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Organizational Culture as a Function of Institutional Type in Higher Education

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Organizational Culture as a Function of Institutional Type in Higher Education

By

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Abstract

The purpose of the present study was to examine whether organizational culture varies as a function of institutional type in higher education, and to identify whether there exists congruence between organizational culture type and leader behavior. Utilizing the *Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument* (OCAI) developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999, 2006, 2011), data were collected from a sample of academic deans (n = 84) representing the colleges and universities across five states of the Upper Midwest. The results indicated a general trend toward clan cultures and congruent leader behavior for all institutional types (i.e., associate's colleges, baccalaureate colleges, master's colleges and universities, and doctorate-granting universities). Responses from academic deans at baccalaureate colleges singularly achieved statistical significance. Conversely, the results of the present study revealed a notable discontinuity between perceptions of current campus culture and desires for its future. Specifically, academic deans across all four institutional types indicated major preferences for a clan culture to predominate on their campuses. Perhaps most importantly, the results suggested the discovery of institutional size as a possible moderator of organizational culture among American colleges and universities.

Acknowledgments

It is not everyday that one has the good fortune to pursue a second doctorate, much less a degree in a discipline beyond one's initial field of study. Nine years ago, I completed my first doctorate. I have learned since that time that much goodness can occur personally, academically, and professionally within the span of a decade. As I prepare for doctoral commencement a second time, I am indebted to the faculty in the Department of Educational Leadership at Minnesota State University, Mankato for helping to make these past few years of intellectual adventure so enjoyable. I especially thank my dissertation committee for their efforts to help me produce a solid piece of scholarship: Professor Dan Sachau (Professor of Psychology), Dr. Brenda Flannery (Dean of the College of Business), and the incomparable Professor Julie Carlson (Professor of Educational Leadership). In her attention to detail, her methodologic insights, and her willingness to entertain a less than traditional student, Professor Carlson distinguished herself as the consummate advisor.

I also extend a special nod to my classmates of Cohort 3 in the Department of Educational Leadership. These past few years have been busy ones between the responsibilities of family, work, and studies. I cannot overstate how often I looked forward to class and the conversations that would ensue because of the camaraderie we developed as we together walked this path. I also learned a great deal about both higher and K-12 education by listening. Truly, you are a great group of scholars.

I close with an observation from Einstein (cited in Calaprice, 2005, p. 65): "An organization cannot itself engender intellectual activity, but rather can only support what

is already in existence." Perhaps in some way the discoveries within the present study will prove applicable to the development of the ongoing experiment that is American higher education.

Table of Contents

List of Figures.....viii

Chapter I - Introduction.....1

Background of the Problem.....1

Purpose Statement.....5

Hypotheses.....5

Significance of the Research.....6

Definition of Key Terms.....8

Chapter II - Literature Review.....11

Organizational Culture.....12

Institutional Type.....20

Campus Leadership.....27

Summary.....33

Chapter III - Method.....35

Subjects.....35

Measures.....36

Procedure for Data Collection.....39

Procedure for Data Analysis.....40

Chapter IV - Results.....43

Demographic Characteristics.....43

Organizational Culture Type.....45

Leader Behavior.....47

Preferred Organizational Culture Type..... 49

Institutional Size as Possible Moderator.....51

Chapter V - Discussion..... 54

Summary of Findings……......55

Implications..... .58

Strengths and Limitations….....60

Recommendations for Further Research.....61

References.....63

Appendix A - List of Institutions by State..... 73

Appendix B - Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument.....75

Appendix C - Survey.....78

List of Figures

Figure 1 - Competing Values Framework..... 15

Figure 2 - Bar Chart of Gender of Academic Dean by Institutional Type.....43

Figure 3 - Bar Chart of Years by Institutional Type.....45

Figure 4 - Bar Chart of Culture Type by Institutional Type.....47

Figure 5 - Bar Chart of Leaders Behavior by Institutional Type.....48

Figure 6 - Bar Chart of Preferred Culture Type by Institutional Type..... 49

Figure 7 - Bar Chart of Institutional Size by Institutional Type.....53

Figure 8 - Mixed Chart of Institutional Size and Clan Culture Score..... 58

Chapter I

Introduction

Background of the Problem

Shrinking budgets and growing mission creep (Morphew, 2009) currently threaten the American higher education landscape, one that provides "complimentary opportunities for students with unique needs" (Morphew, 2002, p. 208). This is a situation ostensibly exacerbated by an increased push within academe to differentiate colleges and universities (Clark, 1989; Crow, 2007; Henderson, 2009) toward greater specialization and *branding* as an attempt to achieve the higher status accorded to major research universities (Morphew, 2002). Yet, such change processes are being promulgated with little empirical support for their suppositions or understanding of the present cultural landscape within higher education. An identification of how organizational culture varies as a function of institutional type in higher education will provide a broad range of stakeholders with relevant information to facilitate institutional change and growth. By better understanding how organizational culture differs across type of higher-education institution, campus leaders, boards of directors, and faculty may better advocate for more relevant changes on their campuses.

The study of organizational culture has become an area of growing inquiry over recent decades, with more than 4,600 articles having been published on the topic since 1980 (Hartnell, Ou, & Kinicki, 2011). Yet, there has been ostensibly little consideration of organizational culture relevant to institutions of higher education. One exception is Tierney's (1988) highly-cited article regarding organizational culture at colleges and

universities. According to Tierney, organizational culture results from the internal dynamics within an organization that derive "from the values, processes, and goals held by those most intimately involved in the organization's workings" (p. 3). It is an open, dynamic system characterized a "learned set of shared basic assumptions" (Schein, 1993, p. 705). As such, organizational culture in higher education is not monolithic (Association for the Study of Higher Education, 2005). Colleges and universities vary in location, size, and mission, each of which can have a potentially profound influence on the internal dynamics of the organization.

Organizational culture has been historically considered through the lens of descriptive typologies. In his seminal book, Schein (1985, 1992, 2004, 2010) argued for the value of typologies to meaningfully elucidate the variance observed across organizational cultures. He also cautioned that typological reasoning must be tempered by an awareness of its methodological limitations.

> The value of typologies is that they simplify thinking and provide useful categories for sorting out complexities we must deal with when we confront organizational realities....The weakness of culture typologies is that they oversimplify these complexities and may provide us categories that are incorrect in terms of their relevance to what we are trying to understand. (p. 175)

Ostensibly cognizant of such limits, Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) designed a measure of organizational typology based on the rational selection of test items (i.e., those items identified from the extant literature and as identified by recognized leaders in the field). The result was the development of the *Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument*

(OCAI) by Cameron and Quinn (1999, 2006, 2011), an instrument that has demonstrated validity and utility in numerous studies across the landscape of higher education (e.g., Fralinger & Olson, 2007; Kalliath, Bluedorn, & Gillespie, 1999; Obenchain, Johnson, & Dion, 2004).

The OCAI (Cameron & Quinn, 1999, 2006, 2011) was designed to identify the dominant culture of an organization by profiling that organization across a quartet of organizational culture types (i.e., clan culture, adhocracy culture, market culture, and hierarchy culture). First, according to Cameron and Quinn, a clan culture can be defined as an organization united through a sense of institutional loyalty. Second, an adhocracy culture is typified by a "commitment to experimentation and innovation" (p. 75), one which encourages individuals to take the initiative. Third, Cameron and Quinn defined a market culture as an organization held together by an emphasis on competitiveness. Fourth, a hierarchy culture is noted for formal rules and a high degree of predictability within the organization.

However, there is significant organizational diversity among colleges and universities. A commonly accepted manner of conceptualizing institutions of higher education is to utilize the basic Carnegie classification (CFAT, n.d.) categories: (a) associate's colleges, (b) baccalaureate colleges, (c) master's colleges and universities, and (d) doctorate-granting universities. Although there remain questions regarding the conceptual and political utility of such a classificatory scheme (e.g., McCormick & Zhao, 2005), these categories are widely understood throughout academe and provide a relevant framework with which to compare types of institutions in higher education.

It has been suggested that leaders in higher education must understand the value systems of their institutions. Indeed, leaders "usually adjust their leadership behavior to accomplish the mission organization" (Tsai, 2011, p. 1). Further evidence supports the notion that there must be a goodness of fit between a leader and the organizational culture (Giberson, et al., 2009). Academic communities require "leadership at every turn" (Palmer, 2007, p. 161). Question nonetheless remains regarding the presumed congruence between leader behavior and organizational culture within institutions of higher education.

More problematic is the meaningful definition of a campus leader and the role of campus leadership in affecting organizational culture. Although Schein (1985, 1992, 2004, 2010) observed that "the leader's assumptions become shared and part of the culture of the organization" (p. 235), the reality is that empirical support for this statement is scant. There does exist evidence that leader behavior correlates with organizational culture (Chen, 2004; Sarros, Gray, & Densten, 2002; Tsai, 2011). However, identification of a causal relationship awaits further investigation. Debate indeed continues regarding the fundamental traits inherent to effective leadership within or beyond higher education (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991). Recent investigations also have attempted, with mixed and less than stellar success, to attribute leadership success to various psychobiological characteristics of leaders (e.g., Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002; O'Connor & Jackson, 2010; Sternberg, 2005). As Zaccaro (2007) summarized, "a consensus about the role of leader traits, the magnitude and mechanisms of their influence, and the determining role of leadership situations has remained elusive" (p. 14).

As an example of campus leaders, academic deans have been defined as "administrators who [owe] their allegiance to the faculty, curriculum, students, and institution in equal measure" (DeMillo, 2011, p. 95). It is plausible that academic deans, by virtue of their position, maintain a unique ability to apperceive an institution of higher education more holistically than either faculty or chief academic officers.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of present study was to examine whether organizational culture varies as a function of institutional type in higher education, and to identify whether there exists congruence between organizational culture type and leader behavior, as apperceived through the perspective of academic deans. Survey data were solicited from a sample of campus leaders representing all public and private non-profit associate's colleges, baccalaureate colleges, master's colleges and universities, and doctorate-granting universities in the Upper Midwest states of Iowa, Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Wisconsin. These institutions were categorized in alignment with the basic Carnegie Classifications (CFAT, n.d.).

Hypotheses

Institutions of higher education in the United States represent an array of organizational diversity. Colleges and universities may be "the most significant creation of the second millennium (Rhodes, 2001, p. xi). They retain distinct missions, recruit different students, and place variable emphasis on undergraduate and/or graduate education (Henderson, 2007). Public versus private control of a college or university also can exert differential effects regarding faculty recruitment and reward, sources of

funding, and responsibilities to external stakeholders. Consequently, the current state of higher education in the United States suggests a number of testable predictions.

Hypothesis 1. It was hypothesized that associate's colleges will tend to manifest adhocracy or hierarchy cultures.

Hypothesis 2. It was hypothesized that baccalaureate colleges will tend to manifest clan cultures.

Hypothesis 3. It was hypothesized that master's colleges and universities will tend to manifest market or hierarchy cultures.

Hypothesis 4. It was hypothesized that doctorate-granting universities will tend to manifest adhocracy or market cultures.

Hypothesis 5. It was hypothesized that leader behavior will tend to be perceived as congruent with organizational culture type within institutions of higher education.

Significance of the Research

Smart, Kuh, and Tierney (1997) found that community colleges tended to manifest either hierarchy or adhocracy cultures. Community colleges furthermore comprise one of the largest segments of the higher education landscape in the United States. Perhaps because of their focus on access and affordability, community colleges "are seen as attractive public investments relative to traditional universities" (Christensen & Eyring, 2011, p. 349). In a time of reduced state funding for higher education, it is plausible that community colleges may become more bureaucratic in response to an expectation of increased fiscal accountability.

Baccalaureate colleges are often noted for their small size, low student-to-faculty ratios, and verdant campuses. Indeed, the baccalaureate college widely represented higher education during the first century after the founding of the United States (Cole, 2009). These institutions have often been expected to produce transformative experiences for undergraduate students (Fish, 2008). Most relevant, preliminary evidence suggests that the small campuses typical of baccalaureate colleges tend to manifest greater community among faculty.

Crow (2007) recently argued that state-funded universities must overcome what he perceived as the restraint of government oversight. Such caution is representative of the mission creep observed among many colleges and universities as the attempt to move up the proverbial *Carnegie ladder* (Christensen & Eyring, 2011; Henderson, 2009; Toma, 2008). Many master's colleges and universities ostensibly attempt to balance the exigencies of state funding against attempts to attain greater institutional recognition. Thus, master's colleges and universities may be especially likely to seek niches in the United States higher education landscape as they attempt to market themselves as unique institutions (see Lowman, 2010; Morphew, 2009).

Doctorate-granting universities, primarily as represented by the major research universities, ostensibly retain a place of prominence both along the proverbial *Carnegie ladder* and among broader society. Concordant with the high profile of the doctorate-granting universities is an institutional focus on graduate education (Cole, 2009) a faculty focus aligned with a desire for discovery and professional advancement (Rhodes, 2001). Thus, doctorate-granting institutions are ideally suited to eschew enterprise over stricture

(see Crow, 2007). Such enterprising institutions appear primed to function in a largely adhocratic manner.

An understanding of how organizational culture differs across type of higher-education institution as perceived by campus leaders could provide an empirical rationale to question the tacit acceptance among many colleges and universities of climbing the *Carnegie ladder* (Christensen & Eyring, 2011, p. 11-12) and the tacit acceptance of the supremacy of a research culture (Eddy & Hart, 2012). Indeed, as Altbach (2012) observed, "not all universities are competing with Harvard and Berkeley" (p. 31). The trend toward organizational isomorphism among colleges and universities (i.e., the tendency of the institutional landscape to become increasingly homogeneous) risks further diluting the institutional diversity for which American higher education is known (Morphew, 2009). Such a loss of diversity may be antithetical to the purposes of higher education. Perhaps colleges and universities should be less concerned about the *status trap* (Henderson, 2009, p. 186; Toma, 2008) and more focused on their educational missions by guiding students to "be more concerned about the fit between the institution and their own interests and abilities than about the prestige of an institution" (Altbach, 2012, p. 31). Indeed, there is evidence to suggest that different colleges and universities, and different types of colleges and universities, may manifest notable differences in organizational culture and decision-making (Tierney, 2008).

Definition of Key Terms

Organizational culture. For the purpose of present study, organizational culture was defined according to the OCAI (Cameron & Quinn, 1999, 2006, 2011) as clan,

adhocracy, market, or hierarchy. The following descriptors have been slightly emended to better reflect broader academic culture.

Clan culture. Cameron and Quinn (1999, 2006, 2011) defined a clan culture as "a very friendly place to work where people share a lot of themselves....The organization is held together by loyalty or tradition" (p. 75).

Adhocracy culture. Cameron and Quinn (1999, 2006, 2011) defined an adhocracy culture as "a dynamic, entrepreneurial, and creative place to work....The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to experimentation and innovation" (p. 75).

Market culture. Cameron and Quinn (1999, 2006, 2011) defined a market culture as "a results-oriented organization....The glue that holds the organization together is an emphasis on winning" (p. 75).

Hierarchy culture. Cameron and Quinn (1999, 2006, 2011) defined a hierarchy culture as "a very formalized and structured place to work....Formal rules and policies hold the organization together" (p. 75).

Institutional type. For the purpose of present study, institutional type was defined according to the following criteria. Institutions of higher education were identified under the basic Carnegie Classification (CAFT, n.d.) categories: (a) associate's colleges, (b) baccalaureate colleges, (c) master's colleges and universities, and (d) doctorate-granting universities.

Campus leader. For the purpose of present study, a campus leader was defined as an academic dean (i.e., of liberal arts and sciences, education, business, nursing, etc.)

or a similar campus leader (e.g., provost) in the absence of such a dean . The inclusion of these campus leaders should have provided ratings representative of the academic and professional disciplines common among college and university campuses.

Chapter II

Literature Review

Empirical interest in organizational culture has grown in recent decades, albeit with limited consideration relative to institutions of higher education. Historically, organizational culture has been tested through the lens of descriptive typologies. Chief among these has been the development of the *Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument* (OCAI) by Cameron and Quinn (1999, 2006, 2011). It would seem reasonable that leaders in higher education must understand the value systems of their institutions. Due to their unique role at colleges and universities, academic deans may offer a unique ability to holistically apperceive institutions of higher education. The inclusion of these campus leaders should have provided ratings representative of the academic and professional disciplines common among college and university campuses.

This review of the literature therefore will begin with an introduction to the concept of organizational culture, with a focus on the general use of cultural typologies and the specific application of the *Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument* (Cameron & Quinn, 1999, 2006, 2011) to higher education. Attention will then be afforded to the various institutional types representing the landscape of higher education in the United States, followed by a consideration of the individual and situational factors that affect campus leadership. Finally, this review will culminate with a rationale for the present study.

Organizational Culture

In his seminal article, Tierney (1988) sought to delineate a framework with which differences in organizational culture could be identified among colleges and universities. Tierney maintained that organizational culture is iterative of the attitudes shared among the members of that organization. Thus, the cultural milieu of an organization can be conceptualized as the holistic sum of its internal dynamics:

> This internal dynamic has its roots in the history of the organization and derives its force from the values, processes, and goals held by those most intimately involved in the organization's workings. An organization's culture is reflected in what is done, how it is done, and who is involved in doing it. It concerns decisions, actions, and communication both on an instrumental and a symbolic level. (p. 3)

Organizational culture therefore can be conceptualized as those automatic assumptions upon which members of an organization act relative to the purposes of that organization (Schein, 1986). It is a pattern of, and guide for, behavioral expectations within organizations (Association for the Study of Higher Education, 2005) transmitted across individuals and time.

In what appears to be the first scholarly article on the matter of organizational culture (per Ramachandran, Chong, & Ismail, 2010), Pettigrew (1979) asserted a number of ideas concordant with Tierney (1988). Pettigrew suggested that organizational culture provides a conceptual framework by which members of an organization may interpret the dynamics of their workplace (Pettigrew, 1979). He specifically emphasized the

importance of symbols and rituals to the maintenance of an organizational culture. To paraphrase Pettigrew, it is through the relevant symbols (e.g., institutional logo) and rituals (i.e., procedure for tenure) that individuals create culture and culture creates individuals within an organization. Members of an organizational culture thus come to identify with the organization via such norms of communication (Tierney, 1988).

It is one thing to assert that a college or university manifests a culture (e.g., Obenchain, Johnson, & Dion, 2004), but quite another to assume that organizations tend to be internally homogenous. Organizational cultures are not monolithic (Association for the Study of Higher Education, 2005). For example, Silver (2003) argued that research has "failed to reflect the dual position of academics in their disciplinary contexts..." (p. 157) and went as far as challenging the very notion of organizational culture in higher education as a meaningful construct. Although his conclusion may be extreme, Silver's stance serves as a reminder that colleges and universities are complex organizations that are not easily categorized. What is therefore needed is a method with which the syncretic nature of organizational culture can be more meaningfully explored.

Culture as typology. Organizational culture writ large is a complex phenomenon marked by ambiguity (Cameron & Quinn, 1999, 2006, 2011). Nonetheless, such complexity can be made more responsive to empirical investigation through conceptualization in the form of a typology. A typology allows for the categorization of relevant variables into a coherent albeit restricted phenomenological set. A typology can thereby aid discovery by functioning as a model of organizational culture. However, as

Schein (1985, 1992, 2004, 2010) cautioned, there are caveats to relying too heavily on models that attempt to describe reality.

> The value of typologies is that they simplify thinking and provide useful categories for sorting out the complexities we must deal with when we confront organizational realities....The weakness of culture typologies is that they oversimplify these complexities and may provide us categories that are incorrect in terms of their relevance to what we are trying to understand. (Schein, 1985, 1992, 2004, 2010, p. 175)

Thus, when properly recognized as inherently incomplete representations of reality, typologies can aid in creating "pictures of the data" (Holland, 1996, p. 73) regarding organizational culture at colleges and universities. Indeed, the value of typologies is widely recognized within the behavioral and social sciences. Typologies have been utilized effectively to elucidate the underlying factors of human personality (Costa & McCrae, 1992), occupational preference as a trait (Holland, 1996), and the factors of effective leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Competing values framework. In 1983, Quinn and Rohrbaugh published their theory of organizational effectiveness known as the *competing values framework* (CVF). Based on an analysis of rationally selected items (i.e., those items identified as relevant from the extant literature by recognized leaders in the field), Quinn and Rohrbaugh found that a two-dimensional model appeared to meaningfully identify characteristics of high salience to organizational culture. Quinn and Rohrbaugh specifically identified that organizational culture can be typologically understood by plotting perceptions of an

organization's structure (flexible versus controlled) against its focus (internal versus external). The resultant two-dimensional plot yielded four organizational culture types: (a) clan, (b) adhocracy, (c) market, or (d) hierarchy. Quinn and Rohrbaugh cautioned, however, the importance of apperceiving these two continua (Figure 1) not as indicating extremes of valence, but as revealing neutral representations of competing values. According to Quinn and Rohrbaugh, "the normal cognitive processes often prevent us from being able to conceive of opposite as being equally true or valued, or from recognizing a simultaneous antithesis exists in nature" (p. 376). Thus, these competing values of structure and focus, respectively, must be understood as portraying alternative examples of potentially effective organizational cultures.

	INTERNAL FOCUS	EXTERNAL FOCUS
LOW STRUCTURE	Clan	Adhocracy
HIGH STRUCTURE	Hierarchy	Market

Figure 1: Competing Values Framework (adapted from Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983).

Although many typologies of organizational culture have been proposed over the year (see Schein, 1985, 1992, 2004, 2010, for a comprehensive review), the CVF (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983) appears to have generated the most robustly supported theory. It is a theory that has been successfully applied to the arena of higher education. For example, in a study characterized by a logically consistent design of instrumentation and data collection, Obenchain, Johnson, and Dion (2004) found the CVF to meaningfully

classify Christian colleges and universities based on their dominant organizational culture types. Although lacking in generalizability, Obenchain, Johnson, and Dion's study nonetheless serves as a useful proof-of-concept for the applicability of the CVF to the landscape of higher education. Broader evidence in support of the nomological validity of the four organizational culture types identified by the CVF (i.e., clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy) was more recently demonstrated in the meta-analysis by Hartnell, Ou, and Kinicki (2011). Hartnell, Ou, and Kinicki found the internal structure of the CVF to be coherent across data from 84 previous studies. Intriguingly, they also found positive associations among all four organizational culture types. This suggests that the organizational values thought to be orthogonal across organizational culture types (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983) actually may be of a more complementary nature. Similarly, Kalliath, Bluedorn, and Gillespie (1999) utilized structural equation modeling (SEM) to test the CVF among managers of a multi-hospital setting. Their results mirrored those of Hartnell, Ou, and Kinicki of positive correlations among the four organizational culture types and supported the four-factor structure of the model espoused by Quinn & Rohrbaugh.

The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument. The *Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument* (OCAI*)* was designed to assess organizational culture congruent with the CVF (Cameron & Quinn, 1999, 2006, 2011). The OCAI specifically was developed to allow members of an organization to rate the perceived values of that organization in a manner that would typically reveal a dominant organizational culture type (i.e., clan, adhocracy, market, or hierarchy). The instrument is comprised of 6 items,

each of which requires the respondent to rate the organization across 4 relevant descriptors. As Cameron and Quinn delimited,

> The six items merely describe some of the fundamental manifestations of organizational culture. These dimensions are not comprehensive, of course, but they address basic assumptions (dominant characteristics, organizational glue), interaction patterns (leadership, management of employees), and organizational direction (strategic emphasis, criteria of success) that typify the fundamentals of culture. (p. 28)

Responding to the OCAI requires that the rater focus on the "cultural units" (Cameron & Quinn, 1999, 2006, 2011, p. 29) of the organization under consideration. The OCAI thus can be utilized to ask members of an organization, regardless of their role(s) within the organization, to rate the organization as a whole. For example, the OCAI was found to be an effective tool for exploring the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational culture in the Saudi Arabian banking industry (Aldhuwaihi, Shee, & Stanton, 2011). The purpose of the OCAI is to identify the dominant culture manifest by an organization at the time of rating. Although evidence suggests that the four organizational culture types (i.e., clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy) are positively related to one another (Hartnell, Ou, & Kinicki, 2011; Kalliath, Bluedorn, & Gillespie, 1999), they nonetheless provide a discrete typology with which to identify the values held primary within an organization.

Clan culture. Cameron and Quinn (1999, 2006, 2011) defined a clan culture as:

> A very friendly place to work where people share a lot of themselves. It is like an extended family. The leaders, or head of the organization, are considered to be mentors and, maybe even, parent figures. The organization is held together by loyalty or tradition. Commitment is high. The organization emphasizes the long-term benefit of human resource development and attaches great importance to cohesion and morale. Success is defined in terms of sensitivity to customers and concern for people. The organization places a premium on teamwork, participation, and consensus. (p. 75)

Adhocracy culture. Cameron and Quinn (1999, 2006, 2011) defined an adhocracy culture as:

> A dynamic, entrepreneurial, and creative place to work. People stick their necks out and take risks. The leaders are considered to be innovators and risk takers. The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to experimentation and innovation. The emphasis is on being on the leading edge. The organization's long-term emphasis is on growth and acquiring new resources. Success means gaining unique and new products or services. Being a product or service leader is important. The organization encourages individual initiative and freedom. (p. 75)

Market culture. Cameron and Quinn (1999, 2006, 2011) defined a market culture as:

> A results-oriented organization. The major concern is getting the job done. People are competitive and goal oriented. The leaders are hard drivers, producers,

> and competitors. They are tough and demanding. The glue that holds the organization together is an emphasis on winning. Reputation and success are common concerns. The long-term focus is on competitive actions and achievement of measurable goals and targets. Success is defined in terms of market share and penetration. Competitive pricing and market leadership are important. The organizational style is hard-driving competitiveness. (p. 75)

Hierarchy culture. Cameron and Quinn (1999, 2006, 2011) defined a hierarchy culture as:

> A very formalized and structured place to work. Procedures govern what people do. The leaders pride themselves on being good coordinators and organizers, who are efficiency-minded. Maintaining a smoothly running organization is most critical. Formal rules and policies hold the organization together. The long-term concern is on stability and performance with efficient, smooth operations. Success is defined in terms of dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low cost. The management of employees is concerned with secure employment and predictability. (p. 75)

Application to higher education. The *Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument* (OCAI) developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999, 2006, 2011) has demonstrated utility as applied to higher education. Fralinger and Olson (2007) applied the construct of organizational culture reflected in the OCAI to students in a university department. Their results revealed its ability to meaningfully identify the organizational culture type of the university, what Fralinger and Olson considered to be the *personality*

of the university under study. Ferreira and Hill (2008) similarly found that the OCAI was able to differentiate organizational culture types across Portuguese public and private university cultures. Likewise, Ramachandran, Chong, and Ismail (2010) were able to utilize the OCAI with faculty members to distinguish between public and private university cultures in Malaysia. Smart, Kuh, and Tierney (1997) more locally found that the OCAI was able to meaningfully elucidate the organizational cultures present in American community colleges. Nonetheless, while these studies suggest major potential to better understanding organizational culture among colleges and universities, the work of Obenchain, Johnson, and Dion (2004) on the applicability of the competing values framework (CVF) to discriminate among institutional types remains ostensibly unique as an elegant application of the OCAI to the higher education landscape in the United States.

Institutional Type

There exists ostensibly significant cultural diversity among colleges and universities in the United States. Such institutional diversity manifests in distinct missions, the recruitment of specific types of students, and emphasis placed on undergraduate and/or graduate education (Henderson, 2007). Colleges and universities are affected further by public versus private control and its cultural sequelae. Question therefore remains regarding a differentiation of organizational culture type relative to type of institution within higher education. Indeed, the landscape of higher education in the United States is notable for its institutional diversity. According to Morphew (2009), "institutional diversity, or the existence of many different kinds of colleges and

universities within a specific higher education system, has long been recognized as a positive and unique attribute to the U.S. higher education system" (p. 243). Such diversity is often evinced in the values espoused explicitly or otherwise within institutional mission statements (Morphew & Hartley, 2006). For example, there appears to be a direct relationship between the size of a college or university and the prestige afforded that institution (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1990). Mattson and Brent (2008) even went so far as to suggest the presence of two distinct cultures, those of faculty and administrators respectively, on most campuses. Fortunately, Kuo (2009) found these two cultures to be marked by a high degree of collegiality across party line. Various colleges and universities nonetheless serve different populations of students for different purposes (Lowman, 2010).

Amid this ostensible diversity, Morphew (2009) related his perception of an increasingly common trend toward the homogenization of institutional mission among colleges and universities. He warned against the risk of academic drift (i.e., mission creep) as a threat to institutional diversity.

> A reasonable view of the growth in higher education systems during the past century would posit academic drift — defined as the tendency of colleges and universities to ape [*sic*] the programmatic offerings of the most prestigious — as the greatest threat to institutional diversity. (p. 246)

Fish (2008) similarly cautioned that institutions in higher education should return to their respective academic roots and eschew pursuits aimed at the vocations.

Changes to institutional mission are not inherently problematic (Lowman, 2010), but the presence of isomorphic forces (i.e., those social forces that result from an increasingly homogeneous institutional environment) across the landscape of higher education may drive academic drift and thereby undermine the presence of such great diversity among colleges and universities within the United States (Morphew, 2009). Such forces might very much motivate colleges and universities to seek higher marks on the "widely accepted scorecard for Harvard emulation" (Christensen & Eyring, 2011, p. 12) and thereby diminish the organizational diversity observed across the landscape of higher education in the United States (cf. CAFT, n.d.)

A brief history. Rhodes (2001) esteemed the university as "the most significant creation of the second millennium" (p. xi). However, the landscape of higher education in the United States began with a more modest start. Harvard College was founded in New Towne, Massachusetts, later be to be called Cambridge, in 1636 (Rhodes, 2001). This new college was modeled after Oxford University and Cambridge University in England, which were organized around an undergraduate education within the broader scope of the university (Cole, 2009). Additional Colonial institutions were founded over the subsequent century, to include the College of William and Mary (1693), Yale College (1701), and Princeton College (1746; Cole, 2009). Many of these and other early colleges, which initially focused on the education of future ministers, would go on to become the major research universities of the modern day. However, it was not until the 19th century that the nascent face of American higher education began to diversify.

Johns Hopkins University, founded in 1876, was the first university in the United States to emphasize research over undergraduate education (Cole, 2009). This new mission emulated the great German universities of the time. It was also roughly coincident with the signing into law of the Morrill Act of 1862. This act provided federal lands for the establishment of state colleges and universities. Meanwhile, many of the Colonial colleges had evinced significant academic drift as they evolved into major research universities. The partial result of this change in the higher education landscape was that *Harvard aspirations* (Christensen & Eyring, 2011) seemingly became internalized into the organizational values of numerous state colleges and universities. This value for institutional ascension would often be at odds with the organizational cultures of the state universities with their traditional histories of originating as *teachers* or *normal schools* (Henderson, 2007). Indeed, recent concern has been raised regarding the appropriateness of state universities to eschew "the tendencies of traditional universities" (p. 204) in order to ascend the *Carnegie ladder* (Christensen & Eyring, 2011) so as to better differentiate their missions (Crow, 2007) in the search for greater institutional prestige (Toma, 2008).

Community colleges joined the American landscape of higher education in 1901 (Walker, 2005). Originally known as *junior colleges*, these institutions offered open access to skills training or a college education. Community colleges were conceived as an attempt to democratize higher education (Walker, 2005). This was a goal that has been apparently successful. Whereas enrollments in major research universities, state universities, and liberal arts colleges have grown slowly, community colleges grew from

accounting for 9 percent of total enrollment in the United States in 1950 to 38% of total enrollment in 1996 (Rhodes, 2001).

Perhaps few individuals have evinced so profound an effect across the landscape of higher education in the United States than Clark Kerr. As president of the University of California system,

> Clark Kerr's crowning achievement was to produce the Master Plan for Higher Education in California, a model for the nation of how both of these basic values [of access and excellence] could be realized. The plan was simple in concept, yet difficult to implement. It introduced the idea of a three-tiered system for California higher education. At the highest academic level were the major research universities....This layer would serve the top 12.5 percent of the state's high school graduates and qualified students from out of state. A second tier, enrolling another third of California's high school graduates, consisted of a state college system whose primary mission was the transmission of knowledge, not conducting research. And finally, a third tier, the community colleges, with vocational offerings and two-year programs, were open to all the high school graduates who did not qualify for the four-year colleges and universities. (Cole, 2009, p. 135)

This tripartite model of higher education would become widely emulated across the states. As observed by Christensen and Eyring (2011), "it is a great irony that community colleges and state universities would attempt to use the ladder [toward the

major research universities] for their own climbs" (p. 196) as opposed to differentiating and focusing their missions on the students they already serve.

The landscape of higher education. The institutional diversity resplendent across the American higher education landscape is reflected in the categories represented by the Carnegie classification (McCormick & Zhao, 2005). The Carnegie classification (CAFT, n.d.) categorizes American institutions of higher education into broad institutional types based on the primary type of degree an institution grants. The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (CFAT) was led by Clark Kerr at the time of the classification's introduction in 1967. Having been revised over the intervening decades, the Carnegie classification currently categorizes institutions of higher education into four types of institution: (a) associate's colleges, (b) baccalaureate colleges, (c) master's colleges and universities, and (d) doctorate-granting universities. This basic classification scheme can be useful in conceptualizing gross differences between institutional types. However, as senior Carnegie scholars McCormick and Zhao (2005) cautioned, the classification must be understood as a general snapshot meant to represent an institution of higher education broadly. The Carnegie classification was not designed to be prescriptive, nor as an ersatz ranking system (McCormick & Zhao, 2005). The Carnegie classification must therefore be utilized for its ability to differentiate among the "opportunity structure that exists [in higher education] in the United States like nowhere else" (Cole, 2009, p. 7). The Carnegie classification can thus be a useful tool when there is a need to compare snapshots of broad tracks of the institutional landscape.

Associate's colleges. Within the Carnegie classification (CFAT, n.d.), associate's colleges are defined as "institutions where all degrees are at the associate's level, or where bachelor's degrees account for less than 10 percent of all undergraduate degrees" (para. 3). As of 2010, there were 1,920 associate's colleges in the United States (CFAT, n.d.).

Baccalaureate colleges. The Carnegie classification (CFAT, n.d.) defines baccalaureate colleges as "institutions where baccalaureate degrees represent at least 10 percent of all undergraduate degrees and where fewer than 50 master's degrees or 20 doctoral degrees were awarded during the update year" (para. 6). The 2010 data indicate that there were 809 baccalaureate colleges in the United States (CFAT, n.d.).

Master's colleges and universities. Master's colleges and universities are defined by the Carnegie classification (CFAT, n.d.) as "institutions that awarded at least 50 master's degrees and fewer than 20 doctoral degrees during the update year..." (para. 5). According to the 2010 data, there were 727 master's colleges and universities in the United States (CFAT, n.d.).

Doctorate-granting universities. Within the Carnegie classification (CFAT, n.d.), doctorate-granting institutions are defined as "institutions that awarded at least 20 doctoral degrees during the update year (excluding doctoral-level degrees that qualify recipients for entry into professional practice, such as the JD, MD, PharmD, DPT, etc." (para. 4). The 2010 data indicate that there were 297 doctorate-granting universities in the United States (CFAT, n.d.).

Campus Leadership

It appears to be widely assumed in the literature that leaders maintain a direct and substantial influence on an organization. Cameron and Quinn (1999, 2006, 2011) did find that leaders tend to be more successful when their strengths are congruent with the culture of the organizations they lead. Such observation, however, begs the question of whether a goodness-of-fit between leader and organization is primarily due to the characteristics of the leader or of the extant organizational culture.

Leader characteristics. There is little doubt that certain leaders are more successful than others, an observation applicable across the landscape of higher education. Whether the traits inherent to the personality of a leader are significant factors in leadership success has been studied for decades. According to Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991), "few issues have a more controversial history than leadership traits and characteristics" (p. 48). The possession of certain personality traits is no guarantee of success, yet it has been acknowledged that "successful leaders are not like other people" (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991, p. 49). In this vein, O'Connor and Jackson (2010) sought to empirically identify whether successful leaders manifest a specific configuration of traits beneficial to successful leadership. They found that the presence of biologically-based traits accounted for greater variance than did situational variables in successful leadership. While interesting, present study was limited to female undergraduate students demonstrating emergent leadership in a laboratory setting. The generalizability of the results are therefore limited. Alternatively, Judge, Bono, Ilies, and Gerhardt (2002) conducted a meta-analysis of 263 journal articles and 77 doctoral dissertations. They

specifically considered the relationship between leadership and the Big Five personality traits (see Costa & McCrae, 1992). Results indicated that *extraversion* was most predictive of leadership success. Judge, Bono, Ilies, and Gerhardt also found that leaders tended to be sociable, dominant, achievement-oriented, and dependable. These traits *in toto* are congruent with the earlier hypothetical stance of Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991).

Zaccaro (2007) more recently proposed a trait-based model of leader attributes and performance. He defined leader traits as "relatively coherent and integrated patterns of personal characteristics, reflecting a range of individual differences, that foster consistent leadership effectiveness across a variety of group and organizational situations" (p. 7). Successful leadership may be predicated upon an interaction of leader traits, the attributes the leader has developed through the experience, and the situational context of the organization (Zaccaro, 2007). Unfortunately, situational context is a topic typically ignored in the leadership literature, with its focus on the individual as leader, even while context is presumed to constrain leader behavior (Liden & Antonakis, 2009). In this regard, Sternberg's (2005) contribution to the research is intriguing. According to Sternberg,

> An effective leader needs creative ability to come up with ideas, academic ability to decide whether they are good ideas, and practical ability to make the ideas work and convince others of the value of the ideas, and wisdom to ensure that the ideas are in the services of the common good rather than just the good of the leader...." (p. 359)

In other words, the successful leader has developed the ability to synthesize knowledge with judgment (Sternberg, 2005) based upon the needs of the situational context of the organization. Successful leadership involves "influencing others by establishing a direction for collective effort and managing, shaping, and developing the collective activities in accordance with this direction" (Zaccaro, 2007, p. 9).

Situational context. Leaders are not heroes. Indeed, the heroic conceptualization of leadership was recognized as empirically untenable as early as the 1940s (Vroom & Jago, 2007). As Vroom and Jago stated, situational variables are currently recognized as highly relevant to the study of leadership, "either as determinants of leader behavior or as moderating variables interacting with traits or behaviors" (p. 19). An early example of this recognition of the importance of situational context to leadership can be observed in the work of Hersey and Blanchard (1969). They argued that leadership style should vary dependent upon the presenting situation. Importantly, leaders must recognize this environmental necessity regardless of their inherent leadership style (e.g., democratic, authoritarian, etc.) if they are to be effective. Hersey and Blanchard further stated that employee maturity functions as the primary situational characteristic to which leaders must adapt. Much as a child matures from infancy through adolescence and onto adulthood (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Nelson, 1993), so too does the employee develop the competence and internalize the responsibility requisite for adequate task performance (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969).

Hersey and Blanchard's (1969) theory of situational leadership in its original and subsequently revised forms has been exceedingly popular in practice (Blanchard,

Zigarmi, & Nelson, 1993). However, the internal consistency of the theory has been strongly questioned (Graeff, 1997). The reality nonetheless is that situational variables do appear to account for significant variance in the leadership effectiveness (Vroom & Jago, 2007). As Vroom & Jago noted,

> Most social scientists interested in leadership have now abandoned the debate between person or situation in favor of a search for a set of concepts that are capable of dealing both with differences in situations and with differences in leaders. (p. 20)

It may therefore be surmised that the ability of a leader to influence an organization rests upon both the characteristics of that leader and the situational context in which that leader must act.

Influence of leadership. The relationship between leader behavior and organizational culture appears to be readily accepted at an implicit level in the literature (Giberson, et al., 2009). Research does appear to generally support this assumption, but insight into the causal pathways remain opaque. For example, it has been suggested that faculty behaviors are very much molded by institutional context (Levin, 2012). This context has historically been assumed to result largely from the actions of campus leadership. Indeed, Winter (2009) cautioned that leaders at colleges and universities must understand the academic value system if they are to successfully direct their institutions. Consistency of communication is central to successful campus leadership (Bolden, Petrov, & Gosling, 2008; Schein, 1985, 1992, 2004, 2010).

Chen (2004) found positive correlations between transformational leader behavior and organizational culture in a sample of 84 small and mid-sized Taiwanese service manufacturing firms. He interpreted the findings to suggest that the leaders under study directly influenced their employees' behaviors and thus overall organizational culture. In a study at two Taiwanese hospitals, Tsai (2011) similarly identified positive correlations between job satisfaction and both leader behavior and organizational culture. Tabbodi (2009) found a positive correlation between the leader behavior of department heads and the commitment of their faculties within humanities departments at a large university in India. Finally, Sarros, Gray, and Densten (2002) discovered that characteristics of leaders accounted for notably more variance than did organizational cultural factors among the ratings of 1,918 members of an Australian professional management association. The findings of such studies demonstrate at least preliminary support for the notion that leader behavior influence organizational culture. Organizational culture is a complex construct (Giberson, et al., 2009), perhaps especially so when considered across the diverse landscape of American higher education.

The academic dean. Perhaps there is no better role than that of the academic dean to represent the leadership within the college or university. A position that has significantly evolved from the informal to the formal since its origination in the 1800s (Montez, Wolverton, & Gmelch, 2002), academic deans are "administrators who [owe] their allegiance to the faculty, curriculum, students, and institution in equal measure" (DeMillo, 2011, p. 95). By virtue of their position, academic deans (and provosts at baccalaureate colleges) conceivably possess a uniquely holistic perspective of their

college or university. As opposed to other types of deans (e.g., technical, student affairs, etc.), academic deans typically have advanced degrees in the relevant academic disciplines. Thus, they are cultural representatives of the institution, individuals who have been expected at one time or another to proverbially wear multiple hats (Association for the Study of Higher Education, 2001) in order to address the expectations of a wide range of institutional stakeholders. Thus, "deans rarely work with black-and-white issues. Instead, they are forced to wade into murky waters....Deans must be able to negotiate" (Maghroori & Powers, 2004, p. 53). Within institutions of higher education, "deans provide the delicate but crucial backbone of university decision making" (Wolverton, Wolverton, & Gmelch, 1999, p. 80).

Academic deans resultantly must function amidst significant role ambiguity (Wolverton, Wolverton, & Gmelch, 1999). For example, Montez, Wolverton, and Gmelch (2002) asked deans from 260 colleges and universities to identify those challenges they perceived as endemic to their role. The result was a list of seven categories that represent the role ambiguity with which deans must regularly contend: (a) fiscal matters, (b) administrative activities, (c) curricular development, (d) interactions with faculty, (e) technology, (f) balancing personal and professional goals, and (g) fostering diversity on campus (Montez, Wolverton, & Gmelch, 2002). Wolverton, Wolverton, and Gmelch (1999) similarly further discovered that the role ambiguity reported by 1,370 deans tended to negatively affect job satisfaction, work-related stress, perceptions of effectiveness in the role, and even loyalty to the college or university. In the words of Wolverton, Wolverton, and Gmelch, "the good news is that most deans

believe they work in good environments. The bad news is that this is not enough" (p. 100).

Summary

The study of organizational culture has grown during the past decades (Hartnell, Ou, & Kinicki, 2011), but with ostensibly little attention afforded to the applicability of the construct to institutions of higher education. Tierney (1988) defined organizational culture as the result of the internal dynamics within an organization that derive from "the values, processes, and goals held by those most intimately involved in the organization's workings" (p. 3). Schein (1985, 1992, 2004, 2010) argued for the value of descriptive typologies to help elucidate the nature of organizational culture. Based upon the work of Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983), Cameron and Quinn (1999, 2006, 2011) developed the *Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument* (OCAI) as a technology with which to identify the dominant culture of an organization across a quartet of organizational culture types (i.e., clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy). The OCAI has demonstrated utility within and beyond the arena of higher education.

Yet, the landscape of higher education in the United States is not monolithic. Although less than a perfect system (cf. McCormick & Zhao, 2005), the Carnegie classification (CAFT, n.d.) is widely recognized as a useful tool for categorizing colleges and universities across four institutional types (i.e., associate's colleges, baccalaureate colleges, master's colleges and universities, and doctorate-granting universities). The recognition of these semi-distinct categories represents in brief the history of higher education in the United States since its inception in the early 17th century.

Campus leadership is a construct that perhaps is most meaningfully reflected in the roles and responsibilities of academic deans. A consensus regarding the role of leader traits and behaviors has remained elusive (Zaccaro, 2007) on or off campus. Nonetheless, evidence suggests that leader behavior correlates with (Chen, 2004; Levin, 2012; Tsai, 2011), and may significantly influence (Giberson, et al., 2009), the culture of an organization. Academic deans maintain a unique role at colleges and universities. It therefore appears plausible that an investigation of how academic deans perceive their institutions could begin to elucidate the differences in organizational culture across the American higher education landscape.

Chapter III

Method

The purpose of the present study was to examine whether organizational culture varies as a function of institutional type in higher education, and to identify whether there exists congruence between organizational culture type and leader behavior. Toward this end, five hypotheses were tested:

1. It was hypothesized that associate's colleges will tend to manifest adhocracy or hierarchy cultures.
2. It was hypothesized that baccalaureate colleges will tend to manifest clan cultures.
3. It was hypothesized that master's colleges and universities will tend to manifest market or hierarchy cultures.
4. It was hypothesized that doctorate-granting universities will tend to manifest adhocracy or market cultures.
5. It was hypothesized that leader behavior will tend to be perceived as congruent with organizational culture type within institutions of higher education.

Subjects

Subjects for the present study were recruited among campus leaders from all 198 public and not-for-profit colleges and universities in the Upper Midwest (i.e., Iowa, Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Wisconsin). Eighty-four academic deans and baccalaureate provosts representing 73 institutions (see Appendix A) responded to requests to participate. The sample was comprised of 32 academic deans (38.1%) from

29 associate's colleges, 15 academic deans (17.9%) from 13 baccalaureate colleges, 23 academic deans (27.4%) from 20 master's colleges and universities, and 14 academic deans (16.7%) from 10 doctorate-granting universities. These academic deans hailed from 35.6% of the colleges and universities in the catchment area, thereby offering a representative sample of the five-state landscape in higher education.

The recruitment of academic deans from these institutions represented an opportunity to measure organizational culture across a broad institutional landscape characterized by the full range of basic Carnegie classifications (CAFT, n.d.). For the purposes of the present study, a campus leader was defined as an academic dean (i.e., of liberal arts and sciences, education, business, nursing, etc.) or a similar campus leader (e.g., provost) in the absence of such a dean. As leaders who maintain the potential to holistically recognize the value systems of their institutions, academic deans may demonstrate a unique ability to report on institutions of higher education. Institutional type (i.e., associate's colleges, baccalaureate colleges, master's colleges and universities, and doctorate-granting universities) was determined per the basic Carnegie classifications of late 2012 for the purpose of the present study. Tribal colleges were excluded due to potentially significant differences in organizational culture or governance.

Measures

Subjects were requested to complete an online survey confidentially administered via Qualtrics (www.qualtrics.com). The survey included demographic and empirical items. Demographic items included: (a) institution (for the purpose of identifying institutional type per the basic Carnegie classification [CAFT, n.d.]), (b) gender (c) years

in current position, and (d) total years at current institution. Classification by institutional type (i.e., associate's colleges, baccalaureate colleges, master's colleges and universities, and doctorate-granting universities) was identified online from the Carnegie Institute for the Advancement of Teaching website (classifications.carnegiefoundation.org). Due to the potentially fundamental differences in organizational culture when profit is inherent to a college or university's mission, for-profit colleges and universities were not included in the present study.

Subjects were then presented with Cameron and Quinn's (1999, 2006, 2011) *Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument* (OCAI). The OCAI is a validated and widely used measure of organizational culture (see Appendix B; Cameron & Quinn, 1999, 2006, 2011; Fralinger & Olson, 2007; Hartnell, Ou, & Kinicki, 2011; Kalliath, Bluedorn, & Gillespie, 1999; Obenchain, Johnson, & Dion, 2004; Schein, 1985, 1992, 2004, 2010). The purpose of the OCAI was to identify subjects' perceptions of the dominant culture at their colleges or universities. The instrument is organized into *Now* and *Preferred* sections. The *Now* section of the OCAI is comprised of 6 items that require subjects to rate their institutions along six organizational dimensions: (a) dominant characteristics, (b) organizational leadership, (c) management of employees, (d) organizational glue, (e) strategic emphasis, and (f) criteria of success. Each of these six items requires subjects to rank four descriptive statements regarding the applicability of that statement to the subjects' institution. Subjects must attribute a total of 100 points across these four descriptors before moving on to the next of the six items. For example,

the first item of the OCAI, *Dominant Characteristics*, presents subjects with four statements that potentially describe the major facet of their institution's culture:

(a) "The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves."

(b) "The organization is a very dynamic entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks."

(c) "The organization is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented."

(d) "The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do."

The subsequent *Preferred* section of the instrument requires subjects to respond to the same 6 items as before, but by indicating how they would like their college or university to function 5 years hence. These items allowed subjects to share their cultural preferences and thus provide potential insight into their satisfaction with the current cultures at their institutions.

Finally, subjects were presented with descriptions of each type of organizational culture and asked to identify the one most congruent with leader behavior on campus. These descriptions were emended versions of Cameron and Quinn's (1999, 2006, 2011) descriptors for each of the four organizational culture types. Management-style wording that some academic deans might have found displeasing were redacted from the original descriptors. For example, academic deans were presented with an emended description for a market culture that read (changes emphasized in italics):

Campus leadership fosters a results-oriented organization. The major concern is getting the job done. People are competitive and goal oriented. The leaders are hard drivers, producers, and competitors. They are tough and demanding. The glue that holds the organization together is an emphasis on winning. Reputation and success are common concerns. The long-term focus is on competitive actions and achievement of measurable goals and targets. Success is defined in terms of market share and penetration. Competitive leadership is important. The organizational style is hard-driving competitiveness.

Procedure for Data Collection

Data for the present study were collected in three phases. All potential subjects (i.e., academic deans of liberal arts, education, business, nursing, etc.) were identified from website directories and online searches and recruited from public and non-profit private colleges and universities in 5 states of the Upper Midwest. In Phase I of data collection, surveys were deployed to 198 academic deans at all 60 public and private non-profit institutions of higher education in Minnesota. Thirty-six academic deans (18.18% response rate) responded to the survey in this first phase of data collection.

Due to the insufficient response rate in the first phase of data collection, additional subjects were recruited in Phase II from all public and private non-profit colleges and universities in North Dakota, South Dakota, and Wisconsin. Surveys were deployed to 228 academic deans at all 90 public and private non-profit institutions of higher education across the three states (North Dakota = 13, South Dakota = 15, and Wisconsin = 62). Twenty-nine academic deans (12.72% response rate) responded to the

survey during this second phase of data collection. This resulted in a nearly doubled sample size, but the number of academic deans from doctorate-granting institutions remained quite low due to the relative absence of such institutions in the Upper Midwest.

Thus, Phase III of data collection was initiated to recruit additional academic deans from Iowa. Surveys were deployed to 120 academic deans at all 48 public and private non-profit institutions of higher education in Iowa. Nineteen academic deans (15.83% response rate) responded to the survey during this third phase of data collection. The inclusion of this third phase of data collection grew the sample size for each of the institutional types.

All subjects were recruited after identifying their institutions from the basic Carnegie classifications (CAFT, n.d.). In each phase of data collection, subjects were recruited via e-mail. Reminders were sent to subjects within their respective phases via e-mail approximately 2 weeks after the initial request for participation. All subjects were treated in accordance with the code of ethics of the American Psychological Association (2002) and the American Educational Research Association (2011) regarding matters of informed consent and confidentiality (see consent form in Appendix C).

Procedure for Data Analysis

Data were aggregated within Qualtrics and then analyzed via SPSS subsequent to the redaction of subjects' identifying information. Demographic data were first explored to identify relevant sample characteristics: (a) number of deans per institutional type, (b) number of institutions per institutional type, (c) gender representation of deans, (d) mean years in current position, and (e) total years at institution.

Responses from academic deans to the *Now* section of Cameron and Quinn's (1999, 2006, 2011) *Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument* (OCAI) were utilized to test Hypotheses 1-4 of the present study regarding expectations of dominant organizational culture types among each of the institutional types. Mean scores for each of the four organizational culture types (i.e., clan, adhocracy, market, or hierarchy) were identified within each institutional type (i.e., associate's colleges, baccalaureate colleges, master's colleges and universities, or doctorate-granting universities). Chi-squared goodness-of-fit tests were computed to determine whether there existed a significant difference across organizational culture types within each institutional type (e.g., Are market cultures significantly most likely among master's colleges and universities?).

Hypothesis 5 of the present study was tested by measuring perceptions of leader behavior as defined by academic deans' responses to emended descriptions of each type of organizational culture. Frequencies for each of the four styles of leader behavior based descriptions of clan, adhocracy, market, or hierarchy cultures were identified within each institutional type (i.e., associate's colleges, baccalaureate colleges, master's colleges and universities, or doctorate-granting universities). These results were then compared with the academic deans' responses to Cameron and Quinn's (1999, 2006, 2011) *Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument* (OCAI).

Finally, academic deans' responses to the *Preferred* section of the OCAI were analyzed to identify congruence between current perceptions and desired direction of organizational culture type across institutional types. Similar to the analysis of the *Now* responses, mean scores for each of the four preferred organizational culture types (i.e.,

clan, adhocracy, market, or hierarchy) were identified within each institutional type (i.e., associate's colleges, baccalaureate colleges, master's colleges and universities, or doctorate-granting universities). In other words, subjects were asked to rate how they would like their colleges and universities to culturally function 5 years hence. Chi-squared goodness-of-fit tests were computed to determine whether there existed a significant difference across preferred organizational culture types within each institutional type (e.g., Are adhocracy cultures significantly most preferred among associate's colleges?).

Chapter IV

Results

Demographic Characteristics

Eighty-four academic deans representing 73 institutions from the 5 states of Iowa, Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Wisconsin responded to requests to participate in the present study. The genders within the sample were equally represented (40 males, 43 females, see Figure 2), although 1 subject neglected to indicate gender.

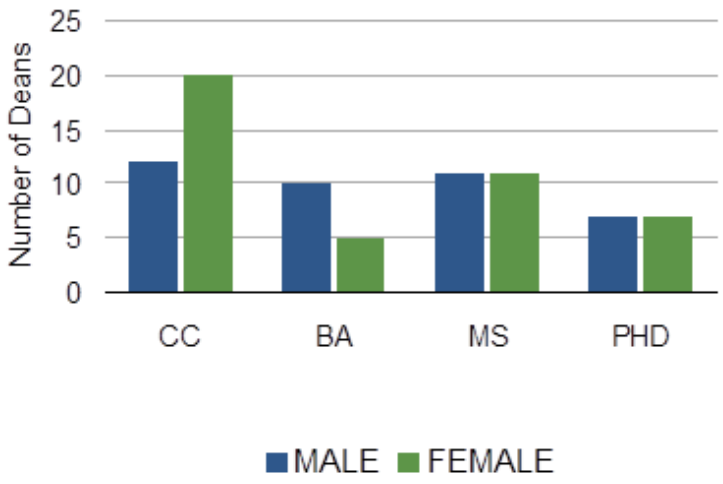

Figure 2. Bar chart of gender of academic deans by institutional type. CC = associate's colleges, BA = baccalaureate colleges, MS = master's colleges and universities, PHD = doctorate-granting universities.

The typical subject had occupied his or her current position as academic dean for an average of 4 years (range: 0–16 years) and had been at the same institution for an average of 12 years (range: 0–32 years, see Figure 3). For both of these items, 2 subjects

responded with an answer of *100 years* and thus were excluded from the current description.

Academic deans from all four institutional types (i.e., associate's colleges, baccalaureate colleges, master's colleges and universities, and doctorate-granting universities) were well represented in the sample. Specifically, academic deans from 29 associate's colleges comprised 38.1 percent of the sample (n = 32, 12 males and 20 females). These deans reported to have occupied their current positions for a mean of 10.28 years (SD = 23.74 years) and to have been at the same institution for a mean total of 16.25 years (SD = 22.93 years).

Academic deans from 13 baccalaureate colleges comprised 17.9 percent of the sample (n = 15, 10 males and 5 females). These deans reported to have occupied their current positions for a mean of 4.80 years (SD = 4.18 years) and to have been at the same institution for a mean total of 15.47 years (SD = 9.20 years).

Academic deans from 20 master's colleges and universities comprised 27.4 percent of the sample (n = 23, 11 males and 11 females, 1 missing). These deans reported to have occupied their current positions for a mean of 4.78 years (SD = 3.55 years) and to have been at the same institution for a mean total of 11.74 years (SD = 7.37 years).

Finally, academic deans from 10 doctorate-granting universities comprised 16.7 percent of the sample (n = 14, 7 males and 7 females). These deans reported to have occupied their current positions for a mean of 3.00 years (SD = 2.63 years) and to have been at the same institution for a mean total of 11.93 years (SD = 10.69 years).

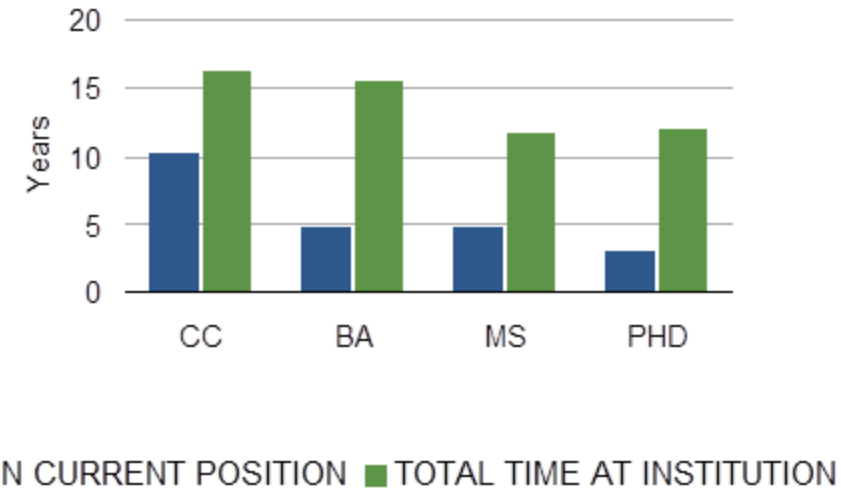

Figure 3. Bar chart of years of dean tenure by institutional type. CC = associate's colleges, BA = baccalaureate colleges, MS = master's colleges and universities, PHD = doctorate-granting universities.

Organizational Culture Type

Subjects were requested to complete Cameron and Quinn's (1999, 2006, 2011) *Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument* (OCAI) in order to test the Hypotheses 1-4 of the present study. The OCAI requires subjects to rate their perceptions of their campus culture by ranking the extent to which they perceive clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy cultures as present on their campuses (see Figure 4, p. 47). Thus, a subject might have attributed a 75-percent ranking to one culture type, such as a clan culture, with 25 percent distributed among the other three culture types. Such a finding would indicate the perception of a dominant clan culture existing on that subject's campus.

It was hypothesized that associate's colleges would tend to manifest adhocracy or hierarchy cultures. Instead, academic deans from associate's colleges tended to rate a

clan culture as most dominant on their campuses (M_{clan} = 34.49, SD_{clan} = 16.52; $M_{adhocracy}$ = 20.30, $SD_{adhocracy}$ = 8.48; M_{market} = 20.74, SD_{market} = 13.57; $M_{hierarchy}$ = 24.46, $SD_{hierarchy}$ = 12.13). However, the difference across these ratings was nonsignificant, $X^2(3, N = 32) = 5.22$, $p > .05$, *ns*. The first hypothesis of the present study was therefore not supported.

It was hypothesized that baccalaureate colleges would tend to manifest clan cultures. Academic deans from baccalaureate colleges overwhelmingly rated a clan culture as being most prevalent on their campuses (M_{clan} = 44.78, SD_{clan} = 15.70; $M_{adhocracy}$ = 19.50, $SD_{adhocracy}$ = 7.80; M_{market} = 14.11, SD_{market} = 7.88; $M_{hierarchy}$ = 21.61, $SD_{hierarchy}$ = 14.42). This difference was highly significant, $X^2(3, N = 15) = 22.06$, $p < .0005$, thereby supporting the second hypothesis of the present study.

It was hypothesized that master's colleges and universities would tend to manifest market or hierarchy cultures. Indeed, academic deans at master's colleges and universities did indicate somewhat of a trend toward a hierarchy culture (M_{clan} = 35.72, SD_{clan} = 8.79; $M_{adhocracy}$ = 20.87, $SD_{adhocracy}$ = 9.24; M_{market} = 17.39, SD_{market} = 7.06; $M_{hierarchy}$ = 26.01, $SD_{hierarchy}$ = 11.25). However, the difference was nonsignificant, $X^2(3, N = 23) = 7.64$, $p > .05$, *ns*. This result was not supportive of the third hypothesis of the present study.

It was hypothesized that doctorate-granting universities would tend to manifest adhocracy and market cultures. Academic deans at doctorate-granting universities failed to indicate a clear trend in culture type at their institutions (M_{clan} = 26.46, SD_{clan} = 13.34; $M_{adhocracy}$ = 22.08, $SD_{adhocracy}$ = 8.16; M_{market} = 20.93, SD_{market} = 9.76; $M_{hierarchy}$ = 30.52,

$SD_{hierarchy}$ = 14.06). Unsurprisingly, the difference was nonsignificant, $X^2(3, N = 14) = 2.31$, $p > .05$, *ns*, thus failing to support the fourth hypothesis of the present study.

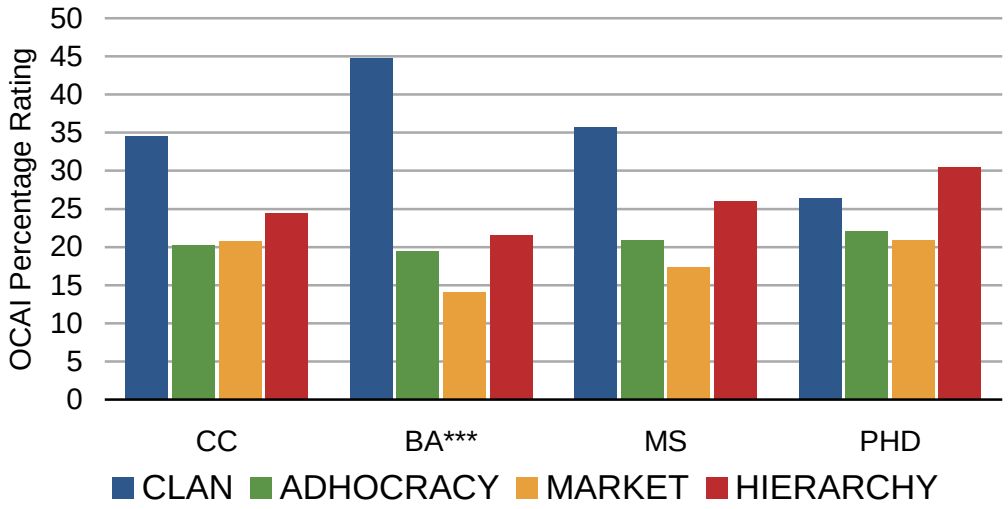

Figure 4. Bar chart of culture type by institutional type. Bars represent mean OCAI percentage ratings by academic deans for each culture type. Triple asterisk indicates $p < .0005$. CC = associate's colleges, BA = baccalaureate colleges, MS = master's colleges and universities, PHD = doctorate-granting universities.

Leader Behavior

It was also hypothesized that leader behavior would tend to be perceived as congruent with organizational culture type within institutions of higher education. Hypothesis 5 of the present study was tested by asking academic deans to indicate the leader behavior most prevalent on their campuses (see Figure 5). All 84 subjects responded to this item. Academic deans from associate's colleges tended to rate clan leader behavior as the most dominant on their campuses (n_{clan} = 13; $n_{adhocracy}$ = 7; n_{market} = 3; $n_{hierarchy}$ = 8). However, the difference was nonsignificant, $X^2(3, N = 31) = 6.55$, $p >$

.05, *ns*. Conversely, academic deans from baccalaureate colleges rated a clan leader behavior as exceptionally representative of their campuses (n_{clan} = 11; $n_{adhocracy}$ = 1; n_{market} = 2; $n_{hierarchy}$ = 1). This difference was quite significant, $X^2(3, N = 15) = 18.88$, $p < .0005$.

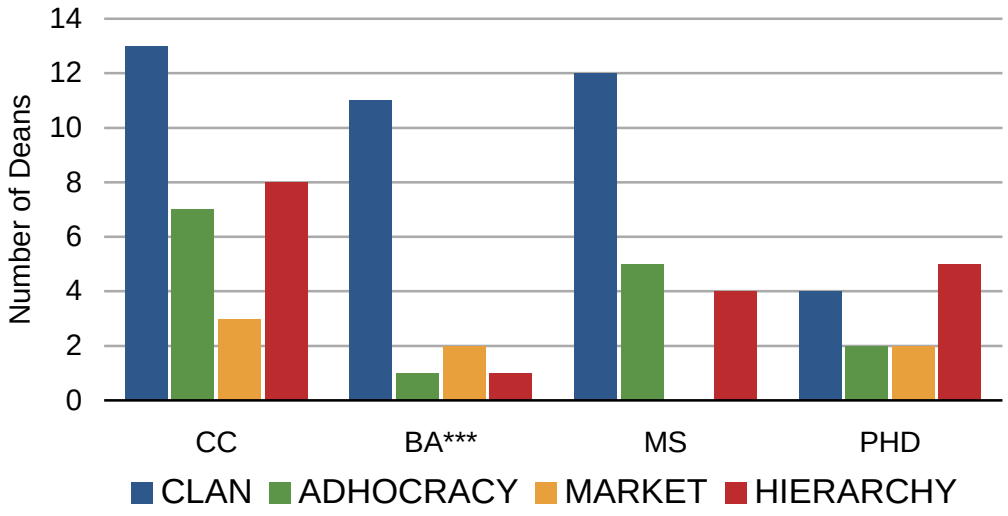

Figure 5. Bar chart of leader behavior by institutional type. Bars represent number of deans identifying each culture type. Triple asterisk indicates $p < .0005$. CC = associate's colleges, BA = baccalaureate colleges, MS = master's colleges and universities, PHD = doctorate-granting universities.

Academic deans from master's colleges and universities indicated clan leader behavior as most typical of their campuses (n_{clan} = 12; $n_{adhocracy}$ = 5; n_{market} = 0; $n_{hierarchy}$ = 4), but the difference was nonsignificant, $X^2(2, N = 21) = 5.43$, $p > .05$. Finally, academic deans from doctorate-granting institutions reported a mixed representation of leader behavior on their campuses (n_{clan} = 4; $n_{adhocracy}$ = 2; n_{market} = 2; $n_{hierarchy}$ = 5), with a hierarchy culture as slightly most dominant. The difference across these behaviors was nonsignificant, $X^2(3, N = 13) = 2.07$, $p > .05$. Taken together, these results are congruent

with the tests to Hypotheses 1-4 and therefore appear to support Hypothesis 5 of the present study.

Preferred Organizational Culture Type

In addition to requiring subjects to rate their perceptions of their campus culture by ranking the extent to which they perceive clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy cultures as present on their campuses, Cameron and Quinn's (1999, 2006, 2011) *Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument* (OCAI) is also designed to measure how subjects would like their colleges and universities to culturally function 5 years hence. The results of the present study revealed two notable discontinuities. One of these pertained to a shift for a preferred clan culture at doctorate-granting institutions; the other to a decrease for a preferred hierarchy culture across all type of institution.

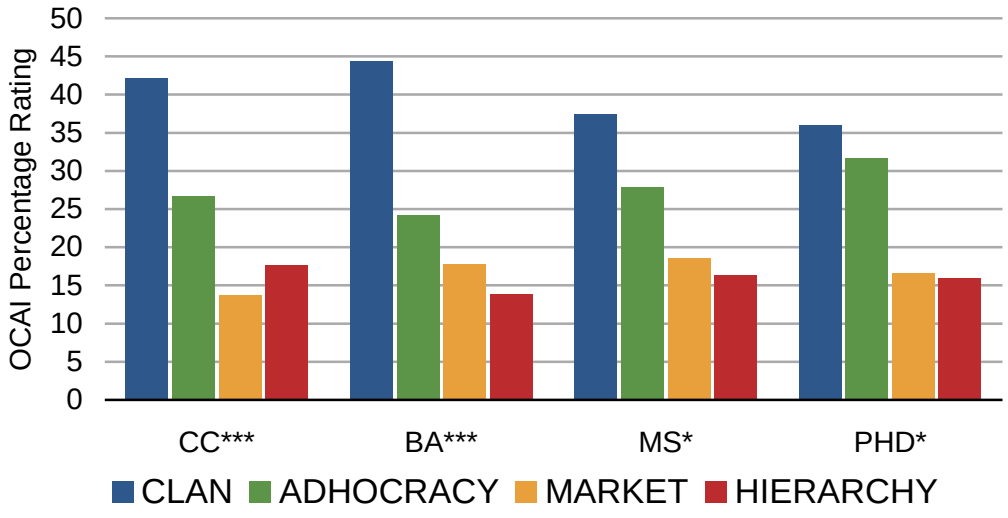

Figure 6. Bar chart of preferred culture type by institutional type. Bars represent mean OCAI percentage ratings by academic deans for each culture type. Asterisk indicates $p < .05$, triple asterisk indicates $p < .0005$. CC = associate's colleges, BA = baccalaureate colleges, MS = master's colleges and universities, PHD = doctorate-granting universities.

Specifically, academic deans across all four institutional types (i.e., associate's colleges, baccalaureate colleges, master's colleges and universities, and doctorate-granting universities) indicated major preferences for a clan culture to predominate on their campuses (see Figure 6). The difference between reported current and preferred clan scores among academics deans was statistically significant, $t(83) = -2.84$, $p < .01$.

The finding that academic deans at baccalaureate colleges rated a clan culture as their preferred culture ($M_{clan} = 44.28$, $SD_{clan} = 21.87$; $M_{adhocracy} = 24.17$, $SD_{adhocracy} = 10.03$; $M_{market} = 17.78$, $SD_{market} = 14.12$; $M_{hierarchy} = 13.78$, $SD_{hierarchy} = 9.43$), was not surprising. This result was statistically significant, $X^2(3, N = 32) = 19.27$, $p < .0005$, and congruent with the academic deans' reports of current culture on their campuses. However, a similar desire for a clan culture was found among academic deans from associate's colleges and from master's colleges and universities. Academic deans from associate's colleges overwhelmingly endorsed a clan culture as their preference ($M_{Clan} = 42.16$, $SD_{clan} = 20.01$; $M_{adhocracy} = 26.64$, $SD_{adhocracy} = 11.47$; $M_{market} = 13.62$, $SD_{market} = 7.60$; $M_{hierarchy} = 17.58$, $SD_{hierarchy} = 9.73$), $X^2(3, N = 15) = 22.02$, $p < .0005$. Academic deans from master's colleges and universities responded in kind ($M_{clan} = 37.39$, $SD_{clan} = 11.59$; $M_{adhocracy} = 27.83$, $SD_{adhocracy} = 6.44$; $M_{market} = 18.51$, $SD_{market} = 9.69$; $M_{hierarchy} = 16.27$, $SD_{hierarchy} = 6.45$), $X^2(3, N = 23) = 11.19$, $p < .02$.

Perhaps most striking was that academic deans from doctorate-granting universities reported a statistically significant preference, $X^2(3, N = 14) = 12.62$, $p < .01$, for their institutions to assume clan cultures ($M_{clan} = 35.89$, $SD_{clan} = 10.85$; $M_{adhocracy} = 31.61$, $SD_{adhocracy} = 7.72$; $M_{market} = 16.55$, $SD_{market} = 8.42$; $M_{hierarchy} = 15.95$, $SD_{hierarchy} =$

6.67). This finding was orthogonal to the undifferentiated responses indicated by these same academic deans regarding the current culture and leadership at their institutions.

Simultaneously, academic deans at every type of institution reported that a hierarchy culture would be least preferred on their campuses five years into the future. This finding was not surprising given the universal preference for a clan culture across types of institutions. This second trend was nonetheless notable, however, due to the relative presence of a hierarchy culture among associate's colleges, master's colleges and universities, and doctorate-granting universities (see Figure 4, p. 46). It appears that not only is a clan culture most preferred regardless of type of institution, but that a hierarchy culture is emphatically not preferred.

Institutional Size as Possible Moderator

Overall, the results from the *Now* section of Cameron and Quinn's (1999, 2006, 2011) *Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument* (OCAI) indicated a general trend toward clan cultures, and away from hierarchy cultures, for associate's colleges, baccalaureate colleges, and master's colleges and universities (see Figure 4, p. 46). Although responses from academic deans at baccalaureate colleges singularly achieved statistical significance, the trend existed across three of the four institutional types and may suggest an isomorphism of organizational culture within the American landscape of higher education not previously identified in the literature. This trend existed irrespective of either the gender ($t[81] = 0.797$, $p > .05$) or time in current position ($r[84] = -0.006$, $p > .05$) among academic deans. Moreover, the desire for a clan culture appeared widely among academic deans across institutional types as evinced by their responses to the

Preferred section of the OCAI (see Figure 6), representing a desire for a clan culture that existed widely among the academic deans.

It is conceivable that institutional size might have manifested an effect on perceptions of institutional culture. After removing duplicate responses from academic deans at the same institutions, student population data were considered for 68 institutions (see Figure 7). Whereas doctorate-granting universities tended to be quite large ($M_{doctorate\text{-}granting}$ = 20392.55, $SD_{doctorate\text{-}granting}$ = 17179.78), institutions of the other institutional types ($M_{associate's}$ = 5027.91, $SD_{associate's}$ = 2416.06; $M_{baccalaureate}$ = 1490.69, $SD_{baccalaureate}$ = 755.31; $M_{master's}$ = 6210.14, $SD_{master's}$ = 4110.15) were of significantly smaller size, $X^2(3, N = 68) = 25079.84$, $p < .0005$. This would suggest that academic deans at doctorate-granting institutions daily function within social circles of considerably greater size and therefore diminished personal contact with their colleagues than experienced by their peers at smaller colleges and universities.

Such a potentially moderating effect of institutional size might provide conceptual clarity to the mixed findings from the academic deans at doctorate-granting universities. Academic deans from doctorate-granting institutions reported an undifferentiated representation of both current institutional culture and leader behavior on their campuses. Yet, these same deans indicated a strong preference for a clan culture to manifest on their campuses. This disparity would appear to support the plausibility of a moderating role of institutional size on organizational culture. There also may be differences between institutions across state lines or regarding public versus private control that could potentially clarify the results from the present study. Unfortunately, the resultant sizes

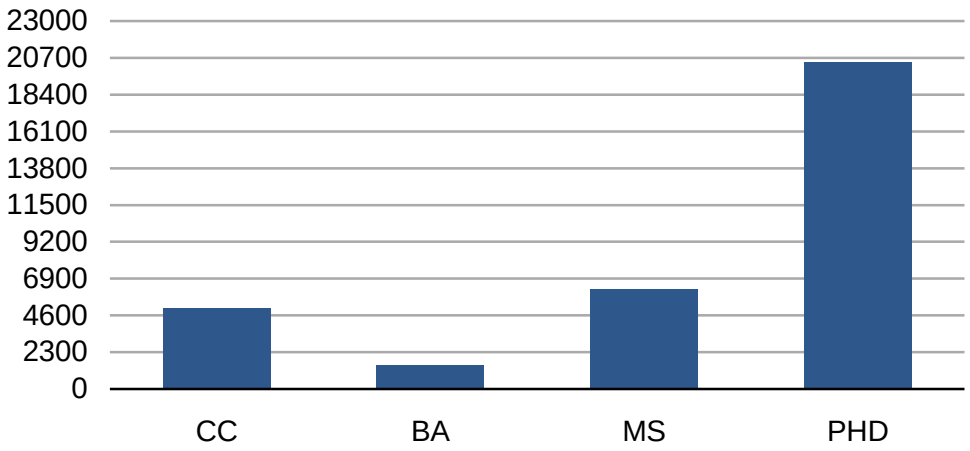

Figure 7. Bar chart of institutional size by institutional type. Bars represent mean student population per academic deans for each culture type. CC = associate's colleges, BA = baccalaureate colleges, MS = master's colleges and universities, PHD = doctorate-granting universities.

for such analyses were insufficient and would render moot any statistically significant differences that might be found.

Chapter V

Discussion

The present landscape of American higher education features an array of organizational cultures that provide a range of opportunities for students (Morphew, 2002). Indeed, evidence suggests that different types of colleges and universities may manifest notable differences in organizational culture and decision-making (Tierney, 2008). Yet, Morphew (2009) has voiced concern regarding the potential for shrinking budgets and growing mission creep to render the landscape as organizationally isomorphic. Henderson (2009) and Toma (2008) similarly have cautioned that institutions of higher education might more intentionally focus their education missions to better align with the needs of their students and geographic regions and thereby increase organization diversity even further.

Cognizant of this seemingly diverse landscape, the present study sought to examine whether organizational culture varies as a function of institutional type in higher education, and to identify whether there exists congruence between organizational culture type and leader behavior. Data were obtained from 84 academic deans representing 73 colleges and universities across the states of Iowa, Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Wisconsin. The results could be potentially significant by fostering an improved understanding across academe of how organizational culture differs across institutional type. Such information might provide a set of insights available to campus leaders to better advocate for more meaningful change on their campuses.

Summary of Findings

In the present study, academic deans at baccalaureate colleges overwhelmingly indicated that clan cultures were predominant on their campuses. This finding was congruent with predictions. Alternatively, and contrary to expectations, academic deans from associate's colleges and master's colleges and universities also tended to rank clan culture as primary at their respective institutions. This trend was not statistically significant, but the likelihood of a clan culture at these types of institutions remained ostensible (see Figure 4, p. 46). Perhaps most interesting, however, was the discovery that academic deans from doctorate-granting universities failed to indicate a clear trend in organizational culture on their campuses.

Academic deans also rated leader behavior as highly consistent with type of institutional culture type on their campuses. This finding was congruent with expectations. They specifically indicated clan leader behavior to be predominant at associate's colleges, baccalaureate colleges, and master's colleges and universities, although only the results for baccalaureate colleges achieved statistical significance. Academic deans at doctorate-granting universities, however, reported a mixed presentation of leader behavior across their institutions. This absence of a clear trend was comparable to their reports regarding organizational culture type (compare Figures 2 and 3, p. 47).

In addition to the aforementioned tests of the present study's five hypotheses, the academic deans were surveyed regarding their preferences for future organizational culture type. Specifically, academic deans were asked to indicate how they would prefer

their institutions to function culturally 5 years hence. It would not have been remarkable to identify that deans from baccalaureate colleges reported an ongoing preference for a clan culture. Yet, the present study instead discovered that deans from all four institutional types (i.e., associate's colleges, baccalaureate colleges, master's colleges and universities, and doctorate-granting universities) indicated a statistically significant desire for a clan culture to be predominant at their institutions (see Figure 6, p. 48). Most intriguing was the clear preference for a clan culture among deans from doctorate-granting institutions. This discovery was orthogonal to the cultural uncertainty reported by these subjects and begs for explanation.

One potential explanation for the near-universal tendency toward a clan culture in both current and most certainly preferred organizational culture may involve institutional size. If organizational culture represents an organization's "set of shared basic underlying assumptions" (Schein, 1993, p. 705), then it is conceivable that the size of a college or university may influence its organizational dynamics in response to the social distance between its members. Wilson (2012) recently argued that tribalism is fundamental to human behavior. He opined that there exists a neurodevelopmental impetus for individuals to create groups of limited size. Perhaps such limited group size is more common among the smaller institutions of the American higher education landscape (i.e., associate's colleges, baccalaureate colleges, and master's colleges and universities) than among the large, doctorate-granting universities.

This notion of modern human tribalism has been empirically supported through a series of studies suggesting that individuals tend to group into functional tribes of less

than approximately 150 members (Hill & Dunbar, 2003) regardless of the overall size of the population or organization of which they are members. This upper boundary for optimal group size appears to result from a neurocognitive constraint of the human species (Hill & Dunbar, 2003) and is congruent with similar relative constraints observed among infrahuman primates (Dunbar & Schultz, 2007). Indeed, Dunbar and colleagues demonstrated a clear relationship between social network size and prefrontal cortical volume in humans (Lewis, Rezaie, Brown, Roberts, & Dunbar, 2011; Powell, Lewis, Roberts, Garcia-Fiñana, & Dunbar, 2012). In an anthropological sense, this research suggests that the ecosystem of American higher education may be conceptualized as a goodness-of-fit map upon which colleges and universities of different sizes variably allow for the development of meaningful human interaction among their campus constituents (cf. Hill & Dunbar, 2003).

Relevant to the present study, doctorate-granting universities manifested a very large average population. Academic deans from these large universities further indicated no clear trend toward any one of the organizational culture types (i.e., clan, adhocracy, market, or hierarchy). Alternatively, institutions of the other three types averaged much smaller student populations and likewise indicated a trend toward a clan culture. As suggested by Figure 8, it is possible that there exists an inverse relationship between campus size and the likelihood of a clan culture being present on campus. One therefore might surmise that academic deans at these different types and sizes of institutions function daily within social networks of various sizes. It thus would seem plausible to hypothesize that academics deans at large, doctorate-granting universities may interact

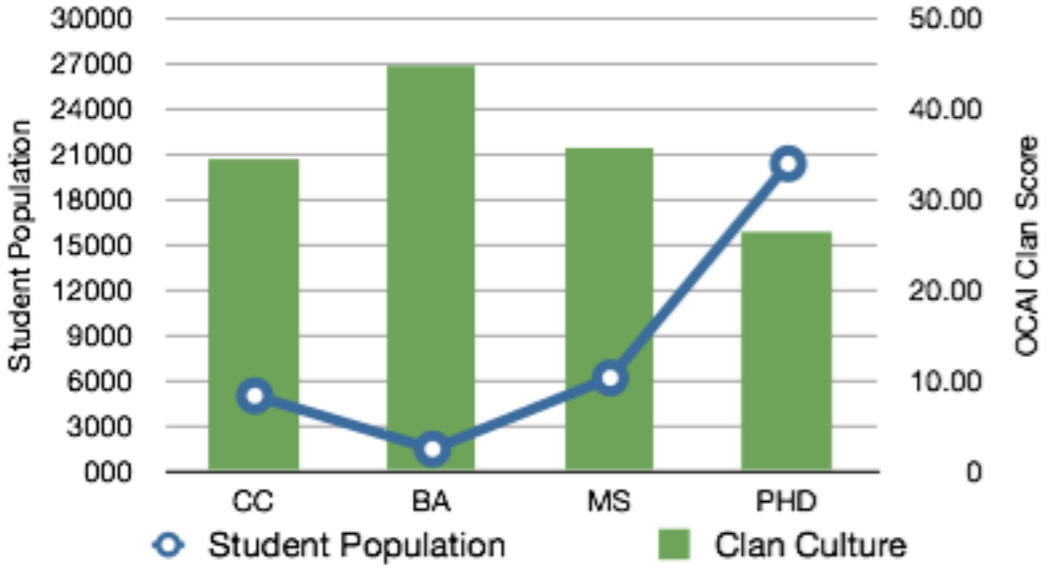

Figure 8. Mixed chart of institutional size and clan culture score. Line represents mean student population for each institutional type. Bars represent mean clan culture score for each institutional type. CC = associate's colleges, BA = baccalaureate colleges, MS = master's colleges and universities, PHD = doctorate-granting universities.

within far larger social networks than the 150-individual neurocognitive limit suggested by the research (see Hill & Dunbar, 2003). This idea would again suggest the plausibility of the moderating role of institutional size on organizational culture

Implications

The implications of this discovery are significant, yet potentially difficult to implement. In the present study, a majority of academic deans across all types of institution (i.e., associate's colleges, baccalaureate colleges, master's colleges and universities, and doctorate-granting universities) reported a preference for a clan culture on their campuses. Only those academic deans at baccalaureate colleges reported that such a welcoming clan culture was currently prevalent on their campuses to a statistically

significant extent. Academic deans at doctorate-granting universities indicated a mixed presentation of organizational culture among their institutions. Given these findings, perhaps it is not surprising that baccalaureate colleges and doctorate-granting universities respectively represented the smallest and largest mean campus sizes in the study.

The purpose of the present study was to investigate how an understanding of how organizational culture differs across type of higher-education institution as perceived by campus leaders could provide an empirical rationale to challenge the trend toward organizational isomorphism currently being witnessed across the American higher education landscape (Morphew, 2009). The results suggest that there exists major potential for campus leaders to ascertain whether their faculty, staff, and students experience the belongingness, trust, collegiality, and relationship in their daily campus roles one inherent to a clan culture. It therefore may be time for campus leaders at American colleges and universities to invest the time and effort to meaningfully survey their faculty, staff, and students regarding perceptions of campus culture. The resulting data could assist campus leaders to explore the potential benefits of cultural change or maintenance in the direction of a clan culture, thereby facilitating the intentional growth of the organization toward one that is "a very friendly place to work….like an extended family…..held together by loyalty or tradition" (Cameron & Quinn, 1999, 2006, 2011, p. 75). Further research is clearly warranted to explore whether institutional size functions as a primary moderator of organizational culture type among American colleges and universities.

Strengths and Limitations

The present study manifested three main strengths: (a) the novel application of a validated instrument, (b) the contribution of new knowledge to the study of American higher education, and (c) the discovery of institutional size as a possible moderator of organizational culture. First, the present study was one of the first to apply the *Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument* (OCAI) by Cameron and Quinn (1999, 2006, 2011) to the exploration of organizational cultures among colleges and universities. In this regard, the present study helped to broaden the utility of an already well-respected measure to a growing area of research. Second, the present study contributed new knowledge to the study of higher education by revealing differences in organizational culture across the various types of institutions (i.e., associates, college, baccalaureate colleges, master's colleges and universities, and doctorate-granting universities) representing the landscape of American higher education. Although the results were modest in scope, they begin to illuminate how different types of colleges and universities may differ in meaningful ways relevant to human interactions. Third, and most notable, was the discovery that institutional size may be more relevant than institutional type when considering organizational culture in higher education. In essence, organizational culture may be a function of institutional size.

Strengths aside, the present study manifested two relevant limitations regarding its sample. First, the sample size remained suboptimal even after recruiting subjects from across the Upper Midwest. Second, the selection of academic deans as subjects may have failed to truly capture the essence of the organizational cultures manifest among the 73

represented colleges and universities. Perhaps some academic deans experienced role ambiguity and rated only the division of the college or university they oversaw. Alternatively, it may be that surveying faculty would have yielded more meaningful insight into the cultural status of American higher education. Given that both of these limitations might have threatened the internal validity of the present study, the generalizability of its findings must be tempered by a degree of caution.

Recommendations for Further Research

Consequent to the results of the present study, and cognizant of its strengths and limitations, three recommendations can be proffered for further research. First, it is recommended that the present study be replicated with a larger sample of academic deans and/or faculty. It will be especially important to obtain better representation among subjects representing doctorate-granting universities. Such a replication could include a focus on organizational culture among the largest of the major research universities (e.g., the 62 member institutions of the Association of American Universities, 2013). Their inclusion could potentially help clarify the degree to which organizational culture is a function of institutional size.

Second, it is recommended that replication of the present study include an ethnographic consideration of the lived experience of faculty representing the colleges and universities across the landscape of American higher education. Barnett (2011) challenged that "our contemporary thinking about the university is hopelessly impoverished" (p. 453). Organizational culture at colleges and universities, as at other types of organizations, involves "complex force fields...[predicated upon]...psychological

defenses and cultural assumptions that will not reveal themselves easily to uninvolved observers, surveyors, testers, or experiments" (Schein, 1993, p. 707). At a time when faculty may be struggling to make sense of growing mission creep (see Gonzalez, 2013) and its effects on campus climate (see Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2013), a mixed-methods approach to future study might yield timely insights into the landscape of organizational culture of American higher education.

Third, it is recommended that replication of the present study explore whether the presence of a clan culture necessarily yields the most effective institutions in higher education. A clan culture might be quite pleasant to experience within an organization. Yet, this potential sense of comfort might prohibit members of colleges and universities from exploring options in a more entrepreneurial spirit. Indeed, the American landscape of higher education currently is experiencing rapid growth among for-profit institutions and challenges in faculty unionization. The inclusion of such phenomena therefore might be especially relevant to such consideration.

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Appendix A

List of Institutions by State

1. IA: Buena Vista University
2. IA: Clinton Community College
3. IA: Dordt College
4. IA: Drake University
5. IA: Graceland University
6. IA: Grinnell Community College
7. IA: Hawkeye Community College
8. IA: Iowa Central Community College
9. IA: Iowa Lakes Community College
10. IA: Iowa Wesleyan College
11. IA: Iowa Western Community College
12. IA: Maharishi University of Management
13. IA: Mount Mercy University
14. IA: North Iowa Area Community College
15. IA: Northeast Iowa Community College
16. IA: Northwestern College
17. IA: Southwestern Community College
18. IA: University of Iowa
19. MN: Alexandria Technical College
20. MN: Anoka-Ramsey Community College
21. MN: Bemidji State University
22. MN: Bethany Lutheran College
23. MN: Century Community and Technical College
24. MN: Crown College
25. MN: Dakota County Technical College
26. MN: Gustavus Adolphus College
27. MN: Hamline University
28. MN: Hennepin Technical College
29. MN: Inver Hills Community College
30. MN: Martin Luther College
31. MN: Mayo Graduate School
32. MN: Metropolitan State University
33. MN: Minnesota State College-Southeast Technical
34. MN: Minnesota State Community and Technical College
35. MN: Minnesota State University-Mankato
36. MN: Minnesota State University-Moorhead
37. MN: Minnesota West Community and Technical College
38. MN: North Hennepin Community College

39. MN: Northland Community and Technical College
40. MN: Pine Technical College
41. MN: Rochester Community and Technical College
42. MN: Saint Cloud State University
43. MN: Saint Mary's University of Minnesota
44. MN: Saint Paul College-A Community and Technical College
45. MN: Southwest Minnesota State University
46. MN: St. Catherine University
47. MN: The College of Saint Scholastica
48. MN: University of Minnesota-Twin Cities
49. ND: Lake Region State College
50. ND: Mayville State University
51. ND: Minot State University
52. ND: North Dakota State University
53. ND: University of Mary
54. SD: Dakota Wesleyan University
55. SD: Northern State University
56. SD: South Dakota State University
57. WI: Cardinal Stritch University
58. WI: Chippewa Valley Technical College
59. WI: Concordia University-Wisconsin
60. WI: Edgewood College
61. WI: Lawrence University
62. WI: Marian University
63. WI: Saint Norbert College
64. WI: University of Wisconsin-Green Bay
65. WI: University of Wisconsin-La Crosse
66. WI: University of Wisconsin-Madison
67. WI: University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
68. WI: University of Wisconsin-River Falls
69. WI: UW-Marinette
70. WI: UW-Marshfield/Wood County
71. WI: UW-Rock County
72. WI: UW-Washington County
73. WI: UW-Baraboo/Sauk County

Appendix B

Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument

(OCAI; Cameron & Quinn, 1999, 2006, 2011)

1. Dominant Characteristics	**Now**	**Preferred**
A. The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.		
B. The organization is a very dynamic entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.		
C. The organization is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.		
D. The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.		

2. Organizational Leadership	**Now**	**Preferred**
A. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.		
B. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovating, or risk taking.		
C. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus.		
D. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency.		

3. Management of Employees	**Now**	**Preferred**
A. The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.		
B. The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.		
C. The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.		
D. The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.		

4. Organization Glue	**Now**	**Preferred**
A. The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.		
B. The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.		
C. The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. Aggressiveness and winning are common themes.		
D. The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important.		

5. Strategic Emphases	**Now**	**Preferred**
A. The organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.		
B. The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.		
C. The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.		
D. The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.		

6. Criteria of Success	**Now**	**Preferred**
A. The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.		
B. The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.		
C. The organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.		
D. The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical.		

Appendix C

Survey

INFORMED CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE AS A SUBJECT IN RESEARCH FOR MINNESOTA STATE UNIVERSITY, MANKATO

INTRODUCTION

You are invited to participate as a subject in a study on organizational culture in higher education! You are being asked to participate because you are an academic dean at a college or university and your responses will be valued highly. This research is being conducted by Jason Kaufman, Ph.D., toward the completion of his doctorate, and is being supervised by Julie Carlson, Ed.D., in the Department of Educational Leadership at Minnesota State University, Mankato.

PROCEDURE

If you agree to participate as a subject in this study, you will be asked a brief series of questions in the following survey. It should require no more than 15 minutes of your time.

POTENTIAL RISKS OF PARTICIPATION

The use of the Internet as a survey tool always carries an inherent risk to compromise privacy. Nonetheless, participation in this study poses no risks beyond those encountered in everyday life while thinking about where one is employed.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF PARTICIPATION

Participation in this study will help us to better understand organizational culture among colleges and universities.

STATEMENT OF CONFIDENTIALITY

Participation and the resultant data in this study will be kept confidential. Your responses to this survey will be anonymous beyond your indication of institution and will be securely stored online by Qualtrics (www.qualtrics.com).

VOLUNTARY NATURE OF THE STUDY

Your decision to participate in this study will not affect your current or future relationship with Minnesota State University, Mankato. If you decide to participate, you are completely free to withdraw at any time without risk of penalty.

CONTACTS AND QUESTIONS

Questions can be addressed to Jason Kaufman, Ph.D., Principal Investigator:

651-450-3768

jason.kaufman@mnsu.edu

Questions can also be addressed to Julie Carlson, Ed.D., Advisor:

507-389-5441

julie.carlson@mnsu.edu

If you have questions about the treatment of human subjects, you can contact the IRB Administrator at 507-389-2321. If you would like more information about the specific privacy and anonymity risks posed by online surveys, please contact the Minnesota State University, Mankato Information and Technology Services Help Desk (507-389-6654) and ask to speak to the Information Security Manager.

STATEMENT OF CONSENT

By clicking to the next page, you hereby attest that you are at least 18 years of age and give informed consent to participate in this study with your responses to the survey.

Please indicate the institution at which you are dean:

- ❍ MN: Alexandria Technical College
- ❍ MN: Anoka Technical College
- ❍ MN: Anoka-Ramsey Community College
- ❍ MN: Augsburg College
- ❍ MN: Bemidji State University
- ❍ MN: Bethany Lutheran College
- ❍ MN: Bethel University
- ❍ MN: Carleton College
- ❍ MN: Central Lakes College
- ❍ MN: Century Community and Technical College
- ❍ MN: College of Saint Benedict/Saint John's University
- ❍ MN: Concordia College at Moorhead
- ❍ MN: Concordia University-Saint Paul
- ❍ MN: Crown College
- ❍ MN: Dakota County Technical College
- ❍ MN: Dunwoody College of Technology
- ❍ MN: Gustavus Adolphus College
- ❍ MN: Hamline University
- ❍ MN: Hennepin Technical College
- ❍ MN: Hibbing Community College-A Technical and Community College
- ❍ MN: Inver Hills Community College
- ❍ MN: Itasca Community College
- ❍ MN: Lake Superior College
- ❍ MN: Macalester College
- ❍ MN: Martin Luther College
- ❍ MN: Mayo Graduate School
- ❍ MN: Mesabi Range Community and Technical College
- ❍ MN: Metropolitan State University
- ❍ MN: Minneapolis Community and Technical College
- ❍ MN: Minnesota State College-Southeast Technical
- ❍ MN: Minnesota State Community and Technical College
- ❍ MN: Minnesota State University-Mankato
- ❍ MN: Minnesota State University-Moorhead
- ❍ MN: Minnesota West Community and Technical College
- ❍ MN: Normandale Community College
- ❍ MN: North Central University
- ❍ MN: North Hennepin Community College
- ❍ MN: Northland Community and Technical College
- ❍ MN: Northwest Technical College
- ❍ MN: Northwestern College

- MN: Pine Technical College
- MN: Rainy River Community College
- MN: Ridgewater College
- MN: Riverland Community College
- MN: Rochester Community and Technical College
- MN: Saint Cloud State University
- MN: Saint Cloud Technical College
- MN: Saint Mary's University of Minnesota
- MN: Saint Paul College-A Community and Technical College
- MN: South Central College
- MN: Southwest Minnesota State University
- MN: St. Catherine University
- MN: St. Olaf College
- MN: The College of Saint Scholastica
- MN: University of Minnesota-Crookston
- MN: University of Minnesota-Duluth
- MN: University of Minnesota-Morris
- MN: University of Minnesota-Rochester
- MN: University of Minnesota-Twin Cities
- MN: University of St. Thomas
- MN: Vermilion Community College
- MN: Winona State University
- ND: Bismarck State College
- ND: Dakota College at Bottineau
- ND: Dickinson State University
- ND: Jamestown College
- ND: Lake Region State College
- ND: Mayville State University
- ND: Minot State University
- ND: North Dakota State College of Science
- ND: North Dakota State University
- ND: University of Mary
- ND: University of North Dakota
- ND: Valley City State University
- ND: Williston State College
- SD: Augustana College
- SD: Black Hills State University
- SD: Dakota State University
- SD: Dakota Wesleyan University
- SD: Kilian Community College
- SD: Lake Area Technical Institute

- SD: Mitchell Technical Institute
- SD: Mount Marty College
- SD: Northern State University
- SD: Presentation College
- SD: South Dakota State University
- SD: Southeast Technical Institute
- SD: University of Sioux Falls
- SD: University of South Dakota
- SD: Western Dakota Technical Institute
- WI: Alverno College
- WI: Beloit College
- WI: Blackhawk Technical College
- WI: Cardinal Stritch University
- WI: Carroll University
- WI: Carthage College
- WI: Chippewa Valley Technical College
- WI: Concordia University-Wisconsin
- WI: Edgewood College
- WI: Fox Valley Technical College
- WI: Gateway Technical College
- WI: Lakeland College
- WI: Lakeshore Technical College
- WI: Lakeside School of Massage Therapy
- WI: Lawrence University
- WI: Madison Area Technical College
- WI: Maranatha Baptist Bible College Inc
- WI: Marian University
- WI: Marquette University
- WI: Mid-State Technical College
- WI: Milwaukee Area Technical College
- WI: Milwaukee School of Engineering
- WI: Moraine Park Technical College
- WI: Mount Mary College
- WI: Nicolet Area Technical College
- WI: Northcentral Technical College
- WI: Northeast Wisconsin Technical College
- WI: Northland College
- WI: Northland International University
- WI: Ottawa University-Milwaukee
- WI: Ripon College
- WI: Saint Norbert College

- WI: Silver Lake College
- WI: Southwest Wisconsin Technical College
- WI: UW-Baraboo/Sauk County
- WI: UW-Barron County
- WI: UW-Fond du Lac
- WI: UW-Fox Valley
- WI: UW-Manitowoc
- WI: UW-Marinette
- WI: UW-Marshfield/Wood County
- WI: UW-Richland
- WI: UW-Rock County
- WI: UW-Sheboygan
- WI: UW-Washington County
- WI: UW-Waukesha
- WI: University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire
- WI: University of Wisconsin-Green Bay
- WI: University of Wisconsin-La Crosse
- WI: University of Wisconsin-Madison
- WI: University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
- WI: University of Wisconsin-Oshkosh
- WI: University of Wisconsin-Parkside
- WI: University of Wisconsin-Platteville
- WI: University of Wisconsin-River Falls
- WI: University of Wisconsin-Stevens Point
- WI: University of Wisconsin-Stout
- WI: University of Wisconsin-Superior
- WI: University of Wisconsin-Whitewater
- WI: Viterbo University
- WI: Waukesha County Technical College
- WI: Western Technical College
- WI: Wisconsin Indianhead Technical College
- WI: Wisconsin Lutheran College
- IA: Briar Cliff University
- IA: Buena Vista University
- IA: Central College
- IA: Clarke College
- IA: Clinton Community College
- IA: Coe College
- IA: Cornell College
- IA: Des Moines Area Community College
- IA: Dordt College

- IA: Drake University
- IA: Ellsworth Community College
- IA: Graceland University
- IA: Grand View University
- IA: Grinnell College
- IA: Grinnell Community College
- IA: Hawkeye Community College
- IA: Indian Hills Community College
- IA: Iowa Central Community College
- IA: Iowa Lakes Community College
- IA: Iowa State University
- IA: Iowa Wesleyan College
- IA: Iowa Western Community College
- IA: Kirkwood Community College
- IA: Loras College
- IA: Luther College
- IA: Maharishi University of Management
- IA: Marshalltown Community College
- IA: Morningside College
- IA: Mount Mercy University
- IA: Muscatine Community College
- IA: North Iowa Area Community College
- IA: Northeast Iowa Community College
- IA: Northwest Iowa Community College
- IA: Northwestern College
- IA: Saint Ambrose University
- IA: Scott Community College
- IA: Simpson College
- IA: Southeastern Community College
- IA: Southwestern Community College
- IA: St. Luke's College
- IA: University of Dubuque
- IA: University of Iowa
- IA: University of Northern Iowa
- IA: Upper Iowa University
- IA: Waldorf College
- IA: Wartburg College
- IA: Western Iowa Tech Community College
- IA: William Penn University

What is your gender?

❍ Male

❍ Female

Please use the slider to indicate how long you have been in your current position of dean at your institution:

_____ Years in Position

Please use the slider to indicate the total number of years you have been at your current institution:

_____ Years at Institution

Instructions for completing the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI)

The purpose of the OCAI is to assess six key dimensions of organizational culture. In completing the instrument, you will be providing a picture of how your college or university operates and the values that characterize it. No right or wrong answers exist for these questions just as there is not right or wrong culture. Every organization will most likely produce a different set of responses. Therefore, be as accurate as you can in responding to the questions so that your resulting cultural diagnosis will be as precise as possible.

The OCAI consists of six questions. Each question has four alternatives. Divide 100 points among these four alternatives depending on the extent to which each alternative is similar to your own organization. Give a higher number of points to the alternative that is most similar to your organization. For example, in question one, if you think alternative A is very similar to your organization, alternative B and C are somewhat similar, and alternative D is hardly similar at all, you might give 55 points to A, 20 points to B and C, and 5 points to D. Just be sure your total equals 100 points for each question.

Please note that first pass through the six questions is labeled "Now". This refers to the culture, as it exists today. After you complete the "Now", you will find the questions repeated under a heading of "Preferred". Your answers to these questions should be based on how you would like your college or university to look five years from now.

(Adapted from Cameron, K. S., & Quinn, R. E. (2011). Diagnosing and changing organizational culture (3rd ed.). New York: Jossey-Bass.)

1. Dominant Characteristics (Now)

_____ A. The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.

_____ B. The organization is a very dynamic entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.

_____ C. The organization is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.

_____ D. The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.

2. Organizational Leadership (Now)

_____ A. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.

_____ B. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovating, or risk taking.

_____ C. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus.

_____ D. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency.

3. Management of Employees (Now)

_____ A. The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.

_____ B. The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.

_____ C. The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.

_____ D. The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.

4. Organization Glue (Now)

_____ A. The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.

_____ B. The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.

_____ C. The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. Aggressiveness and winning are common themes.

_____ D. The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important.

5. Strategic Emphases (Now)

_____ A. The organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.

_____ B. The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.

_____ C. The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.

_____ D. The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.

6. Criteria of Success (Now)

_____ A. The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.

_____ B. The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.

_____ C. The organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.

_____ D. The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical.

Now that you have rated the culture of your college or university as it exists today, how you would like your college or university to look five years from now?

1. Dominant Characteristics (Preferred)

_____ A. The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.

_____ B. The organization is a very dynamic entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.

_____ C. The organization is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.

_____ D. The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.

2. Organizational Leadership (Preferred)

_____ A. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.

_____ B. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovating, or risk taking.

_____ C. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus.

_____ D. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency.

3. Management of Employees (Preferred)

_____ A. The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.

_____ B. The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.

_____ C. The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.

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4. Organization Glue (Preferred)

_____ A. The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.

_____ B. The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.

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_____ B. The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.

_____ C. The organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.

_____ D. The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical.

Finally, please select the one vignette below that best describes the leadership on your campus:

(Adapted from Cameron, K. S., & Quinn, R. E. (2011). Diagnosing and changing organizational culture (3rd ed.; p. 75). New York: Jossey-Bass.)

- Campus leadership fosters a very friendly place to work where people share a lot of themselves. It is like an extended family. The leaders are considered to be mentors and, maybe even, parent figures. The organization is held together by loyalty or tradition. Commitment is high. The organization emphasizes long-term benefit of human resource development and attaches great importance to cohesion and morale. Success is defined in terms of sensitivity to...and concern for people. The organization places a premium on teamwork, participation, and consensus.

- Campus leadership fosters a dynamic, entrepreneurial, and creative place to work. People stick their necks out and take risks. The leaders are considered to be innovators and risk takers. The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to experimentation and innovation. The emphasis is on being on the leading edge. The organization's long-term emphasis is on growth and acquiring new resources. Being a leader is important. The organization encourages individual initiative and freedom.

- Campus leadership fosters a results-oriented organization. The major concern is getting the job done. People are competitive and goal oriented. The leaders are hard drivers, producers, and competitors. They are tough and demanding. The glue that holds the organization together is an emphasis on winning. Reputation and success are common concerns. The long-term focus is on competitive actions and achievement of measurable goals and targets. Success is defined in terms of market share and penetration. Competitive leadership is important. The organizational style is hard-driving competitiveness.

- My campus is a very formalized and structured place to work. Procedures govern what people do. The leaders pride themselves on being good coordinators and organizers, who are efficiently-minded. Maintaining a smoothly running organization is most critical. Formal rules and policies hold the organization together. The long-term concern is on stability and performance with efficient, smooth operations. Success is defined in terms of dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low cost. The management of employees is concerned with secure employment and predictability.

THANK YOU!

Your responses will help move forward our understanding of organizational culture in higher education.

Respectfully,

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