

PENINSULA TECHNIKON

FACULTY OF BUSINESS

*The Relative Importance of Glaser, Zamanou and Hacker's Six
Cultural Dimensions in Engendering Employee Identification: A Survey
of Chinese Employees*

A mini-dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the
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Declaration

Hereby I, Gang Wang, declare that this study project is my own work and that all sources have been accurately reported and acknowledged, and that this document has not previously in its entirety or in part been submitted at any university/technikon in order to obtain an academic qualification.

Wang Gang

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Abstract

Organizational identification has been regarded as a new control strategy for modern organizations. High levels of organizational members' identification result in various benefits to organizational performance.

Among organizational theorists there exists a strong school of thought, which sees *organizational culture as the antecedent to organizational identification*.

Culture, and therefore also organizational culture, is a complex and integrative phenomenon which encompasses the values, assumptions, interactions and behaviours within a particular group. As point of departure, this research adopted Martin's (2000:26) argument that culture is best studied through the cultural artefacts, being the most visible manifestations also of deep-seated values and assumptions.

Previous studies on organizational culture-related organizational behaviours have been conducted mostly in a Western-cultural context. It was hoped, by this research, to fill the theoretical gap by establishing a link between organizational culture and organizational identification in Chinese organizations.

The relationship between organizational culture and organizational identification was investigated through a survey conducted in three Chinese organizations representing a cross section of industry.

The six organizational cultural dimensions, as identified by Glaser, Zamanou, and Hacker (1987: 192-193), formed the basis for the survey instrument, the purpose of which was to establish if, and to what extent, organizational culture,

as reflected in these dimensions in their positive manifestation, were seen as contributors to organizational identification on the part of employees.

The data analysis and interpretation showed that Chinese employees viewed all six cultural dimensions as having a positive influential power on organizational identification. This could be accepted as proof that the theories that organizational culture enhances organizational identification (Kunda, 1992; Ray, 1994; Tompkins and Cheney, 1985; Trice and Beyer, 1993) can be applied both in the Western-cultural context and Chinese-cultural context. By applying the Friedman and Wilcoxon signed-ranks tests it was established that, among the six cultural dimensions, 'Morale' and 'Supervision' were the most influential dimensions of culture according to the responses of Chinese employees; 'Information Flow', 'Teamwork' and 'Meetings' were the least influential dimensions.

As indicated, the study was limited to a survey of employees as regards the six dimensions of organizational culture. Further research would be required in order to provide more concrete and extensive proof of the role played by organizational culture in nurturing employee identification and concomitant commitment.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 BACKGROUND

As information technology facilitates the globalization of organizations, management is faced with the responsibility of adapting to a rapidly changing environment filled with uncertainty and anxiety. "In response to the anxiety of the present, organizations have increasingly turned to control systems that bring out high levels of worker identification" (Barker and Tompkins, 1994: 239). Organizational identification appears to offer many benefits for organizations, such as greater commitment, motivation and performance, organizational citizenship, extra-role behaviours, and reduced attrition (Ashforth and Mael, 1996; Cheney, 1983; Dessler, 1999; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1991; Pratt, 1998). Organizations with loyal employees also provide better service and engender more loyalty in customers, thereby improving organizational performance (Reichheld, 1993:64-73). Developing the employee's organizational identification has become an important approach for organizational consultants and managers to improve organizational productivity.

Organizational culture is regarded as a possible control device in organizations (Bullis and Tompkins, 1989; Ray, 1994; Tompkins and Cheney, 1985). Attempts to increase the employees' organizational identification are often guided by the components of organizational culture. Organizational culture exists in organizations as a complicated and integrated phenomenon composed of various facets. There appears to be general consensus among Western theorists that a direct link exists between organizational culture and employee identification.

Since organizational culture became a very popular topic in organizational behavioural studies, researchers have related it to various organizational facets.

Organizational identification as one culturally related organizational behavioural facet, has been studied by a number of researchers (Cheney, 1983; Tompkins and Cheney, 1985; Flamholtz, 1995). Their studies point to a very close relationship between organizational identification and organizational culture. Organizational culture is seen as an important influence on organizational identification. However, these theories were developed in a Western cultural context. Different national cultures could result in different organizational cultures. The Western organizational culture theories may well not apply in the Eastern cultural context. Therefore, the association between organizational culture and organizational culture-related behaviours, which may be applicable in Western organizations, may not exist in their Eastern, especially Chinese, counterparts.

There are many different perspectives on organizational culture, such as culture as “Metaphor” (Morgan, 1986:12), culture as “Objective Entity” (Pacanowsky and O’Donnell-Trujillo, 1982:115), and culture as “a Set of Behavioural Characteristics” (Schein, 1992:10). Schein (ibid:17) divides organizational culture into three successive levels, namely ‘artifacts’, ‘values’ and ‘basic assumptions’. Compared to the deeper ‘values’ and ‘assumptions’, the ‘artifacts’ level is the most visible and measurable level, and is viewed as the pragmatic means of interpreting the entire organizational culture (Martin, 2002).

Glaser, Zamanou and Hacker (1987) identified certain organizational culture components at the artefacts level in the form of six cultural dimensions. However, there have been few guidelines for organizational leaders and managers as to which of these dimensions of organizational culture are most likely to enhance the identification of employees. If the most influential organizational culture components or dimensions could be identified, then organizational leaders would have a useful reference point when planning interventions leading to organizational identification.

1.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1.2.1 Is organizational culture, as reflected in the six cultural dimensions identified by Glaser Zamanou and Hacker (1987), a precursor to organizational identification among Chinese employees?

1.2.2 If the answer to the above is positive, which of the six dimensions are the most influential in the context of organizational identification?

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF RESEARCH

The primary purpose of the study was to establish whether Glaser et al's (1987) six dimension of organizational culture would predispose Chinese employees to identify with the organization. The following objectives were set to achieve this purpose:

- To establish whether the presence of Glaser et al's (1987) six cultural dimensions, in their positive manifestations, would be conducive to enhanced identification among Chinese employees.
- To discover whether the six cultural dimensions have varying influences on organizational identification; and, if so, to establish which dimension(s) of culture most influence(s) organizational identification.

1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCESS

In commenting on the various approaches to the study of culture, McShane and Von Flinow (2001:501) state that "some scholars extract organizational values from the

narratives of every day corporate life, others survey employees, observe workplace behaviour, and study written documents". Since the research was limited to the artefacts level of organizational culture as reflected in behavioural norms, it was possible to adopt a positivist approach and apply a survey instrument which would generate quantitative data.

The survey instrument was Glaser, Zamanou, and Hacker's Organizational Culture Survey (OCS) (1987) questionnaire. The participants were asked to state if each item of the OCS would facilitate their identification (replaced by 'commitment'; see Chapter 5) with the organization. A five-point Likert-scale, ranging from 'strongly agree', to 'agree', 'neutral', 'disagree' and 'strongly disagree', was employed to survey the participant's perceptions as to each item.

A cross-section of employees from a variety of Chinese business organizations were surveyed. The research focused on the service industry, retail industry and manufacturing industry as representative of Chinese business organizations. It was further necessary that the sample be representative across the employee spectrum. Therefore, a stratified random sampling approach was adopted—employees were selected from each organization level. The total sample consisted of 235 employees.

Once the data had been captured, it was analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Various statistical methods, including graphic presentations, descriptive analysis, the Friedman test, and Wilcoxon signed-ranks test were used to analyze and interpret the data obtained from the investigation.

1.5 CHAPTER OUTLINE

This report is arranged in the following manner:

Chapter One: Introduction

The first chapter provides a brief background to and outline of the research undertaken.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

In this chapter, the different schools of thought on organizational culture and criticisms of theories have been reviewed. The chapter goes on to review the theories on organizational identification and its effect on various organizational behaviours. In the final part, previous research into the association between organizational culture and organizational identification is reviewed.

Chapter Three: Manifestations of Organizational Culture

In this chapter, an attempt is made to unravel and interpret the concept of organizational culture. The emphasis of this chapter is on the cultural interpretation approach through behavioural norms. The six cultural dimensions as an instrument to survey cultural behavioural norms are introduced as the focal point of the research.

Chapter Four: Organizational Identification

In this chapter, a more in-depth study of organizational identification and its beneficial influence on organizational behaviour is undertaken. The concept of organizational culture as a manipulation device towards organizational identification is formulated, based on the organizational cultural control theories. The important impact of the six cultural dimensions on organizational identification is explained.

Chapter Five: Empirical Research

This chapter reports on the research conducted and describes the research approach, research samples, survey instrument, and research process.

Chapter Six: Presentation of Data and Analysis

The data as obtained from the survey instrument is presented and subjected to statistical analysis. This is followed by an interpretation of the results.

Chapter Seven: Conclusions and Recommendations

In this chapter, the researcher summarises the findings and makes certain recommendations for managers as well as suggestions for further research.

1.6 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS AND TERMINOLOGY

Behavioural Norms: The ways of thinking, behaving, and believing that members of a social unit have in common; forming part of organizational cultural artefacts.

Climate and Morale: The cultural dimension involving feelings about work conditions, motivation, general atmosphere, organizational character.

Cultural artefacts: The most manifest level of organizational culture in Schein's (1992) organizational cultural model. It includes all the phenomena that are seen, heard, and felt when encountering a new group with an unfamiliar culture, and also includes the visible behaviour of the group and the organizational processes by which such behaviour is made routine.

Culture as a set of behavioural characteristics: The perception of culture that regard organizational culture as a set of psychological predispositions that members of an

organization possess, and which leads them to think and act in certain ways (Schein, 1992: 10).

Culture as metaphor: A perception that regards organizational culture as just the latest in a whole series of metaphors to be developed for understanding how organizations work (Morgan, 1986: 12).

Culture as objective entity: The perception that regards an organization as a culture and all features of an organization, including its systems, policies, procedures and processes as elements of its cultural life (Pacanowsky and O'Donnell-Trujillo, 1982: 115).

Information Flow: This cultural dimension is reflected in links, channels, contact, and flow of communication to pertinent people or groups in the organization; reported feelings of isolation or being out of touch.

Involvement: One of the cultural dimensions. It refers to input and participation in decision making; Employees feel that their thoughts and ideas count and are encouraged by top management to offer opinions and suggestions.

Meetings: This cultural dimension involves information on whether meetings occur and how productive they are.

Normative control: An attempt, through organizational culture control, to elicit and direct the required efforts of members by controlling the underlying experiences, thoughts, and feelings that guide their actions (Kunda, 1992:8).

Organizational cultural levels model: An organizational cultural model developed by Schein (1992), in which, organizational culture exists at three successive levels, artefacts, values and assumptions.

Organizational culture: A set of core characteristics that collectively govern the organization and are generally shaped by leadership behaviour and example over time. (Moerdyk and Van Aardt, 2003:167)

Organizational Identification: The degree to which a member defines himself or herself by the same attributes that he or she believes define the organization. It occurs when a decision-maker or an employee, chooses an alternative that best promotes the perceived interests of the organization (Tompkins and Cheney, 1985: 191).

Self-categorization Theory: Presented by Turner (1987), to add to social identity theory assumptions about a group member's behaviour within the groups.

Six Cultural Dimensions: An Organizational Cultural Survey Questionnaire. Developed by Glaser, Zamanou, and Hacker (1987); this contains six different cultural dimensions, including teamwork, climate-morale, information flow, involvement, supervision, and meetings.

Social Identity Approach: Social identity theory and self-categorization theory constitute the Social Identity Approach.

Social Identity Theory: Founded by Henri Tajfel (1978) to describe and understand the psychological basis of inter-group behaviour and out-group discrimination.

Supervision: A cultural dimension reflected in information by the employees on the quality of supervision; the extent to which they are given positive and negative feedback on work performance; the extent to which job expectations are clear.

Teamwork: Another cultural dimensions involving coordination of effort, interpersonal cooperation, rapport, or antagonism, resentment, jealousy, mistrust,

power struggle within sections or divisions; people talking directly and candidly about problems they have with each other.

Unobtrusive control: A new type of organizational control strategy that attempts, through subtle and systematic manipulation of the rhetorical environment, to facilitate identification of organizational interests as employees' own interests, and thereby ensure employees' decision making towards organizational objectives (Tompkins and Cheney, 1985: 179-206).

Values: Concepts or beliefs pertaining to desirable end-states or behaviours. They transcend situations guide selection, or evaluation of behaviour and events, and are ordered in terms of relative importance. (Schwartz, 1992; cites in Kreitner and Kinicki, 2001)

1.7 CONCLUSION

As previously mentioned, the focus of this research was on the six culture dimensions and organizational identification. To obtain a comprehensive perspective on the topic of research, previous research and theories about organizational culture and organizational identification needed to be reviewed.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the development of organizational culture is reviewed. Organizational culture has been viewed as 'metaphor' and 'objective entity'. The view of culture as 'objective entity' can be divided into two perspectives, that of 'the organization as a whole' and that which sees culture as 'a set of behavioural and or cognitive characteristics'. In the discussion of organizational culture as 'a set of behavioural and or cognitive characteristics', Schein's cultural model and the criticism of this model are introduced. Modern studies link organizational culture with various aspects of organizational behaviour. This chapter also introduces the theory that different national cultures may result in different organizational cultures. The chapter goes on to review the existing studies into organizational identification, which are derived from social identification theory. The existing research shows that a high organizational identification level among employees could benefit organizations. The chapter concludes by introducing the literature that attempts to establish the relationship between organizational culture and organizational identification, and outlines attempts to control organizational identification through organizational culture.

2.2. ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

2.2.1 Historical perspective

During the past two decades, a substantial body of knowledge has been accumulated regarding the nature of organizational culture. Organizational culture has been

regarded as being significant in influencing the behaviour of organizational members, and thereby affecting the productivity of organizations. Contemporary organizational theorists have paid much attention to this important aspect.

The concept of organizational culture was popularized in the early 1980s, but its roots can be traced back to the early human relations view of organizations which originated in the 1940's. Human relations theorists viewed the informal, non-material, interpersonal, and moral bases of cooperation and commitment as perhaps more important than the formal, material, and instrumental controls stressed by the rational system theorists. The human relations perspective drew its inspiration from even earlier anthropological and sociological works on culture associated with groups and societies (see Durkheim, 1964; Geertz 1973)

According to the review of organizational culture history by Parker (2000) and Brown (1998), attention to organizational culture lost ground as organizational science, and social science in general, became increasingly quantitative. To the extent that research on organizational culture survived, its focus shifted to its more measurable aspects, particularly employee attitudes and perceptions and/or observable organizational conditions thought to correspond to employee perceptions (i.e. the level of individual involvement, the degree of delegation, and the extent of social distance, as implied by status differences and the amount of coordination across units). This research, referred to as organizational climate studies, was prominent during the 1960s and 1970s (Denison, 1990). The renewed interest in organizational culture that emerged in the late 1970s resulted in texts such as "Ouchi's Theory Z" (Ouchi, 1981), "The Art of Japanese Management" (Pascale and Athos, 1982), "Corporate Cultures" (1982) and "In Search of Excellence" (Peters and Waterman, 1982). These texts suggested that a deeper, more complex anthropological approach was necessary to understand crucial but largely invisible aspects of organizational life. As Denison (1990: 11) comments, this renewed interest in organizational culture represented a return to the early organizational literature, but it went far beyond this literature in contributing

important new insights and ways of thinking about the role, importance, and characteristics of organizational culture. Furthermore, Baker (2002: 345) indicates that research on the effect of culture on organizational performance and investigations into how organizational cultures are created, maintained and changed, received greater attention; and the main difference was that organizational culture was now viewed less as a natural, organically emergent phenomenon and more as a manipulable and manageable competitive asset.

2.2.2 Varying perspectives on organizational culture

Since organizational culture became the popular interest of organizational theorists, hundreds of definitions of organizational culture have been formalized. The large range of definitions of organizational culture reflect very different understandings as to its nature. To clarify some of the issues, Brown (1998: 9) provided a classification system as demonstrated in Figure 1.1. This illustrates that there is a fundamental distinction to be made between those who think of culture as a metaphor, and those who see culture as an objective entity.



Figure 1.1 Classification of perspectives on organizational culture (Brown, 1998:9)

2.2.2.1 Culture as metaphor

Morgan (1986: 12) offered the concept that culture is just the latest in a whole series of metaphors to be developed for understanding how organizations work. Brown (1998: 19) states that, according to this understanding of culture, culture is not an objective, tangible or measurable aspect of an organization, but an intellectual device which helps us to comprehend organizations in terms of a specific vocabulary, such as norms, beliefs, values, symbols and so forth. From this perspective every aspect of an organization is a part of its culture so that debates regarding how culture influences strategy, or technology impacts on culture, are not possible. For these reasons, certain authors (Alvesson, 1993; Brown, 1998; Reed, 1990) have expressed their reservations about the use of metaphors in organizational theory. They argue that metaphors cannot be translated into precise and objective language, cannot, therefore, be rigorously measured or tested, and so cannot help in developing organizational science.

2.2.2.2 Culture as objective entity

Compared to those who regard organizational culture as metaphor, most commentators have chosen to think of culture as an objective entity. According to Pacanowsky and O'Donnell-Trujillo (1982: 115), an organization is a culture and all features of an organization, including its systems, policies procedures and processes are elements of its cultural life.

This view of 'the organization as a whole' is also resisted by many theorists, because, as Brown (1989: 9) states, "if everything is culture, then it is not possible to use the concept to frame causal explanations of other aspects of organizational activity". In fact, Brown (ibid) sees the idea that organizations are cultures as indistinguishable from the view that culture is best interpreted as a metaphor for understanding organizations.

2.2.2.3 Culture as a set of behavioural characteristics

In contrast, other theorists such as Schein (1992) have suggested that culture is best thought of as a set of psychological predispositions that members of an organization possess, and which leads them to think and act in certain ways.

Compared to the above two interpretations of culture, the view that culture is ‘a set of behavioural and or cognitive characteristics’ (Schein, 1992; Eldridge and Crombie, 1974) is widespread. This view suggests that a way to think about culture is “to view it as the accumulated shared learning of a given group, covering behavioural, emotional, and cognitive elements of the group members’ total psychological functioning” (Schein, 1992:10). Therefore, Schein (1992:12) provides the following definition of culture:

A pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.

According to Schein’s (1992) understanding of organizational culture, culture exists at three successive levels. At the most manifest level there are artefacts, which include all the phenomena that one sees, hears, and feels when one encounters a new group with an unfamiliar culture, and also include the visible behaviour of the group and the organizational processes into which such behaviour is made routine. At the next level down are the values that drive the behaviours, and at the deepest level are the assumptions about the nature of the world, upon which the values are built (Schein, 1992:17). Hatch (1997:210) confirms that Schein’s understanding of culture has become a widely influential theory and is widely applied to direct the organizational culture-related interventions.

However, there is still some resistance to Schein's model. For example, Denison (2000:5) comments that, "... the perspective has tended to glorify basic assumptions as the true domain of culture without explaining their link to the more visible levels of culture" and "... has also tended to emphasize the search for understanding at the cognitive level and to de-emphasize the more visible levels of culture". On the other hand, Schein (1992:17) believes that the artefacts level of culture is easy to observe and very difficult to "decipher", because "the observer can describe what (s)he sees and feels but cannot reconstruct from that alone what those things mean in the given group, or whether they even reflect important underlying assumptions". He goes on to state that "it is especially dangerous to try to infer the deeper assumptions from artefacts alone because one's interpretations will inevitably be projections of one's own feelings and reactions" (ibid:18). This contention is contradicted by Denison (2000:6) who argues that "... in fact, artifacts are quite easily deciphered by organizational members, who spend most of their time dealing with artifacts; changes in processes, strategies, structures, and technologies are quickly interpreted by organizational members and consume lots of their time and energy." Nevertheless, Denison (2000: 5) goes on to admit that Schein's model "presents a systems perspective on culture that allows us to understand a set of interrelated concepts".

2.2.3 Values versus Artefacts as the focus for change initiatives

The researchers Hofstede, Neuijen and Ohayv (1990:311) found "shared perceptions of daily practices" to be the core of an organization's culture change, rather than the personal employee values they had anticipated. In addition, they concluded that "the values of the founders and key leaders undoubtedly shape organizational cultures, but that the way these cultures affect ordinary members is through shared practices" (ibid:311). Consequently, "those advocating culture changes generally focus on the more observable elements of culture, namely behavioural norms" (ibid:312). As Cummings and Worley (2001:508) state, "... they (behavioural norms) offer OD

practitioners a more manageable set of action levers for changing organizational behaviours”. Therefore, research into organizational culture as an OD intervention should focus on the behavioural norms (artefacts level in Schein’s model) of culture and their influences.

2.2.4 Organizational culture and organizational behaviours

Some empirical researchers have linked organizational culture to various organizational behaviours experienced by organizational members. For example, Lindbo and Shultz (1998: 49-59) questioned the influence of an organization’s culture in promoting the socialization processes that facilitate an employee’s retirement decisions. Witmer (1997: 324-349) explored the culture of Alcoholics Anonymous and applied structuration theory in an effort to provide a fuller understanding of the ways in which organizations are created and sustained through social interaction. Likewise, Gibson and Papa (2000) conceptualized organizational osmosis as referring to an effortless adoption of the ideas, values, and culture of an organization through preexisting socialization experiences. They discovered that anticipatory socialization experiences and a common ideological grounding increased identification mechanisms among work group members. Other researchers have identified the associations between organizational culture and employee retention (Sheridan, 1992), person-organization fit (O’Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell, 1991), productivity (Kopelman, Brief and Guzzo, 1990), and executive decision-making (Gamble and Gibson, 1999). From the research conducted it appears that organizational culture permeates every facet of the organization. This led Flambholtz (1995:67) to suggest that, at the apex of strategic organizational development, is the development of an appropriate organizational culture within which management feels it can guide the organization.

2.2.5 Organizational culture and national culture

Another aspect which cannot be avoided is the possible influence of national culture on organizational culture, and the fact that different national cultures may result in different organizational cultures. Probably the most often-cited cross-cultural study is that undertaken by Hofstede. The principal purpose of Hofstede's (1991) analysis was to differentiate between the assumed "shared" values held in organizations and the "unique" values which could be identified as specific to national cultures. Based on cross-cultural comparisons of values in 53 countries, Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, and Sanders (1990: 9) proposed four dimensions of national culture: power distance, individualism vs. collectivism, masculinity vs. femininity, and uncertainty avoidance. The conceptual framework built on these dimensions of national culture, makes it possible to understand where, and to what extent, Western theories can be applied successfully elsewhere. Management can influence many elements of company culture. Indeed all organizational members exert a certain amount of influence on the corporate culture by, according to Woods (1989: 92-97), importing elements of their own national cultural traditions. National culture thus has value as a possible influence on organizational culture and, given that Chinese culture has very different attitudes, values, beliefs, habits and convictions to those of Western counterparts, it may be found that Western theories regarding organizational culture may not hold in Chinese organizations.

2.3 ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

2.3.1 Social identity theory

In the past studies on the process of organizational identification have drawn heavily on social identity theory. Social identity theory was founded by Henri Tajfel to describe and understand the psychological basis of inter-group behaviour and

out-group discrimination (Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel and Turner, 1979). Referring to the results of a series of minimal group experiments, Tajfel (1978: 72) argues that the mere act of individuals categorizing themselves as members of a certain group is sufficient to discriminate against members of another group. Triggered by Tajfel's research, Turner (1987) developed self-categorization theory, which adds to social identity theory assumptions about a group member's behaviour within the group. Social identification theory and self-categorization theory are sometimes described as the Social Identity Approach (Dick, 2001: 6).

2.3.2 Organizational identification as a major facet of social identification

Social identity theory assumes that individuals strive for a positive self-concept (Aberson, Healy and Romero, 2000: 159; Abrams and Hogg, 1988: 318). One part of this self-concept is based on their social identity, which is based on group memberships. To varying degrees, organizations are important groups with which individuals can identify. As Gossett (2002: 387) states, "... because organizational members spend so much time in the work environment, organizations are logical targets with which to identify". Hogg and Terry (2000: 125) argue that, for many people, organizational identity is more important than any other category they belong to, such as gender, age or ethnicity. Moreover, organizations are thought to want their members to see them as strong targets for identification. Barker (1998: 258) explains that an organization "...needs its members to identify with its goals, values, and objectives so that they will readily do work that helps the organization to achieve those goals, values, and objectives".

2.3.3 Organizational identification and organizational effectiveness

Many researchers have shown that organizational identification provides a basis for organizational attitudes and behaviours and has potentially beneficial effects on

organizational functioning. The more an individual identifies with an organization, the more likely he or she is to take the organization's perspective and to act in the organization's interest (Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail, 1994; Mael and Ashforth, 1992). Research has linked organizational identification to a wide variety of organizational phenomena and behaviours including organizational house organs (Cheney, 1983a), organizational commitment (Cheney and Tompkins, 1987), decision-making premises (Bullis and Tompkins, 1989), organizational socialization (Bullis and Bach, 1989), self-managing teams (Barker and Tompkins, 1994), and supervisor communication behaviours (Myers and Kassing, 1998). Collectively, this research has suggested that identification influences and is influenced by organizational processes and perceptions (Myers and Kassing, 1998: 72).

A significant body of research has viewed organizational identification as a source of managerial control (Alvesson and Willmott, 2002; Barker, 1993; Barker and Tompkins, 1994; Bullis and Tompkins, 1989). These authors believe that members who identify with the organization are more likely to make decisions in line with the goals of top management, this in a system where workers will make organizationally appropriate decisions on their own, without the oversight or control of management. Thus a highly identifying workforce would be a highly controlled workforce even though the control mechanism is not an obtrusive rule system or boss.

2.3.4 Antecedents to organizational identification

Although previous research has focused on factors related to varying levels of employee identification and commitment, such as absenteeism (Angle and Perry, 1981) and labour turnover (Porter, Crampton and Smith, 1976), much less is known concerning the antecedents of organizational identification. Some of the research, such as that of Bullis and Bach (1991) shows that multiplex network relationships were positively related to identification, leading them to suggest that identification is

influenced by the presence of social interaction. Likewise, Myers and Kassing (1998) discovered that supervisor communication competence was a significant predictor of subordinate identification, and Bullis and Bach's (1989) research shows that identification is integrally related to organizational socialization.

2.3.5 Culture as antecedent to identification

Modern researchers have tried to find an effective approach through which organizations may facilitate members' identification with the organization. Tompkins and Cheney's (1985: 179-206) theory of unobtrusive control is an example. Like Tompkins and Cheney's unobtrusive control, Kunda (1992:8) also believes that, through controlling organizational culture, the organizational identification level of employees can be enhanced.

After Tompkins and Cheney (1985) and Kunda (1992), more and more theorists have viewed organizational culture as an effective device to bring about organizational identification. Ray (1994:358) agreed that organizational identification could be controlled through the manipulation of culture.

More specifically, Trice and Beyer (1993:10) have explained how organizational culture has the power to create a collective identity in an organization. They state that, organizational members "... assume a certain social identity within the cognitive, emotional, and social frameworks provided by the culture", and that "... people develop an image of themselves as part of a particular social group with particular cultural beliefs and practices; if they move to a new social group and become part of its culture, their self-image will change". These authors (ibid:10) indicate that, within social groups that persist long enough to form cultures, members also develop a sense of a common identity. They are aware, at some level, of the similarities that they and

other members share and how this makes them different from others. They, in effect, develop some degree of consciousness and pride in what makes their group unique.

2.3.6 Organizational commitment and organizational identification

Many scholars have debated whether organizational identification, organizational commitment and organizational involvement are distinguishable. According to van Knippenberg (2000: 361), organizational identification gives a partial answer to the question of “who am I?” This cognitive aspect of identification is crucial in distinguishing it from commitment or involvement. Accordingly, commitment reflects more affective involvement, more behavioural aspects. In some studies, identification has been proven as distinct from commitment on the basis of confirmatory factor analyses (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Mael and Tetrick, 1992). However, certain researchers (Van Dick, 2001) attempted to integrate organizational identification and organizational commitment. This research will apply Siegel and Sisaye’s (1997:149) approach that “organizational identification has a direct effect on organizational commitment”. The implication is that organizational commitment and organizational identification are two separate concepts, and organizational commitment is the direct, but more obvious result of organizational identification.

2.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter has explored the numerous perspectives on culture, in particular organizational culture. It is evident that it is a complex concept. All facets are interrelated. For example, values are the basis of artefacts, but take shape through visible behaviours. The existing literature has also established and manifested a close association between organizational culture and organizational identification, and regards culture as a type of control to engender organizational identification. These studies are abundant in theory, but less abundant in empirical research. Moreover,

these theories do not point to specific facets of organizational culture; nor do they isolate facets which may, to a greater extent than others, impact on employee identification. Also, most of the research was undertaken in the Western cultural context. No similar research has been conducted in the non-Western, especially Chinese, cultural context. Therefore, whether organizational culture could still be an approach to influence organizational identification in the Asian, especially the Chinese context, remains a question.

Chapter 3 Manifestations of Organizational Culture

3.1 INTRODUCTION

After briefly reviewing the literature on organizational culture and organizational identification, this chapter will specifically discuss the manifestations and measurement of culture. A sound body of organizational culture theories has been accumulated. Among these theories, there are many strong controversies regarding the interpretation of organizational culture. Among these controversies the different approaches to deciphering organizational culture have been developed. It could be argued that every approach to cultural interpretation has advantages and disadvantages. A correct choice of a cultural interpretation approach should accord with different types of research. In this chapter, it will be argued that, through behavioural norms, an organizational culture could be effectively and efficiently interpreted. Furthermore, the reasons for adopting the six cultural dimensions as an appropriate instrument to examine culture will be explained and discussed.

3.2 ARTEFACTS AS MANIFESTATION OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

If organizational culture is viewed as an iceberg (see Figure 3.1), then the observable parts of the cultural iceberg are the artefacts, the undersurface part being the values and assumptions. The discussion should therefore go deeply into the question whether organizational culture can be interpreted by studying the observable cultural elements or whether it is necessary to explore the undersurface values and assumptions. The central contention of this study is that, through cultural artefacts, as the manifestations of organizational culture, researchers can approach the entire organizational culture. As McShane and Glinow (2001: 500) indicate, an organization's cultural assumptions,

values, and beliefs cannot be seen directly, and organizational culture is deciphered indirectly through artefacts.

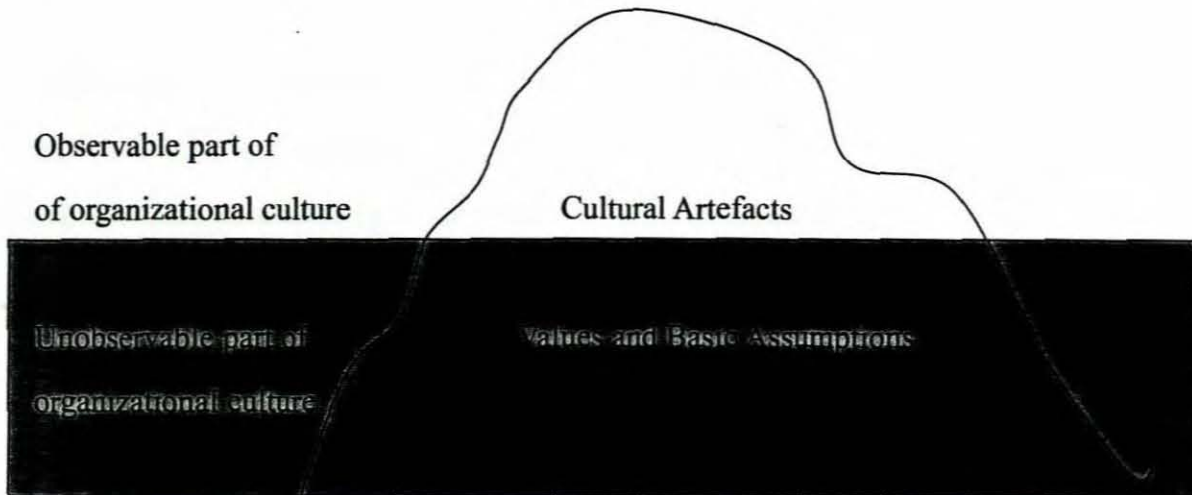


Figure 3.1 Organizational culture iceberg. (McShane and Glinow, 2001: 500)

Schein (1992) would argue that the artefacts of organizational culture are only the reflection of the adjacent nether level and that organizational culture cannot correctly interpreted at the artefacts level (see Chapter 2). This school of thought believes that cultural studies should dig directly into the unobservable beliefs and assumptions, because they are the core of organizational culture. They (Schein, 1992; Rousseau, 1990) argue that the best method of gaining an in-depth understanding of the assumptions underlying a culture would be to enter a discussion with cultural members, using the interview goals and techniques of clinical psychology to tap unconscious and preconscious preconceptions, because it is believed that, only through the approach of diagnosing the deeper beliefs and assumptions, can researchers interpret an organization's culture.

By comparison the other school believes that it is not necessary to deeply investigate the basic assumptions and that organizational culture can be understood through analyzing the cultural artefacts. Martin (2002: 26) argues that artefacts can reflect not

only the values, but also the assumptions. He regards cultural artefacts as important because they show how people interpret meanings (ibid: 26). Those meanings need not be superficial; they may reflect deep assumptions. In this way, artefacts, values, and assumptions do not necessarily reflect separable, varying levels of depth.

Martin (2002: 26) further states that, in the study of culture at the artefacts level, interpretations and meanings can reflect the expressions of espoused values of an organization. Alternatively, interpretations may reflect deeply held personal values that take the form of basic assumptions. The implication is that an artefact can reflect the company's espoused values, and also can reflect the employee's personal beliefs and assumptions. Thus artefacts could be seen as reflections of the entire organizational culture. A cultural researcher should, Martin (ibid: 26) indicates, seek deep cultural meanings through the cultural manifestations.

Perhaps one example (Adapted from McShane and Glinow, 2001: 502) can explain how artefacts reflect organizational culture. When Monsanto Company CEO, Robert Shapiro, met with American Home Products CEO, John Stafford, about a possible merger, Monsanto employees referred to him as 'Bob', whereas American Home Products executives addressed their CEO as 'Mr. Stafford'. Monsanto's egalitarian culture and American Home's hierarchical culture were soon evident to everyone in these meetings. Beside language, other artefacts, such as stories, rituals, the way employees behave, can also reflect a company's culture. Therefore, by deciphering the cultural manifestations, an organization's culture could be interpreted.

For the above reasons, it is not necessary to initiate a cultural study from the basic assumptions level, even if it is regarded as the centre of an organization's culture. As Kilmann, Mary and Roy (1985:11) indicate, "...culture can be usefully studied at any of the three levels" (these authors view assumptions as the most basic level, followed by values and artefacts respectively). Compared to 'digging into assumptions', analyzing organizational culture through artefacts is more pragmatic (Martin,

2002:28), because the former approach could cost the researchers considerable time in interviewing and gathering the qualitative information which would reveal the unobservable assumptions and values.

As has been shown, many researchers support the 'superficial' approach to studying organizational culture. Hodge and Anthony (1991: 449) state that, "culture is often difficult to pin down because it is structureless in a sense. Yet we know it exists and affects the organization. One way to further appreciate culture is to look at some of its manifestations, or things that result from it." For these reasons, "some scholars extract organizational values from the narratives of everyday corporate life, others survey employees, observe workplace behaviour, and study written documents", to decipher an organization's culture (McShane and Von Glinow, 2001: 501).

3.3 BEHAVIOURAL NORMS AS MANIFESTATIONS OF CULTURE

3.3.1. Classification of cultural artefacts

Research has identified various elements of cultural artefacts, including material objects, physical layouts, technology, language, behaviour patterns, symbols, rules, systems, procedures and programs, rituals and ceremonies (Brown, 1998: 12; Martin, 2001: 501-505).

Godfrey (2003:3) classifies the artefacts of organizational culture into three overarching categories, namely artefacts, practices and behaviours (see Figure 3.2). According to Godfrey's classification (ibid: 3), the top level of cultural manifestation consists of 'artefacts', that is those cultural features which are visible, material manifestations and symbols of the culture, such as written documents, mission statement, buildings and styles of dress. Beneath the 'artefacts', there are 'practices' which are defined as the usual manner of doing something and refers to those aspects

of culture which represent: ‘the way we do things around here’. ‘Behaviours’ are defined as ‘observable responses as reactions to the outer environment’; it includes responses to other people, systems and procedures and responses to the ‘practices’ and ‘artefacts’. Some scholars (Delobbe and Haccoun, 2002: 3) describe ‘practices’ and ‘behaviours’ as ‘behavioural norms’.

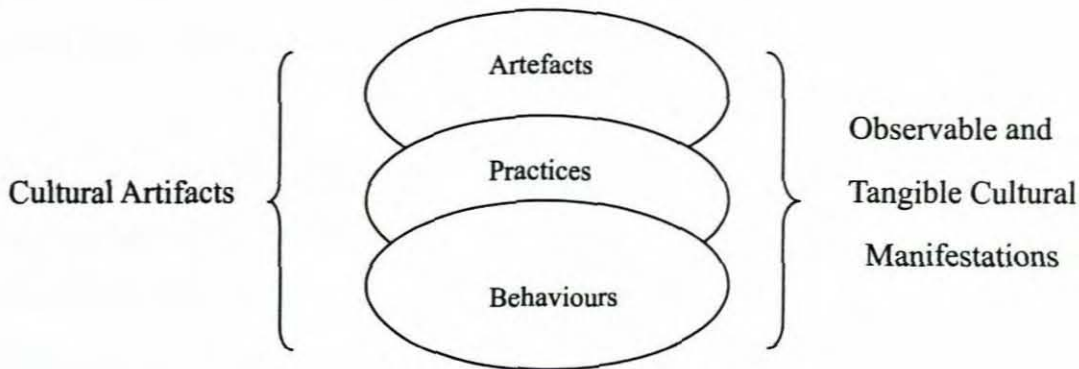


Figure 3.2 Classification of cultural artefacts. (Adapted from Godfrey, 2003:3)

3.3.2 Defining behavioural norms

Luthans (2002: 123) defines behavioural norms as standards of behavioural existence, including guidelines as to how much work to do, which in many organizations comes down to “Do not do too much; do not do too little”. Huezysnk and Buchanan (2001: 629) regard behavioural norms as expected modes of behaviour based on an organization’s values and beliefs that provide guidance for employee behaviour. Behavioural norms provide specific descriptions about how tasks are performed and how relationships are managed in an organization (Delobbe and Haccoun, 2002:4). Collectively, behavioural norms have been defined as the “ways of thinking, behaving, and believing that members of a social unit have in common” (Cooke and Rousseau, 1988:247). “Continuing to work on a problem until it is resolved” or “trying to help a fellow worker through a difficult time” are examples of behavioural patterns characterizing an organization (Meglino, Ravlin, and Adkins, 1989:425).

3.3.3. Focus and breadth in the study of organizational culture through cultural manifestations

Under the “superficial” cultural study approach, the cultural manifestations constitute the research focus to interpret the whole culture. One question still remains, namely, whether cultural researchers should study all manifestations of culture, such as physical layouts, language, symbols, rules, etc., or whether they need only to focus on one or more manifestations.

There are some controversies as to whether cultural studies need to focus on one or more cultural manifestations or broadly examine a variety of manifestations. Some researchers (Kilmann et al., 1985; O’Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell, 1991; Rousseau, 1990) use one kind of cultural manifestation to define a culture. Narrowly focused studies assume that it is sufficient to study a single cultural manifestation or very few manifestations, such as employee reported behavioural norms, because, if a wide range of manifestations were studied, the results would be largely the same.

In contrast, other organizational cultural studies (Botti, 1995; Kondo, 1990; Kunda, 1992) examine a broad range of manifestations, including formal policies, structures, informal practices, rituals, and organizational stories, as well as extensive descriptions of the physical environments in which people work. Martin (2002:22) indicates the disadvantages of this kind of broad manifestation studies:

This breadth, in the range of cultural manifestations studies, is characteristic of ethnographic research, and is more difficult to achieve when quantitative measures are used. Because it takes time to build a rich understanding of the relationships among a wide variety of cultural manifestations, breadth is achieved at the cost of being able to study only one or very few cultural contexts, thus making generalization across contexts, even if it were desired, very difficult to attain.

The implication is that cultural research relating to a broad range of organizational artefacts would be inefficient and unrealistic. The 'focus' approach might be the right choice in this situation.

3.3.4 Behavioural norms as an approach to cultural studies

Among the various cultural manifestations, the behavioural norms might be the most important subjects for research. The material cultural manifestations, such as written documents, architecture, dress, etc., may also assist researchers in understanding organizational culture, but these material cultural manifestations usually reflect an organization's espoused culture. For instance, a company puts the slogan, 'Customers are our God', on the walls of every office. This company's culture is not necessarily customer oriented. This is the culture the organizational leaders espouse, but may not be the culture the organizational members experience in practice. Using the material cultural manifestations to decipher an organization's culture could mislead the cultural investigation. To establish whether the company used as example above has a customer oriented culture, it would be necessary to investigate the daily practices and behaviours within the organization as they are experienced and reflected by its people. So, in this way, behavioural norms become the crucial cultural manifestation by means of which organizational culture could be correctly studied.

3.3.5. Behavioural norms as an intervention tool

As Gundry and Rousseau (1994: 1064) put it: "newcomers are likely to experience and incorporate as their own the more perceptible and concrete aspects of culture such as norms and patterns of behaviour". Hofstede, Neuijen and Ohayv (199: 311) conclude that the behavioural norms are the core of an organization's culture. Different organizations within the same national culture can be distinguished from the behavioural norms. Furthermore, these authors (ibid: 312) propose that, while values

cannot be easily changed, and, since organizational cultures are comprised of practices rather than values, employees can be more easily managed by changing the practices.

Collectively, the importance of behavioural norms for organizational cultural change is evident. Because of its sensitivity to change and to inter-organizations variations, the behavioural norms approach produces information particularly useful for the purpose of intervention.

3.4. MEASURING ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Glaser, Zamanou, and Hacker (1987:173-198) attempted to operationalize and measure the construction of organizational culture at the artefacts level. These researchers reviewed both management and communication research and identified six components that are central to any construction of organizational culture, namely, teamwork, climate-morale, information flow, involvement, supervision, and meetings.

Glaser, Zamanou, and Hacker (ibid:175) argued that, in order for researchers to approach questions of whether organizational cultures can be managed, or whether such cultures enhance or diminish organizational performance, "a methodology must be developed for empirically establishing what an organization's culture is at a particular point in time".

Glaser, Zamanou, and Hacker (1987: 194) define each of the six dimensions as follows:

Involvement: Input and participation in decision making; respondents feel that their thoughts and ideas count and are encouraged by top management to offer opinions and suggestions.

Teamwork: Coordination of effort, interpersonal cooperation, rapport, or antagonism, resentment, jealousy, mistrust, power struggle within sections or divisions; people talk directly and candidly about problems they have with each other.

Information flow: Links, channels, contact, flow of communication to pertinent people or groups in the organization; reported feelings of isolation or being out of touch.

Climate and morale: Feelings about work conditions, motivation, general atmosphere, organizational character.

Supervision: Information by the employees on their immediate supervisor; the extent to which they are given positive and negative feedback on work performance; the extent to which job expectations are clear.

Meetings: Information on whether meetings occur and how productive they are.

It should be noted that, in the six cultural dimensions context, climate–morale appears to refer to the state of the relationship between managers/supervisors and employees, and not to the overall organizational environment, which is a product of culture and which is commonly described as the organizational climate; further, like any standards of measuring organizational culture, each of the six cultural dimensions may be positively or negatively manifested within an organization. For instance, one may find quite positive ‘teamwork’ in one organization and, on the other hand, completely negative or no ‘teamwork’ may be found in another organization. This research will employ the positive manifestations of the six cultural dimensions in its investigation.

As mentioned, the plethora of cultural theories provides various perspectives on organizational culture. Among these different perspectives, the six cultural dimensions may be seen as a set of behavioural norms that could reflect an

organization's culture. Certainly, beside the six culture dimensions, there are many other cultural dimensions or ways of interpreting culture provided by other cultural theorists. However, the interest of the research being undertaken is whether the six cultural dimensions, in their positive manifestations, engender organizational identification.

Furthermore, Glaser, Zamanou, and Hacker's (1987) six cultural dimensions are themes on how organizational members interact with one another. This endows them with more significant meaning as an organizational culture examining instrument since around the interactions of organizational members the other cultural components, such as rituals and stories (Glaser, Zamanou, and Hacker, 1987: 174) develop and evolve, and the cultural values and assumptions are learned, transmitted and spread. The six cultural dimensions may also be seen as an instrument to manage culture, to examine the potential contribution of organizational culture to other organizational facets, and to improve organizational performance. As Glaser, Zamanou, and Hacker (1987: 174-175) indicate, the six cultural dimensions are developed for empirically establishing what an organization's culture is at a particular point in time, before researchers can approach the questions of whether organizational culture can be managed, or whether organizational culture contributes to or reduces organizational performance.

3.5 CONCLUSION

In this research, the six cultural dimensions are preferred as an instrument by which to measure organizational culture. The reasons are, as discussed, that, compared to 'digging into values and assumptions', the six cultural dimensions that reflect organizational culture at the artefacts level constitute a more efficient and more pragmatic cultural measurement approach. Secondly, the six cultural dimensions are

specifically focused on one manifestation of organizational culture, namely, behavioural norms. Studies involving a number of cultural contexts, and which broadly investigate all cultural manifestations are obviously time-consuming and unrealistic. Placing the focus on one manifestation could be a realistic approach for cross-context cultural studies. Moreover, the six cultural dimensions are not only designed to interpret organizational culture, but also could be a cultural management tool which potentially relates to other facets of organizational behaviour, for example, organizational identification.

Chapter 4 Organizational identification

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter Three, behavioural norms were identified as an effective means of understanding organizational culture. Through studying the day-to-day practices in organizations, the underlying values can be interpreted. Behavioural norms do not only have the function of manifesting organizational culture; they are also the means by which the organizational goals and values are transmitted and spread. It could be postulated that, through transmission, organizational members will complete their identification processes with the organization. This chapter will discuss the processes of organizational identification and how these processes may be controlled by way of organizational culture, and specifically by the behavioural norms.

4.2 UNDERSTANDING ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

4.2.1 Defining organizational identification

As mentioned in Chapter 2, studies on the process of organizational identification have drawn heavily on social identity theory. Organizational identification can be seen as essentially a subtype of social identification. Deriving from social identification theory, Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail (1994: 39) define organizational identification as “the degree to which a member defines himself or herself by the same attributes that he or she believes defines the organization”. This definition seems to narrow organizational identification into a stable organizational phenomenon that could be described as a product of organizational processes, and neglects its dynamic nature. Organizational identification is not only a product; it is also an ongoing process.

In comparison, Tompkins and Cheney's (1985: 189) definition of organizational identification stresses that the employee's identification with an organization is not a stable 'degree'; it is a dynamic ongoing process in which individuals choose between a wide variety of possible identification targets in order to determine their role and behaviour within a given situation (ibid: 191). These authors (ibid: 180) define organizational identification as that which "...occurs when a decision-maker, an employee, chooses an alternative that best promotes the perceived interests of the organization".

4.2.2 Foci of organizational identification

Research has demonstrated that organizational members have a wide variety of simultaneously relevant identification targets to choose from other than the organization, Van Knippenberg and Van Schie (2000: 139-141) have distinguished different points of focus for identification. They are: identification with the own career, identification with the working unit or group, identification with the organization as a whole, and identification with the occupation or occupational group. Organizations always want members to identify with the organization as a whole more than with the other possible areas of focus. If an individual identifies more with his or her own career, that means he or she would, in decision-making, consider benefits to own career development, such as promotion, salary, premium, rather than benefits to the organization. Similarly, if an individual identifies more with the working unit or group, he or she would care more about the group's goals and objectives, even if these goals or objectives conflicted with organizational goals. For this reason, as Gossett (2002:387) points out, organizational leadership tries to establish the organization as a dominant identification target for its employees.

4.2.3 Organizational identification as an ongoing process

Since there are many possible targets with which the employees could identify, organizational identification is an ongoing process. Simon (1976: 205) views the concept of identification as central to understanding the ongoing process of decision making in an organization. He describes identification as a key phenomenon in an organization because the process of identifying leads the organization member to select a particular alternative, to choose one course of action over others (ibid: 205). The ongoing process of identity-development involves, among other things, the selection and management of particular commitments-commitments which are made toward actual or potential targets/loci of identification (Cheney and Tompkins, 1987: 7). Therefore, organizational identification is a process during which members choose one of the targets for identification when they need to make a decision. In this sense, a high level of identification with the organization reduces the range of decision making consistent with non-organizational interests.

4.2.4 Benefits of organizational identification

From an organizational (or managerial) perspective, member identification is beneficial in that it guarantees that decisions will be consistent with organizational objectives even in the absence of external stimuli (Simon, 1976, in Tompkins and Cheney, 1985:19). Typically, individuals sacrifice a degree of decisional autonomy when they participate in organizational life. They literally decide to accept certain organizational premises and approach work-related decisions from an organizational standpoint (ibid:19). In this way, the member acquires an 'organization personality'; he or she finds an area of acceptance within which to behave organizationally and accepts the values and goals of the organization as relevant to decision making.

Besides the benefits in the form of the member's decision making, organizational identification brings, as mentioned in Chapter 2, various benefits to organizations,

such as low turnover rate, loyalty and productivity. Scholars have widely examined the positive organizational impact of having extremely identified members and the negative impact of having extremely non-identified members. Low member identification has been shown to be harmful to the organization in a variety of ways. It has been associated with communicative isolation (Kakabadse, 1986:34), negative member attitudes toward the organization (DiSanza and Bullis, 1999:489), and inappropriate behaviours (Bullis, 1991:103).

4.3 ENGENDERING ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

With a view to the benefits of high levels of organizational identification by employees, scholars have attempted to find an effective means of improving organizational identification. It is not easy to instil identification within the organization, instead of identification with other targets, such as career or working group, or emanative entities such as a trade union. The traditional organizational control methods would have little effect on organizational identification. Through traditional control methods, such as pay for performance, organizations could perhaps motivate employees to work towards the organization's objectives or relate employees' interests to the organization's interests to some extent, but the fact is that employees would still be interested in their own gain or loss, not the organization's gain or loss. Where organizations cannot satisfy employee's self interests, it may result in high turnover rates, disloyalty, individualism or even collectivism. As a result, modern organizational theorists were intent on finding a new kind of control method to bind employees' interests with organizational interests as a whole, and make employees commit to the organization's interests, not for the benefits organization could give them, but for the emotional, psychological and mental congruence with the organization.

4.4 CONTROL THROUGH ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

4.4.1 Unobtrusive control

As mentioned in an earlier chapter, organizations are seeking a new, post-bureaucratic method to control employee's physical and mental behaviour. According to Tompkins and Cheney (1985:180), organizational control methods may be categorised into four types, namely simple, technical, bureaucratic and concertive. These authors believe that organizations need to transform the control method from simple, technical and bureaucratic to concertive. In the concertive organization, the explicit written rules and regulations are largely replaced by a common understanding of values, objectives, and means of achievement, along with a deep appreciation for the organization's "mission" (Tompkins and Cheney, 1985:184). To achieve this concertive organization, Tompkins and Cheney (1985:204-207) formulated a new type of control strategy, namely, unobtrusive control. Unobtrusive control attempts, through "subtle and systematic manipulation of the rhetorical environment", to facilitate identification of organizational interests as employees' own interests, and thereby to ensure employees' decision making towards organizational objective (ibid: 205). The essence of unobtrusive control may be seen as making employees embrace organizational values and feel a oneness with the organization. However, Tompkins and Cheney (1985) describe only a prospect panorama of unobtrusive control. They do not articulate how organizations could achieve this form of control.

4.4.2. Normative control

Another control method, normative control, was developed by Kunda (1992:8). As in unobtrusive control, organizations engaged in normative control, "no longer require strict and rigid external control" (ibid:10). Instead, productive work is the result of a combination of self-direction, initiative, and emotional attachment, and ultimately

combines the organizational interest in productivity with the employees' personal interest in growth and maturity (ibid:11). In plain words, employees have identified with the organization and are thereby committed to it. Normative control is an attempt to elicit and direct the required efforts of members by controlling the underlying experiences, thoughts, and feelings that guide their actions. "With normative control, members act in the best interest of the company, not because they are physically coerced, nor purely from an instrumental concern with economic rewards and sanctions. It is not just their behaviours and activities that are specified, evaluated, and rewarded or punished. Rather, they are driven by internal commitment, strong identification with company goals, and intrinsic satisfaction from work" (ibid:11). As Kunda (ibid:11) indicates, under normative control it is the employee's self "that ineffable source of subjective experience" that is claimed in the name of the corporate interest. It may be concluded that the core of normative control is similar to unobtrusive control in that it brings greater identification with the organization through indirect means.

More importantly, unlike Tompkins and Cheney (1985), Kunda (1992:8) clearly indicates that normative control is merely control by culture. This author (ibid:10) argues that strong cultures engender an intense emotional attachment and the internalization of "clearly enunciated company values" that often replace formal structures. Moreover, as Peters and Waterman (1982:81) state, individualism is preserved; for employees, the companies "provide the opportunity to stick out, yet combine it with a philosophy and system of beliefs...that provide the transcending meaning—a wonderful combination". The purpose of normative control is to produce ideal employees who "have internalized the organization's goal and values—its culture—into their cognitive and affective make-up" (Kunda, 1992: 10). These employees have psychologically identified organizational goals and values as their own goals and values and make decisions towards the organization's interests (organizational identification).

4.5. ENGENDERING ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION THROUGH ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

4.5.1 Manipulating cultural components to enhance organizational identification

As indicated earlier, Ray (1994) agrees that ensuring a certain type of culture results in organizational identification. In Ray's (ibid:358) perception, corporate culture can be regarded as a control device. Using Johnson and Scholes's (1993) concept of culture as 'recipe', Ray (1994:358) states that each accentuated component of a corporation's culture has an important purpose and, in one way or another, may promote a sense of belongingness (i.e. identification) in all participants. It follows that managers should learn to control a set of cultural components in such a way as to inculcate in employees a strongly ingrained sense of the company's values. If management meets this challenge, "employees identify more completely with the firm and see their own interests as congruent with it" (Athos and Pascale, 1981; in Ray, 1994:358). Ray (1994:359) even sees an organizational culture which engenders identification as the ultimate form of control—"the latest strategy of control implies that the top management team aims to have individuals possess direct ties to the values and goals of dominant elites in order to activate the emotion and sentiment which might lead to devotion, loyalty and commitment to the company" (ibid:362). Modern organizations could, through appropriate cultural devices, induce or facilitate complete employee identification with the organization, so that the behaviour of employees becomes congruent with the organizations' requirements.

4.5.2 Organizational identification and Glaser et al's six dimensions of culture

The scholars mentioned above (Kunda, 1992; Ray, 1994; Tompkins and Cheney, 1985) view organizational identification as the important and positive element organizations should pursue, while organizational culture could be a powerful instrument to enhance employees' organizational identification. The manipulation of certain components of

organizational culture in the right direction may result in changes in the organizational identification of employees. Existing studies do not indicate which cultural components managers could engineer to engender high organizational identification, but, as indicated previously, Glaser, Zamanou, and Hacker's (1987) six dimensions could provide managers with an approach towards managing employees' organizational identification.

The six dimensions of culture, as introduced in Chapter 3, which include teamwork, climate-morale, information flow, involvement, supervision, and meetings, are, in this research, regarded as central to the construction of organizational culture. It has been argued that there are other dimensions in an organization's culture. Indeed, the extensive organizational culture studies provide many theories and approaches to organizational culture, through which organizational identification could also be engendered, but these do not form the focus of this research.

The six culture dimensions can be used not only to evaluate organizational culture, but also to establish if a relationship exists between a conducive organizational culture as exemplified by the positive manifestations of the six cultural dimensions, and organizational identification on the part of employees. If such a relationship exists, then manipulation of these cultural dimensions could result in improved organizational identification.

4.6 CONCLUSION

It is evident that organizational identification holds many benefits for organizations. As a result, the engendering of organizational identification has become an important theme in the context of organizational control strategies. Organizational culture plays a powerful role in influencing organizational identification. Organizational

identification could be seen as a medium between organizational culture and organizational performance. Through positive manipulation of organizational culture, the identification of organizational members with the organization can be enhanced, and this would result in the improved organizational performance. The positive manifestations of the six cultural dimensions are, therefore, not only a cultural interpretation instrument; they may also provide leverage towards increased organizational productivity through engendering organizational identification.

Chapter 5 Empirical Research

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The objectives of the research, as stated in Chapter one, were: (1) To establish whether the presence of Glaser et al's (1987) six cultural dimensions, in their positive manifestations, could be viewed as precursors to enhanced identification among Chinese employees; and (2) to discover whether the six cultural dimensions have varying influences on organizational identification; and, if so, to establish which dimension(s) of culture most influence(s) organizational identification.

5.2 RESEARCH APPROACH

As explained in Chapter One, it became evident from the literature study that, whereas an investigation into the underlying cultural factors would necessitate a more descriptive/analytical approach and the gathering of qualitative data, the focus on the artefacts level of organizational culture, and, in particular, the identification of the six cultural dimensions would make it possible to adopt a more positivist approach and to gather quantitative data, by means of which to answer the research questions.

5.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

5.3.1. Research instrument

The survey instrument was a questionnaire that had been adapted from Glaser, Zamanou, and Hacker's (1987) Organizational Culture Survey (OCS). The OCS is

composed of 36 Likert-type items designed to measure an employee's perceptions of an organization's culture across six dimensions: teamwork, morale, information flow, involvement, supervision and meetings.

The items used in the OCS have a high degree of theoretical validity as they were developed by means of a literature review which examined the various behavioural aspects of organizational culture. These items were then confirmed using open-ended critical incident interviews of employees from all levels of an organization, thus providing for convergent validity (Glaser et al, 1987: 185).

All the scales of the instrument scored high in terms of inter-item reliability with Cronbach Alpha Scores which varied between .82 and .91. The OCS also has a high degree of test re-test reliability with means not differing significantly between two administrations of the test for all scales except teamwork; however this was not viewed as problematic by the authors (Glaser et al, 1987: 185).

As discussed in previous chapters, the six cultural dimensions represent a type of organizational culture, the positive manifestations of which may have the power to influence organizational identification. The questionnaire is organized into six sections, each representing positive manifestations of cultural dimensions. The questions in the OCS could be seen as descriptions and standards of this type of organizational culture. The questions for the various dimensions are reproduced in Table 5.1.

Glaser, et al. (1987: 174) describe the OCS as a methodology “developed for empirically establishing what an organization’s culture is at a particular point in time...before researchers can approach the questions of whether organizational culture can be managed or whether strong cultures contribute to or reduce organizational performance”. Although the OCS was primarily intended as an instrument to measure whether a ‘positive’ culture in terms of the six dimensions

Teamwork

1. People I work with are direct and honest with each other.
2. People I work with accept criticism without becoming defensive.
3. People I work with resolve disagreements cooperatively.
4. People I work with function as a team.
5. People I work with are cooperative and considerate.
6. People I work with constructively confront problems.
7. People I work with are good listeners.
8. People I work with are concerned about each other.

Morale

1. Labor and management have a productive working relationship.
2. This organization motivates me to put out my best efforts.
3. This organization respects its workers.
4. This organization treats people in a consistent and fair manner.
5. Working here feels like being part of a family.
6. There is an atmosphere of trust in this organization.
7. This organization motivates people to be efficient and productive.

Information Flow

1. I get enough information to understand the big picture here.
2. When changes are made the reasons why are made clear.
3. I know what's happening in work sections outside of my own.
4. I get the information I need to do my job well.

Involvement

1. I have a say in decisions that affect my work.
2. I am asked to make suggestions about how to do my job better.
3. This organization values the ideas of workers at every level.
4. My opinions count in this organization.

Supervision

1. Job requirements are made clear by my supervisor.
2. When I do a good job my supervisor tells me.
3. My supervisor takes criticism well.
4. My supervisor delegates responsibility.
5. My supervisor is approachable.
6. My supervisor gives me criticism in a positive manner.
7. My supervisor is a good listener.
8. My supervisor tells me how I'm doing.

Meetings

1. Decisions made at meetings get put into action.
2. Everyone takes part in discussions at meetings.
3. Our discussions in meetings stay on track.
4. Time in meetings is time well spent.
5. Meetings tap the creative potential of the people present.

Table 5.1 The survey questions of Six Cultural Dimensions (Glaser et al, 1987:192-193)

existence in an organization, it has, for the purpose of this research, been adapted to establish whether the presence of these dimensions in their positive form would, in the opinion of the respondents, induce them to identify more closely with the organization. This was done by asking respondents if they are committed because or would be committed if those positive dimensions exist (see Appendix 1).

In the questionnaire, the term “identification” was replaced by “commitment”, for the reason that “commitment” would be more easily understood by employees. To ensure correct understanding, manifestations of ‘commitment’ were included on the covering page of the questionnaire. As has been discussed in Chapter Two, organizational commitment may be seen as a direct and obvious result of organizational identification. Van Knippenberg (2000:366) states that identification is conceptually similar to the concept of affective commitment, the employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization.

The participants were requested to answer if each item of the OCS contributes to their identification with/commitment to the organization. The responses were solicited using a five-point scale that included “strongly agree”, “agree”, “neutral”, “disagree” and “strongly disagree”. This type of attitude scale was introduced by Likert and is consequently also known as the Likert scale. It is presently the most popular type of scale in the social sciences (Huysamen, 2001:126). In this research, the Likert scale, comprised of both negative and positive responses, provided the data to answer the research question as to whether Glaser et al’s (1987) six cultural dimensions are precursors to organizational identification among Chinese employees. Once this had been proved, the second research question, namely, which dimension of culture, if any, is the most influential as regards organizational identification, could be answered through analyzing the variations in the answers of the respondents. In addition, the biographical details of participants, including age and gender, were included on the first page of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire was translated into the Chinese language. In order to ensure equivalence of meaning between the translated versions, the “double-build” method (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:239) was applied. This was done by first translating the questionnaire into Chinese and then getting a second translator to translate it back into English. Semantic errors that had occurred were then corrected.

5.3.2. Units of analysis

The units of analysis were employees in diverse Chinese organizations. They were selected as the units because the survey instrument was aimed at establishing whether they viewed the cultural dimensions in their positive form to be conducive to engendering organizational commitment.

Respondents were selected from three Chinese commercial industries, namely banking, manufacturing and retail. In each industry, for ease of access, and also owing to time constraints, only one company was selected. As these organizations come from the main commercial industries in China, they may be viewed as a cross-section of Chinese business organizations. Each organization employed 300—500 employees. All these companies are located in Shenzhen City in Guangdong province, China.

The stratified random sampling method was used to select 20 percent of employees from the employment register of each company. Where the selected persons were absent, substitutes were selected following the same procedure. This was done in order to maintain the sample size. In total, 235 employees were selected as the sample. The detailed stratifications and stratified sample size are presented in Table 5.2.

Org 1 Manufacturing		
Stratification	Sample (20%)	Population
Middle Manager	3	15
Senior Office Staff	6	28
Junior Office Staff	11	55
Line Chief/Technician	10	49
Worker	64	318
Total	94	465

Org 2 Service		
Stratification	Sample (20%)	Population
Middle Manager	7	35
Senior Staff	20	97
Junior Staff	46	228
Total	73	360

Org 3 Retail		
Stratification	Sample (20%)	Population
Middle Manager	9	45
Office Staff	12	62
Worker	47	237
Total	68	344

Table 5.2 Sample of employees from three Chinese Organizations, stratified by organizational level.

It needs to be noted that one of the limitations of this research is that employees from only three companies were selected. However, the random selection of employees and the size of the sample would allow for universalization in terms of an initial study (Mouton, 2001:131).

5.4 RESEARCH PROCESS

The empirical research was conducted in China during the July 2004 recess. Through family and friends, the chief executive officers (CEOs) of three commercial companies were contacted to gain their support and permission to conduct research in their organizations. The researcher was allowed to check the employee register in order to conduct the random stratified sampling process.

After the participants had been selected, they were visited personally by the researcher. The employees who work in an office were generally easy to access. The researcher distributed and collected the questionnaires individually. The lower level employees who, for example, work in plants or assembly lines, were usually not reachable during working hours because they were usually pieceworkers and reluctant to sacrifice ten minutes to complete the questionnaires. This was typical in the manufacturing concern. In this situation, the researcher asked them to complete the questionnaires during the lunch time in the cafeteria.

In total 235 questionnaires were distributed to the participants. 227 completed questionnaires were handed back. Among the collected questionnaires, the number of questionnaires which could be used for analysis was 218, which included 87 from the manufacturing concern, 71 from the retail company and 60 from the bank. The omission of some questionnaires was due to absent or incomplete data.

The information was transmitted into quantitative data in accordance with the values attributed to the various responses, and these were inputted into Microsoft Excel and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for further statistical analysis. For the purpose of comparison, the Friedman and Wilcoxon signed ranks test were employed.

5.5 CONCLUSION

Because of the time, human resource and financial limitations, the methodology of this study could not avoid certain limitations, including that three organizations may not be representative of all Chinese commercial organizations, and that all the analyzed organizations were limited to one city. Nevertheless, this study should be viewed as an initial attempt to test the Western organizational cultural theories in the Eastern context.

Chapter 6 Analysis and Interpretation of Data

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Following the empirical study, the information provided by the 218 respondents was analyzed to discover if, according to the Chinese respondents, organizational culture has an influence on organizational identification and, if so, which is the most influential dimension of organizational culture.

6.2 PRESENTATION OF DATA

6.2.1 Biographical information

6.2.1.1 Gender

Among the units analyzed, 59 percent were male and 41 percent were female, as Figure 6.1 shows. The male sample was 129, and the female sample 89.

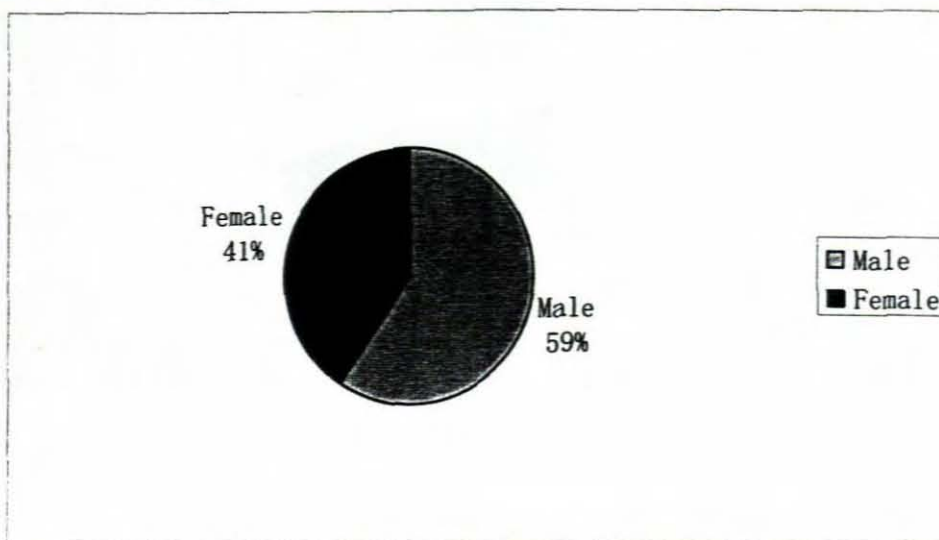


Figure 6.1 Gender proportions

6.2.1.2 Age

The minimum age of the participants analyzed was 21, and the maximum was 58. Specifically, as Table 6.1 shows, there were 51 participants' aged between 18 and 28; 102 between 29 and 38; 52 between 39 and 48; and 13 between 49 and 60. The percentages in each age class are reflected in Figure 6.2.

Age	Samples
18-28	51
29-38	102
39-48	52
49-58	13
Total	218

Table 6.1 Samples in each age class

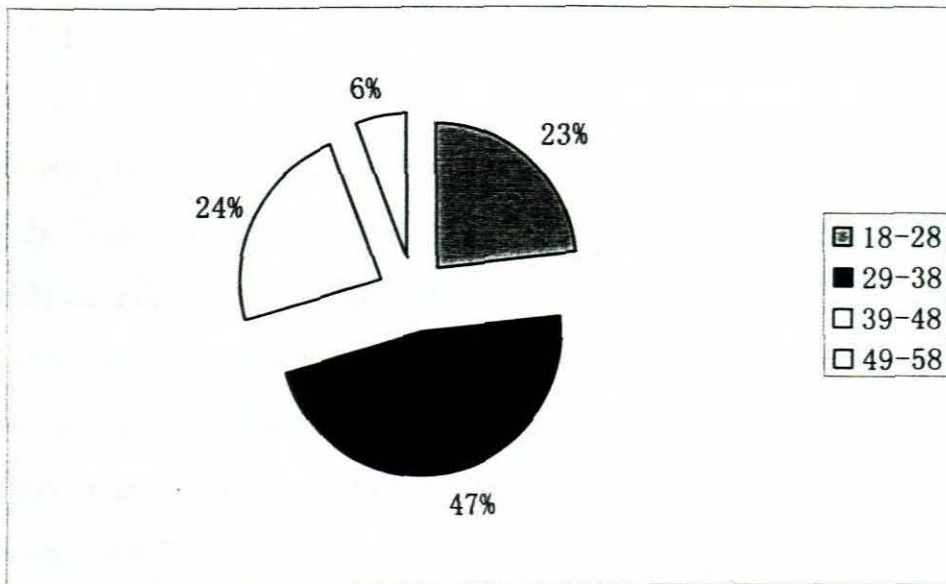


Figure 6.2 Percentages in each age class

6.3 THE AVERAGE OPINIONS FOR EACH OF THE SIX CULTURAL DIMENSIONS

The data generated by the Likert-Scale was treated as interval data. There is no absolute consensus as to the type of data generated by the Likert-Scale. Neuman (2000:185) classifies Likert-Scale data as ordinal data, and states: "...do not be fooled into thinking that the distances between the ordinal categories are intervals just because numbers are assigned", and " although the number system has nice mathematical properties, the numbers are used for convenience only; the fundamental measurement is only ordinal". On the other hand Wegner (2002:9) treats it as interval-scaled data by stating that "in social research studies...the Likert Rating Scale which asks respondents to indicate a preference, or a perception on a scale which can range from 1 to 5 (or even 1 to 7), is often assumed to possess interval-scaled properties". Perhaps Newsom's (2004:2) statement can be a conclusion of this argument. This author indicates that "although Likert type scales are probably best classified as ordinal scales, most researchers treat them as continuous variables and use normal theory statistics with them". When there are five or more categories, there is relatively little harm in doing this (Johnson & Creech, 1983, cited in: Newsom, 2004:2). Once two or more Likert or ordinal items are combined, the numbers of possible values for the composite variable begin to increase beyond 5 categories. Thus it is quite common practice to treat these composite scores as continuous variables (Newsom, 2004:2). Glaser, Zamanou and Hacker (1987:185) also analyzed the data of the OCS as interval data. For the above reasons the data was treated as interval and continuous data. Values were assigned to the different scales in the following manner.

Strongly Agree = 5 Agree = 4 Neutral = 3 Disagree = 2 Strongly Disagree = 1

For the reason that the six cultural dimensions contain varying numbers of items and for the purpose of interpretation and comparison, the first step in the data analysis was to find the average values for each of the dimensions. By doing this, a table containing six categories of variables, was converted from the crude data (see Appendix 3). Each category contains the overall opinions of every respondent for one cultural dimension. Further analyses were based on these six categories.

6.4 THE POSITIVE OPINIONS TO THE SIX CULTURAL DIMENSIONS

To answer the first research question, namely whether organizational culture as reflected in the six cultural dimensions is a precursor to organizational identification among Chinese employees, a descriptive statistics table was generated by SPSS. This is reproduced in Table 6.2 below.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Teamwork	218	4.0734	0.3792	2.50	5.00
Morale	218	4.3180	0.5239	1.00	5.00
Information Flow	218	4.0241	0.5595	1.25	5.00
Involvement	218	4.2190	0.5980	1.25	5.00
Supervision	218	4.2884	0.5045	1.25	5.00
Meetings	218	4.0349	0.5721	1.00	5.00

Table 6.2 Descriptive statistics

From the Table 6.2, it is found that all the means of the six cultural dimensions are above 4. That indicates that the overall opinions for each of the six dimensions were positive in that the respondents on average agreed strongly with each of the dimensions. Therefore, in response to the first research question, it appears that Glaser et al's (1987) six dimensions of organizational culture strongly influence organizational identification among Chinese employees.

6.5 THE FRIEDMAN TEST TO ESTABLISH THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE SIX DIMENSIONS

The standard deviations of each dimension range from 0.3792 to 0.5980. This is not sufficient to determine whether there are significant differences between the means for the six cultural dimensions. In order to answer the second research question, namely which cultural dimensions, if any, are viewed as having the strongest association with identification, the data was analyzed using Friedman's test to determine if there were significant differences between the means of the different dimensions.

Owing to the fact that the data from the various dimensions was related as these were completed by the same respondents, and considering the debate regarding the level of measurement of the Likert scale, as previously discussed, it was decided to use the Friedman test and Wilcoxon Signed-Ranks test to analyse the data. According to Lachenicht (2002:394), the Friedman's rank test is "an omnibus test, analogous to repeated measures ANOVA", but, whereas ANOVA is used for the analysis of more than two independent variables, the Friedman test is used for the equality of related population medians and, if it is to be used, the data must be at least ordinal in nature. The Friedman test is used for the analysis of within-subjects designs where more than two conditions are being compared. The Wilcoxon Sign-Ranks test "tests whether two related samples have the same median" (ibid: 389) in order to establish whether significant differences exist.

In the application of the Friedman test, the null hypothesis is proposed, that is, that there are no significant differences between the six cultural dimensions for Chinese employees, and the alternative hypothesis is that there are significant differences between the six dimensions for Chinese employees. The following tables reflect the results of the Friedman Test.

Test Statistics

N	218
Chi-Square	156.732
d.f	5
Asymp.Sig	0.000

Ranks

Variable	Mean Rank
Morale	4.28
Supervision	4.18
Involvement	3.90
Information Flow	2.91
Teamwork	2.89
Meetings	2.84

Table 6.3 Results of the Friedman test

As the above table shows, since the asymptotic significance is 0.000 which is less than 0.05, there are significant differences between the six cultural dimensions. At least two cultural dimensions, according to the responses of Chinese employees, are significantly different.

The mean rank of the six cultural dimensions indicates that the means of Morale, Supervision and Involvement (4.28, 4.18, 3.90) rank higher than Information Flow, Teamwork and Meetings (2.91, 2.89, 2.84). Morale has the highest mean rank with Meetings being at the other end of the scale. At this point all that can be ascertained with certainty is that at least one dimension differs significantly from the others, but the specific dimensions cannot as yet be identified. In order to ascertain which means differ significantly, it was necessary to conduct the Wilcoxon signed-ranks test.

6.6 APPLICATION OF THE WILCOXON SIGNED-RANKS TEST TO COMPARE THE SIX DIMENSIONS

Through the Wilcoxon signed-ranks test, each of the cultural dimensions was compared with each of the other means. The results for each comparison are presented in Table 6.4.

	Morale	Supervision	Involvement	Information Flow	Teamwork	Meetings
Morale		P = 0.2740 NS	P = 0.0045 S	P = 0.0000 S	P = 0.0000 S	P = 0.0000 S
Supervision			P = 0.0225 S	P = 0.0000 S	P = 0.0000 S	P = 0.0000 S
Involvement				P = 0.0000 S	P = 0.0000 S	P = 0.0000 S
Information Flow					P = 0.1054 NS	P = 0.7478 NS
Teamwork						P = 0.5012 NS
Meetings						

P = 2-tailed P value S = Significant Difference NS = No Significant Difference

Table 6.4 The Wilcoxon signed-ranks test for the six cultural dimensions

In the Wilcoxon signed-ranks test, when the P value is less than the significant level of 0.05, it is concluded that there is a significant difference between two variables. Therefore, it is concluded that there is no significant difference between 'Supervision' and 'Morale'; 'Information Flow' and 'Teamwork'; 'Information Flow' and 'Meetings'; 'Meetings' and 'Teamwork'.

For the dimensions where the significant differences lies, as indicated in Table 6.4, the detailed results of the Wilcoxon test are shown as follows to reveal which one is more significant than the other among the paired dimensions:

Involvement with Morale

	N	Mean Rank
Negative Ranks	87 (Morale < Involvement)	93.61
Positive Ranks	118 (Morale > Involvement)	109.92
Ties	13 (Morale = Involvement)	
Total	218	

Information Flow with Morale

	N	Mean Rank
Negative Ranks	53 (Morale < Information Flow)	81.47
Positive Ranks	152 (Morale > Information Flow)	110.51
Ties	13 (Morale = Information Flow)	
Total	218	

Teamwork with Morale

	N	Mean Rank
Negative Ranks	57 (Morale < Teamwork)	88.32
Positive Ranks	156 (Morale > Teamwork)	113.82
Ties	5 (Morale = Teamwork)	
Total	218	

Meetings with Morale

	N	Mean Rank
Negative Ranks	58 (Morale < Meetings)	79.13
Positive Ranks	152 (Morale > Meetings)	115.56
Ties	8 (Morale = Meetings)	
Total	218	

Involvement with Supervision

	N	Mean Rank
Negative Ranks	88 (Supervision < Involvement)	83.42
Positive Ranks	102 (Supervision > Involvement)	105.92
Ties	28 (Supervision = Involvement)	
Total	218	

Information Flow with Supervision

	N	Mean Rank
Negative Ranks	48 (Supervision < Information Flow)	65.17
Positive Ranks	147 (Supervision > Information Flow)	108.72
Ties	23 (Supervision = Information Flow)	
Total	218	

Teamwork with Supervision

	N	Mean Rank
Negative Ranks	44 (Supervision < Teamwork)	73.35
Positive Ranks	147 (Supervision > Teamwork)	102.78
Ties	27 (Supervision = Teamwork)	
Total	218	

Meetings with Supervision

	N	Mean Rank
Negative Ranks	55 (Supervision < Meetings)	65.60
Positive Ranks	153 (Supervision > Meetings)	118.48
Ties	10 (Supervision = Meetings)	
Total	218	

Information Flow with Involvement

	N	Mean Rank
Negative Ranks	117 (Information Flow < Involvement)	92.66
Positive Ranks	55 (Information Flow > Involvement)	73.40
Ties	46 (Information Flow = Involvement)	
Total	218	

Involvement with Teamwork

	N	Mean Rank
Negative Ranks	135 (Teamwork < Involvement)	96.18
Positive Ranks	59 (Teamwork > Involvement)	100.52
Ties	24 (Teamwork = Involvement)	
Total	218	

Involvement with Meetings

	N	Mean Rank
Negative Ranks	142 (Meetings < Involvement)	101.48
Positive Ranks	60 (Meetings > Involvement)	101.56
Ties	16 (Meetings = Involvement)	
Total	218	

With reference to the above the following findings are of particular note:

- The means of the two factors that are ranked the highest, namely Morale and Supervision do not differ significantly from one another. However, they are both significantly higher than Involvement, which is ranked third;

- The means of the three lowest ranked factors, namely Information Flow, Teamwork and Meetings do not differ significantly from one another; and
- The mean for Involvement is significantly larger than the three lowest ranked factors.

Based on the above comparisons, the six cultural dimensions can be classified into three groups in terms of importance in influencing organizational identification among Chinese employees. (i) Morale and Supervision, the highest ranked dimensions, do not differ significantly from one another and thus form the first group; (ii) Involvement forms the second group as it differs significantly from the dimensions ranked both before and after it; and (iii) Information Flow, Teamwork and Meetings form the third group as they do not differ significantly from one another and are ranked lowest in terms of engendering organizational identification.

The figure below illustrates the varying levels of influence of the six cultural dimensions on the organizational identification of Chinese employees.

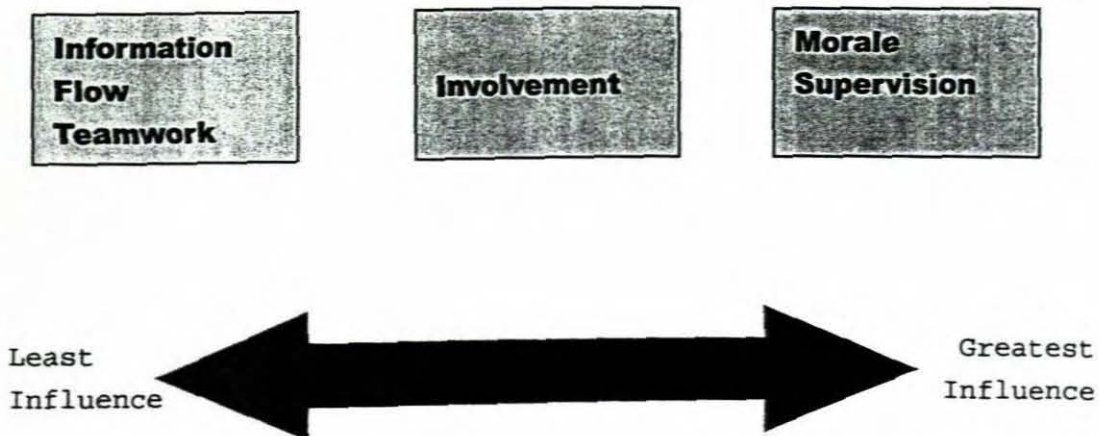


Figure 6.3 The varying influencing power of the six cultural dimensions.

The analysis of responses has pointed to the positive influence of the six cultural dimensions on the identification of employees, with Morale and Supervision proving

to be the most significant.

Chapter 7 Conclusions and Recommendations

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents conclusions and recommendations based on the findings of the research project.

7.2 DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH

7.2.1 Findings

Through the analysis of data, there were several major discoveries summarized as follows:

- According to Chinese employees, organizational culture, as reflected in the six cultural dimensions identified by Glaser et al.(1987), act as precursors to organizational identification.
- The dimensions ‘Supervision’ and ‘Morale’ emerged as the most influential dimensions; followed by ‘Involvement’, with ‘Information Flow’, ‘Teamwork’ and ‘Meetings’ having the least influence.

7.2.2 The six dimensions of organizational culture, organizational identification and organizational communication

The findings that organizational culture positively influences organizational identification are supported by the research of Smidts, Pruyn and Riel. These authors

(2001: 1058) found organizational communication, including communication climate and communication contents, to be an important antecedent factor to organizational identification. The six cultural dimensions incline towards the examination of communicational facets in organizational culture. They could be roughly classified into communication climate and communication contents. This is not an attempt to narrow the six cultural dimensions to an organizational communication theme. It is meant to convey that the six cultural dimensions could be an effective approach to enhance employees' organizational identification because of their emphasis on communication. The six culture dimensions could provide organizational leaders with a guideline as to cultural practices which would engender identification in organizational members, and, thereby, enable them to realize the various benefits of strong organizational identification, such as loyalty, appropriate decision making, and low turnover rate.

7.2.3 'Supervision' and 'Morale' as the most influential dimension for Chinese employees

The research pointed to supervision as one of the most influential for Chinese employees in engendering organizational identification. Among employees the dimension of supervision could be summarized as dealing with supervisors and the management of subordinates, which includes whether the subordinates are given positive and negative feedback on work performance and whether the job expectations are clear. As Smidts, Pruyn and Riel (2001:1053) state, "employees receiving useful and sufficient information about what is expected of them in their work and regarding their contributions, will increase their understanding of the norms and values of respected membership" and "such information will not only provide a basis for self-categorization, but also enhance members' sense of belonging to and involvement with the organization and will hence strengthen their identification".

The other most influential dimension, morale, compared to supervision, is normally viewed as an outcome of organizational practices and, therefore culture, rather than a precursor to organizational identification. As indicated in Chapter Three (see p.32), morale, in terms of the questionnaire and, therefore, the dimension as understood by Glaser et al, here refers to the relationships and interactions within the workplace. This is evident from the type of statements made as regards this dimension. For example, that “labor and management have a productive working relationship”, or “there is an atmosphere of trust in this organization”, or “this organization motivates people to be efficient and productive” (see p. 46). These are the type of behaviours and interactions which may need to be nurtured in an effort to enhance employee’s commitment.

Another interesting finding is that the most influential dimensions, Supervision and Morale, together with the second influential dimension, Involvement, point towards more supportive roles of managers, compared to Teamwork, Information Flow and Meetings. If the definitions of each cultural dimension in Chapter Three are recalled, it is found that Teamwork, Information Flow and Meetings are more inclined to emphasize the interactions and practices among employees, but Supervision, Morale and Involvement emphasize emotional and managerial support. This conveys a message on the importance of support from managers in the context of employee identification with the organization.

All in all, the findings of this research showed that, among the other factors, namely teamwork, information flow, involvement, and meetings, which influence organizational identification, supervision and morale should be regarded as priorities in any interventions aimed at enhancing the identification of employees with the organization.

7.3 LIMITATIONS OF RESEARCH

As indicated at the end of Chapter Five, one of the limitations of the research was that the investigation was limited to three industries, and only one organization was selected from each industry. As also mentioned, time and human resource constraints were responsible for these limitations.

Another limitation was the design of the research. To investigate the relationship between the cultural dimensions and organizational identification, the ideal approach would be a comparative study in two organizations, in one of which the six cultural dimensions in their positive manifestation are present, and another one where these dimensions are absent. The organizations would have to be selected by means of the organizational cultural survey questionnaire. Thereafter the organizational identification questionnaire could be applied to establish whether there is a significant difference between the two organizations in terms of organizational identification. By comparing the prevalence of the six cultural dimensions in the two organizations and establishing that there are different levels of organizational identification, the importance of organizational culture in engendering organizational identification could be more conclusively proved.

7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

7.4.1 Recommendations for organizational managers

Organizational managers could, by manipulating the six cultural dimensions, enhance the organizational identification of employees. The six cultural dimensions thus provide a guideline for managerial activities. To enhance organizational identification the interventions could be broadly structured around each dimension, because each of

the dimensions in its positive manifestation has a positive influential power on the identification of employees.

Interventions could also be prioritized. Figure 6.3 in the previous chapter could be a reference for managers in this respect. Positive supervision and morale seem to be a priority. Organizational managers, set on enhancing the cultural dimension of Supervision, are recommended to focus on providing employees with enough working information, including informing them of expectations, acknowledging their achievements, and also using a positive manner when communicating with them. Hartman (2003) indicates several factors that affect the level of organizational morale, including training and education; mission statement, procedures and roles; supervision; staff empowerment; recognition, feedback and communication; and institutional environment.

7.3.2 Recommendations for the further research

This research may be viewed as the first step in examining the influence of the six cultural dimensions on the identification of organizational members. Further research is recommended to explore whether, if the six cultural dimensions differ in practice, there are concomitant effects on the employee's organizational identification. Also, qualitative research on each dimension and into underlying facets of organizational culture is recommended.

It is recommended that, using a more extensive sample, further investigation into the dimensions Morale and Supervision, that were identified as the most important, be conducted.

This research was conducted in a Chinese cultural context. The results may not be applicable in Western organizations, although numerous theorists have pointed to this.

Similar research is recommended in a Western cultural context.

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APPENDIX 1 SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TESTING THE ASSOCIATION
BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND
ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION (ENGLISH EDITION)

Dear interviewee,

We are interested in finding out what leads to employee commitment to an organization.

Being committed means, amongst others, that:

- You would want to go on working for the organization.
- You would always have the interests of the organization at heart.
- You have a sense of belonging.
- You enjoy going to work.

Please help us by completing each of the items in the attached questionnaire and marking the appropriate block with a cross.

This is not a test and there are no right or wrong responses.

Please firstly give us your brief profile here.

1. I am ___ years old.

2. I am a Male / Female .

(Please turn to the next page)

Perhaps you are already committed. If so, what has made you committed? If not, what would lead to greater commitment on your part?

A. I am committed because / I would be committed if

1. People I work with are direct and honest with each other.

Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	neutral	<input type="checkbox"/>	disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
----------------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	---------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	-------------------	--------------------------

2. People I work with accept criticism without becoming defensive.

Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	neutral	<input type="checkbox"/>	disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
----------------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	---------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	-------------------	--------------------------

3. People I work with resolve disagreements cooperatively.

Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	neutral	<input type="checkbox"/>	disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
----------------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	---------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	-------------------	--------------------------

4. People work together as a team.

Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	neutral	<input type="checkbox"/>	disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
----------------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	---------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	-------------------	--------------------------

5. People I work with are cooperative and considerate.

Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	neutral	<input type="checkbox"/>	disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
----------------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	---------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	-------------------	--------------------------

6. People I work with confront problems constructively.

Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	neutral	<input type="checkbox"/>	disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
----------------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	---------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	-------------------	--------------------------

7. People I work with are good listeners.

Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	neutral	<input type="checkbox"/>	disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
----------------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	---------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	-------------------	--------------------------

8. People I work with are concerned about each other.

Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	neutral	<input type="checkbox"/>	disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
----------------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	---------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	-------------------	--------------------------

B. I am committed because / I would be committed if

1. Employees and management work together.

Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	neutral	<input type="checkbox"/>	disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
----------------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	---------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	-------------------	--------------------------

2. The organization motivates me to put out my best efforts.

Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	neutral	<input type="checkbox"/>	disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
----------------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	---------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	-------------------	--------------------------

3. The organization respects its employees.

Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	neutral	<input type="checkbox"/>	disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
----------------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	---------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	-------------------	--------------------------

4. The organization treats people in a consistent and fair manner.

Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	neutral	<input type="checkbox"/>	disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
----------------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	---------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	-------------------	--------------------------

5. Managers and employees trust one another.

Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	neutral	<input type="checkbox"/>	disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
----------------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	---------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	-------------------	--------------------------

6. My efforts are recognized.

Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	neutral	<input type="checkbox"/>	disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
----------------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	---------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	-------------------	--------------------------

C. I am committed because / I would be committed if

1. I get enough information to understand the big picture here.

Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	neutral	<input type="checkbox"/>	disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
----------------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	---------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	-------------------	--------------------------

2. When changes are made the reasons are made clear.

Strongly agree		agree		neutral		disagree		strongly disagree	
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3. I know what's happening in work sections outside of my own.

Strongly agree		agree		neutral		disagree		strongly disagree	
----------------	--	-------	--	---------	--	----------	--	-------------------	--

4. I get the information I need to do my job well.

Strongly agree		agree		neutral		disagree		strongly disagree	
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D. I am committed because / I would be committed if

1. I have a say in decisions that affect my work.

Strongly agree		agree		neutral		disagree		strongly disagree	
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2. I am asked to make suggestions about how to do my job better.

Strongly agree		agree		neutral		disagree		strongly disagree	
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3. The organization values the ideas of workers at every level.

Strongly agree		agree		neutral		disagree		strongly disagree	
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4. My opinions count in this organization.

Strongly agree		agree		neutral		disagree		strongly disagree	
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E. I am committed because / I would be committed if

1. Job requirements are made clear by my supervisor.

Strongly agree		agree		neutral		disagree		strongly disagree	
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2. When I do a good job my supervisor tells me.

Strongly agree		agree		neutral		disagree		strongly disagree	
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3. My supervisor takes criticism well.

Strongly agree		agree		neutral		disagree		strongly disagree	
----------------	--	-------	--	---------	--	----------	--	-------------------	--

4. My supervisor delegates responsibility.

Strongly agree		agree		neutral		disagree		strongly disagree	
----------------	--	-------	--	---------	--	----------	--	-------------------	--

5. My supervisor is approachable.

Strongly agree		agree		neutral		disagree		strongly disagree	
----------------	--	-------	--	---------	--	----------	--	-------------------	--

6. My supervisor gives me criticism in a positive manner.

Strongly agree		agree		neutral		disagree		strongly disagree	
----------------	--	-------	--	---------	--	----------	--	-------------------	--

7. My supervisor is a good listener.

Strongly agree		agree		neutral		disagree		strongly disagree	
----------------	--	-------	--	---------	--	----------	--	-------------------	--

8. My supervisor tells me how I'm doing.

Strongly agree		agree		neutral		disagree		strongly disagree	
----------------	--	-------	--	---------	--	----------	--	-------------------	--

F. I am committed because / I would be committed if

1. Decisions made at meetings get put into action.

Strongly agree		agree		neutral		disagree		strongly disagree	
----------------	--	-------	--	---------	--	----------	--	-------------------	--

2. Everyone takes part in discussions at meetings.

Strongly agree		agree		neutral		disagree		strongly disagree	
----------------	--	-------	--	---------	--	----------	--	-------------------	--

3. Our discussions in meetings stay on track.

Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	neutral	<input type="checkbox"/>	disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
----------------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	---------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	-------------------	--------------------------

4. Time in meetings is time well spent.

Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	neutral	<input type="checkbox"/>	disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
----------------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	---------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	-------------------	--------------------------

5. Meetings tap the creative potential of the people present.

Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	agree	<input type="checkbox"/>	neutral	<input type="checkbox"/>	disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>	strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
----------------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	---------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	-------------------	--------------------------

Thank you for your cooperation.

APPENDIX 2 SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TESTING THE ASSOCIATION
BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND
ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION (CHINESE EDITION)

亲爱的受访者：

这项调查的目的是为了探索什么是雇员致力投入到公司中的原因。

下列为一个雇员致力投入到公司中的几种表现：

- 雇员很愿意继续为现在的公司工作
- 雇员会全身心地为了公司的利益工作
- 雇员对公司有一种归属感
- 雇员不认为上班是一种折磨，相反，上班成为了一种乐趣

请填写所附问卷，并在你所选择的答案上标以“√”。

您的答案并没有对错之分，请把您的最真实的想法告诉我们。

请先告诉我们：

1. 我的年龄是___。
2. 我是一个 先生 /女士.

问卷：

可能你已经致力投入于你的公司，如果是这样，是什么使你致力投入。如果你还没有致力投入于你的公司，什么会促使你致力投入。

我致力投入于公司，因为/ 我将会致力投入于公司，如果：(见下页)

	强 烈 不 同 意	不 同 意	中 立	同 意	强 烈 同 意
1. 人们互相坦诚相待，有问题当面说清。					
2. 人们虚心的接受批评意见。					
3. 人们通过合作的方式解决分歧。					
4. 人们工作在一起像一个团队。					
5. 和我一起工作的同事们非常合作并考虑周到。					
6. 和我一起工作的同事们总是建设性地解决问题。					
7. 和我一起工作的同事们是很好的聆听者。					
8. 和我一起工作的同事们顾及相互间的感受。					
9. 职员们和经理工作在一起。					
10. 公司能激励我付出我最大的努力。					
11. 公司尊敬它的雇员们。					
12. 公司以一视同仁的态度对待雇员们。					
13. 经理和职员相互信任。					
14. 我的努力能够得到认同。					
15. 我得到足够的信息了解公司的全景。					
16. 当公司做出了一些改变或调整，其原因会被清楚地解释。					
17. 我能知道什么事正在发生，哪怕不在我的工作范围之内。					
18. 我能得到所需要的信息去做好我的工作。					
19. 我有发言权对于与我工作有联系的决定。					
20. 我会被邀请提出如何能使工作做得更好的建议。					
21. 公司会认真对待每一层次员工的建议。					
22. 我的看法能算作公司观点一部分。					
23. 我的上级明确工作要求了工作的标准。					
24. 当我工作完成出色时，我的上级会告诉我。					
25. 我的上级能够接受批评意见。					
26. 我的上级把相应的职权分配给下属，而不是大权独揽。					
27. 我与上级沟通的渠道很多。					
28. 上级批评我以可以接受的态度。					
29. 我的上级是个好的聆听者。					
30. 我的上级会告诉我现在干得怎么样。					
31. 会议上的决策会得到落实					
32. 在会议中，每个人都会参加讨论。					
33. 在会议中，讨论总是围绕着主题。					
34. 会议的时间利用的很好。					
35. 会议能启迪参与者的创造性的潜力。					

衷心感谢您的参与和合作!!!

APPENDIX 3 THE MEANS OF OPINIONS FOR EACH CULTURAL DIMENSIONS.

Sample	Teamwork	Morale	Information	Involvement	Supervision	Meetings
			Flow			
1	3.500	4.333	3.500	4.000	4.125	3.600
2	3.125	2.833	2.750	1.500	3.250	3.800
3	3.500	4.833	4.250	4.250	4.250	4.200
4	3.750	3.500	4.000	3.750	3.500	3.400
5	4.625	5.000	4.250	5.000	5.000	5.000
6	4.875	5.000	4.250	4.750	4.875	4.600
7	3.250	2.500	3.000	3.250	3.250	2.600
8	4.375	4.167	5.000	5.000	4.500	4.000
9	4.125	4.333	4.250	4.250	4.375	3.200
10	4.750	3.667	3.250	3.000	3.250	3.000
11	3.625	3.000	3.000	3.250	3.250	3.600
12	3.750	3.500	3.250	3.750	4.000	3.200
13	4.250	4.667	3.500	4.000	3.875	4.200
14	3.375	3.833	3.250	3.750	4.000	3.000
15	4.375	4.833	4.500	4.500	4.875	4.800
16	3.625	4.500	4.500	3.750	4.375	4.400
17	3.375	3.167	2.500	3.250	2.750	2.400
18	3.875	4.500	4.000	4.500	4.250	4.400
19	3.875	3.667	4.000	3.500	4.000	4.200
20	4.875	4.667	5.000	4.750	5.000	4.000
21	4.000	5.000	4.000	4.750	5.000	5.000
22	4.625	5.000	5.000	5.000	5.000	5.000
23	3.625	3.667	4.250	4.500	4.750	4.400
24	3.750	4.333	3.750	4.250	4.625	4.800
25	3.875	4.667	4.500	4.750	5.000	5.000
26	4.000	3.833	3.500	4.000	4.500	3.800
27	4.625	4.833	4.250	5.000	5.000	5.000
28	3.875	3.500	3.000	3.250	3.375	3.400
29	3.375	3.333	2.500	2.500	2.750	2.800
30	4.375	4.833	5.000	5.000	5.000	5.000
31	5.000	5.000	5.000	5.000	5.000	5.000
32	4.625	5.000	5.000	4.250	5.000	5.000
33	4.125	4.667	4.250	4.000	4.500	3.800
34	2.500	1.000	1.750	1.250	3.125	1.600
35	3.125	3.000	1.250	2.000	1.375	2.000
36	3.000	2.167	1.500	1.250	1.500	1.000
37	3.375	3.833	3.000	3.250	3.500	3.200
38	3.375	3.833	3.500	3.750	4.500	4.000
39	3.625	3.500	3.250	3.750	3.375	3.600
40	3.000	3.000	3.000	3.000	3.000	3.000

Sample	Teamwork	Morale	Information Flow	Involvement	Supervision	Meetings
41	3.750	3.167	2.750	3.750	1.250	1.200
42	4.375	4.333	4.500	4.750	4.375	4.000
43	3.750	4.333	4.500	4.250	4.250	4.200
44	3.875	4.333	4.500	4.500	4.000	4.200
45	4.250	4.333	4.250	3.500	4.500	4.600
46	4.000	4.000	4.000	4.500	4.125	4.200
47	4.500	4.667	4.000	4.000	4.500	4.600
48	4.500	4.333	4.750	5.000	4.375	4.200
49	4.375	4.167	4.500	4.500	4.375	4.400
50	4.375	4.000	4.750	4.750	4.500	4.400
51	4.625	4.167	4.750	4.000	4.500	5.000
52	4.500	3.833	4.750	4.250	4.125	4.400
53	4.125	4.333	4.250	4.250	4.375	4.600
54	4.500	4.667	4.500	4.000	4.375	3.600
55	4.250	4.167	4.000	4.000	4.750	4.600
56	3.625	4.333	4.500	4.000	4.500	4.400
57	4.125	3.167	4.000	4.000	4.125	4.000
58	3.625	3.833	4.250	3.250	4.500	4.400
59	3.875	3.667	4.250	4.000	4.125	4.000
60	4.000	4.167	4.500	4.250	4.750	4.800
61	3.750	3.500	4.250	4.250	3.750	4.400
62	4.000	4.333	4.000	4.000	4.000	3.800
63	3.875	4.833	4.000	4.500	4.125	3.400
64	3.625	4.500	3.750	4.750	4.125	3.600
65	3.875	4.833	3.750	4.250	4.125	3.600
66	4.000	4.500	4.000	3.500	4.375	3.800
67	3.375	4.833	3.750	4.250	4.000	3.800
68	3.875	4.333	3.750	3.750	4.250	3.800
69	3.375	4.167	4.000	3.750	4.250	3.400
70	3.375	4.333	4.250	4.000	4.625	4.000
71	3.750	4.333	3.750	4.000	3.875	4.000
72	3.875	4.500	4.250	4.000	3.750	3.400
73	4.250	4.500	4.250	4.500	4.375	4.200
74	4.625	4.333	4.750	4.250	4.125	4.200
75	4.500	4.500	4.500	4.500	4.500	3.800
76	4.125	4.333	4.250	4.250	4.250	3.800
77	4.000	4.333	4.000	4.250	4.375	4.200
78	3.750	4.333	4.250	4.250	4.375	3.600
79	4.375	4.333	4.250	4.750	4.125	4.400
80	4.000	3.833	3.750	3.750	4.250	4.000
81	3.875	4.333	4.250	3.500	3.875	3.800
82	3.750	4.667	4.000	4.250	4.500	4.200

Sample	Teamwork	Morale	Information Flow	Involvement	Supervision	Meetings
83	4.125	4.333	3.250	4.500	4.375	4.200
84	4.375	4.833	4.000	4.500	4.125	4.200
85	3.625	4.333	4.000	4.250	4.000	4.200
86	4.000	4.667	4.500	4.000	4.250	4.200
87	4.125	4.167	4.500	4.750	4.625	3.600
88	4.375	4.500	4.500	4.250	4.250	4.000
89	4.125	4.500	4.250	4.250	4.500	3.400
90	3.625	4.167	4.000	3.750	4.250	3.800
91	4.125	4.167	4.000	4.500	4.250	3.800
92	4.125	4.667	4.000	4.750	4.250	3.800
93	4.250	4.833	4.250	4.250	4.125	3.800
94	4.000	3.500	4.500	4.000	4.375	3.800
95	3.875	4.500	3.500	4.250	4.125	3.400
96	4.500	4.667	4.000	4.750	4.000	4.400
97	4.125	4.500	4.250	3.250	4.500	3.800
98	3.625	4.667	3.500	4.500	4.125	4.400
99	4.000	4.167	3.250	4.000	4.500	4.200
100	4.250	3.333	3.750	4.500	4.375	4.000
101	4.500	4.667	4.250	4.250	4.375	4.200
102	4.000	4.667	4.000	4.250	4.500	4.200
103	4.125	4.833	4.500	4.250	4.000	4.000
104	4.000	4.667	4.750	4.750	4.500	4.600
105	3.750	4.833	4.750	4.500	4.375	4.200
106	3.750	4.333	4.500	4.000	4.125	4.600
107	4.125	4.833	4.500	4.000	4.500	4.000
108	4.375	4.000	4.250	5.000	4.250	4.000
109	4.375	4.167	4.500	5.000	4.500	4.200
110	4.375	4.333	4.500	4.000	4.000	4.200
111	4.250	4.667	4.250	4.500	4.500	4.400
112	4.500	4.167	4.250	4.000	4.625	4.600
113	4.250	4.833	4.000	4.250	4.625	4.800
114	4.000	4.167	4.000	4.500	4.375	4.400
115	4.125	5.000	4.000	4.250	4.500	4.200
116	3.875	4.167	3.750	4.500	4.375	4.200
117	4.250	4.500	4.250	4.750	4.250	3.800
118	3.500	4.500	4.250	5.000	4.500	3.800
119	4.125	4.500	3.750	4.750	4.250	4.000
120	4.250	4.667	3.250	4.750	4.375	4.000
121	4.000	4.333	4.250	4.750	4.500	4.400
122	4.250	4.833	4.250	4.500	4.625	4.400
123	3.750	4.333	4.000	4.250	4.750	3.800
124	3.750	4.333	3.000	3.000	4.375	4.200

Sample	Teamwork	Morale	Information Flow	Involvement	Supervision	Meetings
125	3.875	4.167	3.750	4.500	4.500	4.000
126	4.000	4.167	3.000	4.500	4.500	4.000
127	4.625	4.667	3.750	4.750	4.625	4.200
128	4.375	4.333	4.250	4.500	4.625	4.000
129	4.125	4.667	3.750	4.750	4.500	3.200
130	4.375	4.500	4.500	4.750	4.375	4.400
131	3.875	4.667	4.500	5.000	4.125	4.200
132	4.375	4.500	4.250	4.000	4.375	4.800
133	3.875	4.333	4.500	4.750	4.375	4.600
134	3.750	4.667	4.500	4.500	4.375	4.200
135	4.125	4.167	4.250	4.750	4.500	4.400
136	3.625	4.333	4.250	3.750	4.500	4.000
137	3.875	4.500	3.500	4.750	4.375	3.800
138	4.125	4.667	4.500	4.250	4.250	3.400
139	4.375	4.833	4.000	4.750	4.625	3.600
140	4.000	4.833	4.250	4.000	4.500	4.200
141	3.625	4.333	4.250	3.500	4.625	4.200
142	4.250	4.500	4.250	4.250	4.375	4.200
143	4.000	4.167	4.000	4.000	4.500	4.200
144	3.875	4.167	4.250	4.250	4.500	4.200
145	3.750	4.833	4.000	4.000	4.500	4.600
146	4.125	4.667	4.250	4.250	4.125	4.600
147	3.750	4.667	4.500	4.750	4.375	4.200
148	4.500	4.000	4.250	4.500	4.375	3.600
149	3.625	4.000	4.250	4.500	4.500	4.400
150	4.375	3.833	3.500	3.750	4.000	4.400
151	4.250	4.333	4.250	4.500	4.375	4.000
152	4.000	4.333	4.250	4.750	4.375	3.800
153	4.375	4.833	3.500	4.000	4.500	4.200
154	4.125	4.500	3.500	4.000	4.750	4.000
155	4.375	4.833	3.500	4.750	4.500	3.800
156	4.375	4.500	3.250	5.000	4.750	4.600
157	4.000	4.667	3.750	4.500	4.625	4.400
158	3.875	4.500	4.000	4.000	4.500	4.600
159	4.000	4.500	3.500	4.250	4.375	3.800
160	4.250	4.667	4.250	4.500	4.625	4.000
161	4.000	4.500	4.250	4.250	4.500	4.000
162	4.000	4.500	3.250	4.500	4.500	3.000
163	4.500	4.000	4.500	4.750	4.375	3.600
164	4.125	4.500	4.000	4.750	4.500	3.800
165	3.875	4.167	3.750	4.250	4.375	4.400
166	4.625	4.167	4.250	3.500	4.375	4.200

Sample	Teamwork	Morale	Information Flow	Involvement	Supervision	Meetings
167	4.250	4.667	4.250	4.000	4.625	4.000
168	3.875	4.333	4.000	4.000	4.375	3.800
169	4.625	4.833	4.000	4.250	4.375	4.000
170	4.375	4.500	4.000	4.750	4.125	4.200
171	4.250	3.667	3.750	4.250	4.375	4.400
172	4.250	4.000	4.250	5.000	4.000	3.400
173	4.375	4.500	4.500	4.250	4.250	4.400
174	4.625	4.167	3.500	4.500	4.500	4.200
175	4.375	5.000	4.250	4.500	4.625	4.200
176	3.875	5.000	3.500	4.500	4.375	4.200
177	4.625	4.500	4.750	4.750	4.375	4.400
178	4.375	4.500	3.750	4.500	4.750	4.200
179	4.375	4.167	4.500	4.250	4.375	4.600
180	4.250	4.333	4.250	4.000	4.500	4.000
181	4.375	4.167	4.250	4.250	4.375	3.800
182	4.250	4.667	4.250	4.250	4.250	4.400
183	4.375	4.667	4.250	4.500	4.125	4.200
184	4.250	4.167	4.250	4.000	4.125	4.400
185	3.750	4.500	4.000	4.500	4.250	4.000
186	4.250	4.833	4.000	3.750	4.250	4.200
187	4.375	4.667	4.250	4.500	4.250	4.200
188	4.500	4.667	4.000	4.250	4.625	4.000
189	3.750	3.833	4.500	4.500	4.250	3.600
190	4.375	4.333	4.750	4.500	4.500	4.400
191	4.250	4.333	4.000	4.500	4.250	4.200
192	4.500	4.667	4.250	4.000	4.500	4.200
193	4.125	4.500	4.250	3.750	4.500	4.400
194	4.625	4.500	3.750	4.500	4.500	4.200
195	4.625	4.500	3.500	4.750	4.375	3.600
196	4.750	4.667	3.250	4.250	4.750	3.800
197	4.375	4.500	4.000	4.500	4.250	4.200
198	4.250	4.333	3.750	4.250	4.375	4.200
199	4.125	4.167	4.500	4.500	4.125	3.800
200	4.000	4.833	3.750	4.500	4.500	4.000
201	4.000	4.833	4.250	4.250	4.125	4.400
202	4.000	3.833	4.000	3.000	4.500	4.600
203	3.750	4.000	4.500	4.500	4.500	4.400
204	4.000	4.000	4.000	4.500	4.250	4.400
205	4.250	3.833	3.750	4.250	4.375	4.000
206	4.000	4.667	4.000	4.500	4.250	4.400
207	4.750	3.833	4.000	4.750	4.375	4.200
208	4.000	4.333	4.750	4.500	4.000	4.200

Sample	Teamwork	Morale	Information Flow	Involvement	Supervision	Meetings
209	4.250	4.333	4.250	4.500	4.125	3.800
210	4.125	4.667	3.750	3.000	4.500	4.400
211	4.250	4.833	4.000	4.500	4.750	4.200
212	4.250	4.000	4.250	4.250	4.500	4.000
213	4.250	4.500	4.250	4.750	4.625	3.600
214	4.250	4.500	4.000	4.500	4.250	4.200
215	3.875	4.833	4.250	5.000	4.500	3.800
216	4.000	4.833	4.250	4.250	4.375	4.200
217	4.250	4.833	4.000	5.000	4.750	4.400
218	4.125	4.500	4.500	3.750	4.625	3.600