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Organizational Change Within Christian Higher Education Institutions and the Reactions of Faculty

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Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

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Dr. Joey Cope, Dean of the College
of Graduate and Professional Studies

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Abilene Christian University

School of Educational Leadership

Organizational Change Within Christian Higher Education Institutions

and the Reactions of Faculty

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction

of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by

Dena Counts

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Abstract

Christian higher education in the United States is experiencing frequent transformational organizational change that is impacting faculty. Researchers have asserted that frequent, second-order organizational change correlates with interpersonal conflict, and conflict is associated with counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs). These associations between change, conflict, and negative work behavior are important to understand as faculty actions could significantly impact change efforts. Because of the context of Christian higher education, this study was designed to determine if faculty organizational identification influenced the correlations of the variables. It specifically utilized a cross-sectional survey design to assess faculty ($N = 267$) perceptions of organizational change, interpersonal conflict, CWB, and organizational identification at 5 faith-based universities. Organizational change had a statistically significant positive association with interpersonal conflict, and conflict had a statistically significant positive correlation with CWBs. Organizational identification did not influence these correlations but was found to have a statistically significant negative relationship with interpersonal conflict and CWBs. A model was proposed using an open systems theory perspective that reflected the relationship between all the variables. The findings suggested that leaders in Christian higher education must consider the systemic effects of organizational change as they implement change initiatives.

Keywords: frequent change, second-order change, transformational change, organizational change, interpersonal conflict, counterproductive work behavior, organizational identification, open systems theory, Christian higher education

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Organizational change is occurring at numerous institutions of Christian higher education because of contextual pressures. Those pressures include financial challenges, plummeting enrollment numbers, and ever-evolving technological advances. Thus, in an effort to survive, leaders at Christian universities and colleges are implementing an array of changes, such as budgetary cutbacks, reorganization, consolidation, curriculum changes, the use of new learning methods, and the implementation of new policies (Hetrick, Katz, & Nugent, 2018; Kozlowski, 2017; Reynolds & Wallace, 2016; Shellnutt, 2017). As a result of frequent change and transformative measures undertaken by Christian universities (e.g., revising common methods of doing things or shifting the values of the organization), faculty are navigating the stress of adaptation. Researchers in the field of organizational change within other nonacademic contexts have associated frequency of change and second-order change (e.g., transformative or revolutionary change) with a variety of stressors and costs (Logan & Ganster, 2007; Martin, Jones, & Callan, 2005; Oreg, 2006; Ribando, Slade, & Fortner, 2017; Smollan, 2015).

One of the most significant stressors that researchers have associated with organizational change is interpersonal conflict (Andersen, 2006; Robinson & Griffiths, 2005; Väänänen, Pahkin, Kalimo, & Buunk, 2004). This type of conflict occurs because employees feel that others are interfering with their goals or competing for scarce resources (Hocker & Wilmot, 2014). Consequently, it is not surprising that change might evolve into disputes among employees as interpersonal conflict occurs because of emotional, cognitive, and behavioral reactions to interdependence (Barki & Hartwick, 2001). Moreover, researchers have found that interpersonal conflict correlates with counterproductive work behavior (CWB) directed at the organization and other employees (Bayram, Gursakal, & Bilgel, 2009; Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Hershcovis et al.,

2007; Herschcovis & Barling, 2010). CWBs can take the form of abuse, theft, withdrawal, sabotage, and productive deviance (Spector & Fox, 2005).

I sought to assess the possible correlation between faculty interpersonal conflict and frequent or second-order organizational change within the context of Christian higher education. I also considered if interpersonal conflict with faculty or supervisors was associated with CWBs directed at fellow faculty or supervisors. Because of the unique context of Christian higher education and the alignment of values between faculty and the institution, I also explored if faculty organizational identification influenced the relationship between conflict and negative behaviors. In this chapter, I include an overview of the context of the problem, the research purpose, an explanation of the methods, and a definition of key terms.

The Context of Higher Education

Christian colleges and universities operate within the broader context of higher education. There are four significant divisions within the U.S. system of higher education: 2-year colleges, public universities, private institutions, and for-profit institutes (Eckel & King, 2004). Christian colleges and universities typically function as private entities. The National Center for Education Statistics (2016a) indicated that there are 4,627 degree-granting colleges and universities in the United States, which is a drop of 99 from 2012, and that there are 2,294 listed as private 4-year institutions. Of these, there is variation concerning funding, mission, and student population. What they all have in common are the social and economic pressures affecting higher education.

Financial pressures. Leaders in all types of higher education institutions are grappling with budgetary challenges. The University of Missouri recently released 400 faculty and staff because of state budget shortfalls (Marcus, 2017). Similarly, Oberlin College in Ohio faced a $5 million deficit and resorted to the freezing salaries across employment types (Seltzer, 2017). The

Peralta Community College District in California had more than a $7 million gap in the 2018–2019 budget, resulting in cuts, a hiring freeze, and the canceling of planned raises (Richards, 2018). These institutions of higher education are not alone. Since 2008, public higher education funding has fallen in 49 states, which has resulted in faculty cuts, course reductions, and elimination of a variety of student services. Funding for colleges is now approximately $9 billion below levels in 2008 (Mitchell, Leachman, & Masterson, 2017). Across the country, leaders in institutions of higher education are cutting budgets.

Leaders in Christian universities are also experiencing similar challenges. In 2018, administrators at Bob Jones University cut 50 employees to meet a $4 million budget shortfall (Associated Press, 2018). A university spokesperson explained that rising health care costs and scholarships led to the disparity. Similarly, in 2017, leadership at Abilene Christian University attempted to align their budget to meet an $8 million deficit by offering voluntary faculty retirement packages and instigating staff layoffs (Goodlett, 2017). King's College in New York has a related problem. Since the college's endowment is small compared to other institutions, it would only take a year or two of low enrollment to place it in dire straits (Eide, 2017). Moody (2015) predicted that closures of smaller schools would soon triple and mergers would become common. In addition, a recent analysis of 560 private institutions found that about one-third of those surveyed did not demonstrate financial health (Chessman, Hartley, & Williams, 2017). Johnston (2017) from the Council of Christian Colleges agreed with these reports and noted that a primary challenge for Christian higher education was financial. Because of plunging enrollment numbers, the budget problems at these universities are not unusual.

Enrollment pressures. Throughout higher education, student enrollment is declining, resulting in financial challenges. College admissions decreased by 7% in the last decade

(National Center for Education Statistics, 2018). Adult student numbers dropped by more than 1.5 million (Nadworny, 2018). In the previous school year of 2017–18, only 22% of public universities recruiters met goals for new students (Jaschik, 2017). Community colleges are also experiencing lower enrollments. A change in Pell Grant legislation resulted in fewer students from low-income families, who had previously qualified for the grant, getting grants to attend a community college program (Smith, 2018). The future is not bright for enrollment numbers. The number of students entering college will continue to be flat, with a precipitous drop in 2025 (Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 2017). This drop in enrollment has directly impacted budgets throughout the field of higher education (Pincus, Stout, Sorensen, Stocks, & Lawson, 2017).

Leaders in Christian institutions of higher education are also encountering the pressures of enrollment. Parents in the Midwest and Northeast experienced lower birth rates for the most recent college-attending generation (National Center for Education Statistics, 2018), which is impacting enrollments of Christian universities. Conversely, larger Christian institutions, like Belmont University and Liberty University, are drawing record enrollments, placing the smaller Christian institutions in danger (Powell & Boyington, 2017). An additional reason they are losing students is tuition differences when compared to other institutions. As the cost of college increases, students are searching for affordable solutions, and in comparison, public universities are less expensive (Sriram & McLevain, 2016). Recently, the average full price per year for an in-state public university was $19,548, while for a private institution it was $43,921 (Ma, Baum, Pender, & Bell, 2015). Although private institutions more heavily discount tuition than their public counterparts (Douglas-Gabriel, 2016), a significant difference exists in the final cost for

students and parents. The national enrollment trends not only affect other parts of higher education but also present problems for Christian higher education.

Technological innovation pressures. A third contextual factor impacting higher education is technological innovation. First, students access classes differently because of online learning. The National Center for Education Statistics (2016a) indicated that more than 5 million students consistently take online courses, and of undergraduate students, almost 32% take at least one online class. Researchers in 2016 found that 29 was the average age for online undergraduate students, and for online graduate students, the average age was 33 (Clinefelter & Aslanian, 2016). Online education not only changes how students access education but also broadens the age groups accessing it. Second, technology influences classroom learning. It allows the faculty member to personalize learning for the student and create online learning opportunities, and it gives the student the ability to analyze massive amounts of information (Brown, 2015). However, a challenge for most faculty is that they are often relatively new to digital learning, whereas their students are experienced users (Reynolds & Wallace, 2016). Faculty are being forced to adjust and not only change how they teach in the classroom but also reconsider how to deliver virtual classes online.

Faculty in Christian higher education experience an added burden with technology because of the expectation of faith integrated with learning. Cassell and Merkel (2018) argued that faith-based online learning should demonstrate values within discussion boards, instructor videos, and feedback on assignments. Even though the professor is not physically in front of the class, their Christian worldview can still be present online. In her ethnographic study, Y. Lee (2013) found that Christian students see the Internet as a method of sharing their faith in an additional context. Thus, it is no surprise that Yacapsin (2014) discovered that in online

coursework at two Christian colleges, students expected the professor to integrate their faith with learning activities. However, how faith and learning occur online could be a point of contention between faculty and students. A researcher at Pew Research found that millennials are less religious than previous generations (B. Alper, 2015). Opinions of how faith is demonstrated in the online learning environment could differ from faculty member to student, thereby negatively affecting learning. Because Christian universities or colleges provide access to education through technology, they have the added expectation to integrate spiritual formation practices in this evolving environment.

   Resulting organizational change. Budgetary pressures, evolving technology, and lower enrollment operate as contextual triggers for organizational change in Christian colleges and universities. In an effort to attract new students to Ohio Wesleyan, faculty developed cutting-edge majors in data analytics and computational neural sciences (Marcus, 2017). Leadership at Marygrove College rebranded the college as a graduate school and ceased all undergraduate programs (Kozlowski, 2017). Abilene Christian University (2017) began an independent online program in the neighboring city of Dallas in a bid to broaden its student base and garner revenue to help support its home campus. Leaders at other Christian institutions have formed partnerships to share costs (Pratt, 2017). The Colleges of Fenway are a partnership of five Boston universities, one of which is Emmanuel College (Bird, 2018). Theses colleges share security, intramurals, and encourage students to cross-register.

  The organizational changes implemented by leaders of these Christian entities are also responses to calls for change by community leaders within Christian higher education. In a recent report, the representatives of the Council of Independent Colleges (Hetrick et al., 2018) challenged their member institutions to add academic programs, revitalize their teaching

methods, and implement budget restrictions. With a similar challenge, Hulme, Groom, and

Heltzel (2016) asserted that Christian higher education institutions of the future should customize

learning and focus on the holistic development of the student. With leaders in Christian

universities aiming to reimagine the future, frequent and transformational organizational change

are becoming permanent parts of their culture (Reynolds & Wallace, 2016).

Statement of the Problem

However, there is a price associated with frequent change and second-order

organizational change in noneducational contexts. Smollan, Sayers, and Matheny (2010) defined

frequent organizational change as a series of changes over time or several changes all at once

that result in problems for employees who may struggle with the complexity required to navigate

constant adaptation. Second-order change (Porras & Robertson, 1992) occurs when

organizational paradigms evolve, resulting in system-wide impacts. Transformative and

revolutionary are other labels used for second-order change (Burke, 2014). These two types of

organizational change have been associated with significant consequences.

Outside of the context Christian higher education, frequent, second-order organizational

change has been associated with interpersonal conflict, one of the most acute work stressors for

employees (Andersen, 2006; Robinson & Griffiths, 2005; Väänänen et al., 2004). Interpersonal

conflict is a "dynamic process that occurs between interdependent parties as they experience

negative emotional reactions to perceived disagreements and interference with the attainment of

goals" (Barki & Hartwick, 2004, p. 216). Unfortunately, interpersonal conflict in the workplace

can have serious side effects. Depression, withdrawal, burnout, high turnover, decreased

decision-making, and creativity (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Jehn, 1995) are all correlated with

interpersonal conflict (Frone, 2000; Spector & Jex, 1998). As Eschleman, Bowling, and LaHuis

(2015) have explained that when interpersonal conflict increases, CWBs also emerge and have significant costs to both employees and the organization.

CWBs involve deviance and intention to harm (O'Boyle, Donelson, & O'Boyle, 2011; Salgado, 2002; Zhou, Meier, & Spector, 2014). As Spector et al. (2006) have explained, there are five dimensions of these behaviors: physical or psychological abuse, purposefully underperforming job tasks, sabotage of property, theft, and withdrawal in the forms of absences, tardiness, and reduced engagement. Researchers have asserted that such behaviors may negatively affect the organization by reducing productivity, dominating managers' time, and increasing costs associated with turnover (Freres, 2013; Mikkelsen & Clegg, 2018; Raza, Khan, & Mujtava, 2017). Interestingly, Bruk-Lee and Spector (2006) in their study revealed that when counterproductive behaviors correlated with interpersonal conflict, these behaviors occurred as an attempt to counter emotions. Additionally, Bruk-Lee and Spector found that interpersonal conflict with a coworker correlated with counterproductive work behaviors directed at an individual, whereas conflict with a supervisor correlated with these behaviors directed at the organization. These harmful behaviors inevitably affect employees and the institution. Researchers agreed that the recipients' reactions would determine the success of organizational change (Bartunek, Rousseau, Rudolph, & DePalma, 2006), which means that interpersonal conflict and resulting worker behavior could undermine change efforts.

In each case of organizational change within Christian higher education, the resulting moves have affected faculty. Budget cuts have meant a reduction of faculty positions at many institutions (Bernstein, 2018; Bird, 2018; Goodlett, 2017; Kozlowski, 2017; Pratt, 2017; Szpaller, 2018). Additionally, faculty layoffs have resulted in heavier teaching loads and the need for faculty to take on additional projects (Bernstein, 2018; Bird, 2018; Goodlett, 2017;

Kozlowski, 2017; Pratt, 2017; Szpaller, 2018). The push for innovative curricula has compelled faculty to create new classes and majors to attract students (Hetrick et al., 2018; Kozlowski, 2017; Marcus, 2017). With advances in technology, faculty are also being encouraged to innovate with that same technology in their classroom (Abilene Christian University, 2017; Brown, 2015). P. LeBlanc (2014) asserted that technological changes are causing faculty to revise how they work. P. LeBlanc also claimed that typical functions of faculty (such as academic advising) are moving to other units. For instance, course design is now a team effort between the faculty member and instructional designers, and assessment occurs in a learning management system. With the significant organizational change occurring in Christian higher education, the resulting changes could be associated with increased interpersonal conflict for faculty members, and in turn, that conflict could correlate with CWBs, such as theft, withdrawal, and production deviance.

Kezar and Maxey (2014) claimed that it is important to consider faculty reactions to change because those faculty members are the key to the primary goal of higher education institutions: student learning. The Education Advisory Board (2016) noted that initiatives to invigorate learning for students are doomed to failure without faculty engagement. Kezar and Maxey also asserted that faculty members are important for the support of first-generation students as well as students of color. In fact, increased faculty student interactions are associated with multiple positive student outcomes, which include increases in knowledge and skills, less idealism, and a greater sense of competence (Astin, 2001). Additionally, in Gilbert's (2019) interview of Shirley Hoogstra, president of the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities, Hoogstra explained that faculty at Christian colleges and universities are uniquely positioned to influence student's lives. Those students in college are trying to understand how to engage in a

meaningful life, a topic that Christian faculty are uniquely qualified to answer. Thus, Hoogstra highlighted that those Christian faculty members take the time to integrate faith with learning, a key to Christian higher education. Therefore, faculty members are the primary connection to student learning, and if organizational change has negative impacts, their actions could undermine student outcomes.

Although researchers of organizational change in other contexts have found an association of interpersonal conflict and CWB (Bruk-Lee & Spector, 2006; Eschleman et al., 2015), that relationship may not hold true for faculty in Christian higher education because of the possibility of organizational identification, which is a psychological connection held by an employee with an organization. Employees define themselves with the same characteristics that they believe the organization possesses (E. Lee, Park, & Koo, 2015). Thus, employees with high organizational identification tend to have self-defining attributes that align with their organization's values and goals (E. Lee et al., 2015). Faculty members of Christian colleges and universities frequently work for the entity because of the alignment of the values of the institution with their personal values of faith. Thus, faculty members working in the context of Christian higher education could possibly demonstrate higher identification levels, which might influence the suggested correlation between interpersonal conflict and CWB.

Research on the behavioral actions of employees with higher levels of organizational identification has been unclear about whether that identification positively or negatively affects the organization. Some researchers have indicated that those with high levels of identification demonstrate higher levels of job satisfaction (van Dick et al., 2004), whereas other researchers have argued that it correlates with unethical behaviors (Conroy, Henle, Shore, & Stelman, 2017). Because of the contradiction in research findings, it is unknown how organizational

identification influences the relationship of interpersonal conflict and CWB for faculty at Christian colleges and universities.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine if there was an association between frequent change or second-order change and faculty interpersonal conflict, and an association between interpersonal conflict and CWBs for faculty at Christian institutions of higher education. I also sought to understand how faculty organizational identification influenced the correlation between interpersonal conflict and counterproductive work behaviors directed toward individuals and supervisors.

Researchers have indicated that significant organizational change is associated with increased interpersonal conflict (Andersen, 2006; Robinson & Griffiths, 2005; Väänänen et al., 2004). Interpersonal conflict has also been commonly associated with CWBs (Bayram et al., 2009; Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Eschleman et al., 2015; Herschcovis & Barling, 2010; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Spector et al., 2006). Uniquely, Bruk-Lee and Spector (2006) found that interpersonal conflict with employees correlated with CWBs directed at coworkers, whereas conflict with supervisors often led to CWBs directed at supervisors or the organization. Thus, I explored if these same variables had an association for faculty in the context of Christian higher education and if organizational identification could influence the relationship between conflict and work behaviors.

Using a theoretical perspective of open systems theory (OST), I proposed that OST (Kast & Rosenzweig, 2017) could increase understanding of the possible relationship among all the variables. Fugate (2013) asserted that systems theory is an effective method to consider the processes and outcomes of organizational change as it links actions and consequences. By

examining the correlations between substantial organizational change and faculty interpersonal conflict and the resulting work behaviors influenced by organizational identification, OST could provide insight into these interactions.

This quantitative study was based on a cross-sectional predictive correlation design method. Institutional review board (IRB) approval by Abilene Christian University (see Appendix F) was initially given to sample seven universities that are members of the Council of Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCU). Five of those universities agreed to allow faculty to participate in the study. I included full-time faculty, employed for at least 2 years, at the five participating universities. All full-time faculty were emailed invitations to take the survey anytime between April 28, 2019, and June 30, 2019. Currently, there are over 1,400 full-time faculty at the five institutions. The participating universities were from across the United States and represented various denominations. Because of requests by some of the participating colleges, no further identifying information for the universities is included here or in any study documents.

In the measurement instrument, I included questions about frequent change, second-order change, interpersonal conflict, organizational identification, and CWBs (see Appendices B–E). Specifically, Rafferty and Griffin's (2006) items concerning frequent change and second-order change measured faculty perceptions of transformational change and frequency of change. These questions were slightly modified to reflect a university work environment (see Appendix B). Items assessing the frequency of change considered the inability to identify the beginning and end of change and the perception of recurring change. Items addressing transformational change assessed perceptions of structural change and value modifications. I adapted the Workplace Interpersonal Conflict Scale (WICS; Wright et al., 2017) to assess interpersonal conflict for

faculty with fellow faculty or conflict with supervisors at the institutions (see Appendix C). These items included topics such as perceptions of disagreements, criticism, rudeness, and unfairness. I differentiated between conflict with fellow faculty and conflict with supervisors to align with the CWB scale, which measures behaviors directed at employees and supervisors. I also used an adapted version of the Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist (CWBC) developed by Spector, Bauer, and Fox (2010) to measure CWBs toward others and the organization (see Appendix D). Finally, I utilized the Multi-Dimensional Identification Scale (MDIS) developed by Stoner, Perrewe, and Hofacker (2011) to assess organizational identification for faculty in four areas: self-categorization, goodness of fit, affective-attachment, and behavioral involvement. Chapter 3 includes explanations and justifications for each scale. I asked demographic questions on gender, length of employment, and university identification (see Appendix A). Those descriptors were the only ones gathered so that faculty respondents had increased confidence that their responses were anonymous.

Hypotheses and Research Questions

Based upon research in other contexts that revealed an association between organizational change and interpersonal conflict (Andersen, 2006; Robinson & Griffiths, 2005; Väänänen et al., 2004), I hypothesized that frequent and second-order organizational change in Christian higher education would correlate with interpersonal conflict for faculty and conflict between faculty and supervisors. I also hypothesized that interpersonal conflict would associate with CWBs directed at faculty and supervisors, similar to the Bruk-Lee and Spector (2006) study. Finally, under the hypotheses of conflict's association with CWB, I included research questions so I could assess if organizational identification influenced the correlations of conflict and CWB.

H1. A higher frequency of measures of second-order change will be positively correlated with interpersonal conflict between faculty members.

H2. A higher frequency of measures of second-order change will be positively correlated with interpersonal conflict for faculty with supervisors.

H3. Interpersonal conflict between faculty members will be positively correlated with counterproductive work behavior directed at fellow faculty members.

- **RQ1.** What is the intervening effect of organizational identification with interpersonal conflict between faculty members and counterproductive work behavior directed at faculty members?

- **RQ2.** What is the intervening effect of organizational identification with interpersonal conflict between faculty members and counterproductive work behavior directed at supervisors?

H4. Interpersonal conflict between faculty and supervisors will be positively correlated with counterproductive work behavior directed at supervisors.

- **RQ3.** What is the intervening effect of organizational identification with interpersonal conflict between faculty members and supervisors and counterproductive work behavior directed at supervisors?

- **RQ4.** What is the intervening effect of organizational identification with interpersonal conflict between faculty members and supervisors and counterproductive work behavior directed at other faculty members?

Definition of Key Terms

Christian higher education. All participating universities are members of the CCCU. To be considered members of this organization, the universities must be 4-year colleges or universities whose missions are Christ-centered and promote biblical principles throughout every student's educational experiences (Council of Christian Colleges and Universities, 2019).

Counterproductive work behaviors. Spector et al. (2006) asserted that these are actions by employees that undermine the organization because of work-related stressors and are directed at the organization or other employees. According to Spector et al., these include actions directed at others or the organization in various forms including psychological or physical abuse, production deviance, sabotaging of property, theft, and withdrawal.

Faculty. For this study, faculty were those who worked full-time at a Christian college or university in a teaching and/or research capacity.

Frequent organizational change. Researchers explained that frequent change is understood as a series of changes over time or several changes all at once, which results in problems for employees in dealing with the complexity required to navigate adaptation (Smollan et al., 2010).

Interpersonal conflict. Barki and Hartwick (2004) affirmed that interpersonal conflict is a dynamic process between those who are interdependent as they perceive disagreement or interference, which results in negative emotions.

Organizational identification. E. Lee et al. (2015) noted that organizational identification reflects a psychological state in which employees define themselves with the same attributes they believe the organization reflects. E. Lee et al. also claimed that this results in the employee having self-defining attributes that align with organizational values and goals, which

can result in the boundary between the two becoming blurred. According to Ashmore, Deaux, and McLaughlin-Volpe (2004), organizational identification has cognitive, affective, and behavioral components.

Second-order organizational change. Researchers asserted that this type of organizational change, also known as transformational or revolutionary change, includes changes to policies, ways of operating, or leadership that result in the adoption of new paradigms impacting the entire system (Burke, 2014). Employees perceive change in values, company structure, and methods of working such that primary organizational components begin to operate in ways that look like radical departures from the previous methods (Burke, 2014; Rafferty & Griffin, 2006; Rafferty & Restubog, 2017). This is in contrast to first-order change, which is considered only a small modification to the system and only impacts individuals or groups (Porras & Robertson, 1992).

Summary

Significant organizational change has become a common theme in institutions of Christian higher education. Researchers have frequently associated interpersonal conflict with organizational change (Andersen, 2006; Robinson & Griffiths, 2005; Väänänen et al., 2004). Conflict can result in costs to the company because of increased counterproductive work behaviors (Bayram et al., 2009; Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Eschleman et al., 2015; Herschcovis & Barling, 2010; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Spector et al., 2006). I hypothesized that faculty at Christian universities or colleges also experience conflict and CWBs because of organizational change at their institutions. However, I also sought to understand how organizational identification influences the relationship of conflict and negative behaviors.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The premise of the study is that frequent and second-order organizational change efforts in Christian higher education are likely associated with interpersonal conflict for faculty, which is associated with CWBs that negatively impact the university and its employees. However, it is unknown how organizational identification impacts the relationship between variables. Researchers have claimed that organizational change is correlated with interpersonal conflict in other contexts (Andersen, 2006; Robinson & Griffiths, 2005; Väänänen et al., 2004). Other researchers have noted that interpersonal conflict is associated with CWBs directed at other individuals and the organization (Bruk-Lee & Spector, 2006; Eschleman et al., 2015). But organizational change practitioners and researchers within Christian higher education have not sufficiently considered these costs for the change recipients (faculty) or for the university. This avoidance of a significant stressor associated with change results in the undermining of change efforts. I have asserted that the theoretical underpinnings of the relationships between change, change recipients, and costs should be primarily understood via an OST perspective.

In the second section of this chapter, I survey the literature about the field of organizational change, including analyses of frequent and second-order change. I highlight how Christian higher education change initiatives align with the research. In addition, I discuss the research about change recipients and their reactions when considering the repercussions of organizational change. Robinson and Griffiths (2005) found that one of the most common stress reactions for change recipients was interpersonal conflict. Next, I survey the research discussing the background of interpersonal conflict and its connection to organizational change. Then I highlight the relationship between interpersonal conflict and CWBs. Finally, I consider the literature of organizational identification as it relates to the variables of change and behaviors.

Literature Search Methods

For research purposes, I used OneSearch, which is a search engine that takes a multidisciplinary approach to research, drawing from a multitude of fields, including business, communication, sociology, and psychology. I searched the literature using these key search terms: *organizational change*, *change management*, *organizational development*, *change recipients*, *higher education*, *postsecondary education*, *faculty*, *interpersonal conflict*, *conflict*, *relational conflict*, *general systems theory*, *systems theory*, *organization identification*, and *open systems theory*. Search results included empirical studies, books, and theoretical articles. Throughout, I consulted seminal theories in each of the fields and research in more current empirical studies.

Theoretical Framework of Open Systems Theory

Researchers have commonly utilized systems theory as a perspective to understand organizational change and its repercussions (Burke, 2014; Burnes, 2009; Senge, Cambron-McCabe, Lucas, Smith, & Dutton, 2012). I utilized OST as a method to analyze the systemic relationship among the variables of organizational change, interpersonal conflict, and CWBs—all of which may be influenced by organizational identification. I employ this section of the literature review to explore the following topics: systems theory definitions, application to organizations and organizational change, criticisms of the use of systems theory, gaps in the literature, and the application of systems theory to the interplay between organizational change, interpersonal conflict, and CWBs that could be influenced by organizational identification.

Definition. Mele, Pels, and Polese (2010) explained that systems theory reflects the whole of an entity within and outside its boundaries and indicates that a holistic view gives a better perspective than the sum of its parts. Kast and Rosenzweig (1972) outlined several key

concepts of general systems theory, which is the historical predecessor of OST. First, Kast and

Rosenzweig noted that the system is made up of several interrelated parts labeled as subsystems.

They also claimed that there is a hierarchy of system relationships because of multiple

subsystems. Plus, Kast and Rosenzweig explained that the totality of the system is more than the

sum as the interactions create emergent properties and that systems can be either open or closed.

Open systems interact with their context by exchanging "information, energy, and material with

their environments" (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1972, p. 450).

Kast and Rosenzweig (1972) also asserted that both open and closed systems have

boundaries: Boundaries in closed systems are more rigid, whereas in open systems they are more

permeable. In organizations it can sometimes be difficult to understand where those boundaries

occur. Because of that interaction with the environment, the model is transformational as it takes

inputs, transforms them, and results in outputs (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1972). Kast and

Rosenzweig claimed that this transformational component helps prevent entropy, which is more

common in closed systems, and explained that open systems interact with the environment to

gain additional resources in dynamic equilibrium because of the continuous flow of inputs and

outputs. They asserted that feedback occurs within the system as the outputs loop back into the

system and that feedback can be both positive and negative. Because of the system having

multiple components with differing values and objectives, a multiplicity of goals is inevitable

(Kast & Rosenzweig, 1972). Finally, Kast and Rosenzweig argued that systems exhibit

equifinality in that various means and several different conditions can be used to reach a goal.

Obviously, Kast and Rosenzweig's work in systems theory broadened its usage.

In contrast, Burke (2014) simplified much of Kast and Rosenzweig's concepts by

identifying several criteria that form systems thinking. Burke asserted that the whole of the

system is made up of parts, and when they are working together, they create something that is different from their sum. Burke also explained that systems are made up of subsystems that interact and influence each other creating a web of relationships. Finally, the interrelation of these subsystems and their interrelationship determine the structure of the system (Burke, 2014). These concepts of general systems theory were the foundation for the application of OST to organizations.

Open systems theory and organizations. Basing their work on general systems theory, Katz and Kahn (1978) developed OST and emphasized the designation of system boundaries resulting in the identification of open and closed systems. Open systems create an exchange of energy (information, people, inputs) with their context (Mele et al., 2010), and OST seeks to understand how an organization adapts to changes within the environment (Boulding, 1956; Katz & Kahn, 1978).

Katz and Kahn (1978) proposed an open systems model that aimed to explain the energy exchange with the inclusion of inputs (resources) from the external context, throughput that captured the transforming of resources, and output of the products given back to the environment. According to Katz and Kahn, feedback is an information exchange between the system and the environment that promotes adaptation and that the environment is anything outside the system that can affect it. They explained that though organizations may attempt to control their environment, organizations cannot be self-contained. Instead, institutions rely on the environment for inputs and energy to output a product for society resulting in a reactivation of the system (Gallo, 2013; Mele et al., 2010; Stroh, 2015). Burke (2014) affirmed many of Katz and Kahn's ideas by emphasizing that an open organizational system imports energy from the environment and experiences input, throughput, and output by cycling events that prevent

negative entropy and react to feedback, which results in equifinality. Katz and Kahn's (1978) use

of systems thinking allows a macro perspective of an organization; employees' reactions to the

input reverberate across multiple levels and interactions, from employees to groups to leadership

and into the external environment.

Thus, a leader must understand that, in an organization, subsystems are interconnected

and any change in a part of the system will affect other sections of the organization, ultimately

influencing performance (Burnes, 2009). Jackson (1995) argued that a significant challenge for

managers is to understand that problems in an organization emerge from the interaction of its

parts. Based upon the idea of open systems, Martinez (2018) asserted that managers must seek to

understand how the context of the organization affects its actions and structure. Brock (2012)

explained that without a systems perspective, leadership can make decisions that cause reactions,

leading to a cascading set of problems. Jackson (2006) claimed that several approaches to

management, like benchmarking, total quality management, and other fads, demonstrate a

mechanistic approach that ignores systems considerations. From Katz and Kahn's (1978)

formative work, leaders in organizations must understand that the energy projected from a

system's environment affects the organization's processes and subsystems, which could result in

emerging challenges.

Open systems theory and organizational change. An open systems methodology is a

more holistic method to understand the consequences of organizational change. Burke (2014)

argued that when change occurs in an organization, other aspects are inevitably affected because

the true goal of a change is to influence the individual. Schein's (2010) work affirmed this

argument and asserted that when an organizational culture changes, the entire system feels the

effects. He explained that a system's perspective is needed in a changing organization to fully

understand causal effects as the linear viewpoint would not capture cyclical effects. Robertson, Roberts, and Porras (1993) acknowledged this same idea by arguing that all organizations had subsystems that affect each other during organizational change. Dooley (1991) broadened this use of OST in organizational analyses by explaining that there is a causal relationship among variables that the theory attempts to understand because it introduces the idea of bidirectional causality. Most notably in its application to the current study, Dooley (1991) compared a system's view of change to the butterfly effect as small changes can have a significant result. If the butterfly effect does occur during organizational change, then Senge et al.'s (2012) assertions are significant because they defined the system for an organization to include not only the structure but also the rules, employees, patterns of interaction, and the preconceived notions that guide activities. To fully understand this multiplication of the effects of change, systems theory gives researchers the ability to understand relationships with change impacts. Finally, Sutcliffe and Vitale (2013) argued leaders can use systems theory to maintain change in the workplace as it brings together theories from organization and therapy models to sustain change.

Open systems theory and reactions to change. Several researchers have utilized OST to understand reactions to organizational change. To capture the perceptions of change recipients, Fugate (2013) utilized Kast and Rosenzweig's (1972) concept of inputs, processes, and outputs to argue that antecedents to change affect employees' cognitive beliefs. OST has also been used to understand how organizational change affects systems in business (Yang, Young, Li, & Huang, 2017), health care (Evans, Huxley, Max, & Huxley, 2014), and politics (Pondy, 1992). In addition, Evans et al. (2014) evaluated the changes to mental health services in Wales using systems thinking as they considered what the purpose of the service was from customers' points of view, the flow of work regarding consumers, and the planning to improve

performance. Burke (2014) asserted that OST was the superior method to analyze how energy exchange during organizational change affects the people involved.

Researchers in organizational development also consider OST the best method to understand change within an institution (Burke, 2018; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Senge, 1990). Researchers within organizational development have demonstrated a continued analysis of the interdependence of parts of an organization and an acknowledgment of the danger associated with trying to heal organizational problems with only a microlevel view (Burke, 2018; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Senge, 1990). Beer and Nohria (2000) affirmed the importance of understanding the relationship between change and its effects on people. Beer and Nohria argued that the well-being of society as a whole is dependent on productive exchanges among individuals, organizations, and their environments. If these exchanges are negative, then dissatisfaction, turnover, and absenteeism will result, which then lead to a downturn in economic viability (Beer & Nohria, 2000). Thus, a variety of theorists and researchers have utilized OST to understand not only organizational change but also employee reactions to that change.

Criticisms. However, there are critics who point out problems associated with using systems theory to understand organizations. Butler (1985) argued that because social systems are dynamic and complex, it is difficult to accurately describe and analyze them. Butler also asserted that scrutiny can get so immersed in identifying cause-and-effect relationships that the macroanalysis becomes more about the processes than the results. Lowell (2016) took the application of systems theory to organizational change a step further by claiming that complexity theory is a superior way to understand the effects of organizational change. Lowell argued that complexity theory "provides a more comprehensive view of the causes and process of

organizational change by integrating concepts of systems theory with complexity to understand the disruptive and fluid process" (2016, p. 149).

Whether using complexity theory or systems theory, many organizational researchers do not utilize systems theory because systems are difficult to predict. Dooley and Van de Ven (1999) claimed there were several reasons for this difficulty. First, using systems theory to understand a changing organization is complicated. Dooley and Van de Ven also asserted that the tradition of management practice emphasized control, so management leaned toward analyzing solvable issues, which resulted in the avoidance of complex behavior. Even though there is some criticism of the use of systems theory to analyze change, it has been a common method to understand the dynamic relationship between change, reactions, and costs.

Need for further research. Using systems thinking to analyze the effects of organizational change in the areas of interpersonal conflict and CWBs is vital for understanding the relationships between them. Several other researchers have used systems theory to understand the interaction of similar variables. Raza and Standing (2010) proposed a model for the management of conflicts for change recipients. Utilizing Ulrich's boundary critique, Raza and Standing used a systems perspective to consider how stakeholders are affected with the aim to improve change management practices. Stakeholders involved in change are important to identify and consider so that an organization can come to understand not only the linkages involved in change but also the costs (Raza & Standing, 2010). It is not a surprise then that Gallo (2012) claimed that systems thinking is the most productive method to use to understand why conflicts occur in an organization. Woodman and Bartunek (2013) asserted that organizational change should be considered a systemic process because it is dependent on person-situation interactions where behavior is the result.

In a study focused on higher education, Ghosh and Githens (2011) argued that a reactive system, as reflected in most of higher education, ensured that organizational constraints would undermine change. Ghosh and Githens claimed that a framework for organizational change could assist a community college in overcoming challenges, such as funding, technology, outsourcing of instruction, and students from outside the geographic area. Ghosh and Githens also argued that by avoiding a reactive response to change (which they labeled as a systems-structural response) and by pursuing collective action, change would be more successful. Finally, the authors called for further research utilizing empirical data to understand the tension among change, dynamics of the organization, and environmental pressures in higher education.

These researchers are not the only ones who have considered how the context creates pressure for change. O'Boyle et al. (2011) noted that the study of CWBs has been lacking in analyzing how the environment motivates reactions. O'Boyle et al. also claimed that there is little research about how CWBs affect other parts of the organization or outcomes. Thus, there is a great need for studies to consider the linkages between organizational change processes and outcomes (Woodman & Bartunek, 2013).

Application of theory to this study. Katz and Kahn (1978), using OST, claimed that when an input occurs in an organizational system, the system processes it, resulting in an output that returns to the system via a feedback loop. The hypothesis of my study is that frequent and second-order organizational change are inputs forced on the system of Christian higher education by contextual challenges, such as decreased enrollment, improvements in learning and teaching technologies, and reduced budgets. When processing the changes, faculty members become change recipients. And researchers have found an association between organizational change and interpersonal conflict (Andersen, 2006; Robinson & Griffiths, 2005), which acts as an output to

the system. Thus, if change is associated with interpersonal conflict in nonacademic organizations, I have hypothesized that they are also associated in the context of Christian higher education.

Moreover, interpersonal conflict is also associated with CWBs (Bayram et al., 2009; Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Herschcovis & Barling, 2010; Hershcovis et al., 2007) within other work environments. I have hypothesized that negative behaviors by faculty act as a feedback loop within the system of Christian higher education resulting in costs due to turnover, absenteeism, sabotage, and even theft (Spector et al., 2006). However, there is a possibility that organizational identification for faculty members in Christian higher education could influence that relationship and the system in some way. As OST is about the dynamic interaction of parts of an organization, I have proposed that OST could reflect how organizational change within Christian higher education can have detrimental effects on the system and faculty members (see Figure 1).

To more fully understand the dynamics of organizational change, interpersonal conflict for faculty, and possible CWBs for faculty members, I utilized the following portions of the chapter to review the literature in each field. In the next section of the literature review, I explain organizational change and fields of study that have influenced it. I explore important concepts in organizational change research, including frequency of change and second-order change. In addition, I review literature concerning organizational change as applied to Christian higher education. After that analysis, I highlight how organizational change is linked to recipients' reactions, especially as it concerns interpersonal conflict. Next, I consider interpersonal conflict and the various lenses utilized by researchers. After a review of the field of interpersonal conflict, I present research in the field of CWB and its association to interpersonal conflict.

Finally, I review the research for organizational change, interpersonal conflict, and CWBs within the context of Christian higher education, acknowledging that organizational identification could affect those correlations. So, to first understand how frequency and second-order change influence Christian higher education, I explore the field of organizational change.

Environmental Pressures
Financial Pressures, Declining Enrollment, & Technological Innovations
Not tested in study
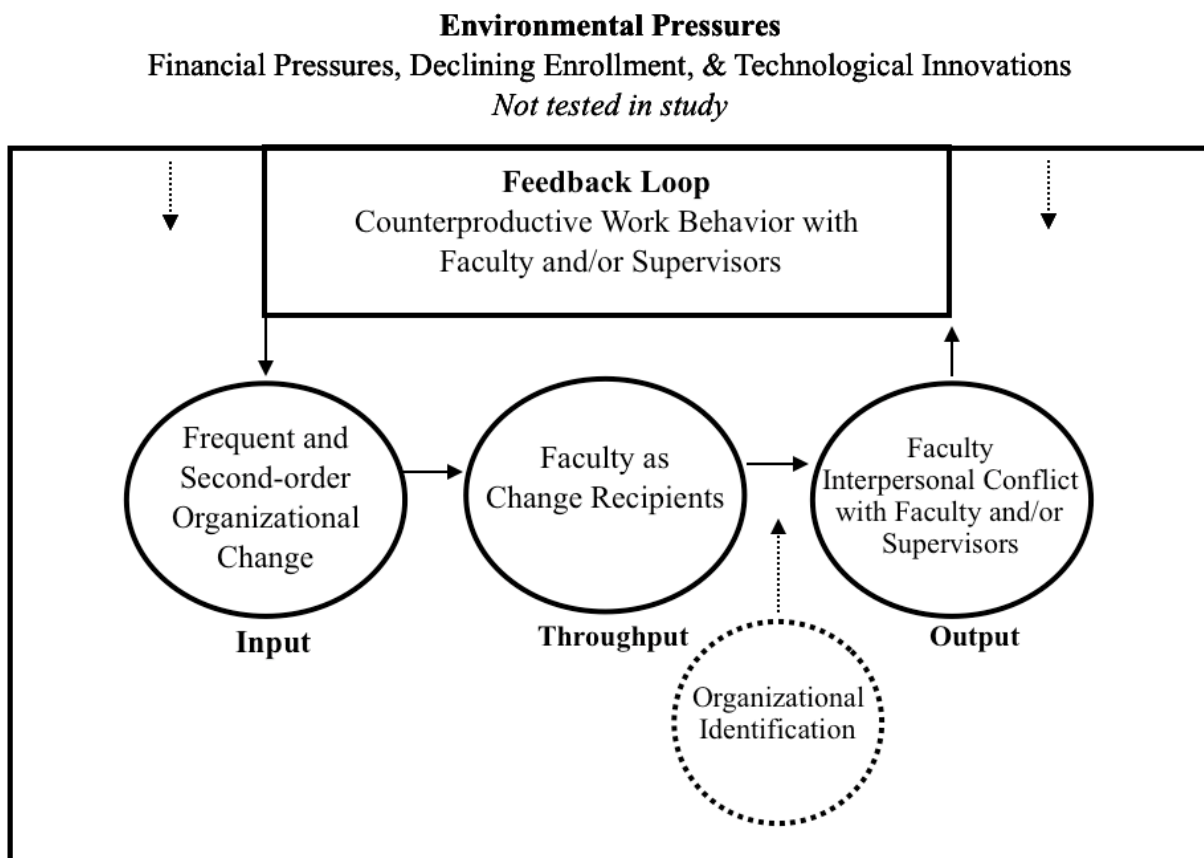
Figure 1. System's application to study.

Influences on the Field of Organizational Change

Theoretical foundations. The theoretical foundations of organizational change are expressed within three schools of study: individual perspective, group dynamics, and open systems (Burnes, 2009). The individual perspective school of thought, rooted in both behaviorist and Gestalt-field psychology (Burke, 2018), encapsulates the behaviorists' claim that an individual's reactions are a result of her environment, and with the assertion of Gestalt-field

psychology that behavior is influenced by not only the environment but also reasoning (Burnes, 2009). Theorists within the individual perspective school value the use of extrinsic and intrinsic motivators to spur changes in the behavior of an individual (Burke, 2018). Of the methods of change that I examine later in the literature review, several encompass the individual's response to change embraced by this perspective.

Complementing the individual perspective school, theorists adhering to the group dynamics school believed that to change an organization, the group must be adapted (Burnes, 2009). The work of Lewin concerning planned change (Burke, 2014), presented in the following pages, stems from his research on groups. Theorists of this school have been very influential in organizational change because of Lewin's work and other theorists who have mimicked his linear process of change (Hodges, 2016).

Finally, theorists of the open systems school asserted that organizations are made up of subsystems that influence each other (Burnes, 2009). When change occurs in one section of an organization, the other subsystems are affected (Beer, 1980). In the theoretical portion of the literature review, I highlighted OST in application to organizations as posited by this school.

In the next section of the literature review, I survey organizational change research while acknowledging the influence of the three schools noted above. The theoretical foundations of organizational change have influenced the field of organizational change, and theorists in other fields have influenced the trajectory of organizational change research.

Organizational development. Organizational development (OD) began in the 1950s and has evolved into a family of theories to consider the human perspective of organizational processes (Burnes, 2009). Using the framework of congruence, OD is considered a method for "diagnosing organizational problems by looking for incongruences between the environment,

structure, processes, and people" (Beer, 1980, p. 7). Building on the theoretical history of applied social psychology, Burke (2014) noted that OD has roots in the work of several theorists including participative management advocated by Blake and Mouton; the leadership studies of Lewin, Lippitt, and White from the 1930s; the T-group; McGregor's management theories of theory x and theory y; and Beckard's use of training. Stemming from both the individual perspective school and group dynamics school, researchers intended these theories to help institutions deal with the many facets of organizational change (Burnes, 2009).

Researchers considered OD an action science in which practitioners and researchers worked in unison to apply knowledge and learn from consequences (Burke, 2014; Cummings & Cummings, 2014). Burke (2014) argued that a significant characteristic of OD is its value in terms of the human dynamic for a company's development, and that employees should be involved in creating and implementing change. More specifically, Cummings and Worley (2009) explained that "OD's distinguishing feature is its concern with the transfer of knowledge and skill so that the system is more able to manage change in the future" (p. 3). More than 30 years ago, Sashkin and Burke (1987) predicted five future trends in OD: (a) the development of theory; (b) the refining of methodologies; (c) an emphasis on utilizing cultures to manage change; (d) proposals of new working structures; and, significantly for my study revolving around organizational change, interpersonal conflict, and CWBs, (e) a consideration of how to manage conflict because of organizational change.

Lewin and planned change. Cummings and Worley (2009) argued that Kurt Lewin's work in the 1940s and 1950s in the National Training Laboratory, his action research, and research about participative management served as the foundations of OD and led to Lewin's model of planned change. Lewin's groundbreaking method and its use by OD practitioners

resulted in planned change, becoming the most commonly utilized method for company

adaptation (Burke, 2014; Hodges, 2016). Lewin is thus considered the father of planned change

and OD (Burnes, 2009).

Lewin sought to explain how social change occurs via the interworking of groups as a

process of unfreezing, moving, and freezing (Cummings, Bridgman, & Brown, 2016). He

asserted that groups cooperate based upon a complicated interaction of symbols that influence

group organization and individual behavior (Lewin, 1951). Lewin claimed that the individual

operates in the group environment, and there are continual tensions because of group pressures

on the individual. Thus, a person's actions are a function of the forces surrounding the person.

With these ideas in mind, Lewin developed his model of change to explain how individuals and

groups move through the change process. In this way, planned change is a purposeful decision

by an organization or its members to improve the institution in a fundamental way (Porras &

Robertson, 1992).

Lewin's ideas stemmed from the group dynamics school (Burnes, 2009). Seo, Putnam,

and Bartunek (2004) explained that Lewin's theory had a historical background within the fields

of behavioral and social sciences as Lewin emphasized collaboration between the change agents

and the organization's members with the goal of resolving problems like quality, production, or

adaptation to environmental constraints. In a clarification of Lewin's work, Schein (1987) argued

that these three steps overlap and are not necessarily discrete. Rather, the process of unfreezing,

moving, and freezing can be complicated because they interact with each other. Lewin's

groundbreaking work in planned organizational change, most commonly located in the field of

OD, has significantly influenced how practitioners approach change.

Organizational development moves to systems focus. Change influencing the entire organization was a natural development from the studies of OD because of practitioners' reliance on planned change. Friedlander and Brown in 1974 were some of the first to advocate for this view under the banner of OD (as cited in Burke, 2014). From their review of research at the time, Friedlander and Brown showed that the most common types of change were targeted interventions for technology and people (Burke, 2014). Burke (2014) explained that Friedlander and Brown were the first to assert that OD should consider organizations as an open system because their framework included an open system's view of understanding organizations. The environment, company, and people interact in a continual cycle of inputs, processes, outputs, and feedback. At this point in the development of OD, the open systems school began to have an impact (Beer, 1980).

A prime example of the systems view is Senge's (1990) learning organization. Senge noted that organizations should be in continual transformation so that individuals can learn, grow, and help the organization adapt to environmental demands. To reach this goal of continual transformation driven by employees, Senge claimed that five disciplines must be mastered. First, systems thinking is used as a method to see the big picture and recognize the patterns within the changing organization (Senge, 1990). Second, members need to be committed to learning at a personal level (Senge, 1990). Third, participants must uncover how long-held beliefs and generalizations affect ideas leading to mental models (Senge, 1990). Fourth, teams should build shared visions to embrace a long-term commitment (Senge, 1990). Finally, Senge asserted that team learning should be the core of organizational operations. Thus, a learning organization promotes the mind-set that everyone contributes to change in an organization, not just the senior leadership.

Burke and Litwin's causal model of organization performance and change (as cited in Burke, 2014) is another OD systems model that includes the humanistic impact of change with a systems perspective. Burke explained that the model was built upon a structure of inputs, throughputs, outputs, feedback, and environmental influences, indicating that leadership, mission, culture, management structure, and climate influence employee motivation, their tasks, personal needs, and performance. These employee characteristics in the model provide feedback to the external environment and the aforementioned parts (Burke, 2014). Burke claimed that his and Litwin's main argument, similar to Senge's, was that OD could not occur successfully without acknowledging how each part affects the whole, especially the influence of the employee.

Because of OD's initial focus on change for individuals and groups, researchers' emphasis on change processes challenged OD's central focus. Burnes (2009) argued that OD moved away from its group and individual focus to guidance for transformational organizational change. According to Burnes (2009), this refocus has resulted in OD losing its human emphasis, purpose, and direction. Burnes asserted that because of OD's previous theoretical focus on the individual and groups, the field was not equipped to manage organizational transformation. In addition, the focus on systemic transformation has negatively affected the previous values of employee democracy and participation in change. The result was a focus on assisting managers and leaders to manage the bottom line (Burnes, 2009). This quandary for OD may explain why the field of change management (CM) developed, utilizing many of the ideas from OD.

Change management. Practitioners of CM are also focused on how to implement organizational change to improve an organization, but their values are different from those in the OD field. Practitioners of CM emphasize "cost, quality, and schedule" (Cummings & Worley,

2009, p. 4) in the process of organizational change. Thus, professionals of CM apply power-focused interventions such as bargaining, negotiation, and persuasion to implement change (Cummings & Cummings, 2014) without a value of skill transference. Its perspective is that an organization must be continually evolving to be competitive. J. Moran and Brightman (2001) defined CM as a "process of continually renewing an organization's direction, structure, and capability to serve the ever-changing needs of external and internal customers" (p. 111). As a result of the need to adapt to an ever-changing market, organizations are embracing the field of CM (By, 2005), which has forced the previously recognized shift of focus in OD.

 Research in change management. Many of the concepts associated with CM also occur in OD. In By's (2005) critical review of CM, he identified planned change along with emergent change as methods of how organizational change occurs. By also noted that the most common method used for change managers is planned change. Similar to others in the field of OD, E. Cameron and Green (2009) in their textbook on CM embraced the individual, group, and systems approach to change and how to approach different types of change and encourage followers. Paton and McCalman (2008) also emphasized OD in their textbook while embracing CM. Paton and McCalman argued, via a developmental model, that skill transference was key for effective implementation of organizational change. However, Paton, McCalman, Cameron, and Green have all presented CM as a way to refocus an entire organization via a system's perspective. So, as OD has evolved from a focus on individuals and teams to a systems perspective, it seems that the field of CM is the result.

 Because CM is about evolving an organization to more effective functioning, researchers in the field of CM focus on how to manage the process through leadership. Van der Voet (2013) researched public organizations and how transformational leadership affected planned change

and emergent change. Van der Voet found that transformational leadership was integral to

successful change efforts during emergent change but was not as important during planned

change. Allen, Smith, and Da Silva (2013) examined how transformational, transactional, and

laissez-faire leadership types affected employees' perception of organizational change readiness.

Their results showed that transformational leadership positively influenced the climate for

change readiness and that laissez-faire leadership did not result in a positive climate. In

agreement, O'Toole (2008) demonstrated that effective leadership was instrumental in successful

change at multiple levels: vision and strategy, goal setting and planning, capital allocation, group

measurement, risk management, recruiting, professional development, performance appraisal,

compensation, organizational structure, and communications. Thus, O'Toole argued that

leadership must be an organizational trait to effect successful change.

Communication is a second popular topic for the field of CM. As employees engage in

sensemaking during organizational change, communication is key to a successful change

initiative (Parsells, 2017). In Parsell's (2017) qualitative study, the author found that

communication was integral during the implementation phase of change and among groups to

positively affect change. A key to success was the participation by both employees and managers

in communication across the community (Parsell, 2017). Moreover, Oreg, Bartunek, Lee, and Do

(2018) found that employees felt they had more control over change processes when

communication occurred across levels because it was seen as a method of social support. One of

the reasons communication is so important during change is because of employees' reactions to

the process. In support of that statement, Blanca and Ramona (2016) found that communication

reduced cynicism and skepticism about change. Multiple researchers have claimed that the most

important determinant of successful organizational change is communication (Johansson &

Heide, 2008; Kral & Kralova, 2016; Miller, Johnson, & Grau, 1994). Communication has been a significantly researched within the field of CM as a method to positively affect organizational change.

Relationship of organizational development and change management. However, researchers disagree about how CM and OD are related. As noted previously, they are both involved in helping organizations implement and utilize change practices. OD originated as an improvement strategy for organizations to assist companies in moving people and the company to enhanced functioning (Burnes, 2009). CM practitioners also seek to transition an organization to a more effective structure with a focus on managing costs and quality (Cummings & Worley, 2009). Although OD theorists do demonstrate the values of CM, CM theorists do not necessarily emphasize the human side of change like OD theorists and practitioners. Cummings and Worley (2009) clarified that all of OD concerns CM because of the focus on solving problems, change responsiveness, work-life balance, and effectiveness. More narrowly, CM is about implementing processes to move a company to a financial goal. Thus, the field of OD includes CM, but CM does not typically include OD.

The field of organizational change has been influenced by both CM and OD. However, organizational change itself is a broader field of study as it includes any type of change, such as technical change, company decline, and even the evolution of organizational systems (Burke, 2014; Cummings & Worley, 2009). Because CM and OD heavily overlap, many of the ideas from both fields are included in the following review of organizational change research (Cummings & Cummings, 2014).

Next in the literature review, I examine the concept of organizational change including typologies of change, the nature of change, models of change, and a discussion on impacts of

change. Some researchers in organizational change take a developmental perspective, complementing the history with OD, whereas researchers are more focused on the processes of change because of CM studies. Because organizational change is similar to the other two fields, it can become difficult to delineate where the ideas truly belong as far as fields of research. What is consistent is that the concepts, models, and theories encompass explanations of organizational change.

Organizational Change

Organizational change can take many forms and have become common practice in institutions. Types of organizational change are abundant; it can look like the fine-tuning of processes, downsizing, elimination of departments, a managerial change, providing of a new service, the installing of systems, or even something revolutionary like the adoption of a new mission (Hodges, 2016). No matter its form, changes have become commonplace in the workforce. In the 2017 *Work and Well-Being Survey* by the American Psychological Association (APA), 50% of those responding noted they had been impacted by organizational change or thought they would be in the next year. Unfortunately, about two-thirds of these initiatives failed (Beer & Nohria, 2000; Burke & Biggart, 1997). With the prevalence of change and the significant failure rate, it is not surprising that the study of organizational change has increased. Oreg, By, and Michel (2013) noted that most studies since 2000 in this field have addressed the broader processes of change within entities. They also indicated that in the previous decade almost 4,000 articles had been published on the topic.

With this understanding of the commonality of change efforts, it is important to examine seminal concepts in the field before analyzing how organizational change has occurred in Christian higher education. In the next sections, I underscore concepts and theories in

organizational change including the typology of theories, perspectives of research, levels of change, and methods to implement change. Then, I review these concepts in application to Christian higher education.

      Typologies. Van De Ven and Poole (1995) organized organizational change models into multiple typologies: life cycle, evolutionary, dialectical, and teleological. Life-cycle models stem from psychology and focus primarily on changing people's thoughts and actions (Kezar, 2001). In life-cycle models, change occurs in a series of phases prescribed at the beginning of the cycle, leading to a planned outcome (Poole & Van de Ven, 2004). Hays (2010) explained that evolutionary theories indicate that change occurs because of "a continuous cycle of variation, selection, and retention" (p. 5). Kezar (2001) claimed that the use of systems theory within change fits the evolutionary requirements. She also explained that evolutionary change occurs because the environment and circumstances force adaptation. Thus, in this model, evolution occurs slowly over time as the entities manage change. Kezar also noted that teleological models of change include strategic planning, scientific management, and planned change. Hays (2010) explained that teleological models indicate that organizations are purposeful in change with a set list of goals. However, Hays added that as learning occurs in the teleological process, leaders adapt goals because of new information. Finally, dialectical theories indicate that there are polar opposites within the process of organizational change (Kezar, 2001). Theorists who embraced this typology noted that this political perspective assumes a clash of values within the organization that leads to change affecting the balance of power (Hays, 2010). Van De Ven and Poole utilized these typologies to encompass different models of change and, thus, have influenced research in the field.

Research focuses of organizational change. Research in organizational change coalesces around two perspectives: how the organization develops over time and antecedents and repercussions of change for employees (Bouckenooghe, 2010; Porras & Robertson, 1992; Woodman & Dewett, 2004). Researchers in the first area analyze the steps to achieve change. Topics considered are the nature of change, levels of change, and types of change. It is within this area of research that frequency of change and second-order change reside. Researchers in the second field of study examine ways to persuade employees to embrace change and how to manage their attitudes during change. Similar to OD research, this second focus encompasses how change affects people.

Because antecedents, repercussions, and steps of change all influence each other, change in organizations could be considered a series of loops that overlap and affect each other (Burke, 2014). Burke (2014) noted that these loops continue to correct details missed on the first attempt. The process is messy and nonlinear. These loops attempt to affect the individuals, groups, norms, and values of an organization in an attempt to reinforce positive change and eliminate extraneous factors (Burke, 2014; Burns, 2009). So, as the description of change moves linearly, a dynamic system of loops is a better analogy of the interactions.

Nature of change. Second-order change and frequency of change are focuses of this dissertation study. I use this section to examine the nature of change, the levels of change, and how continuous change affects employee perceptions of the process. After reviewing research in these areas, I apply these to the context of Christian higher education.

Watzlawick, Weakland, and Fisch (1974) were the first to define and describe first-order and second-order change. Porras and Robertson (1992) explained that first-order change occurs when there are modifications to the existing system, and that second-order change, which is more

revolutionary, occurs during the adopting of new paradigms. Weick and Quinn (1999) argued that continuous change is a first-level occurrence by explaining that small adjustments created simultaneously across subsystems lead to change in tightly coupled systems. They claimed that second-order change occurs when the change affects a subsystem beyond the initial focus. Finally, third-order change occurs over multiple subsystems in a causal sequence to reach a goal (Weick & Quinn, 1999). More recently, Burke (2014) adapted Porras and Robertson's labels, using the terms evolutionary change and revolutionary change. Burke claimed that 95% of organizational changes are evolutionary. According to Burke (2014), evolutionary or first order-change can occur within a subsystem affecting individuals and groups while second-order change takes on a revolutionary or transformative nature affecting the total system. Second-order change is of most concern because it affects an entire organizational system.

Second-order change definitions. Second-order change has various definitions. Specifically, Rafferty and Griffin (2006) noted that such changes entail modifications to values, company structure, planning, and methods of working. Rafferty and Restubog (2017) explained that this type of change includes significant disruptions to primary organizational components that look like radical departures from the previous methods. One of the reasons second-order change has far-reaching effects is the assumption that it proceeds from the top down (Bouckenooghe, 2010). Because of their power over multiple departments, leaders and managers can implement processes that create revolutionary change. Thus, researchers have explained that second-order change (Porras & Robertson, 1992), also known as transformative change (Watzlawick et al., 1974) or revolutionary change (Burke, 2014), encompasses substantive, organization-wide change.

Second-order change implementation. Research perspectives on second-order change have either focused on how to successfully implement system-wide change or the consequences of this type of change. Concerning how to favorably approach transformational change, Devos, Buelens, and Bouckenooghe (2007) utilized two different studies with an experimental simulation strategy, both including over 800 participants. Devos et al. found that if employees were able to participate in the change effort and trusted management, it would result in a more positive attitude toward the change. In a different direction, Waddock, Meszoely, Waddell, and Dentoni (2017) utilized complexity theory to propose how to implement large-scale system change. Waddock et al.'s reasoning for this perspective stemmed from the assumption that large-scale change uncovers wicked problems, and the authors asserted that change agents would need to navigate both transformational change and solutions to those wicked problems. Gilley, Gilley, and McMillan (2009) examined how leadership can navigate a system throughout the change process. By reviewing the responses of 552 employees representing various industries, Gilley et al. found that 80% felt that the majority of their managers never, rarely, or just sometimes effectively managed change. They also found that certain skills did align with successful change efforts, such as coaching, communicating, participation, rewards, and the utilization of teams. Finally, they asserted that the primary value of their study was that there was a significant relationship found between leader behaviors and the success of a change initiative. Thus, second-order change researchers tend to focus on leaders as change agents.

The effects of second-order change. Other researchers have considered the consequences of second-order change. Cole, Harris, and Bernerth (2005) examined managers' perceptions of vision, appropriateness of change, and the execution of major organizational change and how these interacted with job satisfaction, intentions to leave, organizational commitment, and role

ambiguity. Cole et al. surveyed 217 managers and found a three-way interaction among the independent variables, which predicted turnover, satisfaction, and role ambiguity. Van der Smissen, Schalk, and Freese (2013) also studied transformational change and how it affected employees' perceptions of the fulfillment of a psychological contract. Contrary to their hypothesis, Van der Smissen et al. found that transformational change did not correlate with a perceived attainment of that contract. Rather, frequency of change and an employee's change history did correlate with the perception of fulfillment (or lack of) of the psychological contract. In another study, Allen, Jimmieson, Bordia, and Irmer (2007) performed a quantitative analysis of a governmental department undergoing significant change because they sought to understand how employees managed uncertainty during the change process. They found that when employees received quality change-related communication, openness to change increased, which mediated uncertainty about change. Research about how to implement second-order change and its consequences align with much of the frequency of change research.

Frequency of change definitions. Frequency of change is understood as several changes occurring one after another or multiple changes happening simultaneously, which often results in employees struggling to adapt to the changes (Smolan et al., 2010). Rafferty and Griffin (2006) showed that the timing of change (frequent or infrequent) is important to employees, as the more infrequently it occurs, the more likely change is seen as a singular event. Finally, similar to the dissertation's premise, Boyne and Meier (2009) found that frequent change is typically a result of societal, environmental pressures that force change upon the organization.

The impacts of frequent change. Fatigue is one consequence of frequent change. Rafferty and Griffin noted that when change occurs frequently, employees may begin the feel that change is constant and unpredictable, which results in change fatigue (Bernerth, Walker, &

Harris, 2011). Change fatigue occurs because it requires employees to frequently adapt work routines and also relationships with peers and supervisors (Carter, Armenakis, Field, & Mossholder, 2013). This constant change causes increased stress compared to the past when work routines and knowledge of social norms provided comfort (Rafferty & Griffin, 2006). Other researchers focusing on frequent organizational change have found an association with negative outcomes, including exhaustion (Bernerth et al., 2011), anger, withdrawal (Stensaker, Falkenberg, Meyer, & Haueng, 2002), job dissatisfaction, and turnover (Kiefer, 2005). Even Halbesleben and Buckley (2004) discovered that positive emotions concerning frequent change could lead to change burnout as the prolonged affective state can have negative consequences.

Cynicism is also correlated with frequent change. Three case studies conducted by Connell and Waring (2002) focusing on successive changes found a correlation with increased employee cynicism. Mat Zin and Nehari Talet (2016) found that a higher incidence of frequent change associates with exhaustion, cynicism, and efficacy. Research clearly shows that frequent change can be stressful for employees, and the combination of frequent change with second-order change can multiply those effects.

Frequency of change and second-order change. Some researchers have participated in studies that examine both frequent change and second-order, or transformational change. Rafferty and Griffen (2006) found that transformational change had a direct positive relationship with intentions for turnover. They concluded that transformational change caused people to carefully consider their position in the company. Also, Rafferty and Griffin found that frequency of change was indirectly and negatively associated with job satisfaction and positively associated with turnover intentions via uncertainty. As previously cited, Van der Smissen et al. (2013) examined the effects of transformational change on employees' perceptions of the fulfillment of

the psychological contract. The researchers discovered that transformational change did not

correlate with employee perceptions but did have a negative correlation with attitudes toward

change. However, Van der Smissen et al. also examined frequent change. They found it had a

significant relationship with fulfillment of the psychological contract but did not influence

attitudes toward change. Similar to Rafferty and Griffin (2006), Rafferty and Jimmieson (2017)

examined how employee perceptions of frequency of change and transformational change

correlated with several variables. They collected data from 260 employees representing a wide-

array of different companies with a two-point in time survey and found a significant indirect

relationship between frequency of change and transformational change with well-being,

insomnia, and affective resistance to change. Understanding methods of change and how change

affects an organization are important to organizational change research.

Types of change. Planned change and emergent change are the most researched methods

of how change occurs (By, 2005), which aligns with the teleological typology (planned change)

and evolutionary (emergent) typology. Planned change in association with OD is the most

common method used by organizations (Burke, 2014; Hodges, 2016). With planned change,

leaders in organizations set goals and then attempt to move employees and the company from

one system to another: unfreezing, moving, refreezing (Lewin, 1951). Thus, leaders are assuming

that an organization can move purposefully with a preplanned set of decisions from one state of

stability to another (Burnes, 2009). As a result of the current fast-changing environment, some

theorists have asserted that this model of planned change no longer suffices.

Pursuing planned change in an organization is not without problems. Burke (2014)

argued that though organizational change might be generally considered a linear process,

organizational change is typically not large scale, and in reality it takes a nonlinear form as

change evolves and occurs incrementally. In this more recent analysis of organizational change, Burke indicated that change is systemic, similar to a living organism as an organization exists within an environment that provides energy and motivation to change. Other theorists agreed that placing organizational change within a model of prescribed steps ignores the effects of change that are messy, uncontrolled, and continuous (Burnes, 2009; Paton & McCalman, 2008). Seo et al. (2004) explained that leaders of planned change have to choose between multiple dualities of needs, which result in an inability to instigate every needed change.

As a result of these challenges with planned change, theorists have pursued emergent change research. Emergent change is a response to contextual factors and is more spontaneous (Porras & Robertson, 1992). Emergent change can occur as small alterations that, as they accumulate, can produce more significant changes (Cummings & Cummings, 2014). According to By (2004), emergent change tends to be driven from the bottom up in contrast to planned change, which is top-down. By explained that with emergent change, employees instigate change because of the interaction of multiple variables that results in an open-ended process of adapting. To be successful, emergent change requires that all participants be familiar with the structure of the organization, its policies, culture, and people so that learning can be continuous (By, 2005). Cummings and Cummings (2014) indicated that this type of modification is typically associated with continuous change as it is more of an informal method of adaptation to the environment. Proponents of emergent change argue that with the uncertainty of contextual conditions, emergent change is more realistic and effective than planned change (Bamford & Forrester, 2003; Wee & Taylor, 2017).

Methods to implement change. Originators of various models of planned organizational change complemented Lewin's original work as they also developed models embracing a linear

process of change (Beer, Eisenstat, & Spector, 1990; Kotter, 1995; Mento, Jones, & Dirndorfer, 2002; Shields, 1999). Lippitt, Watson, and Westley (1958) utilized five phases to expand Lewin's original model of planned change: identification of the need for change, relationship establishment between the change agent and the organization, change implementation, equalization of change, and ending the relationship with the change agent. Also, building on Lewin's model, Bullock and Batten (1985) developed a four-phase process that included exploration, planning, action, and integration. Rogers's (2003) seminal work in social change also utilized Lewin's steps. Rogers argued that five phases of planned change were needed: awareness, interest, evaluation, trial, and adoption. Weick and Quinn's (1999) work broadened Lewin's research, adding to the three-step model of unfreezing, moving, and freezing. They uniquely delineated episodic and continuous change by analyzing movement via the use of tempo, rate, rhythm, and pattern, and argued that episodic change follows an unfreeze-transition-refreeze pattern, whereas continuous change freezes, rebalances, and unfreezes to implement change. Therefore, continuous change is ever evolving, and episodic change is intentional with a start and stop date.

In contrast to planned change models, developers of emergent change models think that change is always evolving because of circumstances and conditions (By, 2005). This type of change aligns with the evolutionary typology; evolutionary theorists acknowledge that change has systemic consequences because of contextual factors (Van De Ven & Poole, 1995). Kanter, Stein, and Jick (1992) in their book *Ten Commandments for Executing Change* provided steps for guiding emergent change: (a) an analysis of the organization must occur to determine if change is needed; (b) a vision needs to be agreed to so that all involved are going in the same direction; (c) the organization or subsystem must disengage from past processes; (d) a sense of

urgency needs to be established; (e) the change efforts need to support leadership; (f) a political sponsor can help navigate individuals and groups throughout the change; (g) an implementation plan must be developed; (h) the change requires that supporting structures are established; (i) communication must occur among all involved to encourage transparency; and (j) the organization or subsystem must reinforce the change so that it becomes institutionalized. Kanter et al. acknowledged key concepts in implementing change, such as vision, communication, leadership, and enabling structures, without presenting a phased process like Lewin.

Similarly, Luecke's (2003) seven-step model reflected ideas to manage emergent change. Luecke emphasized that identifying problems and solutions mobilizes energy and commitment. Luecke also promoted the need for a shared vision, leadership identification, and the formalization of policies. Luecke, though, added other concepts, such as focusing on results rather than the process, starting change in one subsystem and letting it spread spontaneously, and the adjustment of strategies to address problems with the change process. Thus, Luecke argued that change is difficult to predict and manage but promoted key concepts to guide emergent change. Both Kanter et al. (1992) and Luecke's model (2003) reflect the idea that change emerges because of environmental circumstances and can be difficult for management to preplan.

As researchers in the field of organizational change utilized much of the research from OD and CM, the field has become broader and encompasses any type of change in an entity. Thus, organizational change can occur at a first-order level or deeper as a second-order change affecting the entire organization, which reflects the differences between evolutionary and revolutionary change (Porras & Robertson, 1992). No matter the process of change, the perception of frequent change or transformational change can have negative consequences. As

leadership attempts to implement change or manage change, they commonly look to planned change efforts but must be ready to manage emergent change.

Change in higher education and Christian higher education. Even though leaders in Christian universities are implementing planned change efforts and experiencing emergent change, I utilized my dissertation study to discover if second-order change and frequent change are common within Christian higher education. In the previously cited Hetrick et al. (2018) article from the Council of Independent Colleges (CIC), the authors challenged members of the CIC to add academic programs, revitalize their teaching methods, and implement budget restrictions. With the leaders of colleges pointing to a future reimagined, organizational change is becoming a permanent part of the culture (Reynolds & Wallace, 2016). However, most of the research concerning organizational change in higher education or Christian higher education addresses the effectiveness of methods to improve change initiatives.

Organizational change research in higher education. Researchers considering organizational change at the postsecondary level have primarily analyzed how to successfully implement change processes. For instance, researchers analyzing change in higher education have focused on curriculum change (Louvel, 2013; Pincus et al., 2017), resilience (K. Moran, 2016), faculty trust (Charlotte, Jan, & Jacob, 2014), interdisciplinary processes (Holley, 2009), learning (Schultz, 2014), technological changes (Schultz, 2014), student services (Martinez, 2018), sensemaking (Thurlow & Mills, 2015), and tighter manager controls (Locke, Cummings, & Fisher, 2011; Stensaker, 2015). With a similar focus on how to improve change implementation, other researchers have considered the influence of leadership during organizational change within higher education (Drew, 2010; Hechanova & Cementina-Olpoc, 2012). Ghosh and Githens (2011), as noted previously, utilized an organizational theory

framework in a conceptual article to analyze the internal and external barriers to change implementation in an online workforce development program at a community college. They found that leaders of the college could involve employees during change, thus moving employees away from being reactive. Therefore, there has been some research concerning how to successfully implement organizational change in higher education.

Second-order and frequent change research in higher education. Other researchers of higher education have studied transformational change, and a few have examined frequent change. Kondakci and Van den Broeck (2009) utilized a qualitative case study to examine continuous change in a university over a 6-year period. They found that because of the continuous change, the institution and its members were in a constant mode of process adaptation. This study was the only one I found that focused on frequent change within higher education.

However, more researchers analyzing organizational change in higher education have studied second-order change. Hechanova and Cementina-Olpoc (2012) examined how transformational leadership influenced second-order change initiatives in higher education institutions compared to the leadership of other companies undergoing significant change. They surveyed 305 employees from eight colleges and universities as well as 267 employees from business organizations. The higher-education employees rated leaders higher in areas of transformational leadership—the challenging of norms, inspiring vision, modeling the way, and encouragement. Hechanova and Cementina-Olpoc claimed that the culture of academia supports a social norm that encourages transformational leadership, which positively impacts the change process.

Torraco, Hoover, and Knippelmeyer (2005) also considered universities undergoing substantial change. They conducted five case studies of colleges or universities participating in organizational development initiatives that were systemwide in scope and found that these universities used OD concepts, such as the use of change agents and participation by employees to gain commitment to and the institutionalization of change. Torraco et al. concluded that the OD processes assisted in change efforts, but those processes required constant management by leadership to cement changes.

In another type of second-order change, Sverdlik and Oreg (2015) analyzed imposed change during a campus relocation, hypothesizing that personal values of openness to change and conservation would interact with organizational identification. Sverdlik and Oreg measured these variables before the move and several months after the relocation. Change was found to correlate with employees being less open to change and a decline of organizational identification (Sverdlik & Oreg, 2015). So, there has been research concerning frequent change and second-order change in higher education.

Research concerning change in Christian higher education. Although not so common, research about organizational change Christian higher education exists. Obenchain, Johnson, and Dion (2004) examined how Christian colleges or universities approached innovation as compared to public and independent institutions. Obenchain et al. found that cultural norms of clans were common across type and that Christian organizations tended to more easily adopt organizational innovations than independent colleges but not as easily as public institutions.

In another study of private colleges (some of whom were Christian), K. Moran (2016) looked at higher education institutions undergoing decline and how resilience influenced institutional effectiveness. Surveying administrators at 141 smaller, private, nonprofit colleges

and universities, K. Moran found that resilience moderated organizational decline and resulted in increased institutional effectiveness. K. Moran also discovered that the resilience factor of goal-directed solution seeking, such as brainstorming solutions and considering multiple options by administrative teams, could prevent decline. In addition, avoidance balanced goal seeking by providing restraint to uncontrolled solution seeking as it pushed for mission direction and prevented hasty reactions (K. Moran, 2016). Thus, K. Moran's study showed that high organizational resilience sustained effectiveness.

In a unique study, O'Connor (2018) recently analyzed how female leaders in Christian universities successfully approached change. She found that internal drivers for female Christian leaders, such as confidence and calling, were integral to success. These Christian female leaders focused on the people in the process, aimed to overcome language barriers to communicate their vision, and aligned change with the mission and values of the institution.

However, the number of studies considering change at Christian higher education entities is small compared to those studying change in public higher education. I could find no research that addressed frequency of change or second-order change within Christian higher education, revealing a gap in the literature.

Researchers addressing organizational change in higher education or Christian higher education have embraced the goal of implementing change effectively and understanding the positive and negative consequences of change. Higher education, though, and Christian postsecondary institutions can have specific problems with change because of cultural and structural barriers, which result in resistance to change.

Resistance to change in higher education. Researchers have found that institutions of higher education can be resistant to change. Clarke, Ellett, Bateman, and Rugutt (1996)

examined resistance to change by faculty members from 53 Carnegie research universities and found that resistance to change correlated with specific types of change, and resistance increased for faculty when they perceived a threat to self-interests. Affirming those findings, Gioia and Thomas (1996) claimed that organizational change was more difficult to enact within schools when compared to businesses, as businesses are constantly responding to their dynamic contexts. In contrast, leaders at academic institutions have embraced incremental adaptation (Gioia & Thomas, 1996). As a result of the institutionalized systems of universities, employees tend to rebuff radical change (Birnbaum & Shushok, 2001; Huisman, 2009). Thus, postsecondary education institutions have a more inward focus rather than those that adapt to the context (Cohen & March, 1974).

Kezar (2001) expounded on further unique features of higher education organizational culture that influence resistance to change: independence, the culture of the academy, multiple authority and power structures, anarchical decision-making structures, values-based culture, shared governance, and tenure. As a result of these traits, the culture of higher education is primarily consensus based as it includes faculty who research, teach, interpret, and disseminate knowledge (Kezar, 2001). Another influence of resistance is the fact that educational institutions are loosely coupled. As first explained by Weick (1976), this type of structure has multiple subsystems that are uncoordinated across the system with quite a bit of separation between parts. Kezar (2001) and Weick (1976) argued that in a loosely coupled system, planned change models are less likely to succeed.

Other theorists have posited additional reasons for problems with change in higher education. Stensaker (2015) explained that higher education institutions cling to their identity as knowledge organizations, primarily driven by the faculty and staff who have ownership over

different decisions within the college or university. Stensaker added that internal and external expectations clash during organizational change for universities. It is not surprising then that competing interests within the organization and the expectations directed at it by the context create tension and conflict in the institution (Baldridge, 1971). These challenges with change occur throughout the higher education spectrum.

Not only do Christian colleges and universities reflect some of the structural and cultural challenges during organizational change, but they also contain unique barriers that result in resistance to change. Reynolds and Wallace (2016) asserted that Christian colleges and universities typically reflect a tangible culture. A tangible culture, according to Berquist and Pawlak (2013), reflects a value of relationships among its members, a strong community culture, and embedded traditions that lead to valuing the status quo. These characteristics of Christian colleges and universities result in the projection of a specific identity that strongly influences mission and direction (Glanzer & Ream, 2016).

Hulme et al. (2016) argued that Christian higher education employees and leaders struggle with change for three specific reasons: competing commitments, status quo bias, and a scarcity mind-set. They argued that people working and studying in Christian higher education have commitments to multiple stakeholders. Thus, when change comes, it creates a quandary for those members about what commitment should take precedence. For example, many Christian universities have tenured faculty who have worked at the same location for years. However, to balance budget shortfalls, universities find that part-time faculty can help cut costs. This push-pull between honoring the long-time employment status of valued faculty and serving the budget by increasing the number of part-time faculty can cause a rift because of competing commitments. Hulme et al. asserted another reason as a challenge for change: status quo bias.

People generally want to avoid risk and uncertainty, and change processes and outcomes are risky and uncertain (Hulme et al., 2016). Finally, Hulme et al. indicated that a scarcity mind-set is a problem for changing Christian universities and colleges. Because of the reduction of faculty and budgets across Christian higher education, organizational members are working with a scarcity mind-set: a belief that they are trying to do their jobs with less than what they need, resulting in a cynical single-mindedness that can curb innovation (Hulme et al., 2016). It seems that people in Christian higher education face challenges with change because of identity and culture. But some of the challenges come from problems common across the spectrum of higher education.

Gaps in the research. There is a scarcity of research looking at the repercussions to organizational change for faculty or to the cost to the institution, especially within the context of higher education. Horvath (2016) claimed that organizational change in higher education is a field ripe for study because colleges and universities have been struggling with mission drift, hurdles to change, and challenges with sustainability. Horvath also stated that the majority of research in this field has taken the form of case studies. Stensaker (2015) acknowledged this need by calling for more research on how identity and context affect academics dealing with change. K. Moran (2016) affirmed this call by stating that perceptions of change for faculty were important to understand when considering how resilient a college or university might be for change. More recently, Ribando et al. (2017) argued that faculty performance during mergers is a topic needing further research. Finally, aligning with this dissertation's focus, Pincus et al. (2017) called for an analysis of the risks of change and implications for faculty.

In this section of the literature review, I reviewed several topics. First, I provided a background on the influences of OD and CM and reviewed seminal concepts that frame research

in the field. These concepts include planned versus emergent change and first-order versus second-order change. While frequency of change and second-order change have been widely researched, models of frequent change and second-order change are sparingly applied to higher education research and not at all to Christian higher education. Because of the structural and cultural norms of higher education, also exhibited in Christian higher education, employees of colleges and universities often demonstrate resistance to change.

Change Recipients

The human element of change is important to consider as change recipients determine the success of the change initiative (Bartunek et al., 2006; S. Caldwell, Liu, Fedor, & Herold, 2009). A change recipient is an individual who has been affected by the change and its consequences (Oreg, Michel, & Todnem, 2013). Similarly, Freeman, defined stakeholders as a group (or individual) that affects or is affected by the achievement of an organization's goals (as cited in Raza & Standing, 2010). However, in contrast to Freeman's stakeholder definition, Oreg et al. (2013) claimed that their change recipient definition indicates that the individual receives the change instead of being heavily involved in its implementation.

A transition has occurred in the last 20 years as organizational change researchers have begun to focus on the reactions of change recipients (Burke, 2014; Oreg, Vakola, & Armentakis, 2011). Raza and Standing (2010) claimed that stakeholders (no matter their position) are an important predictor of organizational behavior when using a systems perspective. In addition, Oreg et al. (2011), in the most recent review of organizational change research, argued that there is a growing area of research emphasizing the interaction of change recipient's attitudes with the organizational change process. Thus, the first line of analyzing organizational change should be via individual responses to change (S. Caldwell et al., 2009). Because antecedents to change for

change recipients is a significant aspect of organizational change research, I next briefly review topics in that area.

Antecedents to change. Researchers in the field of organizational change have analyzed antecedents to change as it relates to employees. The premise of this type of research is that employees will each react differently to change because of their various predispositions (Vakola, Armenakis, & Oreg, 2013). In Table 1, I list the characteristics associated with organizational change and the most commonly cited studies for each.

Reactions to change. Several theorists have studied the ways employees react to change. Vakola et al. (2013) argued that the most appropriate method of organizing reactions to change was into affective, cognitive, and behavioral categories. Smollan (2015) affirmed that argument, finding that during organizational change employees reacted physiologically, behaviorally, affectively, and cognitively. Oreg's (2003) identification of reactions fit into the cognitive and behavioral categories. Oreg noted that people responded by framing change as routine, reacting emotionally, taking a short-term perspective, or becoming mentally inflexible. Burke (2014) expanded Oreg's work by folding the individual's response to change into group reactions (which also fit into behavior and affective categories) to turf protection, the closing of ranks, the changing of loyalties, and even an insistence on new leadership.

Affective reactions. Affective reactions to change are either positive or negative feelings. Examples of positive feelings include satisfaction with change and change commitment, whereas negative emotional reactions include stress and loss (see Table 2). Robinson and Griffiths (2005) identified interpersonal conflict as a significant affective stress reaction to organizational change.

Table 1

Topics in Antecedents of Change

Topics	Authors	Synopsis
Commitment to change	Bouckenooghe, De Clercq, & Deprez, 2014	Considered how social interaction affected commitment to change, relational conflict, and perceived interpersonal justice
	G. Cunningham, 2006	Examined the relationship among commitment to change, coping, and turnover intentions
	Michaelis, Stegmaier, & Sonntag, 2009	Studied how charismatic leadership and employee trust in management affected emotional commitment to change
Cynicism	Reichers, Wanous, & Austin, 1997	Found that there are factors that lead to cynicism about change, which includes history of change, lack of information, and predisposition for cynicism
	Stanley, Meyer, & Topolntsky, 2005	Distinguished cynicism from skepticism; analyzed resistance effects to change
Demographic variables	S. Caldwell et al., 2009; Iverson, 1996; Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002; Van Dam, Oreg, & Schyns, 2008	Age, gender, length of employment, role
Locus of control	Bordia, Hobman, Jones, Gallois, & Callan, 2004	Found that control mediated uncertainty and strain, communication by management was negatively related to uncertainty, and participation in decision-making was negatively related to uncertainty. Participation was also positively associated with control and negatively associated with strain.
	Jimmieson, Peach, & White, 2008	Employee attitude, norms, and job control influenced support of change.
	Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, & Welbourne, 1999	Managerial responses to organizational change were influenced by disposition in areas of locus of control, self-efficacy, self-esteem, tolerance for ambiguity, and risk aversion.

(*table continues*)

Topics	Authors	Synopsis
Openness to change	Devos, Buelens, & Bouckenooghe, 2007	Considered how content, context, and process influence openness to change
	Wanberg & Banas, 2000	Identified factors and outcomes of openness to change
Organizational commitment	Iverson, 1996	Examined how organizational commitment influenced acceptance of organizational change.
	Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002	Analyzed how the three-component model of workplace commitment correlated with employee commitment to organizational change.
	Lok & Crawford, 1999	Examined how culture, subculture, and commitment correlated with organizational change.
Organizational identification	Drzensky & van Dick, 2013	Examined how organizational identification influenced organizational change.
	Miller, Johnson & Grau, 1994	Considered what influences openness to participate in planned change.
	B. van Knippenberg, Martin, & Tyler, 2006	Studied how organizational identification correlated with employee focus on the process or outcomes of change.
Personality	Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, & Welbourne, 1999	Considered how managerial responses to organizational change were affected by disposition in areas of locus of control, self-efficacy, self-esteem, tolerance for ambiguity, and risk aversion
	Oreg, 2006	Examined how personality and context influence resistance to change
Readiness for change	C. Cunningham et al., 2002	Studied factors influencing readiness for organizational change
	Weiner, 2009	Theoretical analysis of readiness for change

(*table continues*)

Topics	Authors	Synopsis
Resistance to change	Oreg, 2003	Promoted measure to determine individual differences affecting resistance to change
	Oreg, 2006	Considered how personality and context influence resistance to change
	Stanley, Meyer, & Topolntsky, 2005	Studied how cynicism and resistance to change interact
	Van Dam, Oreg, & Schyns, 2008	Examined how leadership, climate, and type of change influence resistance to organizational change
Self-efficacy	Armenakis, Bernerth, Pitts, & Walker, 2007	Developed a framework based upon research on change recipients' beliefs
	C. Cunningham et al., 2002	Considered factors influencing readiness for organizational change
Uncertainty	Bordia, Hobman, Jones, Gallois, & Callan, 2004	Found that control mediated uncertainty and strain, communication by management negatively related uncertainty, and participation in decision-making was negatively related to uncertainty. Participation was also positively associated with control and negatively associated with strain.

Note. Table lists common topics with the most cited Google Scholar articles.

Cognitive reactions. Cognitive reactions to change concern the recipient's assessment of

the value of modifications to the organization and themselves (Vakola et al., 2013). In Table 3, I

highlight the most commonly referenced research topics in the area of cognitive reactions related

to organizational change.

According to Pessoa (2008), the cognitive-affective relationship for an employee with the

change initiative is underestimated and influences the failure of change efforts. Affirming this

Table 2

Topics in Affective Reactions to Change

Topic	Authors	Synopsis
Affirming emotions	Fugate & Kinicki (2008)	Developed a dispositional measure of employability. They found that employees who had higher dispositional employability were more likely to have positive emotional affective commitment to organizational changes.
Loss and helplessness	Wolfram-Cox (1997)	Considered how change is interpreted through a lens of loss, which affects resistance to further change
Negative emotions	Kiefer (2005)	Examined how negative emotions during organizational change affected trust and withdrawal
Reactions to change	Martin, Jones, & Callan (2005)	Found that employees who had a positive perception of the organizational psychological climate were also more likely to consider change in a positive light, resulting in higher job satisfaction, better well-being, increased organizational commitment, and lessened turnover intentions
	Smollan (2015)	Found stress increased during change triggering negative emotional and cognitive behavior
Satisfaction with change	Bryson, Barth, & Dale-Olson (2013)	Considered how union membership moderated job anxiety and how that anxiety lowered job satisfaction
	Jones, Jimmieson, & Griffiths (2005)	Found that higher levels of readiness for change preimplementation positively influenced satisfaction with change
Stress and coping	Robinson & Griffiths (2005)	Traced how transformational change affected stress. Five sources of change related stress were identified: increased workload, uncertainty, loss, perception of unfairness, and interpersonal conflict.
	Fugate, Kinicki, & Scheck (2002)	Analyzed how employees coped during four stages of a merger

Note. Table lists common topics with the most cited Google Scholar articles.

Table 3

Topics in Cognitive Reactions to Change

Topic	Authors	Synopsis
Attitude toward change	Jimmieson, Peach, & White, 2008	Considered how employee attitude, norms, and job control influenced support of change
	Chung-Ming & Woodman, 1995	Utilized qualitative and quantitative research methods to find how the locus of control and organizational commitment interacted with attitudes toward organizational change
	Rashid, Sambasivan, & Rahman, 2004	Studied the influence of organizational culture on attitudes toward organizational change
Change commitment	Walker, Armenakis, & Bernerth, 2007	Verified a model in which context mediated differences in perceptions of change based upon process, content, and individual differences
	Lok & Crawford, 1999	Studied how organizational culture and subculture interacted with commitment during organizational change, finding that subculture had a stronger association with commitment
Openness to change	Wanberg & Banas, 2000	Studied how resilience influenced change acceptance
	Judge, Thoreesen, Pucik, & Welbourne, 1999	Considered managerial responses to organizational change were affected by disposition in areas of locus of control, self-efficacy, self-esteem, tolerance for ambiguity, and risk aversion
Thoughts concerning change	Fugate, Kinicki, & Prussia, 2008	Examined, using a structural equation model, how coping was affected by appraisals of change. Negative evaluation of change was correlated with reduced control and increased escape coping.
	Piderit, 2000	Presented literature review on resistance to change and advocated for more research about ambivalence toward change

(*table continues*)

Topic	Authors	Synopsis
Uncertainty	Bordia, Hobman, Jones, Gallois, & Callan, 2004	Found that control mediated uncertainty and strain, communication by management negatively related uncertainty and participation in decision-making was negatively related to uncertainty. Participation was also positively associated with control and negatively associated with strain.
	Bordia, Hunt, Paulsen, Tourish, & DiFonzo, 2004	Confirmed uncertainty as a strain during organizational change, affecting job satisfaction and turnover intention

Note. Table lists common topics with the most cited Google Scholar articles.

cognitive-affective relationship, Wittig (2012) argued that an understanding of how the two interact in the areas of emotional intelligence, irrational thoughts, defense mechanisms, and attitudes is key to fully grasp employee reactions to change. These affective and cognitive-based reactions also connect with change recipients' behaviors.

Behavioral reactions. Behavioral reactions to change are the most obvious response. Behavioral reactions can range from active involvement with change to a decision to leave the company. In Table 4, I highlight the most common topics and research studying behavioral reactions to change.

Determining which comes first. Oreg et al. (2011) noted that distinguishing cause and effect for reactions to change by employees can be tricky as several can take the form of antecedents and also consequences. For instance, organizational commitment and job satisfaction can be both antecedents and consequences. Frone (2000) attested to this confusion in his use of the general theory of social relations model, which predicted outcomes of interpersonal conflict at work. Frone found that interpersonal conflict with supervisors can correlate with psychological outcomes in the areas of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and plans to

Table 4

Topics in Behavioral Reactions to Change

Topic	Authors	Synopsis
Absenteeism	Fugate, Prussia, & Kinicki, 2010	Studied the antecedents/consequences to threat appraisal during change. Threat appraisal was positivity related to absenteeism and intentions to quit.
	Martin, Jones, & Callan, 2005	Employees who had a positive perception of the psychological climate were more likely to consider change in a positive light, resulting in higher job satisfaction, well-being, organizational commitment, and lessened turnover intentions.
Bullying	Baron & Neuman, 1996	Found a correlation between increased aggression and organizational change
	Holton et al., 2017	Conducted an examination of how workforce bullying was correlated with increased organizational change
Change acceptance	Michaelis, Stegmaier, & Sonntag, 2009	Examined how charismatic leadership influenced implementation of change
	Paterson & Cary, 2002	Found that distributive justice was correlated with employee morale and influenced acceptance of change
Commitment to change	Herold, Fedor, Caldwell, & Liu, 2008	Found that transformational leadership was strongly related to employee commitment to change
	Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002	Developed a measure to examine how commitment to change is correlated to behavioral support for change. Affective commitment and normative commitment were better predictors of behavior support than continuance commitment.

(*table continues*)

Topic	Authors	Synopsis
Compliance	Ashworth, Boyne, & Delbridge, 2007	Used institutional theory to delineate between conforming and compliance during organizational change
	Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002	Measured how commitment to change is correlated to behavioral support for change. Affective commitment and normative commitment were better predictors of behavior support than continuance commitment.
Information seeking	Allen, Jimmieson, Bordia, & Irmer, 2007	Examined communication behaviors that affected uncertainty during organizational change
Intention to remain	Bozeman & Perrewe, 2001	Considered how organizational commitment was influenced by several factors including intention to remain
	Daly & Geyer, 1994	Found that justification for organizational change on intention to remain was mediated by the results of the change and perceptions of procedural fairness
Participation	Bordia, Hobman, Jones, Gallois, & Callan, 2004	Found that control mediated uncertainty and strain, communication by management was negatively related to uncertainty, and participation in decision-making was negatively related to uncertainty. Participation was also positively associated with control and negatively associated with strain.
	C. Cunningham et al., 2002	Considered factors influencing readiness for organization change
	Jones, Jimmieson, & Griffiths, 2005	Found that higher levels of readiness for change preimplementation positively influenced satisfaction with change
Resistance	Bovey & Hede, 2001	Investigated the relationship between affective and cognitive perceptions with willingness to support or resist change
	Stanley, Meyer, & Topolntsky, 2005	Found that cynicism was distinguished from skepticism; analyzed resistance effects to change

(*table continues*)

Topic	Authors	Synopsis
Support	Jimmieson, Peach, & White, 2008	Considered how employee attitudes, norms, and job control influenced support of change.
	Meyer, Srinivas, Lal, & Topolnytsky, 2007	Studied how employee commitment in the areas of affective, normative, and continuance influenced levels of support for organizational change
Turnover intention	Babalola, Stouten, & Euwema, 2016	Examined how frequent change was affected by ethical leadership to reduce turnover intentions
	Martin, Jones, & Callan, 2005	Found that employees who had a positive perception of the organizational psychological climate were also more likely to consider change in a positive light, resulting in higher job satisfaction, better well-being, increased organizational commitment, and lessened turnover intentions

Note. Table lists common topics with the most cited Google Scholar articles.

leave. Frone also discovered that when conflict occurred with coworkers, more personal outcomes were the result: depression, issues with self-esteem, and problems sleeping. Thus, there is a challenge in separating antecedents from consequences as there seems to be a systemic relationship between the two.

Consequences of reactions to organizational change. Reactions to change have consequences for the organization and the individual. Long-term effects to the organization vis-à-vis organizational change include turnover (Ribando et al., 2017), absenteeism (Martin et al., 2005; Smollan, 2015), and reduced organizational commitment (Logan & Ganster, 2007; Oreg, 2006). The APA's *2017 Work and Well-Being Survey* indicated that employees who reported a recent change in their company were three times more likely to indicate they did not trust their employer and three times more likely to report they were likely to try to find a position at another company. Researchers have found that the responses to organizational change include reduced

job satisfaction (APA, 2017; Logan & Ganster, 2007; Oreg, 2006), psychological withdrawal (Parsons, Liden, O'Connor, & Nagao, 1991), increased stress (Bordia, Hobman, et al., 2004; Parsons et al., 1991), and heightened uncertainty (Bordia, Hunt, et al., 2004; Rafferty & Griffin, 2006). Researchers have also associated stress with physical problems like heart disease, headaches, and back problems (Day, Crown, & Ivany, 2017; de Jong et al., 2016) and emotional reactions like anxiety, burnout, depression (Smollan, 2015). Again, in the 2017 APA survey, workers who had undergone a recent organizational change were four times more likely to experience physical health problems, overeating, and an increase in smoking. These consequences to the individual are significant. However, Heckmann, Steger, and Downing (2016) reported that when looking at organizational capacity for change there is little research about the consequences to change.

These impacts on the change recipient also have quantifiable costs. Researchers have estimated turnover to cost between 93% to 200% of a former employee's salary (Cascio, 2000; A. Johnson, 1995). There are also indirect costs to turnover, which include lost institutional knowledge, managerial time spent in finding a replacement, and the time needed for a new employee to learn her position (Otto, 2017). Absenteeism has a similar price. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2015) reported that absent employees cost businesses $225.8 billion annually in the United States. Also, lowered job satisfaction negatively impacts employee engagement. Gallup (2017) reported that disengaged employees exhibited 37% higher rates of absenteeism, resulted in a 49% increase in accidents (49%), and contributed to a 60% increase in errors. These costs to the organization due to negative employee reactions to change can be considerable.

A positive focus on organizational change. Even though a focus of this dissertation study concerns negative consequences to organizational change, other researchers have found positive outcomes. In K. Cameron and McNaughtan's (2014) review of literature published in the *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science* from 1965–2014, they explained analyses of problem-centered change dominated the studies published and reviewed in the journal. However, K. Cameron and McNaughtan claimed that from 2004 to 2014 there was a 101% increase in research finding constructive change. The field of positive organizational science encompasses this focus. K. Cameron, Dutton, and Quinn (2003) explained that the field of constructive change focuses on "goodness and positive human potential" (p. 3). They further explained that the field of positive change includes research on the processes of change, the motivations of people, and the effects of change with a forward-looking perspective. The field has four connotations: the adoption of a positive lens, a focus on defiant performance that has useful effects, an assumption of an affirmative bias, and an examination of what is best about people (K. Cameron & McNaughtan, 2014). Thus, problems or obstacles in organizational change reframe themselves as opportunities to build on experience rather than something that is detrimental (Gittell, Cameron, Lim, & Rivas, 2006). According to K. Cameron (2008), this niche examined extraordinarily good results in change or useful deviant performance. When outcomes significantly exceed expected performance, this falls within the domain of positive organizational scholarship. The field also includes behaviors that deviate from the norm for the group in constructive ways. While I analyzed how interpersonal conflict and associated CWBs possibly correlated with organizational change, researchers in the field of positive organizational change prefer to view this topic through a positive, productive lens.

Researchers in the field of organizational change previously noted (see Tables 1–4) do research topics that fit within the realm of positive organizational change. For instance, Michaelis et al. (2009) showed how charismatic leadership and employee trust influenced employee commitment to change. Moreover, Devos et al. (2007) researched openness to change and examined how processes, content, and context influenced the variable. Researchers in organizational commitment (Iverson, 1996) and organizational identification (Drzensky & van Dick, 2013) also examined how a positive connection to an entity impacts change efforts. Self-efficacy is another topic in organizational change research (Armenakis et al., 2007) with an affirmative focus. Armenakis et al. explained that self-efficacy is how one's belief in her ability to succeed influences her actions. It is not a surprise that the topics previously listed are in the antecedents to change literature as researchers seek to understand how to effect change that becomes permanent.

In the area of reactions to change, there are also topics that belong to positive organizational change scholarship. Fugate and Kinicki (2008) researched how affirming emotions correlated with affective commitment to organizational change. Also, Martin et al. (2005) analyzed how a constructive perception of change aligned with affirming reactions. Similarly, Paterson and Cary (2002) examined how distributive justice influenced morale and acceptance of change. Finally, support for change was another topic viewed through a constructive lens. Jimmieson, Peach, and White (2008) examined how employee commitment resulted in support of organizational change. Each of these studies affirmed the focus of positive organizational scholarship. However, for the purposes of this dissertation study, reactions to change for change recipients is of primary importance, especially for faculty as change recipients in Christian higher education.

Faculty as change recipients. Researchers of organizational change within higher education primarily focus on the processes of organizational change (Burke, 2014; Burnes, 2009; Kezar, 2001) rather than its repercussions to a vital human component—the faculty. Researchers have argued that change efforts fail because of the lack of employee input in the change process (Jones et al., 2005; Weeks, Chonko, Roberts, & Jones, 2004). There are some researchers that have examined faculty reactions during organizational change. Baker and Baldwin (2015) found a connection between faculty buy-in for organizational change and opinions concerning that change. Baker and Baldwin also asserted that there was a positive correlation between a managerial mind-set culture in higher education and faculty survival responses. Charlotte et al. (2014) studied the topic of faculty trust and its relation to organizational change. They indicated that when faculty trust declined at an institution, knowledge sharing also declined. Ribando et al. (2017) examined faculty turnover intention with reorganization, and they found that cultural fit, stress, and management style correlated with faculty turnover intention. Several international researchers analyzed organizational change and its impact on faculty, staff, and supervisors in higher education (Degn, 2018; Instiful & Maassen, 2017; Nikolaidis & Maroudas, 2013). Thus, there are researchers who have considered the impact of organizational change on faculty; however none have focused on the variables of interpersonal conflict or CWB.

It is not a surprise that very few researchers have examined the impact on faculty, considering that organizational change in higher education has many facets (e.g., effects on services, culture, leadership, processes, successes/failures). Drew (2010) argued that as higher education institutions implemented change, one of the most significant challenges was the management of the employees as key resources:

> Quality engagement, including the ability to deal with change, is a critical
> challenge for university leaders, and that to neglect the human dimension is to fall
> short of the potential for task accomplishment, building and maintaining the team,
> and individual development of those involved. (p. 69)

Thus, as faculty are change recipients during organizational change, it is integral to the institution to consider the consequences to those employees, and the research on this is sparse.

Beyond the analysis of faculty members as change recipients, there are researchers who point to the influence of tenure and roles on the perceptions of organizational change. S. Caldwell et al. (2009) indicated that employees who had more years of employment with an organization reacted differently to change than those who were employed for shorter periods. Several other researchers found similar results (Coyle Shapiro, 2002; Hornung & Rousseau, 2007; Madsen, Miller, & John, 2005; Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002). According to de Jong et al. (2016), employees with higher organizational status during change perceived it less negatively than those who were part of a work group. Further research could account for how length of employment and the academic role for faculty interact with reactions to organizational change.

A psychological analysis of change recipients is not a significant part of the research within organizational change but is a vital consideration for successful change initiatives. Reactions can be affective, cognitive, and behavioral. A significant stress response is interpersonal conflict (Robinson & Griffiths, 2005). That conflict can be difficult for employees to navigate.

Interpersonal Conflict

Review of definitions. Interpersonal conflict is difficult to define. Theorists have different approaches to the concept. Hocker and Wilmot (2014) explained that interpersonal conflict is "an expressed struggle between two interdependent parties who perceive incompatible

goals, scarce resources, and interference from others in achieving their goals" (p. 3). What is

significant about their definition is that the conflict must be communicated for it to meet the

definitional constraints. Weingart, Behfar, Bendenrsky, Tordorova, and Jehn (2015) affirmed this

need for communicated conflict by defining it as a situation in which participants are opposed

and actively advocating for different goals. According to Barki and Hartwick (2004), it is a

dynamic process between those who are interdependent as they perceive disagreement or

interference that results in negative emotions. When measuring perceptions of interpersonal

conflict, they found that disagreements, negative emotions, and interference were the primary

factors.

   With a unique perspective, Jehn (1994) argued that interpersonal conflict has three types:

task, process, and relationship. The same author explained that task conflict could include

differences of opinions on decisions; that relational conflict denotes problems employees have

with others, excluding task-associated problems; and that process conflicts occur when there are

disagreements on how the work gets done. Jehn (1994) found that relational and process conflict

was negatively associated with satisfaction and employee performance, whereas task conflict

increased group performance. The reason for the lack of unanimity in the definitions of

interpersonal conflict is because of the different epistemologies and methodologies used to

measure the construct (Barki & Hartwick, 2004). Some measure small disagreements, whereas

others examine significant behaviors like sabotage or intimidation (Spector & Jex, 1998), which

results in differing views of what encompasses interpersonal conflict.

   However, there are some commonalities among the definitions. Weingart et al. (2015)

and Hocker and Wilmot (2014) focused on the communication of the problem. All three

definitions indicated an interdependence of parties and interference goals. Hocker and Wilmot

(2014) and Barki and Hartwick (2004) emphasized the role that perception plays in interpersonal conflict as well as how behaviors can lead to obstruction (S. Alper, Tjosvold, & Law, 2000). Only Hocker and Wilmot's (2014) definition identified scarce resources as a source of conflict. In contrast, Barki and Hartwick (2004) were the only ones to study the dynamic interactions and the role that emotions play in conflicts. Barki and Hartwick (2004) noted that much of the research to explain interpersonal conflict is an attempt to capture the cognitive, affective, and behavioral properties. However, only Jehn's (1994) definition separates interpersonal conflict into different types occurring in organizations: task, process, and relational. Even though there are some commonalities of how interpersonal conflict is perceived, the differences make it hard to measure accurately and consistently.

As noted in Chapter 1, I utilized the Barki and Hartwick (2004) definition for this dissertation study. Barki and Hartwick highlighted how perception plays a role in conflict and that interpersonal conflict has cognitive, behavioral, and affective facets. The researchers who developed the Workplace Interpersonal Conflict Scale (Wright et al., 2017) also used the Barki and Hartwick (2004) definition when building the instrument. In this study, I used the same instrument.

Interpersonal conflict and organizational change. Interpersonal conflict can be an affective stress reaction to change. Similar to the present study, Robinson and Griffiths (2005) examined the relationship between transformational change and interpersonal conflict. They found that there were five sources of stress correlated with second-order change in a governmental department: increase of work, uncertainty, perception of unfairness, loss, and interpersonal conflict. Robinson and Griffiths found that 28% of change-related stress events resulted in interpersonal conflict. Two interviewees in their study identified examples of conflict

associated with change. One was caught in the middle of a feud between managers, fighting over the survival of their "empires." Another interviewee in the study explained, "People get agitated with each other. . . . People are less friendly toward each other, they snap at each other more" (Robinson & Griffiths, 2005, p. 211). This relationship for change and interpersonal conflict was affirmed by Andersen (2006), who explained that interpersonal conflict is a stress reaction to organizational change because of various workplace strains. Other theorists have affirmed the relationship between strain and overwork negatively affects the social norms of an organization (Marcelilissen, Winnubst, Buunk, & de Wolff, 1988). Moreover, the interaction of stress and conflict can lead to emotional exhaustion, negative job attitudes, and negative behaviors (Jaramillo, Mulki, & Boles, 2011).

Developers have utilized various models to reflect how organizational change causes interpersonal conflict. In answer to a call to consider how change affected stakeholders, Raza and Standing (2010) proposed a systemic model to promote the understanding of how organizational modifications influenced stakeholders, resistance to change, and conflict. Raza and Standing asserted that systems theory was the preferable method to reflect the interaction of these variables. In fact, Andersen (2006) argued that interpersonal conflict during organizational change was inevitable. However, Andersen claimed that the research literature did not fully explain the relationship. So, Andersen proposed that conflict could drive change and result in a collaborative culture if cognitive conflicts were encouraged and affective conflicts were restricted. Thus, researchers have approached the relationship between organizational change and interpersonal conflict by proposing models to reveal the dynamics of interaction and to understand the reasons behind the affiliation.

Reasons behind the relationship. Researchers have discovered several reasons why organizational change correlates with interpersonal conflict. Grimsmo and Hilsen (2000) noted that during change, factors like an increase in work demands and time constraints interact with quality demands, workload, and pace to increase strains. As a result, interpersonal pressures in the workplace occur. In addition, Appelberg, Romanov, Honkasalo, and Koskenvuo (1991) showed that a hectic work environment was correlated with higher levels of interpersonal conflict. Another factor associated with organizational change was role conflict (Andersen, 2006). Spector and Jex (1998) found that role conflict was strongly associated with interpersonal conflict. In the Spector and Jex study, employees struggled with the different roles they play inside and outside the organization, which can lead to conflict with others. Furthermore, Andersen (2006) claimed that during organizational change, power and status could be reasons behind conflict. Andersen explained that adaptation in processes can unveil latent problems. These hidden concerns are typically conflicts over power, status, or authority. According to Trader-Leigh (2001), any change initiative that encountered several cultures and tried to achieve multiple objectives would result in significant conflicts. Overall, researchers have noted several reasons why organizational change can increase interpersonal conflict.

Occurrence in higher education. In the context of higher education, organizational change associates with stress and conflict for faculty. Stensaker (2015) affirmed that when organizational change occurred in a university setting, the resulting managerial culture increased tension and conflict among all participants. Stensaker explained that the conflict resulted in disruption, interpersonal problems, and power struggles. Ribando et al. (2017) also considered how change via university consolidation (an example of second-order change) affected stakeholders via cultural change. Ribando et al. performed a baseline study and surveyed 1,661

full-time faculty at two universities that were just beginning a merger process. They investigated

factors such as culture, commitment, person-organization fit, and job stress as these were related

to turnover intention. Two years later, Ribando et al. conducted a follow-up survey with the same

variables and instrument, and they discovered that a faculty member's perception of fit, job

stress, attachment, and opinion concerning managerial culture all correlated with turnover

intention.

In support of those findings, Aune (1995) argued that understanding the experiences of

change recipients was critical in a college or university setting. Aune found that faculty

encountered guilt, fear, and anxiety during the organizational change process and challenges in

developing relationships. Because research has shown that a well-functioning organization will

result in higher job satisfaction, performance, and student achievement, it is important to

understand the relationship between organizational change and interpersonal conflict for faculty

(Charlotte et al., 2014).

Costs. Several researchers have connected interpersonal conflict to significant costs for

the organization and the individual. Interpersonal conflict is consistently ranked as a top

employment stressor and linked to decreased mental and physical health (Brockman, 2014).

Thus, it is no surprise that relationship conflict adversely affects job performance and satisfaction

(Jehn, 1995, 1997) and team performance and satisfaction (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). In

addition, a negative correlation occurs between interpersonal conflict, decision-making (de Wit,

Jehn, & Scheeps, 2013), and advice seeking (Marineau, Hood, & Labianca, 2017). These

problems can have other quantifiable costs. Researchers have found that workplace interpersonal

conflict correlates with higher levels of absenteeism, turnover, and medical costs (Day et al.,

2017; de Jong et al., 2016; Väänänen et al., 2004). According to Freres (2013), conflict could

cost an organization up to 20% in lost work time, a refocusing of a manager's time of up to 42%, a loss of 50% in salary related to turnover, and average legal fees of $100,000. Moreover, researchers have found that interpersonal conflict increases during times of organizational change (Andersen, 2006; Eschleman et al., 2015; Robinson & Griffiths, 2005).

However, there are researchers who claim that certain types of interpersonal conflict can help an organization. Researchers have argued that task conflict, one of Jehn's (1997) facets of interpersonal conflict, results in cooperation within teams and increased creativity (Flanagan & Runde, 2009; Guttman, 2009; Puck & Pregernig, 2014). Puck and Pregernig (2014) showed that when conflict occurs within teams, the process of resolution benefits the organization by solidifying relationships between team members and leads to higher-order solutions. Other researchers have also noted that conflict positively correlates with innovation (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003; Simons & Peterson, 2000).

Researchers of the previously noted studies did not analyze the long-term effects of conflict; they have only considered short-term results. De Dreu (2008) argued that the positive implications of conflict seem to occur only in task-focused circumstances. According to De Dreu, most researchers have ignored the variable of group pressure to conform. In task-driven conflicts, the team needs to complete a project, and conformity to decision-making trumps conflict. Janis (1982), the originator of groupthink, affirmed this problem. Janis argued that because of the cohesiveness of groups, there is a pressure to conform, indicating that this persuasive influence of conformity limits the group's decision-making. De Dreu (2008) made a similar argument when he stated that previous studies looking at the positives of conflict ignore the pressure to solve the immediate conflict. By focusing on task completion despite strife,

researchers have not considered how conflict impacts future decision-making or prospective problems.

For this study, I utilized the Barki and Hartwick (2004) definition because it encompasses a full range of reactions to organizational change—affective, cognitive, and behavioral. Many researchers have correlated organizational change with interpersonal conflict within other contexts (Andersen, 2006; Eschleman et al., 2015; Robinson & Griffiths, 2005). I aim to discover if the same relationship occurs within the context of Christian higher education. However, if the same relationship between change and conflict occur in Christian higher education, it must also be seen if there are costs associated with interpersonal conflict in this environment.

Counterproductive Work Behavior

Researchers considering CWBs have identified them as retaliation, aggression, and deviance enacted by the employee (Kessler, Bruursema, Rodopman, & Spector, 2013) that deliberately harm the organization or others (O'Boyle et al., 2011; Salgado, 2002; Zhou et al., 2014). Other researchers have noted that such behaviors violate organizational and social codes with the intent to harm (Fida et al., 2014). Spector et al. (2006) explained that these definitions result in combining many behaviors into the one term because of an assumption that the motives (aggression and/or revenge) across all these actions are similar. These behaviors can be actions against the organization or actions against other individuals (Fida et al., 2014; Fox, Spector, & Miles., 2001; Kessler et al., 2013). CWBs directed at coworkers is interpersonally focused and can take the form of verbal abuse, gossip, mean pranks, or the refusal to share key information. In contrast, negative behaviors directed at the organization can manifest as multiple breaks, working on personal projects, theft, lowered engagement, and breaking company rules (Spector

& Fox, 2005). Spector et al. (2006) separated these behaviors into five categories: abuse, deviance, sabotage, theft, and withdrawal. These dimensions demonstrate that such behaviors can range from small transgression to those that are more detrimental to the organization and others.

A stressor-response. CWBs occur as responses to stressors that interfere with goals, activities, or performance (Fida et al., 2014; Spector & Fox, 2005). Other researchers have explained that when an employee perceives a job stressor, the result is negative emotion that leads to negative, counterproductive behaviors in an attempt to reduce frustration (Penney & Spector, 2005; Spector, 1998). An employee can become stressed at work because of a perception that some type of constraint is interfering with the accomplishment of a goal. The employee then has an emotional reaction to that stressor. To cope with the emotion, the employee enacts a behavior such as theft, aggression, or even an intentional absence to alleviate that emotion. Bruk-Lee and Spector (2006) examined this relationship between emotion and counterproductive behavior, and they found that interpersonal conflict with a coworker correlated with an emotional response as well as a negative action directed at a fellow employee. In contrast, interpersonal conflict with a supervisor correlated with actions against the organization.

History of counterproductive work behavior research. Theorists within the field of CWB have historically studied working conditions and policies for employees, which means that it fits within the field of sociology (Bayram et al., 2009). Researchers in this field of study have utilized social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) as a framework to understand the relationship among organizational factors, motives, and actions as they seek to understand why employees resort to negative work behaviors (O'Boyle et al., 2011). One of the earliest models was the

popcorn model developed by Folger and Skarlicki (1998). In this model, Folger and Skarlicki explained that volatile conditions in the organization (using the metaphor of oil) leads to aggression (the popcorn), much like kernels popping. By analyzing the conditions of the workplace, Folger and Skarlicki claimed to be able to predict employee aggression. As the field grew, Martinko, Gundlach, and Douglas (2002) created a model to reflect how human factors correlate with contextual forces. Some of those situational forces included policies, leadership, rewards, negative working conditions, and culture (Martinko et al., 2002). These researchers acknowledged that organizational factors influence counterproductive behaviors, which aligns with this study's premise that organizational change and interpersonal conflict associate with costs to the organization.

Interpersonal conflict. Previous researchers have found that interpersonal conflict has associated with CWB (Bayram et al., 2009; Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Bruk-Lee & Spector, 2006; Fida et al., 2014; Kessler et al., 2013; Penney & Spector, 2005; Raver, 2013). Spector and Fox (2005) found that these behaviors are a response to organizational stressors because of interference with work goals, activities, or performance. Of these stressors, some researchers found that interpersonal conflict was the most significant predictor when compared to other work stressors (Bayram et al., 2009; Hershcovis et al., 2007). Eschleman et al. (2015) affirmed the strength of this relationship in their six-month longitudinal study that found that when work stressors such as interpersonal conflict increased, negative work behaviors also rose. Significantly, Eschleman et al. found that these behaviors could occur as a delayed reaction, which resulted in an underestimation of the costs of the behavior. Similarly, in Zhou et al.'s (2014) survey of 932 employees, there was a significant positive relationship between interpersonal conflict with counterproductive actions directed at individuals and the organization.

Uniquely, interpersonal conflict with a supervisor was associated with negative behaviors directed at the organization, whereas conflict with a fellow employee was associated with behaviors directed at coworkers, not the organization (Bruk-Lee & Spector, 2006; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010). Researchers inferred that interpersonal conflict is an emotionally charged experience for employees, resulting in CWBs (Kessler et al., 2013; Raver, 2013). In affirmation of these results, Fida et al.'s (2014) study of 1,147 Italian employees showed that when negative emotions occurred because of stressors like interpersonal conflict, it resulted in lowered engagement and CWBs. The relationship between the two has been found to be significant and to be associated with costs to the organization and its employees.

Context of higher education. Some researchers have examined CWBs by faculty in higher education. Spagnoli, Balducci, and Fraccaroli (2017) studied organizational change in higher education and its relationship with bullying. In their longitudinal study, Spagnoli et al. looked at data from 141 university employees and found that organizational change interacted with strain and workplace bullying for employees who were directly affected by the organizational change process. Similarly, Kessler (2007) in her dissertation found that the structure of an academic department affected job performance, satisfaction, and CWBs. Kessler noted that highly structured academic departments had more instances of abusive behaviors. In consideration of demographic factors, Dirican and Erdil (2016) studied organizational citizenship behavior and CWB for academics at 50 universities. Dirican and Erdil found that older members exhibited fewer CWBs than younger members and that there was no difference between men and women. Finally, Fox et al. (2001) examined how job stressors like organizational constraints and interpersonal conflict correlated with CWB. In their study, Fox et al. surveyed university employees and workers in other organizations. Their analysis did not compare reactions between

samples. However, Fox et al. did find that each of the stressors correlated with CWB. Specifically, they indicated that organizational constraints were associated with CWBs directed at the organization and interpersonal conflict was more closely associated with CWBs directed toward other individuals. Even though there is research considering CWBs in the context of higher education, none accounted for the impact of second-order or frequent organizational change associated with interpersonal conflict and CWBs in Christian higher education.

The relationship between organizational change, interpersonal conflict, and CWB in Christian higher education is important to consider because of the consequences those CWBs could bring to the university or college via the feedback loop (as presented in Figure 1) in the form of turnover, abuse, sabotage, and withdrawal. However, it is possible that other factors could influence the correlation between these variables. In Christian higher education, because of its values-based focus, faculty members are likely to embrace the faith-based values of the organization and result in strong organizational identification with the Christian college or university. If this is true, their concurrence with the values of the institution might then influence the relationship between the previously noted variables. In the following portion of the literature review, I summarize the research in this area and its application to organizational change in Christian higher education.

Organizational Identification

Organizational identification has a foundation in the theory of social identification (M. Johnson, Morgeson, & Hekman, 2010). Tajfel (1972) claimed that social identification occurs when individuals engage in a psychological merging with groups, which results in members reflecting specific group characteristics. This psychological merging concludes with the prioritizing of the group's interests as one's self-interests (Michel, Stegmaier, & Sonntag, 2010).

Social identification has affective and cognitive aspects (Tajfel, 1972). Belonging to a group provides an individual a way to place themselves in society in relation to others while it also creates an emotional attachment to the group (M. Johnson et al., 2012). The attachment occurs not only with groups but also in organizations.

Building off the research on social identification, E. Lee et al. (2015) explained that organizational identification occurs as a psychological state in which employees define themselves with the same attributes that they believe the organization reflects. They noted that this results in the employee having self-defining attributes that align with organizational values and goals, which can result in boundaries becoming blurred. Michel et al. (2010) asserted that this merging of identities between the employee and organization is an effort to positively affect the individual's self-esteem and self-concept. Employees who identified with their organization were more likely to promote the entity's perspective and goals because of their alignment of self-concept with the organizational identity (D. van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). In addition, if an individual demonstrates high identification with the organization, she will be more likely to pay attention to positive attributes of the organization to confirm her positive self-concept (E. Lee et al., 2015). As Haslam and Ellemers (2005) argued, employees with higher levels of organizational identification are more likely to embrace a worldview that reflects the organization's values and culture, which then determines the employee's place in the world. Those with higher levels are more likely to take actions to ensure survival of their organization because the accomplishments of the entity are also viewed as their personal victories (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994). Researchers in this field highlighted the connection between an employee's identity and that of the organization because of its history with the theory of social identification. But the associated behaviors can be both positive and negative.

Positive and negative behaviors associated with organizational identification.

Researchers disagree on whether organizational identification correlates with positive or negative

behaviors. However, the majority of the researchers identify positive outcomes. Employees with

higher levels of identification are less likely to choose turnover (Conroy, Becker, & Menges,

2016; D. van Knippenberg & van Schie, 2000) and to be more satisfied in their employment

(Mael & Ashforth, 1992; van Dick et al., 2004). Similarly, Bartel (2001) found links to several

positive behaviors, such as cooperation, helping, work effort, and positive advocacy. Also, E.

Lee et al. (2015) claimed that it influences behavior more than attitudes and results in enhanced

job performance. They found that organizational identification positively correlated with

behavioral outcomes for in-role performance and had a significant positive correlation with

extra-role performance. Affirming this claim, Grice, Gallois, Jone, Paulsen, and Callen (2006)

found that those employees with higher levels of identification were more likely to share

information with other employees, whereas Bartel (2001) asserted that employees with higher

levels made decisions that coincided with the interests of the organization. However, E. Lee et al.

(2015) acknowledged that their study only considered its positive implications, calling for further

research on how it associated with negative behaviors at work.

Other researchers have examined the negative behaviors associated with organizational

identification. Dukerich, Kramer, and Parks (1998) explained that overidentification could occur

when an employee's needs become entirely associated with her membership in the institution.

Dukerich et al. asserted that this might result in suppressed dissension, the support of unethical

behaviors, and a tendency for overwork. According to Decoster, Camps, Stouten, Vandevyvere,

and Tripp (2013), employees with higher levels of identification with the organization were less

likely to address negative work conditions and to report abusive supervisors. Also, it has been

found that higher levels can lead to behaviors that may have short-term benefits but hurt the organizations in the long run (Umphress, Bingham, & Mitchell, 2010). Employees with higher levels have been found to incur work-family conflict because of overinvestment in their work roles (Li, Fan, & Zhao, 2015). Finally, Conroy et al. (2017) reviewed the literature concerning the negative results of higher levels of organizational identification and reported that higher levels associated with several detrimental outcomes—unethical behaviors, organizational change resistance, interpersonal conflict, performance problems, negative emotion, and a reduction in well-being. It appears that researchers disagree about whether organizational identification correlates with positive or negative behaviors.

Organizational change and identification. However, researchers have found that organizational identification influences employee reactions to organizational change (Michel et al., 2010; Rousseau, 1998; B. van Knippenberg et al., 2006). Michel et al. (2010) in a longitudinal study of organizational change at a German university found that organizational identification was a mediating variable between procedural justice and commitment to change. They explained that employees with higher levels of identification were acting in their self-interests when they supported organizational change as they perceived success for the institution as success for themselves. Thus, it is not surprising that other researchers found a positive relationship for organizational identification, organizational citizenship, and extra-role behavior (Mael & Ashforth, 1992).

However, it can undermine change processes (B. van Knippenberg et al., 2006). If an employee is highly identified, she is less likely to speak up when there are problems (Decoster et al., 2013) and tends to demonstrate resistance to change when it threatens her existing identity or requires adaptation of that identity (Conroy et al., 2017). According to van Dick, Ulrich, and

Tissington (2006), employees with higher levels of organizational identification before a merger were more likely to demonstrate behavior resistance, and experience anger, fear, and other negative emotions during change. Van Dijk and Van Dick (2009) found that employees with higher levels were more likely to demonstrate turnover or decreased job commitment because of a perceived threat to group distinctiveness. When the change process results in an identity threat, the employee perceives a threat to her own values, meaning, and self-concept (Petriglieri, 2011).

    Organizational identification research in higher education. Researchers have examined how organizational identification occurs at institutions of higher education. Michel et al. (2010) surveyed employees at all levels of a German university that had undergone large-scale change. Their longitudinal study indicated that organizational identification was the mediator of the positive relationship between procedural justice and commitment to change. Similarly, van Vuuren, Beelen, and de Jong (2010) examined the merging of two South African universities and found that the majority of the employees highly identified with their organization before the merger. They discovered that those who demonstrated higher levels of identification saw the merger as a threat to their own identity and felt dominated by the other university. This feeling of domination resulted in a sense of discontinuity with their identity before the merger. The discontinuity associated with lower levels after the merger resulted in uncooperativeness and a shift in identification (van Vuuren et al., 2010). In a study that did not examine organizational change, Tsui and Ngo (2015) studied the relationship between organizational identification and faculty work behavior at a Chinese business school. Tsui and Ngo hypothesized that because of the collectivistic national culture, the faculty would demonstrate higher levels of identification. The faculty did exhibit organizational identification, but faculty earlier in their careers had higher levels than those who were in the later stages (Tsui

& Ngo, 2015). In addition, Tsui and Ngo discovered that higher levels were also significantly correlated with in-role performance and extra-role performance.

Researchers in the field of organizational identification have indicated that there is a correlation between it and organizational change (Conroy et al., 2017; Michel et al., 2010; Rousseau, 1998; Van Dijk & Van Dick, 2009; B. van Knippenberg et al., 2006). However, there is not agreement on whether it associates with positive or negative behavior. As a result of this lack of clarity, I sought to understand how it influences the possible correlation between interpersonal conflict and CWBs. Faculty members of Christian universities and colleges are likely to embrace similar values to that of their employer because of the religious focus. There are several Christian higher education institutions that have faculty sign an agreement that they will support the biblical faith of the employer, aligning lifestyles with employer values (Evangel, 2013; George Fox University, n.d.; Lee University, 2018; Oklahoma Baptist University, n.d.; Regent University, 2018). However, it is unknown if this sharing of values influences organizational identification.

Rationale for Research

Leaders of Christian colleges and universities are implementing significant organizational change (Hetrick et al., 2018; Hulme et al., 2016). Like other institutions of higher education, leaders in Christian universities and colleges are responding to several contextual pressures including technological innovations (Cassell & Merkel, 2018; Yacapsin, 2014), enrollment pressures (National Center for Education Statistics, 2018), and budget cuts (Chessman et al., 2017; Johnston, 2017). These pressures are forcing adaptation, such as developing new course and degree programs (Marcus, 2017), cutting faculty and staff (Associated Press, 2018), downsizing educational offerings (Shellnutt, 2017), adapting their missions (Kozlowski, 2017),

and partnering with other entities to provide services (Bird, 2018). All of these decisions by leaders in Christian higher education fit theorists' descriptions of organizational change.

However, these examples of change within Christian higher education are occurring frequently and with transformational results (Hetrick et al., 2018; Hulme et al., 2016; Reynolds & Wallace, 2016). Second-order change (Porras & Robertson, 1992) is commonly considered transformative because it influences vision, structure, and methods of doing things (Rafferty & Restubog, 2017). Cole et al. (2005) correlated this type of change with reduced job satisfaction, turnover, and lowered organizational commitment. Frequent change is continuous change or several changes at once (Smollan et al., 2010). Similar to the impact of transformational change on employees, frequent change has been associated with change fatigue (Bernerth et al., 2011) and increased stress because of the constant adaptation of work processes and social work relationships (Rafferty & Griffin, 2006).

One of the most significant stressors correlated with organizational change is interpersonal conflict (Andersen, 2006; Robinson & Griffiths, 2005). Interpersonal conflict occurs because of perceptions of disagreement and interference with an emotional response (Barki & Hartwick, 2004), and when conflict occurs in a workplace, it causes stress (Dahl, 2011; Smollan, 2015; Wisse & Sleebos, 2015). Freres (2013) found that conflict costs an organization of up to 20% of lost work time, a refocusing of a manager's time of up to 42%, a loss of 50% in salary related to turnover, and average legal fees of $100,000. It incurs other significant costs, one of which is CWB.

Interpersonal conflict has also been correlated with the strain of CWB (Eschleman et al., 2015; Spector & Jex, 1998). Kessler et al. (2013) identified this relationship between interpersonal conflict and CWB as a stressor-strain process. Researchers have explained CWBs

to include abuse, sabotage, theft, withdrawal, and the undermining of production, which can be either directed at fellow workers or at the organization with a specific purpose to cause harm (Raver, 2013; Spector et al., 2006). To understand the relationship between the conflict and CWBs, researchers have noted that conflict acts as a stressor that results in an adaptive response to reduce emotional discomfort (Fida et al., 2014). Moreover, CWBs have been found to increase costs for the organization in the form of turnover, lost productivity, increased absenteeism, and reduced feelings of well-being (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003; M. LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002; Penney & Spector, 2005).

If faculty members are being impacted by change that then is associated with conflict and CWB, it is important to understand those repercussions as faculty members are key to the successful operation of the university. As noted previously, Kezar and Maxey (2014) asserted that faculty members are the frontline connection for the university with students as they positively influence student learning. Thus, faculty reactions are important to consider as increased faculty-student interactions are associated with multiple positive student outcomes, which include increases in knowledge and skills, less idealism, and a greater sense of competence (Astin, 1993). Additionally, Shirley Hoogstra, president of the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities (as cited in Gilbert, 2019), noted that faculty at Christian colleges and universities are uniquely positioned to influence students' lives at a time when those students are trying to understand how to engage in a meaningful life. Thus, Hoogstra highlighted that those Christian faculty members take the time to integrate faith with learning, a key to Christian higher education (Gilbert, 2019). If faculty reactions to change are negative, that consequence might influence not only change efforts but these student outcomes.

Although other variables could influence the strength of associations between organizational change, conflict, and CWBs, a faculty member's organizational identification could affect the correlation because it occurs when an employee adopts an institution's values, using the identity of the organization as a way to affirm her self-concept (E. Lee et al., 2015). Some researchers have found that in organizational change situations, it correlated with higher levels of employee support (Michel et al., 2010). Other researchers have found that change situations with similar levels of organizational identification resulted in lowered employee cooperation (van Vuuren et al., 2010). Thus, in my study, I sought to understand how organizational identification might influence the correlations between conflict and behavior.

I also proposed using the lens of OST. Katz and Kahn (1978) utilized OST to explain that the environment interacts with a system to promote inputs to the organization, resulting in outputs and feedback loops. This lens of OST reflected my assertion that the contextual pressures experienced by Christian higher education results in frequent, second-order organizational change within the university, and interpersonal conflict occurs as a stressor associated with that change (see Figure 1). This systematic process creates a feedback loop of CWBs, which negatively affects the university because of faculty misbehaviors including withdrawal, theft, sabotage, production deviance, and abuse (Spector et al., 2006). The costs of CWBs are significant and quantifiable, and if they are occurring in Christian higher education, similar costs detrimental to the university and faculty could result.

With this study, I fill several gaps in the literature. First, although there have been researchers who have examined frequent and second-order organizational change in public higher education (Hechanova & Cementina-Olpoc, 2012; Kondakci & Van den Broeck, 2009; Sverdlik & Oreg, 2015; Torraco et al., 2005) and Christian higher education (K. Moran, 2016;

Obenchain et al., 2004; O'Connor, 2018), no researchers have analyzed organizational change and its effects within Christian higher education. Second, the majority of these researchers have utilized the form of case studies (Horvath, 2016). Third, I could not find any researchers who had quantitatively analyzed the associations between organizational change, interpersonal conflict, and CWB utilizing an OST perspective. Although theorists have frequently used OST as a lens to examine reactions to organizational change in other contexts (Evans et al., 2014; Fugate, 2013; Pondy, 1992; Yang et al., 2017), my use of OST to consider the energy exchanges occurring during organizational change fits Burke's (2014) call to utilize the theory to better understand the systemic effects of organizational change. Fourth, researchers have neither frequently nor quantitatively considered the association between organizational change and interpersonal conflict but have relied on an assumption that there is an association.

Summary

In this study, I focused on reactions to organizational change by Christian higher education faculty. I hypothesized that there is a correlation between interpersonal conflict and frequent change or second-order organizational change (Andersen, 2006; Robinson & Griffiths, 2005). Other researchers have also associated interpersonal conflict with CWB (Bayram et al., 2009; Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Herschcovis & Barling, 2010; Hershcovis et al., 2007). I argue that the same relationship occurs in Christian institutions of higher education. However, the association between conflict and CWBs could be influenced by organizational identification because faculty at Christian institutions often embrace the same values as the organization resulting in higher organizational identification.

Chapter 3: Research Method

In this chapter, I review the methods I used in the study. First, I present my hypotheses and research questions for the study. Second, I describe the method and the justification for the research design. Then, I identify the population and sample. Last, I proceed with an explanation of materials, instruments, and data collection.

Hypotheses and Research Questions

The associations between organizational change and interpersonal conflict, and between conflict and CWB, were the basis for the hypotheses listed below. The contradictory research about the effects of organizational identification resulted in the research questions.

H1. A higher frequency of measures of second-order change will be positively correlated with interpersonal conflict between faculty members.

H2. A higher frequency of measures of second-order change will be positively correlated with interpersonal conflict for faculty with supervisors.

H3. Interpersonal conflict between faculty members will be positively correlated with counterproductive work behavior directed at fellow faculty members.

- **RQ1.** What is the intervening effect of organizational identification with interpersonal conflict between faculty members and counterproductive work behavior directed at other faculty members?

- **RQ2.** What is the intervening effect of organizational identification with interpersonal conflict between faculty members and counterproductive work behavior directed at supervisors?

H4. Interpersonal conflict between faculty and supervisors will be positively correlated with counterproductive work behavior directed at supervisors.

- **RQ3.** What is the intervening effect of organizational identification with interpersonal conflict between faculty members and supervisors and counterproductive work behavior directed at supervisors?

- **RQ4.** What is the intervening effect of organizational identification with interpersonal conflict between faculty members and supervisors and counterproductive work behavior directed at other faculty members?

In the study I sought to understand if the same relationship of frequent or second-order organizational change with interpersonal conflict for faculty members occurred within the context of Christian higher education. If so, there could also be a correlation between conflict and CWBs. Because a faculty member's identity-driven connection to her university could influence the results, I examined organizational identification to understand its effect on the other variables. This was important to study because the costs of CWBs and interpersonal conflict could undermine the organization and the change efforts.

Research Design and Method

I utilized a cross-sectional predictive correlational design for the study. Quantitative designs are reflective of a deterministic outlook with a postpositivist paradigm because they reveal correlations among variables (Leavy, 2017; Sousan, Driessnack, & Mendes, 2007). According to Allen, Titsworth, and Hunt (2009), quantitative designs are used to investigate patterns and relationships of behavior. Barnham (2015) explained that quantitative analysis allows a researcher to create a representation of what respondents think and perceive. Thus, it was anticipated that there would be not only an association between frequent and second-order organizational change and interpersonal conflict, and between interpersonal conflict and CWB, but also a commonality in direction. Correlational designs are used to find if changes in one

variable are associated with changes in other variables; they also can indicate the strength of the relationship between two variables (Field, 2013). Sousa et al. (2007) gave more detail on the appropriateness of correlational-driven design and explained that correlations identify "direction, degree, and magnitude" (p. 504). Therefore, uncovering a significant correlation between variables allows researchers to suggest an association (Allen et al., 2009).

The use of a cross-sectional survey was a useful way to assess correlations for the referenced variables for a large number of faculty at a single-point in time (Allen et al., 2009). Surveys are a method in the social sciences to gather quantifiable data concerning a specific group by asking participants questions about attitudes, behaviors, and perceptions (Wrench, Thomas-Maddox, Richmond, & McCroskey, 2008). The cross-sectional perspective allowed me to examine differences of perceptions among groups of faculty according to gender, length of employment, and institution (Wrench et al., 2008). The design was considered observational because no intervention was done (Drummond & Murphy-Reyes, 2018). In the next sections, I specifically address how the design and method were applied to population, sampling, and data collection procedures.

Population

The target population for the study was faculty from Christian colleges and universities. Christian higher education institutions are 4-year colleges and universities whose missions are Christ-centered and who promote biblical principles throughout a student's education (Council of Christian Colleges and Universities, 2019). All faculty have a master's degree or doctorate. Eagan et al. (2014) noted that the average age of employees in the United States slightly increased from 40.8 to 42 from 2006 to 2016. In comparison, faculty over 45 years of age accounted for more than 67% of faculty members in the United States (TIAA Institute, 2018). I

expected males to outnumber females as only 45% of full-time faculty are women (National

Center for Education Statistics, 2016b). Although these statistics reference all of higher

education, I assumed that faculty characteristics of Christian institutions were similar as no

recent studies addressing the demographics of faculty at Christian universities were found.

Sample

With a goal of generalizing study results to the population, I utilized a convenience

sample from Christian universities. Seven Christian universities, all members of the CCCU ,

were asked to participate. Only five universities agreed to participate. Some of the university

representatives requested that no identifying information concerning their institution be shared.

The five universities were from different geographical locations in the United States and

represented several different denominations.

The total number of full-time faculty surveyed at these institutions was 1,409. I did a

census survey of all full-time faculty at each university, who may or may not have had

administrative duties (see Appendix A). In the email, faculty were given the choice to respond. If

the faculty member was not full-time or had not been employed at the institution for a minimum

of two years, I instructed the software not to allow them to complete the survey.

I anticipated that Pearson correlations would be used to determine if there were

associations between the variables. Therefore, the minimum sample size needed was 100 ($N =$

100), and this number was reached by using a 5% significance level ($\alpha = 0.05$) and power of

80% ($\beta = .2$; Noordzji et al., 2010). The final sample size was $N = 267$.

Demographic Profiles of Respondents

In the survey, I included demographic questions about gender, years employed, and

identification of the university. The majority of respondents were male ($n = 145$; 55% of the

sample) with the minority being female ($n = 118$; 45% of the sample). This percentage of men

and women matched the NCES's estimates of a gender split of 55% to 45% (National Center for

Education Statistics, 2016b). Concerning length of employment at their university, the average

number of years employed was 12.84 ($SD = 9.19$). Each university had a number of respondents.

The majority (33%) of respondents indicated University A ($n = 88$). The next highest number of

respondents (24%) chose University B ($n = 64$). University C consisted of 10% of the

respondents ($n = 26$). University D had 19% of the respondents ($n = 50$), and University E had

14% of the respondent sample ($n = 39$). The total number of participants ($N = 267$) provided me

the ability to conduct an in-depth analysis of responses.

Full-time faculty at the five participating Christian universities accessed the survey

between April 28, 2019 and June 30, 2019. I invited all 1,409 faculty at the five universities to

participate in the survey. Some emails were unknowingly sent out to retired faculty. I excluded

some other faculty because they were not full-time at the university or were employed for less

than two years ($n = 25$). Two faculty members did not give consent ($n = 2$). There were faculty

who were qualified and gave consent but chose to not answer the survey questions ($n = 17$).

Data Collection

I initially garnered IRB approval from my sponsoring institution, Abilene Christian

University. Once this permission was received, I sought IRB approval at seven universities. After

6 weeks, only five of the universities had responded to multiple inquiries. Three universities gave

formal IRB approval. IRB chairs of two of the universities suggested via email that publicly

listed faculty emails should be utilized for the research. Two of the five universities sent out the

online survey from their own IRB departments. For the other three universities, I sent out the

email invitations to faculty to participate in the survey. One university shared their faculty emails

with me. For the other two universities, I composed a list of full-time faculty emails from their college websites per the IRB suggestion.

In the invitation email, I presented faculty members with an overview of the research and its purpose. I recognized in the email Abilene Christian University's IRB approval, included assurances of anonymity, and a link to the study. When clicking the link in the email, faculty members were directed to SurveyMonkey, which then presented the informed consent document. If they gave their consent, faculty were then directed to complete the survey (see Appendices B–E). To ensure anonymity, emails or identifying information, besides demographic data, were not collected. Survey invitations were sent between April 28, 2019 and June 1, 2019. For each university, reminder emails were sent 1 week after the initial invitation. The surveys were closed on June 30, 2019. Once I finished collecting data, only I and my dissertation chair were given access to the data.

At the close of collection, data was downloaded to Excel onto my personal computer that was password protected. The Excel document was then exported into SPSS. For backup purposes, the original data was saved in the Excel document on my computer.

Materials/Instruments

Measurement of organizational change. I adapted the Organizational Change Scale, first utilized by Rafferty and Griffin (2006), to assess frequency of change and second-order change (see Appendix B). Rafferty and Griffin utilized two samples to assess the reliability of both the frequency of change questions and those that considered second-order change. Three items of their survey assessed frequency of change. An example of a frequency of change item is "It feels like change is always happening" (Rafferty & Griffin, 2006). These items had a Cronbach's alpha of .76 in both samples. Frequency of change responses were captured in a

seven-point Likert scale with answers ranging from 1 (*strongly d*isagree) to 7 (*strongly agree*). There were three items measuring second-order change. An example of an item was the following: "To what extent have you experienced changes to the values in your unit?" (Rafferty & Griffin, 2006). The alpha for these items was .89 in the first sample and .87 in the second sample. Answers for second-order change ranged from 1 (*not at all*) to 7 (*extremely*). For the study's use, items were slightly modified to reflect a university; the word "unit" in four of the questions was replaced by the word "university." In Rafferty and Griffin's (2006) original scale, they also measured planned changed and uncertainty. For my study, only items of frequent change and second-order, transformational change were included.

The items assessing frequent change and transformational change aligned with the definitions of the two concepts. Frequent change is defined as a series of change over time or several changes at once (Smollan et al., 2010). The items from Rafferty and Griffin (2006) considered whether change was perceived as ongoing or numerous. Also, the second-order or transformational change definition included changes in structure of an organization or a perception of value modification (Porras & Robertson, 1992). When analyzing results from my study of faculty in Christian higher education, the frequency of change items had a Cronbach's alpha of .78 and second-order change items had a reliability of .85. When all six items of organizational change items were combined, the alpha was .89.

Measurement of interpersonal conflict. To measure interpersonal conflict, I adapted the Workplace Interpersonal Conflict Scale (WICSl; Wright et al., 2017) to assess interpersonal conflict with fellow faculty and supervisors (see Appendix C). According to Wright et al. (2017), this scale adheres to the more current definition of interpersonal conflict (noted in the literature review as the one developed by Barki and Hartwick, 2004) as it measures the perception of

conflict across themes. Wright et al. engaged in three studies to test the reliability and validity of their scale, and in the last two studies the WICS was compared to other popular interpersonal conflict measures. In the first study, Wright et al. used a sample of home care workers ($n = 148$), who took the original seven-item WICS scale. In this study, Wright et al. discovered that the first six items had higher internal consistency and construct validity when the seventh item was not included. That seventh item dealt with unclear directions at work. In this first study, the correlation of the six items was above .40 and Cronbach's alpha was .92.

In the second study, Wright et al. (2017) sampled food service and grocery employees ($N = 112$). The participants took the WICS (including all seven items) and Interpersonal Conflict at Work Scale (ICAWS; Spector & Jex, 1998), which is another interpersonal conflict assessment with high validity and reliability. Similar to the second study, when the seventh item concerning unclear directions was not included, the correlation was above .40 and Cronbach's alpha was .88. Wright et al. also found that when comparing WICS and ICAWS, convergent validity was observed because of a strong correlation between the scores. In the third study, Wright et al. accessed participants via an online platform with a total of 646 participants. The participants took the WICS, ICAWS (Spector & Jex, 1998) and the Intragroup Conflict Scale (ICS; Jehn, 1995). Again, when excluding the seventh item, the correlation was above .40 and Cronbach's alpha was .91. When compared to the other two measures, WICS had an incremental validity with ICAWS and the ICS. As a result of the findings of these three studies, Wright et al.'s resulting WICS scale measured unfair treatment, disagreements, respect/appreciation, hostility, yelling, and blame. The original seventh item about unclear directions was omitted.

For my survey concerning change in Christian higher education, items about interpersonal conflict with fellow faculty had a Cronbach's alpha of .90. The other six questions

about conflict with faculty had a reliability of .91. When I combined the 12 questions, the reliability was .92.

Measurement of counterproductive work behavior. I used the 10-item Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist developed by Spector, Bauer, and Fox (2010), to measure CWBs toward fellow faculty and toward supervisors (see Appendix D). This shortened scale was based upon the original 45-item scale, which was built from three samples (Spector et al., 2006). Spector et al. utilized the first sample to survey employees at five organizations. The response rate was 32%, resulting in a sample size of 169. The sample was students at a university who worked at least 25 hours a week and had been at their job for at least 2 months. This sample had 299 respondents. The third sample had 279 individuals who were students at another university. The criteria for inclusion was that they worked at least 20 hours a week and had been in their position for at least 6 months.

Spector et al. (2010) measured internal consistency and reliability in each CWB area: abuse (α = .85), production deviance (α = .63), sabotage (α = .55), theft (α = .63), and withdrawal (α = .86). CWB directed toward the organization had an internal consistency and reliability (α = .86), as did the CWB directed toward others (α = .86). Because of the length of the original scale (45 questions), the 10-item scale (Spector et al., 2010) was chosen as an alternative. This was done so that the full survey measuring organizational change, interpersonal conflict, and CWB would not be too lengthy. The 10-item CWB scale included five items for the organization and five for fellow employees. Spector et al. (2010) indicated that the consistency of this scale was .78 for employees and .89 for supervisors/organization.

For my study considering CWB for faculty, the items aligning with CWB directed at fellow faculty members had a Cronbach's alpha of .65. The Cronbach's alpha for behaviors

directed at supervisors (five questions) was .46. Because this measure of reliability was so low, I

analyzed the reliability of all 10 questions, which was .68. I considered this reliability number

close enough to .70 to at least explore the relationships potentially involved. In the final chapter,

I include a discussion about this reliability problem with the Counterproductive Work Behavior

Checklist.

 Measurement of organizational identification. I used the research questions to consider

if there was a correlation between organizational identification and interpersonal conflict, and if

there was a correlation between organizational identification and CWB. Respondents took the

Multi-Dimensional Identification Scale (MDIS; Stoner et al., 2011) to assess organizational

identification (see Appendix E). Stoner et al. (2011) developed this scale based upon Ashmore et

al.'s (2004) conceptualization of identification, which included self-categorization, evaluation,

importance, attachment versus interdependence, social embeddedness, behavioral involvement,

and context. Stoner et al. attempted to capture these categories within four dimensions: self-

categorization, goodness of fit, affective-attachment, and behavioral involvement. They noted

that their scale could measure identification with family, social networks, and organizations. For

my study's purpose, I focused the measurement on organizational identification by replacing the

word *unit* with *university*.

 Stoner et al. (2011) conducted three studies to generate the items and to conduct

exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor structure analysis, and construct validity. The

internal consistency measures of reliability for the organizational data set ranged from above .70

to .87. To prove construct validity, Stoner et al. performed convergent and divergent validity

tests. They found that organizational identification was positively correlated with affective

commitment ($r = .43, p = .01$) and positive discussion support ($r = .42, p = .01$). Confirming

discriminate validity, Stoner et al. found that organizational identification was not significantly correlated with social desirability ($r = .01, ns$) or negative affect ($r = -.03, ns$) but was significantly correlated with positive affect ($r = .21, p = .05$).

Miller, Allen, Casey, and Johnson (2000) reported that organizational identification scales that relied solely on affective measures aligned too closely with organizational commitment measures. They suggested that a scale that addressed affective, cognitive, and behavioral components could more fully capture true organizational identification. The MDIS fits these requirements and assesses the respondents cognitive understanding of organizational identity as well as affective and behavioral components. For my study concerning organizational identification for faculty at Christian universities, question number four of the MDIS was reverse coded. The resulting Cronbach alpha for these questions in my study was .89.

Quantitative Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

Operational definitions of variables. I utilized the study to measure several variables. Frequent change and second-order organizational change are independent variables for the first two hypotheses to determine if the dependent variables—interpersonal conflict with fellow faculty members and supervisors—correlate with them. In the third and fourth hypotheses, interpersonal conflict with fellow faculty and interpersonal conflict with supervisors are the independent variables and CWBs directed at fellow faculty and also those directed at supervisors are the respective dependent variables. Finally, I used the research questions to understand the relationship among organizational identification, interpersonal conflict, and CWBs. The operational definitions of each follow along with examples of items for each scale.

Frequent change and second-order organizational change. Frequent change signifies a series of changes or several changes all at once (Smollan et al., 2010). Second-order or

transformational change (Porras & Robertson, 1992) are adaptations in the system that change the way operations are conducted in an organization and typically affect values, structures, and methods of working (Burke, 2014; Rafferty & Griffin, 2006; Rafferty & Restubog, 2017). The items from Rafferty and Griffin's (2006) scale that measure frequency of change and transformational change (see Appendix B) occur within the seven-point Likert scale. I asked respondents to keep in mind changes to their work environment over the last 2 years.

Interpersonal conflict. The variables of interpersonal conflict concern whether or not a faculty member perceives that she has been involved in a conflict with another faculty member or with supervisors at the university or college. This can range from a small disagreement to angry yelling among staff. These variables are based upon the perception by the faculty member that she has had a disagreement or has experienced goal interference from another that has resulted in an emotional reaction (Barki & Hartwick, 2004). I used the WICS (Wright et al., 2017) to measure interpersonal conflict (see Appendix C). The original measure had six questions. Of those six, the phrasing was slightly adapted to include the word *faculty* to measure interpersonal conflict. Sample items were "You felt like you were treated unfairly by a faculty member at work" and "You had a disagreement with another faculty member over the work you do." Then, I added another six questions, based upon the original WICS questions, with wording adapted to measure conflict with supervisors. Example questions included "You had a disagreement with a supervisor over the work you do" or "You felt like you were treated unfairly by a supervisor at work." I used a five-point Likert scale ranging from *never* to *very often* to measure responses as indicated in the original WICS scale.

Counterproductive work behaviors directed at individuals or the organization.
These are emotionally induced actions by faculty intended to cause harm (Spector et al., 2006).

They may be directed at other faculty members or at the university through supervisors. Dimensions include abuse directed to others, production deviance, sabotaging of property, theft, and withdrawal (Spector & Fox, 2005). I measured CWBs with a 10-item scale (see Appendix D; Spector et al., 2006). Responses were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from *never* to *once or twice*, *once or twice per month*, *once or twice per week*, and *every day*. Example items included "Daydreamed rather than did your work," "Made fun of someone's personal life," "Took supplies or tools home without permission," and "Refused to help someone at work."

Organizational identification. Researchers have indicated that organizational identification reflects a psychological state where employees align their personality attributes with the values and goals of the organization (E. Lee et al., 2015) so that the employee's self-esteem and self-concept are merged with the organization (Michel et al., 2010). I used the MDIS (Stoner et al., 2011) to measure organizational identification in the areas of self-categorization, goodness of fit, affective-attachment, and behavioral involvement. The scale could be used to measure social, family, and organization identification. When using the scale for organizational identity, Stoner et al. noted to use the word *organization* in the questions. For my study, I replaced the word *organization* with *university*. Thus, examples of items were "I am like other members of the university" and "At work, I decorate my 'office space' with pictures pertaining to this university."

Method of Data Analysis

I used SPSS for data analysis. As indicated previously, the sample size of 267 respondents was reduced to include only legitimate responses. Once data were exported from Excel to SPSS, I performed a line-by-line analysis to identify any missing data. Any unanswered items were coded as missing.

I undertook several statistical analyses to examine the data. Considering the independent and dependent variables, the statistical approach I performed was a Cronbach's alpha to test for scale reliabilities. I hypothesized that change would be positively correlated with interpersonal conflict and that conflict would positively correlate with CWBs. I used Pearson's correlations to measure associations those associations. I hypothesized that the variables would have a linear relationship and be evenly distributed (Mukaka, 2012). I presumed in the hypotheses that the data would show a positive correlation between 0 and +1 to reflect a relationship between the variables—change, interpersonal conflict, and CWBs. In addition, I did a path analysis to consider multiple unique moderating or intervening correlations among the various variables based upon the independent variable of frequent, second-order organizational change (Schroeder, Sjoquist, & Stephan, 1986). Also, I performed a multiple regression to analyze how several independent variables affected the dependent variable (Berry, 1985). Reinard (2011) noted that multiple regression analysis can be advantageous in that interaction effects can be tested and help determine how multiple independent variables influence the dependent variable. Finally, I analyzed group means using *t* tests and one-way ANOVA.

Ethical Considerations

Before data collection commenced, I garnered approval from Abilene Christian University's IRB. To ensure anonymity, I did not retrieve email addresses from participants nor connect any identifying information with responses. Only my chair and I accessed the demographic factors by groups via institution, length of employment, and gender. To further ensure confidentiality, I stored data with a security code on my laptop. These measures ensured every participant's privacy.

Steps were taken to protect the participants. The Belmont Report highlighted that respect, beneficence, and justice are important to consider when doing research with people (National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research, 1978). The authors asserted that people should be treated as "autonomous agents" (p. 4). Participants in the study had the power to make their own decisions. For the study, faculty were informed of how their feedback would be used and how anonymity would be ensured. Faculty had a choice whether to participate and could even self-select out of taking the survey at any point in the process. The report also emphasized the use of beneficence, which includes the value of doing no harm and maximizing possible benefits. Faculty were given assurance that individual identifying information or responses would not be shared with their employer, supervisor, or anyone besides my chair and me. Finally, the report's authors asserted that justice would be embraced by researchers. Participants were treated equally by giving all faculty members the ability to participate in the study. Data were not collected until the sponsoring organization (Abilene Christian University) gave full IRB approval.

Much of the information prioritized by the Belmont Report was explained in the consent form. The consent form included the following information:

- An explanation of the study, the variables, and the amount of time needed to complete the survey

- An explanation that full-time faculty of all ranks were being given access to the survey at their institution

- An identification of risks and benefits

- An explanation of how their identity would be anonymous

- A statement of how participation was voluntary and that they could withdraw at any time

- The primary researcher's name, phone number, and email that could be used if there were questions

Assumptions

I conducted the study from a set of assumptions, which could have influenced results. Because I surveyed a fairly large sample of faculty, I assumed the results could be generalizable to faculty populations at other Christian higher education institutions (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003; Wrench et al., 2008) and that participants' responses would be similar to those at other Christian colleges and universities.

My second assumption was that by utilizing a self-report survey method, I could ensure that respondents would be honest in their reporting of CWBs. This could be especially problematic as respondents were asked to self-report on possibly deviant behaviors. However, researchers have found that with assurances of anonymity, respondents are more likely to be truthful (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). The steps taken to assure anonymity did not tie responses to participants. By collecting very few identity markers, I hoped that respondents would be forthright.

My third assumption was based on the belief that faculty would have associated behaviors with frequent change and second-order change no matter if the changes were planned or emergent. Although researchers in organizational change literature have delineated between planned and emergent change and different levels of change (Burke, 2014; Burnes, 2009), I assumed that respondents would not react to these different kinds of changes much differently. Rather, I assumed that they would perceive them all as disruptions to the status quo. This

approach was mimicked in other measurements of organizational change that were also more concerned about perceptions of change rather than the type of change (Paterson, Green, & Cary, 2002; Reichers, Wanous, & Austin, 2000; Weiner, Amick, & Lee, 2008).

Summary

I aimed to determine if Christian university faculty's perceptions of frequent and second-order organizational change associated with interpersonal conflict and if conflict correlated with CWB, both of which could be influenced by organizational identification. To that end, I utilized a quantitative cross-sectional predictive correlational design and used a survey for data collection. I formulated each of the hypotheses to investigate the relationships between frequent change, second-order change, interpersonal conflict, and CWB. I utilized a quantitative correlational design to discover the direction of the relationships and their strength (Field, 2013). With this design and method, I sought to understand the perceptions of faculty to organizational change and their resulting behavior.

The population for the study was faculty members at five Christian higher education institutions. Every full-time faculty member at these organizations was given access to the survey via her email, which resulted in a response rate over the required number. In that email, I provided the faculty member with an overview of the study, an assurance of anonymity, and a consent form. Thus, the faculty member had freedom to choose whether to participate or not.

Items in the survey aligned with the variables. I used portions of Rafferty and Griffin's (2006) organizational change measure to assess second-order change and frequency of change. I utilized the WICS to determine if faculty members were experiencing conflict with other faculty members or with supervisors. Additionally, I accessed selected statements from the Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist. I employed the MDIS to assess organizational

identification. Finally, I analyzed results from the scales via Pearson's correlations, partial

correlations, multiple regression analyses, and comparison between groups. Even though I

operated from a set of assumptions, the research design and method could adequately address

those concerns.

Chapter 4: Results

In this chapter, I report the findings of the study. I examined if frequent organizational change or second-order organizational change was associated with interpersonal conflict. I also explored if faculty experienced interpersonal conflict with fellow faculty or supervisors and if that conflict correlated with CWBs directed at those individuals. Considering the context of the Christian university, I sought to understand if organizational identification might influence the possible relationship between conflict and behavior. The theoretical perspective was OST (see Figure 1).

In this chapter, I examine scale normality and demographic information, and then report correlational analyses conducted in response to the hypotheses and research questions. I also perform an analysis of the research questions based on partial correlations and regression analyses. Plus, I report the results of *t* tests and ANOVA to investigate other findings.

To assist with readability in this chapter, I identify frequent change as FOC and second-order change as SOC, which are eventually combined into an additional variable of total organizational change (TOC). Also, interpersonal conflict with fellow faculty members is identified as ICI and conflict with supervisors as ICO to align with CWBI (behavior directed at fellow faculty members) and CWBO (behavior directed at supervisors). Plus, ICI and ICO are eventually combined into another variable of total interpersonal conflict (TIC), and CWBI and CWBO are combined into a variable labeled total CWB (TCWB).

Tests of Scale Normality

As a point of data accuracy, I analyzed the computed variables for skewness and kurtosis (see Table 5). The majority of the variables did not violate the +2 to –2 rule (George & Mallery, 2010). ICO did demonstrate a kurtosis of 2.00. However, it has been noted that deviation from

normality for skewness and kurtosis does not influence analysis for samples larger than 200

(Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Plus, Kline (2011) asserted that serious problems in analysis only

occur when the skewness value is over 3 and kurtosis is greater than 10.

Table 5

Report of Skewness and Kurtosis of Variables

Variables	*M*	Skewness	*SE*	Kurtosis	*SE*
FOC	16.34	−1.100	.15	1.04	.30
SOC	12.67	0.165	.15	−0.66	.30
OI	56.36	−0.310	.15	−0.25	.31
ICI	11.24	1.220	.15	1.62	.30
ICO	10.27	1.400	.15	2.00	.30
CWBI	6.60	1.340	.15	1.66	.30
CWBO	7.04	0.970	.15	0.69	.30
TOC	29.69	−0.280	.15	−0.24	.30
TIC	21.38	1.300	.15	1.93	.30
TCWB	13.63	1.020	.15	1.22	.30

Note. FOC = frequency of organizational change; SOC = second-order organizational change; OI = organizational identification; ICI = interpersonal conflict with faculty; ICO = interpersonal conflict with supervisors; CWBI = counterproductive work behavior directed at faculty; CWBO = counterproductive work behavior directed at supervisors; TOC = total organizational change; TIC = total interpersonal conflict; TCWB = total counterproductive work behavior.

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis was, "A higher frequency of measures of second-order change will

be positively correlated with interpersonal conflict between faculty members." FOC, $r(262) =$

.19, $p = .001$, and SOC, $r(261) = .32$, $p = .001$, both had statistically significant positive

correlations with ICI (see Table 6). Thus, I found support for Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis was, "A higher frequency of measures of second-order change will be positively correlated with interpersonal conflict for faculty with supervisors." FOC, $r(256) = .23$, $p = .001$, and SOC, $r(255) = .38$, $p = .001$, both had a positive statistically significant correlation with ICO (see Table 6). Thus, I found support for Hypothesis 2.

Table 6

Pearson r *Correlations of Variables*

	SOC	OI	ICI	ICO	CWBI	CWBO	TOC	TIC	TCWB
FOC	.60**	−.07	.19**	.23**	.09	.16*	.88**	.23**	.18*
SOC		−.17**	.32**	.38**	.16**	.20**	.91**	.38**	.21**
OI			−.22**	−.21**	−.13*	−.25**	−.14*	−.23**	−.22**
ICI				.63**	.32**	.29**	.28**	.89**	.36**
ICO					.35**	.40**	.35**	.91**	.45**
CWBI						.43**	.14*	.38**	.85**
CWBO							.21**	.41**	.84**
TOC								.34**	.20**
TIC									.48**

Note. FOC = frequency of change; SOC = second-order change; OI = organizational identification; ICI = interpersonal conflict between faculty; ICO = interpersonal conflict between faculty and supervisors; CWBI = counterproductive work behaviors directed at fellow faculty; CWBO = counterproductive work behaviors by faculty directed at supervisors; TOC = total organizational change; TIC = total interpersonal conflict; TCWB = total counterproductive work behavior.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis was the following: "Interpersonal conflict between faculty members will be positively correlated with counterproductive work behavior directed at fellow faculty members." ICI had a statistically significant correlation with CWBI, $r(259) = .32$, $p = .001$ (see

Table 6). Thus, I found support for Hypothesis 3. Research Questions 1 and 2 relate to

Hypothesis 3, so I report them next.

Research Question 1

I conducted further measurements to investigate how OI for faculty in Christian higher

education influenced the variables of interpersonal conflict ICI and CWBI. The first research

question was the following: "What is the intervening effect of organizational identification with

interpersonal conflict between faculty members and counterproductive work behavior directed at

faculty members?" I used a partial correlation to determine the relationship of ICI and CWBI

controlling for OI, $r(237) = .34, p = .001$ (see Table 7). However, zero-order correlations were

similar with ICI and CWBI, $r(259) = .32, p = .001$, indicating OI seems to have negligible

influence when controlling for the relationship between ICI and CWBI.

Table 7

Comparison of Correlations/Partial Correlations Controlling for Organizational Identification

Variables	r	r controlling for OI
ICI and CWBI	.32**	.34**
ICI and CWBO	.29**	.27**
ICO and CWBI	.35**	.34**
ICO and CWBO	.40**	.35**
TOC and TIC	.34**	.31**
TOC and TCWB	.21**	.20**
TIC and TCWB	.48**	.44**

Note. ICI = interpersonal conflict with faculty; ICO = interpersonal conflict with supervisors; CWBI = counterproductive work behavior directed at faculty; CWBO = counterproductive work behavior directed at supervisors; OI = organizational identification; TOC = total organizational change; TIC = total interpersonal conflict; TCWB = total counterproductive work behavior.
**p < .01.

Research Question 2

The second research question was, "What is the intervening effect of organizational identification with interpersonal conflict between faculty members and counterproductive work behavior directed at supervisors?" I used a partial correlation to determine the relationship of ICI and CWBI controlling for OI, $r(237) = .27, p = .001$ (see Table 7). This was similar to the original zero-order correlation of ICI with CWBO, $r(254) = .29, p = .001$, indicating that OI had negligible influence when controlling for the relationship between ICI and CWBO.

Hypothesis 4

The fourth hypothesis was the following: "Interpersonal conflict between faculty and supervisors will be positively correlated with counterproductive work behavior directed at supervisors." ICO had a statistically significant correlation with CWBO, $r(249) = .40, p = .001$ (see Table 6). Thus, I found support for Hypothesis 4. In addition, both ICO with CWBI, $r(254) = .35, p = .001$, and ICI and CWBO, $r(254) = .29, p = .001$, had statistically significant correlations. Research Questions 3 and 4 are presented next.

Research Question 3

The third research question was the following: "What is the intervening effect of organizational identification with interpersonal conflict between faculty members and supervisors and counterproductive work behavior directed at supervisors?" I utilized a partial correlation to determine if OI influenced the relationship of ICO and CWBO. I found a statistically significant correlation of ICO and CWBO when controlling for OI, $r(237) = .35, p = .001$ (see Table 7). This was similar to the zero-order correlation that was statistically significant for ICO and CWBO, $r(249) = .40, p = .001$, indicating that OI had negligible influence when controlling for the relationship of ICO and CWBO.

Research Question 4

The fourth research question was as follows: "What is the intervening effect of organizational identification with interpersonal conflict between faculty members and supervisors and counterproductive work behavior directed at other faculty members?" There was a statistically significant partial correlation between ICO and CWBI controlling for OI, $r(244) =$ .34, $p = .001$ (see Table 7). However, I found zero-order correlations between ICO and CWBI were similar, $r(253) = .35, p = .001$, indicating that organizational identification seems to have negligible influence on the association between ICO and CWBI.

Post Hoc Analysis

Gender differences. I conducted an independent samples t test to determine if the differences among means was significant (see Table 8). I found no significance among any of the variables ($p = ns$). However, the difference for ICI between male faculty ($M = 10.78$) and female faculty ($M = 11.81$), $t(215.43) = -1.88, p = .062$, indicated a trend potentially interesting for future research.

Comparison of universities. I conducted a one-way ANOVA comparing the means of the variables and found no significant differences between the universities.

Correlational analysis with number of years employed. I ran a Pearson's correlation for the number of years employed with each of the variables (see Table 9). SOC, $r(253) = .15, p$ $= .014$, and OI, $r(243) = .18, p = .004$, had statistically significant correlations with the number of years employed.

Partial correlations utilizing years employed as control. I conducted partial correlations between each of the variables controlling for years employed (see Table 10).

Controlling for the relationship between any of the variables, it seems the years employed had little influence with only a few showing negligible improvement.

Table 8

Independent t *Test Results for Gender—Variables*

Variables	Gender	M		df	t	p
FOC	Male	16.28	Equal variances assumed	261.00	−0.29	.775
	Female	16.40				
SOC	Male	12.77	Equal variances assumed	260.00	0.42	.671
	Female	12.55				
ICI	Male	10.78	Equal variances not assumed[a]	215.43	−1.88	.062
	Female	11.81				
ICO	Male	10.23	Equal variances assumed	254.00	−0.185	.854
	Female	10.34				
CWBI	Male	6.72	Equal variances assumed	256.00	1.16	.245
	Female	6.47				
CWBO	Male	6.99	Equal variances assumed	251.00	−0.64	519
	Female	7.12				
OI	Male	56.09	Equal variances assumed	249.00	−0.63	.531
	Female	56.77				
TOC	Male	29.05	Equal variances assumed	259.00	0.08	.933
	Female	29.00				
TIC	Male	20.88	Equal variances assumed	254.00	−1.14	.255
	Female	22.04				
TCWB	Male	13.68	Equal variances assumed	251.00	0.22	.823
	Female	13.60				

Note. FOC = frequency of organizational change; SOC = second-order organizational change; ICI = interpersonal conflict with faculty; ICO = interpersonal conflict with supervisors; CWBI = counterproductive work behavior directed at faculty; CWBO = counterproductive work behavior directed at supervisors; OI = organizational identification; TOC = total organizational change; TIC = total interpersonal conflict; TCWB = total counterproductive work behavior.
[a]Levene's test for equality of variances.

Table 9

Correlational Analysis Number of Years Employed With Variables

Variables	Years Employed r	p
FOC	.030	.646
SOC	.150*	.014
ICI	.090	.172
ICO	.070	.250
CWBI	.006	.921
CWBO	−.004	.954
OI	.180**	.004
TOC	.100	.095
TIC	.080	.193
TCWB	.001	.985

Note. FOC = frequency of organizational change; SOC = second-order organizational change; ICI = interpersonal conflict with faculty; ICO = interpersonal conflict with supervisors; CWBI = counterproductive work behavior directed at faculty; CWBO = counterproductive work behavior directed at supervisors; OI = organizational identification; TOC = total organizational change; TIC = total interpersonal conflict; TCWB = total counterproductive work behavior.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table 10

Comparison of Correlations Controlling for Length of Employment

Variables	r	r with control
FOC and ICI	.19*	.19**
FOC and ICO	.23*	.21**
FOC and CWBI	.09	.10*
FOC and CWBO	.16*	.16*
FOC and OI	−.07	−.05
SOC and ICI	.32*	.27**
SOC with ICO	.38*	.36**
SOC and CWBI	.16**	.17*
SOC and CWBO	.20**	.23**
SOC and OI	−.17**	−.19**
ICI and CWBI	.32*	.38**
ICI and CWBO	.29**	.37**
ICI and OI	−.22**	−.25**
ICO and CWBO	.40**	.42**
ICO and CWBI	.35*	.37**
ICO and OI	−.21**	−.24**
CWBI and OI	−.13*	−.12
CWBO and OI	−.25**	−.25**
TOC and TIC	.34**	.32**
TOC and TCWB	.20**	.22**
TOC and OI	−.14*	−.13*
TIC and TCWB	.48**	.50**
TIC and OI	−.23**	−.27**
TCWB and OI	−.22**	−.21**

Note. FOC = frequency of organizational change; SOC = second-order organizational change; IC-I = interpersonal conflict with faculty; IC-O = interpersonal conflict with supervisors; CWB-I = counterproductive work behavior directed at faculty; CWB-O = counterproductive work behavior directed at supervisors; OI = organizational identification; TOC = total organizational change; TIC = total interpersonal conflict; TCWB = total counterproductive work behavior.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Path Analyses and Models

These findings imply a potential network of relationships when controlling for possible intervening variables. Consequently, I conducted path analyses and developed subsequent models based upon the theoretical proposal that OST might describe the relationships among organizational change, IC, and CWB, perhaps influenced by OI. The path analysis process began with a general model followed by combinations and systematic reductions for a final model.

Path analysis model 1. For the first model development, I conducted Pearson correlations of all the variables (see Table 6). FOC and SOC had a statistically significant correlation, $r(262) = .60$, $p = .001$. Similarly, ICI and ICO had a statistically significant correlation, $r(257) = .63$, $p = .001$. These results indicated that respondents did not conceptualize a significant difference between the types of change or interpersonal conflict, thus the variables were combined into total organizational change (TOC) and total interpersonal conflict (TIC). In addition, CWBI and CWBO had a statistically significant correlation, $r(254) = .43$, $p = .001$. I chose to combine those items into a new variable: total counterproductive work behavior (TCWB). I assessed the reliability of the six change questions (TOC). The items had a Cronbach's alpha of .89. The 12 interpersonal conflict items (TIC) had a Cronbach's alpha of .92, and the 10 CWB items had a Cronbach's alpha of .68. OI was already intact with an alpha of .89.

I conducted a Pearson's correlation of the new combined variables (see Figure 2). There were statistically significant positive correlations for TOC and TIC, $r(254) = .34$, $p = .001$; TIC and TCWB, $r(249) = .48$, $p = .001$; and for TOC and TCWB, $r(251) = .21$, $p = .001$. Plus, there was a statistically significant negative correlation for OI with TIC: $r(247) = -.23$, $p = .001$;

TCWB with OI: $r(247) = -.22$, $p = .001$; and TOC with OI: $r(249) = -.14$, $p = .05$. Lastly, there

was a statistically significant correlation for OI and years employed, $r(243) = .18$, $p = .004$.
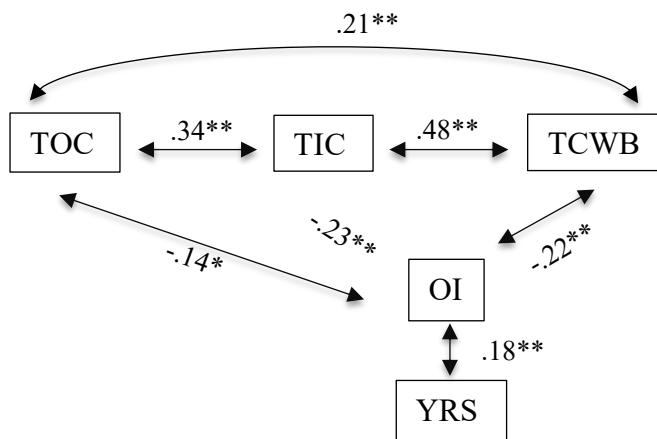

Figure 2. Model #1: Pearson's correlation of variables. TOC = total organizational change; TIC = total interpersonal conflict; TCWB = total counterproductive work behavior; OI = organizational identification; YRS = number of years employed. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Path analysis model 2. The second model (Figure 3) depicts partial correlations

removing for the effect of specific variables. Controlling for OI, TOC and TIC had a statistically

significant correlation, $r(241) = .31$, $p = .001$, when compared to the original zero-order

correlation, $r(254) = .34$, $p = .001$, although the magnitude indicates that OI had a negligible

influence on the correlation between TOC and TIC. As with the zero-order correlation of TIC

and TCWB, $r(249) = .48$, $p = .001$, results for this partial correlation were statistically significant

controlling for OI, $r(237) = .44$, $p = .001$, or when controlling for TOC, $r(237) = .43$, $p = .001$,

indicating that both variables had negligible influence. Controlling for TOC, the result for TIC

and OI was a negative, statistically significant correlation, $r(237) = -.21$, $p = .001$. This

association was similar to the original zero-order correlation, $r(247) = -.23$, $p = .001$, indicating

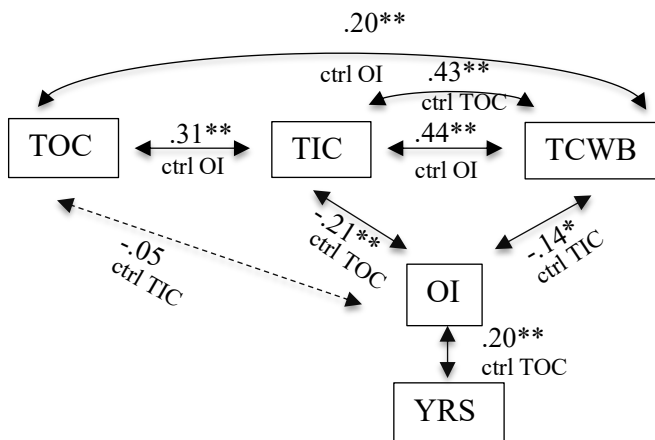that the relationship between OI and TIC was negligibly influenced.

Figure 3. Model #2: Path partial model of variables. TOC = total organizational change; TIC = total interpersonal conflict; TCWB = total counterproductive work behavior; OI = organizational identification. YRS = number of years employed. *p < .05. ** p < .01.

The result of the partial correlation between OI and TCWB was a statistically significant, negative correlation when controlling for TIC, $r(237) = -.14$, $p = .029$. The zero-order correlation between OI and TCWB was a negative, statistically significant correlation, $r(247) = -.22$, $p = .001$, indicating that the TIC only has a negligible influence on the correlation between OI and TCWB. In the partial correlation between TOC and OI, controlling for TIC, $r(241) = -.05$, $p = .05$, the association became nonsignificant when compared to the original zero-order correlation, $r(249) = -.14$, $p = .05$., indicating that the association for TOC and OI is possibly slightly influenced by interpersonal conflict. The partial correlation between TOC and TCWB controlling for OI, $r(237) = .20$, $p = .002$, continued to be a statistically significant correlation when compared to the original zero-order correlation, $r(251) = .21$, $p = .001$, indicating that OI had an inconsequential influence on this relationship. In the partial correlation of OI and years employed controlling for TOC, $r(237) = .20$, $p = .002$, the association changed negligibly when compared to the zero-order correlation, $r(243) = .18$, $p = .004$.

Path analysis model 3. Synthesizing the information from the first two models, I simplified the results into a third model of only the statistically significant partial correlations (see Figure 4). I used the final model to conclude that, for those faculty surveyed, there was a statistically significant association between organizational change and interpersonal conflict, and also between interpersonal conflict and counterproductive, negative work behaviors in Christian higher education. There is also a statistically significant correlation between organizational change and negative work behaviors. However, organizational identification was not found to influence the associations of total interpersonal conflict and counterproductive behaviors, nor for organizational change and interpersonal conflict. But identification with the institution did have a statistically significant negative correlation with interpersonal conflict and negative work behaviors.
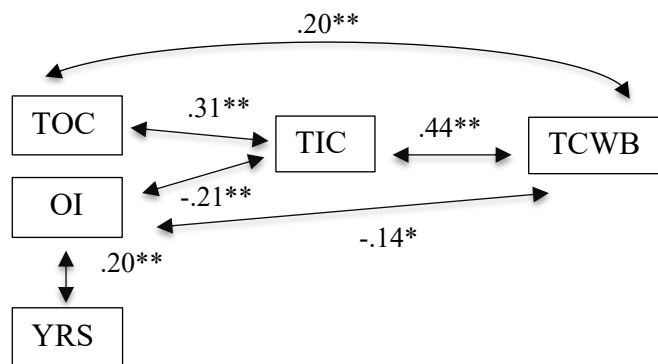

Figure 4. Model #3: Final path partial model. TOC = total organizational change; TIC = total interpersonal conflict; TCWB = total counterproductive work behavior; OI = organizational identification; YRS = number of years employed. *$p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Regression Analysis

To further determine any potential influence of TOC, TIC, and the number of years employed on TCWB, I utilized a linear regression using the enter method. The results indicated that TOC, TIC, OI, and years employed had a significant multiple correlation coefficient with

TCWB, $F(4, 226) = 19.55$, $p = .001$, with an R^2 of .257 (see Table 11). The final formula of $R =$

.507** = (.062 TOC) + (.456 TIC**) − (.084 OI) − (.030 YRS EMPL) indicated that TIC had a

significant beta weight, thus contributing most of the variance in the regression model with

TCWB (see Table 12). I used a stepwise regression to determine the TIC's strength of prediction

which was 24.5%.

Table 11

Regression Model Summary TOC, TIC, Years Employed, and OI Predicting TCWB

R	R^2	SE of estimate	R^2 change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F change
.507	.257	2.447	.257	19.554	4	226	.001

Table 12

Coefficient Table of Regression Model Predicting TCWB

Variables	Standardized coefficients β	t	P
TOC	.062	1.018	.310
TIC	.456	7.290	.001
OI	−.084	−1.386	.167
Yrs Empl	−.030	−0.508	.612

Note. TCWB = total counterproductive work behavior; TOC = total organizational change; TIC = total interpersonal conflict; OI = organizational identification; Yrs Empl = years employed.

Summary

I found several interesting results in the study. First, the study indicated that the

instruments are reliable, except for CWBO, although a higher reliability occurred when

combined with CWBI. Second, all the hypotheses were confirmed. Third, the research questions,

asking for potential intervening variables, were meaningfully answered by a series of partial

correlations and a final path analysis model. Fourth, I used these findings to develop a zero-order correlational model as a baseline, combine the main variables into total combined scores, and develop an overall model. After eliminating nonsignificance, I made a final path model from partial correlations revealing a multivariate understanding. Finally, I conducted a linear regression analysis, finding that conflict is the most explained variable for counterproductive work behavior.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

I used the theory of OST to examine associations among organizational change, interpersonal conflict, CWB, and organizational identification. Researchers have indicated that organizational change is associated with interpersonal conflict (Andersen, 2006; Robinson & Griffiths, 2005) and that conflict is correlated with CWB (Eschleman et al., 2015; Kessler et al., 2013; Spector & Jex, 1998). These CWBs result in costs to the organization with turnover, lost productivity, increased absenteeism, and, for employees, a decline in well-being (Einarsen et al., 2003; M. LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002; Penney & Spector, 2005). Furthermore, researchers have disagreed on whether organizational identification has a potential mediating influence (Decoster et al., 2013; Michel et al., 2010; Petriglieri, 2011; Rousseau, 1998; van Dick et al., 2006; B. van Knippenberg et al., 2006).

I found that I needed to extend the boundaries of these previous findings. One problem with current research is that some of the claims of an association between organizational change and interpersonal conflict are theoretical rather than evidence based (Andersen, 2006; Montana & Charnov, 2000; Raza & Standing, 2010; Väänänen et al., 2004). Second, extant research suggests using multivariate analysis, but no such study has been conducted. Third, while researchers have extended the literature to higher education, few have examined faith-based higher education (Hetrick et al., 2018; Hulme et al., 2016). Fourth, the majority of researchers have utilized case studies to examine organizational change in higher education (Horvath, 2016). To explore these gaps in the literature and theory, I examined the four variables in a multivariate analysis: organizational change, interpersonal conflict, CWB, and organizational identification. With this focus, I hope I have provided higher education practitioners a systems perspective, a

multivariable model, and a deeper understanding of the consequences of change that might explain failures in organizational change efforts.

Summary of Findings

Utilizing the literature along with the previously stated goals, I generated hypotheses and research questions. The findings, summarized below, are examined in light of previous literature and theory. I will use these results to then generate conclusions.

Hypotheses 1 and 2. I anticipated that organizational change would be positively correlated with conflict. FOC had a statistically significant correlation with ICI, $r(262) = .19, p = .001$, and SOC had a statistically significant correlation with ICI, $r(261) = .32, p = .001$. FOC had a statistically significant correlation with ICO, $r(256) = .23, p = .001$, and SOC also had a statistically significant correlation with ICO, $r(255) = .38, p = .001$. To further understand these associations, I did partial correlations controlling for years employed and organizational identification. Both variables had negligible influence on the correlations.

Because FOC and SOC were highly correlated, $r(262) = .60, p = .001$, and also ICI and ICO, $r(257) = .63, p = .001$, it was reasonable to combine these into two new variables, total organizational change ($\alpha = .89$) and total interpersonal conflict ($\alpha = .92$). Results of the correlation between TOC and TIC were $r(254) = .34, p = .001$. Thus, I found statistical support for the first two hypotheses. Frequency of change and second-order change were associated with interpersonal conflict with employees and conflict with supervisors.

Hypotheses 3 and 4 and research questions. I utilized the third and fourth hypotheses to predict that interpersonal conflict for faculty members in Christian higher education would correlate with CWBs. ICI had a statistically significant correlation with CWBI, $r(259) = .32, p = .001$, and ICO had a statistically significant correlation with CWBO, $r(249) = .40, p = .001$. I

also found that ICI had a statistically significant correlation with CWBO, $r(254) = .29$, $p = .001$, and ICO had a statistically significant correlation with CWBI, $r(253) = .35$, $p = .001$. Additionally, I performed partial correlations controlling for the number of years employed, and it had negligible influence on the correlations.

As with the previous hypotheses, I combined the two designations of conflict. Plus, I combined the two CWB items. CWBI and CWBO (now TCWB) also had a statistically significant correlation, $r(254) = .43$, $p = .001$, that was reliable, $\alpha = .68$. I found a statistically significant correlation for TIC and TCWB, $r(249) = .48$, $p = .001$. Thus, these results offered statistical support for the third and fourth hypotheses, revealing that interpersonal ICI correlated with CWBI and ICO correlated with CWBO. In answer to the research questions, results indicated that OI did not significantly influence these association. However, OI did have a negative correlation with the two variables, which are discussed later in the chapter.

Final path analysis. With a goal to more fully understand these associations, I performed a final path analysis of the variables utilizing partial correlations (see Figure 5). The results indicated that controlling for OI, TOC, and TIC had a statistically significant correlation, $r(241) = .31$, $p = .001$. The correlation for TIC and TCWB controlling for OI, $r(237) = .44$, $p = .001$, or TOC, $r(237) = .43$, $p = .001$, also had a statistically significant correlation. The result of TIC and OI, $r(243) = -.21$, $p = .001$, controlling for total change, was a statistically significant negative correlation. TCWB and OI, controlling for TIC, had a statistically significant negative correlation, $r(247) = -.22$, $p = .001$. The partial correlation between TOC and TCWB controlling for organizational identification was $r(237) = .20$, $p = .002$. And the partial correlation for the number of years employed and OI, controlling for TOC, was statistically significant, $r(237) =$
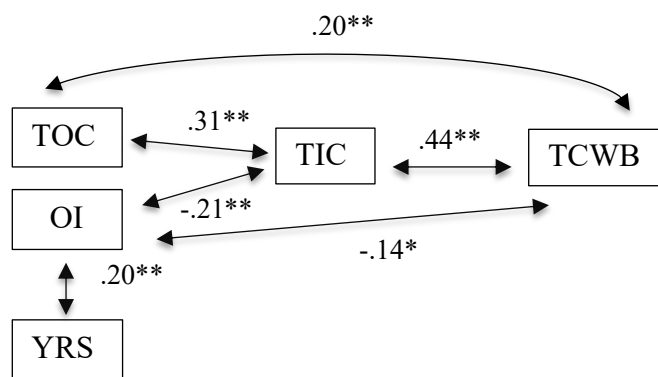
Figure 5. Model #3: Final path partial model. TOC = total organizational change; TIC = total interpersonal conflict; TCWB = total counterproductive work behavior; OI = organizational identification; YRS = number of years employed. *$p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

.20, $p = .002$. From this final path analysis, I found support for my argument that organizational change had systemic impacts for faculty.

Post hoc analysis. I also analyzed the differences among universities and the responses of male and female faculty. I found no significant differences between the five universities for each of the variables. Gender differences for interpersonal conflict with other employees revealed a potential trend ($p = .06$), suggesting that females experience slightly more conflict.

Because I rooted the study in OST, a multiple regression revealed that total change, total conflict, organizational identification, and years employed had a significant multiple correlation coefficient with TCWB, $F(4, 226) = 19.55$, $p = .001$, with an R^2 of .257. The final formula of $R = .507** = .025$ TOC + .163 TIC**– .028 OI –.009 YRS EMPL (see Table 13). The regression indicated that total interpersonal conflict had a significant beta weight, thus contributing most of the variance in the regression model with TCWB. Thus, the stepwise regression analysis indicated that interpersonal conflict was the strongest predictor (24.5%) of CWB.

Interpretation of Findings With Research and Theory

In the path model (Figure 5), I noted results that demonstrated that organizational change correlated with interpersonal conflict, which also was associated with CWB. Also, the model reflected that organizational identification had a negative relationship with both interpersonal conflict and CWB, whereas organizational change correlated with CWB. Other researchers have had similar findings.

Research in organizational change and interpersonal conflict. Other researchers have noted that organizational change correlated with interpersonal conflict (Andersen, 2006; Robinson & Griffiths, 2005). Robinson and Griffiths (2005) found that interpersonal conflict accounted for the majority of the stress associated with organizational change (28%). However, Robinson and Griffith's qualitative study relied on proving the associations via a theme analysis. I could find no quantitative research that considered the possible correlations between organizational change and the common definitions of interpersonal conflict (Barki & Hartwick, 2004; Hocker & Wilmot, 2014).

Moreover, several researchers have only claimed the correlation, without providing evidence. Anderson (2006) stated that there was a relationship between the two and used his theoretical article to explain why. Raza and Standing (2010) developed a model to suggest how to manage conflict during change. Montana and Charnov (2000) also claimed that interpersonal conflict occurs during organizational change but offered no statistical analysis to clarify the relationship. In fact, Bouckenooghe et al. (2014) reported that very little research has examined the relationship of organizational change and conflict among employees and management.

My initial hypotheses did not predict a relationship between organizational change and CWB. However, the two correlated even when controlling for conflict. This finding aligns with

other research that found a positive correlation between organizational change in higher education and CWBs (Fox et al., 2001; Kessler, 2007; Spagnoli et al., 2017).

Research in interpersonal conflict and counterproductive work behavior. Several researchers have found a correlation between interpersonal conflict and CWB (Bayram et al., 2009; Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Herschcovis & Barling, 2010; Hershcovis et al., 2007). Researchers consider CWB a stressor response to conflict (Fida et al., 2014; Spector & Fox, 2005) that is utilized to manage emotion (Penney & Spector, 2005; Spector, 1998). Aligning with my results, Bruk-Lee and Spector (2006) studied support personnel in a university setting and found a statistically significant correlation between interpersonal conflict and CWB, $r = .45$, $p = .001$. Thus, the association of total conflict with total CWB in my results is not surprising.

Research in organizational identification. I discovered a complex set of results concerning the influence of organizational identification. In the initial correlational analysis, it was negatively correlated with total organizational change, conflict, and CWBs, indicating that the more faculty identified with the institution, the less recognition of change, conflict, and CWBs occurred (Figure 2). However, when I controlled for various intervening variables in a set of partial correlations (Figure 3), the resulting model in Figure 4 indicated that organizational identification was negatively correlated with total interpersonal conflict and CWBs. It appeared that less interpersonal conflict and fewer CWBs resulted when faculty more closely identified with the institution's goals and practices.

This final model clearly showed the influence of organizational identification, but it was limited. I am not clear on exactly why it intervened in this way, but possible explanations include that higher scores represented faculty who chose to ignore or deny conflict or engage in negative

behaviors. These faculty may have learned conflicts and negative behaviors do not solve problems, especially those caused by organizational change.

As noted in the literature review, the influence of organizational identification on change, conflict, and CWB varied. My findings, similar to other researchers' findings, did not show a correlation between organizational identification and organizational change (Conroy et al., 2017; Michel et al., 2010; Rousseau, 1998; Van Dijk & Van Dick, 2009; B. van Knippenberg et al., 2006). However, my study's results-are similar to those of Dukerich et al. (1998), who asserted that higher levels of organizational identification correlated with less dissension. Obviously, further research is needed to more accurately determine the boundaries of this phenomenon.

Research in years employed and gender. Similar to my findings, Bayram et al. (2009) found that gender did not have a statistically significant correlation with CWBs. I found a trend difference ($p = .06$), which indicated that females were more likely to report higher levels of conflict than males, which suggested that further research could explore gender role differences in levels of conflict and possibly develop a more complex model. For instance, it is reasonable that further research could consider how gender influences a multivariate model with other variables. Thus, researchers have confirmed that gender does not seem to influence CWB, but further research might investigate the influence of gender on workplace conflict or even organizational change.

Bayram et al. (2009) discovered that age did not correlate with CWBs. My results were similar to Bayram et al.'s findings, as years of employment did not influence results. However, Lau, Au, and Ho (2003) found that age associated with CWB and that the younger an employee, the more likely she was to engage in CWB. Further research might investigate how age or years of employment influence these behaviors.

Reflection on the results. There could be numerous reasons for these results. Organizational change could be associated with interpersonal conflict for faculty members because of increased uncertainty (Bordia, Hunt, et al., 2004; Rafferty & Griffin, 2006), lowered job control (Bordia et al., 2004; Day et al., 2017; Jimmieson et al., 2008), an increase in managerial culture (Baker & Baldwin, 2015; Stensaker, 2015), reduced communication (Allen et al., 2007), role confusion (Andersen, 2006), cynicism (Reichers et al., 1997; Stanley et al., 2005), resistance to change (Oreg, 2003; Stanley et al., 2005), feelings of loss (Wolfram-Cox, 1997), and increased stress (Fugate et al., 2002; Robinson & Griffiths, 2005). Interpersonal conflict might be associated with CWB because faculty feel the need to assuage their emotions related to conflict (Bruk-Lee & Spector, 2006; Kessler et al., 2013; Penney & Spector, 2005; Raver, 2013; Spector, 1998). This emotional connection between conflict and CWB might explain why conflict has the most significant influence on CWB, as indicated by my study. Also, the two variables might be related because of a perception of interference (Spector & Fox, 2005), reduced communication, increased uncertainty, and an increase in stress (Robinson & Griffiths, 2005).

Organizational identification's negative relationship with interpersonal conflict and CWB could be the result of faculty's increased trust in the organization, higher levels of satisfaction (Mael & Ashforth, 1992; van Dick et al., 2004), access to information (Bartel, 2001), organizational citizenship (Mael & Ashforth, 1992), increased apathy or fatalism (Decoster et al, 2013), or the alignment of values between themselves and the university (Tsui & Ngo, 2015). There could be multiple reasons behind the associations, and these possibilities indicate areas for future research.

Conclusions and theoretical model. In this study, I attempted to fill some gaps in the literature. First, my study was a quantitative analysis of the relationship between organizational change and interpersonal conflict. Second, I demonstrated in the study that within a faith-based higher education context, similar to other contexts, interpersonal conflict and CWB correlated. Third, I provided a multivariate analysis. Fourth, I did a quantitative analysis of the influence of organizational change within higher education; the majority of such studies have been case studies.

I previously presented a theoretical model that reflected the hypotheses of this study (see Figure 1). I refined that model to reflect the results (see Figure 6). This new theoretical model was similar to the final path model.

I found cautious support for my theoretical model based on OST that organizational change and organizational identification correlated with interpersonal conflict and that the resulting CWBs correlated with organizational change. This model aligned with Katz and Kahn's (1978) assertion that an energy exchange occurs between the environment and the system. However, as noted in the model, I did not measure the contextual effects. The theoretical model included the inputs of change and organizational identification in which faculty become change recipients with resulting interpersonal conflict. CWB served as a feedback loop from conflict. According to Katz and Kahn (1978), the loop acts as a method of information exchange with the system and the environment. But equifinality was not demonstrated statistically. The model showed a robust application of system theory and included the major features.

Limitations

There were some limitations to the study. First, by using the cross-sectional design, I gained only a snapshot of current circumstances, and I may not have captured the true correlation

of interpersonal conflict and CWBs. Eschleman et al. (2015) claimed that CWBs might take time

to emerge. To address this, further research could utilize a longitudinal design. Second, I found

only a low to moderate correlation for these variables. However, the correlations were

statistically significant, and the moderate correlation between conflict and CWBs was similar to

other studies (Bayram et al., 2009; Bowling & Eschleman, 2010; Bruk-Lee & Spector, 2006;
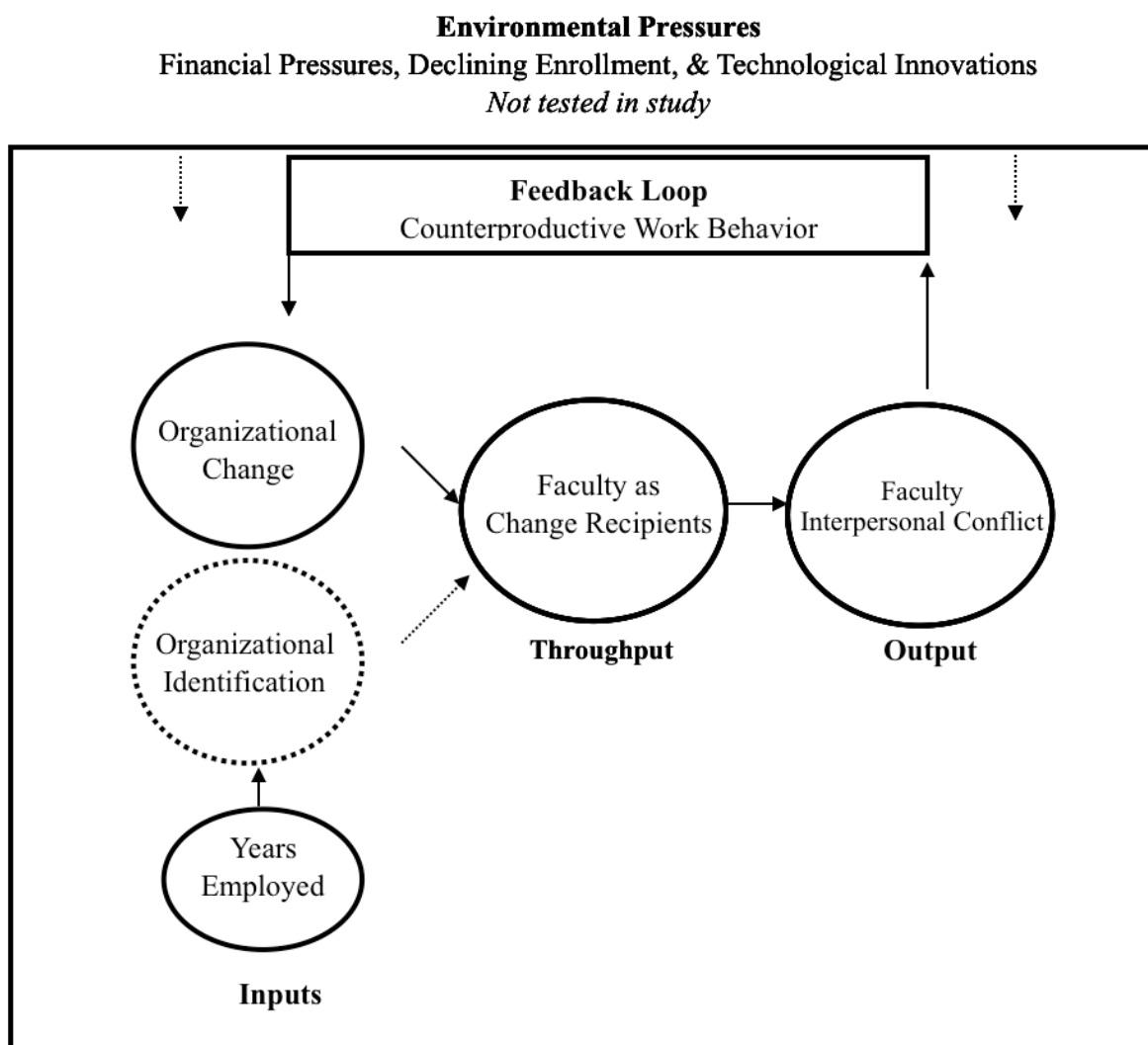
Fida et al., 2014).

Environmental Pressures
Financial Pressures, Declining Enrollment, & Technological Innovations
Not tested in study

Figure 6. Revised theoretical model using OST.

Third, the measured correlations of CWBs by faculty directed at supervisors were not reliable, and the total CWB measure had a lower than preferred reliability ($\alpha = .68$). However, total CWB did have predictive variability as it operated in the direction as predicted. The results implied that the model incorporated both CWB measures, as they were stronger together. As a possible explanation for the weak level of reliability, Spector et al. (2006) noted that checklists are causal indicator scales in which items are not meant to be interchangeable measures of a single construct. Thus, Spector et al. (2006) used expert judgment from independent sources to judge the reliability of item content. In addition, other researchers have found the CWB scale to be reliable (Spector et al., 2010).

Fourth, a correlational design cannot predict a cause-and-effect relationship (Turner, Balmer, & Coverdale, 2013). It can only point to an association between the variables. Researchers utilizing an experimental design in future research could aim to capture that causal relationship.

Fifth, there could be other factors affecting the associations, which is a third-variable problem (Simon, 1954). Because I did not find that organizational identification influenced the correlation between interpersonal conflict and CWBs, other variables could be affecting the relationship.

Sixth, there were no norms for the variables. Thus, I do not know if the means were higher or lower than normal. It seemed that the means for interpersonal conflict ($M = 21.38$, $SD = 8.03$) and CWB ($M = 13.63$, $SD = 2.87$) were low. There could be several reasons for this. First, faculty members were asked to self-report. Other researchers noted in studies using self-reporting that responses may suffer from social desirability bias (Rosenman, Tennekoon, & Hill, 2011). Also, the topics of interpersonal conflict and CWB can be difficult for respondents to

acknowledge. According to Hocker and Wilmot (2014), avoidance of conflict is the most common reaction to uncomfortable situations. In addition, faculty may have been hesitant to report conflict or negative behaviors for fear of reprisal. Cultural organizational norms may not accept or tolerate interpersonal conflict. While a finding of low means was consistent across the universities involved in this study, I did find statistically significant correlations using robust statistical analyses.

Delimitations

There were other topics, change recipients, and contexts not included in this study. By narrowing the context to Christian higher education, I did not consider how organizational change affected faculty in other types of institutions, nor did I assess the association of these variables for all staff members. Moreover, interpersonal conflict is not the only stressor associated with change. Other stressors include increased workload, perception of unfairness, uncertainty, and loss (Robinson & Griffiths, 2005). Also, because of the use of the quantitative survey method, I did not assess individual perspectives that could be garnered from a qualitative analysis.

Recommendations for Practical Application

Below are some practical recommendations for leaders in higher education and some topics for further research. I designed this study to give higher education leaders who engage in organizational change a deeper understanding of faculty reactions to change.

The first application is for organizational change leaders in higher education. Most organizational change that occurs in higher education fits the definition of planned change, where leaders organize the change, garner participation, and then implement it (Torraco et al., 2005). However, when leaders use this planned model, they often do not anticipate the reactions

to change by employees. Any planning model of change must include anticipated employee reactions to improve change efforts for all stakeholders.

A second application coincides with the first. Because research clearly shows that interpersonal conflict is consistently associated with CWBs, employees need to be given opportunities to process those conflicts in healthy ways. Universities can provide faculty with training on how to effectively deal with interpersonal conflict. Researchers have shown that to reduce interpersonal conflict, the people involved should be separated from the problem to focus on the interests driving the conflict (Fisher, Ury, & Patton, 1991; Hocker & Wilmot, 2014). In addition, university leaders should model the ways to handle interpersonal conflict, creating a culture that embraces conflict as a way to build relationship and impact innovation.

The third application concerns faculty's participation in change efforts. Researchers have found that when positive communication (K. Cameron, 2008; Johansson & Heide, 2008; Rafferty & Jimmieson, 2017) and job control occur (de Jong et al., 2016; Spector & Fox, 2005), employees tend to perceive change more positively. University leaders need to increase their positive communication with faculty so that they feel they are a part of the change process.

Aligning with the study results, the fourth application concerns organizational identification. Because I found that organizational identification had a negative correlation with interpersonal conflict and CWB, university leaders can take steps to increase faculty's identification with the university's goals and practices in an effort to decrease conflict and negative behaviors. First, administrators can hire individuals whose personality and values align with those of the university. Second, leaders must encourage faculty participation in change efforts as it correlates with higher levels of identification (Kpakol, Obiora, & Jaja, 2016; Sverke,

Hellgren, Naswall, Goransson, & Ohrming, 2008). To lessen interpersonal conflict and CWB in the university, purposeful practices to increase it could be of assistance.

Finally, the fifth application concerns CWB. If a higher education leader notes increased levels of interpersonal conflict, there is a good chance that there are also CWBs occurring. These can cost the organization in the form of turnover, absenteeism, sabotage, and even theft (Spector et al., 2006). It is important for a leader to be proactive in creating a culture that encourages the processing of conflict in healthy ways so that CWBs are less likely to occur.

Recommendations for Future Research

Throughout the study, I identified possibilities for future research. First, I only focused on full-time faculty in faith-based institutions. It would be interesting to study staff perceptions of the same variables. Second, a similar study utilizing full-time faculty in public universities could determine if there are similar correlations. Stemming from that recommendation, another study of Christian faculty could use other variables in addition to organizational identification to find possible mediating or moderating variables. Other variables could be organizational commitment, attribution, personality characteristics, uncertainty, communication, job control, or culture. Another recommendation is to continue further research focused on the correlation between organizational change and interpersonal conflict. As noted previously, many researchers have assumed the correlation without doing a statistical analysis. Other researchers could utilize a mixed-methods or experimental design to more deeply understand the association. In addition, a longitudinal study with multiple waves could uncover if the relationship continues over time. It would be interesting to see if other CWB scales that have had better reliability scores had the same results. By performing research in these areas, researchers could find a deeper understanding of the interplay of these variables.

Overall Summary

I was concerned that the significant organizational change occurring at faith-based colleges and universities correlated with problems for faculty, such as interpersonal conflict and CWBs. I found that both frequent and second-order organizational change associated with interpersonal conflict between faculty and with conflict between faculty and supervisors. Also, I found that conflict correlated with CWB. Although organizational identification did not influence the relationship between those variables, it did have a negative association with conflict. Thus, I found support for my initial model of the systemic impacts of organizational change. With this study, I hope I have broadened research in the field in four ways: (a) doing a quantitative analysis of organizational change in higher education, (b) affirming results found in other studies, (c) using a multivariate analysis, and (d) providing a statistical analysis of the relationship between interpersonal conflict and organizational change.

Universities across the nation are undergoing significant organizational change because of contextual factors like budget cuts, dropping enrollment numbers, and technological innovations. These factors are especially pressuring faith-based institutions to implement significant organizational change. Unfortunately, researchers have associated several consequences to change, one of which is interpersonal conflict. Thus, I surveyed faculty at Christian universities to garner their perceptions of organizational change, interpersonal conflict, CWBs, and organizational identification to determine if the same correlations occurred in that context.

In Chapter 2, I reviewed research in the fields of organizational change, interpersonal conflict, organizational identification, and CWBs. Using OST, I hypothesized that, for faculty in Christian colleges and universities, organizational change would be correlated with interpersonal

conflict and that conflict would be correlated with CWBs. However, I acknowledged that organizational identification might influence the relationships between these variables.

Chapter 3 described the methodology, design, and instruments I used in the study. I identified the population involved in the study, the hypotheses, and research questions. I also included ethical considerations and assumptions of the study.

In Chapter 4, I presented a summary of the findings. I found that organizational change was correlated with interpersonal conflict and that conflict correlated with CWB. Organizational identification did not influence those associations. However, it did show a negative correlation with interpersonal conflict and CWB. Gender and length of employment did not influence the associations. Based on these results, I included a holistic model reflecting the path analysis of a multivariate set of correlations that appear to present a clearer picture predicting negative work behaviors.

In Chapter 5, I discussed the results and compared them with those in the literature, noting that the study filled gaps in the research. I acknowledged the limitations of the research, indicating the need for future research. I also considered implications of the research and practical applications for leaders in higher education.

In conclusion, I found support for my argument that organizational change has systemic implications for faculty within Christian higher education in the form of interpersonal conflict and CWB. I utilized a final systems model in Figure 6 to illustrate the notion of a holistic model with which I could easily picture "dashboard' indicators related to work behavior outcomes. I found that interpersonal conflict was the strongest predictor of CWB and that organizational identification had a negative association with conflict and CWB. As a result, leaders of Christian higher education must understand that both interpersonal conflict and CWB pose significant

costs to the faculty, supervisors, and the institution as a whole. Thus, leaders of Christian higher education must take steps in the organizational change process to assist faculty with the processing of interpersonal conflict so that consequences are minimized.

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Appendix A: Demographic Questions

Are you considered a full-time faculty member who has been employed at your institution for at least two years? _____ Yes _____ No

What is your gender? _____ Male _____ Female

How many years have you been employed at your institution? _____

What is the name of your institution? _____

Appendix B: Frequent, Second-Order Organizational Change Measure

Respond to items keeping in mind changes in your work environment over the last two years.							
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Change frequently occurs in my university.							
It is difficult to identify when changes start and end.							
It feels like change is always happening.							
	Not at All	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Frequently	Usually	Extremely
I have experienced large scale changes that have significantly impacted university's goals.							
I have experienced changes to my university's structure.							
I have experienced changes to the values of my university.							

Appendix C: Workplace Interpersonal Conflict Scale (WICS)

In the last two years, have any of the following occurred at your workplace?					
	Never	Almost Never	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
	1	2	3	4	5
You felt like you were treated unfairly by a fellow faculty member at work.					
You had a disagreement with a fellow faculty member over the work you do.					
You have been shown a lack of respect or felt underappreciated by a fellow faculty member at work.					
You have been treated with hostility or rude behavior by a fellow faculty member at work.					
You have had a fellow faculty member yell at you at work.					
You have been blamed or criticized a fellow faculty member for something that was not your fault at work.					
You felt like you were treated unfairly by a supervisor at work.					
You had a disagreement with a supervisor over the work you do.					
You have been shown a lack of respect or felt underappreciated by a supervisor at work.					
You have been treated with hostility or rude behavior by a supervisor at work.					
You have had a supervisor yell at you at work.					
You have been blamed or criticized by a supervisor for something that was not your fault at work.					

Appendix D: 10-Item Short Version of Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist (CWB-C)

How often have you done each of the following things on your present job?	Never	Once or twice	Once or twice/month	Once or twice/week	Every day
1 . Purposely wasted your employer's materials/supplies	1	2	3	4	5
2. Complained about insignificant things at work	1	2	3	4	5
3. Told people outside the job what a lousy place you work for	1	2	3	4	5
4. Came to work late without permission	1	2	3	4	5
5. Stayed home from work and said you were sick when you weren't	1	2	3	4	5
6. Insulted someone about their job performance	1	2	3	4	5
7. Made fun of someone's personal life	1	2	3	4	5
8. Ignored someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
9. Started an argument with someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
10. Insulted or made fun of someone at work	1	2	3	4	5

Short form was first used in "Measurement Artifacts in the Assessment of Counterproductive Work Behavior and Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Do We Know What We Think We Know?" by P. E. Spector, J. A. Bauer, & S. Fox, 2010, *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*(4), 781–790. doi:10.1037/a0019477

Appendix E: Multi-dimensional Identification Scale (MDIS)

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5
I am a member of this university.					
I consider myself a member of this university.					
If asked if I belong to this university, I would say "Yes."					
I do not consider myself a member of this university.					
I perceive myself to be similar to other members of this university.					
I have attributes, traits, features, and behaviors that are normal for a member of this university.					
I represent a typical member of this university.					
I am like other members of this university.					
When something bad happens to this university, I feel hurt.					
When this university is in pain, I empathize.					
I have a feeling of connection with this university.					
I am personally concerned about what happens to other members of this university.					
At work, I decorate my "office space" with pictures pertaining to this university.					
At home, I have lots of university paraphernalia.					
I display objects (i.e., bumper stickers, pins, T-shirts) that illustrate that I am a member of this university.					

Appendix F: IRB Approval

ABILENE CHRISTIAN UNIVERSITY
Educating Students for Christian Service and Leadership Throughout the World

Office of Research and Sponsored Programs
320 Hardin Administration Building, ACU Box 29103, Abilene, Texas 79699-9103
325-674-2885

April 18, 2019

Dena Counts

Dear Dena,

On behalf of the Institutional Review Board, I am pleased to inform you that your project titled "Organizational Change within Christian Higher Education and the Reactions of Faculty Members",

(IRB# 19-040   )is exempt from review under Federal Policy for the Protection of Human Subjects.

If at any time the details of this project change, please resubmit to the IRB so the committee can determine whether or not the exempt status is still applicable.

I wish you well with your work.

Sincerely,

Megan Roth

Megan Roth, Ph.D.
Director of Research and Sponsored Programs

Appendix G: Permission Workplace Interpersonal Conflict Scale (WICS)

Dr. Wright,

Greetings. My name is Dena Counts, and I am currently working on my dissertation through Abilene Christian University. I would like permission to use the WICS scale as published in Wright, R. R., Nixon, A. E., Peterson, Z. B., Thompson, S. V., Olson, R., Martin, S., & Marrott, D. (2017). The workplace interpersonal conflict scale: An Alternative in conflict assessment. *The International Honor Society in Psychology, 22*(3), 163-180. doi: 10.24839/2325-7342.JN22.3.163

My proposed dissertation topic, in brief. considers how organizational change in Christian higher education is associated with interpersonal conflict for faculty members and possible counterproductive work behavior. I would appreciate the use of your scale to measure the interpersonal conflict variable. Thank you for your consideration and let me know if you have any questions. DC

• • •

Wright, Rob <​━━━━━━━━━>   Fri, Feb 1, 2:54 PM   ☆   ↰   ⋮

to me ▾

Hi Dena,

Yes, that would be fine. I have attached a pdf of the publication, which will have all the details you need in order to use the scale.

I am curious, would you mind sharing the brief results of your analyses when you have them? I have found it to be an incredibly useful scale in predicting many health and organizationally-relevant outcomes. I wonder what you might find.

Thank you for inquiring,
Rob

Appendix H: Permission Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist (CWB-C)

The CWB-C can be used free of charge for noncommercial educational and research purposes in return for sharing results. (See Sharing CWB-C results page). The CWB-C is copyright © 2010, Paul E Spector and Suzy Fox. All rights reserved.

http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~pspector/scales/cwbcpage.html