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A Mixed- Methods Study Investigating the Perceptions of Culture Among Faculty, Staff,
Adjunct Instructors, and Administrators in a Four-Year, Private, Midwestern University

by

Amanda J. Price

A Dissertation submitted to the Education Faculty of Lindenwood University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree of
Doctor of Education
School of Education

A Mixed- Methods Study Investigating the Perceptions of Culture Among Faculty, Staff,
Adjunct Instructors, and Administrators in a Four-Year, Private, Midwestern University

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Amanda J. Price

This dissertation has been approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree of
Doctor of Education
at Lindenwood University by the School of Education

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Declaration of Originality

I do hereby declare and attest to the fact that this is an original study based solely upon my own scholarly work here at Lindenwood University and that I have not submitted it for any other college or university course or degree here or elsewhere.

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computer. Additionally, my parents would help with picking up the girls on school nights and taking them on weekends so I could focus. They were supportive throughout this entire process. I will be forever grateful that I had such a wonderful support system!

Abstract

This mixed-methods study investigated the different perspectives between faculty, staff, adjunct instructors, and administrators utilizing the Competing Values Framework developed by Cameron & Quinn (2011). The quantitative portion of this study analyzed how each employee type viewed the institution's current culture and how these perceptions were similar or dissimilar to the preferred culture. The qualitative portion, on the other hand, aimed at understanding each group's viewpoints on the university's ability to achieve its mission and purpose, adapt and change, clearly communicate, and to effectively lead. These insights were necessary for the researcher to gain insight into the institution's culture beyond the scores derived from the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI).

The results from this study revealed the perceptions of the current and preferred cultural assessments were not significantly different between the various employee types. The qualitative data, however, revealed that the institution was in a state of transition and there was an overall lack of consensus between employees on the mission, purpose, and future direction of the institution. These underlying issues were hindering the institution's ability to successfully drive change. The results from this study highlighted difficulties faced in change management strategies and agreement in cultural assessments did not equate to agreement in driving changes.

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Chapter One: Introduction

Overview

The current economic conditions and societal expectations have influenced the fundamental values of higher education, leading to significant transformations with the students, faculty, governance, and major functions within the institution (Logan & Curry, 2015; Zusman, 2005). These transformations arose in response to rising costs, soaring debt, and decreasing enrollments (Supplee, 2014). Successful deployment of strategies aimed at addressing these challenges was useless without proper management of the institution's core relationships. Organizations could not capitalize on strategies, thrive, or grow without diligent management of all internal relationships (Schein, 2010).

All employees within the higher education institution played a critical and central role in carrying out the mission (Kuo, 2009). However, though faculty and administrators possess similar overall values, they differed significantly in how they responded to issues. Kendig (2013) pointed to cultural diversity as the main source of conflict in investigating and responding to institutional issues. On average, institutions possessed 50 or more different departments (Lee, 2007). Each of these departments was highly independent and often influenced more by the discipline than the institution (Tierney, 2008). The various backgrounds and knowledge bases found within these disciplines had the potential to create conflict, as they did not share similar experiences or opinions (Chatman, Polzer, Barsade, & Neale, 1998.)

This study investigated the different perspectives in values, beliefs, norms, and basic assumptions between faculty, staff, adjuncts, and administrators. Utilizing the Competing Values Framework developed by Cameron & Quinn (2011), the researcher

sought to understand how each employee type viewed the institution's current culture and how these perceptions were similar or dissimilar to the preferred culture. This study added to the existing literature by including the perspectives of staff, a group largely underrepresented in cultural studies (Graham, 2012; Locke, 2010; Whitchurch, 2008;), as well as those of adjunct instructors where the focus of research had been primarily on inadequate working conditions (Fagan-Wilen et al, 2006; Fulton, 2000; Kezar & Gehrke; 2014; Martinez & Martinez; 2019).

Background of the Problem

Over the past several years, public and private, two-year and four-year institutions have experienced rising costs, soaring debt, and decreasing enrollments (Supplee, 2014). For tuition-dependent institutions, decreasing enrollments have caused serious financial issues. As enrollments declined, colleges and universities struggled to build or maintain facilities, provide employee raises, or invest in academic programs (Holley & Harris, 2010). As endowments, investments, and private donations dwindled, institutions responded by reducing budgets. Colleges and universities began to review human and capital resources, combine existing resources where possible, and change marketing strategies (Platt, Chestnut, McGee, & Song, 2017). Additionally, colleges and universities reduced budgets by freezing salaries, leaving positions unfilled, providing minimal salary increases if any, laying off employees, and even cutting salaries and benefits (Chabotar, 2010).

As institutions grappled with the economic constraints placed upon them, students, in response, became academic shoppers (Paulsen, 1990). They spent more time determining if they wanted to attend college and were more selective on where to attend

and in what programs to enroll. Both parents and students started to avoid programs lacking in distinction. Meotti (2016) noted that though public-opinion polls continued to see value in earning a degree, there was a strong belief that higher education was no longer affordable. Overall, these polls reported a high level of dissatisfaction with the current status of higher education.

The profound challenges that stood before higher education institutions mandated both internal and external changes (Zusman, 2005). Many stated the current economic conditions and societal expectations had affected the fundamental values of higher education, leading to significant transformations with the students, the faculty, the governance structure, and within the major functions of the institution (Logan & Curry, 2015; Zusman, 2005). Institutions struggled to find a way to provide affordable and accessible education to all students while simultaneously reducing budgets and ensuring quality programs to prepare students for work and life (Pernsteiner & Martin, 2016). As institutions implemented changes, numerous criticisms rang out claiming there was administrative bloat (Carlson, 2014) and the “death of the liberal arts” programs (Logan & Curry, 2015).

Institutional leaders were becoming increasingly aware of how their cultures and subcultures were able to reduce conflict and uphold the mission and goals. As a result, managers began to focus on institutional culture as a means for promoting high performance, implementing change, and ensuring both the mission and strategic goals were met (Sinclair, 1993). Leaders began to realize that culture was a strong influencer on how employees behaved, what attitudes they carried, and how they made decisions (Berquist & Pawlak, 2008; Ledimo, 2013; Schein, 2010). Though administrators

recognized the importance culture played in making decisions, most only had an intuitive grasp on its conditions and influences (Tierney, 2008). Often it was only when either the codes or conventions were broken or tested that institutional leaders were reminded and felt the power of culture.

Though there have been numerous studies conducted over the past 30 years analyzing organizational culture, there has been a lack of cultural research conducted in higher education (Tierney, 2008). Those who have applied organizational theory to postsecondary educational institutions focused on increasing performance (Ibrahim, Mahmood & Bakar, 2016), implementing change strategies (Hogan, 2004; Kezar & Eckel, 2002), or embedding quality control (Ntim, 2014). Those studies that focused on the various perceptions held within higher education tended only to analyze the relationship between faculty and administrators (Foster, 2007; Heidrich & Chandler, 2015). Though culture, history, and traditions united employees, there were usually multiple realities present within a higher education institution (Manning, 2017). These studies failed to account for staff and adjunct perceptions, which represent a significant population.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the different perceptions of culture among faculty, staff, adjunct instructors, and administrators within a four-year higher education institution. Employee types included: (a) administrators who consisted of vice presidents, assistant and associate vice presidents, provost, assistant and associate provosts, deans, and other positions that reported directly to the president; (b) faculty consisting of assistant, associate, and full professors; (c) staff consisting of all non-

academic employees not in administrative roles; (d) adjunct instructors who were part-time and hired on a per term basis. This study compared the perceptions of the current and preferred culture from each employee type as well as analyzed how these different perceptions related to the institution's culture.

Utilizing the Competing Values Framework, the researcher sought to understand how each employee type viewed the institution's current culture (now) and how these perceptions were similar or dissimilar to the preferred culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). This framework organized culture into two dimensions and four quadrants. The two dimensions describe the organization's effectiveness in either being a) adaptable, flexible, and organic or b) stable, in control, and predictable. Together, these two dimensions formed the basis of the four quadrants or cultural types described as clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market.

The Organizational Cultural Assessment Instrument (OCAI) turned the Competing Values Framework into a useful diagnostic tool (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Participants rated their institution based on how closely the current culture aligned to the stated values used to describe each quadrant. Participants also evaluated and rated the institution based on what culture type was preferred. These quadrants represented the values and opinions of the institution's culture and demonstrated that competing values existed among the different employee types.

In Berquist and Pawlak's higher education cultural theory, modern colleges and universities carried up to six different cultures at one time (2008). Though institutions usually had one dominant culture, the others were always present to a certain degree. Aspects of each of these cultures supported values that seemed to compete or be at odds

with the other cultural types. Recognizing that the institutional culture created the basis for which an employee's purpose (Schein, 2010), the existence of different cultures that existed within the same institution could often be a source of conflict and tension (Berquist & Pawlak, 2008).

Participants also completed an open-ended, online survey questionnaire to supplement the OCAI tool and to gain a deeper perspective into the beliefs, values, and opinions of the employees. Areas explored were the institution's purpose, leadership, ability to adapt and change, and overall ability to communicate. This portion of the study provided insight into identifying where competing values might exist between the various employee types. This study also analyzed how closely the feedback gathered aligned with the cultural preferences stated in the OCAI tool.

Significance of the Study

Numerous studies analyzed organizational culture, but few studies have addressed culture within higher education. Those studies that examined the different perspectives in higher education chose to focus on the differences between administrators and faculty (Foster, 2007; Heidrich & Chandler, 2015; Kendig, 2013; Warren, 2008). This study added to the existing literature by adding the perspectives of staff as well as adjunct instructors. Since administrators manage portions of the institution, their viewpoints were important to understand; however, staff carry out the day-to-day business functions and were instrumental in creating and sustaining the institution's culture (Locke, 2010). Similarly, adjunct instructors also played a critical role in any higher education institution. With colleges and universities hiring significant levels of part-time faculty, this employee type needed to be examined and considered (Fulton, 2000).

The present study contributed to the current literature by including the viewpoints of staff and adjunct instructors. Staff referred to non-academic positions responsible for carrying out key functions of the institution (Locke, 2010; Skaggs, 2015). Though there were many labels associated with staff positions - non-academics, general staff, professional staff, support staff – this study analyzed the perceptions of this group collectively and did not distinguish between levels or types (Graham, 2012; Skaggs, 2015). Adjuncts, on the other hand, included as part-time, non-tenure-track instructors paid per course and, in general, not guaranteed employment beyond the current term (Hudd, Apgar, Bronson, & Lee, 2009).

These two employee types were highly important to consider as both serve important roles on a college campus (Fulton, 2000; Locke, 2010; Skaggs, 2015). Staff, for example, fulfilled numerous roles in areas such as finance, facilities, information technology, human resources, business office, and student affairs (Locke, 2010; Skaggs, 2015). Many also served as general managers or specialists to academic schools overseeing accreditation qualifications, assisting with research, completing audits, and managing finance and human resource responsibilities (Whitchurch, 2008). Due to their roles, these employees held much of the systemic knowledge and controlled a majority of the intellectual capital within the institution (Graham, 2012).

Adjuncts, on the other hand, were part-time instructors employed to help teach the courses offered on a college campus (Fulton, 2000; Hudd et al., 2009). The use of non-tenured faculty positions represented nearly 70% of all faculty (Martinez & Martinez, 2019), and part-time adjunct instructors filled 40% of these positions. These facts highlight the significance this group had within the university setting. Much of the

research related to adjunct instructors focused on the working conditions; however, this study concentrated on analyzing this group's perceptions of the overall institutional culture.

Research Questions

The intent of this mixed-methods study was to identify whether the perceptions of institutional culture held by samples of each employee type (administrator, faculty, staff, and adjunct instructors) were independent of one another or closely related. Culture, as noted by Sinclair (1993), was comprised of many deeply rooted elements. These elements, as defined by Cameron & Quinn (2011), consisted of implicit assumptions, conscious contracts and norms, artifacts, and explicit behaviors. The examination of the espoused values and beliefs held by various employee types helped to understand the perceptions of the institution's environment, purpose, adaptability, and impact of leadership. The qualitative investigation developed several research questions founded upon reliable and valid cultural theories. These questions were:

RQ1: How do the various employee types describe the university's purpose/intent?

RQ2: How do the various employee types describe the university's ability to adapt and/or change?

RQ3: How do the various employee types describe the university's ability to share and disseminate information?

RQ4: How do the various employee types describe the institution's leadership?

Hypothesis

This study had eight null hypotheses. The null hypothesis stated there was no difference between the two parameters (Bluman, 2019). The hypotheses were as follows:

H₀₁: There is no difference in the perceptions of the now “clan culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{01a}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “clan culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the now “clan culture.”

H_{01b}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “clan culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the now “clan culture.”

H_{01c}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “clan culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the now “clan culture.”

H_{01d}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “clan culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the now “clan culture.”

H₀₂: There is no difference in the perceptions of the now “adhocracy culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{02a}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the now “adhocracy culture.”

H_{02b}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the now “adhocracy culture.”

H_{02c}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the now “adhocracy culture.”

H_{02d}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the now “adhocracy culture.”

H₀₃: There is no difference in the perceptions of the now “market culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{03a}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “market culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the now “market culture.”

H_{03b}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “market culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the now “market culture.”

H_{03c}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “market culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the now “market culture.”

H_{03d}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “market culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the now “market culture.”

H₀₄: There is no difference in the perceptions of the now “hierarchy culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{04a}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the now “hierarchy culture.”

H_{04b}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the now “hierarchy culture.”

H_{04c}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the now “hierarchy culture.”

H_{04d}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the now “hierarchy culture.”

H₀₅: There is no difference in the perceptions of the preferred “clan culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{05a}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “clan culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the preferred “clan culture.”

H_{05b}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “clan culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the preferred “clan culture.”

H_{05c}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “clan culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the preferred “clan culture.”

H_{05d}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “clan culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the preferred “clan culture.”

H₀₆: There is no difference in the perceptions of the preferred “adhocracy culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{06a}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture.”

H_{06b}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture.”

H_{06c}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture.”

H_{06d}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture.”

H₀₇: There is no difference in the perceptions of the preferred “market culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{07a}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “market culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the preferred “market culture.”

H_{07b}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “market culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the preferred “market culture.”

H_{07c}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “market culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the preferred “market culture.”

H_{07d}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “market culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the preferred “market culture.”

H₀₈: There is no difference in the perceptions of the preferred “hierarchy culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{08a}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture.”

H_{08b}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture.”

H_{08c}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture.”

H_{08d}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture.”

Definition of Terms

Though organizational culture has become increasingly popular, there were differing opinions among experts as to what culture consisted of, which caused various definitions to emerge. This study utilized Schein’s definition, which described culture as being:

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 (2010, p. 18).

It is important to note that *basic assumptions*, in this definition, referred to the solution developed to a problem that repeatedly worked over a period of time and became taken-for-granted (Schein, 2010).

In discussing culture, it was important to understand what the term values meant. *Values*, for this study, referred to the essence of the institution’s philosophy for achieving success. (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Values, in this sense, provided a common direction for how day-to-day work was completed and taught to different groups of people.

This study analyzed culture using the Competing Values Framework developed by Cameron and Quinn (2011). Cameron and Quinn’s (2011) Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) analyzed culture based on four competing types - clan, market, hierarchy, and adhocracy. The *clan culture* described the work environment as

being “a place where people share a lot about themselves” (p. 75). This culture tended to value relationships and emphasized the long-term development of its people. The *market culture* tended to focus on results. People in this culture were more competitive and goal-oriented, and leaders were “hard drivers, producers, and competitors” (p.75). The third culture, referred to as the *hierarchy culture*, described a formalized and structured way of conducting business. Leaders in this culture were “good coordinators and organizers, who were efficiency-minded” (p.75). In this culture, stability and performance were the long-term goals. The last culture in Cameron and Quinn’s model was *adhocracy*. This culture valued being creative and entrepreneurial. Leaders were “innovators and the glue holding the organization together” (p. 75). The long-term focus in an adhocracy culture was always on growth and acquiring new resources.

This study analyzed the four types of culture among four main employee types commonly seen in higher education institutions. These employee types were – administrators, faculty, staff, and adjunct instructors. *Administrators*, in this study, consisted of vice presidents, assistant and associate vice presidents, provost, assistant and associate provosts, deans, and other positions that reported directly to the president. These positions were responsible for managing large components of the university, such as admissions, academics, finance, student affairs, etc. *Faculty* were full-time professors responsible for teaching and learning, scholarship, and service. These individuals were deployed on either nine or twelve-month contracts and responsible for advising and committee work in addition to teaching and developing curriculum. *Adjuncts*, on the other hand, were part-time instructors employed on a per term basis and responsible for teaching specific courses. Lastly, *staff* were those employed in non-academic positions,

but not serving in high-level administrative roles. These positions ranged from operational staff working in custodial and grounds services to professional staff responsible for accounting, assessment, and other work of similar stature.

Limitations

Several limitations impacted the findings of this study. These limitations were:

1. The study analyzed perceptions of culture at only one private, medium-sized, Midwestern, four-year institution. The results of this study may or may not translate to other institutions.
2. The study was limited to the number of respondents that completed the survey within the designated time frame.
3. This study captured the beliefs, assumptions, and values within a stated period of time and was subject to change as time goes on.
4. This study relied on the respondent's self-reported data and based upon their willingness to be open and honest in their assessment of the institution's culture. These perceptions posed certain limitations as they could be subject to existing biases, distorted memories, or specific attitudes or opinions present at the time. (Neuman, 2003).
5. The study utilized the Competing Values Framework, which required respondents to rate the institution's culture based on select criteria. This study was limited to the respondent's ability to assess and rate the institution's culture as directed by the OCAI instrument.

6. The study was limited based on the relationship the researcher had with the institution studied. Some respondents may have chosen not to respond based on the researcher's role within the human resources department.
7. The adjunct instructor sample utilized in this study included adjuncts who may or may not have been actively teaching. The responses for the adjunct sample were limited in this study as adjunct instructors not currently under contract are less likely to respond to surveys.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate the different perspectives in values, beliefs, norms, and basic assumptions between faculty, staff, adjuncts, and administrators. Utilizing the Competing Values Framework developed by Cameron & Quinn (2011), the researcher analyzed the institution's current culture and how these perceptions were similar or dissimilar to the preferred culture. As higher education faced economic constraints, leaders turned to better understanding their cultures to facilitate needed change (Platt, Chestnut, McGee & Song, 2017; Manning, 2017). These are topics discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

Overview

Higher education was in a state of transition, though its direction remained unclear (Feenberg, 2017). It was evident that in order to address the challenges of the 21st century and prepare college students to be successful, higher education institutions needed to change (Mossman, 2018). Furthermore, the economic constraints placed upon these institutions necessitated transformation to better align the institution's offerings with the needs of its clientele (Platt, Chestnut, McGee, & Song, 2017). The challenge, though, was that faculty, staff, and administrators suffered from the inability to understand why their institutions resisted change (Manning, 2017).

Colleges and universities have historically been complex institutions responsible for the formation, preservation, and evolution of knowledge (Manning, 2017). The college campus has long embodied the ideals of free speech, research in search of the absolute truth, and operation under a shared governance model (Orozco & Allison, 2010). Answering to a variety of stakeholders - students, parents, trustees, community members, and political parties – these organizations managed tensions that derive from its core characteristics. College and universities employed highly educated, professional employees who often had more allegiance to their discipline than to the organization. Similarly, these individuals held vastly different roles that could create conflict over curriculum and strategic initiatives (Manning, 2017). Meeting the needs of these various stakeholders became increasingly challenging as enrollments declined, tuition costs rose, and student debt soared (Supplee, 2014).

Higher education institutions also needed to manage the changing demographics of students in addition to the many other struggles they encountered (Pernsteiner & Martin, 2016). Students entering college came from highly diverse backgrounds, which contributed to their varying levels of readiness and financial stability. As enrollments declined, tuition increased, preventing many low-income students from entering or completing their degrees (Zusman, 2005). Decreasing state appropriations and rising tuition prices caused students to grow skeptical about the affordability and value of a college degree and, as a result, were more critical in their selection (Meotti, 2016). However, these skepticisms did not slow student loan debt, which surpassed \$1.3 trillion (Ulbrich & Kirk, 2017).

Though it was evident that institutions needed to adapt to the current economic environment, the culture within higher education institutions continued to promote the status quo (Beattie, Thornton, Laden, & Brackett, 2013). Unpredictable environmental changes continued to be difficult for colleges and universities to accurately forecast and to subsequently motivate employees into a new direction (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Successful change required these institutions to develop a culture supportive of transformation (Kezar & Eckel, 2002). Yet, such cultures are only achievable through the reexamination of core institutional values (Essawi, 2012), which guide the day-to-day work and provide an overall sense of direction (Deal & Kennedy, 1982).

David Labaree (2016) stated it quite clearly, “American university administrators and professors need to stop pinning for a return to the good old days” (p. 34, para 2). To understand why these days no longer existed, institutions had to examine how higher education evolved to its current state. Nationally, higher education institutions

experienced six straight years of enrollment declines (Fain, 2017). This trend was different from previous trends, which showed that college enrollments increased during times of war and slowed during economic recessions (Labaree, 2016; Wright, Ramdin, & Vasquez-Colins, 2013). In fact, until recently, colleges and universities experienced continuous growth over the past several decades, though at different rates.

Examining Enrollment Trends over the Past Several Decades

Many believed the various aspects of higher education popular today originated from the growth experienced post World War II (Goldin & Katz, 1999). However, many of these elements were products of changes that occurred closer to the turn of the century. College enrollments started to rise significantly in the early 1900s when earning a college degree became a new way for middle-class families to become distinct (Labaree, 2016). Prior to this time, most academic institutions educated men in the professions of medicine and law (Kohrs, 2015). With the introduction of factories and department stores, though, middle-income families saw opportunities to increase their social position as corporate or government managers or engineers (Labaree, 2016).

Factories and the burgeoning of new businesses caused higher education to change by increasing the number of subjects taught, marking the beginning of specialization by discipline (Goldin & Katz, 1999). Businesses needed chemists, physicists, and engineers to work and build their factories. As businesses changed, so did education. American institutions responded with the emergence of the research institution. Prior to this, colleges were centers of learning, not research. Under this new model, research became an important tool for faculty to use in order to create new knowledge. Goldin & Katz (1999) noted that this knowledge led to more science-related

programs and the development of research institutions like Johns Hopkins (1876) and Clark University (1889).

Around this same timeframe, colleges opened their doors to women as well as men (Kohrs, 2015). The addition of women on the college campus meant that between 1890 and 1940, college enrollment increased five-fold (Goldin & Katz, 1999), and the portion of 18 to 24-year-olds attending college rose from 2 to 7 per 100 (Snyder, 1993). Eager to increase enrollments, colleges and universities responded by adding new features to their campuses. Residential halls, extracurricular activities, and even the establishment of fraternities and sororities became pivotal core elements that defined the college experience (Labaree, 2016).

Enrollments continued to increase into the 1930s. By this time, US institutions had 20 times the number of college students compared to the UK (Labaree, 2016). Students headed to college in an attempt to obtain particular jobs, mostly in lesser professions and middle management. Though the Great Depression slowed the growth of enrollment, there were still 1.5 million students attending a college or university, increasing the ratio of 18 to 24-year-olds from 7 to 9 per 100 (Snyder, 1993). The increase in students pushed the number of institutions in America to increase as well with 432 colleges and universities opening during this timeframe (Kohrs, 2015). Another interesting change, as noted by Snyder (1993), was that for the first time, public institutions accounted for a majority of the college students.

When the U.S. entered into war during the 1940s, colleges and universities developed a working relationship with the government to provide research (Labaree, 2016). This new affiliation was the beginning of the American institution operating as a

public good versus a private good, and the research produced during this time proved to be a key component in helping win the war. Under this new partnership, the government would farm out research to colleges and universities instead of setting up its own centers. The government provided institutions with funding to aid research projects, expand the number of faculty, and pay for new infrastructure while simultaneously saving money.

Additionally, the passing of the GI Bill of Rights in 1944 leveraged higher education institutions in another way. This time, US leaders sought higher education institutions out to provide a place for returning veterans in order to avoid overwhelming the labor market (Meotti, 2016). The GI Bill provided veterans the opportunity to continue their education at no cost (Bound & Turner, 1999). Veterans who served more than 90 days or discharged from serving were eligible for federal grants. These federal grants, awarded to the individual instead of the institution marked a change from previous federal expenditures. Under this bill, nearly 2 million veterans attended college (Labaree, 2016). This increase meant that total enrollment increased by more than 50% (Bound & Turner, 1999).

From 1946 to 1970, total state expenditures substantially increased, and higher education benefited from this increase, going from \$400 million spent in 1946 to more than \$11 billion spent by 1970 (Meotti, 2016). Enrollment during this time increased 120%, and as much as 35% of the 18 to 24-year-olds were attending college (Snyder, 1993). The total number of students enrolled rose to 8 million, up from 3.6 million in 1959 (Labaree, 2016). Many of these new enrollments were women and minority students. According to Lazerson (1998), women represented 30% of the student population in 1950, which grew to 54% by 1989. African Americans and Hispanics

enrollments also grew rising to 20% of the student population from 10%. All these factors came together to support what many have referred to as the golden era of higher education (Labaree, 2016; Meotti, 2016).

However, as early as the 1970s, higher education institutions came under criticism for costly tuition, poor service, insufficient degree programs, and inefficient structures (Lazerson, 1998). The 1960s and early 1970s brought forth demonstrations, strikes, and violence that caused politicians and the public to question the role of higher education. At the same time, the US economy headed toward its first recession in many years (Wright et al., 2013). Unemployment rose from 6.1% in 1970 to 9.0% in 1974. Inflation was also on the rise, which in turn affected each state's ability to fund higher education initiatives (Meotti, 2016). All these economic issues occurred at the same time the number of 17 to 21-year-olds in the population declined (Lazerson, 1998).

Between 1970 and 2009, the US experienced six economic recessions, which influenced higher education enrollments in various ways (Wright et al., 2013). Each recession experienced rising inflation and increased unemployment rates. According to Wright et al. (2013), unemployment rates continued to rise and by 1982 were at 10.8%. This unemployment rate slowed the enrollment of students into higher education (Snyder, 1993). Tuition increased as enrollments dwindled, and student loans started to rise. (Helmet & Marcotte, 2016). In 1975, 54% of college students held student loans, which increased to 78% in 1985 (Labaree, 2016).

Higher education not only saw a change in financing but also saw a change in its population (Snyder, 1993). For the first time, higher education experienced an increase in part-time students attending two-year colleges. The tuition increases created a

compositional shift from four-year institutions to two-year community colleges (Helmet & Marcotte, 2016). Furthermore, working non-traditional students enrolled in courses at the two-year level (Wright et al., 2013). This new demographic of students desired the structure of the community college. By 1979, 41% of all college students attended community colleges, and attendance continued to rise throughout the first part of the 1990s. By 1994, 43% of all students enrolled attended a two-year institution (Snyder, 1993).

The rise and recovery of recessions continued throughout the 1990s and 2000s. The recession in the early 1990s brought forth state budget cuts that reduced higher education appropriations to amounts not seen since before World War II (Zusman, 2005). State appropriations decreased in public, four-year institutions from about 65% to 35% starting in 1996 (Helmet & Marcotte, 2016). For some institutions like the University of California, state funding dropped from 37% in 1990 to just 23% by 2004 (Zusman, 2005). Pennsylvania State experienced a similar drop declining from 21% to 13% by 2002. To accommodate for lost funds, many public institutions increased tuition rates. Tuition and fees accounted for 30% of revenues at public colleges, which grew from 15% in 1980 (Helmet & Marcotte, 2016).

By 2000, enrollments in four-year higher education once again started to rise (Barrow & Davis, 2012). Some of this growth was due to the introduction of for-profit institutions as well as increases related to the rise in the population. When the Great Recession hit in December of 2007, unemployment rates rose to 10%, the highest it had been since the 1980s. The increase in unemployment attributed to the growth in higher education enrollment. Two-year enrollment rates increased by 13% after 2007 as did

four-year institutions, which rose by 20.5% between 2007 and 2010. Barrow and Davis (2012) estimated that roughly 2.1 million more people enrolled in college between these periods than would have been typically enrolled. Overall, total enrollments grew from 14.3 million to 18.2 million (Zumeta & LaSota, 2008).

The for-profit sector increased dramatically during this time, adding some 795,000 students, a growth rate of more than 600% (Zumeta & LaSota, 2008). Institutions like the University of Phoenix saw significant increases at the doctoral/research level, where enrollments rose from 5,000 in 1996 to 281,000 by 2007. Similarly, undergraduate programs saw increases in enrollments soar from 66,000 to 201,000. Tuition increases packaged with high fees pushed many students to two-year and for-profit institutions (Zumeta & LaSota, 2008). According to Zumeta and LaSota (2008), between 1996 and 2007, for-profit institutions increased from 614 locations to 1,043 locations. Meanwhile, private four-year institutions dropped slightly from 1,551 locations in 1996 to 1,531 by 2007.

The Current Enrollment Climate and its Organizational Impact

Enrollment trends over the past few years have been different from the previous ebbs and flow from prior decades. (Labaree, 2016; Wright et al., 2013). The current trend in higher education has continued to show enrollment decreases. According to the National Student Clearinghouse (2018), nationwide enrollments from Spring 2018 decreased by 1.3%. The for-profit sector found that the most substantial enrollment decreases with numbers declining 6.8%. For public four-year institutions, enrollments fell 0.2%, which was slightly less than private four-year institutions, which saw a decline of 0.4%. Just two years ago, 18,343,655 students attended higher education institutions.

Now, that number has dropped by over 500,000 to 17,839,330. (National Student Clearinghouse, 2018).

Data has shown that higher education enrollment peaked in 2011, which coincided with a peak in high school graduates (Goral, 2016). Colleges and universities profited from the steady increase of high school graduates, but as forecasted, these numbers started to drop. As student numbers declined, institutions posted higher tuition rates, spurring debate amongst students and parents if college was worth the expense (Helmet & Marcotte, 2016). To make matters worse, rising tuition costs created a negative impact on completion rates. A study completed by Turner showed that tuition increases impacted completion rates by as much as 25% (Turner, 2004).

The declining enrollments, coupled with declining state funding, placed substantial pressure on higher education institutions. Colleges and universities alike faced increased pressure to enroll more students with less funding, which shifted admission priorities (Curs & Jaquette, 2017; Zusman, 2005;). Many institutions responded by becoming more selective in whom they admit to the school. Both public and private four-year institutions have attempted to reduce the number of students needing remedial courses and instead, focused on leveraging students with the ability to pay full-tuition prices (Zusman, 2005). These admission strategies have reduced costs and provided needed revenues.

While institutions grappled with the economic constraints placed upon them, students, in response, became academic shoppers (Paulsen, 1990). Students spent more time choosing if, when, and where to attend college than they had done in strong economic times. As in past recessions, more students turned to vocational schools,

community colleges, or in-state schools, which tended to have lower tuition prices (Holley & Harris, 2010). Additionally, more opted to enroll in online programs which saw an increase in enrollment from 24.8% in 2012 to 31% in 2018 (Lederman, 2018).

The decisions made by institutions in relation to organizational priorities influenced where students choose to attend (Holley & Harris, 2010.) Many administrators focused on increasing their institution's revenues. As such, many higher education institutions ramped up efforts to recruit out-of-state and international students who pay more tuition dollars than resident students (Goral, 2016). Administrators argued that nonresident students were essential to filling the gaps formed from decreasing state appropriations (Curs & Jaquette, 2017). For example, the University of Oregon increased efforts to recruit out-of-state and international students, which resulted in more than half the incoming freshman class being nonresident students (Goral, 2016). In fact, just 47% of the freshman lived in state. This strategy, though necessary, was difficult to sustain in a time when more students had chosen higher education alternatives (Curs & Jaquette, 2017).

Postsecondary institutions had not only focused efforts on increasing out-of-state students but also increased their efforts to attract more international students. The number of international students enrolled expanded each year since the Great Recession (Fass-Holmes, 2017). By 2009, enrollments increased 2.9%, which was succeeded by a 4.7% increase in 2010, 5.7% in 2011, and 7.2% in 2012. More recently, international enrollments increased by as much as 8.1%. However, as the Trump administration made changes to immigration, higher education institutions faced new struggles in attempting to recruit international students (Redden, 2018). Redden (2018) noted that these

immigration changes took place at a time when few had adequate international recruiting plans or budgets.

With several colleges and universities focused on recruiting nonresident students, some critics grew concerned that public flagship schools were crowding out access to resident and underprivileged students (Curs & Jaquette, 2017). Nationally, from 2002 to 2015, the number of resident students at public research institutions increased by only 9%; however, at non-research institutions, this number was closer to 50%. The University of California System, for example, posted a decline of 2.7% in 2007 of resident first-year students, but boasted a surprising increase of 400% in out-of-state students. As tuition increased, students made different enrollment choices (Helmet & Marcotte, 2016). As space became limited, students from lower-income families considered more regional and local options. Helmet and Marcotte (2016) found that when flagship institutions increased tuition significantly, students from a low socioeconomic status were more likely to enroll in less-selective public four-year institutions. Some even considered attending community colleges (Zusman, 2005). Sadly, as Zusman (2005) pointed out, when underprivileged students choose to attend a two-year institution, they were more unlikely to complete a four-year degree.

Increased tuition prices and the push to improve nonresident student enrollments added to the inequality in higher education (Zusman, 2005). Colleges and universities underrepresented Black, Native American, and Latino students. According to Furquim and Glasener (2017), students from low socioeconomic backgrounds often turned to lower-costing, under-resourced institutions while students from wealthier families were overrepresented at selective schools. Despite increased high school graduation rates,

slightly over half the Black and Latino students entered college (Zusman, 2005). Goral (2016) predicted that by 2019, 45% of public high school graduates would be non-white. This prediction was up from 38% in 2009. A study by Carnevale and Rose (2004) found that only 10% of low-income students made it into the top 146 ranking schools. Of those that entered college, only 42% were likely to graduate compared to 62% of white students.

The Impact of Organizational Culture

Declining enrollments instituted a need for colleges and universities to change. These external forces created a disequilibrium forcing transformational change (Schein, 2010), a change that had been particularly challenging for higher education institutions (Deneen & Bound, 2014).

Since the mid-1990s, we have seen competition for students become more intense, the use of information and communication technologies forcing major changes in the way higher education is delivered, and pressures of low funding and continuous efficiency gains placed on the structures of higher education. (Newton, 2003, p. 428).

University leaders were responsible for providing the interpretation of the external environment and creating a vision for adaption (Tierney, 2008). In this role, leaders often catalyzed organizational change. They deliberately set forth processes and goals aimed at changing the institution. However, many institutional leaders failed to understand that change always threatened the culture (Deal & Kennedy, 1982) as people were inherently afraid of change. People learned and became attached to their daily rites and rituals, values, and beliefs (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). As such, culture itself became the main

barrier to change. Failure to recognize these forces resulted in leaders creating conflict and adverse relationships. However, leaders that developed a deeper understanding of their people and their organization were able to make more sense of the various group behaviors (Schein, 2010).

At the center of every organization was its culture. In the simplest terms, culture was an informal understanding of the “way we do things around here” (Deal & Allen, 1983, p 14). The culture reflected what, how, and who was involved in getting the work done (Tierney, 2008). It affected decisions, actions, and communication at all levels of the institution. In other words, it served as the “mental software” of the institution teaching its members how to act and behave (Hofstede, Hofstede, Minkov, 2010). In mature organizations, culture provided stability, structure, constraint, and meaning (Schein, 2010). Culture served as a framework for generating order among the intricate and often perplexing dynamics of organizational life (Berquist & Pawlak, 2008).

In an attempt to acquire structure, strategy, and control, managers turned to organizational culture, which experienced criticisms by many for becoming the next fad (Berquist & Pawlak, 2008; Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, & Sanders, 1990). The study of organizational culture increased in popularity during the early 1980s and arose from social and anthropological theories (Kuh & Whitt, 1988; Schein, 2010; Tierney, 2008). Since then, the study of culture underwent significant advances and had become critical to generating organizational change (Tierney, 2008). In recent years, managers turned to organizational culture as a means for promoting high performance, implementing change, and ensuring organizational goals were met (Sinclair, 1993). Leaders began to realize that culture was a strong influencer on how employees behaved, what attitudes they

carried, and how they made decisions (Berquist & Pawlak, 2008; Ledimo, 2013; Schein, 2010).

Two main disciplinary foundations – sociology and anthropology – formed the essence of organizational culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Hoebel (1996) described cultural anthropology as the study of customs, beliefs, folkways, and behavioral characteristics of human societies. The shared values, beliefs, norms, rituals, ceremonies, attitudes, and assumptions, either written or non-verbal, emerged from this anthropological foundation (Deal & Allen, 1983; Brown, 1998). On the other hand, sociologists viewed and analyzed culture by studying the social constructions derived from the organizational structure and environmental conditions, subcultures, social processes (Kuh & Whitt, 1988).

Though experts agreed on the origins of organizational culture, they have long disagreed on how to define it. Largely, this inability to agree on a definition resulted from differences in opinion over what created culture. For example, Deal and Allen (1982) stated that organizational culture evolved from five main components: the environment, shared values and beliefs, heroes, rites and rituals, and the cultural network. Similar to this structure, Hofstede et al. argued that culture was a product of symbols, heroes, rituals, values, and practices (2010). Edgar Schein broke culture into three different levels, which included artifacts, values, and basic assumptions and beliefs. Then, in 2011, Cameron and Quinn stated that implicit assumptions, conscious contracts and norms, artifacts, and explicit behaviors formed the basis to organizational culture.

As scholars disagreed with the components of culture, it was not a surprise that numerous definitions existed. Deal and Allen (1983) defined culture as an “integrated

pattern of human behavior that included thought, speech, action, artifacts, and depended on man's capacity for learning and transmitting knowledge" (p 4). They believed that culture was a blending of values, myths, heroes, and symbols that had significant meaning to the employees (Deal & Allen, 1983). By 1988, Kuh and Whitt produced a different definition stating that culture was the "collective, mutually shaping pattern of norms, values, practices, beliefs, and assumptions that guide the behavior of individuals and groups" (1988, p. 28). Similar to this definition was Schein's view of culture being a "pattern of shared basic assumptions learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptations and internal integration" (2010, p. 18). Though many definitions of culture existed, Hofstede et al. (2010) noted that most authors would agree on six key characteristics: 1) culture was holistic, 2) it was historically determined, 3) it derived from anthropological concepts, 4) it was socially constructed, 5) it was soft, and 6) it was difficult to change.

Elements of Culture

All organizations operated in a world filled with competitors, customers, technologies, and government influences (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). In order to remain competitive within the external environment, managers had to assess and understand their organization's culture (Hosseini, 2014). The need to understand the activities they put into action molded and shaped the organization's culture. Culture was complex, comprised of deep-rooted levels (Sinclair, 1993), and implied that there was a depth, breadth, and pattern that evolved over time (Schein, 2010). Cameron and Quinn (2011) defined the elements of culture as:

- *Implicit Assumptions*: unrecognized “ideology” that provided employees with a sense of identity and unwritten guidelines for how to operate within the organization. When solutions to problems repeatedly work, they became the norm and taken for granted (Schein, 2010). Over time, they developed into the unconscious, unobservable beliefs and values of the organization and guided employee behavior and perception (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Schein, 2010).
- *Conscious Contracts & Norms*: emerged from implicit assumptions and created the formal rules and procedures that governed employees and their work. Sometimes referred to as the rites and rituals, these systematic and programmed routines dictated the day-to-day operations of the organization (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). They are socially essential and provided examples of what the organization stood for (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Hofstede et al, 2010).
- *Artifacts*: were observed representations of the culture seen in the buildings and furniture choices, clothes worn, logos, mission statements, stated goals, and recognition systems. They were the visible products of the group that embodied the underlying beliefs and values (Schein, 2010).
- *Explicit Behaviors*: included the way people interact, how invested in the organization they were, and the extent to which activities were tolerated or encouraged (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Changing an organization’s culture required addressing each of these elements (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The most important mission of any manager was aligning organizational culture and strategy based on the internal and external environmental conditions (Hosseini, 2014). “Decision making, planning, resource allocation, personnel

evaluation, and institutional renewal strategies, when considered one at a time, sometimes seem trivial or void of meaning” (Kuh & Whitt, 1988, p. 5). Yet, when managers viewed each of these processes through a cultural lens, they were able to identify potential conflicts, structural and operations contradictions, as well as anticipate employee reactions (Tierney, 2008). Those managers who were able to accurately recognize their organizational culture were able to increase productivity by helping employees connect more to their work (Deal & Allen, 1983).

Unfortunately, both leaders and employees were often unaware of their culture until it was challenged (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Tierney, 2008). In most cases, employees recognized their culture only when operating outside the boundaries or when conflict arose (Tierney, 2008). Without this understanding, leaders often faced opposition and resistance when attempting to implement new policies and procedures (Schein, 2010). Beattie et al. (2013) noted interventions aimed at creating change often did not have any real or lasting impact. Hofstede et al. (2010) argued that these interventions only penetrated the outer layers (symbols and artifacts) of the organization and true change meant forcing change at the inner layers or the values and beliefs of the organization (Hofstede et al., 2010).

Culture in Higher Education

Numerous studies have analyzed culture in a variety of ways over the past 30 years. Several studies have focused on whether or not a relationship existed between an organization’s culture and its effectiveness (Chatman, Polzer, Barsade, & Neale, 1998; Hause, 2000; Mahalinga & Suar, 2011; Wilkins & Ouchi, 1983), as well as, whether there is a link between an organization’s culture and ethics (Sinclair, 1993). Other studies

have examined the triangulation between organizational culture, leadership, and organizational commitment (Abdullah, Shamsuddin, & Wahab, 2015; Yiing & Ahmad, 2009). Yet others have investigated the difference between culture and climate (Denison, 1996b), the role of culture in creating meaningful assessment (Guterman & Mitchell, 2015; Ledimo, 2013), analyzing culture and subcultures (Sackman, 1992), and overall how to measure culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Denison, 1990a; Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, D.D. & Sanders, 1990).

In higher education, there has been a lack of cultural research (Tierney, 2008). Those who have applied organizational theory to postsecondary educational institutions have focused on increasing performance (Ibrahim, Mahmood & Bakar, 2016), implementing change strategies (Hogan, 2004; Kezar & Eckel, 2002), or embedding quality control (Ntim, 2014). Studies that analyzed the various perceptions held within higher education tended to focus on the differences between faculty and administrators. (Foster, 2007; Hagen, 2012; Kendig, 2013)). Though culture, history, and traditions unite people, there are often multiple realities present within higher education institutions (Manning, 2017). In fact, within one academic setting, there can be a variety of cultures (Berquist & Pawlak, 2008) and subcultures present (Kuh & Whitt, 1988). As noted earlier, culture was the product of numerous elements (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). In higher education, the presence of numerous competing cultures and subcultures increased the complexity when implementing change.

In Berquist and Pawlak's (2008) theory, modern academic institutions carried up to six different cultures present at any given time. This theory built upon the work of Robert Birnbaum's 1988 theory of the four cultures of the academy. Berquist and Pawlak

(2008) believed additional cultures emerged within colleges and universities as a response to new external forces and due to the failure of the two original cultures (collegial and managerial) being unable to adapt effectively. Their theory outlined the following academic cultural types:

- Collegial Culture: “culture that finds meaning primarily in the disciplines represented by the faculty in the institution; that values faculty research and scholarship and the quasi-political governance processes of the faculty” (p. 15).
- Managerial Culture: “culture that finds meaning primarily in the organization, implementation, and evaluation of work that is directed toward specified goals and purposes; that values fiscal responsibility and effective supervisory skills” (p. 43).
- Developmental Culture: “culture that finds meaning primarily in the creation of programs and activities furthering the personal and professional growth of all members of the higher education community; that values openness and service to others as well as systematic institutional research and curricular planning,” (p. 73).
- Advocacy Culture: “culture that finds meaning primarily in the establishment of equitable and egalitarian policies and procedures for the distribution of resources and benefits in the institution; that values confrontation and fair bargaining among constituencies,” (p. 111).
- Virtual Culture: “culture that finds meaning by answering the knowledge generation and dissemination capacity of the postmodern world; that values the global perspective of open, shared, responsive educational systems,” (p. 147).

- Tangible Culture: “culture that finds meaning in its roots, its community, and its spiritual groundings; that values the predictability of value-based, face-to-face education in an owned physical location,” (p. 185).

All higher education institutions held a dominant culture, but the presence of the other five cultures always existed as subcultures (Berquist & Pawlak, 2008). Since each of these cultures varied dramatically, the goal became to minimize cultural conflict and promote the creation of shared goals (Tierney, 2008).

Leading Cultural Change in Higher Education

Postsecondary institutions were complex, mature organizations (Manning, 2017). As such, they were slow to adapt and change. To an extent, the consistency within higher education allowed it to serve as a repository and disseminator of knowledge, both fundamental to this sector (Harvey, Ready, Kuffel, & Duke, 2006). In this sense, stability was encouraged and even, in some cases, demanded. On the other hand, colleges and universities needed to also be creative (Harvey et al., 2006) in order to influence societal change. These almost contradictory roles mixed with the external challenges were difficult for institutions to manage. Even more so, was the need to ignite the necessary change in order to combat and face the challenges at hand.

As stated in the previous section, colleges and universities alike faced an assortment of challenges, including financial pressures, growth in technology, changing faculty roles, and changing demographics (Kezar & Eckel, 2002). In response to these issues, institutions began to utilize marketing and management principles to address the external environment (Harvey et al., 2006; Newton, 2003). This new business model led

to many claiming that higher education was becoming “too corporate” as they attempted to find ways to improve operational efficiency and external funding (Newton, 2003).

The increased attention to find operational efficiencies has influenced postsecondary institutions in many ways. First, as budgets became tighter, many positions went unfilled, especially with regard to faculty positions (Harvey et al., 2006). Then, hiring freezes at both public and private institutions affected numerous faculty and staff (Smallwood, 2002). According to Smallwood (2002), The State University of New York in New Paltz postponed 22 of their 26 planned searches. Similarly, the University of Florida stopped all staff hiring and urged academic deans to reduce the number of faculty searches. Other institutions, such as Cornell University, California State University, and the University of Toledo all have frozen faculty hiring (Smallwood, 2002).

Institutions that continued searches were not looking to fill tenure-track positions. Overall, faculty-level jobs lacking the possibility of tenure rose from 55% in 1989 to an astonishing 70% in 2004 (Benderly, 2004; Kezar & Gehrke, 2014). Similarly, the number of part-time adjunct instructors also increased. Fulton (2000) noted that in the wake of budget concerns, many thought administrators over-utilized the use of adjunct instructors. However, with academic quality being a source of ongoing discussion, more and more full-time faculty were involved in curriculum development, assessment, and planning as well as ensuring requirements, as mandated by state and federal agencies, were carried out (Fulton, 2000).

Understaffing resulted in exacerbating the need to use the remaining resources effectively (Harvey et al., 2006). For faculty, this increased pressure to reduce program costs, improve academic quality, and introduce innovative teaching methods. For

administrators, attention turned to how to make the whole of faculty more cost-effective. This response involved several different debates: 1) questioning the continuation of traditional liberal arts programming vs. focusing more on workforce preparation; 2) discussion over whether to offer smaller class sizes or increase the student-to-faculty ratio; 3) debate over whether to offer specialized courses that matched the faculty member's area of expertise or provide more broad-based course selections that can be cross-referenced (Leach, 2008). Both faculty and administrators, in a race to improve organizational efficiency, clashed on many topics throughout many institutions. This diversity of interests affected the institutions' ability to reach an agreement that delayed change.

Institutions needed to find solutions for funding, develop academically sound programs, and overall improve operational stability (Bevc & Ursic, 2008); however, in order to achieve such results administrators needed to be able to manage morale (Smallwood, 2002). People, in general, feared change (Dick et al., 2018; Orozco & Allison, 2010; Seiver, 2003). In fact, the human psyche has developed numerous means to rebel against change like criticizing, deflecting, and denying. Change invoked a sense of loss in power, prestige, and autonomy (Schein, 2010; Sevier, 2003). Resisting change unfolded as employees realized they had to “unlearn” what often had become embedded knowledge and routine and then “relearn” something new in its place (Schein, 2010). As institutions implemented change strategies aimed at addressing the external market, resistance could erupt from all employee types (Deneen & Boud, 2014). Administrators dealt with open rejection of the outlined plan, unaligned interpretations from either

strategic initiatives or policy changes as well as experienced a lack of follow-through in carrying out the changes.

In order for administrators to influence change, they needed to be able to appeal to both the emotional and intellectual sides of people (Dick et al., 2018). In essence, institutional leaders needed to be able to create an environment supportive of change (Schein, 2010). However, before initiating change, leaders needed to understand the current perceptions that exist within the organization.

The Different Perceptions of Change

Faculty

Kua (2008) closely examined perceptions held between academic staff and administrators. For example, several faculty viewed their interactions with campus administrators as more “ceremonial” and “social” and believed that their decision-making influenced their workloads negatively. In fact, Lindholm, Szelenyi, Hurtado, and Korn (2005) found in the faculty survey conducted for HERI, that only 52% of full-time faculty at four-year institutions believed the relationship with administrators was satisfactory. This particular survey included results from 400,000 faculty from 421 different institutions.

It is no surprise that the weakening relationship between administrators and faculty resulted from the increased number of administrators seen at many college and university campuses (Billups, 2011). The number of college administrators has grown from 6.8 FTE (full-time equivalency) in 1993 to 9.4 FTE by 2007, an increase of nearly 40%. Many of these new administrators lacked academic experience and possessed more loyalty to their superiors than to the faculty (Billups, 2011). This change in the

organizational composition had led to some critics to claim that the increase in administration has caused the faculty to become marginalized (Berrett, 2011). Some faculty have even claimed that the new administrators do not understand the role of the faculty member or the nature of the academic enterprise (Billups, 2011). This perception carried its way to the setting of goals, where faculty shared that administrators should focus on increasing the profile of the school and worry less about the role of the faculty (Kuo, 2009).

Administrators

Numerous studies have analyzed the perceptions of administrators in higher education. One study completed by David Foster (2007) found that the perceptions of the predominant traits of culture did not significantly vary between faculty and administrators. Yet other researchers and scholars have argued that administrators often report feeling estranged from the teaching, research, and service conducted by faculty and have stressed the importance of establishing relationships between the two groups (Billups, 2011; Kuo, 2009). In Kuo's (2009) study, administrators expressed their relationship with faculty as one of mutual respect; however, they also noted that as an organization, they were not all moving in the same direction. Administrators felt that faculty were disinterested in topics such as resource allocation, operational effectiveness, and the overall reputation of the institution as these topics were outside the faculty's discipline and research work. Particularly, a recent study showed how deans struggled to balance demands rising from their role while also being sensitive to impact the changes had on the faculty (Olaskoaga-Larrauri, Barrenetxea-Ayesta, Cardona-Rodriguez, Mijangos-Del, & Barandiaran-Galdos, 2016). As administrators took on more of a central

role in serving the students, the faculty-to-student relationship changed thus further influencing the relationship between faculty and management (Billups, 2011).

The need to manage change had become significant (Harvey et al., 2006). Though most administrators understood this fact, many felt that the diversity of the stakeholders made initiating change difficult (Kuo, 2009). Administrators discussed how even collectively as a group, they could have varying values as each served a variety of different stakeholders including students, prospective students, the general public, board or trustee members, alumni, and local legislatures. In an attempt to solicit buy-in and support from each stakeholder, administrators often waited for new practices to become widespread before attempting to implement change.

Staff

When it came to analyzing the various perceptions held in higher education, few studies have focused on staff (Locke, 2010; Putten, McLendon & Peterson, 1997; Skaggs, 2015). Staff within higher education served in a wide range of positions including but were not limited to, financial operations, facilities, human resources, academic support, information technology, enrollment management, and athletics (Locke, 2010). As discussed by Graham (2012), staff largely held systemic knowledge, as well as oversaw the intellectual capital, both needed in keeping the institution functional. These positions usually accounted for more than half the operating expenses, yet little research has prevailed despite this fact.

Though professional staff occupied more senior management positions once preserved for academics and were more involved in the design and manufacturing of learning spaces, they did not have equal privileges to their faculty counterparts (Graham,

2012). For example, most staff roles did not participate in the shared governance of the institution (Skaggs, 2015). The governance model, as often seen, limited the overall voice staff had within the institution. “A faculty cannot by itself accomplish the [university’s] objectives” (Banata & Kuh, 1998, p. 41). However, regardless of this fact, staff often reported feeling less empowered in making decisions and initiating changes (Locke, 2010). Locke (2010) pointed to the potential conflict between academics and administrators as a reason for this feeling. Faculty tended to focus on the systems related to research and teaching and could exclude support staff, even those at higher levels, which created opportunities for clashes to emerge (Bladerston, 1995). Locke (2010) also noted that studies focused on staff in higher education resulted in staff feeling overworked, working with limited resources, and having limited promotional opportunities.

Adjunct Instructors

As noted earlier, the number of adjunct instructors utilized in higher education continued to grow (Fagan-Wilen et al., 2006). Full-time faculty were responsible for developing curriculum, completing assessments, assisting with academic planning, participating in shared governance, and continuing efforts in research (Fulton, 2000; Leach, 2008). Since adjunct instructors taught individual classes on a per-term basis, these higher-level responsibilities were the sole responsibility of the full-time faculty (Fulton, 2000). Though institutions used adjunct instructors as specialists providing enhancements to program offerings, this was often only to a small degree. More likely, adjunct instructors taught courses faculty were unable or unwilling to teach and were subject to low enrollment and cancellations (Hudd et al., 2009).

As the number of adjunct instructors increased, so did the tension centered on issues such as shared governance, union representation, course assignments, comparable pay, and status (Leach, 2008). However, some schools implemented training workshops and hired staff to serve this growing population, adjunct instructors still felt removed from the inner workings of the institution (Fagan-Wilen et al., 2006). Though adjunct instructors have noted the improvements, they still wished to have more access to deans, the ability to participate in faculty committee meetings and to participate in established mentor programs.

The Link between Managing Change and Organizational Culture

Managing change was complex, as it required identifying and influencing behavioral change (Dick et al., 2018). Influencing such changes required leaders to understand the dynamics and complexities of the organization's culture (Odagiu & Piturlea, 2012). Leaders not only needed to be able to articulate a consistent vision for change (Dick et al., 2018), but they needed to understand how their institutions worked (Manning, 2017). Too many managers failed to understand the cultural impact of the organizational changes at hand (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). "Change always threatens a culture" (Deal & Kennedy, 1982, p. 157). In order to excite organizational change, people within the organization had to work differently (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

As stated earlier, people naturally resisted change (Dick et al., 2018). People learned and became attached to their daily rites and rituals, values, and beliefs (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). As such, culture itself became a natural barrier to change. Colleges and universities influenced and were influenced by the external environment and forces within (Tierney, 2008). Failure to recognize these forces resulted in leaders creating

conflict and adverse relationships. However, when leaders developed a deeper understanding of their people and their organization, they were able to make more sense of the various group behaviors (Schein, 2010).

The link between managing change and organizational culture was difficult for leaders to demonstrate, as quantifiable evidence was difficult to produce. (Croitoru, Robescu, Oprisan, Duica, & Manolache, 2018). As such, implementing organizational change became a process of experimentation. All organizational cultures emerged from multiple layers of complex and interrelated dimensions (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). In order to successfully manage change, leaders needed a way to understand how the strategies, structure, control systems, and culture influenced one another (Hofstede et al., 2010).

Though most higher education institutions embraced one dominant organizational culture, other subcultures existed and interacted in various ways with the dominant culture (Berquist & Pawlak, 2008). Within any academic setting, subgroups in the forms of departments, hierarchy levels, and teams could create their own unique cultures (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). This study utilized the Competing Values Framework to diagnose the different perceptions within one higher education setting to determine if different assumptions, norms, and behaviors existed. As demonstrated by Berquist & Pawlak (2008), different cultures in higher education could and often did compete with one another. This framework helped identify the overall dominant culture as well as any competing subcultures amongst the various employee types.

The competing values framework consisted of four culture profiles, as outlined in Figure 1 (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The clan culture described the workplace as being

friendly, a place where people shared personal information about themselves, and where leaders often mentored. The hierarchy culture built formalized processes and structure that pushed leaders to focus on becoming more efficiency-minded. The adhocracy culture, on the other hand, described the organization as dynamic, entrepreneurial, and a place where people were willing to take risks in order to be a leader in the industry. Lastly, the market culture focused heavily on results. This culture was competitive, goal-driven, and built upon reputation and success (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

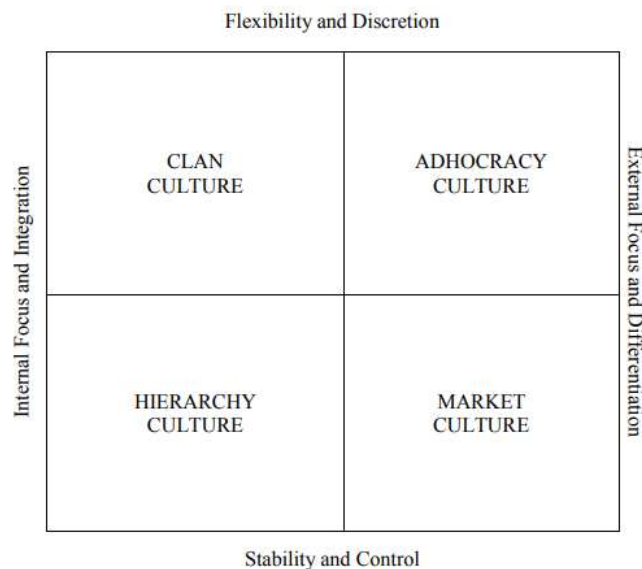


Figure 1: The Competing Values Framework

The Competing Values Framework was selected based on its practicality for capturing various elements of organizational culture and for its ability to involve employees at all levels of the institution (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Its simple design provided highly impactful comparisons between the current and preferred institutional culture. This assessment created an avenue in which to address issues and implement change.

Chapter Three: Methodology

Overview

The purpose of this mixed-methods study was to extend the literature on higher education culture by identifying perceptions that aligned and differed between administrators, faculty, staff, and adjuncts. All employees played a critical and central role in fulfilling the institution's mission (Kuo, 2009). This study added to the existing literature by including the perspectives of staff, a group largely underrepresented in cultural studies (Graham, 2012; Whitchurch, 2008; Locke, 2010), as well as those of adjunct instructors where research tended to focus on inadequate work conditions (Fagan-Wilen et al., 2006; Fulton, 2000; Kezar & Gehrke, 2014; Martinez & Martinez, 2019).

Utilizing the Competing Values Framework developed by Cameron and Quinn (2011), the researcher analyzed various dimensions of organizational culture within a Midwestern private, four-year university. The quantitative portion of this study applied the Organizational Cultural Assessment Instrument (OCAI) to measure the different cultural perceptions held by administrators, faculty, staff, and adjuncts (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Each employee group evaluated the higher education institution's present culture against the preferred culture.

The qualitative portion of the study asked several open-ended questions aimed at developing a deeper sense of each group's viewpoints on key university components. Each group answered questions related to the institution's environment, purpose, leadership, adaptability, and ability to communicate effectively. These questions were necessary to provide insight into the institution's culture beyond the scores derived from the OCAI. Each research question leveraged Berquist's and Pawlak's (2008). Theory on

higher education culture to draw insights and comparisons. This theory acknowledged that within higher education institutions, there were numerous cultures in existence. Aspects of these cultures would often compete or be at odds with one another as demonstrated in the Competing Values Framework.

The methodology and the applicable theory are discussed in-depth within this chapter. This chapter will review the research design as well as the methods and instrumentation used. The researcher then will review and discuss the research questions, the population and sampling, along with the data collection, and analysis.

Research Design

Site

Data collection took place at a private Midwestern four-year higher education institution that had been in operation since 1827. The researcher chose the institution for its ability to access the required data and resources. The studied institution was large enough employing over 250 faculty, nearly 700 staff, 40 high-level administrators, and nearly 1,000 adjunct instructors. The institution employed over 1,100 total employees.

The studied institution was also in the midst of leadership change. A new president began in June of 2015 following the retirement of previous president who dedicated over 40 years to the institution. The new president stayed at the institution for a few years before departing. During this time, the mission changed from focusing on developing “the whole person, an educated, responsible citizen of a global community” to preparing the student for the workforce. The new mission, implemented in 2017, was simple stating it was focused on “real experience, real success, enhancing lives through

quality education and professional preparatory experiences.” The president left the institution in February 2019 and this study was launched in March of the same year.

Participants

This study focused on the perceptions of staff, faculty, administrators, and adjunct instructors. In order for this study to be valid and reliable, participants had to be willing to provide honest feedback and assessment. Participants in this study included active employees from each of the stated employee groups. Student employees, members of the human resources team, and dissertation committee along with employees on administrative or medical leave were the only employees excluded from the participation.

Reflexivity

Reflexivity referred to the recognition that researchers, themselves, were a part of the social world studied (Palaganas, Sanchez, Molintas, & Caricativo, 2017). According to Malterud (2001), a researcher’s background had the ability to affect the topic investigation, its methodology, and its findings. The researcher in this study had a vested interest due to her position within the human resources department at the studied institution. As such, the researcher had to be careful that her values, beliefs, and experiences did not influence the data collection and analysis process. The steps taken to preserve validity, reliability, and anonymity are outlined in the data collection section of this chapter.

On the other hand, the researcher’s position and years of experience at the studied institution allowed her to more fully understand the attitudes, opinions and comments shared. The qualitative component of this study focused on probing into the shared experiences and opinions of each employee group and attempted to theorize and reveal

valuable insights (Palaganas et al., 2017). The researcher's background and position assisted in the development of the research questions and in the analysis of the various responses received. It also allowed the researcher to develop a deeper understanding of the institutional values and beliefs challenged by the by leadership changes.

Methodology and Instrumentation

Surveys

The researcher received approval to utilize the Organizational Cultural Assessment Instrument (OCAI) developed by Robert E. Quinn (see Appendix A) as well as permission from the Institutional Review Board to use the university as a study site (see Appendix B). I researcher developed an online survey that combined the quantitative OCAI with qualitative open-ended research questions (see Appendix D). This survey was self-administered through email (Bluman, 2019). Participants randomly selected received an electronic consent form (see Appendix E) that was reviewed and agreed to prior to completing the survey.

Rationale for Data Collection

OCAI

The OCAI allowed participants to rate their institution based on how closely the current culture aligned to the stated values used to describe each cultural type. Participants also evaluated and rated the institution based on what culture type was preferred. The culture types assessed within the OCAI were clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy. Though not a comprehensive analysis, the OCAI provided basic assumptions, interaction patterns, and organizational direction (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

The OCAI instrument consisted of six main categories – dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, organizational glue, strategic emphasis, and criteria of success (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Each category had four options – an A, B, C, and D – which were divided among 100 points depending on how closely the option described the institution’s culture. Participants completed the exercise twice, first rating the current or “now” culture then rating the ideal or “preferred” culture. Results from this instrument allowed the researcher to identify the following: 1) the dominant culture from each employee type 2) the strength of that culture as identified by each employee type 3) any discrepancies that existed between the current and preferred culture as rated by each employee type and 4) any discrepancies between the current and preferred culture between the four employee types.

The OCAI was both reliable and valid. In the past ten years, over sixty doctoral dissertations and more than one hundred scholarly publications utilized the instrument to measure organizational culture. These studies explored organizational culture in a variety of different industries across several different countries. Respondents from each of these studies tended to rate their organization’s culture consistently across the instrument proving its reliability. Additionally, this instrument proved itself valid in the postsecondary sector. Several studies expanding a wide range of topics related to higher education utilized the framework to explore various aspects of organizational culture. Examples included the analysis of institutional subcultures (Paparone, 2003), assessment of core values (Santoriello, 2015), evaluation of curriculum and student learning (Ladyshevsky & Taplin, 2015), exploration of engineering educational cultures

(Komarek, Knight, & Bielefeldt, 2017), and measurement of leadership (Zafft, Adams & Matkin, 2009).

Qualtrics Survey

Participants completed an open-ended, online survey in order to gain a deeper perspective into the beliefs, values, and opinions of the employees. The researcher used Qualtrics to ask fourteen open-ended questions focused on the institution's purpose, leadership, ability to adapt and change, and overall communication skills. This portion of the study helped gain access to the thoughts and feelings of each participant and develop a better understanding of each of their experiences (Austin & Sutton, 2015).

Prior to sending, the researcher tested the questionnaire with members of the human resources department, all excluded from participation. These members tested the directions, clarity of questions, and ability to answer the questions through the online tool. All responses received during the study were coded and arranged into meaningful themes in order to identify topics, issues, similarities and differences (Austin & Sutton, 2015).

Data Collection

Data collection included actively employed members of a private, Midwestern, four-year higher education institution. Upon obtaining the necessary approvals, the researcher worked with the university's human resources information system specialist to create a list of active employees. The specialist removed all student employees, those out on either medical or administrative leave, members of the human resources team, and committee members.

The researcher utilized a stratified random sample by separating the list of employees based on their employment type (faculty, administrator, staff, and adjunct instructor). This stratified sample divided the university's population into subgroups or strata and then randomly selected members from each stratum (Bluman, 2019). The sample size used provided the "optimum number necessary to enable valid inferences to be made about the population" (Marshall, 1996, p. 522). Samples were selected using the formula, $n = \frac{c2Np(1-p)}{(A2n) + (C2p[1-p])}$ at a 90% confidence level. Sample sizes were 63 for adjunct instructors, 61 for staff, 54 for faculty, and 25 for administrators. These sample populations were representative of each employee type.

All randomly selected employees received an emailed consent form as well as a link to the Qualtrics survey. Four identical surveys were emailed to the respective groups. Each survey contained the OCAI instrument along with several open-ended research questions. The survey remained open to responses for two full months. Due to low response rates, the researcher pulled three additional random samples. The survey received a 12% response rate for adjunct instructors, a 24.5% response rate for staff, a 48% response rate for faculty, and an 84% response rate for administrators.

Hypotheses

This study had eight null hypotheses and thirty-two sub-hypotheses. The null hypothesis stated that there was no difference between the two parameters (Bluman, 2019). The hypotheses were as follows:

H₀₁: There is no difference in the perceptions of the now "clan culture" between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{01a}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “clan culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the now “clan culture.”

H_{01b}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “clan culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the now “clan culture.”

H_{01c}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “clan culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the now “clan culture.”

H_{01d}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “clan culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the now “clan culture.”

H₀₂: There is no difference in the perceptions of the now “adhocracy culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{02a}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the now “adhocracy culture.”

H_{02b}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the now “adhocracy culture.”

H_{02c}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the now “adhocracy culture.”

H_{02d}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the now “adhocracy culture.”

H₀₃: There is no difference in the perceptions of the now “market culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{03a}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “market culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the now “market culture.”

H_{03b}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “market culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the now “market culture.”

H_{03c}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “market culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the now “market culture.”

H_{03d}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “market culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the now “market culture.”

H₀₄: There is no difference in the perceptions of the now “hierarchy culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{04a}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the now “hierarchy culture.”

H_{04b}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the now “hierarchy culture.”

H_{04c}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the now “hierarchy culture.”

H_{04d}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the now “hierarchy culture.”

H₀₅: There is no difference in the perceptions of the preferred “clan culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{05a}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “clan culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the preferred “clan culture.”

H_{05b}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “clan culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the preferred “clan culture.”

H_{05c}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “clan culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the preferred “clan culture.”

H_{05d}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “clan culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the preferred “clan culture.”

H₀₆: There is no difference in the perceptions of the preferred “adhocracy culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{06a}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture.”

H_{06b}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture.”

H_{06c}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture.”

H_{06d}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture.”

H₀₇: There is no difference in the perceptions of the preferred “market culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{07a}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “market culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the preferred “market culture.”

H_{07b}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “market culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the preferred “market culture.”

H_{07c}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “market culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the preferred “market culture.”

H_{07d}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “market culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the preferred “market culture.”

H₀₈: There is no difference in the perceptions of the preferred “hierarchy culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{08a}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture.”

H_{08b}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture.”

H_{08c}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture.”

H_{08d}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture.”

Research Questions

The intent of this mix-methods study was to identify whether the perceptions of institutional culture held by samples of each employee type (administrator, faculty, staff, and adjunct instructors) were independent from one another or closely related. The examination of the espoused values and beliefs held by various employee types provided

a better understanding of the institution's perceived environment, purpose, adaptability, and leadership abilities.

The qualitative portion of this study utilized reliable and valid cultural theories and included the following research questions:

RQ1: How do the various employee types describe the university's purpose/intent?

RQ2: How do the various employee types describe the university's ability to adapt and/or change?

RQ3: How do the various employee types describe the university's ability to share and disseminate information?

RQ4: How do the various employee types describe the institution's leadership?

Data Analysis

Quantitative Procedures

Data analysis applied the use of selected statistical techniques aimed at summarizing and illustrating the most significant differences that existed between the various dependent variables. The researcher collected data through the Qualtrics survey and exported the results into an Excel (.xlsx) spreadsheet. All collected responses were aggregated to create the overall institutional current and preferred scores. These scores served as the independent variable (Bluman, 2019). Samples from each employee group were studied against the overall institutional results and served as the dependent variables.

As the population standard deviation was unknown, a two-tailed t-test tested the mean differences in the current and preferred cultures for each dependent variable

(Bluman, 2019). These t-tests helped the researcher to determine if differences existed in the perceptions for each employee type (faculty, staff, administrators, and adjunct instructors) and the perceptions of all participants (institutional results). The critical t-value for each test was set at $\alpha = .05$. Several of the hypotheses utilized the t-test to determine differences including H01a, H01b, H01c, H01d, H02a, H02b, H02c, H02d, etc.)

Additionally, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) examined the equality of means in the perceptions (Bluman, 2019) between each employee type (faculty, staff, administrators, and adjunct instructors) for each OCAI culture category (clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy) These analyses helped the researcher to determine if differences existed in the way each employee type perceived the various culture categories. Similar to the t-test, α was set to .05. The hypotheses tested using the ANOVA included H01, H02, H03, H04, H05, H06, H07, H08.

Qualitative Procedures

The qualitative data gathered responses through an online Qualtrics survey. All participants completed eleven open-ended questions aimed at defining the institution's environment, purpose, core-values, definition of leadership, as well as, attempted to discover the institution's ability to adapt/change and share and disseminate information. The researcher coded the data into categories that facilitated "the comparison of data within and between categories," and that aided in producing conclusory concepts (Maxwell, 1996). The coding of responses allowed the research to develop a deeper understanding of the participants' perspectives as they related to core aspects of the institution's culture.

Conclusion

This chapter reviewed how this study extended the literature on higher education culture by analyzing the perceptions of administrator, faculty, staff, and adjunct instructors at a Midwestern, private higher education institution. The OCAI leveraged allowed the researcher to assess how the various employee types evaluated the institution's current and preferred culture while the open-ended survey provided deeper perspectives and opinions. Though this study involved reflexivity, the researcher's positions and year of services at the studied institution provided a platform to more fully comprehend the varying attitudes, opinions, and preferences. The next chapter will present the findings from the study based on the methodology outlined in this chapter.

Chapter Four: Results

The purpose of this mixed-methods study was to investigate the different perceptions of culture among faculty, staff, adjunct instructors, and administrators within a four-year higher education institution. Utilizing the Competing Values Framework, the researcher sought to understand how each employee type viewed the institution's current culture (now) and how these perceptions were similar or dissimilar to the preferred culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The espoused values and beliefs held by the various employee types examined the perceptions of the institution's environment, purpose, adaptability, and impact of leadership through a series of open-ended questions.

All randomly selected employees received an emailed consent form as well as a link to the Qualtrics survey. Each respective group received four identical surveys. Each survey contained the OCAI instrument, along with several research questions. The survey received a 12% response rate for adjunct instructors ($n = 8$), a 24.5% response rate for staff ($n = 15$), a 48% response rate for faculty ($n = 26$), and an 84% ($n = 21$) response rate for administrators. In total, there were 70 responses received.

Data analysis involved the use of selected statistical techniques to summarize and illustrate the most significant differences between the various dependent variables. The aggregated responses from all employee types served as the independent variables for both the institution's current and preferred culture. Both a two-tailed t-test and a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) tested the differences between each employee type. The critical value for all tests was set at $\alpha = .05$. Based on the size of the institution, it would have been preferable that the sample sizes for faculty, staff, and adjuncts had been greater than $n = 30$.

Hypotheses

The researcher investigated the following null hypotheses:

H₀₁: There is no difference in the perceptions of the now “clan culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{01a}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “clan culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the now “clan culture.”

H_{01b}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “clan culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the now “clan culture.”

H_{01c}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “clan culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the now “clan culture.”

H_{01d}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “clan culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the now “clan culture.”

H₀₂: There is no difference in the perceptions of the now “adhocracy culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{02a}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the now “adhocracy culture.”

H_{02b}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the now “adhocracy culture.”

H_{02c}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the now “adhocracy culture.”

H_{02d}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the now “adhocracy culture.”

H₀₃: There is no difference in the perceptions of the now “market culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{03a}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “market culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the now “market culture.”

H_{03b}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “market culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the now “market culture.”

H_{03c}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “market culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the now “market culture.”

H_{03d}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “market culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the now “market culture.”

H₀₄: There is no difference in the perceptions of the now “hierarchy culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{04a}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the now “hierarchy culture.”

H_{04b}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the now “hierarchy culture.”

H_{04c}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the now “hierarchy culture.”

H_{04d}: There is no difference between the perception of the now “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the now “hierarchy culture.”

H₀₅: There is no difference in the perceptions of the preferred “clan culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{05a}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “clan culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the preferred “clan culture.”

H_{05b}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “clan culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the preferred “clan culture.”

H_{05c}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “clan culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the preferred “clan culture.”

H_{05d}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “clan culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the preferred “clan culture.”

H₀₆: There is no difference in the perceptions of the preferred “adhocracy culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{06a}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture.”

H_{06b}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture.”

H_{06c}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture.”

H_{06d}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture.”

H₀₇: There is no difference in the perceptions of the preferred “market culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{07a}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “market culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the preferred “market culture.”

H_{07b}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “market culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the preferred “market culture.”

H_{07c}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “market culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the preferred “market culture.”

H_{07d}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “market culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the preferred “market culture.”

H₀₈: There is no difference in the perceptions of the preferred “hierarchy culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

H_{08a}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture.”

H_{08b}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture.”

H_{08c}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture.”

H_{08d}: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture.”

Research Questions

Additionally, the researcher investigated the following research questions:

RQ1: How do the various employee types describe the university’s purpose/intent?

RQ2: How do the various employee types describe the university’s ability to adapt and/or change?

RQ3: How do the various employee types describe the university’s ability to share and disseminate information?

RQ4: How do the various employee types describe the institution’s leadership?

OCAI Scoring

As discussed in Chapter 3, the OCAI instrument consists of six categories – dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, organizational glue, strategic emphasis, and criteria of success (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Each category had four culture types (Clan, Adhocracy, Market, and Hierarchy) that participants evaluated based on a 100-point scale. Participants rated the institution on how similar or dissimilar the characteristics were to the organization’s culture.

Participants’ ratings collectively could not total more than 100 points (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Participants completed the exercise twice, first rating the current or “now” culture then rating the ideal or “preferred” culture. The researcher averaged the scores from each

participant based on employee type to determine both the current and preferred “perception” of each culture.

Results

Null Hypothesis 01: There is no difference in perceptions of the now “clan culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

The researcher analyzed results from the OCAI by conducting an ANOVA to determine if there were significant variances in how each employee type perceived the current “clan culture.” Variances were analyzed between each group as well as within each group (Bluman, 2019). Based on the degrees of freedom equaling 120, the critical value calculated a score of 2.4472. The f-value equaled 1.002, which was less than the critical value. For this reason, the researcher found no significant variance between the means of the four groups and failed to reject the hypothesis.

Table 1

ANOVA Comparing Perceptions of the Now Clan Culture Between Four Employee Types

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value	F-crit
Between Groups	580.61	3	193.53	1.002	0.3976	2.744
Within Groups	12,747.63	66	193.14			
Total	13,328.24	69				

Null Hypothesis 01a: There is no difference between the perception of the now “clan culture” held by all participants and the staffs’ perceptions of the now “clan culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the staffs’ perceptions of the current clan culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for the staffs’ perceptions produced a mean of 22.83 with a standard deviation of 10.60. The perceptions of all

participants calculated a mean of 23.74 with a standard deviation of 13.89. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (.285) was between the critical values of (+/-) 2.145.

Null Hypothesis 01b: There is no difference between the perception of the now “clan culture” held by all participants and the faculty perception of the now “clan culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared if the faculty perceptions of the current clan culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for the faculty perceptions produced a mean of 23.51 with a standard deviation of 11.03. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 23.74 with a standard deviation of 13.89. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (.086) was between the critical values of (+/-) 2.06.

Null Hypothesis 01c: There is no difference between the perception of the now “clan culture” held by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the now “clan culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the administrators’ perceptions of the current clan culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for the administrators’ perceptions produced a mean of 21.72 with a standard deviation of 11.05. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 23.74 with a standard deviation of 13.89. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (.0689) was between the critical values of (+/-) 2.086.

Null Hypothesis 01d: There is no difference between the perception of the now “clan culture” held by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the now “clan culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the adjunct instructors’ perceptions of the current clan culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for the adjunct instructors’ perceptions produced a mean of 31.5 with a standard deviation of 28.50. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 23.74 with a standard deviation of 13.89. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (-.759) was between the critical values of (+/-) 2.365.

Table 2

Summary of Results for Current Clan Culture

Culture Type	Employee Type	M	SD	T	α
Clan	Staff	22.83	10.60	.285	(+/-) 2.145
	Faculty	23.51	11.03	.086	(+/-) 2.060
	Administrator	21.72	11.05	.689	(+/-) 2.086
	Adjunct Instructor	31.50	28.50	-.759	(+/-) 2.365

Null Hypothesis 02: There is no difference in perceptions of the now “adhocracy culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

The researcher analyzed results from the OCAI by conducting an ANOVA to determine if there were significant variances in how each employee perceived the current “adhocracy culture.” Variances were analyzed between each group as well as within each group (Bluman, 2019). Based on the degrees of freedom equaling 120, the critical value calculated a score of 2.4472. The f-value equaled 0.259, which was less than the critical value of 2.4472. For this reason, the researcher found no significant variance between the means of the four groups and failed to reject the hypothesis.

Table 3

ANOVA Comparing Perceptions of the Now Adhocracy Culture Between Four Employee Types

Source of Variation	SS	Df	MS	F	p-value	F-crit
Between Groups	43.01	3	14.33	.259	0.8546	2.744
Within Groups	3,652.77	66	55.34			
Total	3,695.78	69				

Null Hypothesis 02a: There is no difference between the perception of the now “adhocracy culture” held by all participants and the staffs’ perceptions of the now “adhocracy culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the staffs’ perceptions of the current adhocracy culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for the staff’s perceptions produced a mean of 13.94 with a standard deviation of 7.08. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 13.54 with a standard deviation of 7.31. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (-.196) was between the critical value of 2.145.

Null Hypothesis 02b: There is no difference between the perception of the now “adhocracy culture” held by all participants and the faculty perception of the now “adhocracy culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the faculty perceptions of the current adhocracy culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for the faculty’s perceptions produced a mean of 13.94 with a standard deviation of 7.09. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 13.54 with a standard deviation of 7.31. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (-.241) was between the critical value of (+/-) 2.060.

Null Hypothesis 02c: There is no difference between the perception of the now “adhocracy culture” held by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the now “adhocracy culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared in the administrators’ perceptions of the current adhocracy culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for the administrators’ perceptions produced a mean of 13.59 with a standard deviation of 6.40. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 13.54 with a standard deviation of 7.31. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (-.030) was between the critical values of (+/-) 2.086.

Null Hypothesis 02d: There is no difference between the perception of the now “adhocracy culture” held by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the now “adhocracy culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the adjunct instructors’ perceptions of the current adhocracy culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for the adjunct instructors’ perceptions produced a mean of 11.40 with a standard deviation of 10.88. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 13.54 with a standard deviation of 7.319. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (0.542) was between the critical values of (+/-) 2.365.

Table 4

Summary of Results for Current Adhocracy Culture

Culture Type	Employee Type	M	SD	T	α
Adhocracy	Staff	13.93	7.08	-.196	(+/-) 2.145
	Faculty	13.94	7.09	-.241	(+/-) 2.060
	Administrator	13.59	6.40	-.030	(+/-) 2.086
	Adjunct Instructor	11.40	10.88	.542	(+/-) 2.365

Null Hypothesis 03: There is no difference in perceptions of the now “market culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

The researcher analyzed results from the OCAI by conducting an ANOVA to determine if there were significant variances in how each employee perceived the current “market culture.” Variances were analyzed between each group as well as within each group (Bluman, 2019). Based on the degrees of freedom equaling 120, the critical value calculated a score of 2.4472. The f-value equaled 1.388, which was less than the critical value of 2.4472. For this reason, the researcher found no significant variance between the means of the four groups and failed to reject the hypothesis.

Table 5

ANOVA Comparing Perceptions of the Now Market Culture Between Four Employee Types

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value	F-crit
Between Groups	780.09	3	260.03	1.388	0.2543	2.744
Within Groups	12,368.46	66	187.40			
Total	13,148.55	69				

Null Hypothesis 03a: There is no difference between the perception of the now “market culture” held by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the now “market culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared in the staff’s perceptions of the current market culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for staffs’ perceptions produced a mean of 31.11 with a standard deviation of 8.59. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 29.31 with a standard deviation of 13.80. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (-.653) was between the critical values of (+/-) 2.145.

Null Hypothesis 03b: There is no difference between the perception of the now “market culture” held by all participants and the faculty perception of the now “market culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the faculty perceptions of the current market culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for faculty perceptions produced a mean of 31.73 with a standard deviation of 15.28. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 29.31 with a standard deviation of 13.804. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (-0.707) was between the critical value of (+/-) 2.060.

Null Hypothesis 03c: There is no difference between the perception of the now “market culture” held by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the now “market culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the administrators’ perceptions of the current market culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for administrators’ perceptions produced a mean of 28.19 with a standard deviation of 14.26. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 29.31 with a standard deviation of 13.804. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (.318), which was between than the critical values of (+/-) 2.086.

Null Hypothesis 03d: There is no difference between the perception of the now “market culture” held by all participants and the adjunct instructor’s perception of the now “market culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the adjunct instructors’ perceptions of the current market culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for adjunct

instructors' perceptions produced a mean of 21 with a standard deviation of 14.24. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 29.31 with a standard deviation of 13.804. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (1.568) was between the critical values of (+/-) 2.365.

Table 6

Summary of Results for Current Market Culture

Culture Type	Employee Type	M	SD	T	α
Market	Staff	31.11	8.59	-.653	(+/-) 2.145
	Faculty	31.73	15.28	-.707	(+/-) 2.060
	Administrator	28.19	14.26	.318	(+/-) 2.086
	Adjunct Instructor	21	14.24	1.568	(+/-) 2.365

Null Hypothesis 04: There is no difference in perceptions of the now “hierarchy culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

The researcher analyzed results from the OCAI by conducting an ANOVA to determine if there were significant variances in how each employee perceived the current “hierarchy culture.” Variances analyzed results between each group as well as within each group (Bluman, 2019). Based on the degrees of freedom equaling 120, the critical value calculated a score of 2.4472. The f-value equaled 0.684, which was less than the critical value of 2.4472. For this reason, the researcher found no significant variance between the means of the four groups and failed to reject the hypothesis.

Table 7

ANOVA Comparing Perceptions of the Now Hierarchy Culture Between Four Employee Types

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value	F-crit
Between Groups	456.44	3	152.14	0.684	0.5647	2.744
Within Groups	14,671.23	66	222.29			
Total	15,127.67	69				

Null Hypothesis 04a: There is no difference between the perception of the now “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the now “hierarchy culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the staffs’ perceptions of the current hierarchy culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for staff’s perceptions produced a mean of 32.11 with a standard deviation of 12.37. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 33.4 with a standard deviation of 14.807. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (.351) was between the critical values of (+/-) 2.145.

Null Hypothesis 04b: There is no difference between the perception of the now “hierarchy culture” held by all participants and the faculty perception of the now “hierarchy culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the faculty perceptions of the current hierarchy culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for faculty perceptions produced a mean of 30.81 with a standard deviation of 12.34. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 33.4 with a standard deviation of 14.81. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (.861) was between the critical values of (+/-) 2.060.

Null Hypothesis 04c: There is no difference between the perception of the now “hierarchy culture” held by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the now “hierarchy culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the administrators’ perceptions of the current hierarchy culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for the administrators’ perceptions produced a mean of 36.48, with a standard deviation of 16.33.

The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 33.4 with a standard deviation of 14.81.

The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (-.776) was between the critical values of (+/-) 2.086.

Null Hypothesis 04d: There is no difference between the perception of the now “hierarchy culture” held by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the now “hierarchy culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the adjunct instructors’ perceptions of the current hierarchy culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for adjunct instructors’ perceptions produced a mean of 36.09 with a standard deviation of 21.96. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 33.4 with a standard deviation of 14.81. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (-.338), which was between the critical value of (+/-) 2.365.

Table 8

Summary of Results for Current Hierarchy Culture

Culture Type	Employee Type	M	SD	T	α
Hierarchy	Staff	32.11	12.37	.351	(+/-) 2.145
	Faculty	30.81	12.34	.861	(+/-) 2.060
	Administrator	36.48	16.33	-.776	(+/-) 2.086
	Adjunct Instructor	36.09	21.96	-.338	(+/-) 2.365

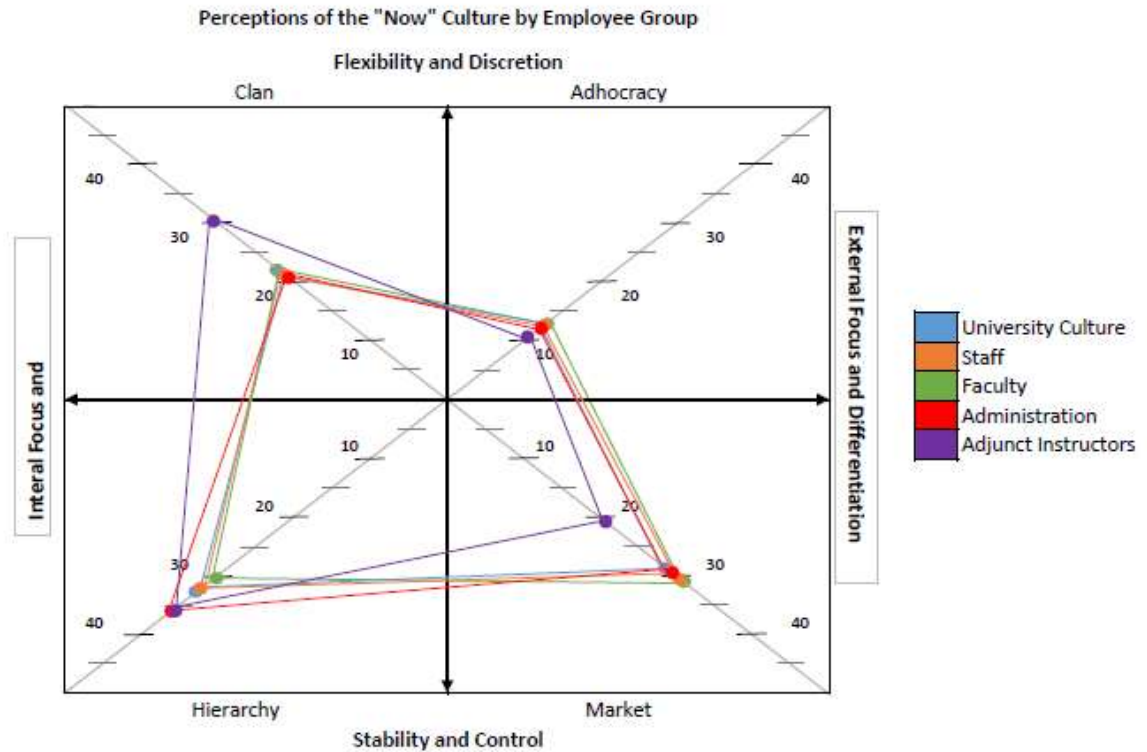


Figure 2. Summary of Results for Current Culture

Null Hypothesis 05: There is no difference in perceptions of the preferred “clan culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

The researcher analyzed results from the OCAI by conducting an ANOVA to determine if there were significant variances in how each employee perceived the preferred “clan culture.” Variances analyzed results between each group as well as within each group (Bluman, 2019). Based on the degrees of freedom equaling 120, the critical value calculated a score of 2.4472. The f-value equaled 2.041, which was less than the critical value of 2.4472. For this reason, the researcher found no significant variance between the means of the four groups and failed to reject the hypothesis.

Table 9

ANOVA Comparing Perceptions of the Preferred Clan Culture Between Four Employee Types

Source of Variation	SS	Df	MS	F	p-value	F-crit
Between Groups	1099.76	3	366.58	2.041	0.1166	2.744
Within Groups	11,853.06	66	179.59			
Total	12,952.82	69				

Null Hypothesis 05a: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “clan culture” held by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the preferred “clan culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the staffs’ perceptions of the preferred hierarchy culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for staffs’ perceptions produced a mean of 29.41 with a standard deviation of 8.08. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 33.14 with a standard deviation of 13.70. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (1.404) was between the critical values of (+/-) 2.145.

Null Hypothesis 05b: There is no difference between the perceptions of the preferred “clan culture” held by all participants and the faculty perceptions of the preferred “clan culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the faculty perceptions of the preferred clan culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for faculty perceptions produced a mean of 31.12 with a standard deviation of 11.70. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 33.14 with a standard deviation of 13.70. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (.716) was between the critical values of (+/-) 2.060.

Null Hypothesis 05c: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “clan culture” held by all participants and the administrators’ perceptions of the preferred “clan culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the administrators’ perceptions of the preferred clan culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for administrators’ perceptions produced a mean of 34.64 with a standard deviation of 12.21. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 33.14 with a standard deviation of 13.70. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (-.479), which was between the critical value of (+/-) 2.086.

Null Hypothesis 05d: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “clan culture” held by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the preferred “clan culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the adjunct instructors’ perceptions of the preferred clan to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for adjunct instructors’ perceptions produced a mean of 42.75 with a standard deviation of 25.43. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 33.14 with a standard deviation of 13.70. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (-1.051) was between the critical value of (+/-) 2.365.

Table 10

Summary of Results for Preferred Clan Culture

Culture Type	Employee Type	M	SD	t	α
Clan	Staff	29.41	8.08	1.404	(+/-) 2.145
	Faculty	31.12	11.70	.716	(+/-) 2.060
	Administrator	34.64	12.21	-.479	(+/-) 2.086
	Adjunct Instructor	42.75	25.43	-1.051	(+/-) 2.365

Null Hypothesis 06: There is no difference between in perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture” from each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

The researcher analyzed results from the OCAI by conducting an ANOVA to determine if there were significant variances in how each employee perceived the preferred “adhocracy culture.” Variances analyzed results between each group as well as within each group (Bluman, 2019). Based on the degrees of freedom equaling 120, the critical value calculated a score of 2.4472. The f-value equaled 2.029, which was less than the critical value of 2.4472. For this reason, the researcher found no significant variance between the means of the four groups and failed to reject the hypothesis.

Table 11

ANOVA Comparing Perceptions of the Preferred Clan Culture Between Four Employee Types

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value	F-crit
Between Groups	627.849	3	209.28	2.029	0.1182	2.744
Within Groups	6.805.99	66	103.12			
Total	7,433.84	69				

Null Hypothesis 06a: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture” held by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the staff’s perceptions of the preferred adhocracy culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for staffs’ perceptions produced a mean of 24.75 with a standard deviation of 8.72. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 27.625 with a standard deviation of 10.38. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (1.118) was between the critical values of (+/-) 2.145.

Null Hypothesis 06b: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the faculty perceptions of the preferred adhocracy culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for faculty perceptions produced a mean of 25.51 with a standard deviation of 7.11. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 27.625 with a standard deviation of 10.38. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (1.134) was between the critical values of (+/-) 2.060.

Null Hypothesis 06c: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the administrators’ perceptions of the preferred adhocracy culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for the administrators’ perceptions produced a mean of 30.15 with a standard deviation of 10.42. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 27.625 with a standard deviation of 10.38. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (-0.976), which was between the critical values of (+/-) 2.086.

Null Hypothesis 06d: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the preferred “adhocracy culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the adjunct instructors’ perceptions of the preferred adhocracy culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for

the adjunct instructors' perceptions produced a mean of 33.25 with a standard deviation of 18.13. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 27.625 with a standard deviation of 10.38. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (-0.861) was between the critical values of (+/-) 2.365.

Table 12

Summary of Results for Preferred Adhocracy Culture

Culture Type	Employee Type	M	SD	t	α
Adhocracy	Staff	24.75	8.72	-.360	(+/-) 2.145
	Faculty	25.51	7.11	-.814	(+/-) 2.060
	Administrator	30.15	10.42	-.976	(+/-) 2.086
	Adjunct Instructor	33.25	18.13	-1.436	(+/-) 2.365

Null Hypothesis 07: There is no difference in perceptions of the preferred “market culture” between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

The researcher analyzed results from the OCAI by conducting an ANOVA to determine if there were significant variances in how each employee perceived the preferred “market culture.” Variances analyzed results between each group as well as within each group (Bluman, 2019). Based on the degrees of freedom equaling 120, the critical value calculated a score of 2.4472. The f-value equaled 1.550, which was less than the critical value of 2.4472. For this reason, the researcher found no significant variance between the means of the four groups and failed to reject the hypothesis.

Table 13

ANOVA Comparing Perceptions of the Preferred Clan Culture Between Four Employee Types

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value	F-crit
Between Groups	375.55	3	125.18	1.550	0.2098	2.744
Within Groups	5,329.64	66	80.75			
Total	5,705.20	69				

Null Hypothesis 07a: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “market culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the preferred “market culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the staffs’ perceptions of the preferred market culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for staffs’ perceptions produced a mean of 22.2 with a standard deviation of 6.86. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 23.74 with a standard deviation of 13.89. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (0.635) was between the critical values of (+/-) 2.145.

Null Hypothesis 07b: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “market culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the preferred “market culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the faculty perceptions of the preferred market culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for faculty perceptions produced a mean of 18.31 with a standard deviation of 6.34. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 23.74 with a standard deviation of 13.89. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (-.001) was between the critical values of (+/-) 2.060.

Null Hypothesis 07c: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “market culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the preferred “market culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the administrators’ perceptions of the preferred market culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for

administrators' perceptions produced a mean of 16.86 with a standard deviation of 9.96. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 23.74 with a standard deviation of 13.89. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (.589) was between the critical values (+/-) 2.086.

Null Hypothesis 07d: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred "market culture" by all participants and the adjunct instructor's perception of the preferred "market culture."

A two-sample t-test of means compared the adjunct instructors' perceptions of the preferred market culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for adjunct instructors' perceptions produced a mean of 14.68 with a standard deviation of 15.48. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean 23.74 with a standard deviation of 13.89. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (.647) was between the critical values of (+/-) 2.365.

Table 14

Summary of Results for Preferred Market Culture

Culture Type	Employee Type	M	SD	t	α
Market	Staff	22.20	6.86	-1.877	(+/-) 2.145
	Faculty	18.32	6.34	-.001	(+/-) 2.060
	Administrator	16.86	9.96	.589	(+/-) 2.086
	Adjunct Instructor	14.68	15.48	.647	(+/-) 2.365

Null Hypothesis 08: There is no difference in perceptions of the preferred "hierarchy culture" between each of the employee types (faculty, staff, administrator, and adjunct instructors).

The researcher analyzed results from the OCAI by conducting an ANOVA to determine if there were significant variances in how each employee perceived the preferred "hierarchy culture." Variances analyzed results between each group as well as

within each group (Bluman, 2019). Based on the degrees of freedom equaling 120, the critical value calculated a score of 2.4472. The f-value equaled 4.834, which was higher than the critical value of 2.4472. For this reason, the researcher noted there was significant variance between the means of the four groups and rejected the null hypothesis.

To understand where the differences in means existed, the researcher completed a Scheffe' test (Bluman, 2019). This test showed significant variance between the staff and adjunct instructors as well as between the faculty and the adjunct instructors. The FS value between the staff and the adjunct instructors was 8.75, which was higher than the F-critical value of 8.231. Similarly, the FS value between the faculty and the adjunct instructors was 12.39, which was significantly higher than the F-critical value of 8.231.

Table 15

ANOVA Comparing Perceptions of the Preferred Clan Culture Between Four Employee Types

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value	F-crit
Between Groups	1,771.86	3	590.62	4.834	0.0042	2.744
Within Groups	8,064.49	66	122.18			
Total	9,836.36	69				

Null Hypothesis 08a: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the staffs’ perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the staffs’ perceptions of the preferred market culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for staffs’ perceptions produced a mean of 23.63 with a standard deviation of 5.43. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean of 20.93 with a standard deviation of 11.94. The

researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (-1.35) was between the critical values of (+/-) 2.145.

Null Hypothesis 08b: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the faculty perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the faculty perceptions of the preferred market culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for faculty perceptions produced a mean of 25.08 with a standard deviation of 14.57. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean of 20.63 with a standard deviation of 11.94. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (-1.30) was between the critical values of (+/-) 2.060.

Null Hypothesis 08c: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the administrators’ perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the administrators’ perceptions of the preferred market culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for the administrators’ perceptions produced a mean of 18.33 with a standard deviation of 9.40. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean of 20.63 with a standard deviation of 11.94. The researcher failed to reject the null as the t-value (1.039) was between the critical values of (+/-) 2.086.

Null Hypothesis 08d: There is no difference between the perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture” by all participants and the adjunct instructors’ perception of the preferred “hierarchy culture.”

A two-sample t-test of means compared the adjunct instructors’ perceptions of the preferred market culture to the perceptions held by all participants. The analysis for adjunct instructor’s perceptions produced a mean of 9.31 with a standard deviation of 9.04. The analysis of all participants calculated a mean of 20.63 with a standard deviation of 11.94. The researcher rejected the null as the t-value (3.319) was more than the critical values of (+/-) 2.365.

Table 16

Summary of Results for Preferred Hierarchy Culture

Culture Type	Employee Type	M	SD	t	α
Hierarchy	Staff	23.63	5.43	-1.350	(+/-) 2.145
	Faculty	25.08	14.57	-1.300	(+/-) 2.060
	Administrator	18.33	9.40	1.039	(+/-) 2.086
	Adjunct Instructor	9.31	9.04	3.319	(+/-) 2.365

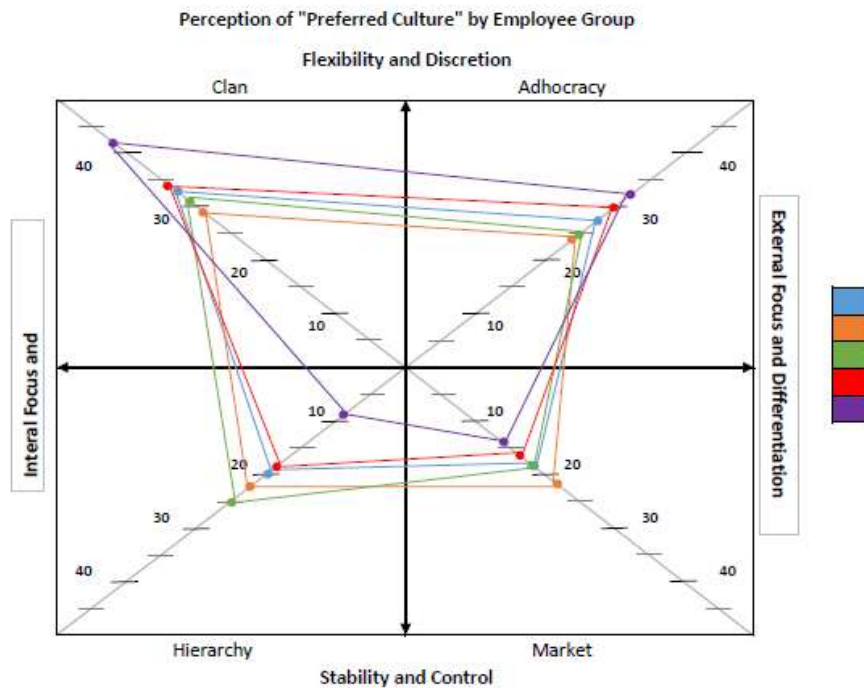


Figure 3. Summary of Results for Preferred Culture

Research Question 1: How do the various employee types describe the institution's ability to meet its purpose/intent?

The researcher asked several questions related to the institution's purpose and intent. These questions aimed at discovering how much the institution's mission provided clear meaning and direction for employees' work, if employees felt that the institution has fulfilled its purpose, and if the institution had developed a long-term plan or clear strategy for the future. Three major themes emerged. Theme one represented 48.75% of the respondents who believed the institution had a clear, defined mission and purpose. Theme two, representing 34.29% of the respondents, believed the mission, purpose, and plan was unclear or vague. While the third theme, comprised of 5.57% of faculty and adjunct instructors, discussed the issues experienced with connecting curriculum and course design to the mission.

Table 17

Summary of Results for Research Question 1, Mission, Purpose, Plan

	Adjunct Instructors	Faculty	Staff	Administrators
Clear mission, purpose, plan	28.57%	50.00%	53.33%	52.38%
Mission, purpose, plan was unclear	42.86%	34.62%	46.67%	47.62%
Mission, purpose, plan was not easy to connect to the curriculum	28.57%	15.38%	-	-

RQ 1 Theme 1: Institution had a clear mission, purpose, plan.

From the 70 responses received, 48.75% believed the institution had a clear mission and defined purpose. These responses included adjuncts, administrations, staff, and faculty. The 28.57% of the adjuncts that responded believed the "mission is accurate in that the institution does enhance lives through quality education and professional

preparatory experiences.” One adjunct instructor noted, “There has been much communication and explanation of the long-term goals of the institution.”

Faculty provided similar responses to those found among the adjunct instructors. One faculty member claimed “the mission is very clear and simple” and “it reiterates the importance of teaching from experience as well as research.” Exactly 50% of the faculty responses felt the institution had a strong mission, purpose, and plan. These faculty believed this mission “is directly tied to [the] faculty members for providing real experiences and future success.” One professor shared, “my purpose and work align with ‘real experience, real success.’ Every day I work to provide the best experience for our students while they are on campus.” Another shared that “the institution has a strategic plan and has various committees that are attempting to put the plan into action.”

Though this group of faculty members was supportive of the mission and strategic plan, there were a few that provided constructive feedback. For example, one faculty member discussed the “strategic plan does outline the goals for the university, but lacks a specific timeline or the ‘how’ i.e. budgets, resources.” A different professor shared, “it’s like watching a game of chess and guessing what will happen based on individual moves.” Other faculty discussed there “needs to be more support to certain fields to make the experience better for our students.” This support included upgrades to facilities. As noted by one professor, “facilities are paramount, students [can’t] think the school is great when they see aging buildings with things falling apart.”

Several staff members also felt the institution had a strong, clear mission and purpose. One, in particular, shared the “institution’s mission shows what the University is meant to be and exemplify, which translates in how I would conduct and apply myself in

accordance to those values.” Similarly, a different staff employee claimed the “mission for real experience, real success drives my job because we are trying to sell that to prospective students, so we want examples of that to very evident.” This group of staff claimed, “It definitely feels like we are moving forward in a positive direction to evolve and transform into a school that focuses on our students more and more.” They also believed, “the strategic plan is well thought out and includes goals that should keep the institution on par with others in the area.” Staff in this category represented 53.33% of the total staff responses, highlighting a majority of the staff were favorable of the strategic plan and direction of the institution.

Over half (52.38%) of the administrators were also supportive of the mission and the strategic plan. These administrators believed overall the institution was meeting its purpose, but was also more aware of the barriers present. For example, one administrator noted, “in its purest sense,” the university was providing a “post-secondary education” but “to provide an experience within the education process that is impactful, not sure.” Another administrator shared, “I do believe we have pockets of the university that are providing our stakeholders with real experience and real success, while still committing to our values.” However, this administrator continued by stating, “There are still areas in the university that have not aligned with this way of thinking and are not meeting those needs.” “We provide a good education at a more than fair price to our students. But we could be so much more,” claimed a third administrator. These administrators were aware that the institution was in a state of transition and while supportive of the overall direction, they recognized the work that needed to continue in order to unify all departments and groups.

RQ 1 Theme 2: Mission, purpose, plan was unclear.

Overall, 41.43% of the responses received believed the mission, purpose, and strategic plan was unclear or vague. Surprisingly, the largest employee group was the administrators, with 47.62% falling into this category. Several administrators discussed the need for more communication. These administrators shared “the institution’s mission is very broad and open-ended. Specific examples and focused conversations on its achievements would provide clarity of meaning and direction.” One administrator believed the “current mission is good,” but felt “there is a major issue in the communication of it and ‘what it means’ in all aspects of the University.” A different administrator claimed that “while there might be a documented long-term plan/strategy,” he or she was “not sure how well it’s been communicated downward and incorporated into short-term goals.”

Other administrators discussed the uncertainty surrounding the strategic plan. As noted by one administrator, the institution had “yet to define who we are and who we want to be. There needs to be a collaboration of leadership at all levels to determine this.” A different administrator shared similar feelings and shared, “we still seem to be trying to find our niche.” Other administrators, however, believed “everyone wants to have a plan and clear strategy, but do not feel one currently exists. We have a strategic plan that includes very high-level themes, but has not yet been developed into a full strategy.” “The plan is currently in need of refinement, aligning with strategic enrollment plans and strategies,” shared one administrator.

Numerous faculty and adjuncts that also felt the mission, purpose, and plan were unclear. Over 30% of the faculty and over 40% of the adjuncts discussed various issues

present with the current strategic plan. One faculty member shared “the strategic plan provided to the faculty was lacking in specifics and seemed contrary to university strengths at present.” A different faculty member shared, “there appears to be a mission but there is no clear long-term plan implementation, no timelines, no clear strategy for how things will be accomplished.” One professor agreed with the mission but shared that he or she would like to “actually implement it.” This professor went on to share, “we created amazing real-world opportunities and created a real-world degree and were then told we needed to merge with our art degree and removed all of our real-world classes and connections.”

Both faculty, adjunct instructors, and administrators discussed the frequency of changes experienced. The faculty believed achieving the mission was “hard to do...when leadership changes every few years.” One faculty member provided there have been “recent changes in administration and no clear communication as to what the long-term plans are.” Additionally, “faculty has been left in the dark regarding way too many things and have become far removed from administrative decisions.” This feeling led one adjunct instructor to share that the institution’s purpose “is ever-changing depending on the current needs/desires of leadership.”

Several administrators also commented on the number of changes experienced. One administrator discussed, “the institution is experiencing a lot of change and, with each change, comes a need to allow employees to accept and support this change.” A different administrator commented, “We have experienced a lot of changed over the past 5 or so years and I don’t feel like [the studied school] has redefined itself after that period

of change.” This individual followed this statement by sharing, “in some areas, we in a sense let change happen to use instead of having a clear strategy to drive the change.”

Several responses received from adjunct instructors, faculty, and administrators demonstrated that a portion of the employee body did not identify with or know what the current mission and purpose of the institution were. When asked if the institution’s mission provided clear meaning and direction, responses included “not at all” and “I’m not sure we’ve adequately defined what our mission is.” Others stated, “I am not sure the institution knows its purpose right now” and that “we don’t know what type of institution the board/current administration wants us to be or strive for.” One faculty member shared, “I feel as though we are reactionary. We don’t look ahead or think big picture. Everything is in the now. Nobody knows what the long-term plan for campus is.” Another claimed that it was “hard for [the purpose] to be met when all we experience are budget cuts.”

Administrators, faculty, and adjuncts were not the only ones that felt this way. Staff represented 26.67% of the responses received. Staff comments varied but mirrored many of the statements shared by the other employee types. One staff member discussed the lack of communication stating, “If there is a long-term plan it has not been communicated to everyone at all levels.” Others discussed the consistency of changes claiming, “the change in leadership and changes in organizational structure has left much to be desired in a plan or strategy.” Staff commented that plans were “not shared” and that “transparency is not common here.” The lack of transparency caused many staff in this group to believe the institution was “reactionary. We don’t look ahead or think big picture. Everything is in the now.”

RQ1 Theme 3: Mission, purpose, plan was not easy to connect to the curriculum.

Several faculty and adjuncts discussed the disconnect between the mission and purpose of the institution and the actual curriculum taught. Though this group represented a small 8.57% of the overall responses, these comments brought forth issues academics were experiencing in carrying out the mission. For example, one faculty member stated, “I understand [the mission], but am not able to change things to actually do it.” This faculty member went on to discuss how implementing curriculum changes to provide real experiences was “limited” and lacking “new ideas.” A different faculty member discussed that the mission “highlights quality education” but noted that “professional preparatory experiences are not directly available on campus, so I try to find opportunities for them outside the institution.”

Others discussed how continuous changes were affecting their ability to provide better experiences. One adjunct instructor claimed, “Classes are constantly being changed and merged while forcing skills to conform with accreditation.” This adjunct felt that such changes “take away skills what actually matters in industries we teach.” Similar to this statement a faculty member shared that “we were encouraged” by the new mission, “but all of the recent changes we have been going through has proven we are doing the opposite.” A different faculty member claimed the “mission is pretty vague” and admitted it did “not necessarily drive... day-to-day activities.” Instead, this professor felt the “department and colleagues are more influential.”

Research Question 2: How do the various employee types describe the university's ability to adapt and/or change?

The researcher asked several open-ended questions related to the institution's ability to adapt and change. These questions aimed at understanding how well the institution was willing to adapt and change, considered feedback when making decisions, and what kind of emphasis, if any, the institution placed on professional development. These themes along with their subthemes are discussed in detail below.

RQ2 Theme 1: Institution's ability to adapt and change

The discussion of the institution's ability to adapt and change to internal and external factors formed three subthemes. The first subtheme, representing 28.57% of the respondents, believed the institution was adapting at a poor rate. The second subtheme, representing 41.43% of the respondents, felt the institution was inconsistent in adapting and changing while the last subtheme, representing 28.57% of the respondents, believed the institution was adapting and modifying itself in a successful manner.

Table 18

Summary of Results for Research Question 2, Adaptability

	Adjunct Instructors	Faculty	Staff	Administrators
Institution was successful at adapting and changing	42.86%	19.23%	33.33%	33.33%
Institution was inconsistent at adapting and changing	28.57%	46.15%	40.00%	42.86%
Institution was poor at adapting and changing	28.57%	34.62%	26.67%	23.81%

RQ2 Theme 1a: Institution Was Successful at Adapting and Changing.

Employees from each employee group shared comments discussing the institution's willingness to adapt and change. This group represented 28.57% of the total responses

received, with the largest group of respondents being adjuncts. Though 42.86% of the adjunct participants responded favorably, their comments were limited to their school and did not extend to the university at large. For example, one adjunct shared “my dept . . . amazing. The rest of the ‘leadership’ not so much.” Another adjunct described his department as being “extremely progressive.”

Staff also described the institution’s ability to adapt. This group of staff represented 33.33% of the responses received. As described by one staff employee, “I believe the institution welcomes change and encourages adaptation.” Some recognized that adaptation is “slow but improving,” but “overall [the institution] is willing and able to adapt.” Staff went on to share that “most of the time employees are informed of changes and given direction as to how these changes are to be carried out.” A different staff member commented that “I would say ‘they’re working on this’” and that the institution was “making it work.”

Several administrators (33.33%) were also supportive of the institution’s ability to adapt and change. One administrator shared that the institution is “very willing.” “Given shared understanding of ‘what’ and more importantly ‘why’” the institution can be “extremely willing and extremely able,” shared a different administrator. Others discussed how the institution was improving in this area stating, “We try and seem to be working on it,” but realized “it’s hard.” It was shared that “if strong leadership is not brought in to replace [the president] then it will continue to be challenging.”

Several faculty (19.23%) also shared in believing the institution could adapt if “it can be effectively communicated properly and done with faculty in mind.” One faculty member shared that “since the board has reorganized, adapting and changing has actually

occurred.” This faculty member went on to state, “there is actually some proactive activity rather than purely reactive.” A third professor shared that the university's ability to change was “better than most” and that it “will improve as more of the lingering baby-boomers move on.”

Though this group felt the institution was willing to adapt and change, there were several comments shared related to the frequency of the change experienced. One staff member claimed the university is “very willing [to adapt]. Change is constant here!” An administrator shared that the institution was “very willing” to adapt. “We’ve seemed to change course a multitude of times over the past few years which leads to people questioning the path.” The university continued to have “sudden and massive leadership changes” that have deteriorated “trust and legitimacy.” Overall, employees in this group felt “the institution [was] both entrepreneurial and risk-averse, depending on the area of focus.” One administrator provided perspective to these thoughts by sharing the following:

I have seen significant change proposition and acceptance within the academic side of the house. Administrative willingness to change has historically been high. However, we are beginning to move into a culture of managed change that is highly scrutinized and based on fact rather than feeling. This is an important step in moving towards a mature institution of higher education.

RQ2 Theme 1b: The institution was Inconsistent at Adapting/Changing. A larger portion of employees, 32.86%, discussed the inconsistency the university displayed in adapting and changing to the environment. Faculty represented the largest of the employee types with 46.15% falling into this category. One faculty member claimed, “I

believe the institution is willing to adapt to a certain extent.” However, “it must be willing to make the monetary investments to do so properly.” Faculty also claimed, “Some of our policies and practices are outdated and reflect a hesitance to adapt to where students are today.” One professor shared that the institution must “engage faculty buy-in” as well as “collaborate or consider another’s ideas.” As a result of “sudden and massive leadership changes cloaked in secrecy” took place, “trust and legitimacy” were compromised. Overall, this group of faculty believed the institution “recognizes the need for change but when it’s all said and done, the student experience changes very little.”

Forty percent of the staff had similar feelings. One staff employee shared, “it seems the university is going through a turnover period after the change in leadership,” which seemed to impact leadership’s ability to communicate “to employees as effectively as they could be”. Staff discussed how some administrators are “very willing to go with change and/or adapt for the good of the students and school,” while others are “not willing to change.” One staff employee discussed the fact that “traditions and values have remained steadfast,” which had prevented the institution from becoming “more sustainable.” A different staff employee provided “in my reality and experience people love structure and to be a part of something larger than themselves.” This employee went on to state that this was particularly true “in times of change.”

Staff were not the only one who commented that traditions were preventing necessary changes. Two adjuncts, which represented 28.57% of the respondents, shared similar statements. Though the “university has been more flexible since [the previous president] retired,” these adjuncts felt that “sometimes our traditions and desire to stay the same get in our way.” The institutions inconsistency in adapting was also a topic

discussed among administrators. Over 40% (42.86%) of the administrators felt the institution was “not overly conservative, but definitely not liberal” when it came to implementing change. Several administrators felt that overall, the institution was rather slow at adapting claiming it did “not keep up with the current societal and industry changes.” One administrator shared “our slow reaction at times does not allow us to be at the cutting edge and taking risks that could move us ahead of our competition.” This slow reaction, as explained by one administrator, was the result of some being “willing but others are not, therefore we stand still in our progress to be better.”

The institution was in the “middle of the road,” as one administrator described. A similar thought shared by a different administrator commented:

Like most institutions, we have a bell-curve when it comes to willingness to adapt to change. On one end we have a small group of people willing to change, perhaps just for change sake. On the other end, we have people who will never change. The large group in the middle, willing to try change, if they understand why the change is needed.

“As with any organization, change is hard for many employees. For the past four years, too many changes were rolled out and employees were left stunned and unable to process it all,” believed one administrator. Similar to this statement, another administrator claimed, “Change occurred often and without any rationale to why and/or how it’s helping.” This administrator went on to state, “we quickly saw ‘change fatigue’ happen across campus. These administrators noted, “That is not to say that many of the changes weren’t important” but shared “when to implement change and how to communicate often determines if it will be successful.”

Technology was also a subject mentioned among several of the employees. One administrator shared that “improvements such as the switch to Canvas, updated IT structure, focus on assessment, better HR management systems, and the launch of the Learning Academy...are just a few of the meaningful changes that are transforming the university.” However, though an adjunct instructor claimed to be “excited about the technological advances being made and the incorporation of it in the curriculum,” he or she noted there was a lack of “student support.” This instructor claimed, “Many students in my classes do not have the basic technology skills to be competitive or even employable in schools right now.” A staff member also discussed the lack of willingness with some faculty claiming “current technologies that are now in use in our field that students are expected to know,” are not a part of the curriculum and programs.

RQ2 Theme 1c: Poor or Unable to Adapt. Numerous employees from each employee group shared opinions that described the institution’s ability to adapt and change as “awful” and “reluctant.” This group represented 28.57% of the total responses received with majority of the responses from adjuncts and faculty. Adjuncts described the institution’s ability to adapt as being “set in stone” and “poor.” Faculty, on the other hand, shared, “we’ve been forced to change so often, so while we’re able by proxy we’re certainly not willing.” One faculty member claimed, “Change appears to be our institution’s modus operandi. This change has all too often happened in the name of let’s see if this works.” For some faculty, they stated they “were adapting and changing and then we were changed back.” “Sometimes too much change without really studying the current structures,” took place accompanied by “limited involvement in the process or explanation as to why the change is happening,” discussed one professor.

Additionally, there were a couple of faculty who believed the institution was “reasonably willing to adapt,” but shared they were “distrustful of the motives of the leadership.” This distrust was “due to lack of clarity about long-term goals” and of “data-driven change when it has seen changes made based on data that was cherry-picked to justify those changes that had already been decided upon.” Another faculty member claimed these actions cause many faculty to not “speak up for fear of losing their jobs.”

Staff also shared similar opinions to the faculty and adjunct instructors. “I think [the university] is very stuck in a ‘this is how it’s been done’ mindset,” shared one staff employee. “We have not been adapting well with the small changes we have seen,” provided a different staff member. This group of staff believed that “adaptation and change are only good if it makes sense” and thought the changes “seen so far have only been detrimental.” One staff employee provided that “with no apparent leadership, adapting and changing are not possible.” Another claimed, “We are too set in our ways” and questions “when real changes start to happen” if the institution would be able to “change with them.”

Several administrators were just as critical of the institution’s ability to adapt and change as the faculty, adjuncts, and staff were. One administrator claimed, “The University has embraced change in a few small areas, but overall is reluctant to change or take a risk.” A different administrator noted, “We are very rigid with change. Communication is often poor so change provokes fear on campus.” This group of administrators felt the institution’s leader did a “very poor job of including viewpoints from all stakeholders and listening to them.” As a result, there was a perceived “skepticism that the interests of the entire organization are being served.” Though there

were “a lot of people from the outside that have assisted in making the university more flexible,” overall the change management process is very disorganized.” One administrator even noted the struggle between employees and management by sharing the following:

Perceived positive change is slow, while perceived negative change is quickly implemented, usually without feedback from those affected. There is a distrust between staff and management. For example, the elimination of free lunches was replaced by a higher discount at campus food facilities. This was presented as an improvement, when for most employees, it does not benefit them. If it was explained as necessary to support the university, and not as a benefit, it would have helped credibility.

RQ2 Theme 2: Feedback

Each employee group answered questions focused on feedback, recommendations, and the utilization of each in the decision-making process. Responses included 42.86% of the participants believing that the use of feedback and recommendations was poor (42.86%), 38.57% believing feedback and recommendations were inconsistently used (38.57%), and a small 11.43% believing the institution used feedback and recommendations well.

Table 19

Summary of Results for Research Question 2, Feedback

	Adjunct Instructors	Faculty	Staff	Administrators
Feedback and recommendations were poorly considered	42.86%	53.85%	40.00%	33.33%
Feedback and recommendations were inconsistently used	28.57%	16.00%	40.00%	52.38%
Used feedback and recommendations well	14.29%	11.54%	20.00%	4.76%

RQ2 Theme 2a: Feedback and Recommendations were Poorly Considered.

Several adjunct instructors, administrators, staff, and faculty shared similar feelings that their feedback and recommendations were not “wanted or considered.” This group accounted for 42.86% of the total responses received. Faculty represented the majority with 53.85% discussed their feelings and feedback to be considered ineffectively or poorly. One faculty member shared that “it’s asked, but have yet to see much implemented from ideas outside the current status quo.” Another simply asked, “What feedback and recommendations?” One faculty member provided a more sarcastic response sharing that “it feels like any recommendation up the ladder are equivalent to a fart in the wind,” while a different professor claimed it to be “limited, if at all.”

Several staff and adjunct instructors also provided similar comments. Together this group represented 82.86% of the responses received. One staff member shared that “as I am not a decision maker, I do not know how much time is spent or thought about any of the recommendations or feedback given.” Other staff felt, “I don’t believe my feedback is wanted or considered,” and claimed to “not be asked for any.” Similar to these statements, adjunct instructors stated feedback was “not considered at all” and “never had anyone ask me for this.” One staff employee shared, “we’re invited to presentations of various things and situations, but I know how much our ideas are considered or our voices even heard.”

Surprisingly, many administrators also shared comments discussing the lack of feedback and input used. This group accounted for 33.33% of the received responses. “Until recently the institution perceived itself as one that would take feedback and

recommendations however, employees would not feel their voices were heard because of the lack of communication and feedback,” claimed one administrator. Another administrator shared that “from employee to leadership” feedback and recommendations were used “very little.” This administrator felt “decisions [were] made without a lot of consultation” and that most decisions were already made before requests for feedback and recommendations went out. A third administrator shared that “unless you are on [the] senior leadership team” feedback was limited. Another stated that even when feedback was considered “nothing gets done.” One administrator claimed:

Some working groups have leaders who state that they formed the group just to make things appear like they were seeking outside opinions even though key decisions had already been made. I have found out about a number of key decisions being made 6-9 months before they were announced to [the] community for discussion. In all cases the community had zero impact on altering the decision, it almost seemed like it was just for show.

A different administrator discussed the use of feedback and recommendations by stating the following:

It felt like most decisions were made behind closed doors with very little input from those that have to execute decisions. Our department operates differently and input does come from all levels of staff. The decision is still made at the top, but input and ideas are considered. I would like to see more of that at university leadership levels.

RQ2 Theme 2b: Feedback and Recommendations Were Inconsistently Used.

Numerous employees from each group discussed the inconsistent use of feedback and

recommendations at the institution. This group consisted of 52.38% administrators, 40.00% staff, 16.00% faculty, and 28.57% adjuncts. Administrators had differing opinions to faculty, staff, and adjuncts related to the use of feedback and recommendations. For example, one administrator believed “decisions are made at a high level and passed down through the chain of command. However, I feel that our department head is very open to feedback and recommendations.” A different example provided shared “feedback and recommendations are more readily accepted at lower levels of the organization than the upper portions.”

Other administrators pointed to a lack of formal processes or department silos as reasons why recommendations and feedback were limited. As shared by one administrator, “feedback and recommendations are vetted informally as there is a general lack of formal process for institutional feedback and ideation.” This administrator went on to claim that there was a “culture of informal feedback generation through a ‘who you know’ and how much influence you have over certain aspects of organization leadership.” Silos was another aspect discussed. “Many of our departments are kept in silos and most middle management and lower are represented by small committees that do not truly speak to the ideas and feelings of most staff.” Similar to this thought, a different administrator provided “feedback and recommendations from the...Faculty Council is encouraged and appreciated. Individual faculty and staff members don’t have much opportunity to participate in institutional changes.” The lack of involvement from all areas had one administrator believing that “sometimes they miss areas that be affected.”

Faculty and staff were similar in their opinions that feedback and recommendations were inconsistent and often depended on who was soliciting the feedback. One faculty member shared that “decisions that fall under the purview of faculty governance,” feedback and recommendations were considered “quite a lot.” However, “for decisions that fall under the purview of the administration, we don’t know because we either get no seat at the table or the same small subset of faculty are picked to sit at the table.” Staff shared similar thoughts claiming, “Sometimes it seems important, other times not as much. So, it’s hard to properly assess.” One staff member believed that “for some their feedback is 100%, others, not so much.” A professor attributed this to believing “that depends on the personnel in leadership positions.”

The adjunct instructors that responded provided two differing points-of-view. One believed that feedback and recommendations “at the first level” were “great.” However, “when pushed up the ladder a step further, we hit a giant wall. Usually, due to a lack of knowledge on our suggestions and financials.” A different adjunct, on the other hand, felt that feedback and recommendations were almost over-utilized. This adjunct instructor believed that it was asked for “almost too much. Sometimes leaders just need to make a decision without having to poll numerous stakeholder groups.”

RQ2 Theme 2c: Institution Uses Feedback and Recommendations Well. Only a small portion (11.43%) of the respondents believed the institution used feedback and recommendations well. Staff represented 20% of the responses received followed by adjuncts at 14.29%, faculty at 11.54%, and administrators at 4.76%. From the staff that responded, they shared, “generally, I think they are considered pretty heavily, especially when they are coming from students.” Additionally, one staff member believed that

“within my unit feedback and recommendations are considered and evaluated in the decision-making process.”

A few faculty and adjunct instructors shared that feedback and recommendations seemed “to be reasonably considered.” Others felt that “it depends on the importance of the decision” and shared that it was “very important to faculty and staff and still top-down from the admin.” Faculty Council was referred to as being “a wonderful vehicle through which shared governance has led to positive decision-making and positive policy development.” One adjunct instructor shared that feedback is “very important especially as an adjunct. Not being on campus regularly makes it difficult to gauge the pulse of the institution.” This instructor stressed the importance of “feedback and information to ensure I’m consistent with the mission of the school.”

Only one administrator responded that feedback and recommendation “at the cabinet level” was “above average.” However, though this administrator felt the cabinet utilized feedback regularly, he or she noted, “there are a lot decision still made in ‘silos’ that need to be discussed within the organization.” This administrator went on to state, “the various schools would benefit from creating multiple content strategies that benefit student learning.”

RQ2: Theme 3: Emphasis on Professional Development

Each employee group discussed the emphasis the institution placed on professional development. Responses varied with the majority (40.00%) believing there was a good emphasis on professional development, 27.14% believing professional development was lacking, 18.57% believing there were limited resources, and 14.29% believing professional development opportunities was improving.

Table 20

Summary of Results for Research Question 2, Professional Development

	Adjunct Instructors	Faculty	Staff	Administrators
Professional development properly emphasized	50.00%	61.54%	20.00%	57.14%
Lacking in professional development opportunities and resources	25.00%	26.92%	53.33%	33.33%

RQ2 Theme 3a: Professional Development Properly Emphasized. Fifty percent of the participating employees felt the institution had properly emphasized professional development. The majority of faculty (61.54%) and adjuncts (50%) believed there was an “adequate” or “good emphasis” in this area. This group of employees believed that professional development opportunities were “supported, at times more than other institutions I have been at.” An adjunct instructor shared a similar opinion that “good opportunities are available.” One particular faculty member shared the institution “does place this highly and they are offered for faculty if they want to take advantage of the opportunity.” It was noted by a different faculty member that this is an area that “in the last year” has changed. “I think this is definitely something the institution should be proud of. They are definitely creating a culture where growth as a professional is valued and rewarded.”

Twenty percent of the staff also felt the institution was placing proper emphasis on professional development. One staff employee noted, “The institution encourages professional development and employee learning” while another shared the “institution does a great job of Wellness and Training initiatives.” Though this group of employees noted there were opportunities “in house to take to improve skills,” the times offered

were the issue. As shared by one staff member “unfortunately, my work schedule is such that I cannot participate.”

Like faculty and adjunct instructors, the majority (57.14%) of the administrators felt the institution provided professional development opportunities “more than ever before!” One administrator believed “more emphasis has been placed on employee learning,” while another discussed, “this area has recently expanded and the institution places an importance on employee learning and PD.” Specially, one mentioned, “HR is invested in developing employees and has been doing some great leadership development initiatives. I believe department leaders across campus need to feel empowered to prioritize and invest in professional development and growth of their people.”

Administrators also discussed the addition of the Learning Academy at the institution. One administrator commented, “the new Learning Academy demonstrates the dedication the university places on employee learning” This administrator went on to state “While in its infancy, the growth of this academy has huge benefits for all employees.” A different administrator discussed, “the learning academy was defined and taken on as a strategic initiative tied to the strategic plan. This reality shows that the institution is active in supporting professional development.” These administrators noted the launch of the “Learning Academy, academic technology services, and [institution’s online programs], help create opportunities for individual and organizational learning.”

Though this group was positive about the recent changes they did share comments that “professional development appears to be driven more on an individual basis. Those individuals who seek it are generally supported but there is no encouragement to seek out professional development by management.” Others discussed there the “relatively small

budget to support...professional development” and shared the need to “put the resources toward it.” This included “support within [the] budget to attend offerings outside of campus.”

RQ2 Theme 3b: Lacking in Opportunities and Resources. There were several comments shared among the staff, faculty, adjunct instructors, and administrators claiming the professional development was lacking in opportunities and resources. More than 50% (53.33%) discussed the limited opportunities present. One staff member shared “there are programs in place for [professional development], but only if the employee brings it up and then jumps through hoops to make it work.” This particular staff member felt that there did not “seem to be any proactive encouragement or reward pursuing it.” Another noted, “Training and development in some departments looks great on paper, but employees need to be able to attend seminars to collaborate with other institutions to gain insight and knowledge.” This individual went on to state the “institution does not offer funding for outside training and development.”

A few staff members shared the institution “gives us the opportunity to continue our education,” however they were “not sure what is outside of the degrees covered.” They felt this benefit was “great” but also provided “it’s always nice to also offer something not necessarily offered at [the institution] that helps employees grow and get better.” The lack of outside professional development opportunities had one staff member claiming that “I feel like people try but it’s forced.”

While staff discussed limited opportunities, faculty discussed limited resources and budget limitations. This group, representing 26.92% of the respondents, discussed the importance of professional development, but felt the available funding was insufficient.

As noted by one faculty member, “while some recent initiatives have been encouraging, in general the institution does not provide money for this.” Other faculty corroborated this statement sharing that there “appear to be no resources for professional development or employee learning,” and there is “lots of talk about wanting us to do it- not enough financial support for everyone to get what they need.” “This is a hit-and-miss area,” claimed one faculty member. This person felt we “need to make PD monies available year-round and not just at the start of a school year until funds run out.”

Several administrators (33.33%) also voiced similar attitudes to faculty and felt that there was a lack of resources allocated to professional development. As shared by one administrator, “funding for professional development is extremely limited, spending in most areas seems to be more important. A different administrator claimed, “They want to emphasize PD but there are minimal/no human or financial resources to follow through.” “Professional development/ employee learning is only funded at 20% of the need,” noted a third administrator. Though professional development opportunities are “getting better” this group of administrators felt the institution needed “to invest more in PD and career advancement within the institution.” They also noted that opportunities varied “by department and role” and that “funding isn’t consistently there.”

Adjuncts were the only group that deviated from the employee groups. Several (25%) adjunct instructors discussed the limited options of moving to a full-time status and limited opportunities present due to their part-time employment. One adjunct shared “I’ve received my initial and 2-year sit in, but since there’s no change of getting full time soon due to [the] budget, there is no emphasis on advancements.” A different adjunct

instructor shared similar statements saying, “it seems like much is available for full time faculty” but felt it was “very limited for adjuncts.”

Research Question 3: How do the various employee types describe the university’s ability to share and disseminate information?

The researcher asked several opened-ended questions related to the institution’s ability to share and disseminate information. These questions aimed at understanding how well employees felt informed about campus-wide initiatives and how comfortable they were in sharing their opinions. Two major themes emerged. The first one related to the dissemination of information on campus while the other focused on the level of comfort employees felt in sharing their opinions and feedback. Each theme produced subthemes, which are discussed in detail below.

RQ3 Theme 1: Dissemination of Campus Information. Three main subthemes emerged when discussing the institution’s ability to share essential information. The majority of the employees (57.14%) felt they were not well informed and lacked timely information related to changes and events occurring on campus. Another 37.14% of the employees believed the institution was moderately effective in disseminating information but noted several areas for improvement. The last group of employees consisted entirely of administrators and represented only 5.71%. This group felt that their position alone kept them more informed.

Table 21

Summary of Results for Research Question 3, Dissemination of Campus Information

	Adjunct Instructors	Faculty	Staff	Administrators
Information was not disseminated well	75.00%	69.23%	66.67%	38.10%
Dissemination of information was moderately effective	25.00%	26.92%	53.33%	33.33%
Dissemination of information was based more on position	-	-	-	19.05%

RQ3 Theme 1a: Information Was Not Disseminated Well. Employees from each group shared similar opinions related to the lack of information shared and suitably disseminated across campus. Nearly 70% (69.23%) stated they were “not at all informed.” Faculty in this group felt that information shared was “usually through [the] grapevine in bits and pieces” or “from rumors.” One particular faculty member claimed to “receive occasional emails informing me, but these are often the day of, or the day before which does not give much time to plan to attend as meetings and classes are already in place.” Another faculty member felt that there were “lots of secrets and a lack of transparency,” which “can really hurt the morale and well-being of a university and its personnel.” Additionally, faculty shared that “it would be nice to have information before the general public does.” This group overall felt “communication is our biggest issue.”

Faculty were not alone in feeling that important information was not well provided or shared. Over 60% (66.66%) of the staff held similar opinions. Several staff provided short answers stating there was “not a lot” of shared information or that they felt “left in the dark.” One staff member commented, “Information is passed through the grapevine before leadership makes official statements.” Another shared that “unless it is in an email” information was not shared. “I don’t feel well informed. I am told what to

do and how to do it but not everything is communicated all the time,” provided one staff employee.

Exactly 75% of the adjunct instructors shared similar opinions to faculty and staff. Many adjuncts stated they were “not at all” informed or felt they were “not involved at all.” A few adjuncts discussed the emails received as a source of communication. One shared, “I read the daily digests. That’s about it.” Another provided, “we do get emails with updates on what’s going on at the university. They mostly contain information on upcoming events, training seminars, and employee achievements.” While this adjunct believed “these are good things to know,” this person also shared there was “never information about policy procedures.”

Nearly 40% of administrators (38.10%) also discussed how most information was shared through “word of mouth” and how overall “communication is very poor.” One administrator shared, “I have very little knowledge outside my own department.” Another shared that employees were “only told what we ‘need to know.’ We tend to find out after it is in place or decided.” A different administrator discussed the digest noting, “Not sure anyone really pays attention to the Digest and if we don’t have relationships in other departments there is not a lot of inter-institutional ‘mingling’ or opportunities to cross paths with others.” This administrator felt that “departments remain a little bit siloed at times.”

RQ3 Theme 1b: Information Was Disseminated Moderately Well. Overall, 37.14% of the employees felt the institution was moderately effective in sharing and disseminating information across campus. This group comprised of 25% adjunct instructors, 30.77% faculty, 66.67% staff, and 42.86% administrators. Staff was the

largest group in this category. This group felt they were “fairly informed about things going on around campus” and that “good information is out there regularly.” One staff employee felt “very well informed” but noted this was because he or she made “it a priority to stay informed since we man the main line in admissions.” Another shared that “as a staff employee I get to interact with larger groups of faculty or executives so we are better informed of what is going on than other employees.”

Though administrators felt fairly informed, they provided different explanations than those provided by the staff. One administrator shared, “I feel well informed as an executive. However, I have taken note that... [the] faculty and staff feel a bit uninformed.” Another provided that “as a member of the Cabinet, I feel I am well informed.” This cabinet member went on to state that it was his or her responsibility “to assure my employees receive relevant information in a timely manner so they feel well informed.” Other administrators, however, believed that “there is opportunity for improvement with our current communication system from leadership and across campus.”

Though a couple of adjunct instructors felt “well informed,” one shared “sometimes decisions are made without any input.” Additionally, this adjunct felt that “sometimes decisions are made to keep things the same instead of embracing change or weighing outcomes.” Several faculty provided similar comments claiming that though they were “pretty well informed,” that did not always mean they were “getting the full story.” One faculty member noted, “I know the news that’s ready to be known, as it’s ready to be known.” In general, this group felt “communication has gotten a little better, but we still have room for improvement.”

RQ3 Theme 1c: Information Was Disseminated Based More on Position. Only 5.71% of administrators felt they were informed based on their position rather than formal means of communication. This group of administrators shared they were informed “probably better than most employees” but noted that the level of communication was “not because of official communication channels.” One administrator claimed, “My role and our department VP provides significant access to information.” Another shared, “I feel very informed” as an employee but stated, “I also [sit] on the cabinet.” A few administrators discussed the disconnect between upper leadership and the lower levels of the organization. For example, one administrator provided, “I know more than most people due to my position, however, the internal communications process at the university leaves a lot to be desired.” Similar to this statement, one administrator commented, “Other employees may not feel as strongly about being informed because the communication has not always been deliberate.” It was shared that, “many faculty and staff that are not at the higher levels of leaders do not feel informed.”

RQ3 Theme 2: Level of Comfort Sharing Opinions and Feedback.

Three main subthemes emerged among the various employee types. The largest group with 41.43% of respondents felt uncomfortable sharing opinions and feedback. The next group, accounting for 21.43% of the employees, felt only moderately comfortable and provided numerous explanations as to why. The last group representing 37.14% shared they were comfortable discussing their opinions and providing feedback. These subthemes are discussed in further detail below.

Table 22

Summary of Results for Research Question 3, Comfortability in Sharing Information

	Adjunct Instructors	Faculty	Staff	Administrators
Comfortable sharing information	37.50%	34.62%	13.33%	57.14%
Uncomfortable sharing information	62.50%	50.00%	40.00%	23.81%
Moderately comfortable sharing	-	15.38%	46.67%	19.05%

RQ3 Theme 2a: Uncomfortable Sharing Opinions and Feedback. Adjunct instructors were the largest employee type who felt uncomfortable sharing opinions and feedback. This group represented 62.50% of the adjunct responses. Several adjuncts simply stated they were “not comfortable” sharing their thoughts and opinions. One adjunct, in particular, provided more insight as to why. He or she believed, “if I share, I would not receive another class to teach ever again.” Others discussed the “significant change” that had taken place at the school. These changes meant these adjunct instructors were “not sure who I can share with to be effective.” One felt “I don’t feel my opinion has weight with the university itself,” while the other felt unsure “who I can trust to share opinions.” One adjunct discussed, “I never know if I’m going to be employed from semester to semester. I’ve been teaching since 2008 and I’ve worked all but one semester . . . but that does not guarantee that I’ll be teaching.”

Exactly half the faculty also felt uncomfortable sharing opinions and feedback though their reasons were slightly different from the adjuncts. Many discussed negative repercussions experienced when they shared opinions in the past. For example, one faculty member shared, “I have shared my opinion and have been either dismissed or bullied, so I have stopped sharing my opinions.” Another shared “I have seen and

experienced getting bit for speaking up.” Others discussed a fear of losing one’s position as a result of speaking out. One faculty member claimed to be “not comfortable because it may result in job loss.” Another stated, “If I did depend on my job, I wouldn’t be at liberty to share my opinions.” These fears appeared to stem from the shared mentality that “people have been fired recently at [the institution] for sharing an opinion that differs significantly from the administrations' agenda.” One faculty member even confessed, “I have even thought about who is reading this survey...”

Several staff members were just as cautious as the faculty were in sharing their opinions and feedback. Several staff shared they were “not at all comfortable” or were “reluctant to share.” Like faculty, one staff member claimed to be “scared. Job security is at an all-time low since I have been here.” Another stated that “when I [provided opinions] in the past no one believed me but did believe someone else’s lies as gospel.” For this reason, this staff employee stated, “I am not sharing much anymore.” A different staff claimed, “Sharing an opinion on my own side of the story can likely lead to aggravation or misunderstanding,” and for this reason, this individual was “not comfortable sharing my opinions about the institution all of the time.”

Many administrators noted the issues present among the various employee types. In fact, this small 23.81% provided similar comments seen among the adjuncts, faculty, and staff. One administrator noted, “There is still fear of losing one’s job.” Another noted, “For employment security you keep your opinions to yourself.” A third administrator commented, “We have a culture of retribution. I once spoke out about a key issue and was supported by other employees only to find out later that a high-level executive did not like that I spoke out.” This administrator went on to state, “I won’t stick

my neck out like that again.” This group of leaders felt that it was “sometimes tough to tow the company line on some situations when you don’t understand the rationale behind the decisions.”

RQ3 Theme 2b: Moderately Comfortable Sharing Opinions and Feedback. Just over 20% (21.43%) of the staff, faculty, and administrators discussed feeling moderately comfortable sharing opinions and feedback based on certain situations. Staff represented 46.67% of this group. Their comments discussed that their comfort level depended upon whom they were speaking with. For example, one staff member shared, “it is always subjected to whom you share with. Some will see it like criticism while others will see it as an opportunity to resolve problems and straightening our institution.” A different staff employee provided similar statements claiming, “It depends on the person...and if I have a connection with them.” Similarly, another staff member stated, “there are pockets of people that genuinely care for opinions and feedback. Others take any type of criticism as a personal attack and respond as such.”

Faculty were similar to staff in their opinions. Several expressed a level of comfort providing feedback in certain situations but not others. One faculty member shared “within my school [I am] very comfortable” sharing opinions. However, “beyond the school, not comfortable, save with people I know well.” A different faculty member provided “amongst peers I feel comfortable sharing- but certainly not in the presence of any administrator above the level of associate dean.” One faculty member shared a difference of opinion claiming he or she felt “more comfortable now than I have in years.”

A small number of administrators (19.05%) felt “mildly comfortable” in sharing opinions and feedback. These administrators shared similar thoughts to the staff and faculty and claimed, “It depends on who and what the issue is at hand.” One administrator, in particular, shared “with my immediate supervisor, I feel fine but overall, not comfortable for fear of judgment or penalty.”

RQ3 Theme 2c: Moderately Comfortable Sharing Opinions and Feedback.

Though the majority of the participants discussed feeling uncomfortable sharing opinions or comfortable in only certain situations, 37.14% of the employees felt the opposite and were comfortable providing feedback. Adjuncts and staff, which represented 50% of the responses, shared they were “very comfortable” and felt that sharing their opinions was “not an issue.” One staff member stated, “I feel like my supervisors appreciate that I share my opinions.”

Administrators represented the largest group accounting for 57.14% of the responses received. Several administrators simply answered they were “very comfortable” in this area. One administrator, in particular, stated, “the sharing of opinions based on fact and evaluation are necessary for success in my position. Though it may be challenging to provide at times due to the potential for leadership dissonance, I feel that open discourse is the way to organizational improvement.” A different administrator shared, “I feel very comfortable sharing my opinions but that is a rather new development. It has not always been welcomed in the past.”

Several faculty also stated they were comfortable sharing their opinions and providing feedback. Several claimed to be “fairly comfortable” or “willing to share my opinions.” Others shared they were comfortable because “nothing will come of it, so

what’s to lose?” Similar to this statement, one faculty member claimed to be “overall, quite comfortable though I recognize the need to keep things to myself.” A different professor stated he or she was “very comfortable but I don’t share everyone else’s fear of being fired.”

Research Question 4: How do the various employee types describe the institution’s leadership?

The researcher asked several open-ended questions related to the institution’s leadership. These questions related to understanding the perceptions of the institution’s leadership and their ability to engage employees in achieving organizational objectives. Three main themes emerged. The largest group of employees, accounting for 37.14%, described leadership as being ineffective or lacking in some way. The second group, representing 31.43%, described leadership as changing and being in flux. Only a small group (11.43%) described the current leadership as effective and strong.

Table 23

Summary of Results for Research Question 4, Leadership

	Adjunct Instructors	Faculty	Staff	Administrators
Leadership was effective	42.86%	-	13.33%	14.29%
Leadership was poor, ineffective	28.57%	61.54%	33.33%	19.05%
Leadership was changing and in flux	14.29%	30.77%	40.00%	33.33%

RQ4 Theme 1: Leadership Was Ineffective, Poor.

Employees from each type described the institution’s leadership as being “poor,” “structured and formal,” as well as “siloed.” Faculty and adjunct instructor represented over 66% of the responses received. Leadership was “out of touch, distant, aloof,” and “overpaid,” according to one adjunct instructor. Faculty, on the other hand, shared that

“at this point, there isn’t much leadership” and stated that overall, it was “bloated and due for some culling.” One professor commented, “At the university level, leadership is generally reactionary in its decision making, out of touch with some aspects of the academic operations, and not strategic in their thinking.” Faculty also described leadership as being “out of touch...looking outside the institution for a silver bullet to ‘fix’ the institution when there are pockets of well-oiled machines providing best practices within the institution.”

Faculty also discussed some of the inconsistent practices utilized by leadership. For example, one discussed the formation and use of committees. “Sometimes, there are committees that work really hard on this campus over a semester or a year. These committees make recommendations or suggestions that could improve a situation and then their work is ignored, forgotten.” Another felt that leadership needed “coaching in this area. We have people with specific talents who are not utilized to help. Information is kept close to the vest and ideas and new efforts are lost.” This group of faculty felt overall, it was a “struggle to generate enthusiasm.”

Numerous staff (33.33%) provided similar statements to those shared by faculty. One staff employee shared, “In the current climate of the university, leadership is poor. It is hard to lead when the institution is replacing and changing old structures and chains of power.” A different staff member felt “there is no transparency, communication is always last minute, if that, and we all feel like this is a special place but no one is enhancing that. Another felt that “for a while, we were attending all kinds of Q and A meetings when it came to strategy. Once we had change in our leadership structure, those meetings have

stopped.” Other staff felt that overall leadership was “a bit top heavy” and utilized more of a “management style.”

Several administrators also discussed issues among the leadership; however, their opinions were different from those expressed by adjuncts, faculty, and staff. Several discussed the ineffectiveness caused by the present silos. One administrator described the institution as being “siloesd” and that “we have some incredible leaders in positions across campus, but ...it does not appear our leadership is working together towards the mission and vision.” Another felt that it was “dis-functional at the very top” and felt that the “cabinet doesn’t seem to work well together although individually, I believe there is talent within the group.” A different administrator felt that the institution had “too much inexperience in key VP positions and too many others, who should be providing leadership, living in the past.” This administrator felt the “leadership lacks vision, fears risk, and has not developed the relationships needed to engage the greater university community.”

Other administrators discussed the lack of communication among leadership. One shared that “leadership struggles with true, in the trenches communication that engages the majority of the faculty and staff.” This administrator went on to state that “faculty and staff are craving leadership that will be both collaborative and decisive with a vision for now and the future.” Another administrator noted, “Many decisions are made with little explanation about why they were made.” This lack of involvement had one administrator feeling that “formal leaders seem to put their own needs above the overall needs of the institution.”

RQ4 Theme 2: Leadership was Changing and In Flux.

There were many employees from each group that discussed how leadership was “ever-changing.” The largest number of responses were from the staff. Forty percent of the staff believed leadership was “in disarray.” One staff member felt leadership varied “based on the supervisor,” and claimed, “Each has a specific leadership style that is unique.” These different leadership styles impacted the directives provided. For example, one staff employee shared, “[The objectives] have changed over the past three months with leadership providing information that shifts with each of their meetings.” Overall, one staff believed leadership was “still on the learning curve.”

Several faculty and adjuncts also described the changes in leadership. One faculty member shared, “I would...describe the leadership as ‘in transition’” as well as “financially driven.” Others described leadership as “ever-changing” and impacted by a “revolving door.” One adjunct instructor shared, “I feel [leadership] have a lot placed on their shoulders. When they are able, they provide mentoring and guidance but right now, much of their time is spent on other responsibilities.” Similar to this statement, one faculty member shared, “our top leadership appears to be in disarray. Other areas of leadership appear to be solid and well organized.”

Over 30% (33.33%) of the administrators also discussed the ongoing changes. However, their opinions focused on the challenges faced from changes consistently faced. For example, one administrator shared “over the course of the past four years, the institution has changed significantly. While the organizational changes introduced have had a great impact on our ability to deliver services in a much more consistent manner, the level of personal engagement and governance has lagged.” A different administrator

felt the institutional changes made leadership “less aware of the larger context of academia and the purpose of a university which limits an informed, long-term response to competitive pressures.”

Other administrators discussed the presidential change. One shared, “the former president was very controlling in areas that should have been delegated to Cabinet members. This created distrust and fear in the ranks, as well as learned helplessness because all of the power was at the top.” With the change in the presidential role, one administrator commented, “this is a bit difficult” to describe at present. However, this individual felt “current leadership...wants to work together to solve problems.” Additionally, this person was “not sure the current leadership is transparent which may be an issue for our particular culture.”

RQ4 Theme 3: Leadership Was Effective.

A small group (11.43%) of adjunct instructors, staff, and administrators believed that the leadership was performing at an acceptable level. This group did not include any faculty that participated in the survey. Staff that responded claimed their experiences had “been good” and that leadership seemed to “care about the people that work here in terms of quality of life, as well as students.” One staff, in particular, had “faith in the upper levels of management,” however, this individual did also state “there is too little oversight on middle management and their practices.”

Adjunct instructors shared similar opinions describing their leaders as “intelligent and fair.” One adjunct instructor claimed, “My leaders are fantastic. One of them being a small one-man army.” Similar to this statement, a different adjunct shared, “my dean is a

strong leader with good communication skills, frank openness, and a concern for his professors.”

Like the staff and adjuncts, administrators provided similar comments. One administrator felt “leadership is understanding the vision and big picture” and “while there is always room for improvement, I believe the Cabinet...is becoming a cohesive group eager to work together.” A different administrator believed the institution “has now taken a keen interest in leadership at all levels. The institution provides leadership and external opportunities for people to lead whether they are at an entry-level position or someone that sits at the cabinet level.” Though there were improvements at these levels, one administrator noted the “board of trustees continues to be in transition from knowing little information about the institution to receiving too much information.”

Summary of Results

This mix-methods study revealed the perceptions of institutional culture were not significantly different among the various employee types (staff, faculty, administrator, and adjunct instructors). All employee types assessed the current culture similarly as well as provided similar assessments of the preferred culture. Many of these cultural elements highlighted in the in OCAI link to higher education cultural theories, which are discussed in further detail in Chapter 5. The analysis of the research questions also highlighted many factors experienced during leadership change. These elements and the underlying implications are also discussed in the following chapter.

Chapter Five: Discussion

The purpose of this mixed-methods study was to investigate the different perceptions of culture among faculty, staff, adjunct instructors, and administrators. Utilizing the Competing Values Framework, the researcher sought to understand how each employee type viewed the institution's current culture and how these perceptions were similar or dissimilar to the preferred culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Additionally, the various employee groups answered a series of open-ended questions aimed at uncovering the perceptions related to the institution's environment, purpose, adaptability, and impact of leadership.

This study consisted of eight hypotheses aimed at determining if there were differences in the perceptions of the four cultural types between each employee group. Utilizing the OCAI, the H01 analyzed the different perceptions of the current "clan" culture between the various employee types using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). H01a, H01b H01c, H01d compared each employee type's (staff, faculty, adjunct instructors, and administrators) perceptions of the "clan" culture to the results collected from all participants. Leveraging this model, the researcher also examined the results for the current "adhocracy," "market," and "hierarchy" cultures.

Similar to the current culture, the researcher also examined differences in perceptions among the preferred culture types. H05 looked for differences in preferences of the preferred "clan" culture between the various employee types. Similarly, H06, H07, and H08 looked for differences in perceptions of the preferred "adhocracy," "market," and "hierarchy" cultures among the four employee types. As completed for the current

culture, the researcher also compared each employee type to the data collected from all participants for each culture type.

Based on the ANOVA and t-tests conducted, most hypotheses found no significant differences found between the employee types for each culture and each employee type to the collective group. Only H08d found significance between the adjunct perceptions of the preferred hierarchy culture and the perceptions shared by all employees. The hierarchy culture, however, rated the lowest among all employee types, so there was consensus from this aspect.

Interpretation of OCAI Findings

Many of the characteristics associated with the cultures assessed in the OCAI aligned to the various cultures discussed in higher education cultural theory. Berquist and Pawlak (2008) stated that though higher education institutions usually supported one dominant culture, there were other present cultures in existence. Built upon Birnbaum's theory, Berquist and Pawlak discussed how each culture had an opposite culture it depended on. According to Berquist and Pawlak, higher education institutions can carry up to six different culture types: collegial, managerial, developmental, advocacy, virtual, and tangible. Since each of these cultures varied dramatically, the goal of any institution was to minimize cultural conflict and promote the creation of shared goals (Tierney, 2008).

Based on the OCAI, the hierarchy culture was the most dominant culture of the four, receiving a rating or mean score of 33.40. Market was the next highest rated culture generating a mean score of 29.31. These top two cultures meant the institution enforced a formalized structure where employees followed the rules, policies, and procedures, and

focused on efficient and effective operations. (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Additionally, there was an emphasis on generating results and achieving goals as they were operating in a competitive environment.

These dominant cultures shared many cultural attributes that aligned with the managerial culture as described by Berquist and Pawlak (2008). The managerial culture emphasized the organization, implementation, and evaluation of work and focused on meeting specific goals that demonstrated fiscal responsibility. Efficient and competent administrators who clearly articulated the roles and expected outcomes, as well as delegated responsibilities, were significantly valued. Faculty in this culture acted more like teachers than scholars and concentrated on student achievement. They developed courses focused more on vocational preparation and competency development. Administrators, on the other hand, employed a culture based on “corporate management theory,” which fixated on efficiency within a formal hierarchical structure.

The other competing cultures present at the studied institution was clan, which produced a mean score of 23.74 and adhocracy, which produced a mean score of 13.55. The clan culture scored considerably higher than the adhocracy culture meaning the institution placed more of an emphasis on loyalty, tradition, commitment, and emphasized employee development, teamwork and participation (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Conversely, the institution minimized risk-taking, innovation, and individual initiative and freedom. The adhocracy culture score reflected that the institution did not focus on growth or being on the leading edge, but rather concentrated resources on providing budget-friendly, dependable services with effective delivery models.

Several characteristics found within the clan culture tied to elements found in Berquist and Pawlak's collegial culture. The collegial culture found meaning in the institution's disciplines and valued research, scholarship, and shared governance (Berquist & Pawlak, 2008). This culture was often found among faculty (both full and part-time), but at the studied institution, it was prevalent among the administrators and staff as well. These employee types embraced collaboration and shared governance philosophies. These employees embraced a complete liberal arts education where students were engaged in all aspects of university life (Berquist & Pawlak, 2008). Faculty in this culture were more loyal to their discipline than to the institution (Tierney, 2008). They appreciated and emphasized the need for research and scholarship, sometimes more than teaching (Berquist & Pawlak, 2008). Though many of these characteristics existed in higher education institutions, the lack of accountability forced the increase in managerial ways. Therefore, the managerial culture rose in response to the issues found in the collegial culture.

The analysis of the preferred culture produced similar results with the exception of one specific area, the evaluation of the hierarchy culture amongst adjunct instructors. Though the adjunct instructors showed significant differences in their evaluation of the preferred hierarchy culture, this analysis consisted of a sample size of eight participants when the population of adjunct instructors at the studied institution was close to 1,200. Due to the insufficient responses, the researcher was unable to conclude that these perceptions would align with the population at large. However, what was evident was that the adjunct instructors aligned with the other employee types in wishing to see a smaller emphasis on the hierarchy culture.

The preferred dominant culture among each employee type was the clan culture. This culture type produced a mean score of 33.14. The other preferred cultures were adhocracy with a mean of 27.63, hierarchy with a mean of 20.93, and market with a mean of 18.30. These results revealed that all employee types preferred a culture focused on being friendly, loyalty, tradition, and commitment (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). This culture preferred leaders who were mentors and saw the importance of teamwork, participation, and consensus. Additionally, the institution concentrated efforts on developing employees and building morale.

The second highly preferred culture was adhocracy, which produced the lowest in the current cultural assessment. This culture preference demonstrated that employees wanted the institution to adopt a mindset focused more on entrepreneurship and innovation (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Each employee type wished to see the institution encourage initiation and experimentation. Additionally, universities that operated under this culture sought to become a leader and allocated resources toward developing new mechanisms in providing education.

The two cultures rated the highest in the current culture received the lowest scores in the preferred assessment. This analysis of the current and preferred cultures demonstrated a unified agreement to change the current institutional culture. It also showed congruence in this willingness to engage more in professional development and entrepreneurial mindsets and utilize less of the formal processes and procedures and result-oriented, competitive work.

Interpretation of Qualitative Findings

Though the OCAI results demonstrated agreement in wanting and needing to change the institution culture, the qualitative results highlighted the varying disagreements in how to accomplish this. These results made it evident that the institution was in a state of transition. As commonly seen with any organizational transformation, the studied institution had many concerned employees from each employee type who were fearful and resisted change. As the institution implemented changes, administrators dealt with open rejection (Deneen & Boud, 2014). Staff, faculty, adjunct instructors, and even several administrators openly criticized the strategic plan, budgets, and the frequency in which changes were forced. These criticisms signified misalignment between the board of trustees, president, cabinet members, and other levels of management.

The first research question asked participants several questions related to the institution's mission, purpose, and future plan. Results showed that over 40% of the surveyed employees felt the institution did not have a clear mission, purpose, and plan. These criticisms received came from all employee types and discussed the lack of clarity, communication, and applicability of the mission, purpose, and plan to all departments. Responses ranged from feeling the mission and purpose were "generic and vague" to stating the institution had not "adequately defined what our mission is." Others stated that the "mission gives a good high-level goal... however; we need to translate what it means to all levels of the university."

Several employees discussed the lack of a clear strategy. As noted by one faculty member, "There appears to be a mission but there is no clear long-term strategy for implementation, no time lines, and no clear strategy for how things will be

accomplished.” Another employee noted, “The strategic plan provided...was lacking in specifics and seemed contrary to university strengths at present.” These comments highlighted the lack of agreement with the strategic planning initiatives and demonstrated that leaders were struggling to create an environment supportive of change (Schein, 2010). Leaders wanted to invoke change needed to be able to articulate a clear vision and imposed it throughout the institution.

Several administrators noted the lack of clear communication related to the mission and strategic plan. “The mission is only a year old. The need to continue to build the culture to emphasize the mission is critical for it to become a driving force for future direction.” Formal statements, however, were not enough (Schein, 2010). The strategic plan implemented did not resonate with all employee types and lacked specifics. The strategic plan included “very high-level themes, but has not yet been developed into a full strategy.” Additionally, employees criticized the plan for its lack of involving “input from all levels at the university” and for being, “ever-changing depending on the current needs/desires of leadership.”

“The most powerful mechanism that founders, leaders, managers, and parents have available for communicating what they believe in or care about is what they systematically pay attention to” (Schein, 2010 p. 237). The qualitative data described leadership as being “more of a management style” and focused on implementing policies, procedures, and directions. Additionally, decisions focused on “budget concerns” and administrators fixated on how they affected “the bottom line.” One adjunct instructor commented, “I feel that the university itself has too much of a corporate culture.”

Likewise, an administrator shared similar feelings to staff and faculty in needing to obtain “permission to make decisions and feel empowered to do what they need to do.”

These messages communicated by leadership reinforced the hierarchy culture. Though all employee types preferred the clan culture, leadership continued to enforce elements of the hierarchy culture. Additionally, the lack of clarity surrounding the future direction of the institution caused confusion. According to Schein (2010), when leaders were inconsistent in what they communicated, employees spent an inordinate amount of time attempting to decipher what those messages meant. When these inconsistent messages continued, employees started to pay less and less attention to what management wanted and instead began to rely more on their own independent judgment.

The second research question focused on the institution's ability to adapt and change. A surprising 70% of the respondents discussed the institution's inability to adapt and change quickly. These employees described the institution's adaptability as a struggle and stated it was inconsistent, poor, and slow. Only 28.57% believed the university was successful or improving its ability to change. Based on the external environmental conditions, employees recognized the need to adjust current strategies. For example, one faculty member discussed how “society doesn't need what we're selling at the same scale anymore. As new market forces threaten institutions like this it is imperative to be responsive to changing conditions.” Others stated, “We are falling behind everyday in how we will educate the student in the future.”

Though employees recognized the need to change, there was still resistance. Comments shared were “people are resistive to change” and “sometimes our traditions and desire to stay the same get in our way.” Though many discussed the institution

improving, several also shared a desire to maintain traditions. One faculty member shared “we are more siloed now” and attributed the lack of community to the demise of the free lunches, Christmas celebrations, and start and end of the year functions. This professor believed “these were important for connecting with others and morale.” An administrator who shared these same sentiments claimed the institution used to “feel more like a family” and discussed how there “were more opportunities for people from different departments to interact and have informal contacts.” Many of these cultural characteristics aligned with characteristics found within both the clan and hierarchy cultures. The need for collaboration and team building tied to the clan culture while consistency and uniformity tied to the hierarchy culture.

The respect for the institution’s history, roots, and traditions also linked to elements found in Berquist and Pawlak’s (2008) tangible culture. This higher education culture valued the traditional campus and its reputation. It appreciated face-to-face interactions and being on the physical campus. Employees enjoyed participating in annual events and traditions. However, as the institutions started to differentiate and adapt to modern times, employees began to feel fragmented. Under these conditions, communication diminished, and employees struggled to readily speak out about their own work.

Part of the research analyzing the institution’s ability to adapt and change focused on the emphasis placed on professional development. Half of the participants (50%) believed the institution was improving or providing sufficient professional development opportunities. Numerous employees discussed the “resurgence of ... employee learning,” which supported the existence of the developmental culture. “The institution is active in

supporting the professional development of its faculty and staff.” Recently, the institution launched several initiatives aimed at improving professional development and learning opportunities. One administrator noted this was “an area that is blossoming. I am encouraged by the amount of on campus offerings there are for professional development.”

The other group of employees (34.39%) discussed the lack of opportunities and funding. As one faculty member shared there was “lots of talk about wanting us to do it” but stated there was “not enough financial support for everyone to get what they need.” A different professor shared “while some recent initiatives have been encouraging, in general the institution does not provide money for this. Employees spoke of “budget cuts” and how “many decisions are made on budget concerns.” Again, these comments show the conflict between elements of hierarchy and managerial cultures and the others present.

The emphasis these employees placed on professional development showed significant ties to the development culture as defined by Berquist and Pawlak (2008). This culture found meaning in the creation of programs and activities that propelled professional growth (Berquist & Pawlak, 2008). Berquist and Pawlak discussed the need to reexamine personal and professional attitudes in response to the harsh realities higher education institutions faced. The developmental culture supported the idea that training programs and professional development renewed interest among employees and increased engagement across campus.

The qualitative data also brought forth the desire to modernize and increase the use of technology on campus. The institution started to invest in integrated services that

would enhance coordination and collaboration. “Improvements such as the switch to Canvas, updated IT structure, focus on assessment, better HR management systems, and the launch of the...Learning Academy...are just a few of the meaningful changes that are transforming the university,” shared an administrator. In response to rigid ways of the past found under the tangible culture, aspects of the virtual culture arose (Berquist & Pawlak, 2008). Those operating under the virtual culture adopted a global mentality and valued educational systems that generated and disseminated information across an international network.

The virtual culture valued the ability to change, introduce new ideas, programs, and delivery mechanisms. (Berquist & Pawlak, 2008). This culture demanded that the institution explore different methods of organizing and managing. However, as one professor commented, “innovation and change can only happen where there is a solid foundation of trust between the faculty and administration.” Though much change had occurred, according to one administrator, “we talk about wanting to adapt and/or change and have certainly done a lot of it. However, I would not say our systems (rewards systems, evaluations, and budgets, etc.) are set up to be ‘change ready.’” Others commented that there are many were resistant to change. “The university has been forced to change over the past few years, which is different than being willing to change.”

The third research question focused on communication. Participants answered questions related to how well the institution communicated campus-wide initiatives and how comfortable employees felt in sharing their opinions. A majority of the respondents (57.14%) felt uninformed while 37.14% felt that communication was somewhat efficient. The issues surrounding communication were highlighted by one faculty member who

stated, “We have meetings and we are given information...however, the information we are told, doesn’t match what the current environment seems to be. Until there is some alignment with words and action, I don’t think the information provided is received.”

Participants also discussed their level of comfort in speaking out and sharing opinions. These results uncovered the fears surrounding the many changes the institution had experienced. Many employees shared a fear of losing one’s job or receiving retaliation if possessing a differing opinion. One administrator claimed to be uncomfortable sharing opinions “for fear of judgment or penalty.” An adjunct instructor believed, “If I share, I would not receive another class to teach ever again.” Staff even commented, “job security is at an all-time low since I have been here,” provided a staff member. Faculty possess similar feelings claiming to be unwilling to share “because it may result in job loss.”

Organizational change had invoked feelings related to loss of power, prestige, and autonomy (Schein, 2010; Sevier, 2003). This fear caused pockets of resistance throughout the institution. The lack of clarity regarding the institution’s purpose and organizational goals created anxiety among several employees. Since anxiety continued to remain high at the institution, employees began to find reasons to disengage and resist the changes (Schein, 2010). These resistors came in many forms. Employees discussed an unwillingness “to collaborate or consider another’s ideas,” and felt that despite the various initiatives, “the student experience changes very little.” Some discussed leadership’s “unwilling to change their management and leadership delivery styles.” While others felt there was a reluctance to “take a risk.”

These different research questions demonstrated the fact that the institution was in a state of transition. Numerous cultures were present and conflicting with one another. The emphasis on policies, procedures, and budgets reinforced elements found within the managerial/ hierarchy cultures and caused conflict with the other cultures present. Though many employees recognized the need to adapt and change, there was resistance over losing the institution's identity and traditions. The qualitative results supported the theory that the studied institution had multiple, competing cultures that were often at odds with one another.

Leading Cultural Change

The fourth research question related to the institution's leadership. Only 11.43% of the participants felt the institution's leadership was strong. The other 88.57% discussed varying degrees of discontentment claiming that leadership was poor, overly formalize, lacked vision and support, too siloed, was in flux and changing, inconsistent, and lacked empowerment. One administrator discussed the state of leadership well:

The leadership style at [the studied] is in flux at this point. The former president was very controlling in areas that should have been delegated to Cabinet members. This created distrust and fear in the ranks, as well as learned helplessness because all of the power was at the top. The leadership will change again in a few months and everyone is waiting to see the impact of the change.

Other participants discussed the "inconsistent decisions and a constant shifting of priorities" that seemed to be common among leadership. These inconsistencies made employees "cautious and skeptical." Additionally, the lack of unity surrounding the institution's mission, purpose, and plan caused "frustration" to even "enthusiasts." One

faculty member shared that under the previous president, the university “seemed to be steadily moving forward on a trajectory that was positive for faculty, staff, and students. In recent years there has been a loss of what I believe is important.”

The presidential changes meant changes in leadership models. Schein (2010) discussed two fundamentally different leadership models, one with a strong vision and one with a “fuzzy vision.” Under the strong vision model, the leader clearly articulated where the organization should end up and outlined specifics on how to get there. Under the “fuzzy vision” model, however, the leader stated discussed the need for change but then stated, “We need your help.” (Schein, 2010, p. 294). The second leadership model was common among leaders who came from the outside and needed to learn the institution first.

Unfortunately, the studied institution was utilizing the “fuzzy vision model.” Leadership discussed the need to change but was unsuccessful in the development of the new vision and how to achieve it (Schein, 2010). The institution received the message that change needed to occur but were not told, “We need your help” (Schein, 2010, p. 294). Though development programs assisted with new learning and in embedding new assumptions, not all constituents agreed upon the communication related to solutions nor were they clearly articulated. Additionally, there were arguments made related to the lack of involvement and input from all constituents.

The uncertainty surrounding the future direction of the institution had many participants commenting on their desire to have the new president reexamine the strategic plan. As stated by one administrator, “I hope the new president starts a new strategic planning process, one that is more inclusive, based on data, with realistic goals.” A

similar comment shared by another administrator stated, “Most people feel the plan will be changed as soon as the new president is hired.” Faculty shared that their hope that “a new president will bring a fresh perspective into the university and more opportunities for innovation that will attract students.”

These excerpts pointed to a desire to see different espoused values than those found in the present dominant cultures (Schein, 2010). Though the institution claimed to be providing preparatory experiences for its students, its practice of keeping costs down caused many employees to believe decisions were made based on “how they affect the bottom line not how they will tie into a future plan.” Additionally, much work focused on improving processes and efficiency while reducing expenditures. “I believe we have too many processes, plans, and initiatives currently taking place without strength in a few strong plans to support and sustain our future,” shared one administrator. These changes then changed the availability of free lunches, lead to the cancellation of the annual Christmas party and other community events. The institution “had many positive and necessary changes in recent years, but the culture of the past was sacrificed.” In this way, leaders were inconsistent in their communication, which caused confusion and weakened efforts outlined in institutional plans (Schein, 2010).

Contributions to the Literature

This study added to the existing literature by including the perspectives of staff, a group largely underrepresented in cultural studies (Graham, 2012; Locke, 2010; Whitchurch, 2008), as well as those of adjunct instructors where the focus of research has been on inadequate working conditions (Fagan-Wilen et al, 2006; Fulton, 2000; Kezar & Gehrke; 2014; Martinez & Martinez; 2019). Staff in this study served in a wide range of

positions including financial operations, facilities, human resources, academic support, information technology, enrollment management, and athletics (Locke, 2010).

Collectively, this group held the systemic knowledge, monitored budgets, and accounted for more than half the operational expenses (Graham, 2012). The few studies that involved staff perceptions focused on feelings of being overworked, having limited resources and promotional opportunities, as well as, dealt with clashes with faculty (Bladerston, 1995; Locke, 2010). Interestingly though, the staff that participated in this study did not refer to these issues. In fact, most discussed the desire for breaking down silos, establishing better lines of communication, and creating more opportunities for staff involvement.

This study also included the perceptions of adjunct instructors. Over the past several years, higher education institutions leveraged more and more adjunct instructors to help teach courses (Fagan-Wilen et al., 2006). Though a significant part of the faculty population, adjunct instructors' part-time status often limited them to teaching activities which prevented them from being able to participate in committees, shared governance processes, and the development of programs (Fulton, 2000; Leach, 2008). As a result, many adjuncts have solicited the help of unions to improve working conditions, which has been the focus of much of the current literature (Fagan-Wilen et al., 2006; Leach, 2008).

This study provided support to adjunct instructors' desire to be more included and involved on university campuses. Though the response rate in this study was low (eight total participants), the comments received correspond to the previous studies. For example, one adjunct instructor shared the desire for the institution to "hire more full-

time instructors and pay market wage for highly educated people.” Another shared a desire for “more inclusion on decisions that affect the courses I teach.” Their term-to-term employment was not favored and one adjunct instructor stated, “I never know if I’m going to be employed from semester to semester. I have been teaching since 2008 and I’ve worked all but one semester during that time, but that does not guarantee that I’ll be teaching in Fall 2019.” Lastly, there was a craving to have better connections and communication with the full-time faculty and deans. As stated by one “I would change the huge disconnect in communication between the full-time faculty and the adjuncts.”

Like other studies, this one included perceptions of both faculty and administrators. Previous studies discussed a strained relationship between faculty and administrators (Berrett, 2011; Kuo, 2009). As such, faculty claimed that administrators did not understand their role, which became apparent in the setting of goals (Billups, 2011; Kuo, 2009). Faculty, in this study, shared similar perceptions to previous studies. They shared a desire to be more involved in the decision-making process and for administrators to be more transparent and forthcoming with details, plans, and communication. As stated by one professor, “communication between higher-ups and faculty definitely needs to improve and become more transparent.” Other faculty stated that “leadership [needs to find] a good balance of attending to the bottom line and valuing and trusting its employees,” while also “being truthful, forthcoming, and driven toward innovation.”

Though many comments related to leadership, several employees also discussed the desire to see the current culture change. One faculty member shared, “we used to have a culture where we cared about all individual’s feelings and we were made to feel

important and valued. Now many of us just do our jobs and try to stay out of the way.” Another shared “it would be nice if there was an environment where people felt free to offer suggestions and take risks with new ideas without fear of being called to the carpet or losing their jobs.”

Although many of these comments shared by faculty discussed the current leadership, administrators also provided comments that mirrored many of these same sentiments. Many of the administrative responses spoke to a desire to improve relationships, communication, and the overall culture on campus. These comments demonstrated a disconnect between upper leadership (board, president, and cabinet-level) and the other levels of the institution. As one administrator claimed, the leadership was “dysfunctional at the very top” and that “the cabinet doesn’t seem to work well together.” These perceived issues existed due to the continuation of silos, the lack of involvement from other employee groups when making decisions, and the creation of the negative culture. The change in the presidency added to some of the perceived “dysfunction.” As noted by one administrator, “based on current leadership and what I know, I would say we have a VP team that wants to work together to solve problems.” Administrators were hopeful that a new president would help bring together the upper-level leadership and “demonstrate effective communication skills...which will in turn improve the organization’s environment.”

The comments shared by the administrators in this study shared some elements discussed in previous studies. Kuo’s study (2009) discussed the relationship between administrators and faculty and demonstrated that both operated under mutual respect. This relationship was evident in the qualitative data. Administrators in this study clearly

valued faculty and shared a desire to have more input when making decisions; however, similar to one study conducted by Olaskoaga-Larrauri, J. et al. (2016) there were struggles balancing demands for change while also being sensitive to feelings expressed by all employees.

Limitations

Many limitations influenced the findings of this study. This study analyzed perceptions of culture at only one private, medium-sized, Midwestern, four-year institution. Studies conducted at public institutions or at different sized schools may or may not translate to the results found within this study. Different school sizes would dictate the number of employees hired and the types of structures and systems utilized. These conditions would likely impact the results found and could differ from the results found in this particular study.

This study was also limited in the number of responses collected from both the staff and adjunct populations. Though 63 adjunct instructors and 61 staff members received the survey, only 12.69% of the adjuncts and 24.59% of the staff completed the survey. Due to the low participation rates, results found within these two particular employee samples may or may not transfer to the larger populations.

Lastly, the researcher's position held at the studied institution could have limited the number of responses received as well as the way participants chose to answer. As demonstrated by one participant who commented, "I have even thought about who is reading this survey." Due to the uncertainty and levels of fear felt by all employee types, the utilization of a neutral person to assist with data collection could have generated more participation and elaboration of answers.

Recommendations for Future Research

There should be future studies aimed at understanding the various employee perspectives of higher education culture apart from just faculty and administrators. This study included both staff and adjunct instructors' viewpoints, but the response rates were relatively low. These two employee types are fundamental in carrying out functions related to achieving the institution's mission and goals. Further research should examine these roles and their contributions in shaping and forming the institutional culture.

Additional research should also examine the various cultures present on college campuses and how these impact or impede change management strategies. As this study found, there are numerous cultures present on higher education campuses. Further research needs to analyze how institutional leaders can adapt and modify the university while working within these various cultural types. The Competing Values Framework identified the desire for the institution to change the current dominant culture. However, there is a lack of research on higher education institutional culture, especially concerning how to effectively implement and manage change. Most strategies adopted are from proven methods found in corporate culture which do not always account for the complexities found in higher education institutions.

Conclusion

As higher education institutions prepare themselves for the students of the future, leaders must be able to identify, understand, and lead the various cultures that exist and often compete with one another. Colleges and universities are complex, mature organizations (Manning, 2017). Leaders must articulate a clear vision and path for how to meet institutional strategies and goals and have the proper buy-in from all constituents.

However, failing to consider the cultural elements that existed among the differing cultures can ruin even the best-communicated plans.

Understanding the institutional culture was just as important as understanding the dynamics that existed between the various employee types. Leaders needed to be able to understand and identify the various perceptions held by the faculty, staff, adjunct instructors, and lower to mid-level managers. Such viewpoints were necessary for leaders in order to reduce resistors and to promote buy-in. More studies focused on understanding and using higher education culture to implement change strategies will assist colleges and universities in preparing and remaining relevant for generations to come.

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