Organizational Culture: A View of the Enculturation Process and Its Relation to Turnover

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ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE: A VIEW OF THE ENCULTURATION PROCESS
AND ITS RELATION TO TURNOVER

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO
THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
IN CANDIDACY FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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INSTRUCTION AND EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

BY
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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Background and Nature of the Study

As America's business marketplace shifts from an economy of manufacturing to one that is increasingly focused on services and knowledge workers, greater emphasis than ever needs to be put on the organization and the culture that nurtures its development. In the past, an organization could develop a technology and rely on it for a number of years before the competition could catch up. Today, the speed of change is rapidly increasing and the capability to replicate a competitor's technology is much greater. Given this, the only sustainable strategic competitive advantages an organization has are its workers and the knowledge capital they share. The culture of an organization is based on its members and their interactions.

To understand organizational culture the enculturation process needs to be systematically examined. The stages of pre-entry, entry, and either an on-going relationship or the termination of that relationship are intimately linked together.

The use of the word enculturation is becoming more prevalent as organizations realize that to be successful in today's environment they need to understand the components of their culture and how individuals working within the context of that culture relate to that culture. Enculturation is defined as the aspects of the learning experience that distinguish humans from other creatures and the means by which a person achieves competence in his or her culture. The process involves both conscious
and unconscious conditioning exercised within the limits sanctioned by a given body of custom (Oxford English Dictionary, 1989).

Enculturation is a process that individuals go through throughout their lives, from being born into a society, to attending school, and eventually to joining a workplace organization. As individuals interact with organizations they come into contact with norms of dress, stories people tell, codes of behavior, rituals, jargon, and even jokes understood only by insiders. Taken together, these elements represent some of the manifestations of organizational culture. As members interpret the meanings of these manifestations, their perceptions, memories, beliefs, experiences, and values vary. Interpretations often differ even for the same event (Martin, 1992).

A quick glance into any academic bookshop will reveal that the study of organizational culture is booming (Young, 1991). The concept of organizational culture has its roots in several disciplines including psychology, sociology, anthropology and management (Thomas, et. al., 1990). Culture is composed of subconscious assumptions, shared meanings, and ways of interpreting things that pervade an entire organization (Wanous, 1992). According to Jaffe (1989), culture is defined as "the way we do things around here" (p.17). It is the patterns, norms, continuities, shared realities, artifacts, structures, rituals, events, symbols and shared meanings that members of an organization hold in common.

The concept of organizational culture applied to corporations appeared to have launched a new industry with new books on corporate culture, corporate culture conferences and consultants, culture audits, and culture-gap surveys (Smircich, 1985). Davis (1984) saw the popularity of organizational culture as a result of a search for new
management models, especially as an alternative to the mechanistic approach. The search for new models was attributed to the fact that United States industry had been operating under management models developed in, by, and for industrial corporations when it was operating in a post-industrial, service-based economy (Nasbitt, 1982).

In the early 1980's, millions of persons purchased one or more of three popular management books: Theory Z, the Art of Japanese Management (Ouchi, 1981), Corporate Cultures (Deal & Kennedy, 1982), and In Search of Excellence (Peters & Waterman, 1982).

According to Sackman (1991), there are almost as many definitions and understandings of culture as people writing about it. The importance of the concept of culture is that it provides an alternative to models of organizations that are based on bureaucratic structures of the formal organization and its rules. Often the formal organization is only a small part of the real organization.

The American Heritage Dictionary (1976) defines culture as:

> the totality of socially transmitted behavior patterns, arts, beliefs, institutions, and all other products of human work and thought characteristic of a community or population; a style of social and artistic expression peculiar to a society or class. (p. 321)

Culture is not genetically inherited; it is learned. Individuals learn cultural values and beliefs from parents, peers, and other significant individuals during the course of a person's life. Group culture develops as a social learning process, and organizations generate their collections of meaning by drawing on and adopting (learning) the mores, archetypes, myths, and values which form the fabric of the host society (Moore, 1985).

People have long observed that the formal organization tells us very little about
what is real about the organization. A better understanding of what is real comes only when the whole of the organization and its meaning to its people, their interactions, and their activities is clearly understood. Feldman (1991) looked at the relationship of organizational culture and ambiguity. Ambiguity occurs when there is no clear interpretation of a phenomenon or set of events. The meaning of ambiguity varies from person to person and setting to setting. March & Simon (1958) have identified four features. They relate to what the organization intends to do, what is appropriate for the organization to do, what the organization has done in the past and why, and who in the organization is responsible for what the organization does. March and Simon have referred to these form features as ambiguities, intention, understanding, history, and organization.

One of the best examples of ambiguity today can be seen at IBM. IBM espouses that one of its core values is "respect for the individual." On the surface this sounds like a good corporate policy and part of its culture, but ask anyone of the 200,000 plus employees that have been terminated by IBM in the last few years and one finds there is little substance to this phrase. In addition, the morale and outlook for many of those who remain is bleak.

In the traditional company, boundaries were set by the structure of the organization itself. The hierarchy of occupational titles set the levels of power and authority. In today's dynamic environment everyone in a company must figure out what kind of roles they need to play and what kind of relationships need to be maintained in order to function effectively (Hirschhorn & Gilmore, 1992).

With technological innovation happening quicker, processes being copied faster,
and customers and business partners becoming more demanding, the chief source of competitive advantage is an organization's people (Howard, 1993). Most organizations say their people are their greatest asset (Drucker, 1992).

There is a high cost involved in recruiting, orienting, and training individuals as they join an organization. Whether they'll stay and how productive and successful they'll be is dependent on the overall enculturation process, both formal and informal.

Porter and Steers (1973) developed the theory of met expectations and its hypothesis on what today is known as industrial and organizational behavior. The concept may be viewed as the discrepancy between what an individual actually encounters on the job in the way of positive and negative experiences and what he/she expected to encounter. Different employees can have very different expectations with respect to payoffs and rewards in a given organization. It would not be anticipated that a given variable (e.g., amount of pay, interaction with colleagues, etc.) would have a uniform impact on withdrawal decisions. The prediction is that when an individual's expectations, whatever they are are not substantially met, the propensity to withdraw increases.

The expectations held by newer members of an organization are often inflated, and lead to turnover rates which are much higher for newer members than among those who have greater tenure in the organization. The challenge is to have the right person-organization fit. Person-organization fit is defined as what an individual values in an organization, such as being team-oriented, or having an innovative style (Chatman, 1989). Although multiple aspects of organizations and people influence behavior and attitudes, person-organization fit is a meaningful way of assessing person-situation
interactions because values are fundamental and relatively enduring. In addition, individual and organization values can be directly compared. Person-organization fit focuses on how the patterning and content of a person’s values, when juxtaposed with the value system in a particular organizational context, affect that individual’s behaviors and/or attitudes.

The issue of organizational culture is fairly high on most employers' agendas at the moment, thanks to Japanese influences and the increasing rate of change in the world of work. In attempting to explain the economic success of Japan during the 1960's and 1970's, social scientists and others turned to the concept of culture. Since there were no obvious technical or knowledge-based reasons for explaining Japan's success, they concluded that it must have something to do with Japanese culture (Payne, 1991).

Statement of the Problem

The most important reason attention should be placed on the enculturation process of new individuals and their entry into an organization is that the costs of turnover are high. Turnover results in additional recruitment and training costs of bringing replacements on board. There are also costs associated with the loss of productivity during the time needed to bring a new employee up to the defined level of performance. The overall purpose of this study is to carefully examine an organization and describe the culture of that organization from the perspective of those who are still a part of that organization as compared to those who have left the organization. By identifying the differences between those who remain compared to those who have left an organization could then construct effective strategies for dealing with the turnover
issue.

Researchers are increasingly pointing out the high cost of turnover and the importance of workplace culture. We live in a time of continual social and organizational upheaval, which is proceeding at a faster rate than ever before. Everything is in flux: global competition, new work values, a more diverse workforce, continual stress and pressure, and the nature of many previously unquestioned assumptions about the organization. Organizations are developing a new set of agreements with their employees about what is expected, and the very nature of work. Every organization needs to learn to survive in a rapidly changing environment, and every individual has to become adept at living with change (Jaffe, 1989). Peters and Waterman (1982) in the best seller In Search of Excellence view the dominance and coherence of culture as "an essential quality of excellent companies".

In addition consideration must be given to the fact that organizational members are usually members of different task, work, and problem solving groups both inside and outside of their work organizations. In today's society, the likelihood is greater that individuals in the same work organization have been raised in different nations and belong to different social cultures. Each organizational member is simultaneously a member of a societal subculture, a specific geographical region, an ethnic group, a religious group, a professional group, an age group, and a gender group, among others. It is unlikely that all members of an organization have the same make-up and background (Sackman, 1991).

There is a growing tendency for people to want more from work than simply a paycheck. Work can be viewed as a setting in which people experience a sense of
community. The search for community is widespread and a fundamental part of human experience. Thus the expectation that the workplace be designed to function as a community is a legitimate and important concern of organizational designers—one that traditional emphasis on the division of labor, as well as increased specialization and reliance on rules, has largely ignored (Frost, 1991).

Socialization researchers (Louis, 1980; Reichers, 1987) suggest that there are four primary tasks that make up the socialization process. The tasks are:

1. Task mastery, learning how to perform the components of one's job
2. Role clarification, developing an understanding of one's role in the organization
3. Acculturation, learning about and adjusting to the organization's culture
4. Social integration, developing relationships with co-workers

Evidence suggests that in order to successfully adjust to a job, workers need feedback (Louis, 1980; Miller & Jablin, 1991). Feedback lets the individual know which behavior or performance is meeting expectations and which is inappropriate. By receiving feedback an individual can make adjustments if he or she so chooses. There are numerous ways in which an individual seeks feedback. One way is direct inquiry, which entails merely asking another person for information. An indirect method is modeling, which entails attending to a situation by looking at the behavior of others (Ashford and Cummings, 1983). Members can receive information by either asking their supervisors or observing how their supervisors react to them and use those reactions as a clue to how their performance is being evaluated. They can also ask co-workers or observe the behavior of those co-workers. It is important to note that there are important
differences between the inquiry and modeling modes, especially in terms of the costs that may be incurred when using them. In the case of modeling, the information seeker must interpret what he or she observes (Ashford & Cummings, 1983). Since individuals often make mistakes in interpreting informational cues, a potential cost of the modeling procedure is misinterpretation. Inquiry can also have its costs. It is a public event and consequently, can damage the seeker's public image. Asking for information may make the information seeker appear insecure or incompetent, or even annoy the person being asked. The direct approach to seeking information can also reveal deficiencies in the seeker's interpersonal skills, or in the case of feedback-seeking behavior, it may draw attention to performance failures.

This dissertation research project and the associated study was designed to focus on organizational culture. Individuals who are current members of an organization as well as those who have left were surveyed by mail using the Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI) developed by J. Clayton Lafferty and Robert Cooke (1986). This instrument was designed to measure 12 different cultural styles:

- Achievement
- Self-Actualizing
- Approval
- Conventional
- Oppositional
- Power
- Humanistic-Encouraging
- Affiliative
- Dependent
- Avoidance
- Competitive
- Perfectionistic

In addition, a demographics section was included in order to categorize the participants into groups. The independent variables were:

- Member Status (Current member vs. Former member)
- Sex
- Number of Years of Service
- Asked to Leave vs. Voluntary Leaving
- Age
- Education Level
- Education Category (type of degree)

The dependent variable in all cases is the individual's view of the organization's culture.

Research Questions

The primary question this study was designed to address was whether people who leave an organization view that organization's culture differently than those who remain. The following research questions were addressed:

1. Are there differences in the way current members of an organization and former members of an organization view that organization's culture.
2. Are there differences in how members that have been asked to leave an organization view that organization's culture as compared to those who are current members.
3. Are there differences in how members who have left for "pull" reasons (a better job offer) view an organization's culture as compared to those who have left for "push" reasons (too many hours, too much travel, etc.).
4. Are there differences in the way current members actively looking for other employment and current members who are not looking for other employment view the organization's culture.
5. Are there differences in how males and females view an organization's culture.
6. Are there significant differences in the cultural outlook of subjects based on their age.
7. Are there differences in how culture is viewed, with respect to the number of years of service, by those who remain with the organization as compared to those who have left.

Sample

The sample consisted of current and former members of a major consulting firm. The consulting industry was selected due to the significant level of influence consulting has on the overall business marketplace and the high rate of turnover traditionally faced by consulting firms. The consulting marketplace is valued at $41 billion (Business Week, 1993). All subjects were selected from a centralized Chicago office. The target sample consisted of a population of 150 current members and 150 former members who were selected on a random basis.

Limitations of the Study

It is recognized that this study is limited by the following factors:

1. The number of individuals who responded to the survey. This was an independent and voluntary survey not conducted within the context of an organization. There was no reward for or punishment for not responding.

2. The extent to which the sample in the study is truly representative of the overall populations of current and former members of the organization.

3. The extent to which respondents honestly and accurately responded to the survey instrument.

4. The extent to which the Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI) captures the
desired data.

5. While consulting firms face higher turnover rates than most industries only members from one consulting firm were included. Therefore, the results may not be indicative of all firms in the industry.

Significance of the Study

It is expected that this study will have both practical and theoretical significance. The practical significance is to show that by using a survey instrument to capture cultural views from both current members and former members, a comparison can be made of the differences and patterns can be traced so that the organization can take appropriate action for systematically dealing with the cultural issues related to turnover. The theoretical side is to contribute to the knowledge base in the area of organizational culture and in particular to give a perspective on how current members and former members view an organization's culture. It will document possible inter-relationships between workplace culture and turnover within the context of that culture. The study was also designed to lay the groundwork for possible follow-up studies with respect to examining the utility of using a tool like the Organizational Cultural Inventory to measure a potential new member's cultural values and to compare them to those of the organization. The goal is to see if there is a good person-organization fit before significant amounts of time, money, and effort have been invested by both the organization and the individual.

Summary

The overall purpose of this study was to examine groups of current as well as
former employees of an organization to see if they view that organization's culture differently. The method used to gather the survey dataset was to mail the Organizational Culture Inventory to a sample of 150 current and 150 former members of a large consulting firm. It was anticipated that the results would allow the organization to systematically view the cultural gap, if one exists, and to take the necessary action to reduce turnover as it relates to cultural characteristics. This is an important question to address given the high cost of turnover and the associated costs of hiring and training new individuals to replace those who have left an organization.
CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Overview

In this chapter, other work that has been done in relation to organizational culture, its components, and turnover is summarized. This review will lay the groundwork for the study which was designed to examine culture from the perspective of those who are still with an organization as compared to those who have left.

Many of the leading writers in the field of organizational change claim that current changes in organizations are linked with a new view of human nature. One that focuses on how people can work together in an organization. There is a shift from a bureaucratic organization, oriented toward stability, control, and limited individual autonomy and responsibility, toward a new organizational style where every individual makes decisions, information and control are shared, and stability is rare (Jaffe, 1989).

An organization's behavior standards are considered to be critical. Employees figure out what a firm's values are by observing the behavior of co-workers and then adopt those values as their own. In a study of 1,500 managers, researchers concluded that efforts to merge personal and corporate values can have a significant payoff for both managers and their organization. Strong shared values provide individuals with a sense of success and fulfillment; a healthy regard for their colleagues, subordinates and bosses; and increased organizational and personal vitality (Campbell, 1992).
A survey of chief executive officers revealed that most believed that organizational cultures are real, and that strong cultures contribute to corporate success. Forty percent indicated that culture needed to be dealt with in a serious manner (Duncan, 1989).

Rites and rituals can be useful in helping new staff members adapt to the organization, and parting ceremonies can ease the pain and disorientation of plant closings, layoffs, or the closing of an entire organization. A consultant with McKinsey and Company has stated that to manage successfully, a company must: (1) decide what kind of culture is needed in the organization; (2) evaluate the existing culture to determine where gaps exist between the actual and desired cultures; (3) decide how to close these gaps; and (4) repeat the entire process periodically. The process of managing culture, therefore, begins with our ability to describe the kind of culture we want and determine how our existing culture deviates from the desired one (Duncan, 1989).

There are three important characteristics of organizational culture: it is learned; it is shared; and it is transmitted. Martin (1992), examined culture from three social scientific perspectives: integration; differentiation; and fragmentation. Integration involves all culture in an organization that is shared by consensus. Differentiation refers to the subcultures that compose an organization's culture, and these subcultures may or may not share the views of the organization as a whole. Fragmentation refers to the ambiguity that is the essence of organizational culture. Along with these perspectives, three kinds of cultural manifestations are frequently studied: forms; practices; and content themes. Forms can provide important clues to what employees are thinking, believing, and doing. Practices look at organizational structure, task and job
descriptions, technology, rules and procedures, and financial controls. Content themes are common threads of concern that are seen as a subset of forms and practices.

Organization Culture

No single accepted definition of culture exists (Schneider, 1990), and the concept of culture is not new, but in recent years, authors, managers, scholars, and business consultants have given increased attention to culture as it relates to organizations (Louis, 1985). The concept of organizational culture, which evolved out of both anthropology and sociology, has not been well developed (Schein, 1985; Van Maanen & Barley, 1985; Smircich, 1985) and has no singular clear definition (Smircich, 1985; Louis, 1985).

Donnelly (1984) proposed that the definition of culture was hard to "get your arms around because it is caught up in the ebb and flow of the lives of the people that populate the organization" (p. 8). Schein (1984), defined organizational culture as:

a pattern of basic assumptions—invented, discovered or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration. This pattern has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems. (p. 3)

A frequently held presumption about culture in organizations is that it is leader generated and leader centered. However, this bias may result from researchers' predominant focus on top management.

One of the most frequently cited books in the early literature on organizational culture is Philip Selznick's Leadership in Administration. Selznick attributes the maintenance of an organization to the leader as he or she infuses the organization with
values. This process is the parallel of an individual's character formation. In recent literature authors argue that culture comes into existence at the birth of an organization. Most of them seem to agree with Selznick that the founder and leader is the major force in shaping, maintaining, and perpetuating culture in an organization. The problem is that rather than reflecting on the culture of an organization, many reflect solely on the subculture of top management.

Smircich (1983) identifies two basic perspectives on the meaning and application of culture. The first perspective identifies culture as a variable which is perceived as an unchangeable external constraint that must be accepted or an internal control mechanism that can be manipulated by management. The second perspective presents culture as a root metaphor for understanding organizations; culture helps explain why people behave as they do in organizations. It is a system of cognitions, symbols, and unconscious interactions. Asking individuals what they are thinking (cognitive approach) is more likely to elicit an accurate response than asking them what symbols they see around them or what assumptions they are operating under.

Thomas (1990) talks of defining culture as "the ways of thinking, behaving, and believing that members have in common," this approach is based on the assumption that the measurement of culture is an important component in the organizational change process. Shared thoughts, behaviors and beliefs can be identified by asking individuals to comment on the norms and behavioral expectations in their specific organization. Norms and expectations reflect both the substance and continuous reinforcement of shared values. From the employee's perspective, norms and expectations are guides that provide direction, communicate what is important for "survival and success," and provide
a framework for choosing appropriate behaviors. From the manager's perspective, norms and expectations are a cognitive process that can be used to positively impact both the organization and its members.

There is considerable variation across organizations regarding their cultures. Some cultures are strong in a positive direction and promote constructive behavior (e.g., teamwork and goal setting). As a result, they tend to produce behaviors and outcomes typically associated with individual and organizational effectiveness. Other cultures are strong, but negative. For example, unnecessary competition and conflict are reinforced or defensiveness is implicitly encouraged. In yet other organizations culture is weak. A sense of shared values and expectations is missing or very limited. Members do not clearly know what is valued and are uncertain about what is expected of them.

Four books published in 1981 and 1982: Ouchi's Theory Z, Pascale and Athos's The Art of Japanese Management, Deal and Kennedy's Corporate Cultures, and Peters and Waterman's In Search of Excellence all became best sellers. In 1989, less than a decade after the term "corporate culture" came into general use, Time, Inc., blocked a hostile bid by Paramount by arguing that its culture would be destroyed or changed by the takeover, to the detriment of its customers, its shareholders, and society (Kotter, 1992).

Recognition of the prevalence and potency of workplace culture is not restricted to business scholars and social scientists. Anyone entering an unfamiliar work setting knows the feeling of being an outsider. This can be related to one just arriving in a foreign country. Real wisdom in such situations means recognizing that the unspoken is more powerful than what can be conveyed through speaking. One gradually gains a
sense of the feel and personality of a workplace, though it may be difficult to translate all of this into words that an outsider can grasp (Louis, 1985).

Organizations are cultural phenomena and need to be understood in those terms. Usually the term "culture" describes an attribute or quality internal to a group. In this sense culture is a possession - a fairly stable set of taken-for-granted assumptions, shared beliefs, meanings, and values that form a kind of backdrop for action. One of the benefits of the culture idea is that it raises consciousness of implicit assumptions that explain why things are done. Smircich (1983) prefers to focus on symbols, not culture. Culture does not exist separately from people in interaction. People hold culture in their heads, but we cannot really know what is in their heads. All we can see or know are representations or symbols.

Symbols are phenomena that are objective and collective, and as such can be observed and verified. According to Schein (1991) organizations begin to create cultures through the actions of their founders. Culture is learned and developed through a variety of explicit and implicit mechanisms, often based on explicit "teaching" by the founder or later leaders.

The things that solve a group's problems repeatedly and reduce anxiety will survive and become a part of the culture. Cultures do not start from scratch. Founders and group members always have prior experience to start with. Powerful members will try to impose their assumptions as the proposed solutions to problems, and the group selects something to try before the process of learning can operate. The creation and embedding process, has to be viewed simultaneously as teaching and learning. At every stage the role of the leader and the group must be understood if one is to make sense of
how the culture evolves.

The content of a given culture or subculture can be influenced by the task or technology used by employees, by the constraints of the organization's stage in its life cycle, or by external factors such as major changes in a firm's environment. By providing frameworks for solving problems and interpreting events in everyday life, culture reduces the number of variables with which individuals must deal to levels more consistent with human information-processing capabilities. Culture interacts with the organization in ways that add tension, energy, and liveliness to the orderly characteristics of organizations. If organizational culture is funnelled through the unconscious it is not always orderly and it is unlikely that efforts to manage such a culture can be precisely predicted or tightly controlled (Krefting and Frost 1985).

Van Maanen and Barley (1985) state that culture implies that human behavior is partially prescribed by a collectively created and sustained way of life that cannot be personality based because it is shared by diverse individuals. Neither can a way of life be derived solely from structure, since members of separate collectives themselves occupy equivalent positions in a structural matrix. Rather, culture points to an analysis mediating between deterministic and voluntaristic models of behavior in organizations. Origination of organizational culture is rooted in both anthropology and sociology. Anthropologists emphasize the close description of relatively small, remote, and self-contained societies. Descriptive details are organized as ethnographies wherein the presence of culture is displayed by the identification and elaboration of such matters as the language, child-rearing practices, taboos, signifying codes, work and leisure interests, standards of behavior (and characteristic deviance), social classification systems, and
jural procedures shared by members of the studied society. Culture can be understood as a set of solutions devised by a group of people to meet specific problems posed by the situations they face in common.

Four interconnected domains of analysis are involved in accounting for the genesis, maintenance, and transmission of culture. The first domain concerns the ecological context in which a group is embedded. A group's position can be mapped along physical, temporal, and social coordinates. The second set of conditions are referred to as "differential interaction." Given a particular ecological context, patterns of interaction emerge between persons who may or may not be members of the group to which one wishes to attribute a culture. The third domain consists of a collection of signs that are essentially devoid of meaning until they are noticed and interpreted by members of a collective. Interpretations of objects, events, and activities are, for this reason, the quintessential content of any culture. Only when members of a group assign similar meanings to facets of their situation can collectives devise, through interaction, unique responses to problems that later take on trappings of rule, ritual, and value. The fourth domain is that of reproductive and adaptive capacity, therefore it centers on the individual members who make up the group to which a culture is attributed. Cultural patterns of behavior and interpretation cease to exist unless they are repeatedly enacted as people respond to occurrences in their daily lives (Van Maanen and Barley, 1985).

A value is a belief in action. It is a choice about what is good or bad, important or unimportant. Values shape behavior. Until a value is acted upon it remains an aspiration. Values are hard to detect; yet they underpin organizations like the foundations of a house. Every organization has a system of values, whether that fact is
realized or not. The most important value systems are located in the management group. There are seven key evolutionary stages in the development of management values. The first stage of values to dominate management thinking was that a person should be treated as a perfectible machine who is motivated by material gain. These values were based on basic concepts of organization that were first analyzed approximately one hundred years ago. It was Max Weber who described the concepts of authority, hierarchy, roles, and formalized procedures. Such organizational devices enable human machines, or "bureaucracies," to be devised to perform complex but repetitive tasks (Francis and Woodcock, 1990).

Personal values serve as latent indicators of what it is about environments that is significant to individuals because it is the attainment of what is personally valued that determines one's welfare in a work environment, or one's sense of organizational well-being (James & James, 1989). James and James (1989) employed this rationale to propose that (1) latent psychological values (such as desires for clarity, harmony, and justice) will (2) engender the psychological schemas (for instance, cognitive scales or standards for judging role clarity, role conflict, and equity) used (3) to impute meaning to environmental attributes (for example, to assess the amount of clarity present in job descriptions, the conflict represented in interactions between members of different departments, the equity represented in recent pay raises) because (4) it is these value-engendered or value-based schemas that reflect what it is that is significant and meaningful to individuals in regard to work environments.

Emotions and evaluation have a strong cognitive component when looked at in relation to organizational culture. Individuals are believed to respond emotionally to
environments in terms of how they perceive them. The key aspect of perception in this regard is the acquired meaning of the degree to which the work environment is personally beneficial versus damaging to one's welfare. Such perceptions indicate the extent to which one believes that the work environment is efficacious in promoting one's sense of organizational well-being (James & James, 1989).

System norms refer to explicit, system-sanctioned behaviors that are expected in the sense of being considered appropriate for members of the system (Katz & Kahn, 1966). System values, in addition to furnishing desires for maintaining and/or enhancing the viability of the system, furnish justifications for the normative behaviors and for the system activities that derive from these behaviors. The system values may be quite abstract, elaborate, and generalized, encompassing transcendental, moral, or sacred values (for example, loyalty) with accompanying symbols, myths, legends, and the like (Trice & Beyer, 1984). The associated normative behaviors may, accordingly, take on ritualistic qualities.

The combination of expected behaviors (system norms) and an ideology to justify those behaviors (system values) provide the individual with a basis for selecting a particular course of action over alternative courses of action, for defending why a particular action (thought) is more desirable than other actions (thoughts), and in general, for choosing a frame of reference for making sense of things and explaining reality at the system level of analysis. The system-level values, expected behaviors, and supporting ideologies and justifications are often viewed as the products of group dynamics, namely interactions among system members designed to collectively develop (create, enact, and evolve) a set of socially constructed schemas for making sense out of functions of the
system (Katz & Kahn, 1966; Weick, 1979).

Meyerson (1991) referred to cultural boundaries which depend on how members themselves define who's in and who's out. In some cultures, members do not agree on clear boundaries, cannot identify shared solutions, and do not reconcile contradictory beliefs and multiple identities. Yet, these members contend that they belong to a culture. They share a common orientation and overarching purpose, face similar problems, and have comparable experiences.

Louis (1990) defined acculturation as the process by which new members come to appreciate cultures and climates indigenous to work settings and organizations. Finding one's feet, becoming able to pass, learning the ropes, and getting up to speed are among the metaphors used by newcomers and anthropologists to describe what acculturation entails. Individuals are commonly faced with the task of acculturation when they are entering unfamiliar settings, especially work settings, or when taking on new roles, especially occupational roles. Acculturation is an essential part of a variety of role transitions, whether they entail moves from one city to another or moves within or between work settings. Examples include the move from apprentice to craftsperson, intern to doctor, organizational newcomer to insider, technician to manager (Louis, 1980). Role transitions are occasions in which individuals must master the basic skills of a job, build relationships with coworkers and others, and learn the values and norms of relevant groups. These tasks, among others, comprise the agenda of organizational socialization (Schein, 1968; Feldman, 1981). Socialization tasks can be grouped by their focus; some tasks are job-related, others are interpersonal, and still others are culture-related. Socialization researchers have noted that newcomers experience a need
to reduce uncertainty, make predictions, and otherwise gain control in the new environment (Falcione and Wilson, 1988).

A recognition of ways in which workplace cultures serve members is a first step in addressing the issue of how acculturation takes place. Cultural knowledge is tacit, contextual, informal, unofficial, shared, and emergent. Together these characteristics make teaching or otherwise transmitting local cultures to newcomers problematic. For instance, since it is tacit knowledge, insiders cannot simply print up a sheet summarizing it. Since it is contextual, statements about it out of context may be meaningless, or at least very difficult to comprehend. Attempts to present cultural information may provide official views rather than a view of what really matters and what is really done by insiders in various circumstances. Since it is emergent, statements at a point in time lack a sense of historical development that may be important in applying the information. The nature of what is to be learned during acculturation and the location of the information about it makes transmission of it and, thus, the acquisition of it, problematic. Mastery of cultures of workplaces or groups is analogous to developing competence in a foreign language. Facility in a language consists of more than mastering vocabulary (Louis, 1980). As Geertz (1973) relates, it is being able to tell when a wink is merely a wink and when it is a conspiratorial signal.

Although the task of coming to appreciate local workplace cultures appears challenging and elusive, evidence that newcomers do in fact alter their values, views, and interpretive schemes has been amassed by organizational researchers examining a variety of settings. For example, in following a group of incoming doctoral students, Green and Mosher (1988) have been able to document cognitive redefinition or shifts in the kinds
and relative importance of values held by doctoral students after one year in graduate programs. Early results indicate that commitment is highest and turnover is lowest among those who internalize the value of fairness.

Peers in groups and veteran co-workers contribute to the enculturation of newcomers. They serve as day-to-day guides, providing help in sense making and problem solving. Groups of co-workers teach informal aspects of what and how things are done. They help label and thus shape how members experience the work setting. As newcomers pay attention to their co-workers, their definitions of local situations are shaped. The social context that newcomers enter has a potent influence on the individual's emerging job attitudes and experiences. The role of peers is more important when tasks are unclear or complex. For instance, workers may need to prioritize tasks when workloads exceed an individual's capacities. Rules for prioritizing may be informal and emergent. What senior co-workers indicate are high priority are likely to be given at least as much credence as more official statements by supervisors. Senior co-workers can discuss contingencies, answer questions off the record, and otherwise fill in nuances and shadings in newcomers' growing cognitive maps of the new territory that is the work environment. For instance, second-year M.B.A. students may pass on to entering students information about which of an instructor's major assignments have counted most even though the syllabus may indicate that they are to be given equal weight (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978).

Hatch (1993) introduces dynamism into organizational culture theory by reformulating Schein's original model into a systematic process creating a new model called cultural dynamics. Within the cultural dynamics framework individuals cannot be
separated from social processes. The processes of cultural dynamics are simultaneously
cognitive and social (as well as perceptual, emotional, and in some cases aesthetic), and
individuals and their interrelationships are not usefully distinguished within this frame.
The cultural dynamics model offers a definition of culture as constituted by continuous
cycles of action and meaning-making shadowed by cycles of image and identity
formation.

Hofstede, Bond and Luk (1993) refer to a "psychological culture" located in the
mind of an individual, which contributes to the way in which this individual experiences
organizational culture. The components are: personal need for achievement, need for
supportive relationships, machismo, workaholism, alienation, and authoritarianism.
These represent a combination of personality differences and effects of present and
previous individual life and work experiences.

Dumanie (1990) points out that an increasing number of enterprises are figuring
out how to alter their cultures. As part of this the CEO must live the new culture,
become the walking embodiment of it. Often executives underestimate the power of
symbolic gestures. He cites an example such as that of taking the corporate jet to a
Hawaiian retreat to discuss cost cutting. This doesn't send the right message to the
troops. Something as simple as an award can help make a culture more innovative. In
Japan, Sharp rewards top performers by putting them on a "gold badge" project team that
reports directly to the company president. The privilege instills pride and gets other
employees scrambling for new ideas and products in the hope that they too may make the
team. Awards can encourage risk taking.

Deal and Kennedy (1982) proposed that not only should top executives have an
awareness of their corporation's culture, but that all employees would benefit from knowing what their culture is. Managers of corporations must have an awareness and understanding of their organization's culture in order to create optimum performance and accomplish their goals. Senior executives need to understand culture in order to understand why their companies are succeeding or failing. An accurate reading of the culture and an ability to manipulate it to fit the marketplace would further the success of a company's chief executive officer.

Stephen Covey (1989), author of The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People, believes every individual from the CEO down must realize that trust starts from within himself/herself. He says "It's ludicrous to think that you can build trust unless people view you as trustworthy."

Ott (1991) looks at the government working environment which is often highly political, and which reduces the usefulness of rational objectivity for establishing reality. For individual employees, understanding their agency's, bureau's, or office's culture provides some consistency, stability, and predictability, particularly for new people who have a high need for accurate information about what matters. Unwritten and often unspoken understandings develop among employees to help them cope with complex ambiguities and make sense out of all sorts of things. The culture of an organization is the composite of these understandings that become "the fabric" of a group which is passed on from older to newer generations of employees usually through nonverbal or implicit communications.

Understanding organizational culture is also important because of its potentially negative implications. On one hand, a new employee who fails to understand important
aspects of the culture or who consciously decides not to adapt to it, risks future effectiveness and could jeopardize a career. On the other hand, over-adaptation to an organizational culture leads to over-conformance and loss of self-identity. Collective over-adaptation reduces organizational creativity. It causes rigidity and group think. A strong organizational culture provides employees with a clear sense of shared purpose and identity, but it also can block change.

Starting a new position requires some personal decisions, whether the change is a first job, a lateral move, or a promotion. Because all organizations have cultures, a new employee's personal acceptance by other members of the unit depends at least partially on one's willingness to conform to the culture's norms and expectations. However, in practice, acculturation involves giving up some individuality in exchange for acceptance as a member. Acculturation is a normal part of every adult's ongoing learning process. Adaptation to customs, mores, and values is a fact of life with all of our group and organizational affiliations; social, religious, and professional.

People depend on others for information and collaboration to accomplish tasks and objectives. Willingness to share and collaborate is influenced by the extent to which a person is felt to be a member, a person who sees, understands, appreciates, and does things "the way we do things here," who has been acculturated and accepts (conforms to) the core norms and expectations of the organizational culture. This is not easily accomplished.

Searching for clues to organizational culture involves registering things that don't fit together. Incongruities often are clues about the organizational culture. They signal the presence of underlying patterns of assumptions, beliefs, or values. Among the best
and easiest ways to ferret out clues about an organization's culture are: to observe the behavior over time of the people who perform the rites and rituals that maintain or protect the organizational culture, to listen to the language and to organizational stories that are told and retold, and to watch what people spend their time working on rather than what they say the organization values.

Schein (1985) stated that "If a group is to accomplish tasks that enable it to adapt to its external environment, it must be able to develop and maintain a set of internal relationships among its members." The processes that build and develop the group occur at the same time as the processes of problem solving and task accomplishment. What we ultimately find to be the culture of the group will reflect both externally and internally oriented processes. The processes that allow a group to internally integrate itself reflect the major internal issues that any group must deal with, as summarized below.

1. Creating a common language and conceptual categories.
2. Defining group boundaries and criteria for inclusion and exclusion.
3. Distributing power and status.
4. Developing norms of intimacy, friendship, and love.
5. Defining and allocating rewards and punishments.
6. Explaining the unexplainable - ideology and religion.

Kotter and Heskett (1992) conducted four studies over a four-year period beginning in 1987. The purpose of these studies was to determine if there is a relationship between corporate culture and long-term economic performance and if there is, to clarify the nature of the relationship. They picked 207 firms from twenty-two U.S. industries and mailed a questionnaire to the top six officers in these companies. The survey asked about the strength of their competitors' corporate culture, not their own. The response rate was 48%. Measuring culture strength, using a range from (1 = very
strong to 5 = very weak). A sample shows:

- Procter & Gamble: 1.18
- IBM: 1.34
- Time Inc.: 1.91
- Baxter Travenol: 3.30
- USX: 3.77
- Eastern(Airlines): 4.30

When cultures are strong they can enable a group to take rapid and coordinated action against a competitor or for a customer. They can also lead intelligent people to walk, in concert, off a cliff. Sufficient crises and turnover, coupled with the lack of perpetuating mechanisms, can destroy a culture or make it very weak.

Kotter and Heskett's studies showed that:

1. Corporate culture can have a significant impact on a firm's long-term economic performance. They found that firms with cultures that emphasized all the key managerial constituencies (customers, stockholders, and employees) and leadership from managers at all levels outperformed firms that did not have those cultural traits by a huge margin.

2. Corporate culture will probably be an even more important factor in determining the success or failure of firms in the next decade.

3. Corporate cultures that inhibit strong long-term financial performance are not rare; they develop easily, even in firms that are full of reasonable and intelligent people.

4. Although tough to change, corporate cultures can be made more performance enhancing.

Kotter and Heskett found that while it is widely believed today that strong cultures create excellent performance, experiences of nearly two hundred firms do not support that theory. In firms with strong corporate cultures, managers tend to march energetically in the same direction in a well-coordinated fashion. That alignment, motivation, organization, and control can help performance, but only if the resulting
actions fit an intelligent business strategy for the specific environment in which a firm operates. Performance will not be enhanced if the common behaviors and methods of doing business do not fit the needs of a firm's product or service market, financial market, and labor market. Strong cultures with practices that do not fit a company's context can actually lead intelligent people to behave in ways that are destructive—that systematically undermine an organization's ability to survive and prosper. They found the single most visible factor that distinguished major cultural changes that succeed from those that fail is competent leadership at the top.

An example cited by Deal and Kennedy (1982) points to Tandem Computers as a typical example of a strong-culture company. It was "founded on a well-ordered set of management beliefs and practices." The firm is said to have no formal organization chart and few formal rules. Employees work productively "in the same direction" because of the "unwritten rules and shared understanding." This culture is maintained because top management spends considerable time in training and communicating the management philosophy and the essence of the company. Achievements consistent with the culture are regularly recognized and rituals such as the Friday afternoon "beer-bust" symbolize that culture.

Ralph Kilmann (1986) describes adaptive cultures as those with "a risk-taking, trusting, and proactive approach" to organizational as well as individual life. Members actively support one another's efforts to identify all problems and implement workable solutions. There is a shared feeling of confidence: the members believe, without a doubt, that they can effectively manage whatever new problems and opportunities will come their way.
An example is the 1984 Olympics which had the challenge of hiring and training a huge, short-term work force. It was difficult to lure highly skilled and personable people from permanent jobs to join the Olympics effort. The staff’s organizational learning came primarily from informal means, drawing heavily on the stories and behavior of co-workers. Myths and rituals sprang up fast for the young organization. As part of orientation, new staff members were given a policies and procedures manual and were reminded of the most important rules. Only after they went to work in their departments did they learn which rules really counted and which were considered ridiculous. The most frequently discussed policies were related to dress code. Most considered them strict, but in actuality no one had been fired for violating the rules. Coercion was used to force new staff members to become active participants in the international spirit of the Games. At the time of hire, each person was assigned a country. People were told that at any time the President of the Olympic Committee could call someone into his office and ask the person to tell him everything about their assigned country. The alleged purpose of the exercise was to have a ready source of information should a delegation show up unexpectedly. It forced new recruits to do homework and feel pivotal to the organization. The impression was given that a lack of preparation was grounds for immediate dismissal (McDonald, 1991).

Van Maanen (1991) examined the culture of Disneyland. Disney has 60 to 70 thousand visitors per day in its peak summer season. Employees at the bottom of the organization are the ones who provide most of the services for visitors. Employees are well-screened. The typical social attributes, for example, of a ride operator are; single, white males and females in their early twenties, without facial blemishes, of above
average height and below average weight, with straight teeth, conservative grooming standards, and a chin-up, shoulder-back posture adapting the sort of good health suggestive of a recent history in sports. To get a job in Disneyland and keep it means conforming to an exacting set of appearance rules. These rules are put forth in a handbook on the Disney image in which readers learn, for example, that facial hair or long hair is banned for men as are aviator glasses and earrings and that women must not tease their hair, wear fancy jewelry, or apply more than a modest dab of makeup.

Paid employment at Disneyland begins with the much renowned University of Disneyland whose faculty runs a day-long orientation program as part of a 40-hour apprenticeship program, most of which takes place on the rides. In the classroom newly hired ride operators are given a very thorough introduction to matters of managerial concern and are tested on their absorption of gamuts of Disneyland fact, lore, and procedure. Employee demeanor is governed by rules such as: practice a friendly smile and use only courteous phrases. Language is also a central feature of university life and new employees are schooled in its proper use. Customers at Disneyland are, for instance, never referred to as such, they are "guests." There are no rides only "attractions." There is also a training manual that lays out the proper procedures for dealing with customers.

Where one works in the park carries much social weight. Postings are consequential because the ride and area a person is assigned provide rewards and benefits beyond those of wages. In-the-park stature for ride operators turns parlay on whether or not unique skills are required. Disneyland neatly complements labor market theories on this dimension because employees with the most differentiated skills find themselves at
the top of the internal status ladder, thus making their loyalties to the organization more predictable. Uniforms provide an instant communication about the social merits of the wearer within the world of Disneyland workers. Attributes of reward and status tend to cluster, and there is intense concern about the cluster to which one belongs. Interaction patterns reflect this order. Patterns are more than a slight concern because a summer pastime is the "rating and dating complex." Various forms of mating games are played with corporate status markers in mind.

Role theory is particularly relevant in accounting for effects on groups of co-workers during acculturation (Mortimer & Simmons, 1978). New members seek to interact with and observe members of relevant groups or reference groups in order to gain acceptance into the group as well as to gain competence in carrying out their roles. Through these interactions with reference group members, newcomers acquire understandings not only of their roles, but of the group's norms, values, and attitudes as well. Role theory is concerned with influence of a group or set of people rather than with one particular individual. The situation of a newcomer having a group of co-workers available facilitates scanning several sources for cues to understanding a situation (Schein, 1979).

Miner (1994) looks at role motivation theories. In relationship to organization types, role requirements for key performers (managers, professionals, entrepreneurs, or group members) follow from the organizational forms, and motivational patterns that fit these roles. They are in effect meso theories which tie together the macro (organizational) and micro (individual) levels of organizational science.

Miner has developed the Miner Sentence Completion Scale which provides a
measure of five motivational patterns. It contains 40 free response sentence completion items, scored +1, 0, -1, depending on whether the response indicates approach, unknown, or avoidance motivation. He uses this as a tool to characterize how individuals view an organization's culture. The theories specify a set of informal role requirements that are derived logically from the form of organization involved and the relation of the key performers to that organization. A matching set of motive patterns is then specified, one for each role requirement. If the role-motivation match is good, the likelihood increases that the role requirements will be carried out and that effective performance will occur. On the other hand if the motivation pattern of an individual does not fit the role there is an increasing likelihood that the individual will be unsuccessful.

In a study of feedback-seeking behavior, Ashford (1986) found that the best predictor of the perceived value of feedback about performance was job tenure. Job tenure was negatively related to perceived value of feedback, which in turn was significantly and positively related to the frequency of seeking feedback through direct inquiry and monitoring or observation.

Miller and Jablin (1991) identify seven kinds of activity through which newcomers obtain information about the work environments they have entered. Newcomers may use overt means or direct questioning to obtain information when they feel "comfortable" with the source, when they wish to be able to clarify ambiguities, and in order to build relationships to make future information seeking easier. Newcomers may indirectly question a particular source; the questions are asked but not in a direct fashion, allowing for face-saving by newcomers on subjects they think may be sensitive or in areas in which they do not feel well enough prepared for direct questioning.
Newcomers may ask questions of a third party, substituting a secondary source such as a co-worker for a primary source such as a supervisor. Newcomers use third parties when primary sources are unavailable or unapproachable.

In other strategies, newcomers test limits, confronting others by breaking rules or otherwise deviating in order to gain an understanding of rules about work and relationships. Newcomers may engage in disguised conversations by putting others at ease and getting them to talk open-endedly about a subject. Joking, self-disclosure, establishing common ground, and use of verbal prompts are among the techniques used to start and get another person to continue talking. In testing limits and engaging in disguised conversations, newcomers deliberately create occasions designed to provide them with information that is then obtained more by observation than by direct questioning of the source.

In the observational strategy newcomers do not intervene but observe naturally occurring events. Through observation, they unobtrusively obtain information about others' values and attitudes as well as about task procedures. Individuals prefer to observe people interacting rather than a single person and prefer to observe informal settings rather than formal ones (Berger & Perkins, 1978).

Newcomers can also engage in surveillance or monitoring. They pay attention to whatever happens to be going on, scanning broadly. They note, for instance, which topics of conversation are discussed among incumbents over lunch as well as how people talk with one another, how members talk about members of a rival department, and so forth. In contrast to the strategy of observation, surveillance is casual and general rather than directed and particular.
Expectations may reflect promises made by recruiters, images and desires fostered by acquaintance with employees of the firm, public relations material, and so forth. Newcomers may be consciously aware of some of the expectations they hold while they may be largely unaware of others. Though some discrepancies between expectations and experience may be the source of delight, others provoke disappointment. In either case, surprises require explanation.

During sense making, individuals are involved in several tasks. Sense makers account for the source of surprise; that is, they try to develop an acceptable explanation for the discrepancy or error in forecasting the situation. They seek to provide a correct interpretation of the event or experience that was inaccurately forecast. Further, they select any behavioral responses needed to repair the present situation. Finally, they adjust their forecasts to prevent future surprises; they incorporate refinements to capture local contingencies; and they update definitions of the situation (Louis, 1980). Sense making represents problem-triggered interpretive work.

Individuals begin to form a view of an organization's culture even before they become part of it. In what is referred to as the pre-entry stage an individual has his/her first exposure to a firm. These original perceptions influence whether an individual will join an organization. The next stage is that of entry, when an individual first joins an organization. Here the perceptions in the pre-entry stage are either validated or revised. As time goes on an individual either decides to remain with or leave the organization. All these stages have events in them which influence turnover.

Pre-Entry
Understanding corporate culture should be emphasized as early as the recruiting, preselection, selection, and orientation processes. According to Meglino and DeNisi (1988), a realistic job picture allows the individual to adjust expectations, offers the perception of freedom of choice, and provides an opportunity to develop coping mechanisms early on. It also saves the company the research that would have to be spent on training the individual if the employee chooses to not accept the job. Realistic job previews which by definition pursue the objective of assisting newcomers in gaining a realistic picture of life in the organization and on the job in advance of or soon after entering the unfamiliar work setting can help (Wanous & Colella, 1989). Although the procedures vary, information is presented in advance of the newcomers' entry. The aim is to have the realistic job preview serve as a kind of inoculation for newcomers against possibly inaccurate views and expectations of the job and organization. The material realistic job previews attempt to convey often covers cultural content. They may convey values, symbols, management styles, climates of support, or competition or cooperation. Methods often include one or more of the following forms of delivery; interviews, meetings, handbooks, tours, and films or videotapes.

Ullman (1966) predicted that information provided by informal sources would promote better applicant-job match because these sources would be considered less biased than information received directly from those who were trying to influence them to join an organization. This in turn, would lead to reduced turnover and improved performance. Accordingly, these benefits would not derive from formal recruitment sources because they provide less information about employers.

Chatman (1989) conducted a study which showed that spending time with
members before entering the firm and being achievement oriented and confident are positively associated with alignment between individual values and firm values at entry. Attending firm-sponsored social events and spending time with a mentor are positively associated with changes in fit. Positive changes in fit also occur among recruits who demonstrate endurance and analytical orientations.

Individuals face conflict during organizational entry as a result of information they gave and received prior to joining. There are two general types of conflict which occur between individuals and organizations. The first occurs because individuals need to have complete and accurate information about an organization to make a wise choice about the opportunity, i.e., one that matches specific job wants with organizational offerings. The conflict occurs because typical actions organizations use to attract and recruit newcomers only give information that shows the organization in a positive light. The second conflict between individual and organization occurs because most individuals feel that it's important to generate as many job offers as possible, in an attempt to obtain one that will be highly desirable. Because of this desire, individuals are not prone to disclose their own shortcomings and quite often describe their desires in terms of what they think the organization has to offer rather than in terms of what they would like (Wanous, 1992).

Entry

During the first few months after entry, newcomers focus on mastering their jobs, developing relationships with co-workers, and learning about the organization as a whole, and only after these tasks are accomplished do they begin to settle into their new
By the ninth month or so, newcomers attempt to master the demands of the situation (Feldman, 1981). This implies that new employees should have gained pertinent knowledge about their task, role, group, and organization.

Although obtaining information from supervisors and co-workers may not contribute directly to knowledge, as newcomers spend time getting information from sources, they may establish a social support network or become integrated into the informal social network. Peers and co-workers may meet the social needs of employees during socialization (Kram, 1985), and seeking out social support can be a strategy used by newcomers to adapt to the organization (Feldman & Brett, 1983).

Socialization leads to higher satisfaction because as newcomers become socialized, they experience less uncertainty about their new environments (Louis, 1980). As uncertainty dissipates, newcomers know what they need to do and how to do it. Thus, the uncertainty reduction that occurs during socialization will lead to higher newcomer performance (Feldman 1981; Wanous, 1980). Finally, to the extent that newcomers have reduced their level of uncertainty, are satisfied, and are performing well, they will be more inclined to remain with an organization (Feldman, 1981; Wanous, 1980).

Wanous (1992) found that for most types of information newcomers engaged in monitoring more frequently than in inquiry. This finding is consistent with previous research on feedback-seeking behavior (Ashford, 1986) and with the argument that individuals are reluctant to incur the social costs of direct inquiry. When trying to obtain technical information, however, newcomers engaged in inquiry more often than in monitoring. Comer (1991) found similar results. Although both peers and supervisors
were important information sources, newcomers preferred peers for certain types of information and supervisors for others.

Over time, newcomers sought less normative information and social feedback, but they sought more referent information and performance feedback. These results are consistent with the argument that as time progresses, newcomers become less concerned about fitting in and more concerned about how well they are performing.

Newcomer orientation is a term that is often used, but there is no consensus as to what it means. There is no agreed-upon definition that includes; when orientation occurs, the objectives of orientation, and the methods used to conduct orientation. Despite this lack of agreement in precisely what is meant, many organizations have some sort of orientation program for newcomers.

To come up with a definition of orientation the first element is to identify when newcomer orientation begins and ends. The second element of a definition is to identify the objectives of newcomer orientation. The final element is how the organization handles newcomer stress (Wanous, 1992).

The word "orient" is derived from the Latin oriens meaning rising, and orientation, a noun, means determining one's position with reference to new ideas, etc. The objectives of orientation programs are to shape the behavior of the individual to fit organizational needs and to effectively channel the energy of a new employee in the right direction. The Army has boot camp, a company training programs, medicine residency and internship, and law the clerkship.

Many organizations are caught up in the endless and costly cycle of recruiting, selecting, orienting, and training due in part to the need to continually replace employees
that leave during the first few years on the job. The question one might address to these organizations is simply: If the money is available to keep repeating this cycle, why not use these funds to develop a top quality orientation program that instead might generate savings, in the form of reduced turnover and lasting productivity (Mishra and Strait, 1993).

The primary objective of orientation is to shape individual behavior to fit the needs of the organization and not leave this to chance. Orientation further tries to acclimate people to their surroundings. On the job, this requires molding the attitudes, expectations, and values of the individual to that of the organization's corporate culture. The ultimate objective is to provide the employee with a feeling of self-worth, a sense of belonging, an attitude of pride and confidence in oneself and in the organization, and a desire to succeed.

There is some confusion as to exactly what training and orientation involve. Training deals with teaching someone the skills needed to perform the job. It involves a change of behavior. It deals with one's abilities and should explain the "how to" of the job. Orientation, on the other hand, should deal with a change of the people's attitudes so that they mesh with goals of the organization for which they have been employed.

At the point of entry, a new employee's set of values, attitudes, and expectations encounters the organization's set of values, attitudes, and expectations. The employee is eager, enthusiastic, wants to understand and learn about the organization, and desperately seeks to quickly prove himself or herself by demonstrating the ability to contribute to the organization. According to the Journal of American Insurance, new employees tend to "lack a sense of belonging" and therefore turnover might be high in the early weeks on
the job, yet they usually have an unusual psychological readiness to learn. First
impressions are lasting and are made in the first 60-90 days on the job. Instead of the
employee needing a reason to leave, organizations must be sure that they send the
message that there is a reason to stay.

Results of a Texas Instruments study of its own orientation efforts revealed that
among two different control groups, the group that was given a six-hour orientation and
socialization to the company over a one-month period needed 50 percent less training
time, had higher overall performance, and experienced 65 percent less absenteeism and
tardiness than the group who received a two-hour introduction to the company held in
one meeting.

Socialization concerns the ways in which newcomers change and adapt to an
organization. At its most basic level, organizational socialization is the transmission of
important norms and values to the newcomer by the insiders in the organization
(Wanous, 1992).

There are a great many opportunities for organizational socialization to take
place, and it takes place in groups that more or less need to develop on their own.
Socialization takes place in a number of contexts. The dynamics of socialization can
become difficult to separate from those of group development, as would be the case in
military basic training, in an executive MBA program, among new fraternity members,
or in new groups assembled after a corporate merger.

Organizations that are most effective at socializing their employees use a
common set of techniques that fall into three categories: (1) rigorous recruitment and
selection processes, (2) clear rewards and career paths, and (3) a strong, clear, visible
organizational value system manifested through role models and management actions (Caldwell, Chatman, and O'Reilly, 1990).

Sackmann (1991) looks at mutual understanding among members of an organization as a key to complexity reduction. When faced with a complex situation, the available cultural knowledge structure guides individuals in their unreflected decisions about what is important and what is not, what is considered a problem and what is not, what is appropriate behavior and what is inappropriate in a specific cultural setting, or what is acceptable and what is unacceptable. In one cultural setting it may be acceptable and expected of an employee to run into the boss's office if he or she has a problem. In another cultural setting the same behavior may be considered unacceptable because problems should be solved where they occur. And only if the employee does not find a solution is he or she allowed to bring it to his or her boss. When faced with the same problems, people in different cultural settings may respond completely differently.

Organizational socialization can be broken down into three basic components: (a) the process of learning from other people who are trying to "persuade" newcomers to adopt organizational norms and values, (b) the focus of learning specific and acceptable roles, norms, and values, and (c) the unique dynamic of conflict linked to the socialization process (Wanous, 1992).

The process of learning in organizational socialization is called "social learning" because newcomers "learn the ropes" from other people by listening to them and observing their actions. This type of learning is considered to be the most important way in which humans learn, as contrasted with earlier theories that emphasized reinforcement from the environment (the work of B. F. Skinner), or the "innate instincts" of people.
Although there certainly is evidence that "reinforcements" from the environment affect learning and that some instincts do exist, the key here is that organizational socialization concerns interpersonal relationships at work (Reichers, 1987). Thus emphasis on social learning is important to understanding how newcomers become socialized.

One of the best known and most effective socialization processes is that of military basic training. The eight-week period following induction into the military, basic training, is well known to those who have gone through it. Bourne (1967) has divided this socialization into four stages: environmental shock, engagement, period of attainment, and period of termination.

Stage 1, environmental shock, begins at the reception center, where almost everyone is a stranger. One of the biggest shocks is to find yourself in the organization for 24 hours a day. This is particularly stressful to those who have not previously lived away from home. Two factors seem to increase the degree of stress on these newcomers. First, most of the expectations of the new recruits are disconfirmed upon arrival. Second, the administrative processing is very time consuming, boring, and ambiguous. The typical recruit reacts with "dazed apathy." Recruits become very dependent and tend to cling to those in authority. Finally, relatively minor events tend to be overblown in their significance, e.g., the assignment to KP duty can be seen as a catastrophe to some.

After the initial period of a few days at the reception center, the recruits enter Stage 2, engagement, by being assigned to a basic training company. The socialization strategy here is to strip away the newcomer's "old" identity and substitute a new one in its place. This is accomplished by the ritual haircut and wearing of uniforms. There is very little privacy. During this initial period, anxiety levels drop for two reasons. First, this is
what the recruits expected, i.e. they typically do not expect the reception center process to last so long. Second, the recruits are now much more active. During the first four weeks of basic training, the level of anger and resentment rises slowly in the recruits. This is because they see themselves as receiving very little from the army in return for all their sacrifices. (This is a typical danger of the strategy to build commitment via high energy expenditure.) They still feel like outsiders to the army and they are constantly reminded that their own skills are of no value to the army.

Stage 3, period of attainment, begins the third and fourth weeks as recruits learn how to handle weapons. The activity of firing rifles is really the first time the army has given the recruit credit for an acquired skill. During the second half of basic training, a weekend pass becomes a possibility. The incidence of upper respiratory illness diminishes dramatically during the second four weeks as compared to the first four. This, in itself, is reassuring to those who had been ill since it means they will be able to complete the training on time and not be transferred to another group to make up for lost time.

Stage 4, period of termination, begins about one week before the end of basic training. There is a definite shift to feelings of euphoria, self-confidence, and discussion of plans during their upcoming leave from the army. The recruits' early fears of failure in basic training are gone. They now realize that the whole experience was designed to ensure a high rate of success.

Stage models of the socialization process (Feldman, 1981; Louis, 1980; Van Maanen, 1976) indicate that during the first few months on the job, new employees concentrate on gathering information, learning about the tasks necessary for the job, and
clarifying their role in the organization. Observing the behaviors of others in salient situations can be used to obtain relevant information about how to perform a task. Expected behaviors and the salient values provide newcomers with models to emulate in learning new behaviors and skills (Miller & Jablin, 1991).

Morrison (1993) suggests that an important type of information that newcomers seek is feedback. In particular, it is predicted that newcomers seek both performance feedback, or information about how others are perceiving and evaluating their job performance (Ashford, 1986), and social feedback, or information about the acceptability of their non-task behavior. Research on socialization suggests that newcomers need technical, referent, normative, performance feedback, and social feedback information in order to master their jobs and become integrated into their organizations.

Comer (1991) suggested monitoring is an inefficient means for obtaining much of the task-relevant information that newcomers need because cues about how to perform a specific job task can be obtained through monitoring only if someone else is performing a similar task and that task is observable.

Louis (1990) argued, peers view an organization from a perspective similar to that of newcomers. Therefore, they are able to provide an insider's view of the organization's culture. Supervisors, on the other hand, view the organization from a different vantage point and hold formal positions that may make it difficult for them to be entirely open (Louis, 1990).

Employees can also obtain information from written, electronic, or task-generated sources. There are both advantages and disadvantages to seeking information from impersonal sources. A key advantage is that an information seeker can avoid the social
risks inherent in inquiry. Thus, individuals who fear that they will embarrass themselves or appear incompetent by asking for information may prefer to consult impersonal sources. Such sources may be particularly important in environments in which asking for information is discouraged. A second advantage of impersonal sources is that they may provide information that is more clear and objective than that provided by other persons. Ashford (1986) found a negative relationship between tenure and the frequency of feedback seeking. She proposed that as tenure increases, individuals will be less likely to seek information because seeking may "undermine their standings as confident and self-assured veterans."

Met expectations is one explanation of why certain inside sources, such as rehired employees or employee referrals, result in higher job survival rates than do outside sources such as newspaper ads or employment agencies. This is because it is assumed that inside sources provide more accurate information about a particular organization, acting somewhat like a realistic job preview. A recent review of 12 studies of recruiting sources had job survival rates that were about 30% higher from inside than those from outside sources.

The definition of met expectations in research comes from the work of Porter and Steers (1973). The first aspect of Porter and Steers' definition is the basic hypothesis itself. Unmet expectations are seen as leading to dissatisfaction, which in turn leads to quitting an organization. Thus, these two links are specified in the hypothesis, in which satisfaction mediates the relationship between unmet expectations and quitting (or job survival).

The second aspect of Porter and Steers' (1973) definition concerns the appropriate
context for conducting research. In this case, expectations held by job candidates before they enter an organization are compared with their post-entry experiences.

The third aspect of Porter and Steers' (1973) definition concerns the specific meaning of met expectations. In this case, a discrepancy is assessed between one's initial expectations and one's subsequent beliefs after entering an organization and experiencing it as a full-time member.

The fourth aspect of Porter and Steers' (1973) definition concerns the meaning of expectations. Because newcomers learn from the insiders in the organization, the degree to which the messages they receive are clear and unambiguous will determine the degree of disconfirmation. Environments that send clear messages to newcomers and in which there is relatively high consensus among the insiders sending these messages have the potential to disconfirm even the most strongly held expectations by newcomers. On the other hand, environments in which newcomers receive ambiguous or conflicting messages from insiders will allow newcomers to maintain their initial expectations (Wanous & Poland, 1992).

Turnover

Turnover is a difficult variable to deal with. The question is one of classifying turnover as voluntary (quitting) or involuntary (being fired). It is not always easy to distinguish between them. For example, a professor who knows that his contract is not likely to be renewed the following year looks for a new job before he is fired. Should that be considered voluntary or involuntary turnover (Landy, 1989)?

The magnitude of the difference in voluntary survival rates between different
organizational cultures raises important questions regarding the significance of person-organization fit in determining employee retention. Other researchers (Chatman, 1989, 1991; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991; Schneider, 1987) have argued that the fit between personal and organizational values is very important to employee retention. In his attraction—selection—attrition model, Schneider succinctly described this proposition by suggesting that particular kinds of individuals are attracted to particular organizations and that those who do not fit an organization soon leave.

There is now a sizable body of literature linking organizational commitment to important work behaviors, including turnover (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974; Williams & Hazer, 1986), absenteeism (Blau, 1986; Pierce & Dunham, 1987), and job performance (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Steers, 1977). If organizations hope to reduce absenteeism and turnover and improve the on-the-job behavior of their employees by fostering greater commitment, it is important that they understand how commitment develops and what they can do to foster the appropriate kind of commitment.

Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) outlined three stages in the development of commitment: pre-entry (anticipation), early employment (initiation), and middle to late career (entrenchment). Meyer and Allen (1984, 1991; Allen & Meyer, 1990) proposed that continuance commitment can be affected by anything that makes leaving the organization more difficult (costly) for the individual. Although the actual cost may be quite specific (e.g., loss of a particular benefit; disruption of a personal relationship), Meyer and Allen identified two general categories of antecedents: (a) lack of available alternative employment opportunities and (b) investments (Farrell & Rusbult, 1981), or side-bets (Becker, 1960), that would be lost if the individual were to leave the
organization. Allen and Meyer (1990) found that measures of alternatives and investments were indeed significantly correlated with continuance commitment in a sample of established employees.

Kerr and Slocum (1987) argued that the variation in employee retention across organizations may be related to organizational culture values. Those authors suggested that an organization's cultural values influence its human resource strategies, including selection and placement policies, promotion and development procedures, and reward systems. Different strategies result in psychological climates that foster varying levels of commitment and retention among employees working in different organizations.

Kerr and Slocum (1987) also report that some organizations have cultures that emphasize values of teamwork, security, and respect for individual members. These values foster loyalty and long-term commitment to the organizations among all employees, regardless of their job performance. Other organizations have cultures that emphasize personal initiative and individual rewards for accomplishing specific work objectives. These values foster an entrepreneurial norm whereby the organization does not offer long-term security and their employees do not promise loyalty. They suggested that weaker performers would soon leave such a culture, and stronger performers would stay in order to "exploit the organization until better rewards could be gotten elsewhere" (Kerr & Slocum, 1987). Consequently, employee retention rates may be uniformly high for both strong and weak performers in some organizational cultures but in other cultures may vary greatly depending on employees' job performance.

Over time, organizations invest substantial resources in their employees. The corresponding costs to the firm regarding employees' quitting the organization and the
subsequent hiring of replacement employees can be significant in terms of personal, work-unit, and organizational readjustments (Cascio, 1991; Mobley, 1982). On the one hand, concepts external to the employee, a pull theory, have been studied primarily by market-oriented researchers, in which work was focused on job alternatives and how such alternatives surface. On the other hand, constructs internal to the employee, a push theory, have been studied primarily by psychologically oriented researchers, who focused on job-related perceptions and attitudes.

Mobley (1977) theorized that job dissatisfaction leads (1) to thinking about quitting, which may in turn lead (2) to evaluations for the expected utility of searching for another job and costs associated with quitting the present job. From that evaluation, (3) an intention to search for alternative jobs may emerge, which in turn leads (4) to the actual search for alternatives and (5) to the evaluation of the acceptability of identified alternatives. This last evaluation results in (6) comparisons of these alternatives to the present job, which in turn can lead (7) to an intention to quit and eventual turnover.

Steers and Mowday (1981) proposed the following general sequence leading to an employee's eventual staying or quitting. First, individual values and job expectations, conceptualized as met expectations, were said to influence the employee's effective responses to the job, which were specified as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job involvement. Second, effective responses were seen as influencing the employee's desire and intention to stay or quit, with the choice depending on a variety of non-work influences. Finally, the intention to stay or quit was theorized to lead, ultimately, to the behavior of staying or quitting.

One of the major precipitating events for employee turnover can be an event that
prompts an individual to evaluate his or her current and perhaps other jobs. Shocks are not just negative job-related factors; positive and neutral events that are both job and non-job related can prompt mental deliberations about leaving. In some cases, employees simply leave because the shock results in scripted behavior, where no extensive cognitive deliberations that evaluate the current or alternative jobs take place. Some employees leave organizations without considering alternatives; their central choice is to stay or leave their present company, not to quit for another organization. In most cases employees make decisions about staying with or leaving an organization based on a fit or compatibility criterion, rather than on maximizing their subjective expected utilities (Lee and Mitchell, 1991).

A number of studies have looked at issues outside of organizational culture that affect turnover. Hulin, Roznowski, and Hachiya (1985) looked at a growing awareness in studies attempting to link employee turnover to perceptual measures of employment opportunity. For example, Price and Mueller (1986) looked at the availability of acceptable alternatives. Steel and Griffeth (1989) point out that another factor bearing on the degree of perceived employment opportunities is one's access to job-availability information which goes beyond the conventional forms such as advertising, and extends into networks of family, friends, and business associates who can provide leads.

Dalton, Krackhardt, and Porter (1981) presented a taxonomy to define turnover. In it they suggested distinguishing avoidable from unavoidable turnover. Through empirical examinations they found that those who leave for organizationally avoidable reasons are different from both stayers and those who leave for organizationally unavoidable reasons in areas such as levels of satisfaction, commitment, tension, and
withdrawal cognitions (Abelson, 1987). Furthermore, this suggests that most unavoidable leavers differ little, if any from stayers. Stayers and unavoidable leavers should be more satisfied and committed and should experience less job tension than avoidable leavers (Ferris & Aranya, 1983; Mobley et al. 1979; Porter & Steers, 1973). Avoidable leavers are hypothesized to experience their leader's behavior in a more negative light than do stayers or those leaving for unavoidable reasons. This taxonomy suggests that stayers and unavoidable leavers are older and more tenured than avoidable leavers. Unavoidable leavers, are hypothesized to be married and have more children needing care than avoidable leavers or stayers.

Models of voluntary turnover specify important roles for both general labor-market conditions and labor-market perceptions. Although there is consistent support for the role of general labor-market conditions, evidence on perceptions is mixed. In a national sample of young adults, both factors were related to voluntary turnover. However, the two constructs were not closely linked, possibly because labor-market perceptions are based on incomplete information. Thus, for example despite poor general labor-market conditions, an employee may perceive ease of movement to be high (Gerhart, 1990).

March and Simon (1958) argued that general labor market conditions influence voluntary turnover through perceived ease of movement. Their model suggests that certain factors (e.g., dissatisfaction) may "push" the employee to look for alternative employment, whereas other factors (e.g., the perception of attractive alternative job opportunities) may "pull" the employee to consider alternative employment. Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, and Meglino (1979) also hypothesized that economic labor-market
factors (e.g., unemployment, vacancy rates) influence turnover indirectly through labor-market perceptions.

As an alternative Hulin, Roznowski, and Hachiya (1985), state that most workers quit on the basis of job offers they have already received not on probabilities and factors related to the general job market. Although generally labor-market conditions have some influence on the perceived ease of movement, the magnitude of the relation is limited to the extent that perceived ease of movement also reflects idiosyncratic differences in individual labor markets stemming from variations in skills, abilities, and experience.

The Monthly Labor Review, August, 1994 shows that while unemployment rates have had some fluctuation (e.g., 7.4% in 1992, 6.8% in 1993) the economy as a whole has not varied drastically. Mayo (1994) has tracked the Gross Domestic Product and found that when GDP is growing, jobs are created, personal incomes tend to rise, and the real wealth of the economy expands. Conversely, when GDP falls, or growth is slow, not enough jobs are created to handle new labor market entrants, layoffs occur, and incomes fall.

The influence of organizational culture values on voluntary retention rates was examined through survival analysis (Morita, Lee, & Mowday, 1989; Peters & Sheridan, 1988). Survival analysis provides actuarial estimates of the survival and hazard rates of new hires at increasing levels of seniority. The survival rate function indicates the portion of new employees who voluntarily stay in an organization after reaching a particular month in their employment. The hazard rate function describes how the probability of voluntary terminations changes with increasing levels of seniority. The hazard rate estimates the probability of employees leaving during a particular month of
seniority, given that they have survived to the beginning of that month.

Bennett and associates (1993) studied a sample of 297 private sector firms that considered the role that firm characteristics, work force characteristics, location, and employee benefits practices have in explaining employee attrition. The study found employee retention is most often accomplished through the extensive use of internal labor markets and deferred compensation programs such as pension plans and vacation pay based on length of employment.

Unionization was also found to reduce turnover rates because it offers employees an opportunity to voice dissatisfactions rather than quitting (Freeman, 1980; Hirschman, 1970). It has been suggested that in the absence of adequate grievance procedures, such as those generally maintained by unions, quitting and firing are the most common methods of dispute resolution (Pfeffer, 1983).

Parsons (1977), Schein (1978), and Terborg and Lee (1984) have all found support for the hypothesis that turnover rates are higher in work forces that are, on average, younger. One suggestion is that younger employees may be less likely to have personal constraints or "side bets" (Becker, 1960) that limit their mobility and that they may perceive more alternative opportunities than older employees.

The overall level of benefits and types of indirect compensation, such as pension plans or vacation pay based on length of service, have been said to be a reflection of an organization's desire to retain employees (Edwards, Reich, & Gordon, 1975). As employees become increasingly "vested" in such programs, the opportunity cost of selecting employers also increases. Further, in an environment in which health care costs are increasing so dramatically, health benefits have become especially important as tools

Reed and associates conducted a survey in the United States examining why certain behaviors prevail among women and asked whether these behaviors imply systematic inequities on the part of organizations and society. Questionnaires were distributed to a stratified sample of 500 accounting graduates of a large state university located in the midwestern United States. The population was categorized by both gender and year of graduation. The direct mailing yielded 177 usable responses representing 35.4 percent of the sample. An adaptation of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Mowday et al., 1979) was utilized to measure commitment to the employer.

Job satisfaction was not governed entirely by job considerations. Non-work demands originating from outside the employing organization impinged on a worker's time and energies, and altered general feelings of satisfaction of the work environment. Roles originating outside the employing organization included family-related roles of spouse, parent, volunteer, and housekeeper (Super, 1980). Employees may experience role overload when they attempt to reconcile and satisfy these disparate demands.

The birth of an initial child, with its associated cultural pressures, often creates a crisis of major proportions for females in professional positions. As additional children are born non-work roles become increasingly demanding for females, conflict intensifies, and job satisfaction declines (Cooke and Rousseau, 1984).

Results of a study on accountants show the importance of an individual's locus of control in explaining potential turnover which appears to be gender related. Female externals, in particular, reacted much more negatively to their existing work
environments than did internals and appeared to be more likely candidates for resignation. It may be that such women have an increased awareness of the continuing operation of subtle organizational discriminatory practices in the accounting workplace. Gender differences also explained observed differences in accountants' attitudes concerning their work environment. Females were no less committed to their organizations than were males. Nevertheless, one segment of the accounting workforce displayed more discontent than the remainder of the profession. Females (particularly those with an external orientation) expressed less satisfaction with their current positions and greater intentions to search for alternative opportunities.

Withey and Cooper (1989) conducted two longitudinal studies to find out when dissatisfied employees will respond to their dissatisfaction with exit, voice, loyalty, or neglect. They found consistent evidence that exiters were afflicted by the costs and the efficacy of their responses as well as the attractiveness of their employing organization. Loyalists were primarily affected by the efficacy of their responses, although, unexpectedly, loyalty resembled entrapment in the organization more than it did supportive allegiance to the organization. People thought more about leaving, began searches, took steps to leave, or actually left when they had low costs of leaving but thought voicing was too costly, were dissatisfied and lacked hope that the current situation would improve, didn't care about the organization, and had attractive alternatives awaiting them.

Summary

Given what is presented in the chapter, the literature reviewed clearly shows that
the subject of organization culture has drawn much attention from the business world. As products become easier to replicate and produce the only source of sustained competitive advantage is that which the individuals of an organization bring. Culture seems to be the key to having a productive environment. Turnover is the ultimate rejection in person/organization fit. By systematically examining and understanding the components of culture as they affect turnover, organizations can modify those components as necessary to form a culture that is more successful and results in reduced turnover.
CHAPTER III

METHOD

Managers can approach culture as a system of knowledge and beliefs that can be developed and shaped to impact the outcomes of an organization. Beliefs can be identified by asking individuals to comment on the norms and behavioral expectations in their specific organization. Norms and expectations reflect both the substance and continuous reinforcement of shared values. From the employee's perspective, norms and expectations are guides that provide direction, communicate what is important for "survival and success," and provide a framework for choosing appropriate behaviors. From the manager's perspective, norms and expectations are cognitive processes that can be molded to positively impact both the organization and its members.

This study was designed to focus on organizational culture. Organizational culture measures focus on the patterns of values and beliefs that lead to the emergence of structures and systems and on the behavioral norms that are communicated and reinforced by these systems and structures.

The overall purpose of this study was to determine how current members of an organization view that organization's culture as compared to former members. The method of data collection was a mail survey. The survey/questionnaire was sent to 300 individuals. Half of the targeted sample consisted of current members of an organization and the other half consisted of former members. The mail method of data collection
was selected as the method of choice because the study was designed to determine the attitudes, behaviors, values, norms and expectations that make up an organization's culture. The mailed survey procedure allowed for an efficient method of data collection given the mobility and movement of the targeted subjects.

Seashore (1987) supported the validity of the survey questionnaire procedure.

While any individual respondent's report of opinion or fact may be exaggerated or distorted in some individualistic way (i.e., unreliable), the aggregation of reports from similar respondents can average out some of the error to produce a measure for the population that is highly reliable. (p. 151)

This study was designed to assess the culture in a major consulting firm from the perspective of comparing individuals who have remained to those who have left. This industry segment was selected due to the high level of turnover traditionally associated with firms in this industry. Turnover is a major issue. According to a recent article in Fortune magazine (1995), annual turnover has been in the area of 25 percent and is a major contributor to costs in terms of recruiting, hiring, and training.

The subjects of this study were selected from a list appearing in a 1994 directory of members of the targeted organization and the organization's alumni directory. Finally, it should be noted that the Chicago office and individuals who work and/or who have worked in that office were the targeted subjects for the study. The research questions tested in the study are presented at the end of Chapter I (see page 10).

A number of researchers have designed survey instruments that purport to measure culture (Kilmann and Saxton, 1983: Schneider, 1990; Tucker and McCoy, 1988, Cooke & Rousseau, 1988). Such surveys imply that one can give a questionnaire to employees in an organization, and then from the resulting data make a number of
inferences related to the culture of the organization.

Viewpoints regarding the validity of using such dimensions to assess organizational culture values vary a great deal (Schein, 1985). O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell (1991) proposed a more descriptive approach whereby respondents use a Q-sort procedure to develop a profile of values describing their organization. Their research programs have yielded 50 specific dimensions of cultural values.

The Organizational Culture Inventory

The instrument selected for this study was the Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI) published by Human Synergistics. Other instruments were considered, but the OCI had been utilized and reported to be valid in a number of studies, and appeared to be easy for individuals to complete as a mail survey.

The Organizational Culture Inventory (Cooke & Szumal, 1993) is a self-report paper-and-pencil diagnostic instrument designed to measure normative beliefs and shared behavioral expectations in organizations. Normative beliefs are cognitions held by an individual regarding others' expectations for his or her behavior as a member of a particular group or organization. Shared behavioral expectations are those normative beliefs that are held in common by the members of a group or organization. Such expectations, standards, and/or norms specify the ways in which all members of the organization, or at least those in similar positions or organizational locations are expected to approach their work and interact with others. These behavioral prescriptions generally are viewed as an important component of group or organizational culture given that they reflect and are shaped by the basic assumptions and values held in common by members
of the organization (Siehl, 1985; Schein, 1985; O'Reilly, 1989).

The reason for developing the Organizational Culture Inventory was the need for a reliable tool that could identify pressures on organizational members to behave in dysfunctional ways as well as to measure forces within organizations impeding individual and group development programs. This need was identified within the context of research and consulting experience with the Life Styles Inventory (Lafferty, 1987), an instrument used for individual development programs by organizational change consultants, clinical and organizational psychologists, and training and development specialists. Long-term organizational change programs, intensive counseling sessions, and the statistical analysis of cross-sectional data sets consistently indicated that the Life Styles Inventory focused on a sufficiently broad set of styles to characterize behavior within a wide variety of organizational settings and that the styles differed systematically with respect to their effects on such criteria as problem-solving effectiveness, managerial performance, and individual well-being (Cooke & Szumal, 1989). At the same time, however, cultural forces appeared to be operating within many organizations in which their members exhibited the same sets of sometimes dysfunctional styles. Individual development programs designed to reduce these styles were unlikely to succeed unless these norms (and ultimately the communication, reward, promotion, socialization, and other systems reinforcing them) could be identified and altered. Thus, the Organizational Culture Inventory was developed to measure the strength of norms and expectations for the same set of styles assessed by the Life Styles Inventory.

The Organizational Culture Inventory was originally designed to measure behavioral norms in organizations operating within the North American societal context.
The inventory is now available in a number of languages and is used in countries around the world. The specific focus is to look at the behavioral norms characterizing organizations (Cooke & Szumal, 1993).

Normative beliefs and behavioral expectations can be either implicitly and/or explicitly required for people to "fit in" and "meet expectations" in their organization or subunit. At the level of normative beliefs, the strength of norms for these styles is represented by a respondent's reports regarding the extent to which the behaviors associated with each style are expected. At the level of shared behavioral expectations, the strength of these norms is represented not only by members' reports of the extent to which the behaviors are required (based on their aggregated responses), but also by the extent to which they agree about these expectations. In organizations or work groups where there is relatively great consensus along such measures, that is, where norms are highly crystallized, these shared behavioral norms reflect a strong organizational culture and well-defined patterns of underlying values and ways of seeing things (Sathe, 1983; Kilmann, Saxton, & Serpa, 1985; Cooke & Rousseau 1988). Furthermore, in such organizations, these shared norms are likely to be relatively stable and enduring as they are based on common assumptions and understandings that do not readily change.

The OCI consists of 120 statements describing the behaviors expected or required of members of an organization. These 120 statements are grouped into 10 items for each of the 12 styles. The OCI is built upon norms and expectations that must be met for a member of an organization to fit in properly. Respondents are asked to indicate the extent to which particular behaviors help people fit in and meet organizational expectations. Scale scores can range from 1-
assigned a response of "1") to 50- (if all items measuring a particular style are responded to with a "5"). Responses by members of the same organization and/or subunit can then be averaged to generate an aggregated or composite cultural profile. The OCI reportedly identifies expectations that have the most significant impact on the activities of members. The statements were designed to measure 12 different cultural styles. Some are identified as positive and supportive; others are identified as being counterproductive in nature. The instrument has been used in many organizations, including the Federal Aviation Administration, Argonne National Laboratories, and the U.S. Navy. It has also been used by a number of universities for research purposes including the University of Illinois at Chicago, Northwestern University, University of California (Berkeley), University of Tennessee, and Texas A & M University.

The descriptions of the factors leading up to and outcomes of the various culture styles are based directly on consulting and training experience with the OCI and field based research projects. One study involved more than 80 different organizations in diverse areas of the Midwest. The sample for another study involved over 150 organizations across the country.

Responses on the OCI indicate the extent to which the respondents are expected to abide by each statement. The response options are:

- (1) not at all
- (2) to a slight extent
- (3) to a moderate extent
- (4) to a great extent
- (5) to a very great extent

Scoring is a fill in the blank procedure in which the results are categorized to reflect differences in responses between current versus former employees. When plotted
on to the culture circumplex model results represent the groups perceptions of the organization's culture from the perspective of those who have stayed as compared to those who have left.

There are two underlying dimensions to the Organizational Culture Inventory (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988). The first dimension distinguishes between a concern for people versus a concern for tasks. This distinction has been emphasized consistently not only in the literature on organizational culture (e.g., Harrison, 1972), but also in the literature on group interaction, leadership, and personal orientations. The second dimension distinguishes between behavioral expectations for personal styles directed toward the satisfaction and fulfillment of higher-order growth needs versus those directed toward protecting and maintaining one's security.

Fig. 1. Comparison of task vs. people and satisfaction vs. security.
These two dimensions are translated into three general types of organizational culture. They are:

1. Satisfaction - This type of culture is characterized by achievement, self-actualization, humanistic-helpful, and affiliative styles. Norms are team-oriented emphasizing rewards, encouraging achievement, self-actualization, and supportive interpersonal relationships.

2. People/Security - This type of culture is characterized by approval, conventional, dependent, and avoidance styles. Norms are control-oriented emphasizing defensive posturing in personal relationships through political activity or approval-seeking, and adhering to rules and conventions.

3. Task/Security - This type of culture is characterized by oppositional, power, competitive, and perfectionist styles. Norms are control-oriented emphasizing use of reward scarcity and sanction or punishment to promote perfectionism, competition, hierarchical control, and oppositional styles.
Cooke and Rousseau (1988) observed that organizations emphasizing rewards, positive feedback, and flexibility were characterized by satisfaction-oriented norms. Security-oriented norms were found in organizations relying on punishment, negative
feedback, and management controls such as rules.

Consistent with the "security-satisfaction" and "task-people" distinctions, there are 12 sets of normative beliefs and behavioral expectations measured by the inventory. These are categorized into three general types of organizational styles, Constructive, Passive-Defensive, and Aggressive-Defensive. The behavioral norms are associated with these three types of cultures as follows:

1. Constructive cultures, in which members are encouraged to interact with others and approach tasks in ways that will help them meet their higher-order satisfaction needs, are characterized by Achievement, Self-Actualizing, Humanistic-Encouraging, and Affiliative norms;

2. Passive-Defensive cultures, in which members believe they must interact with people in ways that will not threaten their own security, are characterized by Approval, Conventional, Dependent, and Avoidance norms; and

3. Aggressive-Defensive cultures, in which members are expected to approach tasks in forceful ways to protect their status and security, are characterized by Oppositional, Power, Competitive, and Perfectionistic norms.

The 12 styles are organized around a circumplex model (Figure 2). This type of configurational model is characterized by a circular ordering of styles in which the distance between them reflects their degree of similarity and correlation. Styles that are conceptually similar are placed close to one another on the circumplex; styles that are more distinct or independent of one another are placed further apart. Styles on the right side of the circumplex reflect a concern for people; those on the left side reflect a concern for tasks. Styles near the top are directed toward the fulfillment of higher-order "satisfaction" needs; those near the bottom are directed toward the fulfillment of lower-order "security" needs.

Analysis has shown that outcomes generally valued by organizations such as
member satisfaction, role clarity, and motivation are positively related to the "Satisfaction" styles and negatively related to the "Security" styles. The most desirable type of culture on the OCI has been identified by Cooke & Szumal (1989) to be "Satisfaction." Factors leading to the "Satisfaction" type of culture place emphasis on people, participant decision-making, recognition of good performance, friendly relationships, people interested in each other, encouragement, pleasing others, being helpful, and exchanging ideas.

Reliability and Validity

Concern for reliability comes from the necessity for documented dependability in measurement. Synonyms for reliability are: dependability; stability; consistency; predictability; and accuracy. Reliable people, for instance, are those whose behavior is consistent, dependable, and predictable. What they will do tomorrow and next week will be consistent with what they do today and what they have done last week (Kerlinger, 1986).

Reliability is the accuracy or precision of a measuring instrument. To be interpretable, a test must be reliable. Unless one can depend upon the results of the measurement of one's variables, one cannot with any confidence determine the relations between (among) variables.

Validity is the test to see if what we think we are measuring is really what is being measured (i.e. measuring the right thing). The subject of validity is complex, controversial, and peculiarly important in behavioral research. Here perhaps more than anywhere else, the nature of reality is questioned. It is possible to study reliability
without inquiring into the meaning of variables. It is not possible to study validity, however, without sooner or later inquiring into the nature and meaning of one's variables (Kerlinger, 1986).

The datasets collected in this investigation were collected through the use of three versions of the Organizational Culture Inventory. Form I is a research prototype. Form II includes simplified instructions and eight replacement items to enhance either scale reliability (e.g., the Oppositional scale) or content validity (e.g., the Achievement scale). Also, a set of questions assessing respondents' organizational satisfaction (3 items) and stress (4 items on the inconsistency or ambiguity of norms) were added to collect data for the criterion-related validation of the scales. It should be noted the changes in Form III were limited to the norming of the circumplex used to profile scores along the 12 styles; no changes in the instructions or items were made (Cooke & Szumal, 1993).

A related point is that of variability. As Pedhazur (1982) pointed out in his attempts to explain the variability of a phenomenon of interest (often referred to as the dependent variable), scientists study its relations or covariations with other variables (referred to as independent variables).

The instrument has been tested extensively regarding reliability and validity and its appropriateness for organizational culture assessment and change (Cooke & Szumal, 1988). Numerous tests of three types of reliability (internal consistency, interrater, and test-retest) and two types of validity (construct and criterion-related) have been conducted. This analysis of datasets of 4,890 respondents have yielded results that support the notion that the inventory is a dependable instrument for assessing the normative aspects of culture. Obtained alpha coefficients support the internal
consistency of the scales; tests for interrater agreement show that significant variance in individuals' responses is explained by their organizational membership; and tests for differences across time show the temporal consistency of scale scores. Factor analysis results provide general support for the construct validity of the scales, most of which were related to both individual and organizational criteria as predicted (Cooke & Szumal, 1993).

Internal-consistency reliability was assessed on the basis of four data sets. The first is the largest of a number of single-organization data sets collected during the field testing of Form I. Respondents included 1,375 air traffic controllers and related employees, supervisors, and managers of the Eastern Region of the Federal Aviation Administration. The second data set, also based on Form I, is comprised of 650 respondents - including 553 from 18 organizations using the inventory on an experimental basis for organization assessment or development purposes. (The remaining 97 respondents were business students and participants in management development seminars.) This data set was collected by a number of internal organizational change agents and external consultants and included respondents in a wide range of positions within organizations in diverse industries and geographical locations.

The third data set, based on Form II, is from a cross-sectional study of an East Coast chain of retail stores. Scale reliability statistics were computed on data provided by 183 managers, assistant managers, and sales personnel from 44 stores within the chain. The final data set used to assess internal-consistency reliability is from 203 subunits of different organizations in the Chicago metropolitan area. Within each subunit, the inventory was completed by approximately five members who, in most
cases, were at the same organizational level, held similar jobs, and reported to the same supervisor. These datasets were collected for research purposes at the University of Illinois at Chicago using Form III of the survey (Cooke, & Szumal, 1993).

Interrater reliability and consensus was estimated using data from the consulting (Form I) and research (Form III) samples and another cross-sectional research sample. Based on Form II, this additional sample consists of subunits (i.e., usually five employees and their immediate supervisor) from 95 different organizations that varied in terms of size, function, and technology. This set is an expanded version of one used previously for validation purposes (Cooke & Szumal, 1989). Test-retest reliability was assessed through the use of data from two large processing organizations that have adopted the inventory to monitor the progress of cultural change programs. The time interval between the initial administration and the follow-up survey was 24 months for one of these organizations and 21 months for the other.

Estimates of construct validity were based on three data sets: the cross-sectional consulting sample (Form I); and the two cross-sectional research samples (Forms II and III). Criterion-related validity was assessed using a total of three data sets for two different types of analyses. First, the cross-sectional research sample (Form II) and another cross-sectional consulting sample consisting of 676 respondents from 22 organizations were used to estimate the inventory's validity at the individual level of analysis.

The internal-consistency reliability of each of the 12 scales was estimated separately from each of the three forms and within the four samples using Cronback's alpha. The sample for Form III was then split into two groups based on tenure (less than
one year versus a year or more with the organization). Separate sets of Cronbach alpha coefficients were calculated for these two groups to assess whether the reliability of the scales differs for newcomers versus organizational members with greater seniority and experience.

Interrater reliability and consensus along the 12 scale scores was computed separately for each of the three forms using one-way analysis of variance and the $n^2$ statistic with organizational membership as the independent variable and the inventory styles as the dependent variable. Significant F-ratios would confirm that the variance in scale scores is greater between organizations than within organizations and would provide justification for aggregating individual responses to the unit level. Similar to the $R^2$ in a regression analysis, the $n^2$ statistic provides an unadjusted estimate of the amount of variance in scale responses explained by the independent variable (which in this case is organizational or subunit membership) (Cooke & Szumal, 1993).

**Theoretical Reasons for Using the OCI**

A number of survey instruments were considered for this study. The Mental Measurements Yearbook (Kramer & Conoley, 1992) was consulted and from this a list of potential instruments was developed. In addition a number of publishers were contacted and based on feedback some had their instruments examined. The criteria used in selecting an instrument included; one that had been well tested for reliability and validity, one that had been used to measure culture from the perspective of various organizational groups, one that could easily be used in a mail scenario, and one that would be feasible from a cost perspective.
A number of authors that had instruments that were possible candidates for this study were called to discuss how their instrument could possibly fit. Dr. Cooke and his organization Human Synergistics were the most cooperative. They not only discussed how the OCI had been used in prior studies but also provided literature on the instrument. After reviewing the materials, reading other dissertations that utilized the OCI, and contacting authors of other studies that utilized the instrument a decision was made to use the OCI.

The theoretical framework underlying the inventory posits that Constructive styles (i.e., Achievement, Self-actualizing, Humanistic-Encouraging, and Affiliative) are positively related to desirable outcomes such as members' satisfaction, and negatively related to undesirable outcomes such as normative inconsistency and turnover. In contrast, Defensive styles, particularly those that are Passive and people-oriented, are posited to be negatively related to desirable outcomes and positively related to undesirable outcomes. Previous studies based on the inventory as well as other measures of culture support these relationships with respect to criteria similar to those reported here (Denison, 1990). Correlation coefficients consistent with these hypothesized relationships would provide support for the criterion-related validity of the inventory's scales.

Given what is reported above, the Organizational Culture Inventory, although subject to the limitations inherent in any type of survey, can be used in organizations to identify the sometimes subtle pressures placed on members to behave in defensive or constructive ways. The feedback generated by the inventory provides organizational members with a framework for discussing current behavioral expectations, identifying
norms that would be more conducive to performance, and proposing changes to communicate and reinforce the preferred norms (Cooke & Szumal, 1993).

**Works Employing the Organizational Culture Inventory**

The *Organizational Culture Inventory* has been utilized in a number of studies. Thomas (1990) looked at culture within the context of nursing and found that it is seen as a socialization process. The survey was given to nurses and nurse managers. The most significant differences between the nurse managers and the staff nurses were found to be along the Aggressive/Defensive styles. It was also found that the earlier new employees learn the informal group rules, the sooner they can feel that they "fit in" the organization. This in turn can increase their level of comfort and the likelihood of their staying with the organization. In addition to learning the culture, there must be a "fit" between the employee's personal needs and expectations and those of the organization. The *Organizational Culture Inventory* was employed to quantitatively assess the ways in which organizational members are expected to think and behave in relation to performing their work related tasks and to other people.

The aspect of culture is so important that the Joint Commission on Accreditation of Health Care Organizations now recognizes culture as one dimension important to the provision of high quality patient care.

A number of dissertations have utilized the *Organizational Culture Inventory*. In searching Dissertation Abstracts, it was found that the following dissertations have used the *Organizational Culture Inventory* since 1987:

- Thomas, Charlene Ann, *A Comparison of Organizational Subcultures in Two*
In her work, Gundry (1994) found that newcomers must learn formal role expectations as well as informal norms to which organization members adhere. She had two goals: (1) to describe the types of events newcomers experience as critical to their socialization; and (2) to test a model of how newcomers learn behavioral norms through their experience of critical incidents.

Newcomers go through a process of developing mental maps of their work settings. They work at organizing and making sense of key elements including the organization's norms and patterns of behavior. Member cognitions regarding their new roles are acquired through social learning and socialization, processes which Louis (1980) has characterized as "culture-bearing." Such processes convey information regarding organizational rewards, values, and priorities, as well as signs of consistency and conflict within the culture.
Joining an organization implies assimilation into patterns of thinking and behaving. The ways in which individuals learn culture are as diverse as the facets of the culture to which they are exposed (Geertz, 1973; Smircich, 1983). Culture has been characterized as the broadest ethnographic concept. It is not an entity but a complex social process whose content varies from tangible artifacts (e.g., insignia and badges) and observable patterns of behavior (e.g., informality, confrontation) to implicit values (e.g., perfectionism, personal growth) and unconscious assumptions (e.g., invulnerability, insecurity) difficult for even members to articulate.

The Socialization Process

The socialization of newly hired individuals in organizations is the process through which newcomers learn and identify organizational and unit values, expectations about job-related behaviors, and the social knowledge necessary to assume roles as productive members.

Socialization tactics organizations use play a key role in linking incidents to normative beliefs through their impact on newcomer interpretations. The same incident may be variously interpreted by different individuals. Although events can mean different things to different people, organizations are likely to signal certain messages more than others as a function of active efforts to manage the message.

Organizations send messages in many forms: instructions about preferred behaviors to be avoided; information about rewards and punishments; and feedback on performance. Expectations transmitted by groups reflect norms for doing work and dealing with others. In assimilating behavioral norms, newcomers process messages
from a variety of sources (from superiors, peers and others) about their own role as well as broader contextual cues regarding the organization's values and treatment of members (Hofstede et al., 1993). Messages from one group can conflict with those from another.

Gundry (1993) examined organizational experiences reported by a group of recently hired engineers and compared their views of how members are expected to think and behave with the views held by their engineering managers. One objective of her research was to gain awareness of how newcomer engineers view the firm they had recently joined. This enabled engineering managers to determine whether these individuals are receiving appropriate prescriptive messages about project team and organizational values, performance expectations, and rewards.

As individuals enter new organizations, they retrieve information that communicates role expectations and company values. This process has been variously described as acquiring a "mental map"; "sense making"; normalizing one's behavior in relation to the setting to recognize what is deviant; and the transmission of culture or learning a new value system and how to cope with it.

The concept of critical incidents refers to formative events newcomers recall which help them develop an impression about what it was like to work in the organization they had joined. Critical incidents have two primary components: description, details of the incident including persons involved, its time of occurrence in relation to date of hire; and the actual behaviors observed; the message, the informant's interpretation of the way things are done in the organization and his or her role in it. Messages from critical incidents can cue appropriate and inappropriate behavior, signal core values or reveal hidden agendas. Newcomers derive messages about the nature of
the employment relationship itself, including the trustworthiness of peers, managers, and the larger organization. Feedback from events also give the newcomer positive or negative connotations based upon their reward-orientation, supportiveness or other descriptive elements they contain.

Critical events signal to newcomers information that can be used to evaluate one's position, status, comprehension, or misunderstanding of the organization. Building upon the concept of socialization, it is proposed that critical incidents occur during the socialization process (from pre-employment onward) that new hires use to interpret the organization (as well as their unit or project team) and their position in it to understand how they should behave as organization members.

Critical incidents communicate, often symbolically, messages regarding organizational (or project team) expectations for members. The context in which an incident occurs can be a project team meeting, an interaction with a supervisor or coworker, a speech given by a divisional vice president, an important work assignment, or a training program.

As newcomers become assimilated to the new setting, in the "accommodation" phase of socialization, they seek information to clarify interpersonal roles as they establish relations with their coworkers, supervisors, and other members. They learn how to cope with resistance and conflict, and to work within the existing degree of structure and ambiguity. During this phase, new beliefs and values are adopted, and newcomers model behavior after other members. Initiation can be viewed as an observation period, and accommodation as a period in which newcomers begin to act and respond as members, erring along the way and relying on feedback from others to rectify
behaviors.

Description of the 12 Styles

The Organizational Culture Inventory categorizes organizations into 12 cultural styles. Each of the 12 cultural styles is described in terms of the norms and expectations associated with it, some of the factors leading to those norms and expectations, and individual, group, and organizational outcomes associated with each style.

The style descriptions are based directly on consulting/training experience with the OCI and on the results of field research projects designed to assess the culture of organizations and/or their sub-units. One such study involved sub-units in diverse areas of more than 80 different organizations in the Midwest; the sample for another consisted of over 150 supermarkets located throughout the United States.

As reflected in the descriptions, these analyses have shown that outcomes generally valued by organizations (e.g., member satisfaction, role clarity, and motivation) are positively related to the Constructive (satisfaction-oriented) styles and negatively related to the Passive/Defensive and Aggressive/Defensive (security-oriented) styles.

While this finding is not unexpected, it should be noted that moderate levels of certain Security styles can be associated with positive outcomes. For example, whereas very strong norms for Oppositional behaviors can be counterproductive, expectations for some constructive criticism and questioning can be functional. More generally, the negative relations between the Defensive styles (particularly the Aggressive ones) and the outcomes are weaker than the positive relations between the Constructive styles and the outcomes.
Similarly, the results reported generalize across many different types of organizations -- but more so for the Constructive styles than for the Defensive styles. Moderate levels of certain Defensive styles might be appropriate for particular organizations (especially if they are accompanied by norms supporting the Constructive styles). For example, some Conventionality is likely to be appropriate for accounting firms; some Oppositional behavior might have value in a quality control department; and norms supporting a moderate level of Competitive behavior would be expected in an effective sales organization.

The twelve styles measured by the Organizational Culture Inventory and the behaviors they promote along with their impact on an organization and its members are described in the following section:

**Constructive Norms (Styles promoting satisfaction behaviors)**

**Achievement Culture:** An Achievement Culture characterizes organizations that do things well and value members who set and accomplish their own goals. Members are expected to set challenging but realistic goals, establish plans to reach these goals, and pursue them with enthusiasm. Achievement organizations are effective, problems are solved appropriately, clients and customers are served well, and the orientation of members (as well as the organization itself) is healthy. Achievement Cultures focus on having members do things well and pursue a standard of excellence. Members are expected to set challenging yet realistic goals, establish plans to reach those goals, and carry out their tasks with enthusiasm.
Members of Achievement Cultures are expected to:
- work to achieve self-set goals
- explore alternatives before acting
- take on challenging tasks
- set moderately difficult goals
- pursue a standard of excellence
- work for the sense of accomplishment
- think ahead and plan
- take moderate risks
- openly show enthusiasm
- know the business

Factors leading to an Achievement Culture include a focus on having subordinates think and behave in achievement-oriented ways. Managers rely heavily on group meetings in which members can set goals and exchange ideas. Managers help subordinates plan their work, but are even stronger in helping them improve their work. They maintain high standards and expect members to give their best effort, and back up these expectations with a moderately high level of support and personal attention.

The focus is on effective job design which may include an opportunity for members to plan their own work, do a variety of things that require different skills, perform self evaluation, and allow them to internalize the goals of the organization.

Outcomes associated with an Achievement Culture focus on having members feel they are highly effective. They view the products and/or services offered as being of the highest quality possible. They see their organizations as being highly responsive to the changing needs and preferences of customers.

Members of these organizations are generally satisfied. They plan to stay with the organization and would strongly recommend it to others as a good place to work.

Self-Actualizing: A Self-Actualizing Culture characterizes organizations that value
creativity, quality over quantity, and both task accomplishment and individual growth. Members are encouraged to gain enjoyment from their work, develop themselves, and take on new and interesting activities. While Self-Actualizing organizations can be somewhat difficult to understand and control, they tend to be innovative, offer high-quality products and/or services, and attract and develop outstanding employees. Thinking in unique and independent ways is valued. These organizations encourage members to enjoy their work and develop themselves.

Members of Self-Actualizing Cultures are expected to:
- emphasize quality over quantity
- be concerned about their own growth
- resist conformity
- be spontaneous
- do even simple tasks well
- communicate ideas
- be open about self
- enjoy their work
- think in unique and independent ways
- maintain their personal integrity

Factors leading to a Self-Actualizing Culture include individuals at the top that promote expectations for self-actualizing thinking and behavior. Managers have a positive self-image and are concerned with their own personal development, and are genuinely interested in understanding things others see as important. Managers relationships with subordinates are democratic and allows members to translate organizational goals into individual objectives. Emphasis is on rewards rather than punishment.

Outcomes associated with a Self-Actualizing Culture center around a sense that individuals "fit-in" well. Teamwork and cooperation are important and members feel they can rely on one another when they need help. Problems are solved, mistakes do not
have to be covered up out of fear, and members are actively seeking out ways to innovate and do things better.

**Humanistic-Encouraging**: A Humanistic-Encouraging Culture characterizes organizations that are managed in a participative and person-centered way. Members are expected to be supportive, constructive, and open to influence in their dealings with one another. A humanistic culture leads to effective organizational performance by providing for the growth and active involvement of members who, in turn, report high satisfaction with and commitment to the organization. Humanistic-Encouraging Cultures are managed in a participative and employee-centered way helping others to grow and develop. Members are expected to be supportive, helpful, and interested in the suggestions and ideas of others.

Members of a Humanistic-Encouraging organization are expected to:
- show a concern for the needs of others
- involve others in making decisions affecting them
- resolve conflicts constructively
- be supportive of others
- help others grow and develop
- be a good listener
- give positive rewards
- spend time with people
- be encouraging to others
- help others think for themselves

Factors leading to a Humanistic-Encouraging Culture place a high value on people. The philosophy of these type of organizations is that the continued growth, development, and personal well-being of members will be beneficial to not only the individual but to the organization as a whole. These organizations are active in training and developing their people both formally and informally. Career planning, health and
safety, and psychological well-being are the primary concerns of such organizations.

Members with more experience are expected to coach and develop newer people, and are rewarded for doing so. Participative decision making allows members the opportunity to learn more about the organization and to have an impact on how it is run.

Attempts are made to correct rather than punish deficient performance.

Outcomes associated with a Humanistic-Encouraging Culture show members with a high level of satisfaction, they feel they "fit in" and plan to remain a part of the organization. They feel comfortable with the organization and how they are expected to act in that environment. These organizations tend to be service-oriented and place a high priority on positive relations with clients.

Affiliative: An Affiliative Culture characterizes organizations that place a high priority on constructive interpersonal relationships. Members are expected to be friendly, open, and sensitive to the satisfaction of their work group. An Affiliative Culture can enhance organizational performance by promoting open communication, good cooperation, and the effective coordination of activities. Members are loyal to their work groups and feel they "fit in" comfortably. Dealing with others in a friendly way is part of this environment. Affiliative Cultures place a priority on constructive interpersonal relationships and the personal satisfaction of members. People are expected to treat one another in a friendly and pleasant way and to openly share information, opinions, and feelings.

Members of an Affiliative Culture are expected to:

- cooperate with others
Factors leading to an Affiliative Culture focus on relationships and have a low stress level. The management style is characterized by "management by wandering around," managers and subordinates share facilities such as those for dining. After work activities are a part of being. The organization has good personnel policies that focus on benefits and job security. Jobs tend to be designed so that individuals are exposed to a variety of experiences and can use a number of different skills. Outcomes associated with an Affiliative Culture show that members have positive feelings toward the organization and would recommend it to others as a good place to work. Members have a clear understanding of what is expected of them and feel comfortable with these expectations. These type organizations are effective and benefit from the high degree of communication, cooperation, and teamwork among members.

Passive-Defensive Norms (Styles promoting people-security behaviors)

Approval: An Approval Culture describes organizations in which conflicts are avoided and interpersonal relationships are pleasant - at least superficially. Members feel that they should agree with, gain the approval of, and be liked by others. Though possibly benign, this type of work environment can limit organizational effectiveness by
minimizing constructive "differing" and the expression of ideas and opinions. Going along with others. Approval Cultures place an emphasis on conflict avoidance. Members feel they must agree with and be liked and accepted by others. This can cause problems in that differing opinions may not be expressed in order to avoid conflict.

Members of an Approval Culture are expected to:
- stay on the good side of superiors
- be nice people
- do things for the approval of others
- "go along" with others
- agree with everyone
- stay conscious of fashion
- make sure they are accepted by others
- back up those with the most authority
- set goals that please others
- be liked by everyone

Factors that lead to an Approval Culture include placing a high value on "pleasing others" both inside and outside the organization. Performance appraisals might be based less on objective measures than on how well the member gets along with others and whether the individual is "favored" by superiors. Good performance is rewarded and undesirable performance is punished. This makes subordinates feel they must "stay on the good side" of superiors. Managers generally set goals for the sake of appearances and not to be productive.

Outcomes associated with Approval Cultures tend to make members somewhat uncomfortable with their roles. They tend to be highly responsive to the immediate needs of others, but at the expense of jumping from one thing to another and losing sight of long-term goals and priorities. Members feel they must live with the problems of the organization and are reluctant to discuss them with superiors.
**Conventional:** A Conventional Culture is descriptive of organizations that are conservative, traditional, and bureaucratically controlled. Members are expected to conform, follow the rules, and make a good impression. Too conventional a culture can interfere with effectiveness by suppressing innovation and preventing the organization from adapting to changes in its environment. Conventional Cultures place value on the traditional, focusing on set rules and regulations. Members are expected to conform and maintain the status quo. Firms in banking and accounting tend to fit this model.

Members of a Conventional Culture are expected to:
- not "rock the boat"
- avoid confrontations
- make a "good impression"
- conform
- treat rules as more important than ideas
- tell people different things to avoid conflict
- accept the status quo
- always follow policies and practices
- avoid risks
- fit into the "mold"

Factors leading to a Conventional Culture focus on "pleasing" the organization as opposed to pleasing other people. Norms strongly support thinking, behaving, and dressing in the traditional way. Expectations for conventional behaviors are reinforced by a strict hierarchy, a one-way vertical communication channel and a number of rules and regulations. Rewards are minimal but mistakes are punished. The emphasis is on how things are done not on how well they are done.

Outcomes associated with a Conventional Culture are viewed as rigid and constraining. People who like to take risks and try new things find it difficult to conform and to "fit in" the organization. Members of this type organization perform tasks in a predictable and consistent manner and have trouble adapting to change.
Dependent: A Dependent Culture is descriptive of organizations that are hierarchically controlled and nonparticipative. Centralized decision making in such organizations leads members to do only what they are told and to clear all decisions with superiors. Poor performance results from the lack of individual initiative, spontaneity, flexibility, and timely decision making. Dependent Cultures focuses on control and centralized decision making. Members focus on pleasing those in positions of authority. Members do only what they're told and must clear all decisions with supervisors. There is a lack of initiative and flexibility.

Members of a Dependent Culture are expected to:
- accept goals without questioning them
- be predictable
- never challenge superiors
- do what is expected
- be a good follower
- ask everybody what they think before acting
- please those in positions of authority
- follow orders even when they're wrong
- check decisions with superiors
- willingly obey orders

Factors leading to a Dependent Culture value reliability, predictability, and obedience and are likely to establish norms and expectations for dependent behaviors. A strict hierarchy and rigid chain of command are characteristic. Some aspects of fear and intimidation may be used to get employees to conform. Supervisors tend to withhold information and only share with others what they feel they need to know.

Outcomes associated with Dependent Cultures show conflicts between an individuals personal style and that required by their employer. Stress, absenteeism, and turnover are a result of these conflicts.
Avoidance: An Avoidance Culture characterizes organizations that fail to reward success but nevertheless punish mistakes. This negative reward system leads members to shift responsibilities to others and avoid any possibility of being blamed for a mistake. The survival of this type of organization is in question since members are unwilling to make decisions, take action, or accept risks. Avoidance Cultures are promoted in organizations that fail to reward members for success and punish them for mistakes. This negative reward system leads members to shift responsibilities to others and avoid any threatening situation that might have a possibility of failure. Members are unwilling to make decisions, take action, or accept risks.

Members of an Avoidance Culture are expected to:
- be non-committal
- make "popular" rather than necessary decisions
- take few chances
- shift responsibilities to others
- put things off
- "lay low" when things get tough
- never be the one blamed for problems
- not get involved
- wait for others to act first
- push decisions upward

Factors leading to an Avoidance Culture prevail in organizations that value reliability and consistency rather than innovation, creativity, and effective adaptation to their environments. Control systems are used to deter deviations from standards. Managers in this type of organization are rarely supportive of subordinates and fail to promote group interaction and teamwork. Focus is on who to blame when something goes wrong.

Outcomes associated with an Avoidance Culture are a lack of work results being personally satisfying. Individuals are not motivated to set goals or seek promotion since
this would mean added responsibility. Role conflict is high because people receive inconsistent messages regarding what is expected. Members really don't know what is expected of them and therefore have a high level of stress.

Aggressive-Defensive Norms (Styles promoting task-security behaviors)

Oppositional: An Oppositional Culture describes organizations in which confrontation prevails and negativism is rewarded. Members gain status and influence by being critical and thus are reinforced to oppose the ideas of others and to make safe, but ineffectual decisions. While some questioning is functional, a highly oppositional culture can lead to unnecessary conflict, poor group problem solving, and "watered-down" solutions to problems. Oppositional Cultures focus on confrontation, negativism, and pointing out flaws. Criticizing the ideas of others achieves status and influence. This type of environment leads to counterproductive conflict and poor group problem solving.

Members of an Oppositional Culture are expected to:
- point out flaws
- stay detached and perfectly objective
- oppose new ideas
- be hard to impress
- look for mistakes
- oppose things directly
- question decisions made by others
- remain aloof from the situation
- refuse to accept criticism
- play the role of the "loyal opposition"

Factors leading to an Oppositional Culture include having members act as "individual control systems," monitoring the work and decisions of others and looking for problems and mistakes. Management targets areas for improvement in subordinates,
but does not tell them how to improve. There is little integration among units and resources are fought for. The environment is one of win/lose.

Outcomes associated with an Oppositional Culture are focused on conflict. Members receive inconsistent messages from different people and get conflicting orders from superiors. There is little cooperation among individuals.

**Power:** A Power Culture is descriptive of non-participative organizations structured on the basis of the authority inherent in members' positions. Members believe they will be rewarded for taking charge, controlling subordinates, and at the same time, being responsive to the demands of superiors. Power oriented organizations are less effective than their members might think; subordinates resist this type of control, hold back information, and reduce their contributions to the minimal acceptable level. Power Cultures have a rigid and control focused structure based on the authority of a members position. This type of system limits the flow of information that could be helpful in problem solving.

Members of Power Cultures are expected to:
- never relinquish control
- demand loyalty
- use the authority of their position
- stay on the offensive
- build up their power base
- personally run everything
- act forcefully
- play "politics" to gain influence
- be hard, tough
- maintain unquestioned authority

Factors leading to a Power Culture place a high value on a members ability to control others, loyalty to the organization, and effectiveness at political maneuvers.
Members rely on the legitimate power of the position and coercive punishment bases of influence over others. Group meetings are held for the purpose of maintaining control rather than to increase participation and share information.

Outcomes associated with a Power Culture are more concerned with maintaining their control than with cooperating with others. Teamwork is minimal because everyone is competing with each other. Subordinates feel they have little ownership and therefore little buy-in into solutions.

Competitive: A Competitive Culture is one in which winning is valued and members are rewarded for outperforming one another. Members operate in a "win-lose" framework and believe they must work against (rather than with) their peers to be noticed. An overly competitive culture can inhibit effectiveness by reducing cooperation and promoting unrealistic standards of performance (either too high or too low). Members look at turning the job into a contest. Competitive Cultures value winning and rewarding their members for out-performing their co-workers. The environment is one of win/lose.

Members of a Competitive Culture are expected to:
- win against others
- always try to be right
- be seen and noticed
- compete rather than cooperate
- be the center of attention
- never appear to lose
- out-perform their peers
- be a "winner"
- maintain an image of superiority
- turn the job into a contest

Factors leading to a Competitive Culture include a fast-paced environment where members try to keep ahead of each other as well as rivals in the industry. Organizations
in this type environment motivate their people by rewards and punishments. The reward systems are usually designed so that only a small number of people can receive large rewards or bonuses. Performance appraisals tend to be based on "comparative standards" in which members are ranked or rated against one another.

Outcomes associated with a Competitive Culture can sometimes focus on unrealistic performance standards. Stress is predominate due to the constant pressure to compete. Superiors who are competing against each other sometimes give subordinates conflicting messages, making it difficult for subordinates to know what they should be doing.

**Perfectionistic:** A Perfectionistic Culture characterizes organizations in which perfectionism, persistence, and hard work are valued. Members feel they must avoid any mistake, keep track of everything, and work long hours to attain narrowly defined objectives. While some amount of this orientation might be useful, too much emphasis on perfectionism can lead members to lose sight of the goal, get lost in details, and develop symptoms of strain. The focus is on doing things perfectly. Perfectionist Cultures value persistence, hard work, and the appearance of competence on the part of members. Members are expected to achieve narrowly-defined objectives, carefully monitor everything, and never make a mistake.

Members of a Perfectionistic Culture are expected to:
- personally take care of every detail
- appear to work long hours
- never make a mistake
- set unrealistically high goals
- be precise . . . even when it's unnecessary
- keep on top of everything
- do things perfectly
- view work as more important than anything else
- appear competent and independent
- persist, endure

Factors leading to a Perfectionistic Culture include managers who set up norms and expectations for their subordinates that mirror this tendency. Performance is measured objectively and in detail, and emphasizes hard work and attention to detail. Managers meet with subordinates as a group to ensure that things are under control, and to communicate the need to avoid mistakes and motivate people to work harder.

Outcomes associated with a Perfectionistic Culture focus on goals that are challenging, but at the same time difficult to attain and frustrating to those pursuing them. Members are usually required to put in an extraordinary amount of time and energy into their work, often at the expense of personal and family time. This can cause conflict and eventually lead to detrimental health and psychological well-being of the member. Over time members feel their contributions are greater than the compensation they receive, resulting in rejection of the organization's goals and leading to turnover.
CHAPTER IV
RESULTS

The findings of this study are presented in what follows. SPSS/PC software was used for the data analysis. Originally 300 surveys were mailed (150 to current members and 150 to former members). Of the original 300 surveys sent, the Postal Service returned 8 of those sent to current employees and 24 sent former employees as having the wrong address. Additional subjects were randomly selected from the respective groups and a second mailing was done. This process was repeated until a net total of 150 were sent to each of the two groups. Of the surveys returned only 1 was filled out incorrectly, and therefore was not usable. Six current employees sent notes back declining participation as well as 4 former employees. The information reported in Table 1 shows a total of 61, or a 40.67% return rate for current employees and 83, or a 55.55% return rate for former employees.

Table 1. -- Survey Participant Response Rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Number Sent</th>
<th>Number Returned</th>
<th>Percent Returned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Current Employee</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>40.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Former Employee</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>55.55%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A cover letter (Appendix 1) was included with the original survey describing the purpose of the study. After a 3 week period a second letter (Appendix 2) was sent to those who had not responded. After the second letter was sent only 3 more surveys were returned. In addition to the survey itself it should be noted that the demographics section (Appendix 3) of the OCI was replaced with one specially designed to capture data more closely aligned with the demographic analysis objectives of the study at hand. This section also allowed the opportunity for free form comments (included in Appendix 4).

Survey Results

As Table 2 shows, of the current employees surveyed 42, or 68.9% were male and 19 or 31.1% were female. Of the former employees 62 or 74.7% were male and 21 or 25.3% were female.

Table 2. -- Response by Employee Status by Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Percent Males</th>
<th>Percent Females</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Current Employee</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>68.9%</td>
<td>31.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Former Employee</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>74.7%</td>
<td>25.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings reported in Table 3 show that of the current employees surveyed 52, or 85.2% had bachelors degrees and only 9, or 14.8% had masters degrees. This is compared to former employees in which 36, or 43.4% had bachelors degrees, 45, or
54.4% had masters, and 2, or 2.4% have a doctorate.

Table 3. -- Degrees by Employee Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Bachelors</th>
<th>Masters</th>
<th>Doctorate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Current Employees</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Former Employees</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results Related to Research Question 1

A comparison of the 12 cultural styles that make up the OCI was based on responses made by current members of the firm as well as former members. The findings reported in Table 4 show that former members ranked the Conventional, Avoidance, Perfectionistic, and Self-Actualizing styles significantly higher than current members. Current members ranked the Humanistic-Encouraging style significantly higher than former members.
Table 4. -- Comparison of Former Members and Current Members

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Former Members</th>
<th>Current Members</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Dev.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanistic-Encouraging</td>
<td>3.246</td>
<td>.6323</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliative</td>
<td>3.300</td>
<td>.5779</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approval</td>
<td>2.848</td>
<td>.6969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>2.930</td>
<td>.6272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependent</td>
<td>3.090</td>
<td>.7981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance</td>
<td>2.080</td>
<td>.6423</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oppositional</td>
<td>2.459</td>
<td>.5403</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power</td>
<td>3.124</td>
<td>.8437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitive</td>
<td>2.980</td>
<td>.6975</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfectionistic</td>
<td>3.629</td>
<td>.5463</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>4.149</td>
<td>.3775</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Actualizing</td>
<td>3.463</td>
<td>.4493</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results reported in Table 5 indicate that these were cultural style differences. Five of the 12 styles were found to be highly significant with Humanistic-Encouraging having an F-ratio of 13.8518 and an F-probability of .0003, Conventional having an F-ratio of 26.1724 and an F-probability of .0000, Avoidance having an F-ratio of 8.0285 and an F-probability of .0053, Perfectionistic having an F-ratio of 19.5755 and an
F-probability of .0000, and Self-Actualizing having an F-ratio of 6.0103 and an F-probability of .0154.

Table 5. -- ANOVA by Employee Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Style</th>
<th>D.F.</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
<th>F Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Humanistic-Encouraging</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.0996</td>
<td>6.0996</td>
<td>13.8518</td>
<td>.0003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>62.5293</td>
<td>.4403</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>68.6289</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8.6392</td>
<td>8.6392</td>
<td>26.1724</td>
<td>.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>46.8724</td>
<td>.3301</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>55.5116</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.7064</td>
<td>2.7064</td>
<td>8.0285</td>
<td>.0053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>47.8685</td>
<td>.3371</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>50.5749</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfectionistic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8.5403</td>
<td>8.5403</td>
<td>19.5755</td>
<td>.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>61.9513</td>
<td>.4363</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>70.4916</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Actualizing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3430</td>
<td>1.3430</td>
<td>6.0103</td>
<td>.0154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>31.7286</td>
<td>.2234</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>33.0716</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Figure 3 a plot is presented comparing current and former members on the 12 cultural styles. Former members ranking of the cultural styles is indicated by the broken
line. Current members ranking of the cultural styles is indicated by the solid line.

Fig. 3. The OCI Styles, comparing current employees to former employees. Reprinted, by permission, from Human Synergistics, Arlington Heights, IL.

The overall rankings of current members as compared to former members shows
that while there is some difference in the individual styles (e.g. Perfectionistic and
Conventional, being ranked much higher by former members and
Humanistic-Encouraging being ranked much higher by current members) there is no
clear overall pattern of significant measure in relation to the categorized styles. There is
a slight tendency for former members to rank security needs and task orientation higher
than current members.

Results Related to Research Question 2

In looking at the 12 cultural styles from the perspective of those who are current
members as compared to those who were asked to leave the firm, Table 6 shows that
current members ranked Humanistic-Encouraging significantly higher than those who
were asked to leave. Current members also ranked the Affiliative style significantly
higher than those who had been asked to leave. Those who had been asked to leave
ranked Conventional, Avoidance, and Perfectionistic styles higher than current members.
Table 6. -- Comparison of Those Who Had Been Asked to Leave vs. Current Members

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Asked to Leave Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Current Members Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Humanistic-Encouraging</td>
<td>2.833</td>
<td>.6466</td>
<td>3.662</td>
<td>.7041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliative</td>
<td>2.960</td>
<td>.6947</td>
<td>3.403</td>
<td>.5630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approval</td>
<td>2.780</td>
<td>.6002</td>
<td>2.890</td>
<td>.4925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>3.113</td>
<td>.6221</td>
<td>2.434</td>
<td>.4936</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependent</td>
<td>3.280</td>
<td>.8436</td>
<td>2.934</td>
<td>.5459</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance</td>
<td>2.273</td>
<td>.6703</td>
<td>1.803</td>
<td>.4837</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oppositional</td>
<td>2.633</td>
<td>.5407</td>
<td>2.377</td>
<td>.4695</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power</td>
<td>3.147</td>
<td>.8210</td>
<td>3.048</td>
<td>.8410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitive</td>
<td>3.060</td>
<td>.7129</td>
<td>2.920</td>
<td>.8616</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfectionistic</td>
<td>3.720</td>
<td>.5102</td>
<td>3.136</td>
<td>.7904</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>4.113</td>
<td>.5604</td>
<td>4.199</td>
<td>.2925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Actualizing</td>
<td>3.367</td>
<td>.5038</td>
<td>3.267</td>
<td>.5029</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results Related to Research Question 3

In looking at members who voluntarily left the firm, a comparison was made between the groups that left for "push" reasons (too many hours, too much travel) as compared to "pull" reasons (better job offer). In looking at the findings reported in Table 7, individuals who left for "push" reasons ranked the firm higher in the Approval,
Conventional, Power, and Perfectionistic styles, with the largest gap in the Power style. Those who left for "pull" reasons ranked the Humanistic-Encouraging and Affiliative styles higher.

Table 7. -- Comparison of Those Who Left for "Push" Reasons vs. "Pull" Reasons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Push (too many hours, too much travel)</th>
<th>Pull (better job offer)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Dev.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanistic-Encouraging</td>
<td>3.159</td>
<td>.5303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliative</td>
<td>3.247</td>
<td>.5394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approval</td>
<td>3.044</td>
<td>.7282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>3.041</td>
<td>.6288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependent</td>
<td>3.141</td>
<td>.6465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance</td>
<td>2.150</td>
<td>.6159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oppositional</td>
<td>2.400</td>
<td>.5731</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power</td>
<td>3.416</td>
<td>.8164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitive</td>
<td>3.225</td>
<td>.6128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfectionistic</td>
<td>3.781</td>
<td>.4829</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>4.153</td>
<td>.3672</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Actualizing</td>
<td>3.400</td>
<td>.3852</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results reported in Table 8 indicate that the analysis of variance (ANOVA)
procedure performed on the 12 cultural styles yielded 7 with significant F-values. This comparison had more styles with significance than any of the other comparisons measured in this study.
Table 8. -- ANOVA by Those Who Left for "Push" Reasons vs. "Pull" Reasons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Style</th>
<th>D.F.</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
<th>F Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Humanistic-Encouraging</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5900</td>
<td>1.5900</td>
<td>5.2928</td>
<td>.0251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>17.1239</td>
<td>.3004</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>18.7139</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.1403</td>
<td>1.1403</td>
<td>5.1703</td>
<td>.0268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>12.5715</td>
<td>.2206</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>13.7119</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approval</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.0823</td>
<td>2.0823</td>
<td>4.1676</td>
<td>.0458</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>28.4788</td>
<td>.4996</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>30.5610</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.8377</td>
<td>3.8377</td>
<td>5.7944</td>
<td>.0193</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>37.7518</td>
<td>.6623</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>41.5895</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3299</td>
<td>3.3299</td>
<td>9.6802</td>
<td>.0029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>19.6074</td>
<td>.3440</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>22.9373</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfectionistic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9825</td>
<td>.9825</td>
<td>4.4749</td>
<td>.0388</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>12.5154</td>
<td>.2196</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>13.4980</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Actualizing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.7722</td>
<td>.7722</td>
<td>4.6154</td>
<td>.0359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>9.5363</td>
<td>.1673</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>10.3085</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Results Related to Research Question 4

Of the 56 current employees who responded to the question concerning being at the firm but looking, 5 or 8.9% indicated they were looking. The Humanistic-Encouraging and Achievement styles ratings were significantly higher for those not looking as compared to those who were looking. In contrast, those who were looking rated the styles Conventional, Avoidance, Power, and Perfectionistic significantly higher than those who were not looking for another job.

Table 9. -- Comparison of Means of the 12 Cultural Styles For Those Looking and Not Looking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Looking Mean</th>
<th>Looking Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Not Looking Mean</th>
<th>Not Looking Std. Dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Humanistic-Encouraging</td>
<td>3.060</td>
<td>.4336</td>
<td>3.590</td>
<td>.7765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliative</td>
<td>3.160</td>
<td>.3362</td>
<td>3.333</td>
<td>.5813</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approval</td>
<td>2.740</td>
<td>.6877</td>
<td>2.924</td>
<td>.4848</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>2.940</td>
<td>.5505</td>
<td>2.449</td>
<td>.4843</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependent</td>
<td>3.120</td>
<td>.8526</td>
<td>3.010</td>
<td>.5622</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance</td>
<td>2.380</td>
<td>.9808</td>
<td>1.814</td>
<td>.4133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oppositional</td>
<td>2.480</td>
<td>.6221</td>
<td>2.392</td>
<td>.4436</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power</td>
<td>3.560</td>
<td>.8173</td>
<td>3.065</td>
<td>.8836</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitive</td>
<td>2.800</td>
<td>.5000</td>
<td>3.012</td>
<td>.9256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfectionistic</td>
<td>3.700</td>
<td>.8746</td>
<td>3.276</td>
<td>.7290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>3.740</td>
<td>.6148</td>
<td>4.201</td>
<td>.2609</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Actualizing</td>
<td>3.100</td>
<td>.4301</td>
<td>3.271</td>
<td>.5243</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The analysis of variance (ANOVA) results related to comparing the 12 cultural styles for those who are at the firm and looking as compared to those who are not looking, shows 3 styles (Conventional, Avoidance, and Achievement) were found to be significant (see Table 10).

Table 10. -- ANOVA Results Related to the Cultural Styles for Those Looking and Not Looking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Style</th>
<th>D.F.</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
<th>F Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0977</td>
<td>1.0977</td>
<td>4.5810</td>
<td>.0369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>12.9395</td>
<td>.2396</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>14.0371</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.4602</td>
<td>1.4602</td>
<td>6.3648</td>
<td>.0146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>12.3884</td>
<td>.2294</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>13.8486</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9676</td>
<td>.9676</td>
<td>10.6325</td>
<td>.0019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>4.9145</td>
<td>.0910</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>5.8821</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results Related to Research Question 5

In talking to managers responsible for hiring, many of them stated that the number of males and females recruited to work for the firm is fairly equal at the entry level. They also indicated that the number of females who leave the firm is greater than males. This, in part, would explain the ratios presented in Table 2. In looking at the two
genders and their perspective of the culture, Table 11 shows that the greatest differences are in the styles of Approval, Conventional, Dependent, and Avoidance. Females rated all of these styles higher than males. This indicates that females see the firm as having more of a people than task orientation and more of a security need than satisfaction need. It also indicates that females clearly rate the firm as being focused on the passive/defensive styles.

Table 11. -- Means of the 12 Cultural Styles Across Genders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Style</th>
<th>Male Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Female Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Humanistic-Encouraging</td>
<td>3.443</td>
<td>.6932</td>
<td>3.367</td>
<td>.6974</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliative</td>
<td>3.348</td>
<td>.5843</td>
<td>3.330</td>
<td>.5459</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approval</td>
<td>2.759</td>
<td>.6040</td>
<td>3.145</td>
<td>.5675</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>2.636</td>
<td>.5854</td>
<td>2.940</td>
<td>.6706</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependent</td>
<td>2.928</td>
<td>.6822</td>
<td>3.275</td>
<td>.7081</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance</td>
<td>1.886</td>
<td>.5354</td>
<td>2.165</td>
<td>.6941</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oppositional</td>
<td>2.406</td>
<td>.5165</td>
<td>2.472</td>
<td>.5013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power</td>
<td>3.015</td>
<td>.8527</td>
<td>3.290</td>
<td>.7834</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitive</td>
<td>2.912</td>
<td>.7561</td>
<td>3.065</td>
<td>.8005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfectionistic</td>
<td>3.388</td>
<td>.7099</td>
<td>3.502</td>
<td>.6833</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>4.165</td>
<td>.3405</td>
<td>4.185</td>
<td>.3563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Actualizing</td>
<td>3.399</td>
<td>.4990</td>
<td>3.330</td>
<td>.4322</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The analysis of variance (ANOVA) results related to comparing the 12 cultural styles across genders indicates that the same 4 styles (Approval, Conventional, Dependent, and Avoidance) were found to be significant (see Table 12).

Table 12. -- ANOVA Related to the Cultural Styles Across Genders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Style</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
<th>F Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>D.F.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approval</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3121</td>
<td>4.3121</td>
<td>12.2142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>50.1312</td>
<td>.3530</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>54.4433</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6772</td>
<td>2.6772</td>
<td>7.1954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>52.8344</td>
<td>.3721</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>55.5116</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.4808</td>
<td>3.4808</td>
<td>7.3243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>67.4841</td>
<td>.4752</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>70.9649</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.2556</td>
<td>2.2556</td>
<td>6.6286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>48.3194</td>
<td>.3403</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>50.5749</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results Related to Research Question 6

Respondents were asked to state their age if currently with the organization, or if no longer with the organization their age when they left. The age range was from 23 to
48, with 10 respondents not reporting their age. The ages were grouped with 46 individuals in the under 31 range, 72 in the 31 to 35 range, and 16 in the over 35 range. Table 13 shows the means for the 12 styles across age groups.

Table 13. -- Means of the 12 Cultural Styles Across Age Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>30 and under</th>
<th>31 to 35</th>
<th>36 and over</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Humanistic-Encouraging</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>3.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliative</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>2.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approval</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>2.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>2.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependent</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>3.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>2.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oppositional</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>2.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>3.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitive</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>3.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfectionistic</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>3.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>4.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Actualizing</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>3.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most significant differences were found to be related to the Affiliative style where the younger groups were more closely aligned than the older group, the Power
style in which the 36 and over group gave the highest scores, the Competitive group in which the 36 and over group rated it significantly higher than either of the two younger groups, and the Self-Actualizing style in which the oldest group ranked the firm's culture significantly lower than the two younger groups.

Results Related to Research Question 7

Years of service with the firm was divided into 5 categories:

LESS THAN 1 YEAR
1 - 2 YEARS
2 - 3 YEARS
3 - 5 YEARS
LONGER THAN 5 YEARS

The findings reported in Table 14 show that of the current employees 2, or 3.3% have been with the firm 3 to 5 years and 59, or 96.7% have been with the firm longer than 5 years. Of former employees 4, or 4.8% were with the firm 1 to 2 years, 20, or 24.1% were with the firm 2 to 3 years, 18 or 21.7% were with the firm 3 to 5 years, and 41, or 49.4% were with the firm longer than 5 years.

Table 14. -- Years of Service by Employee Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>1 - 2 Years</th>
<th>2 - 3 Years</th>
<th>3 - 5 Years</th>
<th>&gt; 5 Years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Current Employee</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Former Employee</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Given that the majority of respondents in the current employee category had over 5 years of service with the firm, a comparison between current and former employees in the greater than 5 year category was made across the 12 cultural styles. The results are shown in Table 15.

Table 15. -- Means of Cultural Styles in the Greater than 5 Year Category by Employee Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultural Style</th>
<th>Current Employee</th>
<th>Former Employee</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Humanistic-Encouraging</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>3.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliative</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>3.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approval</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>2.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>2.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependent</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>3.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>2.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oppositional</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>2.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>3.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitive</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>2.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfectionistic</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>3.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>4.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Actualizing</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>3.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most significant differences found were in the areas of
Humanistic-Encouraging, Conventional, Avoidance, Perfectionistic, and Self-Actualizing styles. Current employees had a significantly higher mean score in the Humanistic-Encouraging style compared to former members who ranked the other styles higher. This finding indicates that employees with over 5 years experience and currently employed by the firm rate constructive styles higher than employees who had over 5 years experience and are no longer with the firm. The latter groups rated both the passive/defensive and aggressive/defensive styles higher.

Summary of Results

In this chapter, the research findings that were considered to be of primary significance were presented. The number of respondents was significantly higher for the former employee group as compared to the current employee group (55.55% vs. 40.67%). It was also found that the number of males, for both the current and former populations, was significantly higher than females (current 68.9% vs. 31.1% and former 74.7% vs. 25.3%). In looking at the education level it was found that former employees had significantly more advanced degrees (current 14.8% vs. former 56.6%).

Research question 1 was crafted to determine if there were differences in the 12 cultural styles across the perspectives of current and former members. While no consistent overall pattern was found to distinguish between the two groups, there were some differences found among the 12 cultural styles across groups. Former employees ranked; Conventional, Avoidance, Perfectionistic, and Self-Actualizing styles higher. Current members ranked the Humanistic-Encouraging style significantly higher.

Research question 2 was designed to determine if there were differences in the 12
cultural styles across the perspectives of current members as compared to former members who were asked to leave the firm. Current members ranked the Humanistic-Encouraging style significantly higher than those who were asked to leave. They also ranked the Affiliative style higher. Those who were asked to leave ranked Conventional, Avoidance, and Perfectionistic styles higher.

Research question 3 was crafted to determine if there were differences between those who left the firm voluntarily for "pull" as compared to "push" reasons. Those who left for "push" reasons ranked Approval, Conventional, Power, and Perfectionistic styles higher than those that left for "pull" reasons. Those who left for "pull" reasons ranked the Humanistic-Encouraging and Affiliative styles higher.

Research question 4 was designed to determine if there were differences in the 12 cultural styles from the perspective of employees at the firm who were looking for a new job as compared to those who were not looking for new employment. Those who were not looking ranked the Humanistic-Encouraging and Achievement styles significantly higher than those who were looking. Those who were looking ranked Conventional, Avoidance, Power, and Perfectionistic styles significantly higher.

Research question 5 was crafted to determine if there were differences in the 12 cultural styles across genders. Of the seven research questions tested, this was the one that yielded the most significant patterns of distinction. Females ranked Approval, Conventional, Dependent, and Avoidance styles higher than males. These styles translate into a female group that has more of a people and security orientation as compared to a male group that has more of a task and satisfaction orientation.

Research question 6 was designed to determine if there were differences in the 12
cultural styles across ages. The under 30 age group ranked the Conventional style higher than the 31 to 35, and 36 and over groups. The 31 to 35 age group ranked Humanistic-Encouraging, Affiliative, Achievement, and Self-Actualizing styles higher. The 36 and over age group ranked Approval, Dependent, Avoidance, Oppositional, Power, and Competitive styles highest.

Research question 7 was crafted to determine if there were differences in the 12 cultural styles with respect to years of service. For the current members surveyed, the majority had over 5 of years experience with the firm. As a result only this category was compared between the two groups. Current members in this service category ranked the Humanistic-Encouraging style significantly higher than former members. Former employees ranked Conventional, Avoidance, Perfectionistic, and Self-Actualizing styles higher.
CHAPTER V
DISCUSSION

This chapter contains the findings of the study and their relationship to the research questions examined. The results presented in chapter 4 are discussed. Limitations of the study are identified and presented and recommendations for further research are suggested.

The overall purpose of this study was to examine organizational culture and its relation to turnover. A consulting firm was selected due to the high level of turnover traditionally associated with firms in this industry. Finding a firm to cooperate in this study was a major challenge. A number of firms were contacted and declined to participate. This fact is particularly interesting given that one of the services a number of consulting firms sell to their clients is an analysis of the client organization's culture.

Organizational Culture was measured using the Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI) developed by Cooke and Lafferty. The OCI consists of 120 items which map 12 cultural styles into a circumplex model. The results of two groups (current and former) were plotted on to the circumplex model for comparison.

The sample of both current and former groups consisted primarily of males, 68.9% for the current group and 74.7% for the former group. Both sample populations were selected on a random basis without looking at gender. One possible reason for this disparity across genders could be the fact that while an almost equal number of females
and males are hired right out of school, the high demands of travel and long hours make it difficult for a woman who wants to have a traditional family and work in the consulting industry at the same time.

It is interesting to note the difference in the percentage of responses returned from the two groups, 40.67% for current members and 55.55% for former members. While it is difficult to project why there is such a large gap in the response rate between the two groups part of the answer may be found in what one of the current employees, who declined to participate, wrote back. It related to the fact that although the cover letter stated anonymity, he/she doubted that this was true. Another link may be that related to the level of education. Given that only 14.8% of current employees had advanced degrees as compared to 56.6% for former employees. Individuals who have gone through the advanced degree process may have a better understanding and appreciation for the work and benefits that a research effort such as that done in this study can provide.

Discussion Related to Research Question 1

Is there a difference in the way current members of an organization and former members of an organization view that organization’s culture? It was originally thought that these two groups would see the culture very differently. In conducting an analysis of variance procedure on the 12 cultural styles across the employee status variable it was found that there were differences in the cultural style dimensions across groups, 5 of the 12 had significant F-values. While former members ranked the Conventional, Avoidance, Perfectionistic, and Self-Actualizing styles significantly higher than current
members. Current members ranked the Humanistic-Encouraging style significantly higher than former members. There was no clear overall pattern of significant difference (see Figure 3 in chapter 4). Looking at the Humanistic-Encouraging culture which is part of the Constructive Styles it can be seen that current members see the firm focusing on satisfaction behaviors. A Humanistic-Encouraging culture characterizes an organization that is managed in a participative and person centered way. Members are expected to be supportive, constructive, and open to influence in dealing with others. This type culture is known for providing growth and active involvement opportunities for members who have a high satisfaction level and commitment to the organization. The Conventional cultures which former members ranked much higher than current members is part of the Passive/Defensive Styles and focuses on promoting people and security behaviors. The Conventional culture is characteristic of more conservative and bureaucratically controlled organizations. Members of these organizations are expected to follow rules and conform to the organization's policies. Former members also ranked the culture as much more Perfectionistic than current members. The Perfectionistic culture is part of the Aggressive/Defensive styles category and as such promotes a task orientation and security behavior. This type culture values persistence and hard work. Members are expected to keep track of everything, avoid mistakes, and work long hours.

Given these findings, it can be seen that current members see the culture as one focusing on satisfaction behaviors in which individuals have a high commitment to the organization and a high level of satisfaction with being part of it. By contrast former members see the organization's culture as one that focuses on security behaviors and a task orientation which is characteristic of a controlled, bureaucratic organization that
requires its members to put in long hours and meet narrowly defined objectives.

Discussion Related to Research Question 2

How do current members view the organization's culture as compared to former members who were asked to leave? Once again, current members ranked the Humanistic-Encouraging cultural style significantly higher. They also ranked the culture significantly higher in the Affiliative area. The Affiliative culture places a high priority on constructive interpersonal relationships. Members reportedly feel communication is open, people are cooperative, and they "fit in." Both of these areas are part of the Constructive style which focuses on satisfaction needs. Those who were asked to leave felt the culture was focused on the Conventional, Avoidance, and Perfectionistic areas. Former members looked at the organization as being controlling and bureaucratic in which success is not rewarded, but people are punished for mistakes. They see members as being unwilling to accept responsibility and they try to blame others for mistakes. Those in positions of power are seen as being either unwilling or unable to make decisions. The differences between current members and those who were asked to leave were found to be significant and even greater than those who had left for other reasons.

Discussion Related to Research Question 3

How do members who left the organization for "pull" reasons (better job offer) view the organization's culture as compared to those who left for "push" reasons (too many hours, too much travel, etc.). The analysis of variance results indicated that 7
of the 12 cultural styles were significant (Humanistic-Encouraging, Affiliative, Approval, Power, Competitive, Perfectionistic, and Self-Actualizing). This comparison of the members leaving for "push" versus "pull" reasons was found to have the largest number of significant cultural style variables (7).

The findings showed that members who left for "push" reasons ranked the firm's culture higher in the areas of Approval, Conventional, Power, and Perfectionistic. These components are reflective of the Defensive styles. Members who left for "pull" reasons saw the organization more closely to current members and ranked the culture as Humanistic-Encouraging and Affiliative which is more reflective of the Constructive style. From this it has been determined that those who left the organization for "pull" reasons and current members see the culture of the firm as focused on Satisfaction Behaviors while those that were forced out of the organization for "push" reasons saw the culture as one that promoted Security Behaviors in which individuals felt they had to agree with others and follow the rules of those in power even when they were wrong. Members who left for "pull" reasons may have left the organization for the very reasons that current members stay. That is, some people may like working long hours and having to travel alot while others do not. Those who like the environment choose to stay, while those that do not choose to leave.

Discussion Related to Research Question 4

Special attention was given to those individuals who were still at the firm but looking for other employment. Of the 61 responses that were received from current members, 56 responded to this question. Including this question in the survey was of
some concern as it was felt that members currently with the firm might not be as open to answering this question. The responses of those who answered this question indicated that 5, or 8.9% of those currently with the firm were looking to leave. In performing an analysis of variance procedure on this category, three variables (Conventional, Avoidance, and Achievement) were found to have significant F-values. The results indicate that current members see the culture as more Achievement oriented than those who are looking. Current members reportedly feel that the organization does things well and values members who set and accomplish their own goals.

Those who are looking see the culture as more Conventional and Avoidance driven. This is indicative of the Passive/Defensive styles where individuals see the culture as conservative and bureaucratic and where success is not rewarded but mistakes are punished. These individuals reportedly feel that the organization is structured so that blame is placed on others and innovative ideas are suppressed.

Discussion Related to Research Question 5

How do males and females view the organization's culture. There were no differences found across genders with respect to whether the members were current as compared to former. It is recognized that this finding may be due to the small percentage of respondents who turned out to be female. It is particularly interesting to note this finding since the number of males and females is fairly equal at the entry-level. Of the total number of respondents to this survey, 40, or 27.4% were female. In running an analysis of variance on the 12 cultural styles across genders it was found that 4 variables (Approval, Conventional, Dependent, and Avoidance) had significant F-values. It is
interesting to note that females ranked all 4 of these variables higher than males.

The four areas make up the Passive/Defensive styles. Females clearly see the firm as having this type culture. Females see the focus clearly being more on people than tasks, and more on security than satisfaction.

The Approval component of the firm's culture focuses on avoiding conflicts and having interpersonal relationships which are pleasant. Here members feel that they must gain the approval and be liked by others and they view that holding differing opinions may be harmful.

The Conventional person sees the culture as conservative and bureaucratic. Members are expected to conform and to follow the rules. Making a good impression is seen as important. The problem is that innovation is suppressed and adapting to changes in the environment is difficult due to the fact that it can be different from "the way things have always been done."

Having rated the Dependent component high, females appear to feel that the culture is hierarchically controlled and non-participative. Decisions are believed to be made at the top and members feel that they should only do what they're told by supervisors. The problem with this is that there is a lack of individual initiative.

Females also saw the firm's culture as Avoidance oriented. Here the problem is that people feel that they are not rewarded for accomplishments. The focus is on not making mistakes. The problem this leads to is that individuals become unwilling to make decisions for fear of punishment.

Of all the research questions this one showed the most distinguished pattern. Females clearly saw the culture differently from males, not just by the individual styles,
but by how these four styles (all ranked higher by females) were grouped within the Passive/Defensive cluster. Females appear to feel that the firm's culture is focused on people rather than tasks and on security rather than satisfaction. Unfortunately, the Passive/Defensive styles are not seen as being the most beneficial to the success of organizations.

Discussion Related to Research Question 6

Research question 6 was designed to focus on documenting age differences across the 12 styles of culture. Individuals were asked to provide their current age if still with the firm and if no longer with the firm, the age at the time they left. The ages ranged from 23 to 48, with 10 respondents not reporting their age. A grouping was done in which the respondents were placed in one of three age categories (30 and under, 31 to 35, and 36 and over). This breakdown resulted in 48 individuals in the under 30 group, 72 in the 31 to 35 age group, and 16 in the over 35 group. The results indicated that the Affiliative style was rated significantly higher by the youngest two groups along with the Self-Actualizing style. This finding indicates that the younger groups see the firm as placing a high priority on interpersonal relationships where members feel that they "fit in." The younger groups also feel the firm values creativity and helps members with respect to their personal growth.

The older group saw the culture as more Power and Competitive oriented. They saw the firm more focused on Security Behaviors than Satisfaction Behaviors. The emphasis being on the authority inherent in the members' position. Subordinates appeared to feel that they are manipulated by only receiving information that supervisors
give them to do specific tasks. The environment is seen as "win-lose" with competition among members being dominant over cooperation.

Discussion Related to Research Question 7

Finally, research question 7 was crafted to determine if there were differences in the perceived cultural styles of the firm by members who were currently with the firm or formerly with the firm with respect to the number of years of service. Years of service was divided into 5 categories; less than 1 year, 1 to 2 years, 2 to 3 years, 3 to 5 years, and longer than 5 years. These categories were set prior to the study itself. As responses were tallied, it was found that the current employee population had no respondents in the first three categories, only 2 in the 3 to 5 year group, and 59 of the 61 respondents in the greater than 5 year group. This made comparisons in any group other than the greater than 5 year group somewhat difficult. The results of the greater than 5 year category show that Humanistic-Encouraging was ranked significantly higher by current members than former members. The Conventional, Avoidance, Perfectionistic, and Self-Actualizing styles were ranked higher by former members.

Limitations of the Study

This study was limited by the following factors:

1. The number and type of responses to the survey. This was an independent study without organizational sponsorship. Originally a number of the major consulting firms were contacted with the hope of getting their support and sponsorship. None of the firms contacted were willing to participate, although
some indicated that they would be interested in receiving a copy of the completed dissertation. Had corporate sponsorship been attained, it is believed that a more accurate listing of members and former members would have been possible. In addition, certain demographic variables could have been more clearly defined and controlled before the study was initiated. One of these would have been the years of service category in which this study had the majority of current members in one group. In addition, had internal sponsorship been attained it was hoped that a high level executive, such as the CEO, would have sent a letter of endorsement encouraging individuals to participate. More efficient means could have also been used to contact individuals rather than using a generic letter from a Ph.D. student and the U.S. Postal Service.

2. The extent to which the survey respondents, for both current and former member groups, accurately represented the feelings and opinions of the populations as a whole. It is possible that individuals who did not respond to this survey whether it was because it was a mail survey or for any other reason, may have viewed the organization’s culture from a totally different perspective.

3. The extent to which survey respondents honestly and accurately responded to the survey. A number of reasons could have affected the way individuals responded to this survey. Current members may have been afraid to state their true feelings due to possible retribution. Former members may hold a grudge and as a result exaggerated their negative feelings. It is believed that this did
not happen due to the similarity of the outcomes in a number of the categories and the lack of extreme positions taken by either group.

4. The extent to which the Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI) accurately measured the opinions of both the current and former member groups. This is not believed to be a problem since the OCI had been used in a number of prior related studies.

5. The extent to which the results of this study can be applied to other consulting firms in the industry. It is agreed that as an industry consulting has higher turnover than most industries and it is believed that most firms in this industry face the same challenges when it comes to turnover.

Summary of the Results

This study looked at organizational culture from the perspective of current and former members of a large consulting firm. Former members were further segmented into reasons that tied to turnover. Categories of turnover included voluntary and involuntary types. A total of 300 surveys were delivered to the survey population, 150 to individuals that were identified as current members and 150 to members that were identified as formerly being with the firm. The response rate for current members was 40.67%. For former members the response rate was 55.55%. The large difference may be linked to the fact that current members were concerned that even while the letter that accompanied the survey stated there would be anonymity, there would be a way to track their responses back to them. Another possible explanation can be found in the response to the demographic question related to education. The results indicated that only 14.8%
of current employees had advanced degrees while 56.6% of former employees held advanced degrees. There is the possibility that those with advanced degrees can more clearly appreciate the value a study like this has.

The first area examined the overall difference between current and former members. Current members rated the firm as having a Humanistic-Encouraging type culture. They characterized the firm as being managed in a people oriented and participative way. Members felt they were expected to have a high level of commitment to the organization and in return members felt the firm would reward them.

Former members saw the firm's culture differently. They saw a more Conventional type culture. One that was bureaucratic and expected members to closely follow rules. Former members also saw the firm's culture as Perfectionistic which required members to work hard and put in long hours without getting much in return.

The second area examined the difference between current members and members who were asked to leave the firm. Again current members saw the culture as Humanistic-Encouraging. Former members who were asked to leave saw the culture similarly to the overall population of former members. In addition to the Conventional and Perfectionistic styles they felt the culture also focused on the Avoidance style. Here members were seen as unwilling to accept responsibility and were quick to blame others when something went wrong.

The third area looked at members that left the organization voluntarily and separated that group into "pull" (those leaving for a better opportunity) and "push" (those who left because they did not like what was going on). Results showed that those who left for "pull" reasons saw the culture more closely to the way current members saw the
culture. Those who left for "push" reasons saw the culture as forcing members to follow strict rules and having to agree with those in power even when they were wrong.

The fourth area looked at current members. It classified them into groups that were either looking or not looking for a new job. Members who were not looking saw the culture fitting the Achievement style. They saw the organization as doing things well and valuing its members. Those who were looking saw the culture as more conservative and bureaucratic. They felt they were not rewarded when they were successful, but were punished when they made a mistake.

The fifth area looked at the firm's culture from the perspective of males and females. Females clearly saw the culture as being more Passive/Defensive than males. They felt that they had to gain approval and be liked by others to be successful. They felt that members at the top of the organization made all the decisions and that they were expected to do just what their supervisors told them to.

The sixth area looked at the perspective of age dividing individuals into three categories (30 and under, 31 to 35, and 36 and over). The younger groups saw the firm's culture focusing on having members "fit in." The older group saw the firm's culture based more on the Competitive and Power styles.

The final area examined years of service with the firm. The demographics section was divided into five groups, however most of the current member respondents fell in the same category, greater than 5 years. Here again the current member group saw the culture as more Humanistic-Encouraging even when comparing the former member group that had more than 5 years of service with the firm. Former members saw the culture as being bureaucratic. They felt long hours were expected and that other
members were unwilling to accept responsibility.

Recommendations for Further Research

It is strongly recommended that further research be done. The high cost of recruiting and training new members as they come into an organization makes the research feasible from a financial perspective. The cost of turnover is magnified in an industry where the main asset is seen as the people an organization has.

Understanding how members of an organization see that organization’s culture is an important step in not only reducing turnover, but in making the environment the individual works in more productive. One area for further research would be to expand the work done in this study. First to see if the view of individuals in the organization’s Chicago office are shared worldwide. If so, it would make the approach to managing the organization’s culture one that can be focused on from an overall global perspective. If the study shows the results are more limited geographically it would be interesting to see if it is the organization’s local office or the view of the individuals from different geographic areas.

A second area for further research would be to expand the study to include other firms. By doing this it would allow one to identify if the cultural components are viewed on an industry and/or an organization level. This would allow organization’s that are astute enough to take advantage of its competitors weaknesses by building a strategic advantage through the use of people. After all, the consulting industry is primarily valued for the people and the intellectual capital they bring.

A third area for further study would be to use the instrument as a predictor tool.
Key executives in an organization could be interviewed to determine what type of culture they would want their organization to have. By understanding this and building a model of what type individuals are successful in this environment an instrument such as the Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI) could be given to potential new employees before they enter to determine if their beliefs and motivations "fit-in" with that of the organization.

Conclusions

This dissertation research project was designed to examine organizational culture and its relation to turnover in the consulting industry. The Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI) was used to assess organizational culture from the perspective of 12 cultural styles. In examining the overall comparisons, it was found that current members ranked the Humanistic-Encouraging style significantly higher than former members. Current members felt the organization was managed in a participative and person focused way. Their responses indicated that they were satisfied with the organization and committed to it.

Former members saw the organization as being bureaucratic. They felt the organization focused on getting tasks done and not having a concern for people. Rules were seen as strict and the organization expected individuals to work long hours. It was felt rewards were limited and risks for doing something wrong were seen as high.

In comparing current members to members who had been asked to leave the firm it was found that current members ranked the Humanistic-Encouraging style significantly higher. Those who had been asked to leave saw the organization as bureaucratic,
demanding long hours, and not offering rewards.

Individuals who left the firm for a better offer saw the culture more closely to current members, ranking the Humanistic-Encouraging and Affiliative styles significantly higher than those who left because they were unhappy. Those who left for "push" reasons saw the culture as more limiting and bureaucratic. They appeared to feel that those in authority used the power of their position to get others to conform.

In comparing current members of the firm and looking for other employment versus those that were not looking for other employment, those who were not looking viewed the organization higher in the Humanistic-Encouraging and Achievement styles. Those who are looking saw the organization as bureaucratic, demanding members work long hours, and having those in power control and manipulate subordinates.

In looking at gender, females clearly saw the culture as more Passive/Defensive than males. They appeared to feel that they had to seek approval for what they wanted to do to be liked. They also felt that the organization was controlling and did not welcome their participation.

Overall, current members saw the firm as person-centered and supportive, allowing members the opportunity to grow. Former members saw the culture as bureaucratic and not valuing people.
APPENDIX I

COVER LETTER SENT WITH SURVEY
Dear Participant,

I am currently working on a doctoral dissertation at Loyola University in Chicago. My focus is on organizational culture and the effect it has on individuals. As part of the dissertation I am surveying current as well as former members of firms in the consulting industry. I greatly appreciate your help. The survey will take about 10 minutes to complete. No participants names will be used or given to anyone. Please complete the enclosed survey and mail it back to me, in the pre-stamped return envelope, by 03/25/95. Thank you for participating.

Sincerely

George Vukotich
APPENDIX 2

FOLLOW UP LETTER SENT TO THOSE THAT DID NOT RESPOND
Dear Participant,

On 03/06/95 you were sent a survey as part of a doctoral dissertation research study on organizational culture. My records indicate that I have not received your completed survey. Your name is associated with a group of current as well as former individuals from a major consulting firm. Working or having worked in the consulting field you know how important it is to provide timely and accurate data.

Your input is valuable. Please complete the survey (it takes less than 10 minutes) and mail it back to me in the pre-stamped envelope. If for some reason you did not receive or no longer have the survey call me at 312-277-4317 and leave your name and address, I will send you a form. No participants names will be used or given to anyone. Thank you for participating, the dissertation process is a challenging one and everyone's input helps.

If you have sent in your survey as the mail has crossed I thank you very much for your input.

Sincerely

George Vukotich
APPENDIX 3

DEMOGRAPHICS SECTION OF THE SURVEY
INSTRUCTIONS: Please fill out this survey based on your feelings of the culture at the firm.

1. MALE ____ FEMALE ____

2. Are you still employed by the consulting firm: YES ____ NO ____

3. Age when you left the consulting firm (if still at the firm use current age) ____

4. Length of time you worked/have worked for the consulting firm:
   - LESS THAN 1 YEAR ____
   - 1 - 2 YEARS ____
   - 2 - 3 YEARS ____
   - 3 - 5 YEARS ____
   - LONGER THAN 5 YEARS (list number) ____

5. What was the last year in which you worked for the consulting firm (if still at their use 1994) _____

6. If currently employed by the firm are you actively looking for other employment: YES ____ NO ____

7. If no longer with the consulting firm what was the main reason for leaving:
   - FIRM ASKED YOU TO LEAVE (out counselled) ____
   - BETTER JOB OFFER ____
   - TOO MUCH TRAVEL ____
   - TOO MANY HOURS ____
   - OTHER (list) ______________________

8. What type of organization did you go to after leaving the consulting firm:
   - NONE ____
   - OTHER CONSULTING FIRM ____
   - CLIENT YOU WORKED FOR WHILE AT THE CONSULTING FIRM ____
   - FORTUNE 500 ORGANIZATION ____
   - OTHER (list) ______________________

9. Highest degree attained:
   - BACHELORS ____
   - MASTERS ____
   - DOCTORAL ____

10A. Year highest degree was attained:

10B. Bachelors area of study:
   - LIBERAL ARTS ____
   - BUSINESS ____
   - ENGINEERING ____
   - COMPUTER SCIENCE ____
   - OTHER (list) ______________________

10C. Masters area of study:
   - LIBERAL ARTS ____
   - ACCOUNTING ____
   - ENGINEERING ____
   - COMPUTER SCIENCE ____
   - OTHER (list) ______________________

10D. Doctoral area of study:
   - LIBERAL ARTS ____
   - ACCOUNTING ____
   - ENGINEERING ____
   - COMPUTER SCIENCE ____
   - OTHER (list) ______________________

ANY OTHER COMMENTS ABOUT THE FIRM'S CULTURE YOU WOULD CARE TO COMMENT ON:
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

ANY OTHER COMMENTS ABOUT THE FIRM OR THIS SURVEY __________________________
________________________________________________________________________
APPENDIX 4

FREE FORM COMMENTS RECEIVED BY RESPONDENTS
PARTICIPANTS COMMENTS

- Too Competitive, male dominated and male oriented.

- An excellent organization. I am very proud to have worked for them.

- Didn't particularly care for those who were rewarded most.

- Energetic environment, high caliber people, diversity of projects.

- The firm burns people out. People are not people there, they are machines -
total commitment is the lowest expectation. People have no control over their
careers there. If you're good at politics, you have a chance of some control.

- The culture fosters people to think they're superior to other consultant's and
generally smarter than clients. The reality is that they are more driven, more
focused on work. They work longer hours, squeeze more out of their staff and
are generally not very family or community oriented unless it's "good for the
firm" or good for their "professional image and advancement."

- The firm did not take into account the family life of staff.

- A strong culture, fostering a sense of belonging and team.

- The employees life belonged to the firm.

- Women were not given opportunities for advancement as the males were.

- Excellent training.

- Client employees often resented the firm's presence.

- Misogynistic old boys network.

- The firm tries to completely control your life.

- Too political; need to be with the right "power group."

- Marine Corp. mentality. One must prove they can take it to survive. Long,
long hours are more important than performing quality work.

- Too many billable hours were expected. It was a "sweat shop."
- White, male culture with wife not working.

- The historical "carrot" of partnership changed over the course of time becoming less stable, and more demanding.

- The firm is not a people friendly place. All that matters is making partner. If you're not on that path, you're really not that important.

- The culture puts the clients and employees first. There are continuing programs to adjust to needs of individuals.

- The culture within the firm has changed significantly within the last 5 years. Much of the change can be attributed to our changing business directions as well as responses to high levels of attrition.
APPENDIX 5

PERMISSION LETTER FROM HUMAN SYNERGISTICS
June 20, 1995

Mr. George Vukotich
2644 S. Millard Avenue
Chicago, IL 60623

Dear Mr. Vukotich:

This letter is in reference to the use in your dissertation of our survey, the Organizational Culture Inventory (Cooke, E.A. and Lafferty, J.C., Plymouth, MI: Human Synergistics, 1987, 1989).

I am pleased to confirm that you have permission to use this survey for the collection of data for your doctoral dissertation. You may include in your dissertation the copyrighted OCI profile provided that you use appropriate references and copyright notices in presenting such material.

We look forward to receiving a copy of your completed dissertation.

Sincerely,

Deborah DeFranco

cc: Robert A. Cooke, Ph.D.
    Director, Center for Applied Research Inc.

    Edgar Johns
    Vice President/Development and Research
    Human Synergistics International
REFERENCES


Cooke, Robert A. & Szumal (Hartmann), Janet L. (1989). Interpreting the cultural styles measured by the organizational culture inventory. Human Synergistics Inc.


VITA

The author, George Vukotich, was born in Chicago, Illinois on March 10, 1958. George attended both grammar and high school in Chicago, going through the public school system. In 1980 he received a Bachelor of Arts degree in Business from Northwestern Illinois University. He did this while working full-time to pay for his education. He has both a certificate from DePaul University's Computer Career Program and an MBA in finance.

His work experience includes technical as well as business skills in areas related to computer systems, telecommunications, business process reengineering, sales and marketing, and training. He has worked for and held positions in a number of firms including Arthur Andersen, IBM, Booz, Allen, and Hamilton, American Express, and First Chicago Corporation.

George has been a member of the Air Force Reserve since 1987. He is currently a captain and acts as the Accounting and Finance Officer at the O'Hare ARS, IAP, IL location.

He has also earned real estate, stockbroker, and insurance licenses and actively rehabs and manages property in the Chicago area.
DISSEPTION APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by George Vukotich has been read and approved by the following committee:

Barney Berlin, Ph.D., Director
Associate Professor, Curriculum, Instruction, and Educational Psychology
Loyola University Chicago

Robert Cienkus, Ph.D.
Associate Professor, Curriculum, Instruction, and Educational Psychology
Loyola University Chicago

Ronald Morgan, Ph.D.
Associate Professor, Curriculum, Instruction, and Educational Psychology
Loyola University Chicago

The final copies have been examined by the director of the committee and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval by the committee with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is therefore, accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Date

Director's Signature