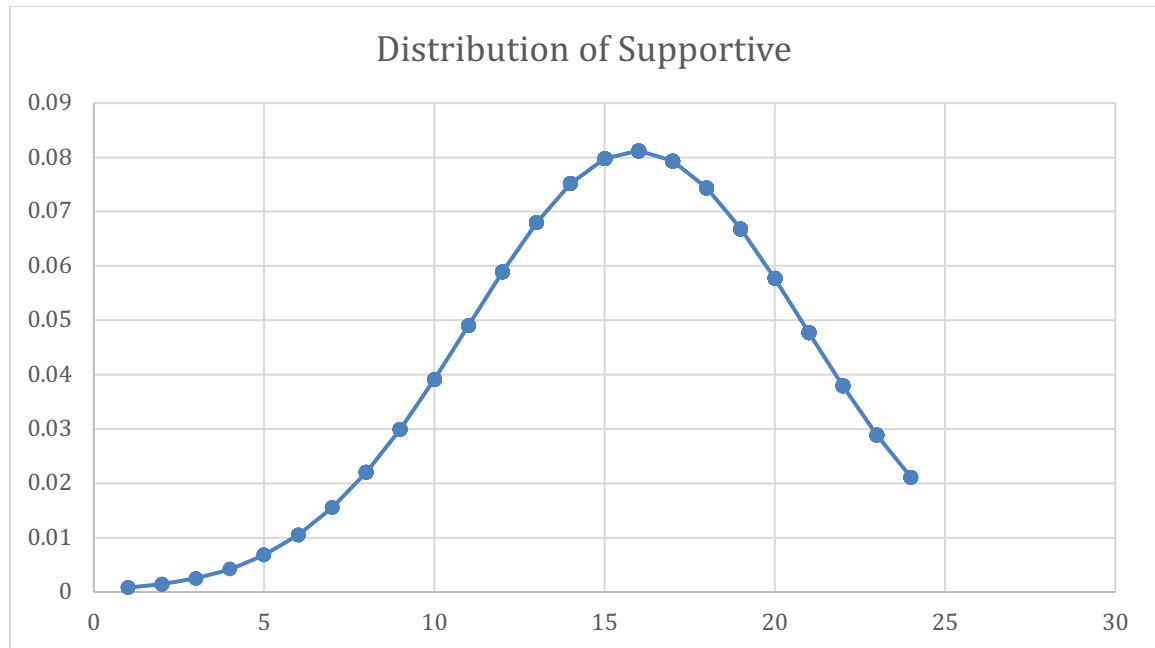


Figure 7. Distribution of Supportive.

As represented in Figure 8, the Valence variable, with a mean value of 3.90, a standard deviation of 1.19 and skewness of -0.37, demonstrates a normal bell curve, reflecting that the distribution of responses for this variable (how attractive the respondents perceive the change outcomes to be or impact them) are spread out in fairly equal proportions from the mean and increases the level of confidence that the data accurately reflects a true (not by chance) outcome.

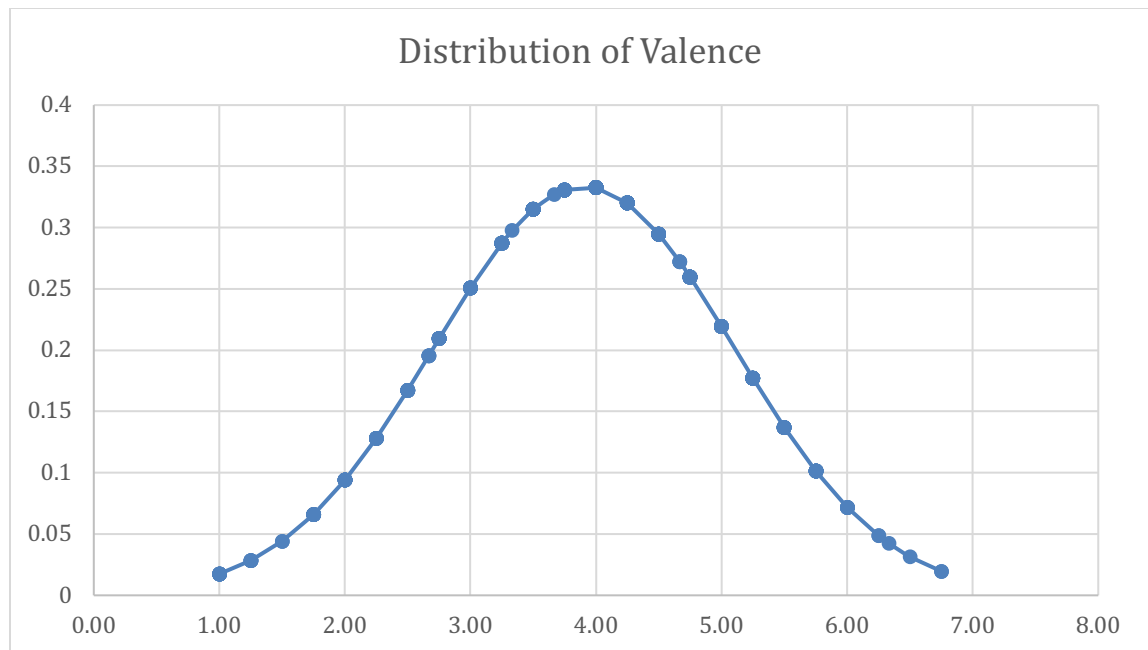


Figure 8. Distribution of Valence.

Figure 9 shows the results of the Personal Support variable, with a mean value of 5.20, a standard deviation of 1.04 and skewness of -0.71, demonstrates a normal bell curve, but reflects a slightly negative skew, with the curve having a longer tail to the left of the mean value, reflecting that more responses were scored slightly higher on this variable than might be the norm. This indicates that participants in this study perceive a slightly higher level of personal support regarding change initiatives in their workplace than might be the norm. However, the skewness factor is still well within the range of normal distribution.

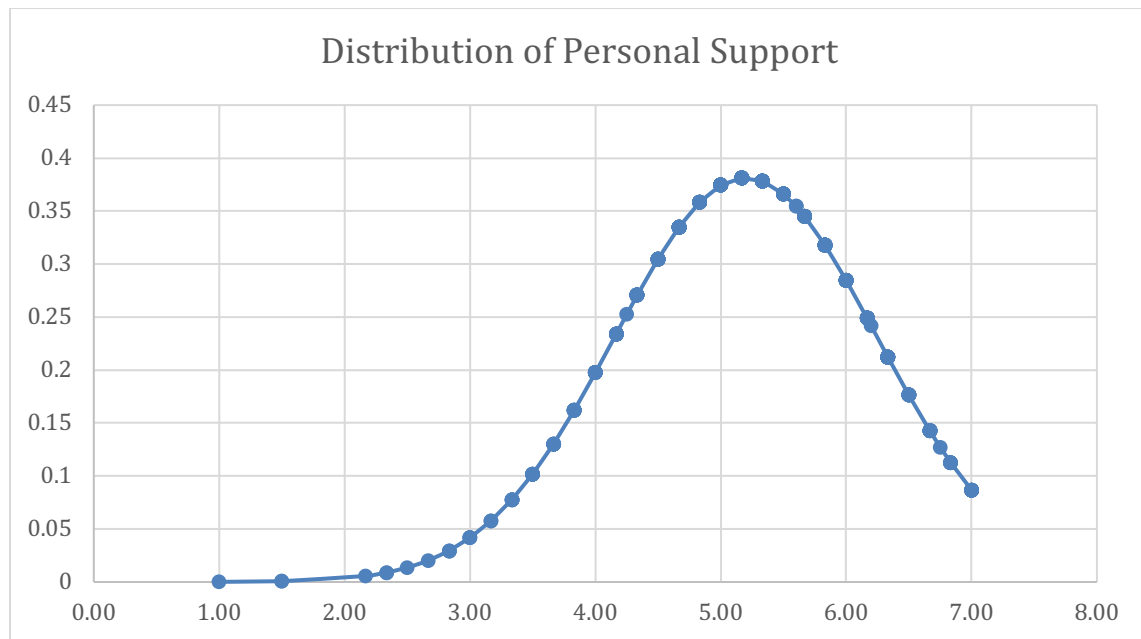


Figure 9. Distribution of Personal Support.

Figure 10 shows the results of the Appropriateness variable, with a mean value of 5.24, a standard deviation of 1.41 and skewness of -1.09, demonstrates a normal bell curve, but reflects a slightly negative skew, with the curve having a longer tail to the left of the mean value, reflecting that more responses were scored slightly higher on this variable than might be the norm. This indicates that participants in this study more strongly feel that change initiatives introduced are appropriate to the need for change within their organization. However, the skewness factor is still well within the range of normal distribution.

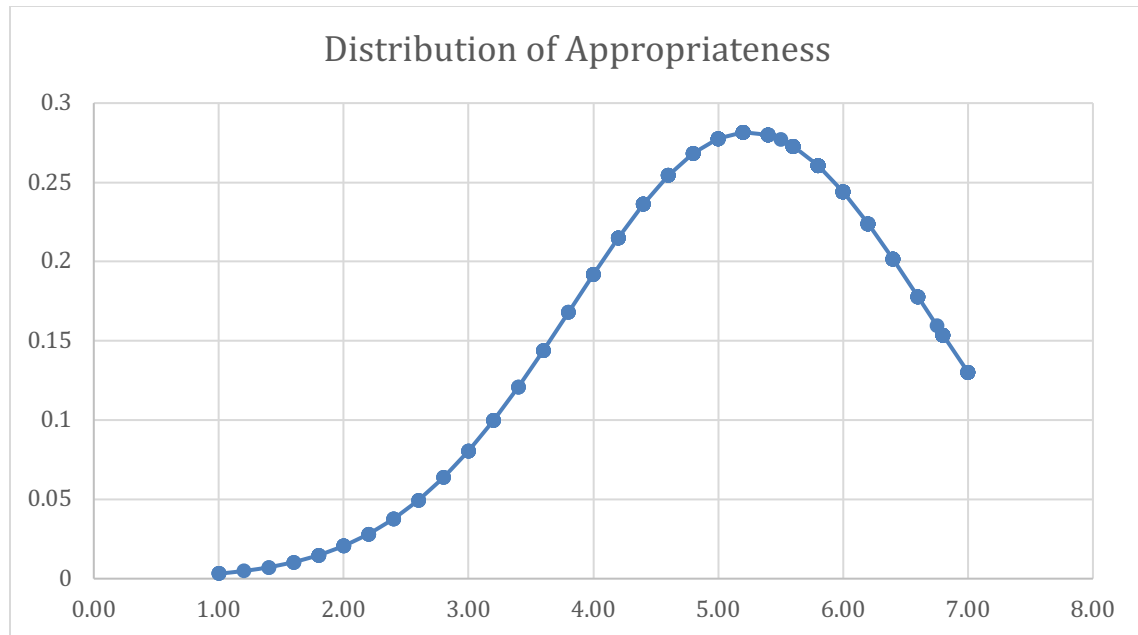


Figure 10. Distribution of Appropriateness.

Figure 11 shows the results of the Efficacy variable, with a mean value of 5.12, a standard deviation of 1.20 and skewness of -0.80, demonstrates a normal bell curve, but reflects a slightly negative skew, with the curve having a longer tail to the left of the mean value, reflecting that more responses were scored slightly higher on this variable than might be the norm. This indicates that participants in this study more strongly feel that change can be effectively implemented within their organization. However, the skewness factor is still well within the range of normal distribution.

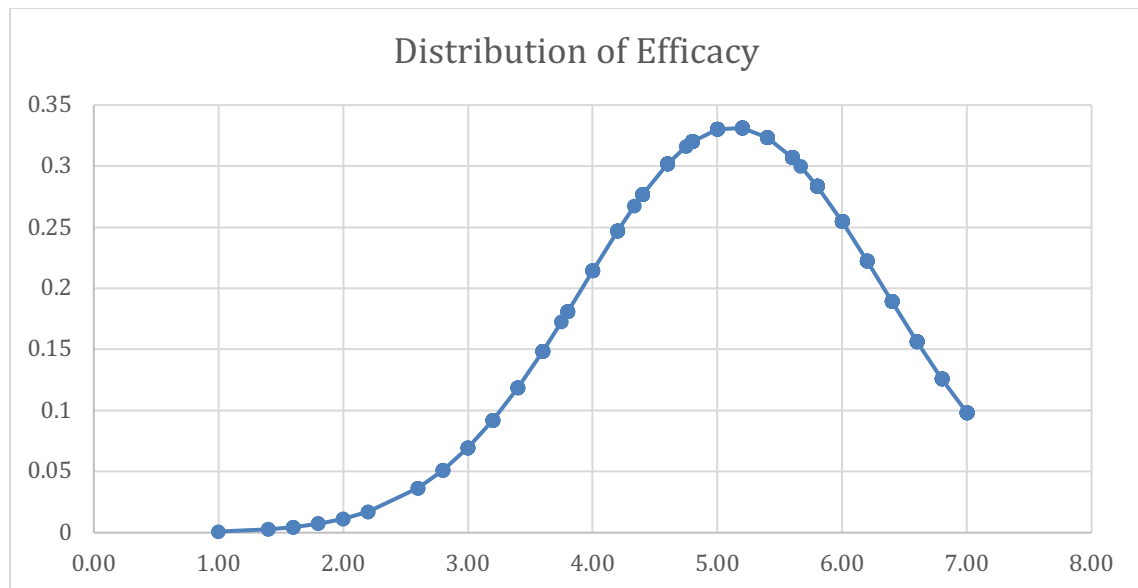


Figure 11. Distribution of Efficacy.

Figure 12 shows the results of the Discrepancy variable, with a mean value of 5.68, a standard deviation of 0.93 and skewness of -0.58, demonstrates a normal bell curve, but reflects a slightly negative skew, with the curve having a longer tail to the left of the mean value, reflecting that more responses were scored slightly higher on this variable than might be the norm. This indicates that participants in this study more strongly feel that change needs to be implemented within their organization; that there is a difference between current and desired performance. However, the skewness factor is still well within the range of normal distribution.

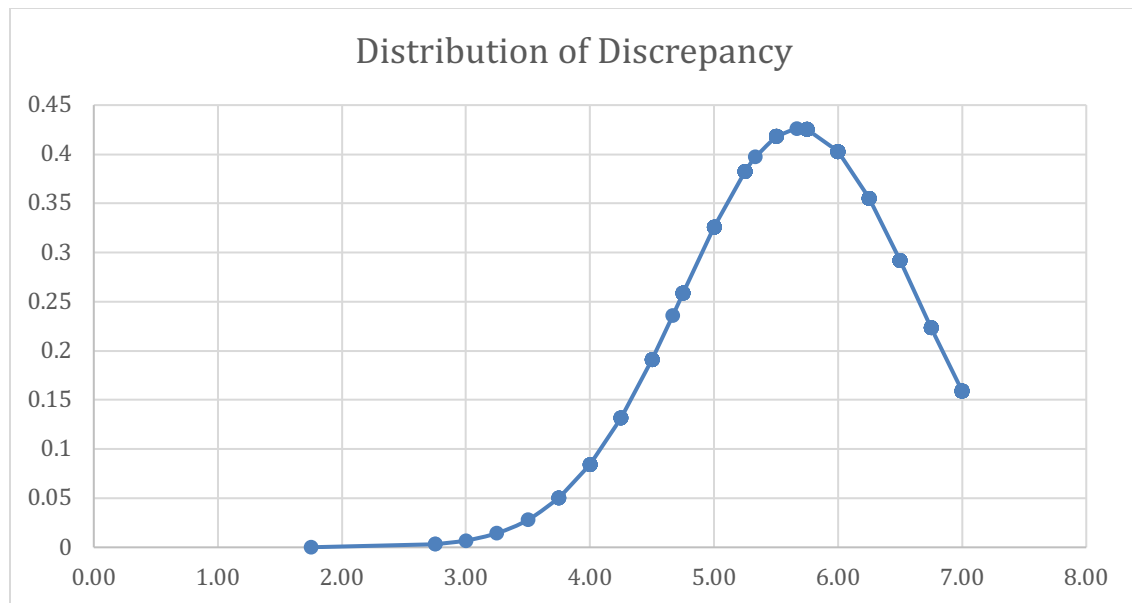


Figure 12. Distribution of Discrepancy.

Figure 13 shows the results of the Transformational variable, with a mean value of 2.75, a standard deviation of 0.78 and skewness of -0.62, demonstrates a normal bell curve, but reflects a slightly negative skew, with the curve having a longer tail to the left of the mean value, reflecting that more responses were scored slightly higher on this variable than might be the norm. This indicates that significant numbers of participants in this study classify their institutional leader as one who demonstrates characteristics of a transformational leadership style. However, the skewness factor is still well within the range of normal distribution.

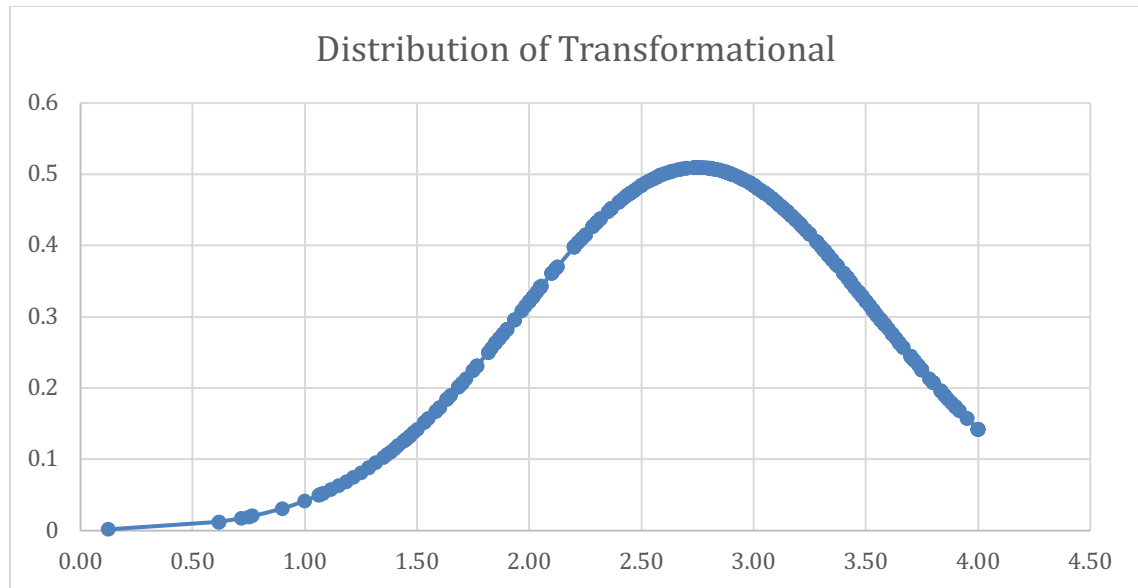


Figure 13. Distribution of Transformational.

Figure 14 shows the results of the Transactional variable, with a mean value of 1.71, a standard deviation of 0.76 and skewness of 0.21, demonstrates a normal bell curve, but reflects a slightly positive skew, with the curve having a longer tail to the right of the mean value, reflecting that more responses were scored slightly lower on this variable than might be the norm. However, the skewness factor is still well within the range of normal distribution.

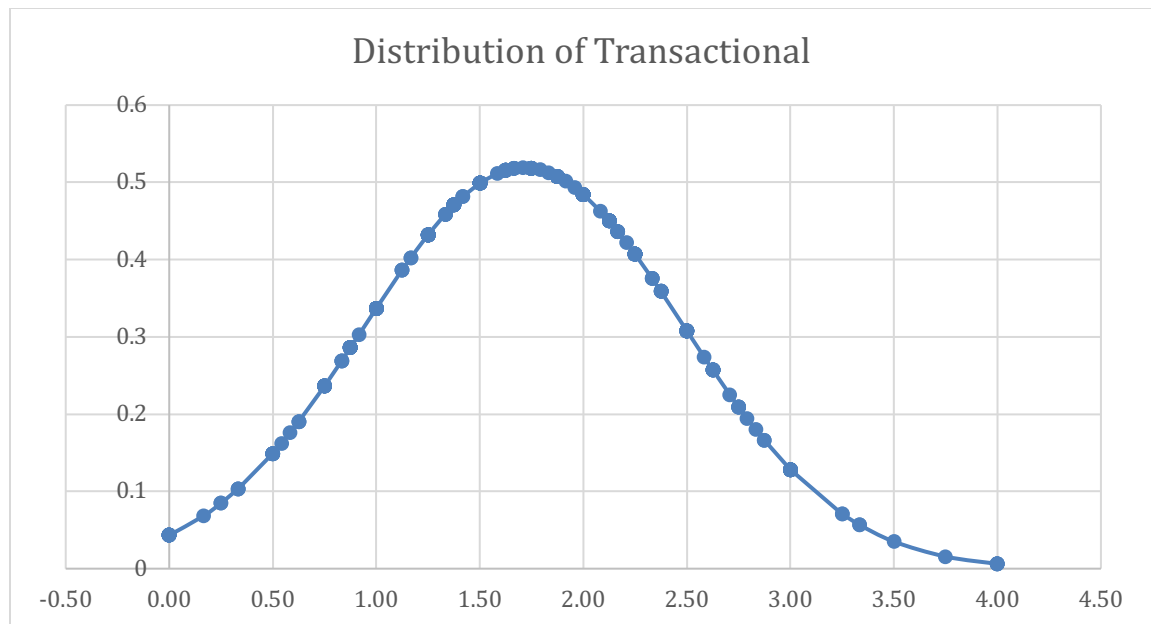


Figure 14. Distribution of Transactional.

Figure 15 shows the results of the Passive Avoidant variable, with a mean value of 0.88, a standard deviation of 0.88 and skewness of 1.15, demonstrates a normal bell curve, but reflects a moderate positive skew, with the curve having a longer tail to the right of the mean value, reflecting that more responses were scored slightly lower on this variable than might be the norm. This indicates that significant numbers of participants in this study do not classify their institutional leader as one who demonstrates characteristics of a passive avoidant leadership style. However, the skewness factor is still well within the range of normal distribution.

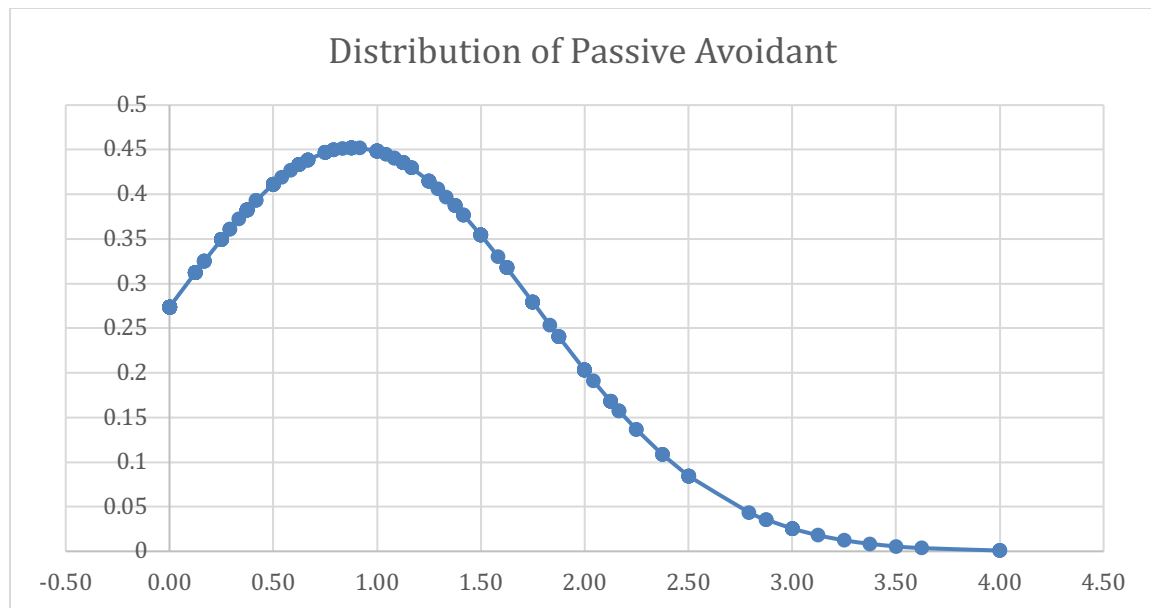


Figure 15. Distribution of Passive Avoidant.

Results of Hypothesis Testing

Each of the hypotheses that were proposed for this study contains multiple variables that must be examined in order to test each hypothesis. A Pearson's Coefficient for Correlation test (r value) was conducted to determine if, and what type (positive or negative) of an association existed among the various variables (Table 11).

Next, to determine if the relationship is statistically significant, not occurring by chance, the probability (p value) was calculated and, for the purposes of this study, must be less than 5% ($< .05$).

Finally, the Coefficient of Determination (r^2) was calculated to determine the effect size (the magnitude of the difference between two variables) of the relationship.

According to Gravetter and Wallnau (2013), the effect size is small if the value of r^2 is between 0.01–0.09, medium if r^2 is between 0.1–0.25, and large if r^2 is more than 0.25. For each hypothesis, the researcher has provided a restatement of the hypothesis, followed by a table providing the statistical analysis needed in order to accept or reject the hypothesis.

Table 11

Pearson r Correlation Coefficients for Variables

	<i>Bureaucratic</i>	<i>Innovative</i>	<i>Supportive</i>	<i>Valence</i>	<i>Personal Support</i>	<i>Appropriateness</i>	<i>Efficacy</i>	<i>Discrepancy</i>	<i>Transformational</i>	<i>Transactional</i>	<i>Passive-Avoidant</i>
Bureaucratic	1.000										
Innovative	0.246	1.000									
Supportive	-0.045	0.498	1.000								
Valence	-0.073	0.301	0.515	1.000							
Personal Support	-0.115	0.385	0.668	0.572	1.000						
Appropriateness	-0.151	0.302	0.608	0.735	0.737	1.000					
Efficacy	-0.055	0.301	0.595	0.674	0.699	0.752	1.000				
Discrepancy	-0.069	-0.098	-0.103	0.288	0.128	0.294	0.170	1.000			
Transformational	0.038	0.439	0.611	0.416	0.546	0.480	0.502	-0.037	1.000		
Transactional	0.057	0.332	0.247	0.202	0.241	0.201	0.209	-0.014	0.445	1.000	
Passive-Avoidant	0.017	-0.328	-0.472	-0.323	-0.460	-0.427	-0.442	0.178	-0.619	-0.142	1.000

H1: There is a significant positive correlation between an organization's culture, as measured by the OCI, and its president's leadership style, as measured by the MLQ.

Table 12

Statistics for Hypothesis 1

	Bureaucratic			Innovative			Supportive		
n =	392			373			360		
	Correlation Coefficient (r=)	p value	Effect Size (r ²)	Correlation Coefficient (r=)	p value	Effect Size (r ²)	Correlation Coefficient (r=)	p value	Effect Size (r ²)
Transformational	0.038	0.4556	0.001	0.439	<0.0001	0.193	0.611	<0.0001	0.373
Transactional	0.057	0.2730	0.003	0.332	<0.0001	0.110	0.247	<0.0001	0.061
Passive-Avoidant	0.017	0.7502	0.000	-0.328	<0.0001	0.108	-0.472	<0.0001	0.223

*p values calculated at <https://www.socscistatistics.com/pvalues/pearsondistribution.aspx>

Examining the nine relationships between organizational culture and leadership style, four have statistically significant positive relationship, two have significantly significant negative relationship, and three relationships are not statistically significant. The relationships are identified below:

- The relationship between Bureaucratic culture and Transformational leadership style is not statistically significant, ($r(390) = .038, p = .4556$).
- The relationship between Bureaucratic culture and Transactional leadership style is not statistically significant, ($r(390) = .057, p = .2730$).
- The relationship between Bureaucratic culture and Passive-Avoidant leadership style is not statistically significant, ($r(390) = .017, p = .7502$).
- There is a statistically significant positive relationship between Innovative culture and Transformational leadership style, ($r(371) = .439, p < .0001$), with

a medium effect size of $r^2 = .193$, meaning that about 19% of the Innovative culture variable is impacted by the Transformational leadership style variable.

- There is a statistically significant positive relationship between Innovative culture and Transactional leadership style, ($r(371) = .332, p < .0001$), with a medium effect size of $r^2 = .110$, meaning that about 11% of the Innovative culture variable is impacted by the Transactional leadership style variable.
- There is a statistically significant negative relationship between Innovative culture and Passive-Avoidant leadership style, ($r(371) = -.328, p < .0001$), with a medium effect size of $r^2 = .108$, meaning that about 10% of the Innovative culture variable is impacted by the Passive-Avoidant leadership style variable.
- There is a statistically significant positive relationship between Supportive culture and Transformational leadership style, ($r(358) = .611, p < .0001$), with a large effect size of $r^2 = .372$, meaning that about 37% of the Supportive culture variable is impacted by the Transformation leadership style variable.
- There is a statistically significant positive relationship between Supportive culture and Transactional leadership style, ($r(358) = .247, p < .0001$), with a medium effect size of $r^2 = .061$, meaning that about 6% of the Supportive culture variable is impacted by the Transactional leadership style variable.
- There is a statistically significant negative relationship between Supportive culture and Passive-Avoidant leadership style, ($r(358) = -.472, p < .0001$), with a medium effect size of $r^2 = .223$, meaning that about 22% of the

Supportive culture variable is impacted by the Passive-Avoidant leadership style variable.

Based on these findings, there is evidence to support the hypothesis that there is a significant positive correlation between an organization's culture, as measured by the OCI and its president's leadership style, as measured by the MLQ, within organizations whose culture is determined to be Innovative or Supportive and whose leadership style is classified as Transformational or Transactional. While there is a statistically significant relationship between Innovative and Supportive organizational cultures and the Passive-Avoidant leadership style, it is a negative relationship. The evidence does not support a significant positive correlation between an organization with a Bureaucratic culture and the president's leadership style, as measured by the MLQ.

H2: There is a significant positive correlation between an organization's culture, as measured by the OCI, and its change readiness, as measured by the OCRBS.

Table 13

Statistics for Hypothesis 2

	Bureaucratic			Innovative			Supportive		
n =	392			392			392		
	Correlation Coefficient (r=)	p value	Effect Size (r ²)	Correlation Coefficient (r=)	p value	Effect Size (r ²)	Correlation Coefficient (r=)	p value	Effect Size (r ²)
Valence	-0.073	0.1505	0.005	0.301	<0.0001	0.090	0.515	<0.0001	0.266
Personal Support	-0.115	0.0219	0.013	0.385	<0.0001	0.149	0.668	<0.0001	0.446
Appropriateness	-0.151	0.0026	0.023	0.302	<0.0001	0.091	0.608	<0.0001	0.369
Efficacy	-0.055	0.2787	0.003	0.301	<0.0001	0.090	0.595	<0.0001	0.355
Discrepancy	-0.069	0.1710	0.005	-0.098	0.0520	0.010	-0.103	0.0413	0.011

*p values calculated at <https://www.socscistatistics.com/pvalues/pearsondistribution.aspx>

Examining the 15 relationships between organizational culture and organizational change readiness belief scale, eight have statistically significant positive relationship, four have statistically significant negative relationship, and three relationships are not statistically significant. The relationships are identified below:

- The relationship between Bureaucratic culture and Valence is not statistically significant, ($r(390) = -.073, p = .1505$).
- There is a statistically significant negative relationship between Bureaucratic culture and Personal Support, ($r(390) = -.115, p < .05$), with a small effect size of $r^2 = .013$, meaning that only 1% of the Bureaucratic culture variable is impacted by the Personal Support change readiness variable.
- There is a statistically significant negative relationship between Bureaucratic culture and Appropriateness, ($r(390) = -.151, p < .05$), with a small effect size of $r^2 = .023$, meaning that only 2% of the Bureaucratic culture variable is impacted by the Appropriateness change readiness variable.
- The relationship between Bureaucratic culture and Efficacy is not statistically significant, ($r(390) = -.055, p = .2787$).
- The relationship between Bureaucratic culture and Discrepancy is not statistically significant, ($r(390) = -.069, p = .1710$).
- There is a statistically significant positive relationship between Innovative culture and Valence, ($r(390) = .301, p < .0001$), with a small effect size of $r^2 = .090$, meaning that about 9% of the Innovative culture variable is impacted by the Valence change readiness variable.

- There is a statistically significant statistically positive relationship between Innovative culture and Personal Support, ($r(390) = .385, p < .0001$), with a medium effect size of $r^2 = .149$, meaning that 15% of the Innovative culture variable is impacted by the Personal Support change readiness variable.
- There is a statistically significant positive relationship between Innovative culture and Appropriateness, ($r(390) = .302, p < .0001$), with a small effect size of $r^2 = .091$, meaning that about 9% of the Innovative culture variable is impacted by the Appropriateness change readiness variable.
- There is a statistically significant positive relationship between Innovative culture and Efficacy, ($r(390) = .301, p < .0001$), with a small effect size of $r^2 = .090$, meaning that about 9% of the Innovative culture variable is impacted by the Efficacy change readiness variable.
- There is a statistically significant negative relationship between Innovative culture and Discrepancy, ($r(390) = -.098, p = .0520$) with a small effect size of $r^2 = .010$, meaning that only 1% of the Innovative culture variable is impacted by the Discrepancy change readiness variable.
- There is a statistically significant positive relationship between Supportive culture and Valence, ($r(390) = .515, p < .0001$), with a large effect size of $r^2 = .266$, meaning that roughly 27% of the Supportive culture variable is impacted by the Valence change readiness variable.
- There is a statistically significant statistically positive relationship between Supportive culture and Personal Support, ($r(390) = .668, p < .0001$), with a

large effect size of $r^2 = .446$, meaning that nearly 45% of the Supportive culture variable is impacted by the Personal Support change readiness variable.

- There is a statistically significant positive relationship between Supportive culture and Appropriateness, ($r(390) = .608, p < .0001$), with a large effect size of $r^2 = .369$, meaning that 37% of the Supportive culture variable is impacted by the Appropriateness change readiness variable.
- There is a statistically significant positive relationship between Supportive culture and Efficacy, ($r(390) = .595, p < .0001$), with a large effect size of $r^2 = .355$, meaning that 35% of the Supportive culture variable is impacted by the Efficacy change readiness variable.
- There is a statistically significant negative relationship between Supportive culture and Discrepancy, ($r(390) = -.103, p < .05$), with a small effect size of $r^2 = .011$, meaning that only 1% of the Supportive culture variable is impacted by the Discrepancy change readiness variable.

Based on these findings, there is evidence to support the hypothesis that there is a significant positive correlation between an organization's culture, as measured by the OCI, and its change readiness, as measured by the OCRBS, within organizations whose culture is determined to be Innovative or Supportive, with the effect size strongest with the Supportive culture. The evidence does not support a significant positive correlation between an organization with a Bureaucratic culture and its change readiness, as

measured by the OCRBS. In fact, while this relationship is actually a negative correlation, it is not statistically significant.

H3: There is a significant positive correlation between an organization's leadership style, as measured by the MLQ, and its change readiness, as measured by the OCRBS.

Table 14

Statistics for Hypothesis 3

	Transformational			Transactional			Passive-Avoidant		
n =	392			373			360		
	Correlation Coefficient (r=)	p value	Effect Size (r ²)	Correlation Coefficient (r=)	p value	Effect Size (r ²)	Correlation Coefficient (r=)	p value	Effect Size (r ²)
Valence	0.416	<0.0001	0.173	0.202	<0.0001	0.041	-0.323	<0.0001	0.104
Personal Support	0.546	<0.0001	0.298	0.241	<0.0001	0.058	-0.460	<0.0001	0.212
Appropriateness	0.480	<0.0001	0.230	0.201	<0.0001	0.040	-0.427	<0.0001	0.183
Efficacy	0.502	<0.0001	0.252	0.209	<0.0001	0.044	-0.442	<0.0001	0.195
Discrepancy	-0.037	0.4588	0.001	-0.014	0.7825	0.000	0.178	0.0007	0.032

*p values calculated at <https://www.socscistatistics.com/pvalues/pearsondistribution.aspx>

Examining the 15 relationships between leadership style and organizational change readiness belief scale, nine have statistically significant positive relationship, four have significantly significant negative relationship, and two relationships are not statistically significant. The relationships are identified below:

- There is a statistically significant positive relationship between Transformational leadership style and Valence, ($r(390) = .416, p < .0001$), with a medium effect size of $r^2 = .173$, meaning that 17% of the Transformational leadership style variable is impacted by the Valence change readiness variable.

- There is a statistically significant positive relationship between Transformational leadership style and Personal Support, ($r(390) = .546, p < .0001$), with a large effect size of $r^2 = .298$, meaning that nearly 30% of the Transformational leadership style variable is impacted by the Personal Support change readiness variable.
- There is a statistically significant positive relationship between Transformational leadership style and Appropriateness, ($r(390) = .480, p < .0001$), with a medium effect size of $r^2 = .230$, meaning that 23% of the Transformational leadership style variable is impacted by the Appropriateness change readiness variable.
- There is a statistically significant positive relationship between Transformational leadership style and Efficacy, ($r(390) = .502, p < .0001$), with a large effect size of $r^2 = .252$, meaning that nearly 25% of the Transformational leadership style variable is impacted by the Efficacy change readiness variable.
- The relationship between Transformational leadership style and Discrepancy is not statistically significant, ($r(390) = -.037, p = .4588$).
- There is a statistically significant positive relationship between Transactional leadership style and Valence, ($r(371) = .202, p < .0001$), with a small effect size of $r^2 = .041$, meaning that only 4% of the Transactional leadership style variable is impacted by the Valence change readiness variable.

- There is a statistically significant positive relationship between Transactional leadership style and Personal Support, ($r(371) = .241, p < .0001$), with a small effect size of $r^2 = .058$, meaning that about 6% of the Transactional leadership style variable is impacted by the Personal Support change readiness variable.
- There is a statistically significant positive relationship between Transactional leadership style and Appropriateness, ($r(371) = .201, p < .0001$), with a small effect size of $r^2 = .040$, meaning that only 4% of the Transactional leadership style variable is impacted by the Appropriateness change readiness variable.
- There is a statistically significant positive relationship between Transactional leadership style and Efficacy, ($r(371) = .209, p < .0001$), with a small effect size of $r^2 = .044$, meaning that only 4% of the Transactional leadership style variable is impacted by the Efficacy change readiness variable.
- The relationship between Transactional leadership style and Discrepancy is not statistically significant, ($r(371) = -.014, p = .7825$).
- There is a statistically significant negative relationship between Passive-Avoidant leadership style and Valence, ($r(358) = -.323, p < .0001$), with a medium effect size of $r^2 = .104$, meaning that 10% of the Passive-Avoidant leadership style variable is impacted by the Valence change readiness variable.
- There is a statistically significant statistically negative relationship between Passive-Avoidant leadership style and Personal Support, ($r(358) = -.460, p <$

.0001) , with a medium effect size of $r^2 = .212$, meaning that 21% of the Passive-Avoidant leadership style variable is impacted by the Personal Support change readiness variable.

- There is a statistically significant negative relationship between Passive-Avoidant leadership style and Appropriateness, ($r(358) = -.427, p < .0001$) , with a medium effect size of $r^2 = .183$, meaning that 18% of the Passive-Avoidant leadership style variable is impacted by the Appropriateness change readiness variable.
- There is a statistically significant negative relationship between Passive-Avoidant leadership style and Efficacy, ($r(358) = -.442, p < .0001$), with a medium effect size of $r^2 = .195$, meaning that nearly 20% of the Passive-Avoidant leadership style variable is impacted by the Efficacy change readiness variable.
- There is a statistically significant positive relationship between Passive-Avoidant leadership style and Discrepancy, ($r(358) = .178, p < .05$) , with a small effect size of $r^2 = .032$, meaning that only 3% of the Passive-Avoidant leadership style variable is impacted by the Discrepancy change readiness variable.

Based on these findings, there is evidence to support the hypothesis that there is a significant positive correlation between an organization's leadership style, as measured by the MLQ, and its change readiness (with the exception of the Discrepancy variable, which is slightly negative), as measured by the OCRBS, within organizations whose

leadership is determined to be either Transformational or Transactional. However, while the evidence does support a correlation between leadership style of Passive-Avoidant and the organization's change readiness, as measured by the OCRBS, the relationship is overall a statistically significant negative one.

Additional Research

ANOVA testing. Since the scope of the research contained data by institution along with additional demographic data of role, length of employment at institution, duration of employment within the higher education industry, and the gender of the respondent, ANOVAs were conducted to determine if there were variations in the means of the components of leadership style, organizational culture and organizational change readiness belief scale and with which groups such differences occurred. Summaries of the null hypotheses, ANOVA data, and hypothetical outcomes are provided in Figures 16-21.

Figure 16 explores the variables involved in this study by institution. The ANOVA by institution affirmed the null hypothesis, that the means for the four participating institutions were equal, for only two of the 11 variables (Innovative organizational culture and Transformational leadership style). The null hypothesis for the remaining nine variables was rejected, meaning that significant variances exist between these groups. Therefore, post-hoc analysis was required to determine which groups demonstrated variance. The post-hoc results are discussed later and identified in Table 15.

Independent Variable:		Institution	
Dependent Variable:	Bureaucratic	Innovative	Supportive
Null Hypothesis:	The "bureaucratic" means for the 4 participating institutions are equal.	The "innovative" means for the 4 participating institutions are equal.	The "supportive" means for the 4 participating institutions are equal.
df:	3, 388	3, 388	3, 388
F value	3.945	0.522	10.673
p value	0.009	0.667	0.000
Result:	Rejected	Accepted	Rejected
Independent Variable:		Institution	
Dependent Variable:	Valence	Personal Support	Appropriateness
Null Hypothesis:	The "valence" means for the 4 participating institutions are equal.	The "personal support" means for the 4 participating institutions are	The "appropriateness" means for the 4 participating institutions are
df:	3, 388	3, 388	3, 388
F value	4.521	12.218	7.577
p value	0.004	0.000	0.000
Result:	Rejected	Rejected	Rejected
Independent Variable:		Institution	
Dependent Variable:	Efficacy	Discrepancy	
Null Hypothesis:	The "efficacy" means for the 4 participating institutions are equal.	The "discrepancy" means for the 4 participating institutions are equal.	
df:	3, 388	3, 388	
F value	9.525	11.711	
p value	0.000	0.000	
Result:	Rejected	Rejected	
Independent Variable:		Institution	
Dependent Variable:	Transformational	Transactional	Passive Avoidant
Null Hypothesis:	The "transformational" means for the 4 participating institutions are	The "transactional" means for the 4 participating institutions are equal.	The "passive avoidant" means for the 4 participating institutions are
df:	3, 388	3, 368	3, 356
F value	1.426	5.926	2.967
p value	0.235	0.001	0.032
Result:	Accepted	Rejected	Rejected

Figure 16. ANOVA based on institution.

Figure 17 explores the variables involved in this study by role of the respondent. The ANOVA by role rejected the null hypothesis for all 11 variables of this study, meaning that significant variances exist between the role classification groups for all variables. Therefore, post-hoc analysis was required to determine which groups

demonstrated variance for each variable. The post-hoc results are discussed later and identified in Table 15.

Independent Variable:		Role	
Dependent Variable:	Bureaucratic	Innovative	Supportive
Null Hypothesis:	The "bureaucratic" means for the 5 different roles are equal.	The "innovative" means for the 5 different roles are equal.	The "supportive" means for the 5 different roles are equal.
df:	4, 385	4, 385	4, 385
F value	2.662	10.107	8.798
p value	0.032	0.000	0.000
Result:	Rejected	Rejected	Rejected
Independent Variable:		Role	
Dependent Variable:	Valence	Personal Support	Appropriateness
Null Hypothesis:	The "valence" means for the 5 different roles are equal.	The "personal support" means for the 5 different roles are equal.	The "appropriateness" means for the 5 different roles are equal.
df:	4, 385	4, 385	4, 385
F value	5.629	10.787	12.252
p value	0.000	0.000	0.000
Result:	Rejected	Rejected	Rejected
Independent Variable:		Role	
Dependent Variable:	Efficacy	Discrepancy	
Null Hypothesis:	The "efficacy" means for the 5 different roles are equal.	The "discrepancy" means for the 5 different roles are equal.	
df:	4, 385	4, 385	
F value	4.888	5.104	
p value	0.001	0.001	
Result:	Rejected	Rejected	
Independent Variable:		Role	
Dependent Variable:	Transformational	Transactional	Passive Avoidant
Null Hypothesis:	The "transformational" means for the 5 different roles are equal.	The "transactional" means for the 5 different roles are equal.	The "passive avoidant" means for the 5 different roles are equal.
df:	4, 385	4, 366	4, 353
F value	13.859	9.064	3.367
p value	0.000	0.000	0.010
Result:	Rejected	Rejected	Rejected

Figure 17. ANOVA by role.

Figure 18 explores the variables involved in this study by years respondents have worked at their current institution. The ANOVA by years worked at current institution

affirmed the null hypothesis, that the means for all years worked were equal, for only two of the 11 variables (Bureaucratic organizational culture and Transactional leadership style). The null hypothesis for the remaining nine variables was rejected, meaning that significant variances exist between these groups. Therefore, post-hoc analysis was required to determine which groups demonstrated variance. The post-hoc results are discussed later and identified in Table 15.

Independent Variable:		Years Worked at Institution	
Dependent Variable:	Bureaucratic	Innovative	Supportive
Null Hypothesis:	The "bureaucratic" means based on years worked at the institution are equal.	The "innovative" means based on years worked at the institution are equal.	The "supportive" means based on years worked at the institution are equal.
df:	4, 384	4, 384	4, 384
F value	0.083	3.698	4.643
p value	0.988	0.006	0.001
Result:	Accepted	Rejected	Rejected
Independent Variable:		Years Worked at Institution	
Dependent Variable:	Valence	Personal Support	Appropriateness
Null Hypothesis:	The "valence" means based on years worked at the institution are equal.	The "personal support" means based on years worked at the institution are equal.	The "appropriateness" means based on years worked at the institution are equal.
df:	4, 384	4, 384	4, 384
F value	5.052	2.915	4.514
p value	0.001	0.021	0.001
Result:	Rejected	Rejected	Rejected
Independent Variable:		Years Worked at Institution	
Dependent Variable:	Efficacy	Discrepancy	
Null Hypothesis:	The "efficacy" means based on years worked at the institution are equal.	The "discrepancy" means based on years worked at the institution are equal.	
df:	4, 384	4, 384	
F value	4.708	2.556	
p value	0.001	0.039	
Result:	Rejected	Rejected	
Independent Variable:		Years Worked at Institution	
Dependent Variable:	Transformational	Transactional	Passive Avoidant
Null Hypothesis:	The "transformational" means based on years worked at the institution are equal.	The "transactional" means based on years worked at the institution are equal.	The "passive avoidant" means based on years worked at the institution are equal.
df:	4, 384	4, 365	4, 352
F value	6.182	2.360	3.628
p value	0.000	0.053	0.007
Result:	Rejected	Accepted	Rejected

Figure 18. ANOVA by years worked at institution.

Figure 19 explores the variables involved in this study by years respondents have worked in the field of higher education. The ANOVA by years worked in higher education affirmed the null hypothesis, that the means for all years worked were equal,

for four of the 11 variables (Bureaucratic organizational culture, Discrepancy change readiness variable, and both the Transactional and Passive-Avoidant leadership styles). The null hypothesis for the remaining seven variables was rejected, meaning that significant variances exist between these groups. Therefore, post-hoc analysis was required to determine which groups demonstrated variance. The post-hoc results are discussed later and identified in Table 15.

Independent Variable:		Years Worked in Higher Ed	
Dependent Variable:	Bureaucratic	Innovative	Supportive
Null Hypothesis:	The "bureaucratic" means based on years worked in higher education are equal.	The "innovative" means based on years worked in higher education are equal.	The "supportive" means based on years worked in higher education are equal.
df:	4, 383	4, 383	4, 383
F value	1.391	3.063	6.126
p value	0.236	0.017	0.000
Result:	Accepted	Rejected	Rejected
Independent Variable:		Years Worked in Higher Ed	
Dependent Variable:	Valence	Personal Support	Appropriateness
Null Hypothesis:	The "valence" means based on years worked in higher education	The "personal support" means based on years worked in higher	The "appropriateness" means based on years worked in higher education
df:	4, 383	4, 383	4, 383
F value	2.508	2.633	2.682
p value	0.042	0.034	0.031
Result:	Rejected	Rejected	Rejected
Independent Variable:		Years Worked in Higher Ed	
Dependent Variable:	Efficacy	Discrepancy	
Null Hypothesis:	The "efficacy" means based on years worked in higher education	The "discrepancy" means based on years worked in higher education	
df:	4, 383	4, 383	
F value	2.576	0.710	
p value	0.037	0.586	
Result:	Rejected	Accepted	
Independent Variable:		Years Worked in Higher Ed	
Dependent Variable:	Transformational	Transactional	Passive Avoidant
Null Hypothesis:	The "transformational" means based on years worked in higher	The "transactional" means based on years worked in higher education	The "passive avoidant" means based on years worked in higher
df:	4, 383	4, 365	4, 352
F value	4.614	2.155	2.310
p value	0.001	0.074	0.058
Result:	Rejected	Accepted	Accepted

Figure 19. ANOVA by years worked in higher education.

Figure 20 explores the variables involved in this study by the age group of respondents. The ANOVA by age group affirmed the null hypothesis, that the means for all age groups were equal, for eight of the 11 variables. The null hypothesis for the remaining three variables (Innovative organizational culture, Transformational leadership

style and Transactional leadership style) was rejected, meaning that significant variances exist between these groups. Therefore, post-hoc analysis was required to determine which groups demonstrated variance. The post-hoc results are discussed later and identified in Table 15.

Independent Variable: Age of Respondent			
Dependent Variable:	Bureaucratic	Innovative	Supportive
Null Hypothesis:	The "bureaucratic" means based on age are equal.	The "innovative" means based on age are equal.	The "supportive" means based on age are equal.
df:	5, 383	5, 383	5, 383
F value	1.535	4.251	1.227
p value	0.178	0.001	0.296
Result:	Accepted	Rejected	Accepted
Independent Variable: Age of Respondent			
Dependent Variable:	Valence	Personal Support	Appropriateness
Null Hypothesis:	The "valence" means based on age are equal.	The "personal support" means based on age are equal.	The "appropriateness" means based on age are equal.
df:	5, 383	5, 383	5, 383
F value	0.612	0.219	0.488
p value	0.691	0.954	0.785
Result:	Accepted	Accepted	Accepted
Independent Variable: Age of Respondent			
Dependent Variable:	Efficacy	Discrepancy	
Null Hypothesis:	The "efficacy" means based on age are equal.	The "discrepancy" means based on age are equal.	
df:	5, 383	5, 383	
F value	0.539	0.995	
p value	0.746	0.421	
Result:	Accepted	Accepted	
Independent Variable: Age of Respondent			
Dependent Variable:	Transformational	Transactional	Passive Avoidant
Null Hypothesis:	The "transformational" means based on age are equal.	The "transactional" means based on age are equal.	The "passive avoidant" means based on age are equal.
df:	5, 383	5, 364	5, 351
F value	2.640	2.664	0.915
p value	0.023	0.022	0.471
Result:	Rejected	Rejected	Accepted

Figure 20. ANOVA by age of respondent.

Figure 21 explores the variables involved in this study by gender of respondents. The ANOVA by gender affirmed the null hypothesis, that the means for all genders were equal, for five of the 11 variables (Valence and Efficacy change readiness variables, and all three of the leadership styles, Transformational, Transactional and Passive-Avoidant). The null hypothesis for the remaining six variables was rejected, meaning that significant variances exist between these groups. Therefore, post-hoc analysis was required to determine which groups demonstrated variance. The post-hoc results are discussed later and identified in Table 15.

Independent Variable:		Gender of Respondent	
Dependent Variable:	Bureaucratic	Innovative	Supportive
Null Hypothesis:	The "bureaucratic" means based on gender are equal.	The "innovative" means based on gender are equal.	The "supportive" means based on gender are equal.
df:	2, 389	2, 389	2, 389
F value	5.050	3.134	8.141
p value	0.007	0.045	0.000
Result:	Rejected	Rejected	Rejected
Independent Variable:		Gender of Respondent	
Dependent Variable:	Valence	Personal Support	Appropriateness
Null Hypothesis:	The "valence" means based on gender are equal.	The "personal support" means based on gender are equal.	The "appropriateness" means based on gender are equal.
df:	2, 389	2, 389	2, 389
F value	2.267	7.006	5.163
p value	0.105	0.001	0.006
Result:	Accepted	Rejected	Rejected
Independent Variable:		Gender of Respondent	
Dependent Variable:	Efficacy	Discrepancy	
Null Hypothesis:	The "efficacy" means based on gender are equal.	The "discrepancy" means based on gender are equal.	
df:	2, 389	2, 389	
F value	2.238	4.308	
p value	0.108	0.014	
Result:	Accepted	Rejected	
Independent Variable:		Gender of Respondent	
Dependent Variable:	Transformational	Transactional	Passive Avoidant
Null Hypothesis:	The "transformational" means based on gender are equal.	The "transactional" means based on gender are equal.	The "passive avoidant" means based on gender are equal.
df:	2, 389	2, 370	2, 357
F value	2.089	2.795	2.366
p value	0.125	0.062	0.095
Result:	Accepted	Accepted	Accepted

Figure 21. ANOVA by gender of respondent.

Post hoc testing. While the ANOVA testing provides insight into whether there is a difference between the means of variables of two or more groups, additional (post hoc) testing was completed to determine which pairings demonstrate difference. Post hoc testing is only necessary when the null hypothesis of the ANOVA has been rejected. While there are several commonly accepted post hoc tests in statistics, the researcher

selected the Tukey Procedure, also known as the Honest Significant Difference (HSD), as the method for determining which groups demonstrated difference. Table 15 provides a summary of the variable pairings determined to show an HSD. Of note:

- The organizational culture variables (Bureaucratic, Innovative, Supportive) show that significant differences exist between many groupings within this data. Most notably, the years worked in higher education, years worked at current institution and the role of respondents are identified.

- The variables of the organizational change readiness belief scale (Valence, Personal Support, Appropriateness, Efficacy, and Discrepancy) also show significant difference exist between years worked in higher education, years worked at current institution, role of respondents, and by institution.

Interestingly, post-hoc testing was not required for the organizational change readiness belief scale variables based on age of respondents, as the means of all age groups were determined to be equal based on the ANOVA. When age is often perceived to impact readiness for change, according to the data in this study, no such difference exists related to the variables identified using the OCRBS.

- Leadership style categories (Transformational, Transactional and Passive-Avoidant) had relative few groups with significant differences, meaning that most of the groups identified the associated variables for these categories in similar ways.

- Differences across nearly all 15 variables were identified between School B: School C and School B: School D.
- Differences between Trustees: Faculty and Faculty: Administrators also exist in most categories.
- The years worked in higher education and years worked at current institution appear to provide differing perspectives on many of the elements identified in this study.
- Interestingly, as noted above, age of respondents did not demonstrate a significant difference in this data, nor, for the most part, did gender or respondents.

Table 15

ANOVA Factors of Significance

	Bureaucratic	Innovative	Supportive	Valence	Personal Support	Appropriateness	Efficacy	Discrepancy	Transformational	Transactional	Passive Avoidant
	Female: Male Male: Other	Female: Other	Male: Other Female: Other		Male: Other Female: Other	Male: Other Female: Other		Male: Other Female: Other			
Gender											
Age		35-44: 65+ 45-54: 65+							35-44: 65+ 45-54: 65+	45-54: 65+	
Years in Higher Education		< 3 years: 3-5 years < 3 years: 6-10 years < 3 years: > 15 years 3-5 years: 6-10 years 6-10 years: 11-15 years 6-10 years: > 15 years	< 3 years: 6-10 years < 3 years: 11-15 years < 3 years: > 15 years 3-5 years: 6-10 years 3-5 years: 11-15 years 6-10 years: > 15 years	3-5 years: 6-10 years 6-10 years: > 15 years	3-5 years: 6-10 years 6-10 years: > 15 years	< 3 years: 6-10 years < 3 years: > 15 years 3-5 years: 6-10 years 6-10 years: > 15 years	3-5 years: 6-10 years 6-10 years: > 15 years		3-5 years: 6-10 years 6-10 years: > 15 years		
Years at Institution		< 3 years: 3-5 years < 3 years: 11-15 years 3-5 years: 6-10 years 3-5 years: 11-15 years 3-5 years: > 15 years 6-10 years: 11-15 years 11-15 years: > 15 years	< 3 years: 11-15 years 3-5 years: 6-10 years 3-5 years: 11-15 years 6-10 years: > 15 years 11-15 years: > 15 years	3-5 years: 6-10 years 6-10 years: > 15 years	< 3 years: 6-10 years 3-5 years: 6-10 years 6-10 years: > 15 years	< 3 years: 3-5 years < 3 years: 6-10 years < 3 years: 11-15 years < 3 years: > 15 years 3-5 years: 6-10 years 6-10 years: > 15 years	3-5 years: 6-10 years 6-10 years: > 15 years	3-5 years: 6-10 years 6-10 years: > 15 years	3-5 years: 6-10 years 6-10 years: > 15 years		3-5 years: 6-10 years 6-10 years: > 15 years
Role	Trustee: Faculty Trustee: Staff Trustee: Administrator Cabinet: Faculty Faculty: Administrator	Trustee: Cabinet Trustee: Faculty Trustee: Staff Cabinet: Faculty Faculty: Staff Faculty: Administrator Staff: Administrator	Trustee: Faculty Trustee: Staff Cabinet: Faculty Cabinet: Staff Cabinet: Administrator Faculty: Staff Faculty: Administrator	Trustee: Faculty Faculty: Administrator	Faculty: Administrator	Trustee: Faculty Trustee: Staff Trustee: Administrator Cabinet: Staff Faculty: Staff	Trustee: Faculty Trustee: Staff Faculty: Staff	Faculty: Administrator	Trustee: Faculty Trustee: Staff Faculty: Administrator	None	Faculty: Administrator
Institution	School A: School B School A: School C School A: School D School B: School C School B: School D School C: School D		School A: School C School A: School D School B: School C School B: School D	School A: School D School B: School C School B: School D	School B: School C School B: School D	School A: School C School B: School C School B: School D School C: School D	School A: School C School B: School C School B: School D	School A: School D School B: School C School B: School D		School B: School C School B: School D	School B: School C School B: School D

Summary

This study was conducted to examine the correlational relationships between leadership style, organizational culture, and organizational change readiness belief scale. Examining the various relational components within each hypothesis demonstrated there are statistically significant relationships between most of the variable combinations.

The descriptive data analysis using frequency testing and visual examination, demonstrated normal distribution of the data. Additional research using ANOVA was used to examine if any of the demographic based variables (independent variables) of institution, role, years worked at institution, years worked in higher education, age of respondent, or gender of respondent created variance to the dependent variables. The ANOVA results provide a foundation for future research opportunities in exploring the relationships where the null hypothesis was rejected, meaning there are variance in the dependent variable based on the independent variable. Specific areas of note include differences based on role, institution, years worked at institution, and years worked in higher education, whereas gender of respondent and age of respondent did not show as many variances.

Chapter 5

Discussion

This chapter provides a summary of the findings of this study as well as the strengths and limitations of the research project. Additionally, theoretical and practical implications are offered based on the study results. In conclusion, suggestions for future research are provided.

Educational leaders today desire to position their institution for missional success and viability for the future. The problem is that with several significant issues requiring institutions to adjust and change, leaders are often challenged by the organizational culture and traditions of higher education and the way their own leadership style may ready their institution for implementing the necessary change.

Given the current challenges facing higher education and the need to respond quickly and effectively to these significant challenges, this research study was conducted to explore three primary questions.

- Is there a relationship between an organization's culture and the leadership style of the president?

- Is there a relationship between an organization's culture and the change readiness of the organization?
- Is there a relationship between the leadership style of the organization's president and the organization's readiness for change?

While the degree of required change and the need for successful innovation efforts have never been greater, research tells us that the vast majority of change efforts fail (Choi & Behling, 1997; Kotter, 1995). Given such a poor history of successful organizational change, it is crucial that understanding how to lead for effective, innovative and rapid change must be shared with organizational leaders.

Summary of Findings

This study found evidence that there are statistically significant relationships between leadership style, organizational culture, and an organization's readiness for change. Since each hypothesis outlined in this study contained multiple variables, it is important to understand these details in summarizing the findings of each hypothesis.

Organizational culture and leadership style. Examining the nine relationships between organizational culture and leadership style, four have statistically significant positive relationship, two have significantly significant negative relationship, and three relationships are not statistically significant. Based on these findings, there is evidence to support the hypothesis that there is a significant positive correlation between an organization's culture, as measured by the OCI, and its president's leadership style, as measured by the MLQ, within organizations whose culture is determined to be Innovative or Supportive. The evidence does not support a significant positive correlation between

an organization with a Bureaucratic culture and the president's leadership style, as measured by the MLQ.

In studying these relationships further, the dynamics of these relationships become even more impactful. Both Innovative and Supportive organizational cultures reflect similar relationships with the leadership styles identified by the MLQ. In these cases, the strongest relationship exists with the Transformational leadership style. Interestingly, the relationship between a Supportive organizational culture and a Transformational leadership style showed the strongest statistically significant positive relationship, with a large effect size, followed closely by the Innovative culture and Transformation leadership style. While the Transactional leadership style is also positively related with both of these organizational cultures, the relationship is not as strong. The Passive-Avoidant leadership style, not surprisingly, was negatively related to both the Innovative and Supportive organizational cultures. While there is not a statistically significant relationship between the Bureaucratic culture and any of the tested leadership styles, this study still provides support to the idea that organizational culture and leadership style are related.

Organizational culture and organizational change readiness. Examining the 15 relationships between organizational culture and organizational change readiness belief scale, eight have statistically significant positive relationship, four have significantly significant negative relationship, and three relationships are not statistically significant. Based on these findings, there is evidence to support the hypothesis that there is a significant positive correlation between an organization's culture, as measured by the

OCI, and its change readiness, as measured by the OCRBS, within organizations whose culture is determined to be Innovative or Supportive. The evidence does not support a significant positive correlation between an organization with a Bureaucratic culture and its change readiness, as measured by the OCRBS.

In studying these relationships further, the dynamics of these relationships become even more impactful. A Supportive culture is most strongly and positively related to organizational change readiness values that demonstrate an institution's sense of ability to implement lasting change. This is supported by the fact that all five of these relationship variables have clear statistically significant relationships, with large effect size (the exception being an very small effect size for the negatively correlated relationship with Discrepancy). An Innovative culture is found to also align with a positive change readiness perspective but to a lesser degree, with four of the five variables showing a statistically significant relationship but with a small effect size. Not surprisingly, there is not a statistically significant relationship between the Bureaucratic culture and the organizational change readiness variables, with only two variables showing a negative relationship of statistical significance and with an insignificant effect size. Therefore, this study provides support to the idea that organizational culture and organizational change readiness are related.

Leadership style and organizational change readiness. Examining the 15 relationships between leadership style and organizational change readiness, nine have statistically significant positive relationship, four have significantly significant negative relationship, and two relationships are not statistically significant. Based on these

findings, there is evidence to support the hypothesis that there is a significant positive correlation between an organization's leadership style, as measured by the MLQ, and its change readiness, as measured by the OCRBS, within organizations whose leadership is determined to be either Transformational or Transactional. However, while the evidence does support a correlation between leadership style of Passive-Avoidant and the organization's change readiness, as measured by the OCRBS, the relationship is a statistically significant negative one.

In studying these relationships further, the dynamics of these relationships become even more impactful. A transformational leadership style is more strongly and positively related to organizational change readiness values that demonstrate an institution's sense of ability to implement lasting change. This is supported by the fact that all five of these relationship variables have clear statistically significant relationships, large effect size. A transactional leadership style is found to not have nearly the same level of impact, with four of the five variables showing a statistically significant relationship but with a small effect size. Not surprisingly, the Passive-Avoidant leadership style is negatively correlated to the organizational change readiness variables, and with a medium effect size. Therefore, this study provides support to the idea that leadership style and organizational change readiness are related.

The findings from this research support the theoretical notion that leadership style, organizational culture, and organizational change readiness are related and add to the theoretical and practical applications of organizational change leadership. In addition, this study also collected data to explore in more detail how specific

relationships might be affected based on other demographic variables. The results of this study provide significant data and opportunity for further research and insights into this field. Based on the ANOVA and Tukey Post Hoc tests included in this study, further research should be explored to understand the differences based on gender, age, role, and duration of employment both at the institution and within the field of higher education.

Study Strengths and Limitations

Key strengths of this study were the size of the sample population, the participation of the breadth of institutional employees and trustees, and the strength of the survey instruments selected for use in the research. Having a sample population of roughly 35% of the overall population provides a level of confidence in the findings. The demographics of the respondents also provide a good cross-section of the population, with a solid normal distribution to calculate findings and also enough data points to more closely examine specific groups within the population. The opportunity to include the trustee perspective is an added value to this study, as access to this population is usually carefully guarded.

Each of the three instruments identified for use in this study is also a strength. Each tool having been widely used and tested should allow for ease in comparing results of this study with prior and future research using these instruments. Also, the ease with which these instruments could be integrated and the scoring/categorizing into key variables allow for results to be calculated with efficiency and in a timely fashion.

While the intent of this study was to limit the participating institutions by geography (Oregon) and affiliation (CCCU), this could pose limitations to the findings.

The fact that each institution is aligned with certain shared religious tenets could have influence in the way organizational culture is formed, values shaped, and leadership styles interpreted or perceived. Since all four institutions are roughly within a 60-mile radius, they also share much in common based on geo-demographic and socio-political factors, pressures and opportunities. Do such factors impact each institution with similar weight or significance? Do such factors influence other higher education institutions differently or have more or less impact on shaping readiness for change, organizational culture, or leadership style?

Implications for Theory

Scholars have written extensively regarding the processes of organizational change, the necessary prerequisites for change, and the basis of resistance to change (Armenakis et al., 1999; Holt et al., 2007; Jansen, 2000; Weeks et al., 2004) as well as the readiness to engage and lean in to organizational change (Bernerth et al., 2007; Holt et al., 2007). Others have explored the relationship between leadership behaviors, particularly transformational leadership, and organizational change (Fisher, 2006; Herkness, 2005; Kull, 2003; Underdue Murph, 2005).

The results of this study support the theoretical concept that leadership style, organizational culture, and organizational change readiness values are interconnected. Specifically, that:

- A Transformational leadership style, coupled with a Supportive organizational culture, will more likely demonstrate organizational change readiness values that would implement change measures most effectively.

- A Transformational leadership style is more likely to facilitate organizational change readiness belief values in a positive direction.
- A Passive-avoidant leadership style is not likely to facilitate organizational change readiness belief values in a positive direction.
- A Passive-avoidant leadership style is negatively correlated with both an innovative and supportive organizational culture.
- Innovative or Supportive organizational cultures are more inclined to show positive change readiness belief values.
- A Bureaucratic organizational culture is more inclined to demonstrate negative change readiness belief values.

Implications for Practice

Institutions are complex groupings of people and ideas and develop organizational cultures and climates that are unique to them. Institutions of higher education have maintained significant elements of its culture and traditions, many of which date back to the middle ages and the establishment of the first universities in Europe. However, in the face of the significant issues facing higher education today, institutions and their leaders are evaluating what elements may need to change to remain viable for the future. Understanding the relationships that exist between the organizational culture, the leadership style of the president/executive officer, and the institution's readiness for change could have significant ramifications on the ways in which the organization evolves and flourishes or diminishes or survives.

While the degree of required change and the need for successful innovation efforts have never been greater, research tells us that the vast majority of change efforts fail (Choi & Behling, 1997; Kotter, 1995). Given such a poor history of successful organizational change, it is crucial that understanding how to lead for effective, innovative and rapid change must be shared with organizational leaders.

The results of this study demonstrate the relationships between leadership style, organizational culture, and organizational readiness for change. This study provides insights that are important for leaders, governing boards, institutional employees, and stakeholders to consider as they process the need for change. Specifically,

- Leaders need to understand how their organization understands/interprets their leadership style. The Transformational leadership style is most likely to lead change successfully. Passive-Avoidant leadership is unlikely to positively lead change.
- Supportive organizational cultures are in a stronger position to address and navigate change than Innovative or Bureaucratic cultures. In fact, Bureaucratic cultures are not likely to effectively navigate change. Of interest, an Innovative culture is not necessarily eager and ready to change.
- Change readiness is significantly impacted by the organizational culture and leadership style. How those two elements combine will affect how change is perceived, implemented and whether it succeeds or fails.

Future Research

The results of this study provide significant data and opportunity for further research and insights into this field. Based on the ANOVA and Tukey Post Hoc tests included in this study, further research should be explored to understand the differences based on gender, age, role, and duration of employment both at the institution and within the field of higher education. Gaining further insights into how specific groups within the broader organization view, understand, and process these topics could provide important and valuable perspective for the strategic planning and execution of change within the culture.

Replicating this study using different geographic parameters or institutional affiliations would be of great value, as the research questions and hypotheses of this study are not limited to the specific institutions included in this research. In fact, the pressures facing higher education institutions across the country could bring different perspectives to these questions.

The elements of leadership style, organizational culture and organizational change readiness are not limited to the context of higher education either. Other non-profit sectors and even corporate and governmental agencies would be well served by exploring if and to what extent these relationships exist and impact those spaces.

Other questions that would be interesting to consider would be related to how leadership style is developed. Where do leaders come from? Are the cultures and values of their personal and professional career in harmony with or create potential conflict with the organizational cultures they are asked to lead? How are organizational cultures

shaped by or contrary to local, regional cultures? Are there organizational culture industrial norms in different sectors and to what extent does that shape and industry's readiness for change? Significant research opportunities exist at both a micro and a macro level in understanding the interplay of leadership style, organizational culture and organizational change readiness.

Summary

Organizational and institutional leaders today are facing significant challenges and pressures to adapt in an ever-changing environment (Kouzes & Pozner, 2007). How educational leaders guide their institutions through these challenges and opportunities will determine if and how these organizations survive and are positioned for mission fulfillment, sustainability and viability for the future. Successful leaders understand the change process and anticipate opportunities to lead organizations towards a positive outcome. "Organizational behavior recognizes that organizations are dynamic and always changing" (Greenberg & Baron, 2003, p. 8). Understanding the leadership style of the president, the organizational culture of the institution, and the potential impact of these variables on the readiness for change in the organization could have important ramifications for the future of the institution.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Participation encouraged in research study

INSTITUTION is participating in a research study titled, Leading Change: Examining the relationships between leadership style, organizational culture and change readiness in Christian universities, and your input is requested. <<LINK TO SURVEY>> The survey will likely take between 12-15 minutes of your time. All employees are encouraged to submit feedback to this study, although participation is completely voluntary. All data will be reported by institution, in the aggregate. All responses will remain anonymous.

<<LINK TO SURVEY>>

Please complete the survey by April 1.

Project Details:

This research project explores current literature surrounding key components of leading change in the context of higher education. Current issues impacting higher education and driving the need for change are examined and concepts related to understanding organizational culture, leadership style and change readiness are discussed. Using the context of the Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCU) located in the Pacific Northwest, this study incorporates three instruments, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass and Avolio, 2004), the Organizational Culture Index (Wallach, 1983) and the Organizational Change Recipients' Belief Scale (Bernerth, Armenakis, Pitts & Walker, 2007), to examine the relationships between leadership style, organizational culture and institutional change readiness.

To participate in the study, please complete the survey at <<LINK TO SURVEY>>.

Appendix B

Reminder: Participation encouraged in research study

This is a reminder that INSTITUTION is participating in a research study titled, Leading Change: Examining the relationships between leadership style, organizational culture and change readiness in Christian universities. If you have not yet completed the survey, your input is requested. [LINK TO SURVEY](#) The survey will likely take between 12-15 minutes of your time. All employees are encouraged to submit feedback to this study, although participation is completely voluntary. All data will be reported by institution, in the aggregate. All responses will remain anonymous.

[Start the survey](#)

Please complete the survey by April 1.

Thank you.

Appendix C

FINAL CALL: Participation encouraged in research study

This is a final reminder that INSTITUTION is participating in a research study titled, Leading Change: Examining the relationships between leadership style, organizational culture and change readiness in Christian universities. If you have not yet responded, please take 15-20 minutes to do so now. <<LINK TO SURVEY>> All employees and trustees are encouraged to submit feedback to this study, although participation is completely voluntary. All data will be reported by institution, in the aggregate. All responses will remain anonymous.

<<LINK TO SURVEY>>

Please complete the survey by April 1.

Thank you.

Appendix D

Copyright Clearance for Organizational Change Recipients' Beliefs Scale



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Title: Organizational Change Recipients' Beliefs Scale

Author: Achilles A. Armenakis, Jeremy B. Bernerth, Jennifer P. Pitts, et al

Publication: Journal of Applied Behavioral Science

Publisher: SAGE Publications

Date: 12/01/2007

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August 28, 2018

Appendix E

Warner Pacific University Agreement to Participate

Agreement to Participate in Doctoral Research Study

As President of Warner Pacific University, I am willing to have our institution participate in the doctoral research study being conducted by Dale Seipp, Jr. As a participating institution, we will either (select one):

- ☐ Provide the email addresses of our faculty, staff and trustees for the researcher to strictly use for conducting this study, with contact to be limited to 3 emails (initial invitation and two follow up requests).
- ☐ Ask the researcher to provide us a link to the online survey instrument, which we will promote to our faculty, staff and trustees, and commit to 3 announcement emails (initial invitation and two reminders to encourage participation).

It is understood that the research will be concluded by April ³⁰1, 2019.

Please work with the contact person below to facilitate our participation in this study.

Contact Name: Joy Howard
Email Address: jhoward@warnerpacific
Phone Number: 503-517-1212

Signature: Andrea Cook Date: 3/22/19

President Andrea Cook
Warner Pacific University

Appendix F

Northwest Christian University Agreement to Participate

Agreement to Participate in Doctoral Research Study


As President of Northwest Christian University, I am willing to have our institution participate in the doctoral research study being conducted by Dale Seipp, Jr. As a participating institution, we will either (select one):

- ☐ Provide the email addresses of our faculty, staff and trustees for the researcher to strictly use for conducting this study, with contact to be limited to 3 emails (initial invitation and two follow up requests).
- ☒ Ask the researcher to provide us a link to the online survey instrument, which we will promote to our faculty, staff and trustees, and commit to 3 announcement emails (initial invitation and two reminders to encourage participation).

It is understood that the research will be concluded by April 1, 2019.

Please work with the contact person below to facilitate our participation in this study.

Contact Name: Jennifer Box (Assistant to the President)
Email Address: jbox@nwc.edu
Phone Number: 541.684.7241

Signature:  Date: 2/19/19

President Joseph Womack
Northwest Christian University

Appendix G

George Fox University Agreement to Participate

Agreement to Participate in Doctoral Research Study

~~As President~~ ^{Provost} of George Fox University, I am willing to have our institution participate in the doctoral research study being conducted by Dale Seipp, Jr. As a participating institution, we will either (select one):

- ☐ Provide the email addresses of our faculty, staff and trustees for the researcher to strictly use for conducting this study, with contact to be limited to 3 emails (initial invitation and two follow up requests).
- ☒ Ask the researcher to provide us a link to the online survey instrument, which we will promote to our faculty, staff and trustees, and commit to 3 announcement emails (initial invitation and two reminders to encourage participation).

It is understood that the research will be concluded by April 1, 2019.

Please work with the contact person below to facilitate our participation in this study.

Contact Name: Linda Samek
Email Address: Lsamek@georgefox.edu
Phone Number: 503-554-2142

Signature: Linda Samek Date: 2-26-19
Provost

~~President Robin Baker~~
George Fox University

Appendix H

Corban University Agreement to Participate

10/1/2019

Gmail - HSR Approval



Dale Seipp <dale.seipp@gmail.com>

HSR Approval

1 message

Comstock, Sarah <SComstock@corban.edu>
To: Dale Seipp <dale.seipp@gmail.com>
Cc: "Roth, Brenda" <BRoth@corban.edu>, "Squires, Felicia" <FSquires@corban.edu>

Wed, Mar 13, 2019 at 9:57 PM

Dear Mr. Seipp,

Thank you for your HSR application # 2019-03-03A "Leading Change" I am writing to inform you officially of the approval of your proposed project by Human Subjects Research Committee (HSRC) at Corban University. It is the Committee's opinion that you have provided adequate safeguards for the rights and welfare of the participants in this study. This project must be conducted in full accordance with HSRC policies under the supervision of your instructor Professor Crowell.

Your team is authorized to implement this study as of March 13th, 2019; this approval is valid for 365 days. Should your project continue beyond this period, you are required to apply to the HSRC for continuing review before March 12th, 2020. You should notify the HSRC immediately if any unanticipated or adverse effects occur during the research period. All modifications to the research protocol, including changes to materials and recruitment methods, must be reported to the HSRC before the research project can continue.

Thanks,


Dr. Comstock

Sarah M. Comstock, PhD.
Associate Professor of Biology


CORBAN UNIVERSITY
5000 Deer Park Drive SE
Salem, Oregon 97317-9392
503-375-7185
scomstock@corban.edu

Appendix I

Survey Instrument

 DBA Dissertation Survey (Warner Pacific University)

This survey is part of a doctoral dissertation research project being completed through the Doctor of Business Administration (DBA) program at George Fox University. The project is examining the relationships between organizational culture, organizational change and leadership style of the president. The survey should take 12-15 minutes to complete and the responses you provide will be kept confidential and only be reported in the aggregate.

 DBA Dissertation Survey (Warner Pacific University)

Demographics

Which group best defines your role at the institution?

<input type="radio"/> Trustee	<input type="radio"/> Staff
<input type="radio"/> Executive Cabinet	<input type="radio"/> Administrator
<input type="radio"/> Faculty	

How long have you worked for your institution?


How long have you worked in higher education?


What is your age

<input type="radio"/> 18-24	<input type="radio"/> 45-54
<input type="radio"/> 25-34	<input type="radio"/> 55-64
<input type="radio"/> 35-44	<input type="radio"/> 65+

What is your gender?

<input type="radio"/> Female
<input type="radio"/> Male
<input type="radio"/> Other (please specify)

 DBA Dissertation Survey (Warner Pacific University)				
Organizational Culture				
How do the following words describe your institution?				
	Does not describe my institution	Describes my institution a little	Describes my institution a fair amount	Describes my institution most of the time
risk taking	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
collaborative	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
hierarchical	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
procedural	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
relationships-oriented	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
results oriented	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
creative	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
encouraging	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
sociable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
structured	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
pressurized	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
ordered	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>


 DBA Dissertation Survey (Warner Pacific University)				
How do the following words describe your institution?				
	Does not describe my institution	Describes my institution a little	Describes my institution a fair amount	Describes my institution most of the time
stimulating	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
regulated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
personal freedom	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
equitable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
safe	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
challenging	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
enterprising	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
established, solid	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
cautious	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
trusting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
driving	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
power-oriented	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]



DBA Dissertation Survey (Warner Pacific University)

Leadership Style

This portion of the questionnaire is used to describe the leadership style of the institutional president as you perceive them. If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.


The president of my institution...

	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Fails to interfere until problems become serious	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Avoids getting involved when important issues arise .	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

 DBA Dissertation Survey (Warner Pacific University)


The president of my institution...

	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
Talks about his/her most important values and beliefs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is absent when needed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Talks optimistically about the future	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

 DBA Dissertation Survey (Warner Pacific University)


The president of my institution...

	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Waits for things to go wrong before taking action	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Spends time teaching and coaching	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

 DBA Dissertation Survey (Warner Pacific University)

The president of my institution...


	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Shows they she/he is a firm believer in "if it ain't broke, don't fix it"	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

 DBA Dissertation Survey (Warner Pacific University)

The president of my institution...

	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Shows they she/he is a firm believer in "if it ain't broke, don't fix it"	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

wip DBA Dissertation Survey (Warner Pacific University)					
The president of my institution...					
	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
Acts in ways that builds my respect	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Keeps track of all mistakes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Displays a sense of power and confidence	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>


 DBA Dissertation Survey (Warner Pacific University)

The president of my institution...

	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
Articulates a compelling vision of the future	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Directs my attention toward failures to meet standards	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Avoids making decisions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Gets me to look at problems from many different angles	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

wip DBA Dissertation Survey (Warner Pacific University)					
The president of my institution...					
	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
Helps me develop my strengths	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Delays responding to urgent questions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

wip DBA Dissertation Survey (Warner Pacific University)					
The president of my institution...					
	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is effective in meeting my job-related needs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Uses methods of leadership that are satisfying	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Gets me to do more than I expected to do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is effective in representing me to higher authority	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

 DBA Dissertation Survey (Warner Pacific University)					
The president of my institution...					
	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
Works with me in a satisfactory way	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Heightens my desire to succeed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is effective in meeting organizational requirements	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Increases my willingness to try harder	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Leads a group that is effective	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>