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RESISTANCE TO CHANGE IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE: THE INFLUENCE OF PARTICIPATION, OPEN COMMUNICATION, PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT, AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

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By

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RESISTANCE TO CHANGE IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE:
THE INFLUENCE OF PARTICIPATION, OPEN COMMUNICATION, PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT, AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

a Dissertation APPROVED FOR THE
GRADUATE COLLEGE

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Abstract

The ability to successfully implement organizational change in a constantly evolving world is an increasingly critical element for the success of community colleges. This study was conducted to examine the interrelationships of several predictor variables—organizational communication, active participation in the organization, perceived organizational support, and organizational commitment—as they relate to a criterion variable—the levels of change resistance exhibited by employees in a large urban community college. The theoretical framework that underlies the study is found in organizational change theory, organizational support literature, organizational communication theory, and the general community college literature. Individual perceptions were collected from a sample of administrators, faculty, and classified staff on a 94-item instrument that is a compilation of several different published studies designed to specifically assess each of the four predictor variables and the single criterion variable. It is hoped that the findings from this study more clearly define those organizational dimensions that affect an employee's level of change resistance. Hopefully, this project provides new information to the body of literature that will assist all leaders, especially community college leaders, in determining how to best present change initiatives within their institutions so as to reduce resistance, ensure acceptance, and encourage implementation.

Chapter I

Introduction

Organizations are open social systems that are constantly changing from a bombardment of complex internal and external factors. Major change occurs in organizations for many reasons. The rapid pace of technological innovation, the emergence of a global society, instability in the U.S. economy, and adjustments resulting from the events of September 11, 2001, are important factors driving the phenomenal amount of change experienced today by organizations of all types. Bolman and Deal (1997) state "Forms of management and organization serviceable a few years back are now obsolete. The information revolution, the globalization of economies, the proliferation of events that undermine all our certainties, the collapse of the grand ideologies, the arrival of the CNN society which transforms us into an immense, planetary village—all these shocks have overturned the rules of the game and suddenly turned yesterday's organizations into antiques" (p. 5). Community colleges are complex organizations that are not only deeply affected operationally by these forces of change but at the same time are being driven by mission statements that, by their very nature, require timely responses to societal change.

Background of the Problem

An organization's very survival may hinge on its success in implementing large-scale changes (Lewis, 2000). Peter Drucker in his 2002 book, *Managing in the Next Society*, makes the case for every organization to turn itself into a

change agent. He believes that the best way to successfully manage change is to create it (Drucker, 2002). Drucker says, “What has changed about change is its magnitude, the approach it requires, the increasing seriousness of its implications, and the diminishing shelf life of the effectiveness of our responses to it” (Conner, 1992, p. 38).

According to Yukl (1998, 2002), “Leading change is one of the most important and difficult leadership responsibilities. For some theorists, it is the essence of leadership and everything else is secondary” (p. 438). Kotter and Schlesinger wrote in 1979 that most organizations make major changes every four to five years and they predicted that change would be a major component of organizational life for the foreseeable future (Kotter & Schlesinger). Major planned change in an organization is usually initiated at the upper-management levels; but can be initiated at any level. The successful implementation of such change, however, is certainly determined at all levels within the organization as people choose to resist or embrace it.

Statement of the Problem

As the vision for a planned change initiative is communicated downward throughout an institution, the message often loses its meaning and substance. Consequently, rather than being the shared vision necessary for implementation as intended by its creators--if the message is heard at all--it is often distorted, misunderstood, and resisted in the trenches. According to Kotter (1996), “Gaining understanding and commitment to a new direction is never an easy task, especially in large enterprises. . .managers under communicate. . .or they

send inconsistent messages. . .the net result is the same: a stalled transformation" (p. 9).

Figuring out what is really happening in an organization is difficult because sometimes information is incomplete or vague. Sometimes the same information is interpreted in a variety of ways by different people depending on how it is communicated. Sometimes ambiguity is deliberately created to hide problems or avoid conflict. "Much of the time, events and processes are so complex, scattered, and uncoordinated no one can fully understand—let alone control—what is happening" (Bolman & Deal, 1997, p. 24).

Early research by Mintzberg (1973) found that 75 percent of a manager's time was spent in communication-related activities. If organizations are to flourish in the volatile global environment and meet the concomitant challenges of geographic dispersion, electronic collaboration and cultural diversity, they must become more knowledge intensive, radically decentralized, participative, flexible, efficient, and responsive to rapid change (Stohl & Cheney, 2001).

Both Lewis' (2001, 1999) research and Timmerman's (2003) work on organizational change conclude that, although the various existing change models reveal something about what happens between participants during the change implementation process, very little insight is available regarding the communication activities involved with these approaches. Lewis (2001) suggested that more data needs to be collected dealing with the employees' perceptions of the communication used during planned changed initiatives. Apparently Timmerman's (2003) research concurs when he states, ". . .a

surprisingly small body of literature focuses on the use of communication media during the implementation process. . . a noticeable lack of research that deals with the methods by which planned changes are announced and disseminated to organizational stakeholders. . .” (p. 302). Lewis and Seibold report “. . .communication perspectives have largely ignored the means by which change programs are installed and by which users come to learn of such programs” (1998, p. 93). They see no comprehensive effort to date that describes or predicts the interaction of open communication with levels of participation and/or perceived organizational support during the implementation of planned organizational change.

Deetz (1995) concludes, based on his research, that earlier organizational communication research has not adequately considered the wider social and economic changes or advanced models of human interaction that are significant in helping an organization fulfill its stated mission. Porras and Silvers (1991) state: “In addition to general models of change, research should focus on how interventions impact important organizational variables and how change in these variables cascades throughout the organization system” (p. 74). Daft and Lengel (1986) make a strong case for future research to better understand equivocality within organizations so that answers can be put forth to assist managers in dealing with it.

Current community college research focuses on a myriad of services that these organizations will be called upon to provide in the next decade, many of which are completely new concepts for the educators who will be expected to

create and implement them. For example, the unmet demand for English as a Second Language programs is being fueled by an expanding immigrant population that has reached the highest proportion of the U.S. population in three-quarters of a century. Demand for continuing education and lifelong learning will skyrocket as the generation of baby boomers approach retirement age in 2011. This group represents nearly 30 percent of the U.S. population and more than 60 percent of the registered voters. Demands for innovative ways to provide retraining for the workforce affected by shifting jobs overseas or eliminating them altogether will also be placed upon the nation's community colleges. The increasing demands that require colleges to change from past ways of doing business come at a time of slowed national economic growth and fewer dollars flowing into higher education. (Levine, Templin, McPhail, Roueche, Shannon, & Omundson, 2004).

Yet change is often difficult to sell to employees in an organizational setting for a variety of reasons. Alfred (2003) discusses the challenges regarding change that face today's American colleges. He maintains that the very best time for any organization to change might be when that organization feels the most successful. He says:

> When a college is successful, activity is high, people want to be part of it. . .and its future seems secure. . .the challenge for leaders is to find ways to guide people into and through meaningful change at the very time when the institution is experiencing its greatest success (p. 24).

In the higher education arena, most research on change initiatives has focused on four-year institutions; . . . “yet two-year institutions comprise the single largest institutional sector of American higher education with over twelve hundred of these institutions serving more than five million students” (Smart, Kuh, & Tierney, 1997). It is incumbent upon community college leaders to seek the most effective ways to create and disseminate the vision of a planned change. Their selection of communication channels should be appropriate so as to reduce message distortion and ensure clarity. Selection should be based on a thorough knowledge of the various factors at play that might affect an employees’ response to the proposed change.

Purpose of the Study

The complexity of change and communication, as well as other behavior variables, within the community college contexthave been explored during the last decade by a few social scienceresearchers (e.g., Romero, 2004; McClenney, 2001; Foote, 1999; Levin, 1998; Carter, 1998; & Birnbaum, 1988;). Even though many researchers offer data that shows effective communication to be the vital link between planned change creation and announcement and successful implementation and institutional acceptance (Timmerman, 2003; Pierce, 2001; Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Weick & Quinn, 1999; Brimm & Murdock, 1998; Levin, 1998; Smart, Kuh, & Tierney, 1997; Cripe, 1996; Barnett & Carroll, 1995; Kotter, 1995; Fidler & Johnson, 1984), no investigations were found that adequately focus on the interplay between the factors of open communication, participation levels, organizational commitment, and perceived

organizational support as they relate to change responses in the community college context.

The past 50 years of research on the importance of communication and media selection in organizations has contributed greatly to the body of literature on the complexities of social interaction. Even so, there seems to be a need for additional research that concentrates on the actual activities that leaders engage in when sharing their vision about an organizational change. Lewis has conducted several studies on this topic. She states:

> Until the importance of mission statements, vision statements, goal statements, plans for implementation, and channels used to disseminate them are understood, it will be difficult to assess the usefulness of formal communication about planned change programs. Practitioners will continue to be in need of advice about what to communicate, when, to whom and through what channels. Such systematic research about the relative effectiveness of communication strategies about change is scant. . .Research should focus on the sensemaking activities of lower-level and higher-level employees who receive implementation messages. How are these messages received and how are they altered as they circulate and recirculate. . .What factors of organization structure, communication channel, source of message, and message strategies influence how they are received?. . .Most importantly is the question which asks the degree to which communication predicts the outcomes of change efforts (Lewis, 2000, p. 153).

Levine et. al (2004) discuss the need for two-year community college employees who can be flexible and creative—even entrepreneurial—in their approach to developing new programs and in working with new technologies and demanding external partners. "They must be willing to break out of old department patterns and politics" (p. B11-15).

Rogers (2003) states that ". . .there have been relatively few studies of how the social or communication structure affects the diffusion and adoption of innovations in a system" (p. 25). In addition, although extensive research has been conducted on the topic of change resistance in business organizations, little of the research seems to focus on what happens in the unique community college setting as far as the relationship between open communication, hierarchy, participation, organizational commitment, perceived organizational support, and change resistance.

Research Questions

The author of this paper presents a study and results that may be useful to community college leaders in presenting planned organizational change to their internal and external stakeholders in such a way so as to diminish resistance to the message, enhance acceptance, and create the necessary support to implement it. The study will examine the impact of several organizational factors—perceived open communication, participation, organizational commitment, and perceived organizational support—on resistance to change in the community college to hopefully provide a multi-dimensional view of employee responses to proposed change. The specific questions to be examined are:

What is the relationship between the independent variables—perceived organizational support, organizational commitment, open communication, and participation—and resistance to change? What are the relationships between the independent variables?

Summary

Chapter II will explore the literature related to the study. The research design is discussed in Chapter III. A conceptual model of the study appears as Figure 1. Chapter IV presents and analyzes the data from the study described in Chapter III and Chapter Vwill present conclusions, implications for practice, study limitations, and suggestions for future research.

Chapter II

Literature Review

The ability to successfully implement organizational change in a constantly evolving world is an increasingly critical element for the success of community colleges. Through a review of several streams of literature—organizational change, resistance to organizational change, community colleges and change, and the communication of planned change in organizational settings—the author will lay the theoretical groundwork for a study of the levels of resistance to change exhibited by employees in the community college environment. The study will focus on the importance of employee participation and open communication in the creation and implementation of planned change initiative and will examine the interrelationships of predictor variables—perception of organizational communication, active participation in the organization, perceived organizational support, and affective organizational commitment—as they relate to the criterion variable—the levels of change resistance exhibited by employees in a large urban community college. The relationships and inter play between the various predictor variables and the criterion variable will be the focus of the discussion of the research findings. It is hoped that the study will help identify factors that will assist community college leaders in determining the most effective ways to present planned change initiatives so as to enhance acceptance, encourage implementation, and reduce resistance to them.

Definitions

The following words and terms are defined in the context in which they will be used in this literature review:

- Change implementation—the process that exists in the period between a decision and its everyday, ongoing organizational use (Lewis & Seibold, 1998).
- Cognitive rigidity—dogmatism or one's unwillingness to adjust to new situations (Oreg, 2003).
- Community college—a two-year institution of higher education, generally public, offering instruction adapted in content, level, and schedule to the needs of the community in which it is located. Offerings may include a transfer curriculum. . .occupation (or terminal) curricula, general education, and adult education (Handbook of data and definitions in higher education, 1962).
- Continuous change—described as change that is ongoing and evolving.
- Cynicism about organizational change—a pessimistic viewpoint about change efforts being successful (Wanous, Reichers, & Austin, 2000).
- Emotional Reaction—sub-scale items that reflect resilience or reluctance to lose control when dealing with imposed change (Oreg, 2003).
- Equivocality—ambiguity, the existence of multiple and conflicting interpretations about an organizational situation (Daft and Lengel, 1986; Weick, 1979).

- Media Richness Theory—seeks to explain and predict why certain types of communication methods are effective and others are not (Daft & Lengel, 1988).
- Organizational Commitment—a psychological link between the employee and his/her organization that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1996).
- Perceived organizational support—an employee's global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values his/her contributions and cares about his/her well-being (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).
- Planned change—also referred to as "episodic," used to describe change that is brought about through the purposeful efforts of organizational members as opposed to change that is due to environmental or uncontrollable forces (Lewis, Hamel, & Richardson, 2001).
- Routine seeking—the incorporation of routines into one's life (Oreg, 2003).
- Short-term thinking—focusing on the immediate inconvenience or adverse effects of change (Oreg, 2003).
- Uncertainty—the absence of information. As information increases, uncertainty decreases (Daft and Lengel, 1986).

Organizational Change Theories

Theories of the organizational change process have described how change evolves from its creation through its implementation to its ultimate outcome. Various theories such as Rogers' (2003) Diffusion Theory, Lewin's

(1951) force-field model, Jick's (1993) four-stage process model, and Weisbord's (1987) four-room metaphor model that examine how innovations are diffused throughout a system, the organizational climate surrounding change initiatives, and the resulting cynicism to change efforts will be discussed in this section.

Diffusion Theory

Everett Rogers' (2003) research on the diffusion of innovations provides a valuable theoretical construct for organizations planning to introduce new ideas. Predicated on the basis that getting new ideas adopted is difficult—even when the advantages for the idea may be obvious—he argues that the diffusion of innovations is a type of universal process of social change. Rogers' studies involve various disciplines but have ". . .a firm grounding in communication theory" (p. xvii). Rogers (2004) defines *diffusion* as the ". . .process through which an *innovation*, defined as an idea perceived as new, spread via certain communication channels over time among the members of a social system" (p. 13). According to Mahajan, Muller, and Bass (1995), "As a theory of communications, diffusion theory's main focus is on communication channels, which are the means by which information about an innovation is transmitted to or within the social system" (p. 79).

Rogers (2003) utilizes the concepts of uncertainty and information to explain the S-shaped rate-of-adoption model that is the basis of his theory. An S-shaped curve is the result when plotting the number of individuals adopting a new idea on a cumulative frequency basis. When the S-shaped curve reaches it asymptote, the diffusion process is complete. The variation in the slope of the

"S" depends on the type of idea as some diffuse rapidly while others much more slowly.

According to Rogers, "*Uncertainty* is the degree to which a number of alternatives are perceived with respect to the occurrence of an event and the relative probabilities of these alternatives" (p. xx). The state of uncertainty—an uncomfortable state—then leads one to seek information, which according to Rogers is ". . .a difference in matter-energy that affects uncertainty in a situation where a choice exists among a set of alternatives" (p. xx). Innovations are ideas, practices, or objects that are perceived as new. Innovations generate uncertainty because they present an individual or an organization with new alternatives without the knowledge that the new idea is necessarily superior to what is currently in place. Consequently, individuals then become motivated to seek information about the innovation in order to cope with the uncertainty it has created (Rogers, 2003).

The relationship of communication theory to Diffusion Theory is underscored when Rogers (2003) states that "The diffusion of innovations is essentially a social process in which subjectively perceived information about a new idea is communicated from person to person" (p. xx). " *Communication* is a process in which participants create and share information with one another in order to reach a mutual understanding" (Rogers, 2003, p. 5). Communication of a new idea is a special type of communication because of the perceived newness; and diffusion describes the process through which the innovation spreads throughout channels over time among the members of social systems.

The relationship of Diffusion Theory to organizational communication theory is deeply intertwined. Communication channels act as the means by which messages regarding new ideas get from one individual to another.

Diffusion Theory has definite applicability when attempting to explain both planned and continuous or spontaneous change for it is during the innovation-decision process that an individual is motivated to seek information about the relative merits of the innovation (Rogers, 2003). The process then leads the individual to either adoption/acceptance or rejection/resistance of the change.

Diffusion Theory supports the notion that innovations have characteristics that help to predict their different rates of adoption. The five characteristics are: 1) relative advantage—to what level is the innovation perceived as better than what is currently in place; 2) compatibility—the level to which the innovation is perceived as consistent with existing needs; 3) trialability—the level to which the innovation can be tried out or experimented with; 4) complexity—the level of perception as to how difficult is the innovation to understand and implement, and 5) observability—if the results of the innovation are visible, then it is more likely to be adopted. Characteristics 1 (relative advantage) and 2 (compatibility) are especially critical in explaining an innovation's adoption rate (Rogers, 2003).

Hornik (2004) was particularly interested in the role of communication interventions in influencing behavioral change. He used Diffusion Theory research to help answer such questions as why some individuals or systems adopt change before others and what is the process through which individuals progress as change is adopted. Hornik views the normally distributed adoption

curve (S-shaped) that separates individuals into early innovators or late adopters as only a starting point in applying the theory as he seeks to explain how people move from not doing a new behavior to doing it. He describes the Diffusion of Innovations theory as telling us to ". . .look at a variety of explanations for behavior. . .to look at adoption of innovation as a process, rather than a distinct event" (Hornik, p. 148).

Rogers' (2003) findings regarding the rate of adoption for the same innovation in different social systems and the universality of the process are particularly relevant to this study. He found that some aspects of an idea's diffusion cannot be explained by individual behavior alone for the system itself, through its culture and norms, has a direct effect on the outcome. In reflecting on this theory, Hornik (2004) purports that the diffusion of innovations research has provided a stable core view addressing change across a broad-ranging area. Over a period of about 50 years, the diffusion of innovation paradigm has been applied to specialties such as public health, economics, geography, marketing, political science, and communication (Valente & Rogers, 1995).

Studies have been conducted on a variety of scenarios ranging from hybrid seed corn to modern math to the DVORAK keyboard to the snowmobile to antibiotic drugs to HIV/Aids prevention to the spread of the Internet. According to Dearing (2004), "Diffusion Theory has proven interesting because its history includes many examples of faster, better, or cheaper innovations that do *not* achieve widespread use, even after many years, and even when campaigns are conducted to publicize them" (p. 24). Since 1943, more than 4,000 research

publications have appeared and Diffusion Theory has been included in many social science studies (Valente & Rogers, 1995).

Lewin's Theory

One of the earliest theories of organizational change process was put forth by Kurt Lewin (1951). He described a force-field model that can be divided into three stages as: 1) unfreezing; 2) changing, and 3) refreezing. In the first phase—unfreezing—stakeholders are made aware that the status quo is no longer adequate. During phase two—changing—stakeholders seek new ways and create a vision for the change. In the last phase of Lewin's model—refreezing—the new approach is implemented and established within the organization.

Lewin's (1951) discussion of his force-field model focuses on two ways the change is achieved. One approach is to increase the driving forces toward the change—increase incentives, use position power to force, etc. A second approach is to reduce the forces that create resistance to the change effort. Examples of the second approach might be reducing the fear of failure, building coalitions of early support, and removing those who strongly oppose the change, to name only some from Lewin's writing (Yukl, 1998). In discussing Lewin's (1951) force-field model, Yukl (1998) says:

> If the restraining forces are weak, it may be sufficient merely to increase driving forces. However, when restraining forces are strong, a dual approach is advisable. Unless restraining forces can be reduced, an increase in driving forces will create an intense conflict over the change,

and continuing resistance will make it more difficult to complete the refreezing phase (p. 440).

Jick and Weisbord Theories

The research of Jick (1993) and Weisbord (1987) led them to use metaphors to describe the change process. Jick likens the change process to the stages that one encounters when facing traumatic personal loss. He lists the four stages of the process as denial, anger, mourning, and adaptation. He observed a similar pattern of reactions during major organizational change. Understanding the four-stage process, according to Jick (1993), is necessary for the change leaders who are charged with guiding stakeholders through the process.

Weisbord (1987) builds on the theoretical tool devised by Janssen (1982), a Swedish social psychologist, that further describes a person, a group, an organization engaged in a change process using the metaphor of a four -room apartment—moving cyclically from room to room through stages of denial, confusion, renewal, and finally contentment. The person, if effectively led, lets go of the past and moves toward a desired future.

In Weisbord's 1987 article, he discusses two different theories of organizational change resulting from case studies dating back to the 1950s. One is a theory of "process" and the other is of participative action. He sees the two as merging into one where organizational leaders identify and close gaps between how things are and how they should be. According to Weisbord, Lewin's (1951) force-field model portrays these gaps as an interaction of social

forces that are personal, group, organizational, and societal. In order to close the gaps, one must first identify whose behavior must change in order to ensure constructive action. The leader must also identify the forces that might prevent or accelerate involvement. Modern-day leaders must be able to diagnose what makes people want to act and unfreeze the situation in order to begin the change process (Weisbord, 1987). Weisbord credits Lewin's (1951, 1948) insights that people are more likely to act on solutions they have helped develop as the beginning of the move toward participative management.

However, Weisbord (1987) does take issue with Lewin's (1947) force-field theory because of the modern-day acceleration of the rate of change that was not present when Lewin created the theory. How much truer is that acceleration rate when applied to the organizational world of 2006! According to Weisbord, things are moving too fast to pin down; and our behavior changes only when we are led to do it—not because of a force-field analysis that says it is time to change. The research of social scientists like Rogers, Lewin, Jick and Weisbord offer much substance on the theory of organizational change that will be useful in the analysis of findings that result from the study proposed in this prospectus.

Tannenbaum, Hanna, Drucker, Yukl, and Piderit

Many other researchers have contributed additional findings to the body of literature on the subject of organizational change. For example, Tannenbaum and Hanna (1985) found that change represents a powerful loss to an individual. The loss can be to identity, certainty, or meaning itself (Weisbord, 1987). Drucker studied organizational change his entire career spanning much of the

last century. He concludes that the organization itself must organize for constant change (Drucker, 1995). Yukl (1998) discusses the effects of experiencing repeated, traumatic change. He questions what effect failure to completely resolve the emotional trauma of an earlier change can have on new change initiatives. He also raises the question of whether experiencing repeated change events will actually help one be better prepared to face additional change. "We don't have any good answers yet about the effects of repeated change on individuals, but the accelerating pace of change in organizations makes it a relevant question to investigate" (1998, p. 441). Piderit (2000) advocates research on organizational change that attempts to capture the complexity of individuals' responses. Her own research summaries address the danger of viewing employees who oppose change as merely short sighted and as obstacles thus leading to a dismissal of valid concerns about proposed changes. ". . .managers in charge of rolling out a change initiative blame others for the failure. . .rather than accepting their role in its failure" (p. 784).

Volumes of literature have been written and continue to increase on the topic of organizational change. The previous section was an attempt to highlight only some of the literature considered to be most relevant to the study proposed herein.

Planned Versus Continuous Change

An important contrast in organizational change research began to emerge in the early 1990's. Researchers began to draw a distinction between organizational change that is described as episodic and change that is described

as continuous and evolving. The term "episodic change" is used to group together organizational changes that are planned and infrequent; and, consequently, often dramatic. "Continuous change," by contrast, applies to organizational changes that are ongoing and evolving (Weick & Quinn, 1999).

The work of Weick and Quinn (1999) resulted in a comparison of the observable characteristics of episodic change to change that is continuous. They found that episodic change in an organization is driven by external forces and because it is dramatic (Lewin, 1951) can also be traumatic for the organization's stakeholders. Continuous change is an endless pattern of modifications in work processes driven internally by institutional instability and attentiveness. However, Weick and Quinn (1999) characterize the ideal organization as being capable of both episodic and continuous change.

More so than continuous change that is ongoing, episodic or planned change can be dramatic and traumatic for an organization to undergo. According to Lewin (1950), "To break open the shell of complacency and self-righteousness, it is sometimes necessary to bring about deliberately an emotional stir-up" (p. 400).

Types of Change

Four different general types of organizational change are dealt with in the literature: administrative, technological, product, and human resources (Daft, 1989; Smeltzer, 1991). Administrative has to do with changes in an organization's structure, policies, reward systems, and control systems. Technological change refers to modifications of an organization's methods for

accomplishing tasks—for example, the switch to a new electronic management information system. Product change deals with development of new goods or services or the modification of existing goods/services. Human resource changes relate to the composition of an organization's employee base—diversity initiatives or rightsizing programs are examples (Daft, 1989; Smeltzer, 1991). According to Lewis and Seibold (1998), ". . .a diverse body of literature describes fundamental approaches used for implementing the various types of organizational change" (p. 305).

Phases of Change

In discussing the phases of change implementation, Timmerman (2003) focuses on a four-stage model developed by Bullock and Batten (1985). The model describes exploration as the first phase, where the organization assesses needs and decides to move ahead with decisions relevant to change. The next phase is planning, which entails commitment of resources toward the change effort. This stage also involves the creation of a plan for the implementation of the change. The third phase of the Bullock/Batten model moves into action where change information is disseminated to the stakeholders. The fourth and last phase is the integration stage where the change has been implemented to the point that it becomes a part of the organization's daily routine. Phase one—exploration—and phase three—the action phase—appear to be the parts of the change process ripest for additional research according to the literature (Bullock & Batten, 1985; Lewis & Seibold, 1998; Timmerman, 2003).

When dealing with organizational change, it is vitally important that those leading the change initiative understand both the type of change involved (Daft, 1989; Smeltzer, 1991)—is it administrative, technological, product, or human resources?—and the various phases through which a change passes (Bullock & Batten, 1985; Lewis & Seibold, 1998; Timmerman, 2003) in order to be able to not only lead the effort but also to be able to manage it effectively. Organizations differ in their overall willingness to change and the strategies that they use to guide the change. Since change within an organization is often met with resistance or even cynicism, in order to effectively implement meaningful change, leaders should understand those variables that affect and shape stakeholders' reactions. Organizational leaders must then strive to find methods to manage not only the change itself, but also the possible ensuing resistance to it. Machiavelli observed many years ago in the *Prince* "It must be realized that there is nothing more difficult to plan, more uncertain of success, or more dangerous to manage than the establishment of a new order of things; for he who introduces change makes enemies of all those who derived advantage from the old order and finds but lukewarm defenders among those who stand to gain from the new one" ({1514} 1961, p. 27). It is hoped that the research proposed in this prospectus will add to the body of literature on how to lead and manage organizational change initiatives. The next section will discuss the resistance that is often exhibited as the response to institutional change.

Resistance to Organizational Change

Complex, modern organizations value persons who are willing and able to initiate and respond positively to change. A 1996 survey by the Bureau of National Affairs found that organizational change was a major concern for more than a third of the 396 organizations they surveyed. Yet, planned change efforts are often stymied by strong resistance from within. Social science research on organizational change is becoming increasingly more focused on trying to explain the reasons that individuals or groups within organizations resist change (Oreg, 2003). In this section the author will briefly discuss the research of Reichers, Wanous, and Austin (1997, 2000), Klein and Sorra(1996), Dent, Goldberg, and Galloway (1999), and Kotter (1995) on cynicism about organizational change.

Cynicism About Organizational Change

The role that cynicism plays as a possible barrier to planned change has been explored by Theron and Westhuizen (1996), Andersson (1996), and Reichers, Wanous, and Austin (1997, 2000), to name only a few. Several definitions of cynicism regarding organizational change appear in the literature. Reichers, Wanous, and Austin (1997) define cynicism about organizational change as a "loss of faith in the leaders of change and a response to a history of change attempts that are not entirely or clearly successful" (p. 48). They (Wanous et al., 2000) further describe it "as a pessimistic viewpoint about change efforts being successful because those responsible for making change are blamed for being unmotivated, incompetent or both" (p. 133). The results of their research contend that cynicism about organizational change develops as a

result of individuals having seen little previous change, ineffective leadership practices, and lack of perceived participation by the employee in the change process.

Wanous et al. (2000) acknowledge the earlier research of Likert (1967) that focused on gaining employee support for change efforts by using data feedback and discussion to increase employee participation and support. Much of the Wanous et al. (2000) research centers on both the blame (dispositional attribution) that pessimistic employees place on those considered responsible for the change and the outlook itself. They (Reichers et al., 1997; Wanous et al., 2000) also described situational attribution for change failure that occurs when employees view unforeseen events, not management, as the cause. The 2000 research of Wanous et al. identified these possible antecedents to cynicism about organizational change—some employees were cynical about everything; previous organizational experiences with failed change efforts led employees to pessimistic attitudes; and, if an employee's supervisor was generally viewed as ineffective, then it was more likely that the supervisor would be blamed for a failed change initiative.

Relevant to the study proposed in this prospectus, Wanous et al. (2000) also reported finding ". . .CAOC (cynicism about organizational change) was significantly related to decreased organizational commitment . . ." (p. 147). They concluded that if management addresses both pessimism and dispositional attributions with respect to pessimism, great strides can be made toward lessening change resistance.

Even the most genuine and skillful approaches to affecting organizational change can be doomed if there is a pervasive climate of pessimism about the nature of the change, the reason for it, and/or the perceived outcome. If it is human nature for people to fear the uncertainty of change, then community college leaders should seek and develop ways to present change that will alleviate the fear, diminish the potential barriers, and result in a successful outcome. The study described in the methods section will focus on multi-dimensional attitudes that affect resistance to change.

A conflicting school of thought present in the cynicism about organizational change literature suggests the desirability and necessity of cynicism when dealing with organizational change and questions the appropriateness of the currently accepted mental model that views resistance to change as a natural occurrence tinged with negative overtones. The mental model includes the belief that management must constantly seek ways to overcome the resistance (Theron & Westhuizen, 1996; Dent, Goldberg, & Galloway, 1999). These researchers view cynicism about organizational change as illuminating the need for more information sharing and better communication; thus presenting cynicism as a positive force. The view of organizational cynicism about change as being a desirable and useable factor rather than a negative factor could have significant implications for community college leaders as they deal with change initiatives and seek ways to gain acceptance for and participation in them.

Climate and Organizational Change

Researchers Klein and Sorra (1996) developed an integrative model that suggests that change effectiveness is a function of the strength of an organization's climate for implementation of the particular change and the fit of the change to the targeted users' values. They recommend additional research on the topic of cynicism to include a study of the creation of a strong change climate, upward implementation of change, and the fostering of change-values fit.

Dent, Goldberg, and Galloway (1999) and Kotter (1995) in two separate studies found that an organization's structure and an organization's expectations were more often listed as reasons for cynicism and roadblocks to change initiatives than the actual attitudes of lower-level employees. Authors Kegan and Lahey (2001) concur that resistance to change does not necessarily reflect opposition nor is it a result of inertia.

> Instead, even as they hold a sincere commitment to change, many people are unwittingly applying productive energy toward a hidden competing commitment. The resulting dynamic equilibrium stalls the effort in what looks like resistance but is in fact a kind of personal immunity to change (p. 85-86).

In order to overcome change resistance, according to Kegan et al., more attention should be given to the complexities of behavior that manifests itself as resistance.

Summary

The literature on resistance to organizational change is replete with evidence that change is a formidable stressor in organizational life that can result from a number of causes such as lack of trust, a belief that the change is not necessary, that it is not feasible, that it presents an economic threat to individuals, that it is too expensive, that individuals might fail or lose status and power, that it threatens one's values and ideals, or that it will lead to control by another (Yukl, 1998). Dealing with these perceptions requires that organizational leaders possess solid, research-based knowledge based on the extenuating factors that shape them.

The Community College and Change

In discussing education in general, Drucker (1995) predicted ". . .that in the next fifty years, schools and universities will change more and more drastically than they have since they assumed their present form more than 3,000 years ago, when they reorganized themselves around the printed book" (p. 79). This section will discuss the literature specific to community colleges and change by first looking at the unique mission of a community college The turbulent change that is impacting and redefining that mission will then be discussed in light of where America's community colleges are today. The section will also discuss the need for a new type of community college leadership.

Community Colleges' Unique Mission

Community colleges, driven by mission statements that compel them to constantly shift focus to stay current and responsive to the demands of the

communities they serve, find themselves in a perpetual change mode that presents many leadership challenges. Today's challenges for community colleges are significantly more turbulent and threatening than those faced in the past (Levine, et. al, 2004; Romero, M. 2004; Drumm, 2004; Pettitt & Ayers, 2002; Carter, 1998). The community college, by its nature, constantly makes and remakes itself ". . . in response to social, economic, and governmental transformation" (Foote, 1999, p. 133). Engaging the faculty, staff, and administrators in the process of continual change is an ongoing requirement for the leaders of these institutions.

Carter's (1998) research that focuses on change within the community college setting has resulted in the identification of numerous activities that aid in facilitating change in a community college environment. Her research finds that ". . .constant consistent communication is essential to maximize awareness and engagement" (p. 435). Recognizing that community colleges are to serve as the ". . .locus for the cultural, intellectual, and social development of its district community" (Harlacher, 1972, p. 309), Gleazer (1968) observes:

> . . .and it is the aim of the community college to keep open the student's education options as long as possible. . .the pace of change poses real problems for occupational education. How can teachers keep up? What assurance is there that programs are realistic? By what means do counselors keep current about occupational trends and requirements? (p. 75).

Many are experimenting with strategies to raise faculty and staff awareness of the need for change and to engage them in the fundamental redesign of their institutions—institutions that have enjoyed a history of success, which represents security, comfort, and pride to their internal stakeholders and that many still believe should not change (Carter, 1998).

Malcolm Knowles purports that a fundamental purpose of adult education is to prevent the obsolescence of human kind (1970). His notion of a relationship between education and obsolescence underscores that change is, and has been, a major factor impacting higher education. Knowles' notion is especially applicable to the community college for the mission statements of most public community colleges emphasize their accessibility, affordability, transfer preparation, career programs, and continuing education, all within the framework of meeting the needs of their communities in a responsive, timely fashion. Following these mission statements has created a burdensome demand on those institutions to change frequently and quickly. This change cannot occur in any meaningful way if the leaders of the institutions do not possess a solid understanding of the nature of organizational change, the common response of resistance to change, and effective ways to lead and manage it. It is hoped that the study proposed in this prospectus can elicit findings that will assist community college leaders in meeting the demands created by their unique mission.

Turbulent Change

Carter (1998) and Lorenzo (1998) both find that challenge and change have always been a part of the community college environment, but that past successful practices may not be adequate in today's environment. In discussing the unrelenting change facing community colleges, Lorenzo writes that many successful community colleges are apprehensive about the ". . .turbulent operating environment. . .and radical change that are accompanying the transition to a new socioeconomic age" (1998, p.337). Carter's (1998) research concurs with Lorenzo's (1998) when she says that as challenges to community college past practices impact in multiple ways, ". . .everything seems subject to renegotiation and redesign" (p. 439).

When the traditional community college is faced with a major change initiative, the decision and the vision for the change has historically been created at the top levels of administration. According to Ayers (2002), in order to sustain a college's viability across changing conditions, faculty, staff, and administration must not only learn about the issues in the surrounding environment but also understand the organizational arrangements that realign with these erratically changing conditions.

Today's Reality

As America's community colleges celebrated 100 years of existence in 2001, both the external circumstances that confront all types of organizations and the internal circumstances unique to their two-year structure continued to create the need for leadership that can meet the radical and unremitting changes they

face. Sullivan (2001) discusses community colleges as functioning in an environment characterized by the following:

- continuing scarcity of resources;
- changing student and staff demographics;
- shifting emphasis from teaching to student learning and outcomes assessment;
- developing technology that absorbs an increasing proportion of the operating budget and challenges traditional instructional delivery methods;
- increasing regulation by external agencies;
- competition from private-sector providers of high-quality training;
- blurring of service boundaries as a result of distance learning and Internet use;
- reduced emphasis on degree completion and growing interest in other forms of credentialing; and
- an unimaginable barrage of information (p. 559-60).

Community College Leadership

The result of this endless bombardment of change, according to Sullivan (2001), has been community college administrators, faculty, and staff who fear and worry about the loss of control; and, consequently, have become more determined to be asked for greater involvement in the decisions that affect their institutions. At the same time, many two-year institutions are facing transitions to a new generation of presidents whose leadership styles are vastly different from

those exhibited over the past 30 or 40 years. Community colleges are grappling with the extraordinary leadership challenges and unique opportunities presented by the new century. Roueche and Richardson (2004) address this by saying, "We are also aware of the fast-approaching, dramatic turnover in community-college leadership positions, roles and responsibilities" (p. 5).

Sullivan maintains:

> In the face of such challenges, the patriarchal, hierarchical model of leadership that characterized community colleges when they were founded 100 years ago no longer serves. On the other hand, some of the looser, more participatory forms of leadership that have emerged in the past few years may not be as effective in the new century as they originally were (p. 560).

Sullivan (2001) describes the earlier generations of community college presidents as predominantly white, in their fifty's, having risen through the academic ranks, many with military experience during either WWII or the Korean War. These early presidential leaders paralleled their counterparts in American business by exhibiting a more traditional leadership style in the context of a hierarchical organizational structure. "Under these leaders, community colleges that started on a shoestring and were creative, daring, and unrestricted grew into large bureaucracies. . ." (p. 561).

The next generation of community college presidents—the current group--according to Sullivan's (2001) research, were of the collaborator type who used the strong foundation put down by the earlier generation of leaders to endure

recessions, accountability pressure, public distrust of large organizations, the technological revolution and advent of the Internet, and growing numbers of under-prepared students. This current group of community college presidents is also more diverse than the previous groups. Sullivan writes, “To deal with this, they learned techniques for manipulating the power structure by building coalitions, and they infiltrated the existing system with the aid of affirmative action laws” (p. 562). This current generation experienced the modern leadership theory that the team can be the leader.

The emerging group of community college presidents who will take over the baton from the current generation were, according to Sullivan (2001), born after the civil rights movement and the world wars. Technology—the personal computer and the Internet—have transformed their lives and they are comfortable with the change. This group is more open to the possibilities that exist because they have played major roles in negotiating partnerships throughout their careers with many different constituencies. The Association of Governing Boards Commission on the Academic Presidency (1996) addressed the challenges facing the new incoming generation of leaders in this way:

> The greatest danger we see is that in this new era of growing doubts and demands, colleges and universities are neither as nimble nor as adaptable as the times require. Why? Because the academic presidency has become weak. The authority of the college and university presidents is being undercut by all of its partners. . .and, at times, by the presidents’ own lack of assertiveness and willingness to take risk for change” (p. x).

The concern about dramatic changes in the complexion of community college leadership comes at a time when the colleges are also being pressured to maintain the national stature they have gained in the business community. In addressing the critical need for community college leadership development for a new generation of top administrators, Texas Instruments Chair, Jim Adams, said: "The community college system is an absolutely imperative part of the fabric of education in this country. It's the thing that helps us be competitive leaders in the world. . ." (American Association of Community Colleges, 2002, p. 60).

Community College Research

Levin (1998), in a 1993-94 study, used qualitative research methods to address planned/episodic organizational change in five community colleges. Levin selected colleges that had presidents with three years or less experience. He investigated, as a piece of the study, the resulting changes that were taking place in the functional processes of the organizations and the communication methods used during the transition. The data from the study indicated that community college presidents do make a significant difference in their institutions as far as how information is communicated. The change episode of a community college transition to a new president is relevant to this writer's research not from the standpoint of how the new president communicates within the organization, but rather from the standpoint of how this dramatic planned change was communicated, processed, and perceived by the constituents of the institutions in the study.

Community Colleges in the New Century

The current thrust for American community colleges is ". . .putting learning at the heart of the academic enterprise. . .will mean overhauling the conceptual, procedural, curricular, and other architecture of postsecondary education on most campuses" (Wingspread Group on Higher Education, 1993, p. 9). Community college leader, Terry O'Banion (1997) views the never-ending requirement for the two-year institutions to operate in change mode and move toward learning centeredness in this way: "There are many other factors, of course, that must change if the schools are to be transformed. . .changes to the educational structure that will provide highly visible testimony to changes in policy, governance, funding, mission, and values" (p. 9).

Myran, Zeiss, and Howdyshell (1995) recognize from their research that resistance to change is a hallmark of higher education in general. "It has been said that changing a college is a lot like moving a cemetery—you don't get a lot of help from the residents" (p. 28). Community college leaders must seek effective ways to bring about the changes outlined in this section. The next section will discuss the role of communication in this process.

Communication and Change in an Organization

Implementing planned change is almost always difficult; communication problems are commonplace (Lewis, 2000). Organizational leaders face the challenge of how to best communicate the changes affecting their stakeholders in such a way so as to encourage acceptance, minimize resistance, and enhance the implementation of the change. Yet, for many reasons, change does not take

place easily or quickly within organizations. As Mintzberg et al. (1976) asked, how, then, do organizations go about making and communicating unstructured strategic decisions?

Volumes of literature have been written over the past 50 years describing the nature of change impacting organizations in both the public and private sectors. Theory and research on organizations since the mid-1950's clearly point to the integral role that communication plays in orchestrating major change. Multiple researchers view organizations as entities solely maintained through continuous communication among stakeholders (Farace et al., 1977; Weick, 1979; Carlson & Davis, 1998). According to Trevino, Webster, and Stein (2000), "In recent years, communication media types have expanded and communication patterns have changed as new technologies have developed" (p. 163).

If change is an accepted fact of organizational life, and every organization grows, diminishes, gains and loses employees, changes products and customers, and is influenced by a variety of external economic factors (Peters, 1987; Steers, 1988), it is incumbent upon the organizational leaders who drive the change process to not only understand the tenets of the impending change, but to be able to communicate effectively about it to the people who are expected to implement it. Weick (1984) and Wanous et al. (2000) recommend, as a result of their studies, that in order to counteract negative reactions and to make change initiatives successful, change must be clearly publicized. Weisbord (1987) states:

> Through trained observation, you can diagnose ingenious linkages between task and process. When work stalls, for example, determine what is not being talked about—the gap between word and deed, the all-too-human shortfall between aspiration and action (p. 11).

The Importance of Communication

Barrett, Thomas, and Hocevar (1995) looked at discourse as the core of the change process. Their research found that it is through discourse that relational bonds are formed with one another allowing for the creation, transformation, and maintenance of structure. According to them, "The very act of communicating is the process through which we constitute experience. . .[that] over time provides the background of common experience that gives organizational members a context for their organizing behavior" (p. 353).

Underscoring the importance of communicating a planned change in an organizational setting, (Barrett et al., 1995) further state:

> Language reflects information about objects in the world and conveys meaning between subjective minds. . .if an executive desired to initiate a change in organizational design, he or she would define his or her task . . .adequately articulating the characteristics of the redesign in appropriate words and conveying this to others. . ." (p. 357).

Weick and Quinn (1999) address the role that the change agent plays in episodic change as the one who is the prime mover of the change and who has to communicate differently as he/she builds commitment for the change. They further describe the change agent for continuous change as one who serves

more as a sensemaker redirecting processes. Both types of change—episodic and continuous—require effective communication methods and channels to allow the change to take place.

When discussing change implementation processes, Lewis and Seibold (1998) say that "Implementation activities are fundamentally communicative and are exemplified by efforts to announce changes, train users, and seek feedback about the change" (p. 304).

> The combined effect of increased interactions and intentional conversations on the part of management may assist in building trust by creating a shared understanding among participants and produce a clear statement of conditions and expectations for the change (Worley, Bailey, Thompson, Joseph, & Williams, 1999, p. 6).

Many writers have emphasized the importance of communication in the change process (Yukl, 2002; Barrett et al., 1995; Kotter, 1995; Farace, Monge, & Russell, 1977). Ford and Ford's (1995) research takes a reverse tack, for they found that the change process actually occurs within and is driven by communication rather than the reverse. "Producing change is not a process that uses communication as a tool, but rather it is a process that is created, produced, and maintained by and within communication (Donnellon, 1986, p. 155).

The Conversations of Change

Ford and Ford (1995) focused their research on what produces intentional change in an organization. They developed a ". . .framework for considering change as a communication-based and communication-driven phenomenon" (p.

541). By focusing on types of conversations that leaders use to create, sustain, focus, and complete a change initiative, they provided a new perspective for understanding the role of communication in the process of organizational change. The Ford model puts forth a three-fold function that conversations provide in understanding a proposed change: 1) they specify the conditions for achieving satisfactory change; 2) they increase involvement, participation, and support, and, 3) they translate events, instill meanings, and develop shared understandings.

Ford and Ford (1995) contend that the emphasis that a change leader puts in his/her communication will define the stage of development of the change initiative. They list four conversation types involved with producing change: ". . .initiative, understanding, performance, and closure" (p. 546). The initiative conversation is centered on what could or should be done. During conversations for understanding, people seek to comprehend the situation and to determine cause-effect relationships (Mintzberg, Raisinghani, & Theoret, 1976). A third type of conversation described by Ford and Ford (1995) is the conversation for performance/action focused on producing results. The last conversation in the Ford model is one for closure where claims are made that the change has been accomplished and the work is complete.

In this same vein, Jick (1993) stated, "disengaging from the past is critical to awakening to a new reality" (p. 197). The closure conversation allows stakeholders to go forward as they are no longer involved in the change effort itself.

According to the Ford and Ford (1995) theory, without communication, there will be no intentional change. They believe that "change is created, sustained, and managed in and by communications" (p. 560). The Ford and Ford (1995) model seeks to explain that understanding is only one component of the change process and that understanding by itself is not sufficient to affect change. Both performance and closure conversations must take place if coordinated action is to occur. Bridges (1991) maintains that performance and closure conversations are more important than understanding conversations. The four types of conversations described by Ford and Ford (1995) may arise in different places or from different situations or occur through different communication channels. Clearly, the Ford and Ford (1995) model illustrates that the management of change is actually the management of communication through conversations.

Job Satisfaction and Communication

A recent study conducted by Kim (2002) found that employees who believe they have effective communications with their supervisor express a higher level of job satisfaction. The study examined levels of participative management and job satisfaction in local government agencies and recommended as a result of the findings that executives become more aware of the importance of managers' use of employee participation in strategic planning. "To the extent that job satisfaction reduces absenteeism and turnover, the study's findings suggest that employee participation in strategic planning contributes to organizational effectiveness" (p. 238).

Deetz (1995) advocates a radical rethinking of the practices of organizations in order to meet the complex challenges of the new millennium. "Transforming communication must be thought of in a double sense. We need to transform our conception and practice of communication and business and we must think more clearly about communication and business as a transforming practice" (p. xiii). According to Deetz (1995), by transforming practices of communication, organizations can become both more responsive to and productive in rapidly changing environments. The next section will discuss several theories of communication that provide theoretical support for transforming communication processes and practices in a community college.

Systems Theory, Change, and Communication

In the 1960s, systems thinking emerged as researchers began to view organizations as systems of mutually dependent variables. Consequently, modern organization theory asks questions such as: What are the strategic parts of the system? What is the nature of their mutual dependency? What are the main processes in the system that link the parts? and, What are the goals sought by the systems? (Scott, 1961).

Communication is viewed as the method by which action is evoked from parts of the system acting not only as stimuli for action but also as a control mechanism. The organization is viewed as a whole with the actions of one unit affecting and being affected by other units within the system. Systems theory sees organizations as ". . .systems of behavior that are interrelated and interacting rather than as 'chartable' or static. Organizations are entities that

have been put together to accomplish some type of purpose. . .Individuals and groups determine the development of an organization" (Harris, 1993, p. 10). "Organizations are a set of elements connected together to form a 'whole' showing properties that are unique to the whole rather than to the properties of its component parts" (Salem, 1999, p. 88).

The elements in a system work in relationship to one another to produce synergy, a combined healthy action. According to Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross, and Smith (1994) the structure of the organization is actually the pattern of interrelationships among key components of the system. The research of Katz and Kahn (1966) concurs, "All social systems, including organizations, consist of the patterned activities of a number of individuals. . .are complementary or interdependent with respect to some common output or outcome. . ." (p. 259). Communication provides the means by which the goals and objectives of the individual, dyad, group, or whole organization can be reached (Farace, Monge, & Russell, 1977).

Message Uncertainty and Equivocality

In the 1960s, Emery and Trist (Monge & Contractor, 2001) developed sociotechnical systems theory. Their theory connected an organization's environment to its structure and operations. According to the theory, an organization should structure itself in such a way that it significantly reduces the uncertainty in its environment.

The Emery and Trist (Monge & Contractor, 2001) research model on information and the environment describes four distinct kinds of organizational

environments: 1) placid randomized—the goals toward which the organization strives and the dangers it wishes to avoid are constant and distributed randomly. The best this type of organizational environment can hope for is to cope when events requiring change occur, for things happen willy nilly in an unpredictable fashion; 2) placid clustered—goals and dangers are bunched so it is vitally important to organizational survival to engage in strong strategic planning; 3) disturbed reactive—a very cutthroat environment where the organization is forced to constantly look for competitors' moves and to react accordingly, and 4) turbulent field—an organizational environment where change is a fundamental purpose (O'Hair, 2001). A community college in the new century is a prime example of a turbulent field environment where the levels of uncertainty that exist and the requirement by the community it serves to constantly change and redirect are great.

The literature that describes the research model on information and the environment discussed in this section offers strong support for the notion that community college leaders must be well versed in the theory of organizational change. This model can be applied to the environment of the community college since the model's "turbulent field" classification recognizes that change can be an embedded reason for an organization to exist and also of great significance in its mode of operation. When considering the role that variables such as participation, open communication, perceived organizational support and organizational commitment play in one's response to change—acceptance or resistance—the research model described in this section can be used to

strengthen the argument for the importance of training community college leaders in the theories of change. The author's proposed study, described in Chapter III, will look at those variables, their interplay one with the other, and their relationship to the outcome variable, resistance to change. In discussing the findings of the proposed study as far as implications for community colleges and for future studies, the Emery and Trist (Monge & Contractor, 2001) model, especially the fourth category, "turbulent field" environment, will be applied.

Media Richness Theory

The selection of a channel for communicating about planned change to the organization's employees is a critical factor in determining the levels of receptivity or resistance to the information being communicated. Through a comprehensive survey, Trevino et al. (2000) used multiple communication theories to study media attitudes and behaviors. Their results suggested that objective, social, and person/technology factors such as perceived media richness, message equivocality, number of recipients, perceived recipients' attitudes and distance between message sender and receiver all had merit as far as explaining media attitudes and behaviors with their basic conclusion still congruent with Mintzberg's (1973) statement: "Communication is important to the manager's job" (p. 163).

Media Richness Theory seeks to predict why certain types of communication methods are more effective than others in certain situations. The main premise of MRT is that the richness of the medium should match the requirements of the message as far as effective communication. Each type of

communication has characteristics that make it more appropriate for certain situations and less so for others (Lengel & Daft, 1988). In order for community college organizations to meet the challenges presented by the new century, today's organizational leaders must be able to determine which mode of communication best matches the message to be delivered so as to produce the least resistance and the most receptivity to the message.

Carlson and Davis (1998) state that "While many activities are involved in communication, one that is of particular importance is media selection" (p. 335). This thought is also found in research from Zmud, Lind, and Young (1990), "Communication channels are believed to vary in their capacity to promote rich communication" (p. 440). A rich communication medium has potential for instant feedback, both verbal and nonverbal cues are present, natural language is used, and it focuses on individuals rather than on a large group (Zmud, Lind, & Young, 1990; Beebe & Masterson, 2000).

Lengel and Daft (1988) are strong proponents of using rich media for implementing company strategy: "Perhaps the greatest role for executives as communication artists is the implementation of strategy" (p. 230). They further explain the richness hierarchy by stating:

> Face-to-face is the richest medium because it has the capacity for direct experience, multiple information cues. . .Telephone conversations and interactive electronic media provide rapid feedback, but lack the element of 'being there'. . .Written media. . .such as memos, notes, and reports, can be personally focused but they convey limited cues. . .Impersonal

> written media (including fliers, bulletins, and standard computer reports) are the leanest, providing no personal focus on a single receiver. . .Thus, each medium has an information capacity based on its ability to facilitate multiple cues, feedback, and personal focus (Lengel & Daft, 1988, p. 226).

Several studies have addressed newer communication technologies and have applied MRT to their use in organizational communication. Lind and Zmud (1995) studied the dyadic relationship between sales representatives and field marketing representatives in a manufacturing firm to ascertain the impact of the introduction of voice mail as a selected means of communications. They found that "Structural mechanisms enabling and enhancing such dyadic relationships represent potentially important vehicles for improving organizational performance" (p. 445). Trevino et al. (2000) state that the ". . .most important practical question of interest to managers may come from media richness theory's normative prediction that these e-mail communications (in equivocal situations) are less effective than they would be if a richer medium were used" (p. 180). Findings from the 1995 Lind and Zmud and the 2000 Trevino et al. study that are particularly relevant to the study proposed herein were that the introduction of a communications technology into an interorganizational relationship does affect organizational performance by first affecting communication behaviors. Since open communication will serve as one of the independent variables in the study proposed in Chapter III, the author is especially interested in the theories and models related to how one can better communicate within an organizational setting. The communication theories and

models discussed in this section can provide relevant support in the discussion of the findings and when making recommendations for community college leaders based on research data generated from the study.

Uncertainty Reduction

Since many of the issues surrounding an organizational planned change effort are fuzzy and not well defined, social science researchers have focused numerous studies on how communication works to reduce the absence of information referred to in the literature as “uncertainty” (Daft & Lengel, 1986). Organizational leaders rely on such theories to gain understanding as to how to help their employees cope with changes. Daft and Lengel’s research sought to answer the question “Why do organizations process information?” They were getting at the very core of the link between communication and organizational change theories. Their research found that an organization’s need to reduce uncertainty and to manage equivocality is the answer to this question.

Daft and Lengel’s research findings further proved Weick’s (1979) argument that uncertainty reduction is a basic reason for organizing. Uncertainty presumes that an individual has a plan to properly interpret incoming signals but does not have the sufficient data to deal with possible outcomes (Zmud, Lind, & Young, 1990). Equivocality presumes either the lack of a plan to deal with the change or the existence of multiple, conflicting goals. Consistent with this, Bolman and Deal (1997) found that high levels of ambiguity and uncertainty undercut rational analysis, problem solving, and decision making.

Hierarchy and Media Selection

Carlson and Davis (1998) examined media selection behavior as it relates to levels of organizational hierarchy. They observed how the study participants chose the media for communication and found that the hierarchical position of the participants seemed to influence their communication choices. The analysis phase of the study attempted to explain the difference in preferences demonstrated by people at the director level and the manager level—two levels of organizational hierarchy that were differentiated as independent variables. According to Rice and Shook (1990), communication media such as telephone calls, letters, memos, and e-mail differ from face-to-face communication in two ways: "(1) different media can overcome . . .constraints such as time, location, permanence, distribution and distance. However, (2) media can transmit only certain portions of all the cues of human communication" (Rice & Shook, 1990, p. 198). They hypothesized that higher-level job categories will be characterized by a greater use of rich media and that lower-level jobs will be characterized by greater use of lean information media. The results of the study showed that the use of rich media was significantly associated with hierarchy in the four organizations studied.

Based on the research of Carlson and Davis (1998) that found the media used to present advantages of technology changes to employees needs to fit the level of the intended receiver, consideration should be given to the generalizability of this finding to the communication of planned change in a community college setting.

Zmud, Lind, & Young (1990) investigated the communication media used by managers and professional staff at a Fortune 500 manufacturing firm. Participants were asked to respond to a questionnaire that gave their perceptions of 14 different communication channels, from face-to-face, to group, to written, to phone, voice, FAX, e-mail, and voice mail. The study plotted the perceptions in relationship to the media for both lateral and vertical-downward communication. The study's major objective was to explore the criteria used by managers and professional staff to differentiate between the media. Both channel accessibility and information quality were reflected in the responses. Also identified as a differentiating factor was the communication channel's capacity for immediate feedback. It is important for purposes of the study proposed herein that relevant research models be identified to be used in constructing research conclusions, implications, and in analyzing the relationship between open communication, the other independent variables, and the criterion variable of resistance to change. The Media Richness Theory model will be discussed in the next section.

The Media Richness Theory Model

In 1984, Daft and Lengel recognized that the success of an organization is tied directly to the quality of the information richness used in the organization. "Organizations face a dilemma. They must interpret the confusing, complicated swarm of external events that intrude upon the organization" (p. 192). Media richness theory (MRT) argues that performance improves when richer media is used to communicate equivocal messages (Dennis & Kinney, 1998; Daft & Lengel, 1986; Daft & Lengel, 1984). The MRT construct assumes that the

communication media used within an organization fall on a media richness hierarchical scale from the lowest—impersonalstatic media —to the highest—physical presence (seeFigure 1).

The Daft and Lengel (1986) model has much to offer organizational leaders as they go about the business of choosing how to communicate messages regarding planned change initiatives. Their model plots equivocality as the vertical axis with uncertainty the horizontal axis. The four resulting cells of (cell 1) high equivocality, low uncertainty; (cell 2) high equivocality, high uncertainty; (cell 3) low equivocality, low uncertainty, and (cell 4) low equivocality, high uncertainty provide a mechanism for leaders to use in analyzing the type of communication to choose for use in any change-communication situation. According to Carlson and Davis (1998), there is some evidence that employees will prefer a communication that is media-rich when they are being asked to perform a task that is viewed as high in equivocality.

Daft and Lengel (1987) reported that face-to-face communication is typically used in organizational settings when uncertainty is high. Later researchers have updated the Daft and Lengel model to include modern-day communication methods brought about by technological advances such as Faxes and web-based graphical flyers and announcements which are categorized as the least rich forms of communication (Daft & Lengel, 1988; Beebe & Masterson, 2000). Fulk and Collins-Jarvis (1996) describe simple, predictable tasks with low uncertainty surrounding their message as examples of communication that can be conveyed indirectly. Under high task uncertainty,

when equivocality—multiple possible meanings exist (Daft & Lengel, 1984; Weick, 1979)—direct communication is required. "A key premise is that the complexity of communication and information processing mechanisms (e.g., rules vs. meetings) should match the uncertainty inherent in the task itself" (Fulk & Collins-Jarvis, 1996, p.628).

When organizations face high uncertainty during periods of change, all stakeholders seek to acquire more information. High equivocality during change means

that asking a yes-no question is not feasible (Daft and Lengel, 1986). Employees may not even know what questions to ask. Daft and Lengel view uncertainty and ambiguity as complementary forces that exist in organizational settings. Uncertainty is demonstrated by an absence of answers while equivocality is viewed as a state of confusion surrounding an organization's decision making.

M. Lynne Markus (1994) has conducted research that challenges the "richer is better" assumption of MRT. Although this study focused primarily on the use of electronic mail as a communication media channel, the multi-theory, multi-method investigation provides rich information with general applicability to explaining the how and why of upper-level managers' choices for communicating with their "troops." This 1994 research showed that:

> . . .even lean media such as text-based electronic mail can be used for complex communication; richer media (such as face-to-face meetings) are not necessarily preferable or more effective than leaner electronic media. . .it is not the media per se that determine communication patterns but

rather the social processes that surround media use. Even lean media can be used in rich ways if the organization encourages and supports rich use (p. 502).

Even so, Markus (1994) maintains that MRT is arguably the most influential theory of media choice for communication in an organizational setting for two reasons: it has fostered numerous empirical studies and it provides prescriptions for organizational leaders in their choice of media. Stephen Axley (2000) found that leaders as change agents face a large number of choices along the way about the communication of planned change. Among those choices is what is to be communicated before and during the change. He advocates giving serious consideration to the inherent qualities of different communication channels before conveying any messages regarding the change.

MRT and New Technologies

Media Richness Theory continues to encourage significant research into the new century. Katz and Rice (2002) explored how telephone and wireless technology was used during the tragic events of September 11, 2001 (911). As media such as cell phones, voice mail, text messaging over handheld wireless devices, and the Internet were heavily used for personal emergency communication, it was found that those messages, communicated over channels traditionally viewed as lean on the continuum, conveyed deep emotion. Katz and Rice discussed propositions that have applicability in an organizational communication context:

> The telephone allows intense immediacy. . .Transmission of both information and affect are highly important, and users may be extraordinarily sensitive to nuances, regardless of the medium. . . Use of telecommunication technology leaves important residues that reveal complex communicative interactions. . . Users can be highly creative in developing ad hoc solutions and crossing media boundaries (p. 247-252).

The recent communication research of Katz and Rice (2002) that focused on a tragedy of global proportions suggests aspects of communication created by the new technology-driven media that have yet to be explored in an organizational context.

Since past research shows that organizational performance and interorganizational effectiveness are greatly enhanced by the communication exchanges of the key players then it behooves contemporary organizational leaders to seek a better understanding of the specific impact of the various media currently available to them. Understanding the impact of different media that can be chosen to communicate planned change is central to effective outcomes in the organizational turbulence of the current day.

MRT and Open Communication

Perception levels of open communication will be used as one of the multiple predictor organizational variables in the study proposed in this prospectus. According to the early literature on MRT, use of media that is higher on the media richness continuum contributes to higher levels of perceived open communication. Media Richness Theory will be applied to the interpretation of

the research findings regarding thepredictor variable of open communication for MRT has much to tell organizational leaders about how they should communicate effectively. Another predictorvariable used in the study, organizational commitment, has been shown in research conducted by Varona (2002), to be positively related to open communication. Based on this brief overview of the organizational communication literature, it would seem that community college employees who participate in organizational communication that they perceive to be open should be less likely to resist change.

Hypothesis 1:

Perceived levels of open communication in a community college environment will be negatively related to resistance to change.

Participation: Creating Shared Vision

This section will provide a literature review of research on active participation by employees in an organizational setting. Active participation in organizational discussion about planned change initiatives, implementation of change programs, and employees' feeling and concerns regarding such change-related issues is a key variable in assessing the resulting acceptance of or resistance to the change. The literature is replete with studies that have explored the dependent relationships between job satisfaction and participation in the decision-making process within an organization. Active participation has also been shown to have a reciprocal relationship with perceived open communication (Romero, 2004; Lewis, 2000; and Conner, 1992).

According to Daft and Lengel (1986), “One distinguishing feature of organizational information process is sharing” (p. 556). The classic Hawthorne studies of Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) began to place focus on the importance of participation in organizational activities and how participation relates to productivity. When considering the evolution of organizational emphasis on employee participation, Pasmore and Fagan (1992) state, “Many credit Lewin (1951, 1948) with discovering the importance of participation in changing attitudes” (p. 378). Lewin’s series of experiments on food preferences demonstrated the superiority of participative discussion as a means of changing attitudes (Lewin, 1948). In discussing Lewin’s theory, Weisbord (1987) says that “. . .leading people to set goals, choose methods, and make decisions is learned. Nobody is born knowing participative management. Talking over important decisions in groups before implementation leads to higher commitment to change” (p. 97). At the heart of Lewin’s (1951) force-field theory is the concept that people are likely to modify their own behavior only if they can participate in the analysis of the problem, the solution, and the implementation of that solution. His research led him to recognize that you cannot do things to people to make them embrace change. Rather, organizations must enlist their stakeholders’ cooperation and participation.

It was during the same period as the Hawthorne studies that Coch and French (1948) conducted their classic studies in the Harwood Manufacturing Company to investigate what could be done to reduce workers’ resistance to job changes. Their analysis concluded:

> It is possible for management to modify or to remove completely group resistance to changes in methods of work and the ensuing piece rates. This change can be accomplished by the use of group meetings in which management effectively communicates the need for change and stimulates group participation in planning the changes (Coch & French, 1948, p. 531).

This research lay the groundwork for the modern-day managerial practice of gaining commitment—"buy in"—for the change-making process. Stanley Deetz (1995) writes that nothing does more for developing trust in an organization than making some good decisions together. Even so, Clampitt (1991) asserts that the common management practice in leading change is to determine the need for change and then to dictate the change from the top down throughout the hierarchy of the organization.

Participation and Communication

In the past 20 years, writers such Bennis (1989); Yukl (1998, 2000); Kotter(1995); Kouzes and Posner (1995); Nanus (1992), Lengel and Daft (1988) and Tichy and Devanna (1986), have described the necessary ingredients for successful vision statements. All seem to concur that to be successful, the statement should address what is important for the organization as a whole and how people should be treated. It should be focused enough to guide decision making, but general enough to allow for creativity in the strategic implementation of it. More specifically, Lengel and Daft (1988) recommend:

. . .top executives should personally communicate a new strategy by visiting relevant groups and discussing the strategy with them. . .middle managers learn the strategy in depth. . .they also perceive the executive's intensity and commitment to the new strategy" (p. 230).

In apparent agreement with this when discussing the unique challenges of the 21st Century community college, Romero (2004) states that "Unless leaders can develop inclusive decisionmaking structures in such situations, progress at an institution can be hampered" (p. 32).

Lewis (2000) found in one survey of 89 implementers of planned change, the two most frequently cited categories of problem with implementation were "communicating vision" and "negative attitudes." "Understanding just how change programs are implemented and how communication affects this process appears increasingly central to predicting the outcomes of planned change efforts" (Lewis, 2000, p. 128).

Her research found that communication played a big role in both the positive and negative outcomes of the planned change initiatives of four different organizations that she included in her study.

Clearly the literature supports a strong relationship between participation and communication. The common thread among the researchers when discussing what they've learned about creating a shared vision is the importance of communication and participation in the process. Conner (1992) found that ". . .whether people perceive a change as positive or negative depends not only on the actual outcomes of the change, but also on the degree of influence they

believe they exert in the situation" (p. 70). From the inception, when key stakeholders are first brought together to create it, to the assessment and refining of the statement to the implementation of it, effective communication and encouraged participation are emphasized as integral components in the change initiative's success. The study described in Chapter III should further delineate the relationships between these two variables—the variables of perceived organizational support and one's level of resistance to change.

Other authors also point out the need for additional research on the topic of the methods commonly used to communicate vision, their effectiveness, and the recipients' preference for communication channels. In discussing their research to determine how organizations cope with change, Farmer, Slater, and Wright (1998) state that "Relatively little is known about the process of institutional agenda setting or the role communication plays in creating this shared reality. . .little is known about how organization members come to know the goals of their organizations or the impact those goals might have. . ."(p. 220).

Jack Welch of GE attempted to share corporate values throughout the organization and discovered that meanings are not found in the words used to convey them but are created through practice. Dialogue about the vision was a critical element that would allow both middle managers and employees to create a shared sense of impending change. According to a Welch memo that underscores the importance of participation in producing employee commitment to a proposed change, ". . .one-time announcement/discussion will not achieve intended results. . .the objective is to have every person in this company be

exposed to and have a dialogue on the corporate operating objective. . .” (Tichy, 1993).

Participation and Factors of Age/Gender

Kahnweiler and Thompson (2000) studied the responses of 826 non-management employees in 55 organizations with the instrument they designed. Their two-page survey used 27 questions that elicited responses on the desired levels of participation—they refer to these as “wants”—and the actual levels of participation—referred to as “asks.” They assessed types of decisions ranging from the pace of work to personnel issues and organizational policy decisions. The results indicated that gender is not a factor in how much employees desire to be involved nor in how much they are asked. However, the demographic analyses showed that age had a significant effect on the participants’ desire for involvement in decisions about organizational issues. The study concluded that both groups of younger and older employees generally did not want to be involved in decisions as much as the middle-aged group of 25- to 48-year olds. Age, however, was not found to be a factor in how much employees were asked to be involved. The Kahnweiler and Thompson survey instrument will be further discussed in Chapter III.

Participation’s Influence in Strategic Change

Lines (2004) assessed the outcomes of participation in strategic change initiatives using data from a major reorientation of a large national telecommunications firm with 17,000 employees. He used a stratified sampling procedure to contact 250 managers to solicit participation in the study. The

survey questions were designed to compare post-change organizational commitment with pre-change commitments. The findings showed a strong positive relationship between participation and goal achievement and organizational commitment. A strong negative relationship to change resistance was also reported. Results from this study suggest that the effects of participation can be moderated by the changes' compatibility with the culture and the personal goals of the employees (p. 193). Conclusions from Lines' (2004) study are ". . .that the use of participation seems to be related to successful implementation of strategic change" (p. 209).

Sagie and Koslowski (1994) found that employee participation in tactical decisions was a better predictor of change acceptance than participation in strategic decisions. The research of Lines (2004) concurs with the Sagie and Koslowski findings because it indicates that the effects of participation are stronger when the change has to do with increasing efficiency levels within an organization. Both studies support employee participation in change initiatives and strongly recommend that managers allow broad involvement of their organizational members who are affected by a change initiative.

Transforming Communication Practices

According to Bolman and Deal, communications in organizations are rarely candid, open, or timely (1997). Bennis, Chin, and Benne (1985) cite a study of 90 outstanding organizational leaders who identified four common traits shared by all, two of the traits are directly related to communication ability. They refer to the first trait as the management of attention—the ability to communicate

a sense of outcome that attracts followers to participate. The second trait identified by Bennis, et al. (1985) is the management of meaning—the ability to create a common goal. Related to the findings in a Bennis (1989) study, Deal (1982) found earlier that peer group consensus is a major influence in the acceptance and cooperation in change implementation.

Participation and Change Implementation

Researchers have used case studies to look for change implementation strategies. Case studies conducted by Argyris (1970), Schon (1983), and Nutt (1986) have contributed to the body of literature that support Hypothesis 2. Based on field studies of managers attempting to make changes, Nutt (1986) identified planned change implementation tactics through 91 case studies of managers. The research of Nutt (1986) looked at both persuasion and participation as managerial tactics used in implementing planned change. His research found that both the persuasion and participation tactics used in implementation of change had 75 percent success rates, but that participation had a low frequency of use rate. Even so, Nutt states that "implementation research has provided valuable guidance and identified pitfalls and opportunities, but has provided few insights into how managers carry out implementation" (p. 232).

Nutt (1986) classified the cases he studied as participative if the task forces had the authority to carry out one or more stages of a process and their actions could not be vetoed by a leader. Nutt found that the comprehensive participation calling for delegation of development to fully representative task

forces had the greatest potential for commitment to the change. He compared this approach to Likert's (1967) System 4 that creates commitment to such a level that successful implementation is likely. The study described in this prospectus is seeking to measure a community college employee's perceived participation levels in a change effort and his/her response to change in general.

In discussing Lewin's (1947) theory of analysis of change, Weisbord (1987) questioned the first phase of "unfreezing" for he felt that management cannot suddenly decide to "unfreeze" a situation or process and expect movement toward change. However, Weisbord found that all issues regarding change seem to be addressed through practicing effective, continuous communication and participation. ". . . involving those most affected leads to better solutions and quicker action. Yet participative techniques . . .are useless in the absence of leadership and purposeful goals" (Weisbord, 1987, p. 17). The existing body of literature contributed to by both Weisbord's (1987) and Lewin's (1947) research underscore this author's second hypothesis which is listed at the end of this section.

Additional research by Hutchison (1997) on employee involvement in the decision-making processes led him to conclude that "job design that clearly identifies an employee's roles and responsibilities, and involves the employee. . .should serve as an expression of the organization's concern for the employee's well-being and contribution to the organization" (p. 166). In turn the organization should see an increased commitment from the employee and a willingness to exert greater effort to the accomplishment of the organization's goals. According

to Hutchison (1997), this then will lead to actions by that organization that will result in more employee involvement in the decision-making process. This research indicates a correlational relationship between active participation and organizational commitment.

By allowing employees the opportunity to participate in the decision to adopt the change, Kotter & Schlesinger (1979) and Klein and Sorra (1996) maintain that act may render employees' attitudes more favorable to the change. Research by Wanberg and Banas (2000) found that among other context-specific variables, participation in the change decision process was a predictor of higher levels of employee openness to organizational changes. Wanous, Reichers, and Austin (2000) found:

> First, the more employees are involved directly in the change process itself, the less they will make dispositional attributions because there is no *they* to blame. Second, the less employees are surprised by management actions and the more they understand the reasons for the actions, the more they will see things from the management perspective (p. 150).

The challenge for the community college, or any organization for that matter, is to create the conditions that will increase receptivity to and the resulting implementation of the change. A review of the literature on employees' participation in their organizations leads to the assumption that involving those to be affected by an organizational strategic change in the planning and design of the change contributes to their being less resistant and more inclined to exhibit a higher level of support for the proposed change. Individuals in a community

college who participate in the creating, planning, and implementing of the change will be more open to it and less likely to show resistance.

Hypothesis 2:

Participation in change initiatives in a community college environment will be negatively related to resistance to change.

Perceived Organizational Support and Organizational Commitment

Perceived organizational support (POS) refers to an employee's global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values his/her contributions and cares about his/her well-being (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). Organizational commitment is a psychological link between the employee and his or her organization that results in an attachment to the organization that makes an employee want to remain with the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1996). According to Fuller, Barnett, Hester, and Relyea (2003), research consistently shows a positive relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational commitment where commitment serves as an exchange commodity. The theory states that people are likely to become committed to an organization when they feel this is reciprocated—the organization is committed to them.

Gouldner (1960) views reciprocity as a moral norm that is one of the universal "principal components of moral codes" (p. 161). Gouldner sees the stability of a social system as being dependent on reciprocity as exchange and goes so far as to say "A norm of reciprocity is, I suspect, no less universal and

important an element of culture than the incest taboo, although, similarly, its concrete formulations may vary with time and place" (p. 171).

Employees exchange their loyalty and effort for material and social rewards. According to Hutchison (1997) "Employees' perceptions of support from the organization serve as the link between actions taken by the organization and action as taken by the employee" (p. 169). Worley et al. (1999) state that "Perception is a powerful force, but is often overlooked at the organizational level" (p. 1). Both the organizational support and the organizational commitment literature focus on social exchange theory, interpretations of employer-employee relationships, and the norms of reciprocity (Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch, 1998; Fuller et. al, 2003).

POS Theory

According to organizational support theory, employees form a general perception concerning the extent to which their employer values their contributions and cares about their well-being. Based on social exchange theory that seeks to explain human relationships in terms of rewards and costs (Homans, 1992), organizational support theory presupposes that the receipt of benefits incurs an obligation to repay the donor; in this case, the employee's organization. "Contributing to this exchange process may be the norm of reciprocity, which holds that the receipt of benefits incurs an obligation to repay the donor" (Armeli et al., 1998).

Workers trade effort and loyalty to their organization for such tangible incentives as pay and fringe benefits and such socioemotional benefits as

esteem, approval, and caring (Armeli et al., 1998; & Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). Research by Levinson in 1965 suggests that employees view the actions taken by representatives of the organization as representative of the actions of the organization itself—a personification of the organization (Levinson). ". . .the development of POS is encouraged by employees' tendency to assign the organization human like characteristics" (Eisenberger et al., 1986, p. 698). Employees then use this personification to determine whether their favorable or unfavorable treatment is an indication that the organization favors or disfavors them (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). To the extent that employees perceive that the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being, they will reciprocate with increased commitment, loyalty, and performance.

Armeli et al. (1998) surveyed police patrol officers to determine how the strength of socioemotional needs affects the relationship between POS and work performance. Their findings were consistent with social exchange theory as they found that POS fulfilled a variety of socioemotional needs such as the need for praise and recognition, the need for affiliation, and the need for consolation and sympathy when experiencing distress. Lynch, Eisenberger, and Armeli (1999) investigated the moderating effect of POS on the relationship of employees' fear of exploitation in exchange relationships and found that in deciding how much energy they would put into their work effort, employees considered how much the organization valued their contributions and acted according to that perception.

Reciprocation Wariness

In the current day media, much publicity has been given to reductions in workforce and employee benefits. This awareness of the proliferation of company closings, downsizings, and restructurings has led many employees to believe that they are not held in high regard by their organizations and that their interests are largely ignored. These negative perceptions of organizational behavior in general often affect the employee-employer exchange relationship in that employees may be less motivated to exceed minimal standards or to help the organization in ways beyond the scope of a specific job description (Lynch et al., 1999).

Eisenberger, Cotterell, and Marvel (1987) identified this generalized cautiousness in reciprocating because of fear of exploitation as *reciprocation wariness*. According to their research, wary individuals will be hesitant to provide aid or contribute a great deal until they are convinced that the other party—in this case the organization—can be counted on to act responsibly toward them in return. ". . .wary employees may be reluctant to invest their efforts beyond what their job explicitly requires unless convinced the employer is committed to a strong exchange relationship" (Lynch et al., 1999).

The literature on POS points to the conclusion that employees who perceive that they and their contributions are valued by their organizations are obligated based on the norm of reciprocity to increase their commitment to organizational goals. The 1990 Eisenberger et al. study of private high school teachers looked at POS as it relates to employee diligence, commitment, and

innovation and found POS to be positively related to job attendance among those who expressed a strong acceptance of the reciprocity norm—trading work effort for organizational rewards. Their study hypothesizes that ". . .innovation and spontaneous problem solving may additionally be associated with perceived support" (p. 52). This study also found that in addition to other work-related outcomes, POS was positively related to employees' making constructive suggestions for improving the operations of the organization (Eisenberger et. al., 1990). The positive findings from the Eisenberger et. al (1990) research between POS and an employees' willingness to participate in change suggestions are particularly relevant to the study proposed in Chapter III.

Organizational Commitment Theory

Early research on organizational commitment defined the concept as an individual's belief in and acceptance of organizational goals and values coupled with a willingness to exert effort toward accomplishing those goals. This then led an employee to a strong desire to continue organizational membership. The emphasis was on the bargaining or exchange relationships between employees and their organization with a greater commitment to the system resulting from the participant favorably viewing the exchange (Hrebinak & Alutto, 1972; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974).

Later research moved toward restricting this definition to the attachment resulting from, or based on, an employee's compliance driven by rewards and punishments, identification/affiliation with the organization, and internalization of one's values with the goals of the organization (Hunt & Morgan, 1994). An

important finding from the research of Hunt and Morgan was that organizations benefit from employees' developing commitment to specific constituencies within the organizations.

Contemporary interest in studying organizational commitment ". . .has been stimulated largely by its demonstrated negative relation to turnover" (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989, p. 152). Because employee turnover can be a tremendous expense to employers, there is much interest in creating organizational cultures that foster commitment thereby reducing turnover.

Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) recognized the dramatic increase in interest in the concept of organizational commitment when they wrote ". . .but also commitment is often included as a variable in studies where it is not the primary focus of attention" (p. 538). Lau and Woodman (1995) researched levels of organizational commitment and found that one who is committed to an organization is one who accepts its values and will exert effort on its behalf. Particularly relevant to the study proposed herein was their suggestion that this employee might more readily identify, accept, and support organizational change initiatives that are perceived as beneficial.

The 1990 Eisenberger et al. study on organizational commitment found evidence of ". . .innovation on behalf of the organization in the absence of anticipated direct reward or personal recognition" (p. 51). The finding in this study is also relevant to the study proposed in this prospectus since the author is attempting to measure the relationships of communication, participation in the

change effort, POS, and organizational commitment as they affect a community college employee's openness to a change initiative.

Components of Commitment

Allen and Meyer (1990) reported on two studies that were conducted to test the aspects of a three-component model of commitment. The various conceptualizations of organizational commitment represented in the model were affective, continuance, and normative—each component completely differentiated from the other two components. Affective organizational commitment refers to an employee's emotional attachment to and identification with an organization. Continuance organizational commitment is described as commitment based on the costs that an employee associates with leaving the organization. The last component, normative organizational commitment, refers to an employee's feeling of obligation to stay with the organization. Allen and Meyer (1990) suggest that "Given their conceptual differences, it seems reasonable to suggest that each of the three components of commitment develop somewhat independently of the others as a function of different antecedents" (p. 4). Consequently, Allen and Meyer developed independent measures of the three distinct psychological states. Their instrument designed to assess affective organizational commitment found that affectively committed employees displayed a sense of belonging and identification that resulted in increased involvement in the organization's activities as well as a willingness to pursue the organization's goals. Since organizational goals can, in many instances, represent change initiatives, it would seem then that the variable of affective commitment presents

an aspect of change resistance worthy of inclusion in the study conducted for this dissertation. However, neither the continuance organizational commitment component that measures what it costs an organization when an employee decides to leave nor the component of normative organizational commitment that seeks to assess an employee's obligation to stay within the organization are relevant to the focus of the dissertation study; consequently they were not included in the survey instrument.

Causal Relationship between POSand Affective Commitment

Organizational support theory purports that perceived organizational support increases affective commitment because it helps to create an obligation to care about the organization's welfare (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001). Rhoades, Eisenberger, and Armeli (2001) found POS and affective commitment to have similar antecedents and consequences. They state that "Although POS is often assumed to contribute to AC, the two constructs have been measured simultaneously so that the direction of causality is uncertain" (p. 825). As a result, part of their(Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001) study sought to define the relationship of POS to affective commitment in order to determine the causal direction of the association between the two variables. Their findings over 2-year and 3-year periods were that POS was positively related to changes in affective commitment over time, providing evidence that POS contributes to affective commitment. According to Rhoades et. al (2001), "The results supplement prior findings involving the simultaneous assessment of POS and AC that left the association's causal direction

indeterminate" (p. 834). They found no evidence that affective commitment leads to POS and thus determined that affective commitment was unrelated to temporal changes in perceived organizational support thereby establishing a uni-directional relationship from POS to affective commitment. Even so Rhoades et al. (2001) state:

> On theoretical grounds, one might argue that the relationship between POS and AC should be bidirectional. Employees with high AC may be more likely than others to believe that favorable treatment reflects the organization's benevolent intent rather than external constraints, thereby increasing POS" (p. 834).

A second study conducted by Rhoades, Eisenberger, and Armeli (2001) provided evidence contrary to the theoretical assertion that the relationship between POS and AC is bidirectional. Their research findings were consistent with organizational support theory in general as well as with other social exchange theories that state that employees will reciprocate treatment that they view favorably with an increased commitment to an organization's and its goals. ". . .POS appears to establish a context in which felt obligation becomes integrated into a favorably experienced relationship with the organization" (p. 834).

Although a variety of rewards and job conditions have been studied in relation to POS and organizational commitment, there appears to be little research, especially in the context of a community college that directly focuses on the relationship of these two variables and one's willingness to accept or

resist organizational change (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Current literature seems to support a uni-directional over a bi-directional relationship between the variables of perceived organizational support and affective commitment. The model discussed in Chapter III will reflect the uni-directional relationship.

Based on the literature discussed in this section, the author predicts that in a community college setting: 1) those individuals with a higher level of perceived organizational support will score lower on the resistance to change measurement; and, 2) those individuals with a higher level of affective organizational commitment will also score lower on the resistance to change measurement.

Hypothesis 3:

Perception of organizational support in a community college environment will be negatively related to resistance to change.

Hypothesis 4:

Affective organizational commitmentin a community college environment will be negatively related to resistance to change.

Summary of Variables

Below is a summary of the four predictorvariables and their hypothesized relationships to the criterion variable, resistance to change.

	Predictor variable	**Relationship to resistance to change**
H1	Perception of open communication	Negative
H2	Participation in change initiative	Negative
H3	Perception of organizational support	Negative
H4	Affective organizational commitment	Negative

According to Piderit (2000), change leaders who seek to ". . .understand the full range of individual responses to proposed organizational changes should assess those responses along multiple dimensions" (p. 791). Studies that have focused on relationships between some of the variables listed above do exist in the literature. However, no studies were found that specifically address how all of these relate to each other in a community college context. Chapter III will describe a multi-variable study that seeks to address this.

Chapter III

Methods

A correlational research design was used to examine the relationships between the variables discussed in the preceding literature review section. The path model (seeFigure 2) depicts the hypothesizedstructure and interaction of the relationships between the variables of participation, perceived organizational support, affective organizational commitment, communication, and resistance to change. The model shows a hypothesized bi-directional relationship between the variables of communication, participation, and perceived organizational support with a uni-directional relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational commitment as described in Chapter II. This model seeks to provide an explanation of the interrelationships between the four predictor variables ofcommuni cation, participation, perceived organizational support, and affective organizational commitment and their effect on the criterion variable, resistance to change, as well as their interactivity with each other in the context of a single, multi-campus community college—Tulsa Community College.

Setting

The research methodology for this study was quantitative and involved individual employees—faculty, staff, and administrators—from the largest community college in Oklahoma, Tulsa Community College. TCC annually serves approximately 30,000 credit and non-credit students and ranks in the top three in the number of first-time freshmen among all Oklahoma state colleges and universities. TCC is an institutional member of the Consortium for

Community College Development and has been selected for participation in the Strategic Horizons Network Project. FourteenU.S. community colleges have been asked to participate in the Strategic Horizons Network. The network has several purposes—to develop leadership in all positions of the network members, to encourage new ways of thinking and acting for community college leaders so as to move their institutions to higher levels of functioning, and to increase the network member institutions' capacity to reach their strategic goals. Over a three- to four-year period, the network colleges will be given opportunities to draw from the strengths of the other members with the goal that they (the network colleges) will reach a state of functioning that allows them to capitalize on these strengths in such a way that they are taken to a higher level of development.

In the fall of 2003, several community colleges were given the opportunity by the Consortium for Community College Development to participate in creating a Strategic Horizon document for their institutions. The purpose of the document is to identify through focus group discussions with internal and external stakeholders, through institutional self-analysis, and through a three-day on-site visit from the project founders five principal activities that contribute to constructing a Strategic Horizon for each of the participating institutions. The activities are: 1) an analysis of opportunity—the colleges identify real and potential development opportunities; 2) an institutional capability analysis—the colleges determine their capacity to create and pursue opportunities by analyzing their strengths, competencies, capabilities, weaknesses, and resources; 3) an

analysis of value—each college determines its current value to its stakeholders and its potential value given optimal functioning; 4) a determination of a Strategic Horizon—participating colleges identify their optimal position in their current markets, and 5) a design for change—each college identifies changes and change processes that would strengthen its capacity to achieve its strategic horizon. Upon completion of the Strategic Horizon document, schools were then selected to participate in the Strategic Horizon Network.

Tulsa Community Collegewas the focus of this study because, as a member of the Strategic Horizons Network, the College represents institutions that are seeking to move beyond conventional approaches by committing to new ways of doing business; consequently, a network school should be experiencing significant change that potentially affects all employees. Also, as a network school, TCC has made an institutional commitment to analysis and development Their commitment to institutional growth and change and the resulting employee reactions to it will provide a solid source of data that can be used for the College's improvement and also by other community colleges seeking to understand the dimension of change resistance within their own institutions.

Participants

The researcher received permission from the college president to study the institution's employees. The Human Resources Department provided a list of potential participants from the ranks of full-time faculty, middle- and upper-level administrators, and classified staff so that individualparticipants for the study could be selected by means of a random sample. Position, denoting an

individual's hierarchical level within the institution, age, and tenure were used as control variables. TCC's full-time employee base of 868 is large enough to provide a broad range of ages, tenure, and positions. In response to a request from the college's president, it was determined to sample approximately half of the employees. As a result, 425 participants were solicited.

Data Collection

The single survey instrument that was used (see Appendix D) collected data from the sample of respondents at one point in time. The researcher contacted potential participants electronically through e-mail to explain the rationale for the study and to invite them to respond. (See Appendix D.) An estimated length of time for completion of the survey and contact information for the investigator, the faculty sponsor, and the Institutional Review Board at the University of Oklahoma-Norman Campus were also included. In addition, the e-mail provided a statement assuring participants that they did not have to participate and that the individual responses of those who did would be kept confidential. The e-mail contained a link to the instrument that was set up using ZIP survey software. Once linked to the survey site, participants were shown a "Consent to Participation" statement (see Appendix D) that they were required to read and either accept or reject before proceeding to the actual survey. Responses were collected electronically using the specialized software to create a raw data file that was housed on a server external to the College. The raw data were analyzed using SPSS statistical software. The questionnaire is composed of a total of 94 items to measure the variables and designed for the

ease of the respondents. The survey instrument also gathered basic demographic data.

Measures—Predictor Variables

Each of four predictor variables representing relevant organizational factors—open communication, perceived organizational support, organizational commitment, and participation—and the criterion variable, resistance to change, were measured using standardized Likert-type response scale questions dedicated to each of the factors. The response scale for these independent variables ranges from 1 = “strongly disagree” to 7= “strongly agree.” The individual’s position—administrator, faculty, or classified staff—within the organization was reported as one of the background characteristics of the participants along with age, gender, and number of years in the organization.

Perceived Organizational Support

The predictorvariable, perceived organizational support was measured using the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The Survey of Perceived Organizational Support is a measure devised by Robert Eisenberger and his associates based on their comprehensive research that has found that perceived organizational support is assumed to increase an employee’s affective attachment to an organization. Their findings support the social exchange view that an employee’s commitment to an organization is influenced by his/her perception of the organization’s commitment back. Eisenberger et al. (1986) theorize that this perceived support from the organization results in an increase in the employee’s attachment to the

organization and his/her expectancy that greater effort toward meeting institutional goals will be rewarded. A reliability and item analysis was performed on the 36-item POS survey resulting in a reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) of .97, with item-total correlations ranging from .42 to 83. The mean and median item-total correlations were .67 and .66, respectively. Eisenberger et al. reported that every one of the 36 items showed a strong loading on the main factor, with minimal evidence for the existence of other factors. According to Eisenberger et al. (1986), "The substantial factor loading of each statement and the high proportions of relative variance and total variance accounted for are notable since the items were constructed to include a wide variety of ascribed organizational attitudes and possible actions relevant to employees' interests" (p. 503). The Cronbach's Alpha for this study was $\alpha = .90$. Items labeled 4 through 39 on the survey instrument measure perceived organizational support (see Appendix A). A high score on this scale would indicate that an employee perceived that the college was supportive and valued the employee's contribution.

Organizational Commitment

Allen and Meyer (1990) developed measures for the three components of organizational commitment—affective, normative, and continuance—and found them to yield scores that are relatively independent and to be psychometrically sound as far as reliability (Meyer, Allen, & Gellatly, 1990) and factor structure. In each measure, commitment denotes a psychological state that binds an individual to the organization. The seven-item Affective Commitment Scale was

used to measure affective organizational commitment. Cronbach's Alpha on this study was α = .83. Items labeled 91through 97 on the survey instrument measure affective organizational commitment (see Appendix D).

Open Communication

The predictorvariable, open communication, was examined using six questions created by Seashore, Lawler, Mirvis, and Cammann (1983) that assess the degree to which communication flows freely between coworkers, and between supervisors and subordinates. The reliability coefficient reported from other studies (Worley et. al, 1999) using this study is α = .84. The reliability of scores on the open communication questions from this study was α = .83. Items labeled 58 through 63 on the survey instrument measure open communication (see AppendixD). On the communication questions, a high score would indicate that an employee felt that he/she was able to freely register opinions and that communication within the organization was open.

Participation

The instrument measured active participation in the organization (see Appendix A) using 27 items developed by Kahnweiler and Thompson (2000). These items assess whether an employee is "asked" for opinions/input regarding various non-coworker issues and decisions and also if an employee "wants" or desires to have input—referring to how much an employee wants to be asked about these issues. Cronbach's alphas for factors of participation in decision making and relevant survey items on the original study ranged from .75 to .89 (Thompson & Kahnweiler, 2002). For this study, the reliability showed α = .90.

Items labeled 64 through 90 on the survey instrument measure organizational participation (see Appendix D).

Measures—Criterion/Outcome Variable

The dimension of resistance to change was assessed as the criterion variable in the study and was measured using the Resistance to Change Scale developed by Shaul Oreg (2003). Designed to measure an individual's dispositional inclination to resist change and to predict reactions to change, Oreg used seven different studies to validate the scale's ability ". . .to account for the individual-difference component of resistance to change and to predict reactions to specific change" (p. 680). His results indicated a sub-scale structure with four facets that measure one's disposition to resist change: routine seeking, emotional reaction to imposed change, short-term focus, and cognitive rigidity. He reported structure coefficients for the items that range from .668 to .829. The total scale's reliability coefficient alpha (Cronbach's) was .92. Items labeled 40 through 57on the questionnaire will measure the individual's level of resistance to change. The Cronbach's Alpha for the items created to measure resistance to change overall was $\alpha = .87$.

More specifically, items labeled 37 through 40 measure one's emotional reaction by asking questions such as "When things don't go according to plans, it stresses me out," and "When I am informed of a change of plans, I tense up a bit" (Oreg, 2003, p. 681), On this study, these items registered a coefficient alpha (Cronbach's) of .77. Items 41 through 45 measure routine seeking behavior. These items pertain to how much an employee incorporates routines into his/her

life. The routine-seeking items had a coefficient alpha of .82. Items 46 through 50 measure one's level of short-term thinking with the focus on the perceived immediate inconvenience or negative effects of a change. The Cronbach's Alpha was .79 on the short-term questions. Items 51 through 54 measure an individual's cognitive rigidity which Oreg describes as dogmatism or one's unwillingness to adjust to new situations (p. 681). The coefficient alpha (Cronbach's) was .66.

The research described in this dissertation is intended to focus on general resistance to change tendencies exhibited by full-time personnel at a community college rather than on their reactions to specific change initiatives; consequently, Oreg's four-factor sub-scale instrument was chosen for its ability to assess the dispositional component of change resistance. According to Oreg (2003), "The fact that the scale, which was not tailored to correspond to any specific type of change, predicted resistance behavior across a variety of settings, demonstrates its value in explaining resistances above and beyond any contextual causes" (p. 690).

Data Analysis

A conceptual path analysis was drawn (see Figure 1) to provide a graphical depiction of the relationships among the variables. A set of regression analyses were then run to estimate the contribution of each of the predictor variables to the criterion variable, resistance to change. Since some of these organizational variables were predicted to mediate the effects of the others or to moderate one another, the findings of the study should help to explain how each

contributes to an employee's resistance to change and also how each is related to the others. The continuous variables of age and tenure were analyzed using frequencies, means, and standard deviations. An employee's hierarchy within the organization serves as a demographic grouping variable based on his/her position and is identified in the background questions on the survey instrument. The three classifications of hierarchy that were used are administration, faculty, and classified staff. The descriptive statistics that list the demographics of participants are discussed and analyzed in Chapter IV and the appropriate tables appear in Appendix B.

Limitations of the Study

Data was gathered in a single organization context. Since the study was conducted on faculty, classified staff, and administration at only one large community college, questions remain as to the generalizability of the data to other community college settings. Drawing conclusions will require considerable caution because as stated by Gay and Airasian (2000), "Due to lack of randomization, manipulation, and control factors, it is difficult to establish cause-effect relationships with any great degree of confidence. The cause-effect relationship may in fact be the reverse of the one hypothesized. . .or there may be a third factor which is the 'real' underlying cause of both the independent and dependent variables" (p. 356). In addition, according to Babbie (1999), "Although it is (path analysis) an excellent way of handling complex causal chains and networks of variables, you must realize that path analysis itself does not tell the causal order of the variables" (p. 379). The researcher determines

the structure of the relationships in constructing the model. Computer analysis will merely calculate the path coefficients that apply to that structure (Babbie, 1999).

Another possible limitation could stem from the very nature of the College that served as the subject of the study. Tulsa Community College, as a Strategic Horizon Network school, hasalready indicated a predisposition toward affecting great change and to using shared leadership principles; consequently, other variables such as institutional culture, climate, past history with change efforts—even institutional size—may contribute to making cross-situational comparisons less meaningful, especially to schools not participating in the network project. The researcher must be aware of possible alternative hypotheses and be prepared to present evidence that they aren't in fact the true explanation for what is being investigated (Gay & Airasian, 2000).

Conclusions

The study uses the conceptual framework presented in this chapter as a guide to the research. It is hoped that the resultant findings from the study will assist community college leaders in more clearly defining those organizational dimensions that affect an employee's level of change resistance and in determining how to best present change initiatives within their institutions so as to reduce resistance, ensure acceptance and encourage implementation. The remaining chapters will discuss the methodology of the study, analyze the results, and present conclusions.

Chapter IV

Presentation and Analysis of Data

Chapter III provided an overview of the methodology for the study and described the participants, instrumentation, and actual methods for collection of data. This chapter presents the results of the study in the following order: description of the sample population; a profile of the participants in the study; descriptive statistics for the criterion variable—resistance to change—and the four predictor variables—organizational communication, active participation in the organization, perceived organizational support, and affective organizational commitment; correlation analysis among predictors, and multiple regression analysis. Charts and tables can be found in Appendices B and C.

Sample Population

Individual perceptions of the five variables were sought from 425 randomly selected full-time faculty, staff, and administration at Tulsa Community College through an electronic questionnaire. Participants identified their length of employment with the College, their gender, age, and position—faculty, staff, or administration. Two hundred and eighty three employees responded (N = 283) to the survey giving a response rate of 67 percent. Twenty-five responses were only partially completed so the responses from those questionnaires were not included in the analyses resulting in 61 percent (N = 258) useable questionnaires.

Profile of Participants

Respondents were asked to identify their gender, age, length of service with the college, and their employment classification—faculty, staff, or administration. Respondents were female (69 percent) and male (31 percent). The sample population is close to the TCC population gender statistic of 63 percent female and 37 percent male. Although the instrument asked respondents to self-report their gender, response results by gender are not a focus of this particular study.

The 283 respondents ranged in age from 21 to 72 and were grouped into age categories of: from 21 to 35 (13 percent); 36 to 50 (34 percent), and 51 to 72 (47 percent). The TCC population by age is also very close to the sample population. The current age statistics for TCC are: 16 percent in the 21 to 35 group; 35 percent in the 36 to 50 group, and 49 percent in the 51 to 72 group. The number of years employed by the college showed 55 percent of the respondents with fewer than 10 years; 38 percent with between 11 and 25 years, and 7 percent with over 26 years. This compares consistently with figures for the entire TCC full-time population when categorized by number of years employed with the institution: 1 to 10 years, 58 percent; 11 to 25 years, 30 percent, and over 26 years 10 percent. As to classification of the employees within the TCC hierarchy, 47 percent were staff members; 40 percent faculty, and 13 percent administration. The sample population classified by position was also consistent with current TCC demographics that are: 50 percent staff; 32 percent faculty, and 18 percent administration. The 102 faculty members who responded

represent approximately 36 percent of TCC's entire full-time faculty. (See Appendix B.)

Measures

The survey used in the study has 94 items and is a compilation of five different published survey instruments, each designed to measure one of the variables of the study. (See Appendix D.) The four predictorvariables and the criterion variable in the study were measured by gathering responses usingthe single measurement instrument. Perceived organizational support was measured using 36 items (Items #4-39) from the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support devised by Robert Eisenberger and his associates in 1986.

Resistance to change was measured by 18 questions (Items #40-57) from the Resistance to Change Scale developed by Shaul Oreg in 2003. Oreg conducted exploratory analyses of the 18 questions that indicated four reliable sub-scales—routine seeking, emotional reaction to imposed change, cognitive rigidity, and short-term focus (Oreg, 2003). Items labeled 40 through 43 measure one's emotional reaction; items 44 through 48measure routine seeking behavior; items 49through 5 3 measure one's level of short-term thinking, and items 54 through 57 measure an individual's cognitive rigidity which Oreg describes as dogmatism or one's unwillingness to adjust to new situations (p. 681).

Six questions (Items #58-63) developed by Seashore, Lawler, Mirvis and Cammann in 1983 were used to measure open communication. Organizational

participation was measured with 27 items (Items #64-90) from Kahnweiler and Thompson's Participation Survey developed in 2000. Levels of affective organizational commitment were measured with seven questions (Items #91-97) developed by Allen and Meyer in 1990.

Frequency distributions, means, and standard deviations were employed to analyze the responses to all the items on the survey instrument. Multiple regression analysis and correlation coefficients were utilized to study the relationships among the four predictor variables and the criterion variable. The data were analyzed using the SPSS statistical package and Microsoft Excel software. A complete reporting of the frequencies and descriptive statistics for each of the demographic variables can be found in Tables 1 and 2 in Appendix B.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics were compiled from each survey question. This section summarizes the main findings of those statistics for the criterion variable and the four predictor variables. The survey used a seven-point Likert Scale with 4.0 being the midpoint. A summary table of the means and standard deviations for each variable is in Appendix C.

Resistance to change. The mean and standard deviations for the sample population on the 18 items that measured resistance to change were: M = 3.40, SD = .76. On the total scale resistance to change items, the scores ranged from a low of 1.56 for the group employed from 16 to 20 years to a high of 5.50 for the same group employed 11 to 15 years. Resulting means and standard deviations

were: 1 to 5 years—M = 3.30, SD = .72; 6 to 10 years—M = 3.52, SD .65; 11 to 15 years—M = 3.24, SD .81; 16 to 20 years—M = 3.66, SD .84; 21 to 25 years—M = 3.26, SD = .77; 26 to 30 years—M = 3.29, SD = .92, and 31 to 36 years—M = 3.36, SD = 1.03. The range of scores for employment classification groups was from 1.56 for faculty employees to 5.33 for staff employees. Analysis by employment classification gave scores from staff employees of M = 3.38, SD = .74; faculty employees—M = 3.43; SD = .83, and administrative employees—M = 3.35, SD = .62. The scores for responses grouped by age ranged from a minimum of 1.56 shown in the 51 to 72 age group to a maximum of 5.50 for those aged 36 to 50. Responses to the overall resistance to change items analyzed according to the employee's age resulted in the 21- to 35-year age group—M = 3.34, SD = .73; 36 to 50 years—M =3.39, SD = .73; and the 51 to 72 year group—M = 3.42, SD .79. (See Appendix C, Figure 4.)

Resistance to change subscales. When separated out by each of the four subscales on the resistance to change questions for the entire sample population, emotional reaction had a range of scores from 1.00 to 6.25, M = 3.85, SD = 1.12; routine seeking ranged from 1.00 to 6.60, M = 2.97, SD = 1.01; short-term thinking ranged from 1.00 to 5.80, M = 2.97, SD = .99, and cognitive rigidity from 2.00 to 6.75, M = 4.02, SD = .95 Analysis by descriptive category shows the high score of 6.25 on the emotional reaction subscale occurring in both the 21- to 35-year old and the 51- to 72-year old age groups. By position, both faculty and staff scored the high (6.25) and the low (1.00); by tenure, those

employed 1 to 5 years and 16 to 20 years registered the low score (1.00), with those employed 6 – 10 and 11-15 years scoring the high of 6.25.

Routine seeking scores were highest (6.60) for the 36- to 50-year old group and lowest (1.00) in the 36- to 50- and the 51- to 72-year old groups. Position scores on the routine seeking subscales were highest (6.60) among staff responses and lowest (1.00) in both the staff and faculty groups. Routine seeking scores were highest (6.60) among respondents in employed from 1 to 5 years and lowest (1.00) among respondents employed 11 to 20 years. The highest and the lowest scores by age for the short-term thinking subscale occurred in all three groups.

Position scores for short-term thinking were both highest (5.80) and lowest (1.00) in the staff and faculty groups. Analysis by number of years employed found that respondents in the two groups employed from 6 to 15 years and the group employed from 21 to 25 years registered the highest score of 5.80. The lowest score of 1.00 occurred in the group employed 1 to 5 years.

Cognitive rigidity subscales, when analyzed by age, were highest (6.75) and lowest (2.00) in the same group—the 36- to 50-year olds. By position, the highest score of 6.75 occurred in the faculty group and the lowest score of 2.00 was among the staff respondents. Tenure scores for cognitive rigidity found the highest (6.75) among those employed from 11 to 15 years with the lowest score (2.00) occurring among those with the College from 6 to 10 years. (See Appendix C, Figures 5-8.)

Affective commitment. For all responses on this variable, the scores ranged from 1.43 to 7. The responses to the survey items designed to measure one's affective commitment by number of years at the college ranged from 1.43 to 7.00 with a mean of 5.07 and a standard deviation of 1.23 and with the lowest score of 1.43 occurring in the 1 to 5 year group. The highest score of 7.00 occurred in the five groups representing the 1 to 25 year employees. The means and standard deviations for the age groups were as follows: 1 to 5 years—M = 5.13, SD = 1.23; 6 to 10 years—M = 4.90, SD 1.25; 11 to 15 years—M = 4.64, SD 1.42; 16 to 20 years—M = 5.42, SD .86; 21 to 25 years—M = 5.39, SD = 1.18; 26 to 30 years—M = 5.64, SD = .86, and 31 to 36 years—M = 5.42, SD = .94. Analysis by employee position ranged from a low of 1.43 in the staff group to 7.00 for all three groups. The means and standard deviations from staff employees on the affective commitment questions were 4.94, standard deviation of 1.12; faculty employees—M = 5.23, SD = 1.33, and administrative employees—M = 5.16, SD = 1.20. The range of scores for age responses on the affective commitment items shown by age were from 1.43 (36 to 50 years) to 7.00 (36 to 72 years). Means and standard deviations were: for the 21 to 35-year age group—M = 4.57, SD = 1.21; 36 to 50 years—M = 5.06, SD = 1.17, and the 51 to 72 year group—M = 5.23, SD 1.23. (See Appendix C, Figure 9.)

Organizational communication. Scores on this variable ranged from 1.00 to 7.00 with M = 4.41, SD = 1.21. The lowest score of 1.00 came from those employed from one to five years and the highest score of 7.00 from the same group. Means and standard deviations were as follows: 1 to 5 years—M = 4.56,

SD = 1.31; 6 to 10 years—M = 4.45, SD = 1.11; 11 to 15 years—M = 4.32, SD = 1.16; 16 to 20 years—M = 4.20, SD = 1.07; 21 to 25 years—M = 4.32, SD = . 1.48; 26 to 30 years—M = 4.32, SD = 1.40, and 31 to 36 years—M = 4.57, SD 1.01. Analysis by employment classification scores ranged from 1.00 for staff responses to a high of 7.00 also for staff. Results showed the following scores from staff employees—M = 4.29, SD = 1.21; faculty employees—M = 4.60; SD = .71, and administrative employees—M = 4.36, SD = 1.31. Responses to organizational communication items when analyzed according to the employee's age ranged from a minimum of 1.00 for the 51 to 72 year old group to a maximum of 7.00 for the 21 to 35 year old group. Means and standard deviations resulted in the 21- to 35-year age group—M = 4.47, SD = 1.21; 36 to 50 years—M = 4.23, SD = 1.27, and the 51 to 72 year group—M = 4.52, SD 1.17. (See Appendix C, Figure 10.)

Organizational participation. The scores for this variable showed an overall range of scores from 1.56 to 6.48. The lowest score of 1.56 occurred in responses from those employed from 21 to 25 years tothe highest (6.48) showing for two groups—those employed from 1 to 5 years and from 21 to 25 years. The means and standard deviations on the organizational participation questions when analyzed according to number of years employed resulted in: 1 to 5 years—M = 4.84, SD = .81; 6 to 10 years—M = 4.62, SD = .84; 11 to 15 years—M = 4.55, SD = .71; 16 to 20 years—M = 4.87, SD = .71; 21 to 25 years—M = 4.57, SD = . 1.04; 26 to 30 years—M = 4.23, SD = .76, and 31 to 36 years—M = 4.70, SD .79. Analysis by employment classification ranged from

1.56 for administrative employees to 6.50 for the same group. The results reported as far as the means and standard deviations were: staff employees—M = 4.77, SD = .86; faculty employees—M = 4.61; SD = .71, and administrative employees—M = 4.67, SD = .97. Organizational participation responses by an employee's age ranged from 1.56 for those 51 to 72 to 6.48 for those who fell in the 36 to 72 year groups. The means and standard deviations by age were: 21- to 35-year age group—M = 4.94, SD = .67, 36 to 50 years—M = 4.67, SD = .86, and the 51 to 72 year group—M = 4.64, SD .82 (See Appendix C, Figure 12.)

Perceived organizational support. According to years at the college, responses ranged from a low of 1.25 to a high of 6.47. Those employed the least amount of time (1 to 5 years) reported the highest score with employees with the College from 1 to 5 years also showing the lowest score of 1.25. The following means and standard deviations resulted on the items designed to measure an employee's perception of the college's support: 1 to 5 years—M = 4.86, SD = 1.02; 6 to 10 years—M = 4.58, SD = .87; 11 to 15 years—M = 4.13, SD = .98; 16 to 20 years—M = 4.28, SD = .96; 21 to 25 years—M = 4.32, SD = . 1.16; 26 to 30 years—M = 4.06, SD = 1.07, and 31 to 36 years—M = 4.04, SD .72. Perceived organizational support scores considered by employment classification resulted in a range from 1.25 reported by staff to 6.81 reported by administrative employees. Means and standard deviations were: staff employees—M = 4.40, SD = 1.01; faculty employees—M = 4.57; SD = 1.01, and administrative employees—M = 4.70, SD = 1.03. By ages, the scores on this predictor variable ranged from 1.25 in the 36 to 50 year old group to 6.36 for the same group. Age

group means and standard deviations were: 21- to 35-year age group—M = 4.83, SD = 91: 36 to 50 years —M = 4.45, SD = .99, and the 51 to 72 year group—M = 4.44, SD 1.03. (See Appendix C, Figure 11.)

Correlation Analysis

Tables 3, 4, 5,and 6 in Appendix B report the zero-order correlations among the variables. Table 7 reports the results from regressing the criterion variable, resistance to change, on the four independent variables. Tables 8 - 16 report the reliability statistics for each of the predictor variables, the criterion variable, and the four resistance-to-change subscales. As can been seen from the tables, participation was the only predictorvariable that showed a si gnificant negative correlation to resistance to change as predicted in Hypothesis 2. Correlation coefficients are discussed in the next section. The signs and sizes of the other correlations are statistically insignificant and not consistent with the predictions of Hypotheses 1, 3, and 4.

Regression Analysis

A regression analysis was run with the four predictor variables on the criterion variable. The forward entry procedure was used to build the statistical model. The analysis found that there was no significant correlation between the variable of perceived organizational support and resistance to change; there was no significant correlation between the variable of affective commitment and resistance to change, nor between the variable of open communication and resistance to change. Only one of the predictor variables—organizational participation—emerged as showing a significant negative correlation to the

overall variable of resistance to change (r=-.15, p < .05). (See Appendix B, Table 3.) As hypothesized, employees' feelings of actively participating within the institution were negatively related to their levels of change resistance. Results indicate that the model does not fit the data [F (4, 254)=1.655, p=.161]. (See Appendix B, Table 7.)

Three of the predictor variables—participation, perceived organizational support, and affective commitment—showed a significant correlation with the resistance-to-change subscales. Organizational participation and emotional reaction (r=-.13, p < .05); organizational participation and routine seeking (r =-.18, p < .01), and organizational participation and short-term thinking (r = -.10, p < .05) were negatively correlated as shown in Tables 3 – 6 in Appendix B. In addition, when looking at the resistance-to-change subscales, perceived organizational support correlated negativelywith the routine-seeking subscale (r = .12, p < .05) as shown in Table 6, Appendix B. A positive correlation was shown between the predictor variable, affective commitment, and the cognitive rigidity subscale (r = .11, p < .05).

The study also found strong positive correlations between several of the predictor variables. Organizational communication showed a statistically significant positive correlation with perceived organizational support (r=.60, p < .01); with participation (r=.29, p < .01), and with affective commitment (r=.53, p < .01). Participation showed a statistically significant positive correlation with affective commitment (r=.33, p < .01) and with perceived organizational support (r=.32, p < .01). Affective commitment showed a strong positive

correlation with perceived organizational support ($r=.60$, $p < .01$). (See Appendix B, Tables 3 - 6.)

Chapter Summary

Two-hundred eighty three full-time employees from Tulsa Community College participated in the study. Descriptive statistics, general linear modeling, and correlation coefficients were utilized to analyze the responses.

It was hypothesized that there would be a negative relationship between the criterion variable, resistance to change, and four predictor variables—open communication, participation, perceived organizational support, and affective commitment. A significant negative correlation between participation and resistance to change was found as predicted in Hypothesis 3. Tests of Hypotheses 1, 2, and 4 were inconclusive. Chapter V will conclude the study with a discussion of the findings, conclusions, limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research.

Chapter V

Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Chapter V presents the major conclusions drawn from the results of this study and their implications for community college leaders. The limitations of the study and suggestions for further research in the area of community colleges and change leadership will be discussed.

Discussion

In general, this study investigated the interrelationship between four predictor variables—open communication, active participation, perceived organizational support, and affective commitment—and the criterion variable of resistance to change. Leading and managing change in any twenty-first century organization is challenging; doing so in a large urban community college requires an understanding of not only the external forces impacting the organization but also the internal dynamics that exist among full-time employees thatwill determine the outcome of any change initiative. The current study sought to examine several organizational variables and their impact on the internal dynamics of the College. More specifically, the results discussed in this section are reflective of what is occurring at one large urban community college in the early part of the Millennium. Bombarded by varying types of internal change, from a retirement wave to a new President, from a restructuring of the organization to a shift from a hierarchical model to a shared-governance model, this 36-year old institution is facing a level of change unprecedented in its short history. In addition, various external societal factors mentioned earlier continue

to require internal leadership that can manage discontinuous change. According to Spaid and Parsons (1999), “Elements of this leadership will include adaptiveness, flexibility, responsiveness, and ethical sensitivity.”

Results

Four research questions and four hypotheses were proposed in Chapter II. The specific research questions and hypotheses for this study were: (1) Question: Do community college employees with higher perceived levels of open communication exhibit lower levels of change resistance? Hypothesis: Higher perceived levels of open communication in a community college environment will be negatively related to resistance to change. (2)Question: Do community college employees who feel they are active participants in change initiatives exhibit lower levels of change resistance? Hypothesis: Participation in change initiatives in a community college environment will be negatively related to resistance to change. (3) Question: Do community college employees who perceive they are supported by their organization exhibit lower levels of change resistance? Hypothesis: Perception of organizational support in a community college environment will be negatively related to resistance to change. (4) Question: Do community college employees who demonstrate affective organizational commitment to the college exhibit lower levels of resistance to change? Hypothesis: Affective organizational commitment in a community college environment will be negatively related to resistance to change. Each of the four research questions and their related hypotheses will be discussed in this section in light of study results. Descriptive statistics from the survey items will

be discussed following the examination of each research question and hypothesis.

Research Question 1. When examining the first hypothesis regarding the negative relationship between perceived open communication and resistance to change, the analysis showed no significant correlation between the two variables. Hypothesis 1 was not supported by the results of the study.

The analysis of the descriptive statistics for the variable open communication shows that the older age group (51 to 72 years) had the highest mean score of the three when asked questions designed to assess their perception of open communication in the institution. One hundred thirty-four respondents (52 percent of all respondents) fell into this category. This finding seems to have serious implications for the College as it faces a significant wave of retirements that began in 2004 and is likely to continue for at least the next six years, resulting in the loss of the employees who showed the most favorable responses to the organization's approach to communication. The positive feelings reflected by this group of employees when responding to items such as "In my College, employees say what they really mean," and "We are encouraged to express our concerns openly" was not reported at the same level by those employees in the younger two groups—especially the 36- to 50-year olds who registered the lowest mean score of the three age groups.

Examining the results of the study questions on communication by number of years employed showed that seven of the respondents who have been employed at the College for over 31 years had the highest mean score.

However, a much larger group (142 respondents) representing those with from one to ten years with the College (55 percent)scored the next highest mean score. This would seem to indicate that newer employees, those with fewer years at the institution, tend to feel more open about expressing their views and offering their opinions. The mean score drops considerably when looking at the 97 employees who represent those employed from 11 to 25 years. College leadership should be aware that this is a group where burnout and negativism may be more prevalent as these employees indicated that they felt less encouraged than their colleagues in the other groups to express their concerns openly.

Faculty responses regarding open communication indicated far more favorable feelings toward this variable than those registered by the administration and staff groups. Tulsa Community College was founded in 1970 and since 1980 has had a fairly active and vocal faculty association. The results of the study suggest that this group feels comfortable expressing their views to colleagues and do talk about how they are feeling. The number of responses from the faculty group was 102. On the other hand, the 122 staff who participated in the study scored a considerably lower mean with the administration's mean score falling between the two. Classified staff at TCC has only recently come together to form an association that is to represent their interests at the College. It was not surprising that their scores on open communication reflected feelings of being afraid to express their views as openly as their faculty and administrator coworkers. College leadership will need to

focus on finding ways to open communication at all levels so that all groups engage in open communication and can feel that their opinions are heard.

Research Question 2. The second research question from the study sought to answer: Do community college employees who feel they are active participants in change initiatives exhibit lower levels of change resistance? The most powerful predictor of the study was the variable of participation which resulted in a negative correlation with the overall criterion variable, resistance to change. As predicted in Hypothesis 2 and consistent with the review of the literature, the responses to the study indicated that if employees perceived that they were actively participating in the creation, the planning, and the implementation of change, they would be less likely to show resistance. The finding, although statistically small, seems to indicate the importance for community college leaders to look for ways to involve those to be affected by an organizational strategic change in the planning and design of the change. The hoped for result from engaging employees should mean less resistance and a stronger inclination to exhibit support for the proposed change.

The largest group of respondents to the participation questions fell in the 51- to 72-year old age group (135 respondents). Mean scores for this group and the group below it (89 respondents) were very close and lower than the scores of the youngest group—the 21 to 35 year olds—that had 33 respondents. The questions used to assess levels of participation measured both whether an employee feels he/she is asked and whether he/she wants to be asked for involvement. Apparently TCC's younger employees who participated in the study

feel that their supervisors are asking for their opinions about things like training needs, purchases, organizational goals, and work assignments. The younger group also reported that they want to be asked about organizational matters.

When looking at survey results as far as participation and length of time with the institution, the data is clear. The group that actually had the highest mean score was those employed from 16 to 20 years and the next highest group, from 1 to 5 years. The middle tenure group (16 to 20 years) represents 35 respondents. These employees may have achieved a level of reputation and security with the College that allows them to be asked more frequently and to more freely give their opinions about organizational matters. It is also possible that the fairly new employee represented in the 1 to 5 year group is being asked more often than some of the other groups for their opinions based on having recently "sold" himself/herself to the organization as possessing a needed skill set thus eager to demonstrate his/her knowledge.

In whatappears to be contradictory results, the staff group registered the highest mean score on the items designed to measure participation levels. Their mean score was the lowest on the communication items. A possible explanation for the dichotomy is that the College is currently striving to be more communicative, collaborative, and collegial between the five sites. Therefore, although staff employees may be afraid to express their real views as would be indicated by the lower mean scores on the communication items, current reality at the College is that staff employees are being asked more and more intentionally for their views. At the same time, they remain somewhat reluctant to

communicate openly even though they are participating considerably more. On the other hand, faculty scored the lowest when reporting their feelings about levels of participation. This is not a surprising result given the fact that many of the full-time faculty are at retirement age and are beginning to disengage as they consider leaving the institution.

Research Question 3 and Research Question 4. The third research question asked if individual employees with a higher level of perceived organizational support would score lower on the resistance to change measurement. The fourth research question asked if those individuals who registered a higher level of affective organizational commitment would also score lower on the resistance to change measurement. An examination of the hypothesized negative relationship between perceived organizational support and resistance to change revealed that no statistically significant correlation. The same was true for the hypothesized negative relationship between affective commitment and resistance to change. Neither Hypothesis 3 nor Hypothesis 4 were supported by the study results.

However, as discussed earlier in the literature review in Chapter II, a uni-directional relationship has been found from perceived organizational support to affective commitment (Armeli et. al, 1998; Fuller et. al, 2003). Because of the close relationship between these two variables, the descriptive statistics for perceived organizational support and affective commitment will be discussed together in the next section.

The analysis of the descriptive statistics for these variables showed that the youngest group of respondents—those aged 21- to 35-years—had the highest mean scores on the perceived organizational support questions, yet the same group registered the lowest score of the three age groups on the affective commitment questions. When answering questions such as "The organization tries to make my job as interesting as possible" and "My supervisors are proud that I am a part of this organization" designed to assess perceived organizational support, this group's mean scores parallel the high means score they registered on the participation variable. Their low mean affective commitment scores as a group in comparison to the older groups were in response to questions like "I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization" and "I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own." It is possible that generational characteristics often attributed to this age group are at play here as far as their answers contradicting the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). Much has been written about Generations X and Y not expecting to spend their entire careers at a single organization, but rather as expecting careers that are actually pieced together at a number of different organizations.

The 72 employees represented in the 1 to 5 years of employment group showed the highest mean score on the perceived organizational support questions. This group was also high on affective commitment, although the four groups representing those employed from 16 to 36 years (105 employees) were the highest. It would logically seem that if an employee chooses to stay with the school for 16 years or more, that a psychological link has been formed between

the school and the employee that makes him/her want to remain (Allen & Meyer, 1996).

The administration group scored the highest mean when asked about their levels of perceived organizational support. It is possible that administrators feel they are given more opportunities to perform functions where organizational support is perceived thereby leading to their higher mean score on this variable. The faculty scored the highest mean on the affective commitment items. TCC's faculty ranks high in the state when compared to faculty of other Oklahoma colleges for salary, benefits, and summer pay. Possibly these factors are contributing to their registering higher scores of affective commitment than the groups of staff and administrative respondents. The group of staff employees, 122 respondents in all, scored considerably lower on both perceived organizational support and affective commitment than the other groups. Although the staff respondents registered high scores on the variable of participation, their scores were far below the faculty and administrative groups on every other variable. The strides this group has made in wanting/desiring to be asked to participate apparently out pace their feelings regarding open communication, organizational support, and reciprocal commitment.

Resistance to change. Descriptive statistics were run and analyzed on the overall resistance to change items and also on the four sub-scale groupings. Comparisons were made by each of the categorical variables on both the overall and sub-scale scores. The oldest age group, 51- to 72-year olds, scored the highest mean on the overall resistance to change scale. Consistent with the

overall score, this group was also the highest on the two sub-scales of cognitive rigidity (unwilling to adjust to new situations) and routine seeking (incorporates routines). Scores on the emotional reaction (reluctant to lose control) sub-scale were 3.92 and 3.89 respectively for the 36- to 50- and the 51- to 72-year old groups. However, the oldest two age groups scored lower than the younger 21- to 35-year old group on short-term thinking (focusing on the immediate inconvenience of a change). Even so, all mean scores for all groups were at or below the mid point of 4.00 on the seven-point Likert scale, thus indicating less resistance to change than this researcher anticipated.

The resistance to change scores according to tenure were highest for those employed 16 to 20 years at the College with only the cognitive rigidity sub-scale encompassing the next level of tenure—those with 21 to 25 years. The gradual drop in resistance to change as the respondents' tenure went from 20 years to 36 years might be explained by experience with the College serving as a teacher on how to cope and deal with change. Because of the very nature of community colleges, as discussed in Chapter II, employees with more than 16 years at any community college have experienced frequent planned change as well as continuous change and possibly have learned not to fear it as much as those employees without that level of institutional experience.

Faculty registered the highest mean score on the overall resistance to change items. They out distanced the staff and administrative groups on the emotional reaction and the short-term thinking sub-scales. Although the administrative group had the lowest overall mean score, they did score the

highest mean score on the cognitive rigidity sub-scale while the staff employees were the highest on the sub-scale measuring routine-seeking behaviors. Administrators' registering higher cognitive rigidity scores could be due in part to the requirements of their positions that they be assertive in offering their opinions regarding work issues. Staff employees are often the last employees in the organizational chain to receive word of changes. Their higher mean on the short-term thinking items seems to reflect an immediate reaction to the inconvenience the change means for them or a smaller picture viewpoint that allows them to see only the perceived adverse effects of the change.

Limitations

An important limitation of the current study is the questionable generalizability of the data to other community colleges since full-time employees at only one community college were participants in the study. This limitation stems from the very nature of the community college that served as the subject of the study. As mentioned in Chapter III, Tulsa Community College, as a Strategic Horizon Network school, has already indicated a predisposition toward affecting great change and is moving toward a shared-governance model. Other variables not considered in the present study such as institutional culture, climate, past history with change efforts—even institutional size—may contribute to making cross-situational comparisons less meaningful, especially to schools not participating in the network project.

There is also a valid concern that since the data that were gathered at a single point in time that was concurrent with new presidential leadership, the

beginning of a retirement wave, fluctuations downward in previously stable enrollment patterns, and movement toward a stronger economy and labor market in the Tulsa metropolitan area, factors external to an individual's feelings might unduly affect how he/she chose to answer certain parts of the survey instrument.

Another possible limitation is that, although the 67 percent response would be considered high, non-respondent bias might have occurred—the very employees who chose not to respond could in fact be the most resistant to change, thus significantly changing the results that were reported. Even though the responses were completely confidential and anonymous with the study's raw data stored on a server outside of the institution, the author's name was included in the solicitation e-mail. Consequently, the possibility exists that individuals who were randomly sampled may have been influenced to participate or not participate in the study based on their personal/professional relationship with the author. In addition, both the predictor and outcome variables were self-reports and so potentially subject to the same response-style bias.

Implications for Community College Leaders

As stated in Chapter I, as the vision for change initiatives is communicated downward through an organization, the message and meaning are often distorted, resulting in misunderstanding and lack of commitment to implementation. The intent of this study was to assess several predictors that might contribute to an employee's resistance to change.

The most significant finding of the study is that the more employees are involved in a change effort (participation), the more they will embrace it and the

less likely they will be to resist it. This finding has practical implication for those who design organizational change processes. College leaders must intentionally utilize ways that communicate clearly to their employees the reasons change is being proposed. With an eye to reducing the equivocality of change directives, consideration should be given not only to communicating adequate information to all employees but also to the selection of the appropriate media to best convey the intended message so that participation is encouraged.

Community college leaders can draw from the theories discussed in Chapter II to help them in setting up the best climate for introducing change into their institutions. Rogers (2003) recognizes that innovations generate uncertainty because they present individuals with new alternatives without the knowledge that the new idea is necessarily superior to what is currently in place. So, then, community college leaders must work to ensure that, after the introduction of the change, they continue to provide their employees the information necessary to allow them to cope with the uncertainty created by the change.

The Wanous et al. (2000) study discussed in Chapter II found that cynicism about organizational change was significantly related to decreased organizational commitment. The finding led that group of researchers to conclude that, if organizational leaders address both pessimism and dispositional attributions with respect to that pessimism, great strides could be made toward lessening change resistance. College leaders should be aware of those possible attributions and openly discuss ways to address the issue with their employees. At the same time, leaders need to recognize the contradictory school of thought

that views organizational cynicism about change as being both desirable and useable. This view (Theron & Westhuizen, 1996; Dent, Goldberg, & Galloway, 1999) sees change as illuminating the need for more information sharing and better communication. Both views lead to the same endand make the implication for community college leaders very clear, at least to this researcher—leaders must share as much information as possible about change if there is to be acceptance of and willingness to implement it. If work stalls on a change initiative, leaders must be willing to determine what isn't being talked about to fill the gap between word and deed (Weisbord, 1987). Above all, the leaders in community college settings must realize that the high levels of uncertainty that may exist in their institutions are tied to the very nature of their organizations, for community colleges are required by the communities they serve to constantly change and redirect their efforts.

A common theme that emerges in the literature regarding employee participation in organizational initiatives is that hierarchical, top-down leadership will no longer suffice in the new Century (Spaid & Parsons, 1999). In order to survive and to compete successfully, leaders must create mechanisms whereby employees at all levels learn to lead from where they sit in the organization. The finding of the current study that showed a negative correlation between participation and one's resistance to change underscores the importance of involving employees throughout the institution in every stage of a change proposal. First, leaders need to communicate a sense of outcome that will attract employees to participate. Second, a common goal needs to be created in

such a way that it allows an employee to see the change as compatible with his/her personal goals. Throughout the change process, from the announcement of it through the implementation phase, communication about it should be ongoing and plentiful.

As the College in the study moves toward a shared governance model, great care should be given to the selection of those who will serve on various councils and committees. The descriptive statistics generated from the current study provide rich data that could be useful when determining the potential makeup of these important groups to ensure a healthy balance of representative experiences and attitudes.

Another possible implication from the study findings is related to the tenure of employees within the College. The lower scores of those groups with between 16 and 30 years of experience with the College on the communication items and the 21 to 30 year group on participation items indicates the need for College leaders to examine issues of burnout. If an employee has been doing the same thing for a long period of time, leaders should seek ways to regenerate enthusiasm for the job. Involving the employee in discussion and planning around a change seems to be a good way to accomplish this. Leaders might also look at the utilizing the employees with more tenure in new ways that tap into currently underutilized skill sets.

The low scores registered by staff on the perceived organizational support, affective commitment, and organizational communication items indicate that, in spite of the fact that this group is feeling more participative as discussed

in Chapter IV, they still represent a large group (N = 122) of employees who are feeling somewhat disenfranchised. Leaders should work closely with the representative classified staff council to seek more involvement from these employees and to provide training opportunities that will support their leading from wherever they are in the College.

Many community colleges around the country are experiencing significant waves of retirement—particularly in the faculty ranks. This is the case at the subject college. Leaders should capitalize on the resulting influx of replacement talent to do things better, or at least to do things in such a way that recognition is paid to the move toward more participative management. Open communication and encouraged participation in change processes should be goals of high priority for all community college leaders.

Implications for Future Research

There appears to be an increase in community college change research literature in the past 20 years. However, little research was located that dealt specifically with the challenges of leading a community college through change as it relates to the organizational variables in this study—communication, participation, perceived organizational support, and affective commitment. Research that is focused on each of these individual variables as it relates to a community college employee's resistance levels would be appropriate for additional research and could provide helpful tools for leaders in these institutions. The relationship between communication and change in organizational settings remains a major gap in general (Van Wagoner, 2004).

The length of employment with the College in the study generated interesting findings when analyzed in light of each variable. The groups that fell into the 11 to 30 year categories could represent employees who are suffering burnout. Although this survey asked respondents for their length of employment at the College, it did not ascertain how long an employee had stayed in the same position. Future research should look specifically at length of time in the same position as it relates to factors of burnout, cynicism, and resistance to change in the community college setting.

Another gap in the literature on community colleges and change appears to lie in the area of how leaders choose to communicate change. This author recommends future research that seeks to answer: "Is one's reaction to a proposed community college change affected by the communication method used to disseminate the message." The proposed research should then identify the best choices as they relate to the types of change messages being communicated. Related to this, a future research study could longitudinally follow the announcement of a planned change initiative in a community college through its implementation stages to its completion to measure levels of distortion that occur and to recommend, based on findings, approaches that would benefit leaders dealing with change initiatives.

Conclusion

The importance for leaders in community colleges to understand the nature of organizational change and the many behavioral variables that impact how change is processed is paramount to their success. In general, those who

lead change efforts should focus on the complexities of behavior that manifest as resistance. Hopefully the findings of this study will contribute to the body of knowledge that supports doing so. Today's community college leaders have to embrace that leading change will continue to be an integral part of what they are called upon to do, but even change itself will be different. In discussing the new Millennium's challenges, Spaid and Parsons (1999) said, "It will involve a complete break with traditional perception and require a major reconstruction of every aspect of an organization" (p. 13). Whether or not community college leaders will be able to meet this challenge will depend on their ability to create shared meaning among their employees, encourage their participation in organizational change initiatives, develop reciprocal feelings of support and commitment between employees and the organization, and lower levels of change resistance. The successful community college leader will be the one who is able to guide the College's most valuable resource, its employees, through constant and unrelenting change in such a way that change is understood, implemented, and even embraced.

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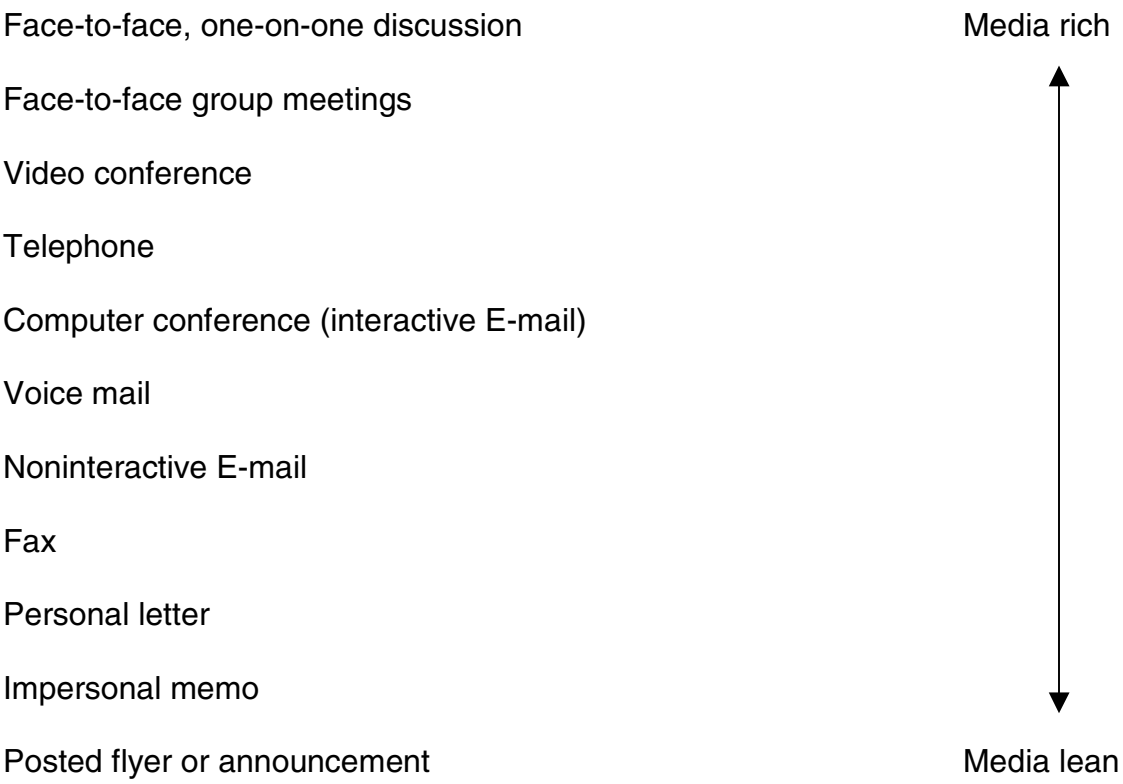
Appendices

Appendix A

Figures

Figure 1

Media-Rich Continuum



Source: Miller, K. 1995. *Organizational Communication: Approaches and Processes*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Figure 2

Conceptual Path Model

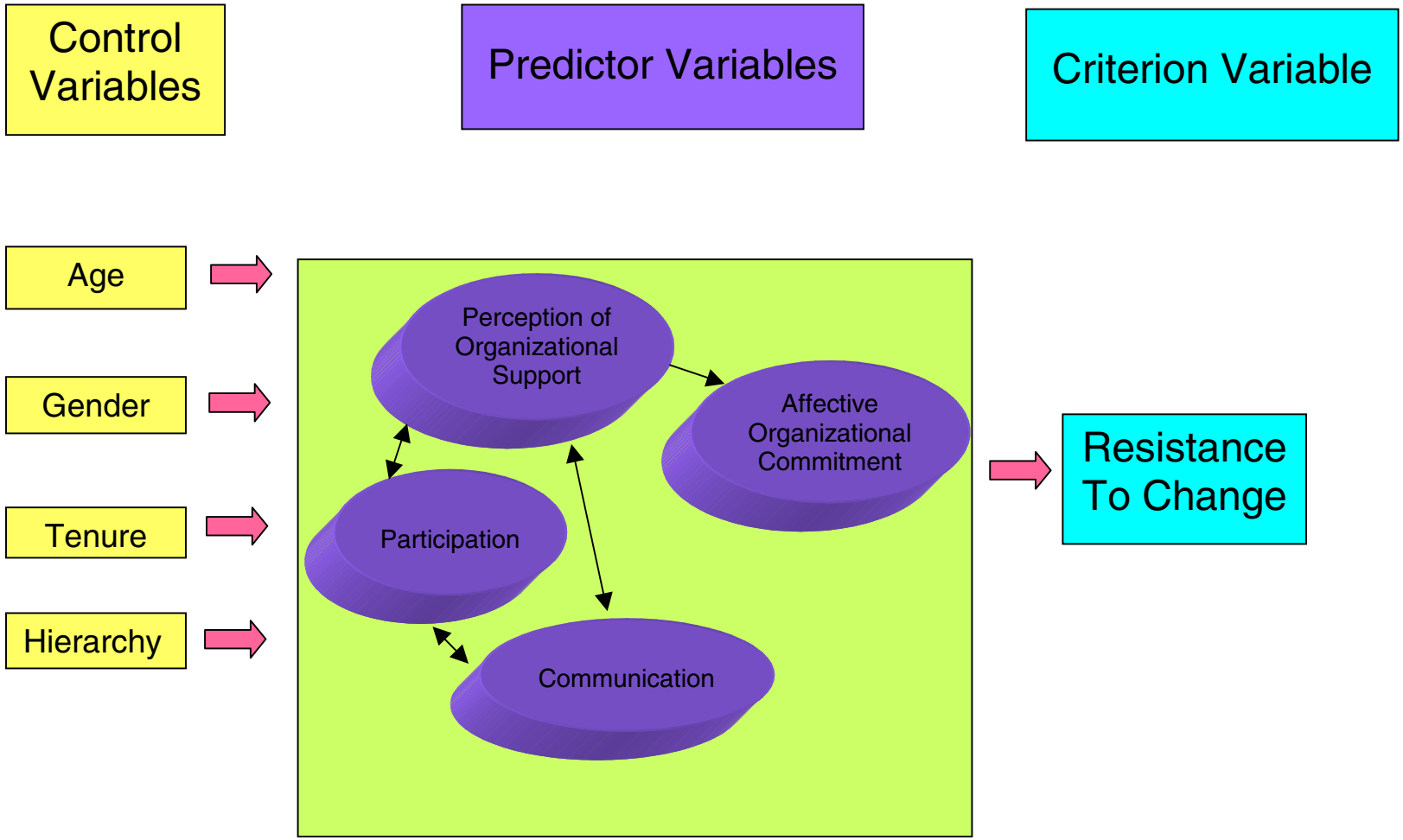
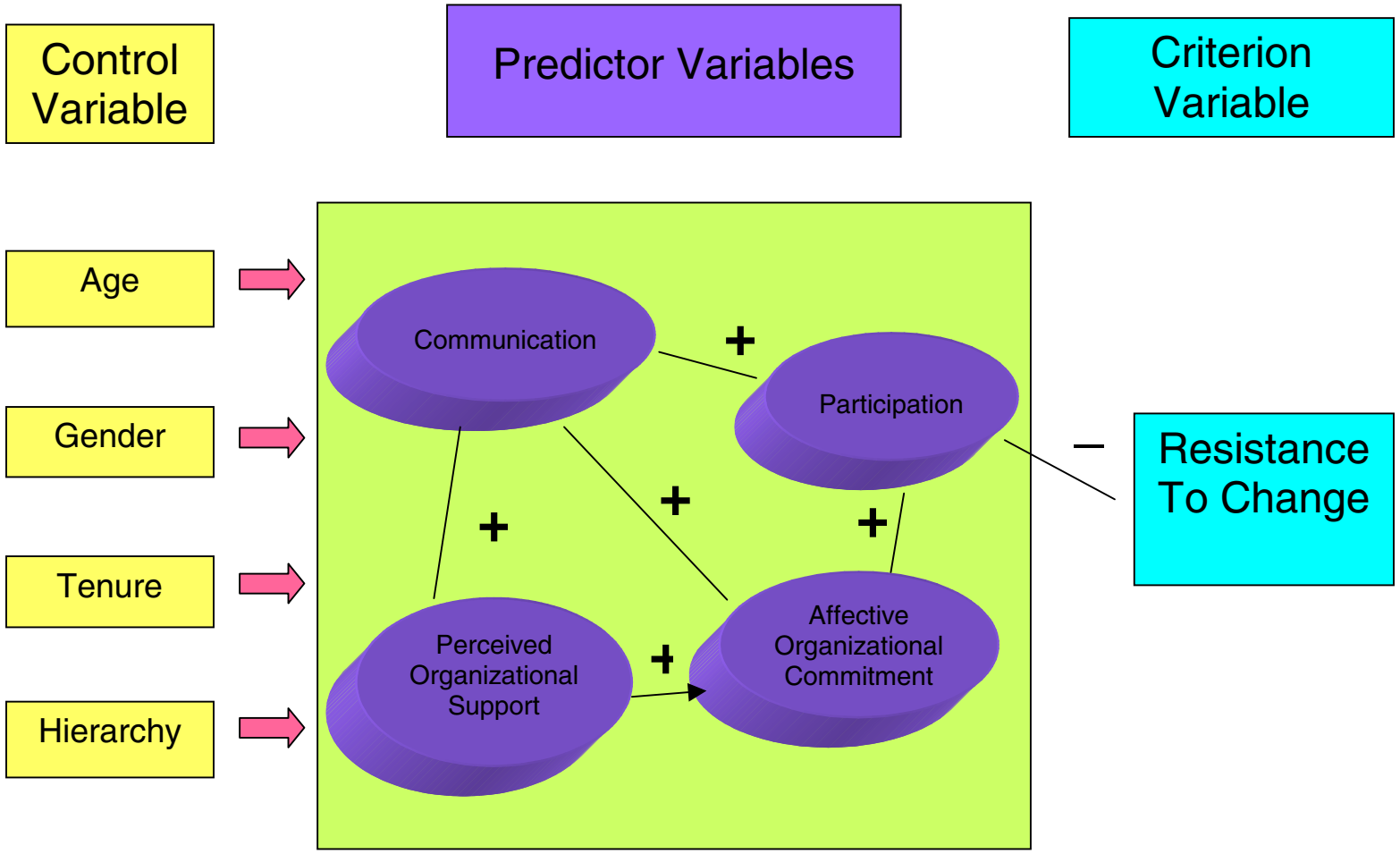


Figure 3

Study Model



Appendix B

Tables

Table 1

Frequency Table

Sex

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0 Male	80	28.3	31.0	31.0
	1 Female	178	62.9	69.0	100.0
	Total	258	91.2	100.0	
Missing	System	25	8.8		
Total		283	100.0		

Position

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Staff	122	43.1	47.3	47.3
	2 Faculty	102	36.0	39.5	86.8
	3 Administration	34	12.0	13.2	100.0
	Total	258	91.2	100.0	
Missing	System	25	8.8		
Total		283	100.0		

Age_cat Age Categories

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 21-35	33	11.7	12.8	12.8
	2 36-50	89	31.4	34.6	47.5
	3 51-72	135	47.7	52.5	100.0
	Total	257	90.8	100.0	
Missing	System	26	9.2		
Total		283	100.0		

tenure Number of years Employed

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 1 - 5	72	25.4	28.1	28.1
	2 6 -10	70	24.7	27.3	55.5
	3 11 - 15	39	13.8	15.2	70.7
	4 16 - 20	35	12.4	13.7	84.4
	5 21 - 25	23	8.1	9.0	93.4
	6 26 - 30	10	3.5	3.9	97.3
	7 31 -36	7	2.5	2.7	100.0
	Total	256	90.5	100.0	
Missing	System	27	9.5		
Total		283	100.0		

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
AC Affective Commitment	259	1.43	7.00	5.0736	1.22566
OC Organizational Communication	259	1.00	7.00	4.4089	1.21175
OP Organizational Participation	259	1.56	6.48	4.6939	.82049
POS Perceived Organizational Support	266	1.25	6.81	4.5000	1.00584
RTC Resistance to Change	259	1.56	5.50	3.3982	.75862
Valid N (listwise)	259				

Table 3

Correlations

Correlations

		OC Organizational Communication	OP Organizational Participation	POS Perceived Organizational Support	AC Affective Commitment	RTC Resistance to Change
OC Organizational Communication	Pearson Correlation	1	.289**	.600**	.532**	-.078
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.210
	N	259	259	259	259	259
OP Organizational Participation	Pearson Correlation	.289**	1	.322**	.334**	-.146*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.019
	N	259	259	259	259	259
POS Perceived Organizational Support	Pearson Correlation	.600**	.322**	1	.600**	-.067
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.283
	N	259	259	266	259	259
AC Affective Commitment	Pearson Correlation	.532**	.334**	.600**	1	-.026
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.674
	N	259	259	259	259	259
RTC Resistance to Change	Pearson Correlation	-.078	-.146*	-.067	-.026	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.210	.019	.283	.674	
	N	259	259	259	259	259

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4

Correlations

Correlations

		OC Organizational Communication	OP Organizational Participation	POS Perceived Organizational Support	AC Affective Commitment	CR Cognitive Rigidity	ER Emotional Reaction	RS Routine Seeking	STT Short Term Thinking
OC Organizational Communication	Pearson Correlation	1	.289**	.600**	.532**	.013	-.077	-.070	-.097
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.832	.215	.264	.119
	N	259	259	259	259	258	259	259	258
OP Organizational Participation	Pearson Correlation	.289**	1	.322**	.334**	-.014	-.125*	-.178**	-.103
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.818	.045	.004	.098
	N	259	259	259	259	258	259	259	258
POS Perceived Organizational Support	Pearson Correlation	.600**	.322**	1	.600**	.042	-.099	-.117	-.016
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.504	.113	.061	.792
	N	259	259	266	259	258	259	259	258
AC Affective Commitment	Pearson Correlation	.532**	.334**	.600**	1	.112	-.047	-.085	-.048
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.072	.456	.172	.442
	N	259	259	259	259	258	259	259	258
CR Cognitive Rigidity	Pearson Correlation	.013	-.014	.042	.112	1	.158*	.325**	.306**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.832	.818	.504	.072		.011	.000	.000
	N	258	258	258	258	258	258	258	258
ER Emotional Reaction	Pearson Correlation	-.077	-.125*	-.099	-.047	.158*	1	.433**	.515**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.215	.045	.113	.456	.011		.000	.000
	N	259	259	259	259	258	259	259	258
RS Routine Seeking	Pearson Correlation	-.070	-.178**	-.117	-.085	.325**	.433**	1	.586**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.264	.004	.061	.172	.000	.000		.000
	N	259	259	259	259	258	259	259	258
STT Short Term Thinking	Pearson Correlation	-.097	-.103	-.016	-.048	.306**	.515**	.586**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.119	.098	.792	.442	.000	.000	.000	
	N	258	258	258	258	258	258	258	258

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 5

Correlations

Correlations

		OC Organizational Communication	OP Organizational Participation	POS Perceived Organizational Support	AC Affective Commitment	RTC Resistance to Change
OC Organizational Communication	Pearson Correlation	1	.289**	.600**	.532**	-.078
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.105
	N	259	259	259	259	259
OP Organizational Participation	Pearson Correlation	.289**	1	.322**	.334**	-.146**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.009
	N	259	259	259	259	259
POS Perceived Organizational Support	Pearson Correlation	.600**	.322**	1	.600**	-.067
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.142
	N	259	259	266	259	259
AC Affective Commitment	Pearson Correlation	.532**	.334**	.600**	1	-.026
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.337
	N	259	259	259	259	259
RTC Resistance to Change	Pearson Correlation	-.078	-.146**	-.067	-.026	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.105	.009	.142	.337	
	N	259	259	259	259	259

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Table 6

Correlations

Correlations

		OC Organizational Communication	OP Organizational Participation	POS Perceived Organizational Support	AC Affective Commitment	CR Cognitive Rigidity	ER Emotional Reaction	RS Routine Seeking	STT Short Term Thinking
OC Organizational Communication	Pearson Correlation	1	.289**	.600**	.532**	.013	-.077	-.070	-.097
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.416	.107	.132	.059
	N	259	259	259	259	258	259	259	258
OP Organizational Participation	Pearson Correlation	.289**	1	.322**	.334**	-.014	-.125*	-.178**	-.103*
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.409	.022	.002	.049
	N	259	259	259	259	258	259	259	258
POS Perceived Organizational Support	Pearson Correlation	.600**	.322**	1	.600**	.042	-.099	-.117*	-.016
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.252	.057	.030	.396
	N	259	259	266	259	258	259	259	258
AC Affective Commitment	Pearson Correlation	.532**	.334**	.600**	1	.112*	-.047	-.085	-.048
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.036	.228	.086	.221
	N	259	259	259	259	258	259	259	258
CR Cognitive Rigidity	Pearson Correlation	.013	-.014	.042	.112*	1	.158**	.325**	.306**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.416	.409	.252	.036		.006	.000	.000
	N	258	258	258	258	258	258	258	258
ER Emotional Reaction	Pearson Correlation	-.077	-.125*	-.099	-.047	.158**	1	.433**	.515**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.107	.022	.057	.228	.006		.000	.000
	N	259	259	259	259	258	259	259	258
RS Routine Seeking	Pearson Correlation	-.070	-.178**	-.117*	-.085	.325**	.433**	1	.586**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.132	.002	.030	.086	.000	.000		.000
	N	259	259	259	259	258	259	259	258
STT Short Term Thinking	Pearson Correlation	-.097	-.103*	-.016	-.048	.306**	.515**	.586**	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.059	.049	.396	.221	.000	.000	.000	
	N	258	258	258	258	258	258	258	258

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

Table 7

Resistance to Change Regressed on the Four IVs

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.159[a]	.025	.010	.75480	.025	1.655	4	254	.161

a. Predictors: (Constant), POS Perceived Organizational Support, OP Organizational Participation, OC Organizational Communication, AC Affective Commitment

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3.772	4	.943	1.655	.161[a]
	Residual	144.709	254	.570		
	Total	148.482	258			

a. Predictors: (Constant), POS Perceived Organizational Support, OP Organiza Participation, OC Organizational Communication, AC Affective Commitment

b. Dependent Variable: RTC Resistance to Change

Table 8

Reliability Statistics for Organizational Communication

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.827	.827	6

Summary Item Statistics

	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Item Means	4.399	3.551	5.047	1.496	1.421	.290	6
Item Variances	2.756	2.219	3.227	1.008	1.454	.129	6

The covariance matrix is calculated and used in the analysis.

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
26.39	53.181	7.293	6

Table 9

Reliability Statistics for Organizational Participation

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.902	.899	27

Summary Item Statistics

	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Item Means	4.712	2.764	5.921	3.157	2.142	.718	27
Item Variances	2.308	.894	3.538	2.644	3.959	.575	27

The covariance matrix is calculated and used in the analysis.

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
127.23	472.857	21.745	27

Table 10

Reliability Statistics for Perceived Organizational Support

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based On Standardized Items	N of Items
.962	.962	36

Summary Item Statistics

	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Item Means	4.483	3.316	6.115	2.798	1.844	.391	36
Item Variances	2.354	1.079	3.474	2.395	3.220	.364	36

The covariance matrix is calculated and used in the analysis.

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
161.40	1304.210	36.114	36

Table 11

Reliability Statistics for Affective Commitment

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.879	.881	7

Summary Item Statistics

	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Item Means	5.072	4.120	5.609	1.488	1.361	.242	7
Item Variances	2.598	1.954	3.017	1.063	1.544	.123	7

The covariance matrix is calculated and used in the analysis.

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
35.50	73.862	8.594	7

Table 12

Reliability Statistics for Resistance to Change

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.867	.869	18

Summary Item Statistics

	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Item Means	3.402	2.428	4.934	2.506	2.032	.466	18

The covariance matrix is calculated and used in the analysis.

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
61.23	186.586	13.660	18

Table 13

Reliability Statistics for Emotional Reaction

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.770	.767	4

Summary Item Statistics

	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Item Means	3.847	3.039	4.347	1.309	1.431	.331	4
Item Variances	2.136	1.921	2.421	.500	1.261	.044	4

The covariance matrix is calculated and used in the analysis.

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
15.39	20.239	4.499	4

Table 14

Reliability Statistics for Routine Seeking

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.811	.816	5

Summary Item Statistics

	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Item Means	2.975	2.426	3.740	1.314	1.542	.373	5
Item Variances	1.796	1.312	2.413	1.102	1.840	.199	5

The covariance matrix is calculated and used in the analysis.

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
14.88	25.557	5.055	5

Table 15

Reliability Statistics for Short Term Thinking

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.791	.790	5

Summary Item Statistics

	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Item Means	2.974	2.853	3.178	.326	1.114	.017	5
Item Variances	1.791	1.595	1.937	.342	1.214	.015	5

The covariance matrix is calculated and used in the analysis.

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
14.87	24.364	4.936	5

Table 16

Reliability Statistics for Cognitive Rigidity

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.662	.664	4

Summary Item Statistics

	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Item Means	4.022	3.533	4.934	1.401	1.396	.410	4
Item Variances	1.836	1.664	2.016	.352	1.212	.025	4

The covariance matrix is calculated and used in the analysis.

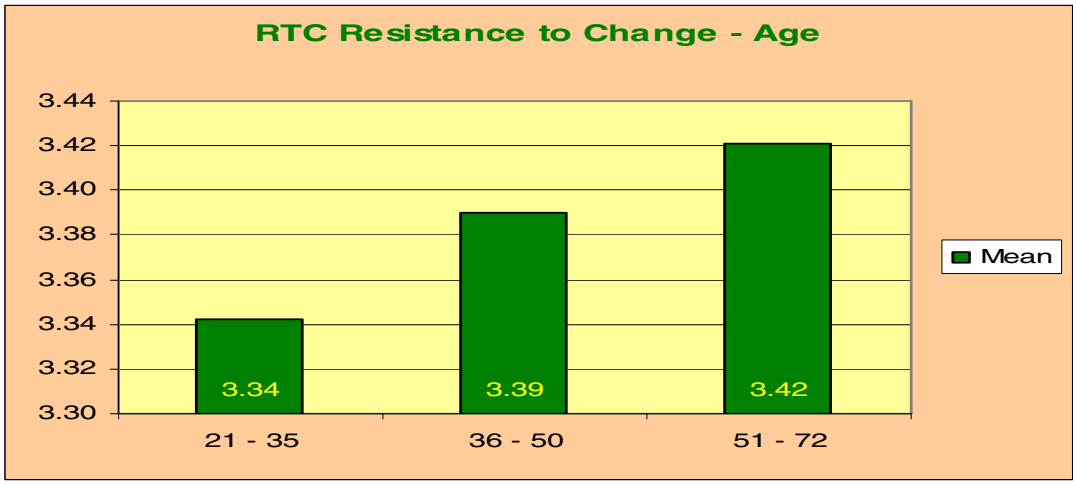
Scale Statistics

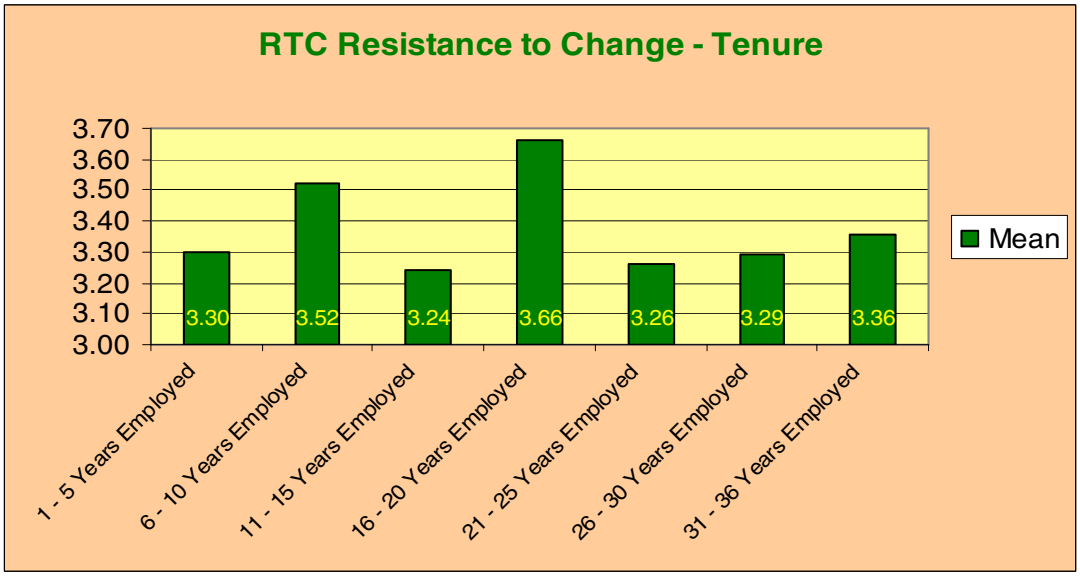
Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
16.09	14.597	3.821	4

Appendix C

Figures

Figure 4


RTC Resistance to Change - Age
3.44
3.42
3.40
3.38
3.36
3.34
3.32
3.30
3.34
3.39
3.42
21 - 35
36 - 50
51 - 72
Mean


RTC Resistance to Change - Tenure
3.70
3.60
3.50
3.40
3.30
3.20
3.10
3.00
3.30
3.52
3.24
3.66
3.26
3.29
3.36
1 - 5 Years Employed
6 - 10 Years Employed
11 - 15 Years Employed
16 - 20 Years Employed
21 - 25 Years Employed
26 - 30 Years Employed
31 - 36 Years Employed
Mean

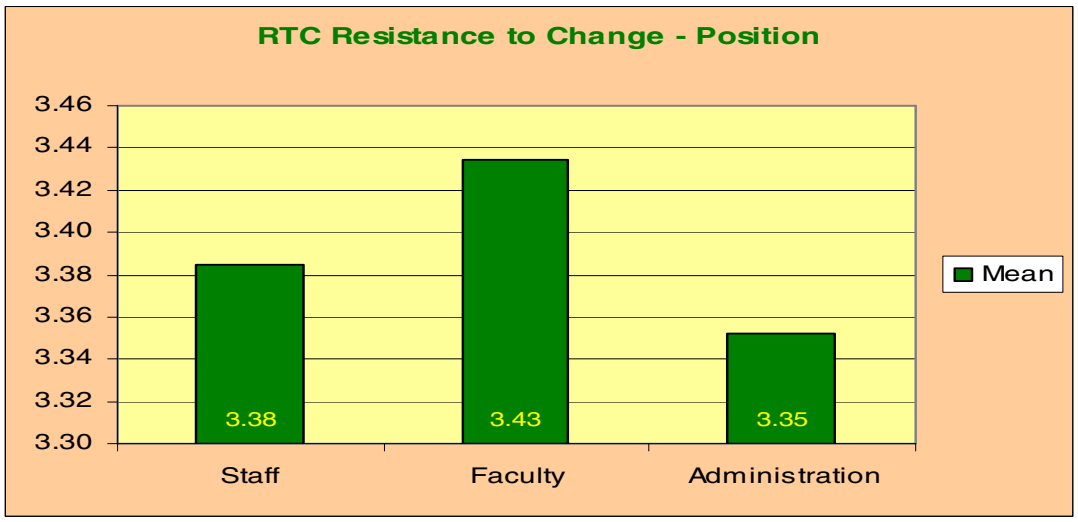
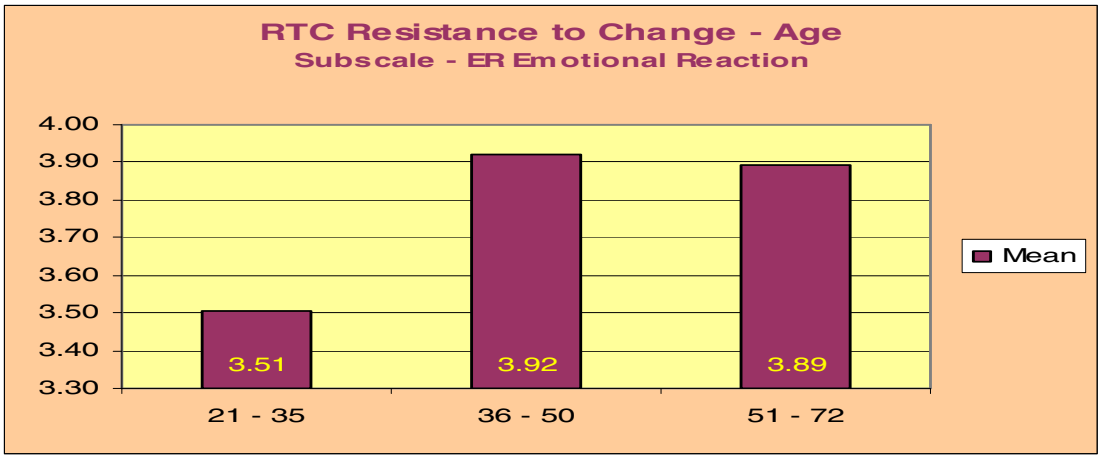
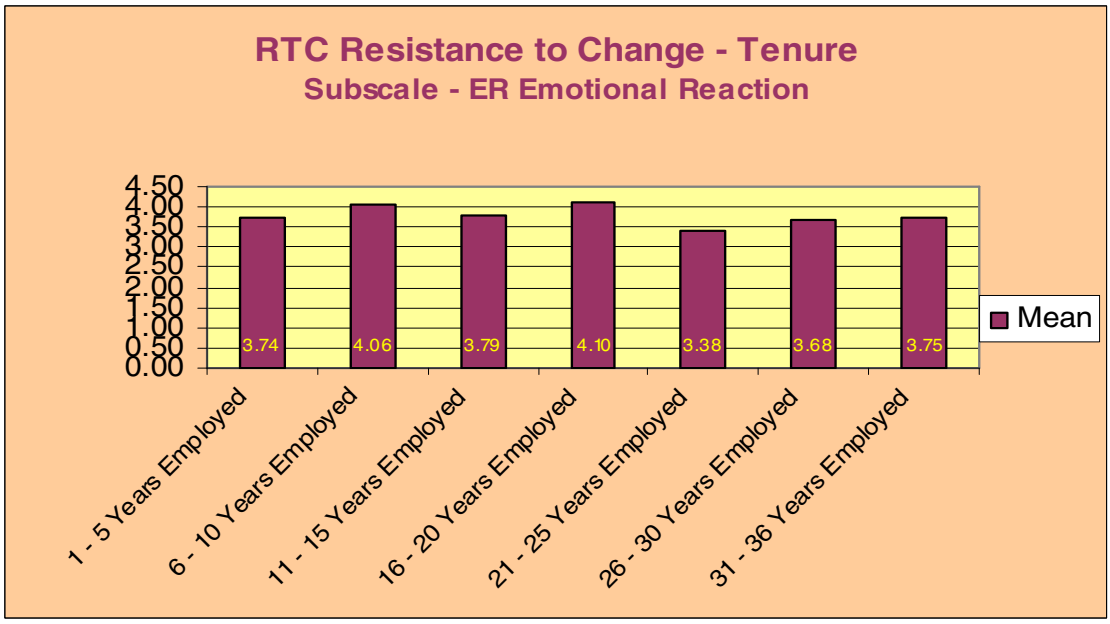

RTC Resistance to Change - Position
3.46
3.44
3.42
3.40
3.38
3.36
3.34
3.32
3.30
3.38
3.43
3.35
Staff
Faculty
Administration
Mean

Figure 5


RTC Resistance to Change - Age
Subscale - ER Emotional Reaction
4.00
3.90
3.80
3.70
3.60
3.50
3.40
3.30
3.51
3.92
3.89
21 - 35
36 - 50
51 - 72
Mean


RTC Resistance to Change - Tenure
Subscale - ER Emotional Reaction
4.50
4.00
3.50
3.00
2.50
2.00
1.50
1.00
0.50
0.00
3.74
4.06
3.79
4.10
3.38
3.68
3.75
1 - 5 Years Employed
6 - 10 Years Employed
11 - 15 Years Employed
16 - 20 Years Employed
21 - 25 Years Employed
26 - 30 Years Employed
31 - 36 Years Employed
Mean

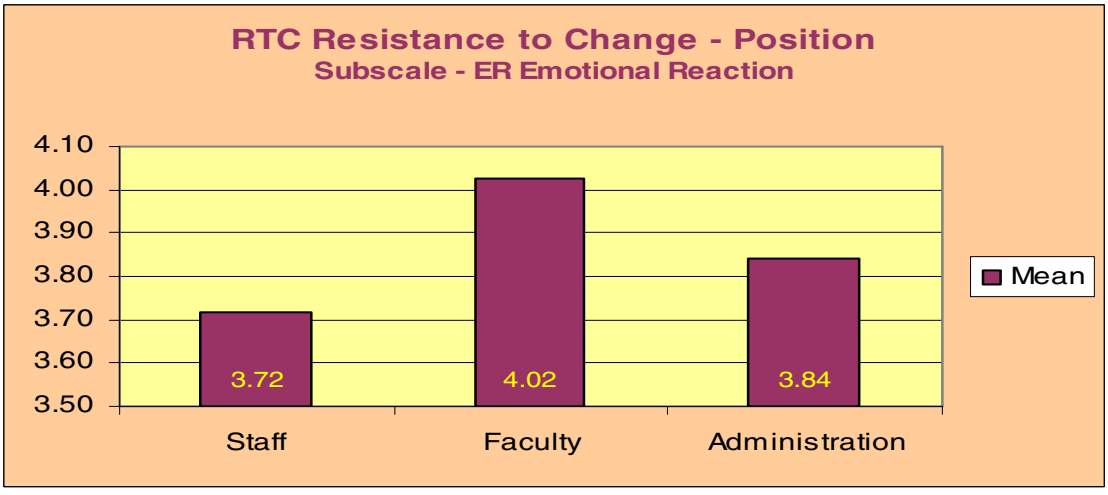
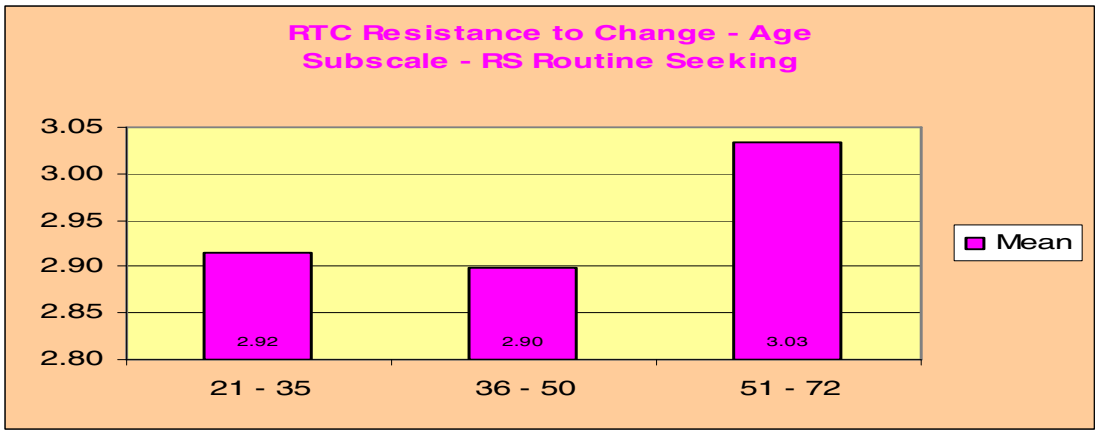
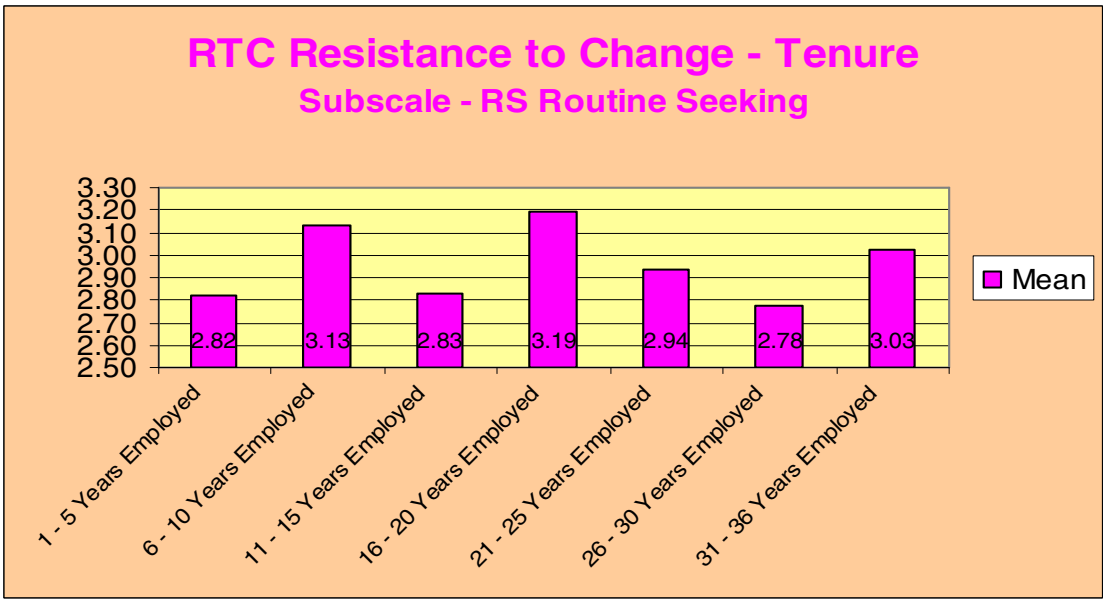

RTC Resistance to Change - Position
Subscale - ER Emotional Reaction
4.10
4.00
3.90
3.80
3.70
3.60
3.50
3.72
4.02
3.84
Staff
Faculty
Administration
Mean

Figure 6


RTC Resistance to Change - Age
Subscale - RS Routine Seeking
3.05
3.00
2.95
2.90
2.85
2.80
2.92
2.90
3.03
21 - 35
36 - 50
51 - 72
Mean


RTC Resistance to Change - Tenure
Subscale - RS Routine Seeking
3.30
3.20
3.10
3.00
2.90
2.80
2.70
2.60
2.50
2.82
3.13
2.83
3.19
2.94
2.78
3.03
1 - 5 Years Employed
6 - 10 Years Employed
11 - 15 Years Employed
16 - 20 Years Employed
21 - 25 Years Employed
26 - 30 Years Employed
31 - 36 Years Employed
Mean

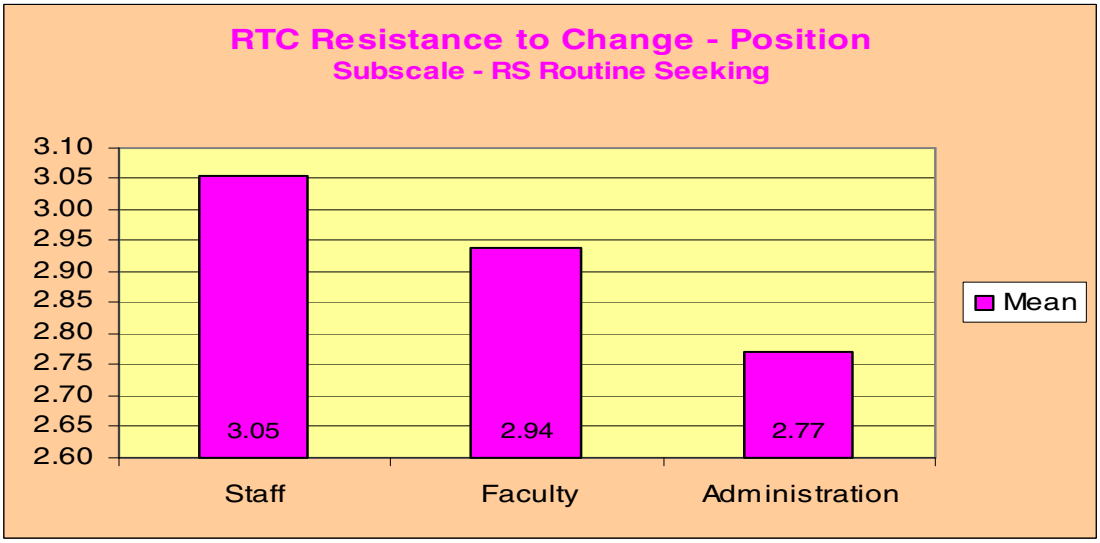
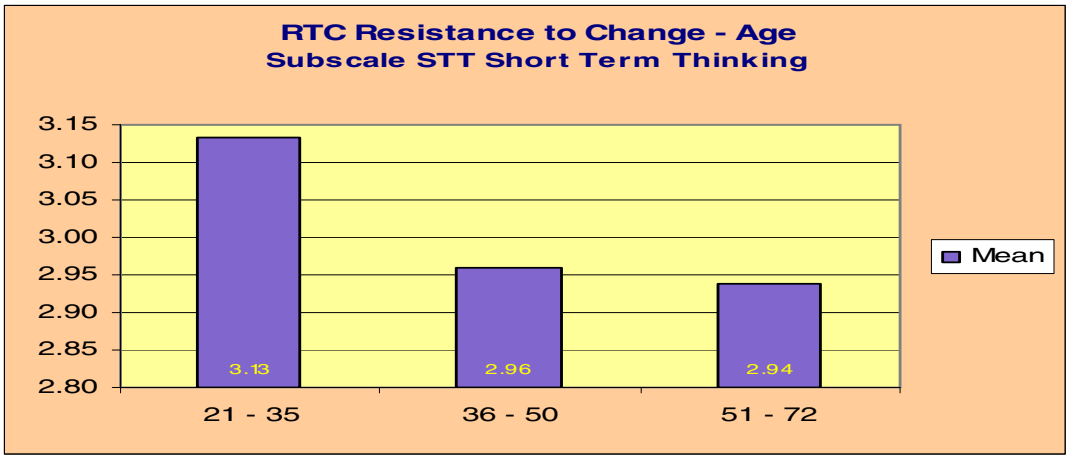
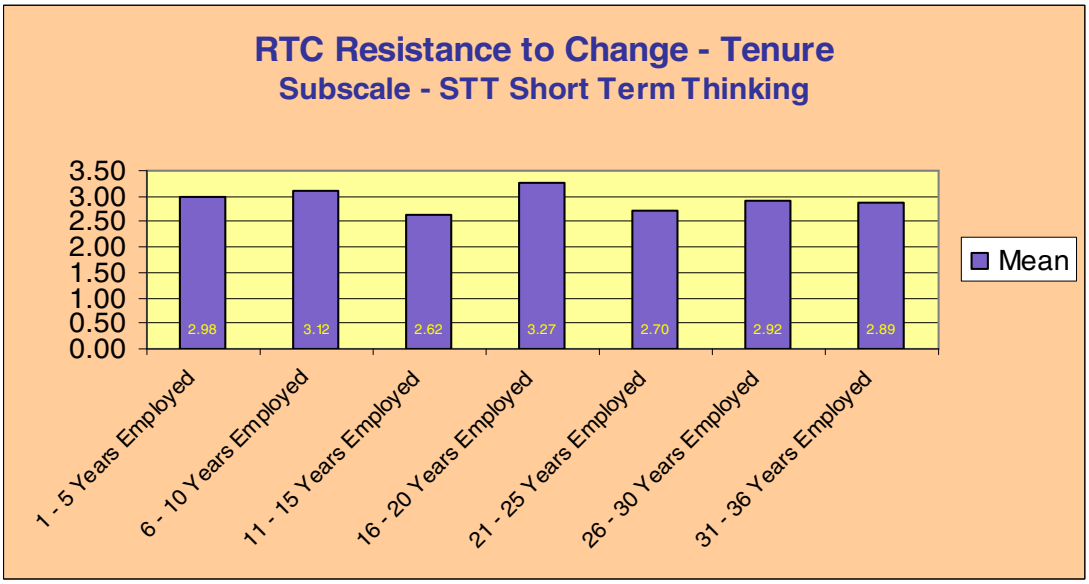

RTC Resistance to Change - Position
Subscale - RS Routine Seeking
3.10
3.05
3.00
2.95
2.90
2.85
2.80
2.75
2.70
2.65
2.60
3.05
2.94
2.77
Staff
Faculty
Administration
Mean

Figure 7


RTC Resistance to Change - Age
Subscale STT Short Term Thinking
3.15
3.10
3.05
3.00
2.95
2.90
2.85
2.80
3.13
2.96
2.94
21 - 35
36 - 50
51 - 72
Mean


RTC Resistance to Change - Tenure
Subscale - STT Short Term Thinking
3.50
3.00
2.50
2.00
1.50
1.00
0.50
0.00
2.98
3.12
2.62
3.27
2.70
2.92
2.89
1 - 5 Years Employed
6 - 10 Years Employed
11 - 15 Years Employed
16 - 20 Years Employed
21 - 25 Years Employed
26 - 30 Years Employed
31 - 36 Years Employed
Mean

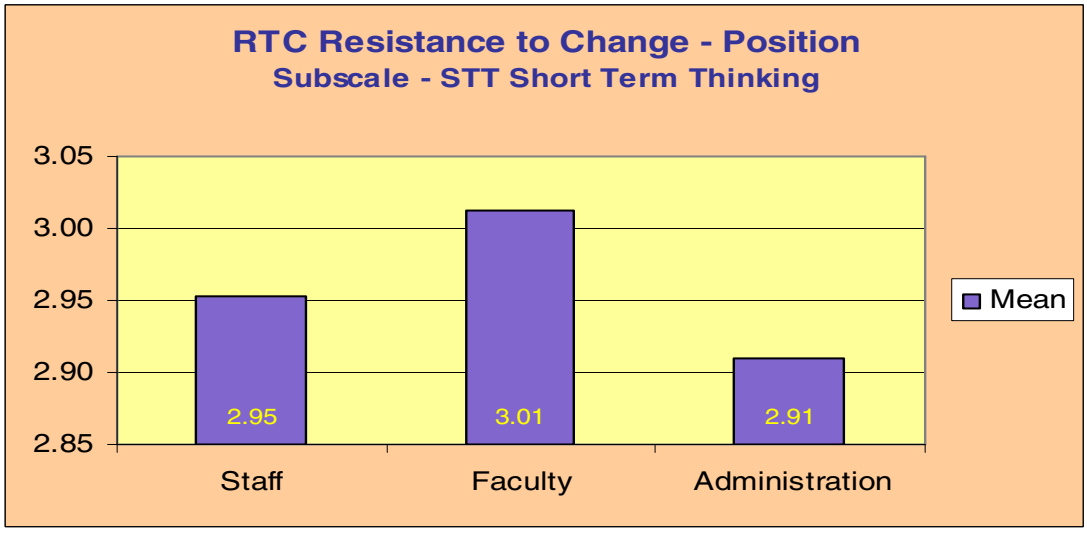
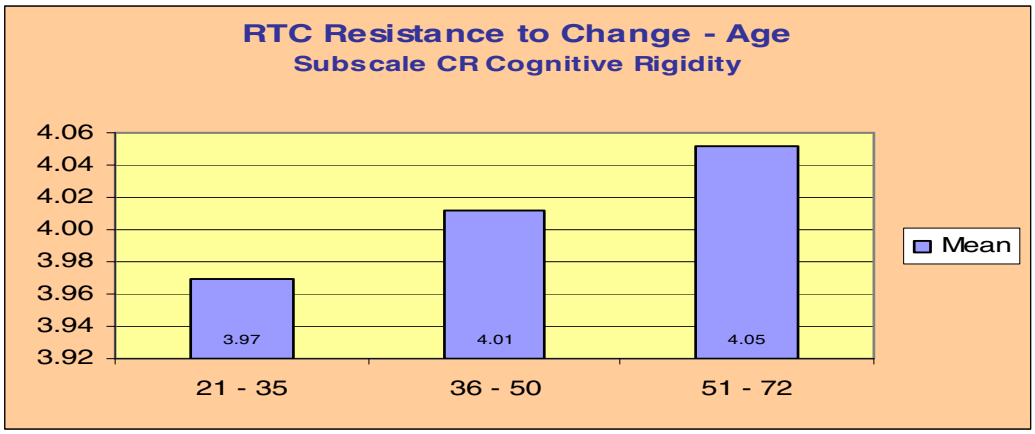
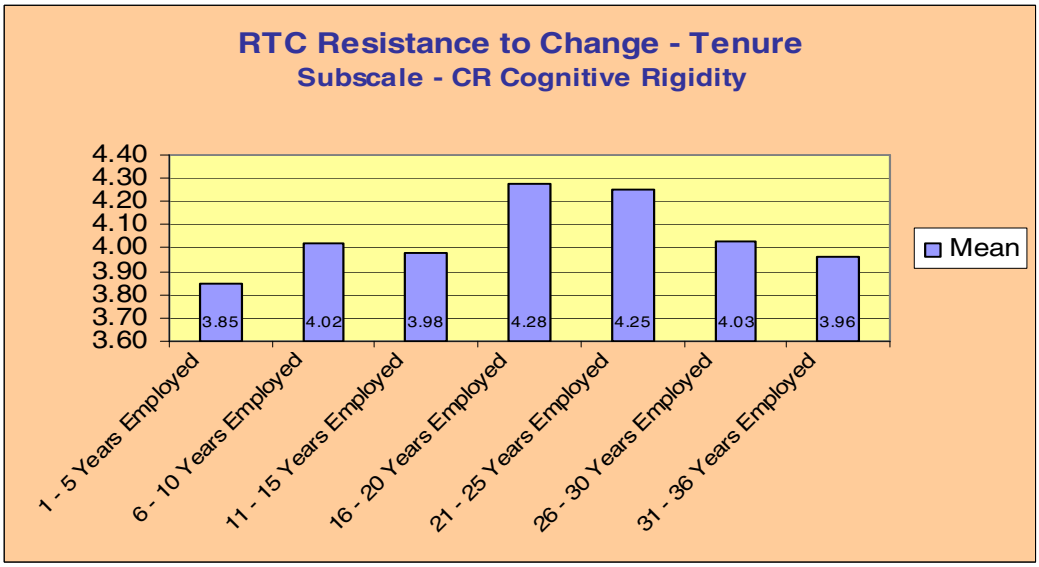

RTC Resistance to Change - Position
Subscale - STT Short Term Thinking
3.05
3.00
2.95
2.90
2.85
2.95
3.01
2.91
Staff
Faculty
Administration
Mean

Figure 8


RTC Resistance to Change - Age
Subscale CR Cognitive Rigidity
4.06
4.04
4.02
4.00
3.98
3.96
3.94
3.92
3.97
4.01
4.05
21 - 35
36 - 50
51 - 72
Mean


RTC Resistance to Change - Tenure
Subscale - CR Cognitive Rigidity
4.40
4.30
4.20
4.10
4.00
3.90
3.80
3.70
3.60
3.85
4.02
3.98
4.28
4.25
4.03
3.96
1 - 5 Years Employed
6 - 10 Years Employed
11 - 15 Years Employed
16 - 20 Years Employed
21 - 25 Years Employed
26 - 30 Years Employed
31 - 36 Years Employed
Mean

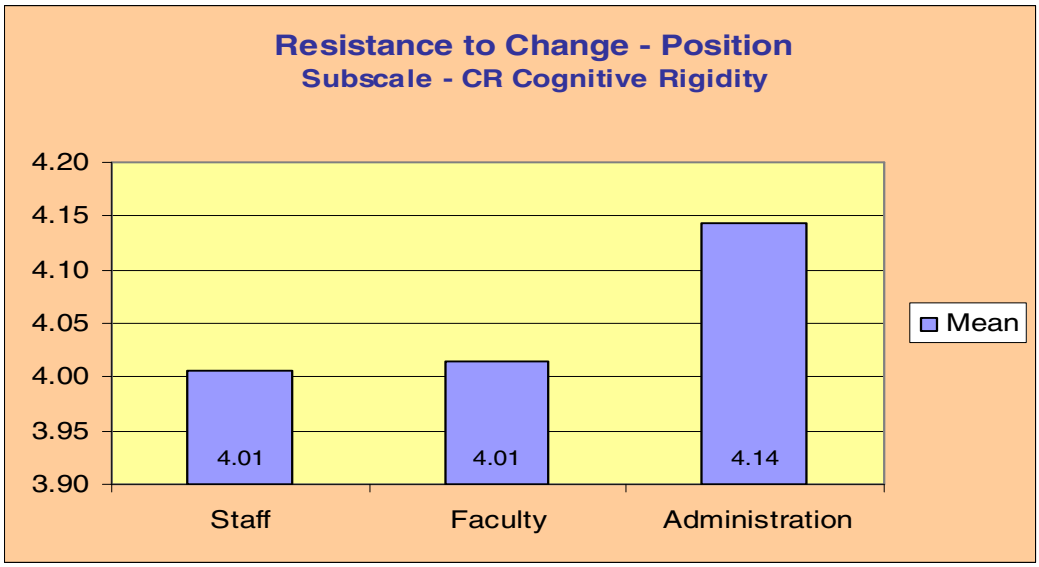
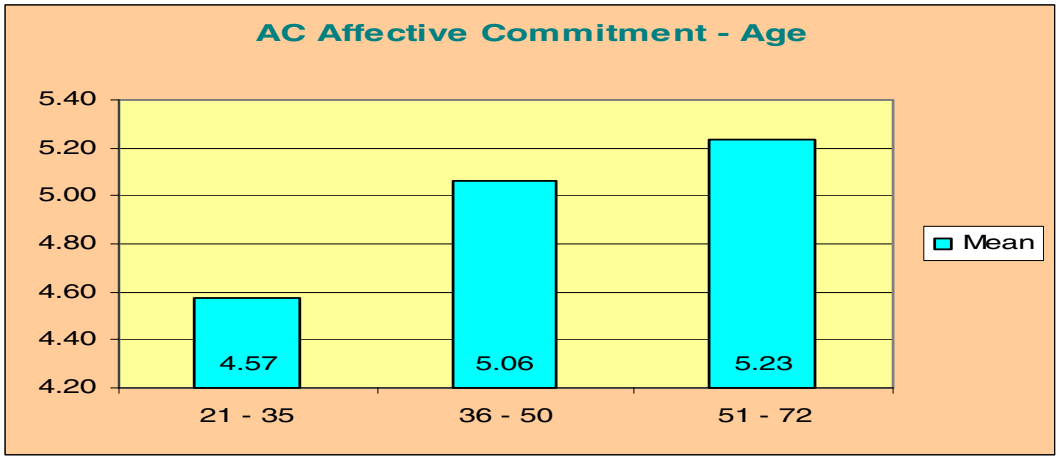
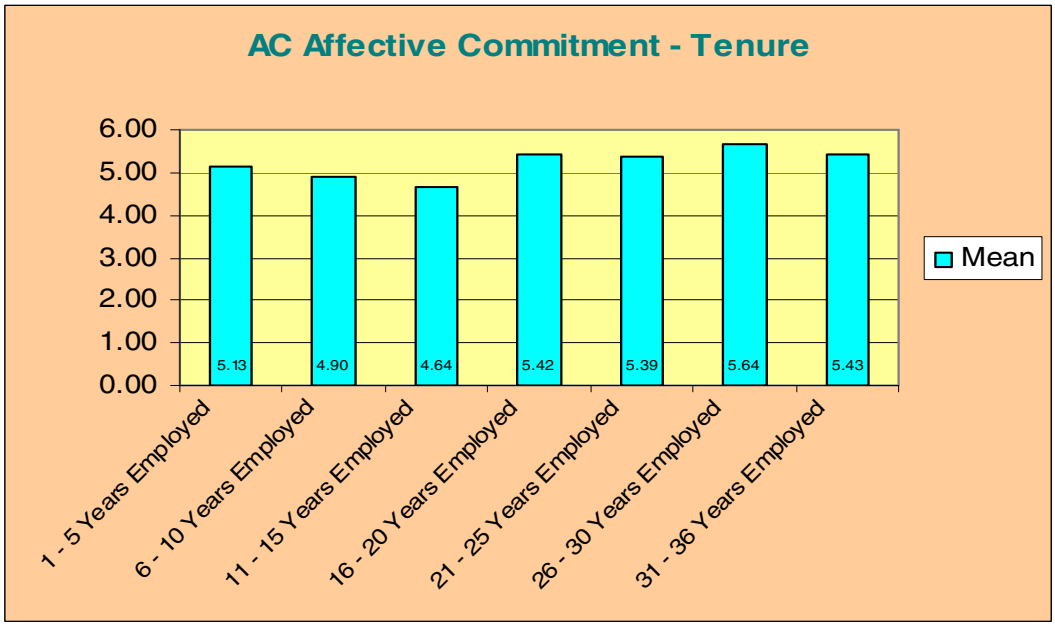

Resistance to Change - Position
Subscale - CR Cognitive Rigidity
4.20
4.15
4.10
4.05
4.00
3.95
3.90
4.01
4.01
4.14
Staff
Faculty
Administration
Mean

Figure 9


AC Affective Commitment - Age
5.40
5.20
5.00
4.80
4.60
4.40
4.20
4.57
5.06
5.23
21 - 35
36 - 50
51 - 72
Mean


AC Affective Commitment - Tenure
6.00
5.00
4.00
3.00
2.00
1.00
0.00
5.13
4.90
4.64
5.42
5.39
5.64
5.43
1 - 5 Years Employed
6 - 10 Years Employed
11 - 15 Years Employed
16 - 20 Years Employed
21 - 25 Years Employed
26 - 30 Years Employed
31 - 36 Years Employed
Mean

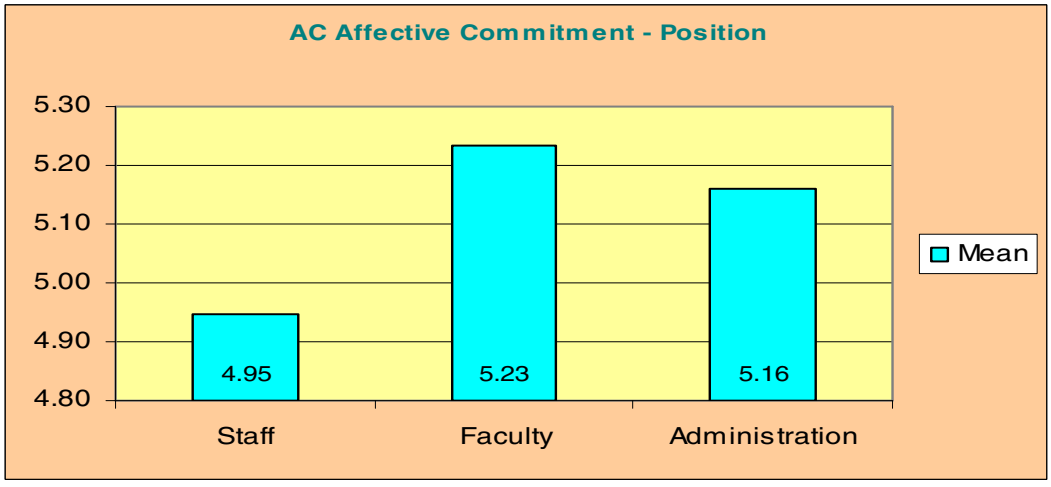
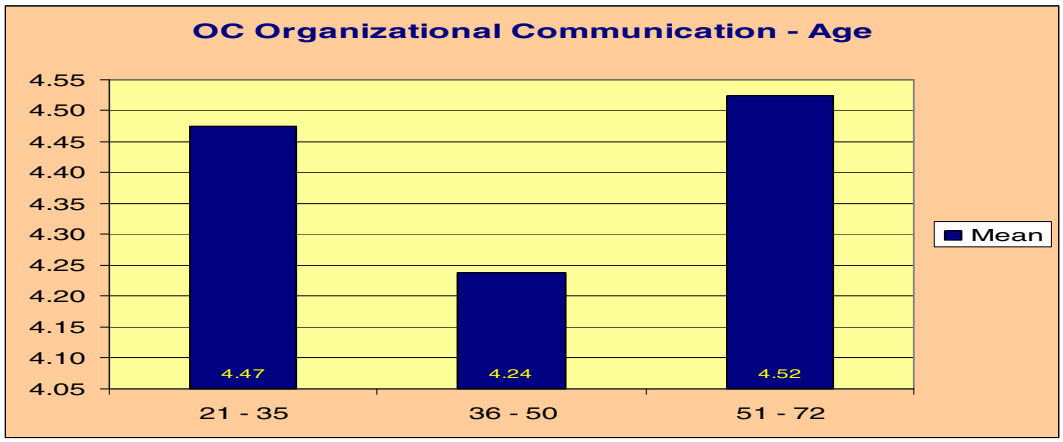
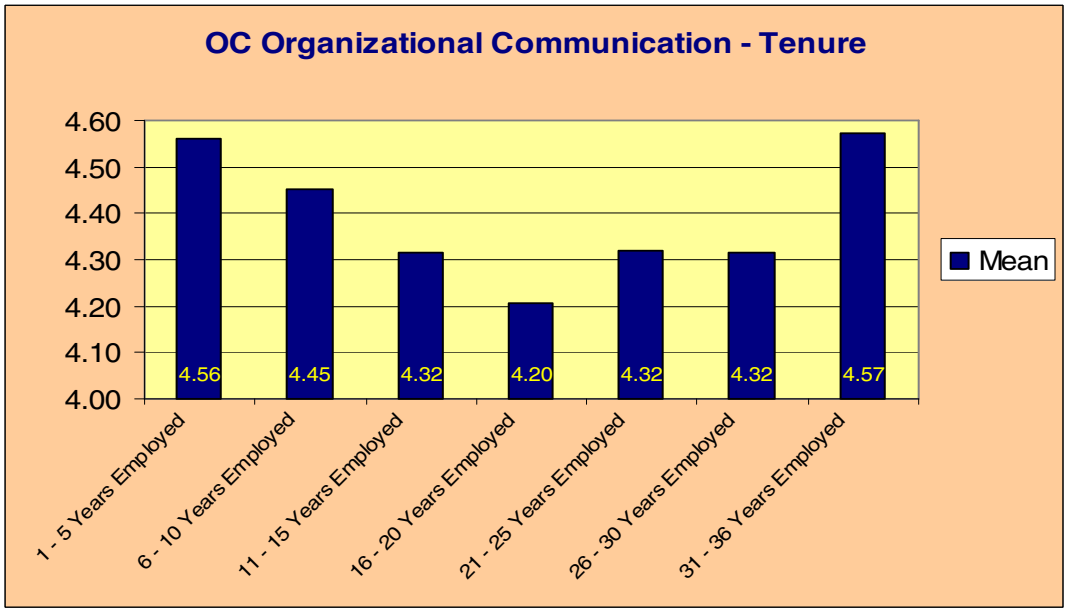

AC Affective Commitment - Position
5.30
5.20
5.10
5.00
4.90
4.80
4.95
5.23
5.16
Staff
Faculty
Administration
Mean

Figure 10


OC Organizational Communication - Age
4.55
4.50
4.45
4.40
4.35
4.30
4.25
4.20
4.15
4.10
4.05
4.47
4.24
4.52
21 - 35
36 - 50
51 - 72
Mean


OC Organizational Communication - Tenure
4.60
4.50
4.40
4.30
4.20
4.10
4.00
4.56
4.45
4.32
4.20
4.32
4.32
4.57
1 - 5 Years Employed
6 - 10 Years Employed
11 - 15 Years Employed
16 - 20 Years Employed
21 - 25 Years Employed
26 - 30 Years Employed
31 - 36 Years Employed
Mean

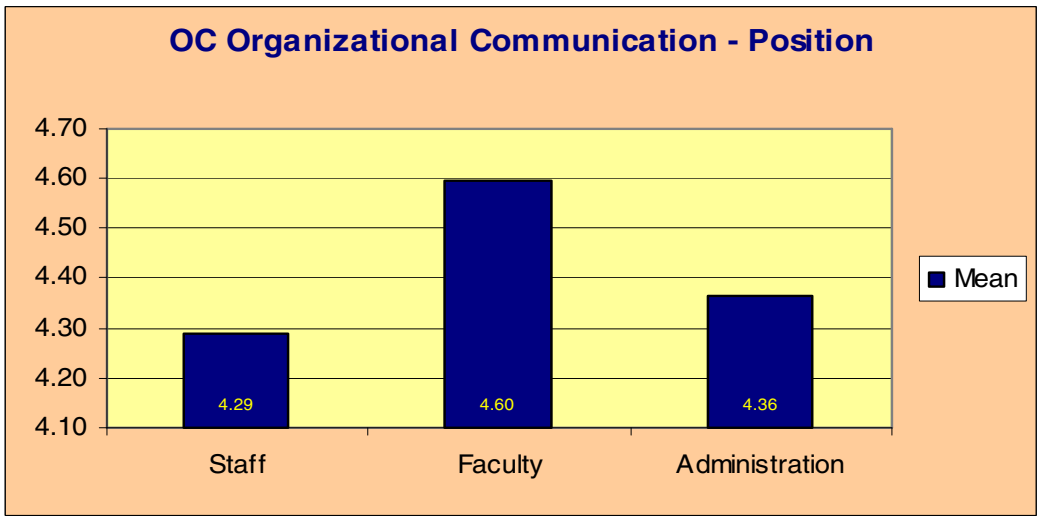
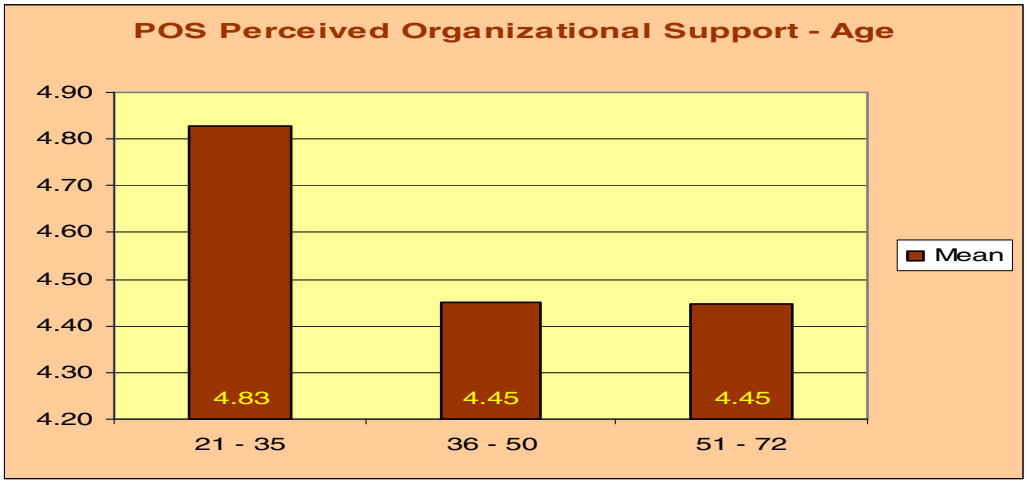
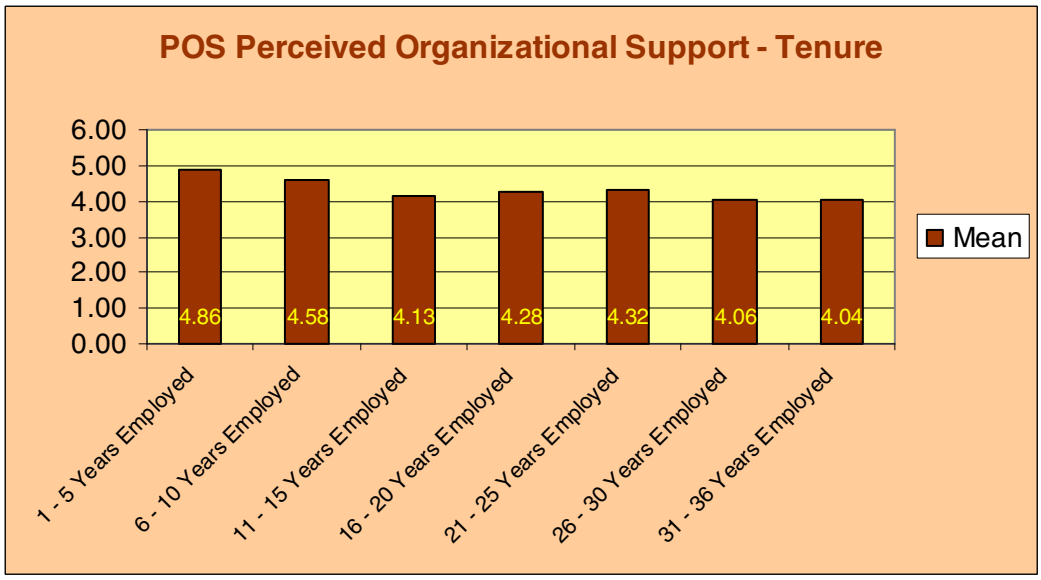

OC Organizational Communication - Position
4.70
4.60
4.50
4.40
4.30
4.20
4.10
4.29
4.60
4.36
Staff
Faculty
Administration
Mean

Figure 11


POS Perceived Organizational Support - Age
4.90
4.80
4.70
4.60
4.50
4.40
4.30
4.20
4.83
4.45
4.45
21 - 35
36 - 50
51 - 72
Mean


POS Perceived Organizational Support - Tenure
6.00
5.00
4.00
3.00
2.00
1.00
0.00
4.86
4.58
4.13
4.28
4.32
4.06
4.04
1 - 5 Years Employed
6 - 10 Years Employed
11 - 15 Years Employed
16 - 20 Years Employed
21 - 25 Years Employed
26 - 30 Years Employed
31 - 36 Years Employed
Mean

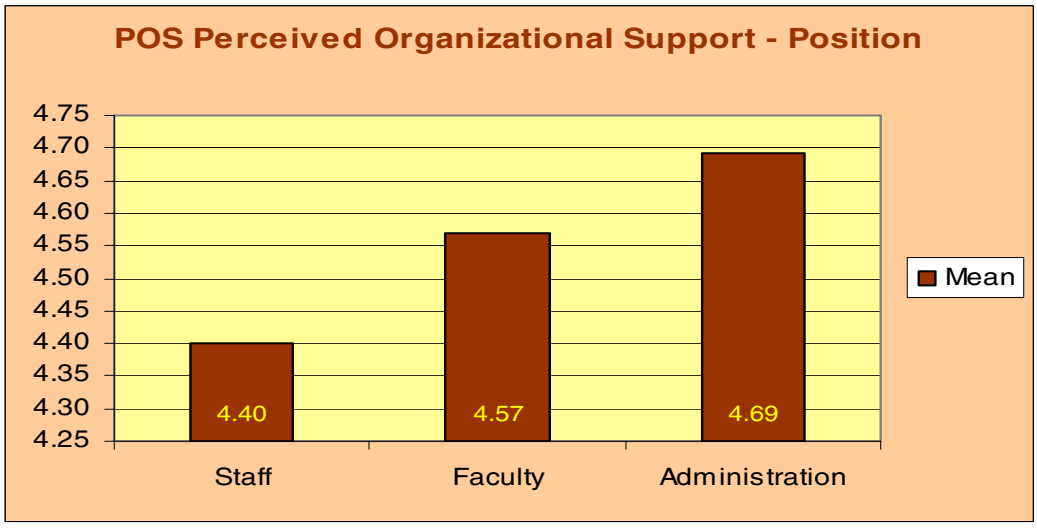
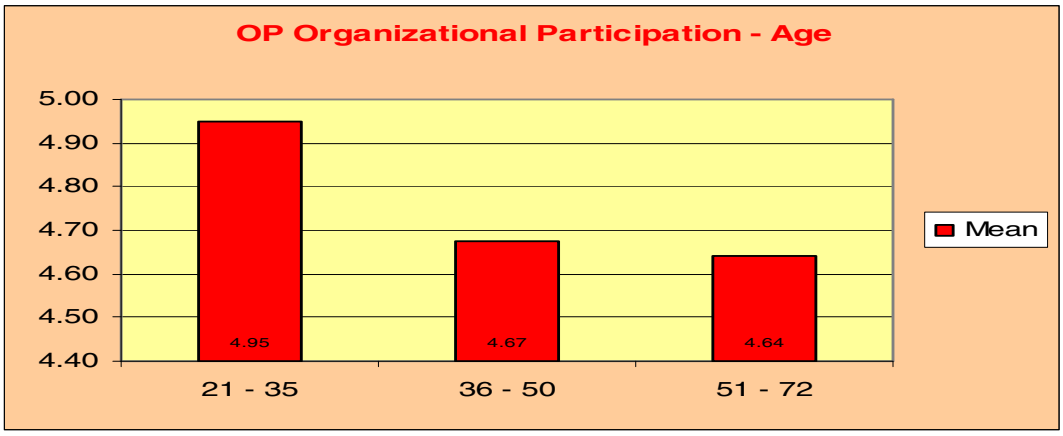
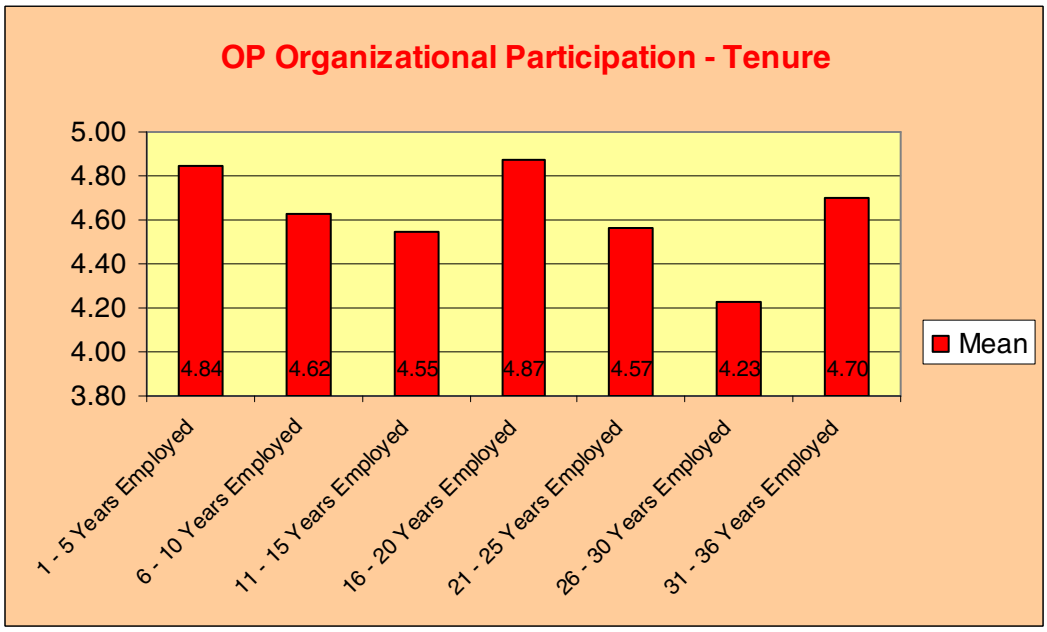
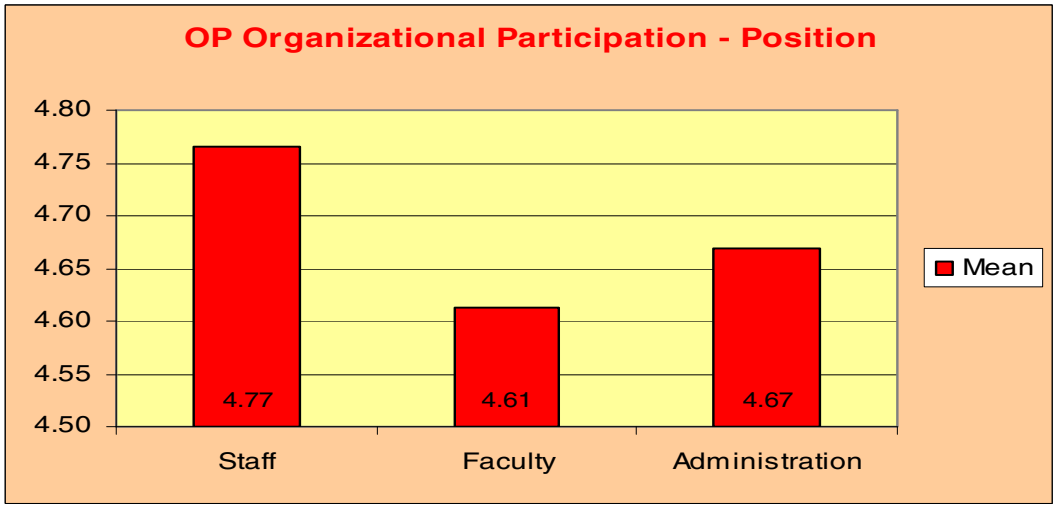

POS Perceived Organizational Support - Position
4.75
4.70
4.65
4.60
4.55
4.50
4.45
4.40
4.35
4.30
4.25
4.40
4.57
4.69
Staff
Faculty
Administration
Mean

Figure 12


OP Organizational Participation - Age
5.00
4.90
4.80
4.70
4.60
4.50
4.40
4.95
4.67
4.64
21 - 35
36 - 50
51 - 72
Mean


OP Organizational Participation - Tenure
5.00
4.80
4.60
4.40
4.20
4.00
3.80
4.84
4.62
4.55
4.87
4.57
4.23
4.70
1 - 5 Years Employed
6 - 10 Years Employed
11 - 15 Years Employed
16 - 20 Years Employed
21 - 25 Years Employed
26 - 30 Years Employed
31 - 36 Years Employed
Mean


OP Organizational Participation - Position
4.80
4.75
4.70
4.65
4.60
4.55
4.50
4.77
4.61
4.67
Staff
Faculty
Administration
Mean

Appendix D

Survey Instrument

Electronic e-mail cover letter

September, 2005

I am a graduate student under the direction of Professor Dan O'Hair, Ph.D., in the Organizational Leadership Program at the University of Oklahoma. I invite you to participate in an electronic research study being conducted under the auspices of the University of Oklahoma-Norman Campus and entitled Resistance to Change in the Community College: The Influence of Participation, Open Communication, Perceived Organizational Support, and Organizational Commitment. The purpose of this study will be to examine the relationship of participation, communication, organizational support, and organizational commitment to one's resistance to change.

If you have any questions about this research project, please feel free to call me (Carol Messer) at 595-7724 or contact me by e-mail at cmesser@tulsacc.edu.

Please complete our on-line survey by clicking the link below
http://www.zipsurvey.com/LaunchSurvey.aspx?suid=5891&key=6751A1C1

Survey Instrument

Copy of Organizational Change

RISK OF PARTICIPATION
There are no risks associated with this project, including stress, psychological, social, physical, or legal risk which are greater, considering probability and magnitude, than those

BENEFITS OF PARTICIPATION
Participants may gain an appreciation and understanding for how research is conducted. Participants will not be compensated financially for participation in this study.

CONFIDENTIALITY STATEMENT
All information about you will be kept confidential and will not be released. The survey does not have any identification number or personal information is not requested that would allow you, as an individual, to be identified. All survey data will be stored on a secure server accessible only to the researchers and is password protected. Group-level results from this study may be presented at professional meetings or in publications. Participants will not be identified individually.

Confidentiality will be maintained except under specified conditions required by law.

1. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I will not be compensated for my participation. I understand that there is no penalty for refusal to participate, and that I am free to withdraw my consent and participation in this project at any time, without penalty. (Required)
   - ○ I understand, and I willingly participate.
   - ○ I do not wish to participate.

2. By participating in this study, I acknowledge that I have been fully informed about the procedures, and I am aware of what I will be asked to do and the benefits of my participation. (Required)
   - ○ Yes
   - ○ No

3. I affirm that I am 18 years of age or older. (Required)
   - ○ Yes
   - ○ No

ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT
Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the statements below by selecting one of the response options below each item.

4. The organization values my contribution to its well-being.
   - ○ Strongly Disagree
   - ○ Disagree
   - ○ Somewhat Disagree
   - ○ Neither Agree or Disagree
   - ○ Somewhat Agree

- Agree
- Strongly Agree

5. If the organization could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary it would do so.
   - Strongly Disagree
   - Disagree
   - Somewhat Disagree
   - Neither Agree or Disagree
   - Somewhat Agree
   - Agree
   - Strongly Agree

6. The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.
   - Strongly Disagree
   - Disagree
   - Somewhat Disagree
   - Neither Agree or Disagree
   - Somewhat Agree
   - Agree
   - Strongly Agree

7. The organization strongly considers my goals and values.
   - Strongly Disagree
   - Disagree
   - Somewhat Disagree
   - Neither Agree or Disagree
   - Somewhat Agree
   - Agree
   - Strongly Agree

8. The organization would understand a long absence due to my illness.
   - Strongly Disagree
   - Disagree
   - Somewhat Disagree
   - Neither Agree or Disagree
   - Somewhat Agree
   - Agree
   - Strongly Agree

9. The organization would ignore any complaint from me.
   - Strongly Disagree
   - Disagree
   - Somewhat Disagree
   - Neither Agree or Disagree
   - Somewhat Agree
   - Agree
   - Strongly Agree

10. The organization disregards my best interests when it makes decisions that affect me.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

11. Help is available from the organization when I have a problem.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

12. The organization really cares about my well-being.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

13. The organization is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

14. The organization would fail to understand my absence due to a personal problem.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

15. If the organization found a more efficient way to get my job done they would replace me.
    - Strongly Disagree

- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

16. The organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

17. It would take only a small decrease in my performance for the organization to want to replace me.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

18. The organization feels there is little to be gained by employing me for the rest of my career.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

19. The organization provides me little opportunity to move up the ranks.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

20. Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree

- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

21. The organization would grant a reasonable request for a change in my working conditions.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

22. If I were laid off, the organization would prefer to hire someone new rather than take me back.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

23. The organization is willing to help me when I need a special favor.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

24. The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

25. If given the opportunity, the organization would take advantage of me.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree

- Agree
- Strongly Agree

26. The organization shows very little concern for me.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

27. If I decided to quit, the organization would try to persuade me to stay.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

28. The organization cares about my opinions.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

29. The organization feels that hiring me was a definite mistake.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

30. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

31. The organization cares more about increasing enrollment than about me.
- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

32. The organization would understand if I were unable to finish a task on time.
- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

33. If enrollment increases significantly, the organization would consider increasing salaries.
- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

34. The organization feels that anyone could perform my job as well as I do.
- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

35. The organization is not concerned about paying me what I deserve.
- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

36. The organization wishes to give me the best possible job for which I am qualified.
- Strongly Disagree

- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

37. If my job were eliminated, the organization would prefer to lay me off rather than transfer me to a new job.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

38. The organization tries to make my job as interesting as possible.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

For this item, "supervisor" refers to the person who conducts your performance evaluation.

39. My supervisor is proud that I am a part of this organization.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE
Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the statements below by selecting one of the response options below each item.

40. If I were informed that there is going to be a significant change regarding the way things are done at work, I would probably feel stressed.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree

- Strongly Agree

41. When I am informed of a change of plans, I tense up a bit.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

42. When things don't go according to plans, I tense up a bit.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

For this item, "supervisor" refers to the person who conducts your performance evaluation.

43. If my supervisor changed the criteria for evaluating employees, it would probably make me feel uncomfortable, even if I thought I'd do just as well without having to do any extra work.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

44. I generally consider change to be a negative thing.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

45. I'll take a routine day over a day full of unexpected events any time.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree

- Agree
- Strongly Agree

46. I like to do the same things rather than try new and different ones.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

47. Whenever my life forms a stable routine, I look for ways to change it.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

48. I'd rather be bored than surprised.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

49. Changing plans seems like a real hassle to me.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

50. Often, I feel a bit uncomfortable even about changes that may potentially improve my life.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

51. When someone pressures me to change something, I tend to resist it even if I think the change may ultimately benefit me.
- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

52. I sometimes find myself avoiding changes that I know will be good for me.
- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

53. Once I've made plans, I'm not likely to change them.
- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

54. I often change my mind.
- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

55. Once I've come to a conclusion, I'm not likely to change my mind.
- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

56. I don't change my mind easily.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

57. My views are very consistent over time.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the statements below by selecting one of the response options below each item.

58. My coworkers are afraid to express their real views.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

59. If we have a decision to make, everyone is involved in making it.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

60. We tell each other the way we are feeling.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

61. In my department/division/area, everyone's opinion gets listened to.
- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

62. In this college, employees say what they really mean.
- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

63. We are encouraged to express our concerns openly.
- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

ORGANIZATIONAL PARTICIPATION
Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the statements below by selecting one of the response options below each item.

For all of the items in this section, "supervisor" refers to the person who conducts your performance evaluation.

64. My supervisor asks for my opinion about how the work gets done.
- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

65. I want my supervisor to ask for my opinion about how the work gets done.
- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree

Somewhat Agree

- Agree
- Strongly Agree

66. My supervisor asks for my opinion about how to monitor quality.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

67. I want my supervisor to ask for my opinion about how to monitor quality.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

68. My supervisor asks for my opinion about how fast the work gets done.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

69. I want my supervisor to ask for my opinion about how fast the work gets done.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

70. My supervisor asks for my opinion about how work is assigned.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree

- Strongly Agree

71. I want my supervisor to ask for my opinion about how work is assigned.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

72. My supervisor asks for my opinion about when work gets done.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

73. I want my supervisor to ask for my opinion about when work gets done.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

74. My supervisor asks for my opinion before hiring a coworker.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

75. I want my supervisor to ask for my opinion before hiring a coworker.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

76. My supervisor asks for my opinion before disciplining a coworker.
- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

77. I want my supervisor to ask for my opinion before disciplining a coworker.
- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

78. My supervisor asks for my opinion before evaluating the performance of a coworker.
- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

79. I want my supervisor to ask for my opinion before evaluating the performance of a coworker.
- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

80. My supervisor asks for my opinion about training needs.
- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

81. I want my supervisor to ask for my opinion about training needs.
- Strongly Disagree

- Disagree
- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

82. My supervisor asks for my opinion before making important purchases.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

83. I want my supervisor to askfor my opinion before making important purchases.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

84. My supervisor asks for my opinion about organizational goals.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

85. I want my supervisor to ask for my opinion about organizational goals.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

86. My supervisor asks for my opinion about organizational policies and rules.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree

- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

87. I want my supervisor to ask for my opinion about organizational policies and rules.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

88. I decide how to do my job.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

89. My ideas get serious consideration.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

90. I get credit for my ideas.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the statements below by selecting one of the response options below each item.

91. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree

- Somewhat Disagree
- Neither Agree or Disagree
- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

92. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

93. I really feel as if this orgnaization's problems are my own.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

94. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

95. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

96. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree

- Somewhat Agree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

97. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.
    - Strongly Disagree
    - Disagree
    - Somewhat Disagree
    - Neither Agree or Disagree
    - Somewhat Agree
    - Agree
    - Strongly Agree

BACKGROUND INFORMATION
Please indicate your position and length of employment. This information will be used only to group the overall responses to this survey. Your individual responses will remain anonymous.

98. Position (Required)
    - Faculty
    - Staff
    - Administration

99. Sex (Required)
    - Male
    - Female

100. Age (years) (Required)

101. How many years (total) have you been employed at Tulsa Community College? (Required)

102. Please feel free to add any additional comments, or click "submit" to finish the survey.

If you have any questions about this research project, please feel free to call Carol Messer at 595-7724.