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Corporate culture: assessment through shared values and norms

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CORPORATE CULTURE: ASSESSMENT THROUGH SHARED VALUES AND
NORMS

Iowa State University

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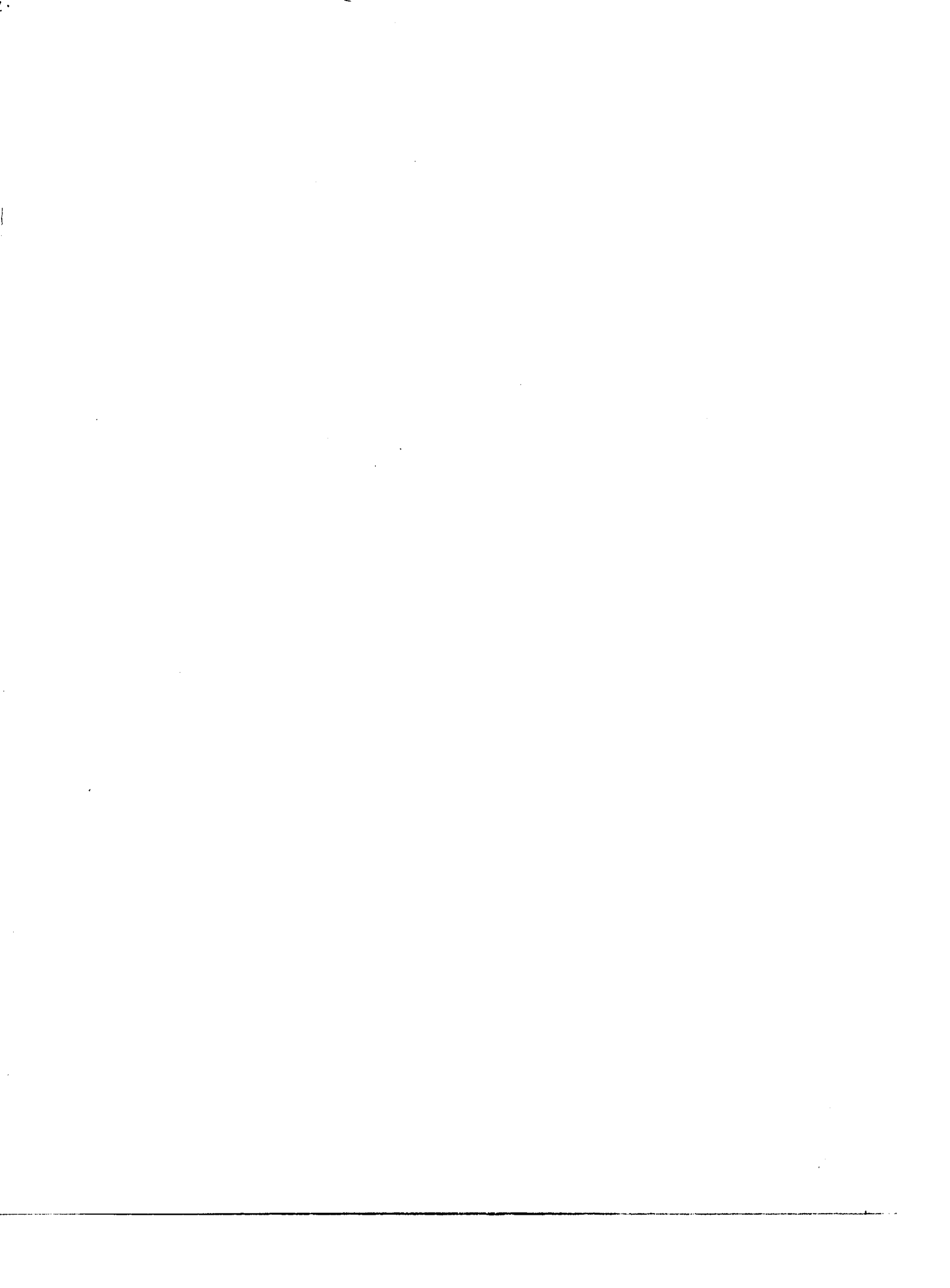
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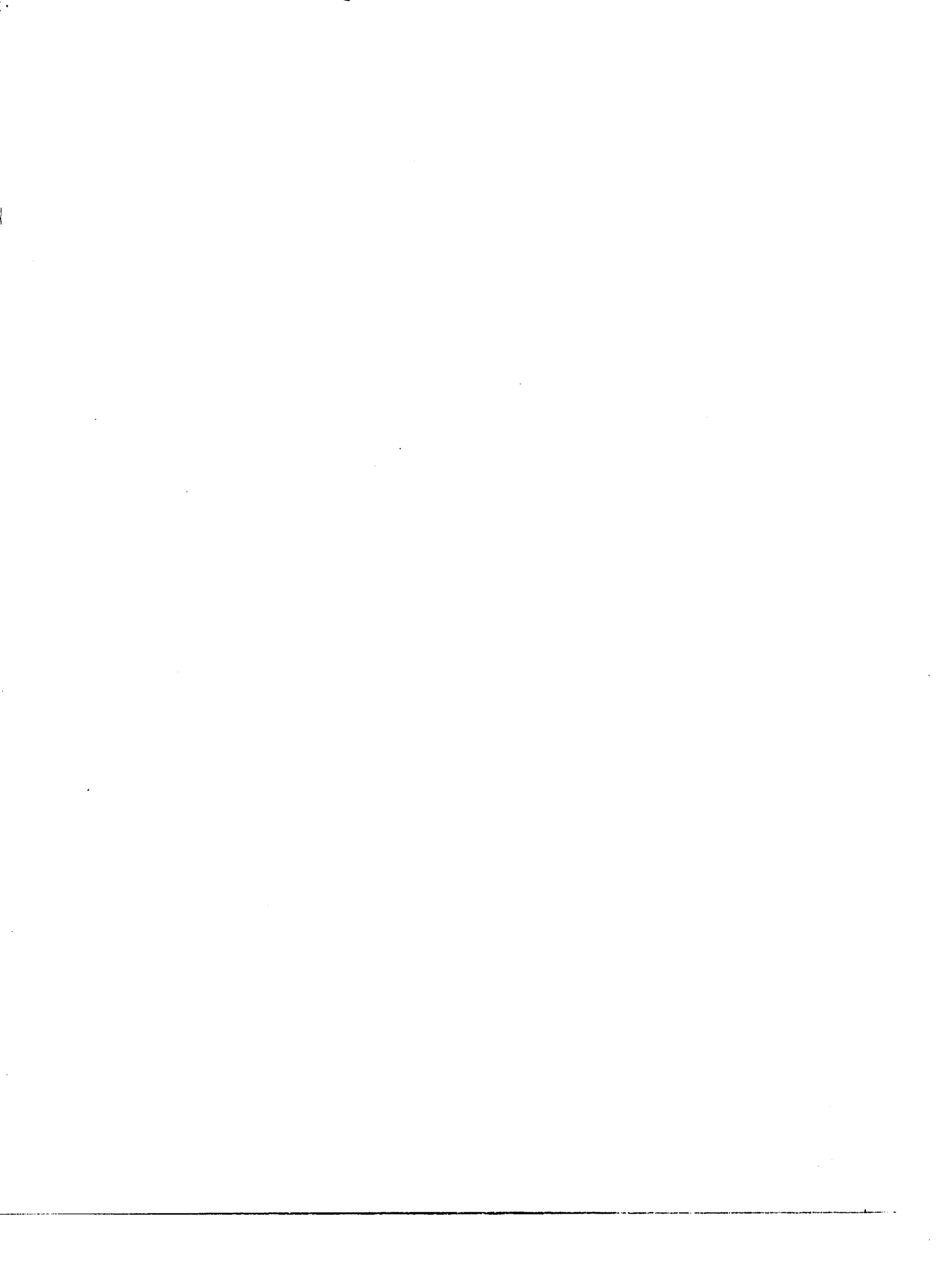


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Corporate culture: Assessment through shared values and norms

by

Suzanne Beisel Mulder

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INTRODUCTION

Corporate culture has become the "magic phrase" that management consultants are breathing into the ears of American executives (Kilmann, 1985). Culture is the corporate "buzz word" of the 1980s (Wilkins, 1983), a metaphor the business press has been using as its own (Peters & Waterman, 1982).

The current interest between American industry and the business press regarding the importance of corporate culture has been attributed by many persons to two major factors: economic turbulence and recent writings about Japanese management (Wilkins, 1983). Arguments for the link between corporate culture and corporate performance have been made by authors and business consultants who expound the virtues of strong corporate cultures among top performing companies (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982).

Corporate culture is organizational culture applied to corporations, and has been generally known as a set of shared understandings of corporate values and corporate norms that provide members of an organization with rules for behavior, or "the way we do things around here" (Uttal, 1983). A general consensus is that corporate culture, the objectives, principles, values, and behaviors emanating from the founder, is maintained and passed down by other top executives throughout the corporation (Donnelly, 1984).

Rules for behavior of employees are based on values and espouse the fundamental character of a corporation. These values reflect the ideals, standards, and purpose of a corporation (Lundberg, 1985), and

provide the principles by which employees are guided (Schein, 1985b). Norms are a corporation's unwritten rules for behavior (Shull & Beque, 1964) which reaffirm the corporation's values.

Strong corporate cultures are those in which corporate values and corporate norms are coherent and widely shared throughout the corporation. In strong cultures, employees are headed in the same direction (Pascale, 1984) and know exactly what the goals are (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Strong cultures have greater impact on corporations because the widely shared corporate values and corporate norms have stronger influence on employees and less ambiguity exists regarding which values and norms prevail when conflict arises. "Stronger cultures produce more powerful effects than weaker cultures do" (Sathe, 1983, p. 13).

Among the excellent corporations Peters and Waterman (1982) discovered, all had dominant and coherent corporate cultures with "crystal clear" values which were rigidly shared. In their book, In Search of Excellence, they exclaimed, "...we stand in awe of the cultures that the excellent companies have built" (pp. 79-80). This respect for the impact of corporate culture was echoed by Deal and Kennedy (1982) who declared, "Strong culture has almost always been the driving force behind continuing success in American business" (p. 5). Kilmann (1985) concurred that corporate culture was becoming recognized as more powerful in American business than any one person, strategy, structure, or reward system.

The consensus of an article in Business Week ("Corporate

Culture," 1980) was that corporate culture is a major strength in a business when it is consistent with its business strategy. Researchers are finding that to be successful, or at least more successful than most, corporate offices need to match strategies with culture.

Because culture is considered to have a great deal of impact on a company's success, it is important to manage it explicitly (Kilmann, 1984). Control of corporate culture is not only possible, but necessary. Values and norms must continually be monitored and assessed.

Although there is agreement that corporate culture has a powerful impact on managers and their organizations, there is uncertainty as to exactly how to assess it and what to do with it (Sathe, 1983). This lack of knowledge is in sharp contrast to managers' intricate knowledge of goals, strategies, organizational charts, policy statements, and budgets (Kilmann, Saxton, & Serpa, 1985).

For the most part, current procedures for assessing corporate culture have called for costly and time consuming techniques which include open-ended interviewing of numerous employees, from clerks to chief executive officers (CEOs), reading annual reports and press releases, auditing the content of daily decision-making, and listening to corporate histories and stories. These techniques call for interpretation which tends to be subjective.

Therefore, considering the above, an important research question is: Is it possible to assess corporate culture using a survey instrument which examines sharedness of corporate values and corporate

norms?

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to examine shared understandings of corporate values and corporate norms as a reflection of the strength of corporate culture. Corporate values were assessed by using four of the 27 subscales of the Survey of Organizations (SOO) (Taylor & Bowers, 1972). Corporate norms were assessed by using the Kilmann-Saxton Culture-Gap Survey (KSCG) (Kilmann & Saxton, 1983). The shared view of a corporation's culture was investigated by dividing employees into three job levels. Job Level 1 included employees in top and middle management positions, including the CEO. Job Level 2 included employees in supervisory positions and Job Level 3 included employees in non-supervisory positions. Further details will be presented in the Methodology chapter.

Research Questions

Formulated from the purpose of this study were the research questions:

1. Is there a difference in corporate values due to job level?
2. Is there a difference in corporate values due to corporation?
3. Is there an interaction of job level and corporation on corporate values?
4. Is there a difference in corporate norms due to job level?
5. Is there a difference in corporate norms due to corporation?
6. Is there an interaction of job level and corporation on

corporate norms?

Null Hypotheses

To examine the research problems, the following null hypotheses were generated and tested at the .05 level of significance.

Null Hypothesis 1: There is no difference on value scores Organization of Work (ORG) due to job level and corporation.

Null Hypothesis 2: There is no difference on value scores Communication Flow (COMFLO) due to job level and corporation.

Null Hypotheses 3: There is no difference on value scores Concern for People (CONCERN) due to job level and corporation.

Null Hypothesis 4: There is no difference on value scores Decision-Making Practices (DIS) due to job level and corporation.

Null Hypothesis 5: There is no difference on norm scores Task Support (TS) due to job level and corporation.

Null Hypothesis 6: There is no difference on norm scores Task Innovation (TI) due to job level and corporation.

Null Hypothesis 7: There is no difference on norm scores Social Relationships (SR) due to job level and corporation.

Null Hypothesis 8: There is no difference on norm scores Personal Freedom (PF) due to job level and corporation.

Limitations

The scope of this study was limited to 10 corporations located within a geographically accessible area, whose employees were willing

to participate. The number of subjects per corporation was limited to 40 due to the fact that assessment occurred during working hours.

Definitions

1. Corporate Values: A set of basic assumptions which form a pattern for a corporation's activities, opinions, and actions.
2. Corporate Norms: A corporation's unwritten rules for behavior which are based on the corporate values.
3. Corporate Culture Strength: The degree to which corporate values and corporate norms are shared.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Organizational culture and the difference it could make in corporate effectiveness, suddenly became the focus of attention in the early 1980s when Japanese companies began to compete successfully with their American counterparts (Schein, 1985b). The Japanese seemed much more concerned with developing and passing on a management philosophy or corporate culture which played a major role in motivating and guiding company efforts (Wilkins, 1983). Additionally, some suggest that companies have been pressured by America's past decade of economic turbulence, including recession, deregulation, technical upheaval, foreign competition, and markets that seem to emerge and vanish monthly (Uttal, 1983; Sathe, 1983; Wilkins, 1983). These pressures led quickly to the popularity of studying corporations as cultural phenomena.

Consultants, authors, and researchers discovered an influence beyond strategy and technology that accounted for the ability of some corporations to adapt and succeed while others failed. This influence was termed corporate culture--organizational culture as it applied to corporations. However, various writers on organizational culture used different definitions, different methods of determining what they meant by culture, and different standards for evaluating culture (Schein, 1985b). Little serious analysis of organizational culture and how it affected corporate functioning has occurred, and most of the research has been theoretical in nature. A few objective studies of corporate culture, however, have begun to emerge.

This review of literature is focused upon on two components of corporate culture: content and strength. Content refers to the nature of corporate culture, specifically values and norms. Strength refers to the extent to which meanings, values, and norms were shared or understood among corporate employees. The review of literature was divided into two parts. The first part included a definition and review of organizational culture. The second part included a definition and review of corporate culture along with a review of the importance of cultural awareness, content of corporate culture—norms, values, and leadership, the strength of corporate culture or the extent to which norms and values were shared, and the assessment of corporate culture.

Organizational Culture

The concept of culture is not new, but in recent years, authors, managers, scholars, and business consultants have given increased attention to culture as it related to organizations (Louis, 1985). Organizational culture, which evolved out of both anthropology and sociology, has not been well developed (Schein, 1985b; Van Maanen & Barley, 1985; Smircich, 1985) and had no singular clear definition (Smircich, 1985; Louis, 1985). Organizational culture is more theoretical than empirical. Literature on organizational culture provided sound speculation, but no concrete results.

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

(1985) speculated that culture could be a paradigm for understanding organizations, but this concept had two drawbacks. There were multiple conceptions of culture, and, in some instances, culture did not go far enough in its ability to explain organizations. Van Maanen and Barley (1985) suggested that organizational culture evolved from fragments of both sociological and anthropological theories. They proposed that organizational culture be defined by considering four domains of analysis:

1. Ecological--physical territory, particular time periods.
2. Differential interaction--network of communication links between people.
3. Collective understanding--interpretation of objects, events, and activities.
4. Group member--a group is necessary to invent and sustain culture. Culture endures only to the degree that the content is transmitted from one generation to the next.

He concluded that while organizational culture is difficult to define simply, it is created by the interacting dynamics of the persons within the organization.

Schein (1984), as part of a theoretical framework, defined organizational culture as:

"a pattern of basic assumptions--invented, discovered or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration. This pattern has worked well enough to be considered valid and,

therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems" (p. 3).

Organizational culture, as defined by Louis (1985), was a set of understandings or a group's shared meanings which were clearly relevant and distinctive to that group and were passed down to new members. The basic components of culture, according to Louis (1985), were "content, a set of common understandings and behavior patterns; a population, unit, or group and the relationship between the content and the group" (p. 74). The most generally accepted definition of organizational culture was a system of shared understandings or beliefs, values, and meanings (Smircich, 1983; Louis, 1985). Louis (1985) found that many definitions of organizational culture were in agreement in that a set of shared meanings made it possible for members of a group to interpret and act upon their environment. He proposed, however, that to decipher an organization's culture, the basic underlying assumptions must be uncovered by digging below the organization's surface to examine content; norms and values. Tichy (1982) saw organizational culture as a "normative glue"--the sharing of important beliefs by its members—that holds an organization together.

Smircich (1983) observed that there was some agreement among researchers that organizational culture, conceived as shared key values and beliefs, fulfills four important functions for members: a generation of commitment to something larger than self; enhancement of social system stability; a sense of identity for members, and a sense-making device that can guide and shape behavior.

Jelinek, Smircich, and Hirsch (1983) gained new insight by going beyond commonly evaluated factors and considering less frequently examined elements such as shared understandings, norms, and values. Schein (1985b) agreed that the principles of organizational culture could account for the dynamics of why and how organizations grow and change. Past organizational psychology and sociology theories have failed to explain these phenomena. Smircich (1983) agreed that by using a cultural frame of reference, one could analyze organizations from several different and promising directions. Schein (1985b) noted that the concept of culture was becoming relevant in its ability to provide an understanding of the "mysterious and seemingly irrational" things that went on in human systems (p. 4).

While the organizational culture literature provided generalizations, theorizing, and hypothesizing rather than concrete evidence, the corporate culture literature started to fill this void of concreteness.

Corporate Culture

According to Deal and Kennedy (1982), every business had a culture, and the culture had a powerful influence throughout the business. It affected everything from who was promoted and what decisions were made, to how employees dressed and what sports they played.

Denison (1984) noted that corporate culture formed the core identity of a corporation. According to Bower (1966), the elements of corporate culture were referred to as the "way we do things around here." Ernest (1985) agreed that corporations had cultures and that they provided

the internal context in which they operate. Cultures were a guide to management style, employee behavior, how things were done, and how people related. Corporate culture was defined in most all studies as a pattern of shared beliefs, values, and norms that gave meaning to members of a corporation and provided them with rules of behavior in their organization (Davis, 1984; Uttal, 1983; Kilmann, 1984; "Corporate Culture," 1980; Denison, 1984; Ernest, 1985; Pascale, 1984; Deal & Kennedy, 1982).

Values set a pattern for a company's activities, opinions, and actions. They could be implied, such as, "be honest," or explicit, such as "Progress is our most important product" (Deal & Kennedy, 1982, p. 6). Norms, as part of the corporate culture definition, were considered to be unwritten rules for behavior, i.e., "Don't disagree with your boss in public," and "Look busy, even when you're not" (Kilmann, 1985, p. 102).

Uttal (1983) theorized that corporate culture was a system of shared values and beliefs that interacted with a company's employees, organizational structures, and control systems to produce norms. For example, at International Business Machines (IBM), customer service was a dominant value that kept everyone pulling in the same direction. Kilmann (1985) proposed that corporate culture was an invisible quality--a certain style, a character, a way of doing things in a corporation.

The idea of culture applied to corporations has been encouragement to attend to something in corporations beyond technical processes. The corporate culture concept allowed "mystery and soul" to be put

back into the study of corporations (Smircich, 1985). Schwartz and Davis (1981) agreed that well-run corporations of the world had distinctive cultures that were "somehow responsible for their ability to create, implement, and maintain their world leadership positions" (p. 30). They studied such companies as Coca-Cola, Hertz, PepsiCo, Avis, and Hershey and found that all had characteristic and intangible aspects associated with their success. Like Schwartz and Davis (1981), Deal and Kennedy (1982) sought to explain why some corporations were failing and some were more successful. They researched approximately 80 corporations through informal surveys, interviews, talking to business consultants, and reading biographies. They concluded that culture had a major effect on the success of a business and proposed that corporate culture has been a driving force behind the success of American business. Their observations led them to believe that the long-term prosperity of a corporation lay in culture including its inner values.

Another attempt to ascertain why certain corporations do extremely well while similar ones remain mediocre was the source of a study and popular book In Search of Excellence, (Peters & Waterman, 1982). Their impetus for research grew out of a concern for the problems of management effectiveness, especially the relationship between strategy, structure, and management effectiveness. In their search for corporate excellence, they concluded that "Without exception, the dominance of a coherent culture proved to be an essential quality of the excellent companies" (p. 75). They, along with Deal and Kennedy

(1982), found that the corporate stories, myths and legends appear to be very important since they convey the organization's shared values or culture.

The following was a typical story, or legend which exemplified the meaning of corporate culture including norms and values and the importance of leadership.

"S. C. Allyn, a retired chairman of the board, likes to tell a story about his company--National Cash Register Corporation (NCR). It was August, 1945, and Allyn was among the first allied civilians to enter Germany at the end of the war. He had gone to find out what had happened to an NCR factory built just before the war but promptly confiscated by the German military command and put to work on the war effort. He arrived via military plane and traveled through burned-out buildings, rubble, and utter desolation until he reached what was left of the factory. Picking his way through bricks, cement, and old timbers, Allyn came upon two NCR employees whom he hadn't seen for six years. Their clothes were torn and their faces grimy and blackened by smoke, but they were busy clearing out the rubble. As he came closer, one of the men looked on and said, "We knew you'd come!" Allyn joined them in their work and together the three men began cleaning out the debris and rebuilding the factory from the devastation of war. The company had even survived the ravages of world war.

A few days later, as the clearing continued, Allyn and his co-workers were startled as an American tank rumbled up to the site. A grinning GI was at its helm. "Hi," he said, "I'm NCR Omaha. Did you guys make your quota this month?" Allyn and the GI embraced each other. The war may have devastated everything around them, but NCR's hard-driving, sales-oriented culture was still intact" (Deal & Kennedy, 1982, pp. 3-4).

A more detailed description of corporations with strong cultures was reported in 1980 in Business Week magazine ("Corporate Culture,"

1980). In this article, the term corporate culture was introduced to the business press by stating that some of the most successful companies have demonstrated that such a culture could be its major strength if it were consistent with corporate strategy. The following successful companies, International Business Machines (IBM), PepsiCo, and J. C. Penney, exemplified strong corporate culture ("Corporate Culture," 1980).

International Business Machines (IBM) had a traditional culture where marketing promulgates a service philosophy. This belief was exemplified by the fact that IBM kept a hot line open 24 hours a day, seven days a week to service IBM products. This service-based belief was started by IBM's founder, Tom Watson, and passed down to succeeding generations of IBM managers. Watson also believed in respect for the individual as an important value. His behavior supported this, he was often seen walking the floor of his plants talking with and listening to employees.

Over the past 20 years, PepsiCo officers have changed their culture from a passive one to an aggressive one in their effort to challenge the number one soft drink producer, Coca-Cola ("Corporate Culture," 1980). In marketing efforts, PepsiCo asked consumers to take the "Pepsi challenge," by taking on Coke directly in a taste test. This competitive value was reflected inside the company as well. Managers were pitted against each other to grab more market share, work harder, and gain more profits. Those who found themselves losers found their jobs gone. A new employee in PepsiCo quickly learned that beating the

competition, whether outside or inside the company, was the surest path to success. PepsiCo employees were expected to work long and hard, keep physically fit, and were encouraged to compete in sports and games. PepsiCo employed four physical fitness instructors and structured interdepartmental competitions and company team contests in keeping with an aggressive, competitive corporate culture.

In contrast to PepsiCo, the J. C. Penney Co. strove to build long-term loyalty at the expense of a quick victory. It was, however, an equally successful company ("Corporate Culture," 1980). Penney's business style was set by the company founder and expounded the basic value that it was wrong to take unfair advantage of anyone with whom the company did business. Customers knew they could return merchandise with no questions asked. Suppliers knew Penney's would not haggle over terms and employees were comfortable with their jobs knowing that Penney would avoid layoffs at all costs and find easier jobs for those who could not handle more demanding ones.

On the other hand, Uttal (1983) found many examples of corporate cultures that, once a source of strength, became major obstacles to success by nature of their content and strength. For instance, when AT&T announced that it was making a major strategic shift from a service-oriented telephone company to a market-oriented business, the shift was to become a major task. Schwartz and Davis (1981) reported that Sherwin-Williams' change from a production-oriented company to a marketing-oriented company took years to accomplish.

Depending on its strength and content, corporate culture could be

the single most promising catalyst or the single greatest barrier to implementing and guiding strategic responses (Davis, 1984). Kilmann (1985) agreed that there were no good or bad cultures per se, but classified them as those which either did or did not reinforce the corporate purpose and strategy by the nature of their content and strength.

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

Pascale (1984) observed that "What corporate strategy was in the 1970s, corporate culture is becoming in the 1980s" (p. 29). Uttal (1983) agreed that United States business was in the throes of a "cultural revolution" (p. 66). In the early 1980s, millions of persons purchased one or more of three popular management books: Theory Z, the Art of Japanese Management (Ouchi, 1981), Corporate Cultures (Deal & Kennedy, 1982), and In Search of Excellence (Peters & Waterman, 1982). These books addressed the impact that corporate culture has on outstanding corporations.

Managers have started worrying about the appropriateness of the content of their corporate cultures and consultants are offering high-priced advice on how to mesh corporate culture with strategy. A corporation's culture could be an asset when it is consistent with its strategies ("Corporate Culture," 1980). The following section addresses this concept.

Importance of Cultural Awareness

Deal and Kennedy (1982) proposed that not only should top executives have an awareness of their corporation's culture, but that all employees would benefit from knowing what their culture was.

Managers of corporations must have an awareness or understanding of their organization's culture in order to create optimum performance and accomplish their goals. Senior executives need to understand culture in order to understand why their companies are succeeding or failing. An accurate reading of the culture and an ability to manipulate it to fit the marketplace would further the success of a company's chief executive officer (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). In a study of corporate culture as it related to corporate performance, Gordon (1985) suggested that in some corporations, the leadership was badly out of touch with the organizational values that influence the bulk of their managers as well as the larger group of non-management employees. Employees, at all stages of their careers, needed to understand culture and how it worked since it was likely to have a major effect on their work lives. When employees chose a company, they often chose a way of life (Deal & Kennedy, 1982).

Employers should understand their organization's culture to more successfully socialize new employees into the corporation, and teach them the "way we do things" thus enabling the organization to work better (Pascale, 1984, p. 29). Louis (1980) agreed that an individual entering an organization for the first time needed to go through a socialization process which involved a general appreciation of the corporation's culture which included critical organizational values and pivotal behaviors. Ernest (1985) also found that orienting new employees to a company's culture helped insure that a more appropriate fit between the company and the individual would occur, resulting in less turnover, better performance, higher employee morale, and greater job satisfaction.

Ernest (1985) indicated that effective business planning required an understanding of corporate culture as well as an understanding of the external competitive environment. There must be a fit between planning and beliefs, especially if organizational risks were to be reduced.

Cultural awareness enabled a corporation to more successfully institute effective organizational training and development programs, human resource programs, employee selection policies, compensation programs, performance appraisals, and promotion systems. Corporate culture provided the context for determining which organizational development plans would be effective. Such plans would be ineffective if they were incompatible with the corporation's culture (Ernest, 1985). Donnelly (1984) agreed that business consultants were finding that, for

a company to be successful, there must have been a match between corporate planning and corporate culture.

When a corporation was faced with an external challenge such as an industry which had changed, a takeover, or a merger, there was a need to understand the corporation's culture before modifying it to fit new situations. Magnet (1984) explained that understanding one's culture was important when a company with one set of traditions, values, and beliefs was forced to assimilate the traditions, values and beliefs of another company through a merger or takeover. Ernest (1985) agreed that trying to mesh incompatible cultures with conflicting values and norms would result in "turnover, lost productivity and low morale" (p. 56). An understanding of both cultures could reduce these problems. An executive from Sears, Roebuck and Co. attributed the success of the Sears merger with Coldwell Banker, two very dissimilar cultures, to a recognition of the cultural differences and a willingness to let Coldwell Banker operate autonomously. The same concept was evident in the case of diversification in that a corporation's culture could prevent a company from meeting external, competitive threats or from adapting to changing economic or social environments ("Corporate Culture," 1980; Louis, 1982; Main, 1984).

Understanding and changing a corporation's culture could be necessary for a company's survival (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Those occasions were when 1) the larger environment was undergoing fundamental change, 2) the industry was highly competitive and the environment changed quickly, 3) the company was mediocre or worse, 4) the company

was on the threshold of becoming a large corporation, and 5) the company was growing rapidly.

Schwartz and Davis (1981) discovered that if a corporation could learn how to evaluate its own corporate culture, it could learn a great deal about how to manage through a period of strategic change. Awareness and agreement within the company about the culture phenomenon and its effect on the company was vital. Kilmann (1985) pointed out that adaptive cultures were necessary in successful corporations. Unattended, a corporation's culture became dysfunctional. Uttal (1983) noted that chief executive officers and managers were learning that inappropriate corporate cultures could be stumbling blocks to corporate strategy. With a better understanding of an organization's culture, "management could appropriately enter, deviate from, and change it" (Sathe, 1983, p. 5).

Content

The generally accepted definition of corporate culture stated that it was a pattern of shared beliefs, values, and norms. The following section addresses the role of leaders, values, norms, and the extent to which values and norms were shared in a corporation.

What constituted the content of corporate culture for some, persons was the organization's corporate values (Schein, 1985b). For others, it was the organization's corporate norms (Kilmann, 1984). There was, however, general agreement that leaders or top management were the creators and managers of the content of corporate culture values and norms (Schein, 1985b).

Leadership

It was understood that the philosophies of founders or current top management, particularly the chief executive officer (CEO), formed the basis of a company's corporate culture including values and norms (Ernest, 1985; Davis, 1984). Culture was seen as rooted in the values and philosophies of the early founders of a corporation (Ernest, 1985; "Corporate Culture," 1980; Donnelly, 1984). Leaders or top management personified the corporate value system (Uttal, 1983; Schwartz & Davis, 1981). These values and beliefs were instilled in employees by management behaviors and passed down through the ranks and also to succeeding generations of workers ("Corporate Culture," 1980; Schein, 1984; Donnelly, 1984; Ouchi, 1981). The words of CEO's alone did not produce culture, but their actions and those of management did ("Corporate Culture," 1980). Donnelly (1984) found that corporate culture represented the influence of its leaders, giving a corporation its own customized personality.

There was little doubt that the shaping force of a corporation was the belief system of the founder (Schein, 1985b; Davis, 1984). Culture was a "top down" affair (Davis, 1984). A top executive's attitude, personal biases, energy level, warmth, perceived trust level, respect, and leadership were often the most efficient factors determining the culture and climate throughout a company (Smith & Walz, 1984). Schwartz and Davis (1981) noted that the choices made by top managers made reflected the company's culture. Ernest (1985) found that the clearest understanding of the culture was elicited by examining the

practices of management.

Donnelly (1984) agreed that corporate culture represented the influence that the leaders, senior managers, and especially the chief executive officer had on the organization--creating a climate for the employees and an image for the organization. Schein (1985b) also emphasized the role of the top executive in shaping and reinforcing culture. According to "Corporate Culture," (1980), the actions of top managers produce culture. Peters and Waterman (1982) found that in excellent companies, culture could be traced back to an influential founder or other top executive who personified the value system.

Davis (1984) observed in studying corporate culture, that guiding beliefs were set at the top and transmitted down through the ranks in a top-down manner. Kilmann (1984) agreed that founders and top managers' objectives, principles, values and especially behaviors provide important clues as to what was expected from all company employees.

Values

Values have been defined in various ways by psychological and philosophical sources. Values represented eternal or universal truths (Nelson, 1973), instincts (Freud, 1961), needs (Maslow, 1954, Fromm, 1947), or preferences (Rescher, 1969). Sociologists and anthropologists tended to define values as standards or rules of society (Kniker, 1977).

Values, according to Sathe (1983), represented a principal type of shared understanding in a culture. Values were basic assumptions with an ought to implicit in them. Values represented preferences for an

ultimate result--such as striving to be number one, or avoiding debt at all costs.

Deal and Kennedy (1982) believed that values were the "bedrock" of any corporate culture. Functionally, values created a set of expected rules of behavior for employees (Davis, 1971; Donnelly, 1984) which served to hold an organization together (Kilmann, 1984; Donnelly, 1984). Values tended to give members a sense of identity (Smircich, 1983) and kept everyone pulling toward a common goal (Uttal, 1983; Smircich, 1983; Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Values created corporate culture, therefore, clear values were not apparent in weak cultures (Deal & Kennedy, 1982).

For those who held them, shared values were the definition of the fundamental character of their organization (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Lundberg (1985) explained that values reflected the real goals, ideals, standards, philosophies, and missions of a company. Schein (1985b) stated that values provided the day-to-day operating principles by which employees guided their behavior. According to Deal and Kennedy (1982), companies often succeeded because their employees could identify, embrace, and act on the values of the organization.

"These values may be grand in scope ['Progress is our most important product'], or narrowly focused ["Underwriting excellence']. They can capture the imagination ['The first Irish multinational']. They can tell people how to work together ['It takes two to Tandem']. Or they can simply drive ['15 percent period-to-period sales and earnings growth']. If they are strong, they command everyone's attention: 'What people really care about here is quality.' If they are weak, they may often be ignored: 'It's not the same company since the old man stepped down. Nowadays everyone around here is just more or less doing his own thing'" (p. 21).

Schein (1985a) and Davis (1971) reported that to understand culture one must have identified values, for values were manifestations of culture. Understanding corporate values was seen as important to executives in making decisions (Deal & Kennedy, 1982), hiring and training new employees (Pascale, 1984; Uttal, 1983), determining strategy (Donnelly, 1984), and making promotions (Deal & Kennedy, 1982).

Norms

The term norms, according to Sathe (1983), was sometimes used interchangeably with the term values, but there was an important distinction. Norms were more tactical and procedural than values. Norms were "standards of expected behavior, speech, and presentation of self" (p. 7). In producing specific behavior, norms were often interrelated with or reflected a particular value or set of values (Shull & Beque, 1964). Behaviors reaffirmed corporate values and were considered actual translations of those values (Ernest, 1985).

According to Ernest (1985) and Davis (1984), understanding the values of company founders and top executives was critical in assessing a corporation's culture. Cultural norms, like values, were produced by leaders and founders and had a powerful influence over the behavior of individuals and a corporation as a whole (Schwartz & Davis, 1981; Ernest, 1985; Silverzweig & Allen, 1976; Shull & Beque, 1964).

In the process of examining a corporate culture, norms were considered an extremely important part of the content (Davis, 1984; Uttal, 1983; Kilmann, 1985, "Corporate Culture," 1980; Ernest, 1985;

Denison, 1984; Pascale, 1984; Deal & Kennedy, 1982). In the corporate context, norms were defined for the most part as a generally accepted prescription for behavior (Shull & Beque, 1964). Norms were also defined as unwritten behavioral expectations or rules (Silverzweig & Allen, 1976; Kilmann, 1985) or the "way we do things around here" (Uttal, 1983, p. 66). The impact corporate norms had on a company could be very strong (Ernest, 1985). Corporate norms were produced by leaders and founders (Ernest, 1985), and had powerful influence over the behavior of individuals and the organization as a whole (Schwartz & Davis, 1981; Ernest, 1985; Silverzweig & Allen, 1976; Shull & Beque, 1964).

Norms functioned in a multi-dimensional way to influence membership behavior (Shull & Beque, 1964). This influence was accomplished through guilt, ego, a need for socioemotional reinforcement, and formalized rewards and punishment. Various norms which affected behavior in business settings included dress codes, reward systems, how hard employees worked, how employees interacted with one another, and how success was measured (Shull & Beque, 1964). In other words, norms were evidenced by observable behavior (Schwartz & Davis, 1981; Ernest, 1985).

Norms reflected values and were antecedent to behavior (Ernest, 1985; Shull & Beque, 1964). For example, the norm, try new ways of doing things, could reflect a corporate value of innovation.

Strength of Corporate Culture:

The Extent to Which Values and Norms Were Shared

In the examination of corporate culture strength, one must not only consider the content, norms, and values, but the extent to

which the values and norms were shared by all employees. A strong culture was one with a set of shared values, norms, and beliefs that headed everybody in the same direction (Pascale, 1984). According to Weick (1985), a strong culture was one in which the belief system was widely shared, providing its membership with coherence and meaning.

Cultures with more widely shared beliefs, norms, and values were stronger and had more impact because a larger number of people were guided by them (Sathe, 1983). Wilkins (1983) referred to shared beliefs as a kind of "automatic pilot" that provided direction for employees (p. 27). Denison (1984) referred to a strong culture as one that encouraged the participation and involvement of its members. Schein (1984) defined the strength of culture in terms of 1) the homogeneity and stability of group membership and 2) the length and intensity of shared experiences of the group.

According to Deal and Kennedy (1982), a strong culture was a cohesive one where everyone knew the goals of the corporation and was working for them. A strong culture affected everything from who was hired to what and how decisions were made. In any company with a strong culture, an employee at any time was aware of what the company stood for and what employees believe in.

Deal and Kennedy (1982) believed that a strong culture was a powerful lever for guiding employee behavior. A strong culture helped employees do their jobs a little better by affording them a system of informal rules that indicated how to behave most of the time and enabled them to feel better about what they did. Therefore, they wasted little

time deciding how to act in a given situation, felt better about what they did and were more likely to work harder. Persons with shared beliefs did not need as much supervision to handle exceptions (Wilkins, 1983).

Peters and Waterman (1982) found that in successful corporations, the stronger the culture and the more direction it had toward the marketplace, the less need there was for policy manuals, organizational charts, or detailed procedures and rules. In these companies, persons throughout the corporation knew what they were supposed to do in most situations because the values were shared and clear.

Cultures with more shared beliefs and values had more strength or influence. Cultures with more widely shared beliefs and values had more impact because a larger number of persons were guided by them (Sathe, 1983).

Assessment

Recognizing that corporations were made up of various departments, divisions and job levels, it was important to take sample readings from all groups in the corporation to discover the extent to which beliefs were or were not shared (Wilkins, 1983). In reviewing the literature on corporate culture, it was apparent that most researchers had used the interview technique in assessing corporate culture. This section will review studies which used the interview process as well as three studies which utilized more objective techniques.

Schein (1985a) proposed that since basic assumptions, shared values, and norms, were difficult to study, long-term observation and in-depth

clinical interviewing techniques must be used. Most of the information evidenced in the literature concerning the assessment of corporate culture was gathered using interview techniques. Louis (1985) concluded that the extent to which meanings, norms and values were shared in a corporate culture must be assessed by asking the following questions:

1. How far down into the organization did the corporate culture extend?
2. Were top-level prescriptions manifested among first-line supervisors?
3. Was there significant variation among employees' translations of shared meanings?

The interview approach was used by several authors including Peters and Waterman (1982) and Deal and Kennedy (1982) in their research of corporate culture. In their study, Peters and Waterman (1982) conducted extensive talks with executives around the world; visited a dozen business schools in the United States and Europe, and held intense, structured interviews in approximately 30 highly-regarded companies. Approximately 30 corporations were also studied through secondary channels such as press releases and annual reports. Similar interview techniques had been utilized in many studies (Schwartz & Davis, 1981; Uttal, 1983; Schein, 1984; Davis, 1984; Lundberg, 1985).

Deal and Kennedy (1982) utilized the interview approach in their study of corporate culture by asking business consultants the following questions:

1. Did company X have one or more visible beliefs?
2. If so, what were they?
3. Did people in the organization know these beliefs? If so, who and how many?
4. How did these beliefs affect the day-to-day business?
5. How were the beliefs communicated to the organization?
6. Were the beliefs reinforced by formal personnel processes, recognition, or rewards?
7. How would you characterize the performance of the company?

The interview process could be effective in assessing corporate culture when it was combined with the the study of corporate artifacts (Schein, 1985b), such as physical settings (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Ernest, 1985; Schein, 1984), dress, jargon, how strangers were greeted (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Schwartz & Davis, 1981; Ernest, 1985), myths, legends, and stories (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Ernest, 1985; Pettigrew, 1979; Martin, Feldman, Hatch, & Sitkin, 1983; Smith & Simmons, 1983; Smircich, 1983; Schein, 1985b), hiring and promotional practices (Schwartz & Davis, 1981; Deal & Kennedy, 1982), and decision-making practices and policies (Schwartz & Davis, 1981; Ernest, 1985). Deal and Kennedy (1982) also noted that a lot could be learned about corporate culture by reading annual reports and press releases.

It appeared that the most frequently used corporate culture assessment tool was the interview process. Three authors, however, had taken advantage of the use of survey instruments in their

examinations of corporate culture. Ernest's (1985) Management Practices Survey had been used to examine management practices, the Kilmann-Saxton Culture-Gap Survey (KSCG) had been used to assess cultural norms and gaps (Kilmann, 1984), and the Survey of Organizations (SOO) had been utilized in assessing organizational practices which reflected corporate culture (Denison, 1982).

Ernest (1985) suggested that understanding the beliefs and values of company founders or top executives was critical to assessing a company's culture and that the homogeneity of management practices reflected the strength of those underlying beliefs and values. The assessment of corporate culture could be difficult if the beliefs of top management were not accurate reflections of the culture or when the culture of a corporation was different from those professed by top executives. Therefore, Ernest (1985) proposed that by comparing upper and middle management practices, one can assess how effectively the beliefs and values of top executives were translated to employees. Ernest (1985) found that wide differences or dispersions of practices may have indicated weakened cultures. As a management consultant, Ernest conducted corporate culture assessments by analyzing management practices through observation, in-depth interviews, and use of a Management Practices Survey which assessed the degree to which a variety of management behaviors were practiced in an organization, thus revealing the strength of values and beliefs of corporate leaders.

In solving performance problems, Kilmann (1984) suggested that

corporate managers develop an overall approach to creating and maintaining organizational success. This approach should integrate five components or "tracks": 1) culture; 2) management skills; 3) team-building; 4) strategy structure, and 5) the reward system. According to Kilmann (1984), any one of these used alone produced only short term results. Lasting success had a higher guarantee when these five components were managed together on a continuing basis and where each component was implemented as a participative effort among managers, consultants, and corporate employees.

Kilmann (1985) proposed that in attending to the culture component of a corporation, it was necessary to pay attention to the powerful effects that norms had on corporate performance. It was possible to change corporate culture along with corporate strategy by managing corporate norms. The process of norm management included identifying the existing norms, determining which ones were needed for corporate success, and establishing new or ideal norms. The difference between the existing norms and the ideal norms was called a culture-gap.

In order to measure this gap, the Kilmann-Saxton Culture-Gap Survey (Kilmann & Saxton, 1983) was created. This instrument identified corporate cultural norms in four areas: task support, task innovation, social relationships, and personal freedom (Kilmann, 1985, pp. 363-364).

Another survey instrument, the Survey of Organizations (SOO) (Taylor & Bowers, 1972), was used by Denison (1982) in his study of the relationship between corporate culture and corporate performance. This

questionnaire addressed the dimensions of organizational climate, managerial leadership, peer behavior, group processes, satisfaction, and culture through the assessment of organizational conditions and practices.

The data used in Denison's (1982) study were based on employee perceptions of organizational practices and conditions in their corporations. The SOO operationalized the values of the corporate practices which characterized a corporation's culture and included organization of work, communication flow, concern for people, and decision-making practices. Denison (1982) believed that the use of a survey instrument had two strengths; the same method could be applied to a number of organizations in the same manner and the results could be used to compare and make generalizations.

Summary

Both academic literature and business literature revealed the current interest in organizational culture, especially as it applied to corporations. Much of the literature emphasized the importance of examining organizations from a cultural viewpoint by looking beyond strategy and technology to such intangible cultural components as values and norms. Corporate culture, according to the literature, was defined as a pattern of shared beliefs, values, and norms which originated with corporate leaders and passed throughout the corporation and on to succeeding generations. Values defined the fundamental character of a corporation, and norms, the unwritten rules of corporate behavior, reflected those values. The extent to which corporate values

and corporate norms were shared throughout a corporation represented the strength of a corporate culture. There was evidence in the literature that a corporation with a strong culture was a successful one.

Therefore, it was important for corporations to assess their cultures to insure optimum performance and adapt to external and internal change.

In assessing corporate culture, researchers used interview techniques and, in three cases, a survey instrument.

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to examine shared understandings of corporate values and corporate norms as a reflection of the strength of corporate culture.

Sample Selection

There were two sample selection procedures used in this study, corporation selection and employee selection. Corporations selected had to have at least 100 employees in one job location. Eleven corporations in Iowa and Nebraska were initially contacted. After personal conferences with an executive of each corporation, 10 corporations agreed to be involved in the study. The major business focus of the selected corporations and the total number of employees are presented in Table 1.

Systematic random sampling was employed to select 40 subjects from each corporation. In addition, the Chief Executive Officer of each corporation was included as a subject.

Questionnaire Development

An extended review of the literature in the area of corporate culture revealed that, while shared understanding of values and norms reflected the strength of a corporation's culture, no instruments had been specifically designed to measure or assess corporate values or norms. The research process revealed, however, that the Survey of Organizations (SOO) (Taylor & Bowers, 1972), originally designed to measure organizational climate, had been revised and had the capacity

Table 1. Focus of corporations and employee size

CORPORATE FOCUS	EMPLOYEES IN POPULATION
1. Insurance	250
2. Bank card processing	2400
3. Marketing information service	350
4. Legal firm support staff	190
5. Physicians clinic support staff	254
6. Manufacturing	400
7. Agricultural seed producer	900
8. Grain merchandising and storage	500
9. Insurance	3700
10. Manufacturing	440

to be used as a cultural value assessment (Denison, 1984).

Additionally, the Kilmann-Saxton Culture-Gap Survey (KSCG) (Kilmann & Saxton, 1983) was found as an instrument capable of assessing corporate norms (Kilmann, 1984). Both of these instruments have been developed over a period of years to assist businesses and organizations. The University of Michigan Institute for Social Research and Rensis Likert Associates, Inc. presents over 15 years of item useability. The KSCG has been used in numerous profit and non-profit organizations to identify corporate culture norms. In that this useability is a reflection of item content validity, the researcher used items from both surveys to create a brief, paper and pencil instrument to assess

corporate culture strength.

Parts of these two instruments, SOO and KSCG, were incorporated into a self-administered questionnaire used to collect data from the subjects. This questionnaire contained 13 items from the Survey of Organizations (SOO) (Taylor & Bowers, 1972) which assessed values; 28 items from the Kilmann-Saxton Culture-Gap Survey (KSCG) (Kilmann & Saxton, 1983) which assessed norms; six items written by the researcher to assess the subject's attitudes toward their organization's human resource practices and five socio-demographic items.

In creating the questionnaire, the length of time necessary to complete it was a major consideration since subjects were requested to respond during their working hours. The questionnaire was tested at several work sites before its design was finalized. Each of the questionnaire parts will be described.

Survey of Organizations

The Survey of Organizations (SOO) (Taylor & Bowers, 1972), created at the University of Michigan Institute for Social Research, was a comprehensive employee questionnaire which described conditions and practices in an organization which ultimately affect an organization's bottom line performance. First developed in the 1960s, the SOO has been used in hundreds of large and small organizations and in all types of industries. The most recent edition of the SOO was published in 1980 and incorporated recent developments in the field of organizational behavior, including cultural dimensions.

The S00 addressed the major areas of organizational climate, culture, supervisory leadership, peer relationships, and employee satisfaction. It was commonly used as an assessment tool to analyze employee attitudes and perceptions at all levels of an organization and was designed for all educational levels. The S00 scales focused on respondents' perceptions about the way their organization was managed, rather than their own attitudes, so that a clear, diagnostic picture of each organization could emerge from the survey data.

The S00 was a 125-item standardized questionnaire with 27 subscales. It operationalized the theories of Rensis Likert, a proponent of participative management, and was designed around the theory of organizational management described by Likert:

"The basic building block of the organization is the face-to-face group, consisting of the supervisor and those subordinates immediately responsible to him. The organization consists most basically of a structure of groups, linked together by overlapping memberships into a pyramid through which the work flows" (1961, p. 9).

The S00 (Taylor & Bowers, 1972) has been proven a reliable and valid questionnaire. Its design presumed that certain social processes and relationships were common to all organizations. This assumption, therefore, allowed organizations to be compared on social, behavioral, and cultural dimensions (Denison, 1984). In order to keep response to the questionnaire within the time limit, the researcher chose to use only 13 of the items which comprised five subscales. These five subscales were indicators of cultural managerial style which represented a set

of values. These five subscales included Organization of Work (ORG), Concern for People (CONCERN), Communication Flow (COMFLO), Decision-Making Practices (DIS), and Influence and Control (IC).

The Organization of Work (ORG) subscale, four items, assessed the subject's perception of the clarity and effectiveness of the organization's work structure. Concern for People (CONCERN), three items, assessed the subject's perception of the importance of human resources in the organization's work structure. Communication Flow (COMFLO), three items, assessed the subject's perception of the effectiveness of communicating information flows. Decision-Making Practices (DIS), two items, assessed the subject's perception of the participative character of the ways in which the organization made decisions. Influence and Control (IC), one item, assessed the subject's perception of where organizational influence lay. The Influence and Control subscale was not used in this study due to the nature of the item. It proved to be a difficult item from which to generalize. Each subject was asked to respond on a scale from 1-5 indicating "very little extent" to a "very great extent" in each of the 500 items.

Kilmann-Saxton Culture-Gap Survey

Ralph Kilmann (1985) created an integrative approach to organizational management which was designed to create and maintain organizational success. This approach consisted of five components or tracks: 1) culture, 2) management skills, 3) team-building, 4) strategy-structure, and 5) reward systems. According to Kilmann (1984), the culture track consisted of a five-step process: 1) identifying actual

cultural norms, 2) articulating what is needed for success, 3) establishing new cultural norms, 4) identifying culture gaps, and 5) closing culture gaps.

Norms, according to Kilmann (1984), were defined as unwritten rules for behavior. The Kilmann-Saxton Culture-Gap Survey (KSCG) (Kilmann & Saxton, 1983) was created as a tool to identify and diagnose cultural norms and culture-gaps. In this study, the instrument was used to identify corporate norms and determine whether or not they were known throughout the organization.

The KSCG Survey consisted of 28 pairs of norms which were written by employees and managers in more than 25 different types of organizations. More than 400 norms were collected through interviews and group discussions. Statistical analyses and tests reduced these to the 28 that appeared on the survey. These 28 items were integrated into the four culture norms of Task Support (TS), Task Innovation (TI), Social Relationships (SR), and Personal Freedom (PF). The item selection process included forced-choice response of all 28 items.

In the KSCG Survey, norms were identified as being either technical or human in nature. Norms which guided the technical aspects of work in organizations were contrasted with those pertaining to social and personal aspects. This distinction is common in most discussions of organizational behavior (Kilmann, 1984).

Technical norms included those involved with either task support or task innovation. Task support norms, according to Kilmann (1984), were those having to do with information sharing, helping others, and concern

with efficiency. Task innovation norms stressed creativity, such as "always try to improve" versus "don't rock the boat." Human norms included those involved with social relationships and personal freedom. Social relationship norms were those which indicated rules for socializing with one's work group and mixing friendships with business. Personal freedom norms contained rules for self-expression, exercising discretion, and pleasing oneself. An example of personal freedom norms would be: "believe in the organization's values" versus "believe in your own values."

Additional Questionnaire Data

In addition to the 13 Survey of Organization (SOO) items and the 28 Kilmann-Saxton Culture-Gap Survey (KSCG) items, subjects responded to six questions dealing with their organization's human resource practices. Due to a change in the research design, information from questionnaire item numbers 4, 7, 12, 15, 17, and 19 data was not used in this study, but will be used in further research. A complete questionnaire appears in Appendix A.

Also included in the questionnaire were socio-demographic items taken from the Survey of Organizations. These items, numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 in Part III, were included in order to study how different groups of employees responded to the questions. The major demographic item for this study was job level. For research purposes, the 10 job levels used in the questionnaire were collapsed into three levels: Job Level 1 included all subjects in top and middle management positions; Job Level 2 included all subjects in supervisory positions;

and Job Level 3 included all subjects in non-supervisory positions.

Executive Interview Data

Through an interview with an executive in each of the ten corporations, the following data concerning human resource programs and corporation profile were gathered:

- A. Which of the following does your company employ?
 1. Training programs
 2. Employee assistance program
 3. Wellness facilities or opportunities
 4. Feedback system (suggestion boxes, quality circles, etc.)
 5. Retirement program (excluding benefits)
- B. How old is the company?
- C. How long has the CEO held that position?
- D. How large is the company?
- E. Are any employees represented by a labor organization?

Data Collection Procedure

Questionnaires and instructions for administering them were delivered in packets to each corporate office. These instructions appear in Appendix D. An employee in each corporation was asked to administer the questionnaires to all 41 subjects on the same day, allowing 15 minutes of uninterrupted time to complete. In all but two of the corporations, the directions were followed. In these two cases, some surveys were mailed to employees located outside the identified site in order to obtain a more accurate representative sample of the employee population. When the surveys were completed,

they were returned to a corporate representative and later collected by the researcher. Measures were taken to insure corporation and employee anonymity.

The Iowa State University Committee on the Use of Human Subjects in Research reviewed this project and concluded that the rights and welfare of the human subjects were adequately protected, that risks were outweighed by the potential benefits and expected value of the knowledge sought, that confidentiality of data was assured and that informed consent was obtained by appropriate procedures.

Treatment of Data

The data received on the completed questionnaires were coded and prepared for computer analysis. Statistical treatment of the data was performed by the IBM 360 computer at Iowa State University Computer Center using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS).

Data were treated using a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine if there were significant differences among the independent variable means of job levels and corporations on the eight corporate culture value/norm dependent variables. All hypotheses were tested at a .05 level of significance. A Duncan's Multiple Range Test was used following the rejection of a null hypothesis.

With regard to Job Level, the Duncan's Multiple Range Test was used to locate significant mean differences. With regard to Corporations, the Duncan's Multiple Range Test was used only as a vehicle to identify corporations that were definitely different, i.e., no overlap by the extreme corporations and any other corporation connected to either extreme.

FINDINGS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine shared understandings of corporate values and corporate norms as a reflection of the strength of corporate culture. Corporate values were assessed by utilizing four of the 27 subscales of the Survey of Organizations (SOO) (Taylor & Bowers, 1972). These included Organization of Work (ORG), Communication Flow (COMFLO), Concern for People (CONCERN), and Decision-Making Practices (DIS). Corporate norms were assessed by using the Kilmann-Saxton Culture-Gap Survey (KSCG) (Kilmann & Saxton, 1983). The following norms were assessed: Task Support (TS), Task Innovation (TI), Social Relationships (SR), and Personal Freedom (PF). The shared view of a corporation's culture was investigated by dividing employees into three job levels. Job Level 1 included employees in top and middle management positions including the Chief Executive Officer (CEO). Job Level 2 included employees in supervisory positions and Job Level 3 included employees in non-supervisory positions.

Formulated from the purpose of this study were the research questions:

1. Is there a difference in corporate values due to job level?
2. Is there a difference in corporate values due to corporation?
3. Is there an interaction of job level and corporation on corporate values?

4. Is there a difference in corporate norms due to job level?
5. Is there a difference in corporate norms due to corporation?
6. Is there an interaction of job level and corporation on corporate norms?

The effects of the two dependent variables, job level and corporation and their interaction effect on the eight independent variable measures of corporate culture values and norms were examined by using a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). All significant main effects were further examined using a Duncan's Multiple Range Test. Significant interaction effects were examined by plotting means. All means and standard deviations appear in Appendix C.

In the remaining pages of this chapter are findings pertinent to the research problem. The results of the statistical analyses will be presented by stating each null hypothesis, followed by a discussion of results of the statistical tests, acceptance or rejection of the hypotheses, and the appropriate tables. If mean differences were significant ($p > .05$), a Duncan's Multiple Range Test was applied and if the interaction effect was significant, the means were plotted. The interaction scatterplots appear in Appendix B. A written and tabular presentation of the results follow. In the tables representing the results of Duncan's Multiple Range Tests, numbers which do not share a common underline were found to be significantly different.

Results of the Statistical Analysis

Null Hypothesis 1. There is no difference on value scores Organization of Work (ORG) due to job level and corporation.

- 1a. There is no difference on ORG value scores due to job level.
- 1b. There is no difference on ORG value scores due to corporation.
- 1c. There is no interaction effect between corporation and job level.

The ANOVA applied to the value subscale ORG revealed a significant main effect for job level ($F_{2,380} = 8.7, p = .0002$); therefore the null hypothesis 1a. was rejected. The ANOVA applied to the value subscale ORG revealed a significant main effect for corporation ($F_{9,380} = 4.9, p = .0001$); therefore, the null hypothesis 1b. was rejected. There were no significant interaction effects; therefore, null hypothesis 1c. was accepted (Table 2).

Table 2. ANOVA results on the variable Organization of Work (ORG)

Source	df	SS	MS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Job Level	2	124.31	22.31	8.7	.0002
Corporation	9	314.92	34.99	4.9	.0001
Job Level/Corp	18	127.77	7.10	.99	.4656
Error	380	2713.48			

The Duncan's Multiple Range Test applied to Job Level means indicated that the mean score of employees in Job Level 1 (14.85) was

significantly different ($p > .05$) and higher than the mean score of employees in Level 2 (13.31) and in Level 3 (13.27), whose means were similar (Table 3).

The Duncan's Multiple Range Test applied to corporation means indicated that corporations 7, 9, and 4 scored similarly (approximately 14.68), and significantly different ($p > .05$) from corporations 10 and 6 whose means were similar, 12.54 and 12.24, and considerably lower (Table 3).

Table 3. Organization of Work results of Duncan's Multiple Range Test applied to job level and corporation

<u>Job Level</u>										
	Job Level 1			Job Level 2				Job Level 3		
Means	14.85			13.31				13.27		

<u>Corporation</u>										
	7	9	4	5	8	2	3	1	10	6
Means	14.7	14.7	14.7	13.9	13.3	13.2	13.0	12.9	12.5	12.2

Null Hypothesis 2. There is no difference on value scores Communication Flow (COMFLO) due to job level and corporation.

2a. There is no difference on the value scores COMFLO due to job level.

2b. There is no difference on the value scores COMFLO due

to corporation.

2c. There is no interaction effect between job level and corporation.

The ANOVA applied to the value subscale COMFLO revealed a significant main effect for job level ($F_{2,380} = 12.16, p = .0001$) therefore, the null hypothesis 2a. was rejected. The ANOVA applied to the value subscale COMFLO revealed a significant main effect for corporation ($F_{9,380} = 2.37, p = .0131$); therefore, the null hypothesis 2b. was rejected. There were no significant interaction effects; therefore, the null hypothesis 2c. was accepted (Table 4).

Table 4. ANOVA results on the variable Communication Flow (COMFLO)

Source	df	SS	MS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Job Level	2	141.33	70.67	12.16	.0001
Corporation	9	123.73	13.75	2.37	.0131
Job Level/Corp	18	55.73	3.10	.53	.9422
Error	380	2208.48			

The Duncan's Multiple Range Test applied to job level means indicated that the mean score of employees in Job Level 1 (10.44) was significantly different ($p > .05$) and higher than the mean score of employees in Level 2 (9.26) or in Level 3 (8.74) whose means were similar (Table 5).

The Duncan's Multiple Range Test applied to corporation means

indicated that corporation 7 (6.3) scored significantly different and higher ($p > .05$) than corporation 10 (4.95) (Table 5).

Table 5. Communication Flow results of Duncan's Multiple Range Test applied to job level and corporation

<u>Job Level</u>										
	Job Level 1			Job Level 2			Job Level 3			
Means	<u>10.44</u>			<u>9.26</u>			<u>8.74</u>			
<u>Corporation</u>										
	7	5	2	9	3	4	8	6	1	10
Means	9.9	9.6	9.4	9.4	9.3	9.2	8.9	8.8	8.5	7.9

Null hypotheses 3. There is no difference on value scores Concern for People (CONCERN) due to job level and corporation.

3a. There is no difference on value scores CONCERN due to job level.

3b. There is no difference on value scores CONCERN due to corporation.

3c. There is no interaction effect between job level and corporation.

The ANOVA applied to the value subscale CONCERN revealed significant main effect for job level ($F_{2,380} = 19.21$, $P = .0001$); therefore the null hypothesis 3a. was rejected. The ANOVA applied to the

value subscale CONCERN revealed a significant main effect for corporation ($F_{9,380} = 9.33, p = .0001$); therefore, the null hypothesis 3b. was rejected. There were no interaction effects; therefore, the null hypothesis 3c. was accepted (Table 6).

Table 6. ANOVA results on the variable Concern for People (CONCERN)

Source	df	SS	MS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Job Level	2	207.07	103.54	19.21	.0001
Corporation	9	452.68	50.30	9.33	.0001
Job Level/Corp	18	68.04	3.78	.70	.8102
Error	380	2047.75			

The Duncan's Multiple Range Test applied to job level means indicated that the mean score of employees in Job Level 1 (11.95) was significantly different ($p > .05$) and higher than the mean score of employees in Level 2 (10.27) or Level 3 (9.87) (Table 7).

The Duncan's Multiple Range Test applied to corporation means indicated that corporations 7, 4, and 3 scored similarly (approximately 11.54) and significantly different ($p > .05$) than corporation 6 whose mean was 8.68 and considerably lower (Table 7).

Null Hypotheses 4. There is no difference on value scores Decision-Making Practices (DIS) due to job level and corporation.

4a. There is no difference on value scores DIS due to job level.

4b. There is no difference on value scores DIS due to corporation.

Table 7. Concern for People results of Duncan's Multiple Range Test applied to job level and corporation

<u>Job Level</u>										
	Job Level 1			Job Level 2			Job Level 3			
Means	<u>11.95</u>			<u>10.27</u>			<u>9.87</u>			
<u>Corporation</u>										
	7	4	3	9	5	1	8	2	10	6
Means	11.8	11.4	11.4	10.9	10.3	10.1	9.8	9.1	9.0	8.6
	_____			_____			_____			_____

4c. There is no interaction effect between job level and corporation.

The ANOVA applied to the value subscale score DIS revealed a significant main effect for job level ($F_{2,380} = 15.21, p = .0001$); therefore, the null hypothesis 4a. was rejected. The ANOVA applied to the value subscale DIS revealed a significant main effect for corporation ($F_{9,380} = 2.98, p = .0019$); therefore, the null hypothesis 4b. was rejected. There were no significant interaction effects; therefore, null hypothesis 4c. was accepted (Table 8).

The Duncan's Multiple Range Test applied to job level means indicated that the mean scores of employees in Job Level 1 (6.58), Job Level 2 (5.89), and Job Level 3 (5.31) were significantly different ($p > .05$) (Table 9).

Table 8. ANOVA results on the variable Decision-Making Practices (DIS)

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Job Level	2	85.29	42.65	15.21	.0001
Corporation	9	75.20	8.36	2.98	.0019
Job Level/Corp	18	51.92	2.88	1.03	.4257
Error	380	1065.24			

The Duncan's Multiple Range Test applied to corporation means indicated that corporation 7 (6.3) scored significantly different from ($p > .05$) and higher than corporation 10 (4.95) (Table 9).

Table 9. Decision-Making Practices results of Duncan's Multiple Range Test applied to job level and corporation

Job Level

	Job Level 1	Job Level 2	Job Level 3
Means	<u>6.58</u>	<u>5.89</u>	<u>5.31</u>

Corporation

	7	9	3	4	5	8	2	1	6	10
Means	6.3	6.1	6.0	5.9	5.6	5.6	5.3	5.2	5.1	4.9

Null Hypotheses 5. There is no difference on norm scores Task Support (TS) due to job level and corporation.

5a. There is no difference on norm scores TS due to job level.

5b. There is no difference on norm scores TS due to corporation.

5c. There is no interaction effect between job level and corporation.

The ANOVA applied to the norm subscale TS revealed a significant main effect for job level ($F_{2,380} = 5.88, p = .0031$); therefore, null hypothesis 5a. was rejected. The ANOVA applied to the norm subscale TS revealed a significant main effect for corporation ($F_{9,380} = .2.90, p = .0025$); therefore, null hypothesis 5b. was rejected. The ANOVA applied to the norm subscale TS revealed a significant interaction effect ($F_{18,380} = 1.8, p = .0232$) between job level and corporation; therefore, null hypothesis 5c. was rejected (Table 10).

Table 10. ANOVA results on the variable Task Support (TS)

Source	df	SS	MS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Job Level	2	37.68	18.84	5.88	.0031
Corporation	9	83.52	9.28	1.80	.0232
Job Level/Corp	18	104.05	5.78	1.80	.0232
Error	380	1217.88			

The Duncan's Multiple Range Test applied to job level means indicated that the mean score of employees in Job Level 1 (6.10) was significantly different ($p > .05$) and higher than the mean scores of employees in Job Level 2 (5.29) and Job Level 3 (5.22) which were similar (Table 11).

The Duncan's Multiple Range Test applied to corporation means indicated that corporations 5 (6.0) and 4 (5.98) scored similarly and significantly higher ($p > .05$) than corporation 6 (4.68) (Table 11).

Table 11. Task Support results of Duncan's Multiple Range Test applied to job level and corporation

<u>Job Level</u>										
	Job Level 1			Job Level 2			Job Level 3			
Means	<u>6.10</u>			<u>5.29</u>			<u>5.22</u>			

<u>Corporation</u>										
	5	4	7	8	1	10	9	2	3	6
Means	6.0	5.9	5.6	5.6	5.5	5.2	5.2	4.8	4.8	4.6

Null hypothesis 6. There is no difference on norm scores Task Innovation (TI) due to job level or corporation.

6a. There is no difference on norm scores TI due to job level.

6b. There is no difference on norm scores TI due to

corporation.

6c. There is no interaction effect between job level and corporation.

The ANOVA applied to the norm subscale TI revealed a significant main effect for job level ($F_{2,380} = 4.95, p = .0075$); therefore, null hypothesis 6a. was rejected. The ANOVA applied to the norm subscale TI revealed no significant difference due to corporation; therefore, null hypothesis 6b. was accepted. There were no significant interaction effects; therefore, null hypothesis 6c. was accepted (Table 12).

Table 12. ANOVA results on the variable Task Innovation (TI)

Source	df	SS	MS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Job Level	2	36.57	18.29	1.26	.0075
Corporation	9	60.78	6.75	1.83	.0616
Job Level/Corp	18	90.91	5.05	1.37	.1439
Error	380	1403.30			

The Duncan's Multiple Range Test applied to job level means indicated that the mean score of employees in Job Level 1 (6.32) was significantly different from ($p > .01$) and higher than the mean score of employees in Level 2 (5.53) or in Level 3 (5.38) (Table 13).

Null Hypotheses 7. There is no difference on norm scores Social Relationships (SR) due to job level and corporation.

7a. There is no difference on norm scores SR due to job level.

Table 13. Task Innovation results of Duncan's Multiple Range Test applied to job level

<u>Job Level</u>			
	Job Level 1	Job Level 2	Job Level 3
Means	<u>6.32</u>	<u>5.53</u>	<u>5.38</u>

7b. There is no difference on norm scores SR due to corporation.

7c. There is no interaction effect between job level and corporation.

The ANOVA applied to the norm subscale SR revealed no significant difference due to job level, therefore, null hypothesis 7a. was accepted. The ANOVA applied to the norm subscale SR did reveal a significant main effect for corporation ($F_{9,380} = 4.38, p = .0001$); therefore, null hypothesis 7b. was rejected. The ANOVA revealed a significant interaction effect; therefore, null hypothesis 7c. was rejected (Table 14).

The Duncan's Multiple Range Test applied to corporation means indicated corporation 4 (6.22) scored significantly different from ($p > .05$) and higher than corporation 9 (4.43) (Table 15).

Null Hypotheses 8. There is no difference on norm scores Personal Freedom (PF) due to job level and corporation.

8a. There is no difference on norm scores PF due to job level.

Table 14. ANOVA results on the variable Social Relationships (SR)

Source	df	SS	MS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Job Level	2	6.51	3.26	1.26	.2841
Corporation	9	101.58	11.29	4.38	.0141
Job Level/Corp	18	88.70	4.93	1.91	.0141
Error	380	980.31			

Table 15. Social Relationships results of Duncan's Multiple Range Test applied to corporation

<u>Corporation</u>										
	4	5	3	8	10	2	7	1	6	9
Means	6.2	5.8	5.7	5.6	5.4	5.2	5.2	5.0	4.9	4.4

8b. There is no difference on norm scores PF due to corporation.

8c. There is no interaction effect between job level and corporation.

The ANOVA applied to the norm subscale PF revealed a significant main effect for job level ($F_{2,380} = 9.69$, $p = .0001$); therefore, null hypothesis 8a. was rejected. The ANOVA applied to the norm subscale PF revealed a significant main effect for corporation ($F_{9,380} = 2.98$,

$p = .0019$); therefore, null hypothesis 8b. was rejected. The applied ANOVA revealed a significant interaction effect ($F_{18,380} = 1.96$, $p = .0113$); therefore, the null hypothesis 8c. was rejected (Table 16).

Table 16. ANOVA results on the variable Personal Freedom (PF)

Source	df	SS	MS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Job Level	2	43.87	21.94	9.69	.0001
Corporation	9	69.90	7.77	3.43	.0004
Job Level/Corp	18	79.72	4.43	1.96	.0113
Error	380	860.21			

The Duncan's Multiple Range Test applied to job level indicated that the mean score of employees in Job Level 1 (3.41) was significantly different from ($p > .05$) and higher than the mean score of employees in Job Level 2 (2.48) or Job Level 3 (2.60) (Table 17).

The Duncan's Multiple Range Test applied to corporation means indicated corporation 10 (3.29) scored significantly different ($p > .05$) and higher than corporation 2 (1.95) (Table 17).

Summary

Presented in this chapter were the findings of the statistical analysis used to test each of the 24 null hypotheses of this study. Twelve of the null hypotheses were formulated to determine whether differences existed in corporate values due to job level and corporation. Twelve null hypotheses were formulated to determine

Table 17. Personal Freedom results of Duncan's Multiple Range Test applied to job level and corporation

<u>Job Level</u>										
	Job Level 1			Job Level 2			Job Level 3			
Means	<u>3.41</u>			<u>2.48</u>			<u>2.60</u>			

<u>Corporation</u>										
	10	8	7	1	5	4	3	6	9	2
Means	3.2	3.2	3.0	2.9	2.7	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.2	1.9

whether differences existed in corporate norms due to job level and corporation.

Eight of the first 12 null hypotheses were formulated to determine if there were any differences on corporate value scores due to job level and corporation. These were rejected. There were significant differences on the corporate value subscales Organization of Work (ORG), Concern for People (CONCERN), Communication Flow (COMFLO), and Decision-Making Practices (DIS) due to job level and corporation. Four null hypotheses, however, formulated to determine whether there were any significant interaction effects between job level and corporation with respect to corporate value scores, were accepted. There were no interaction effects between job level and corporation on the four value subscales.

Eight of the second 12 null hypotheses were formulated to determine whether differences existed on corporate norms due to job level and corporation. There were significant differences on three of the corporate norm subscales due to job level. These were Task Support (TS), Task Innovation (TI), and Personal Freedom (PF). Therefore, these three null hypotheses were rejected. There were no significant differences on the corporate norm subscale Social Relationships (SR) due to job level, so this null hypothesis was accepted. There were significant differences on three of the corporate norm subscales due to corporation. These were Task Support (TS), Social Relationships (SR), and Personal Freedom (PF). There were no significant differences on the corporate norm subscale Task Innovation (TI) due to corporation, so this null hypothesis was accepted.

Four of the null hypotheses regarding corporate norms were formulated to determine whether there were any interaction effects between job level and corporation. There were significant interaction effects on the norm subscales TS, SR, and PF. Therefore, these null hypotheses were rejected. There were no interaction effects between job level and corporation on the norm subscale TI, so the null hypothesis was accepted.

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS**Summary**

The purpose of this study was to examine shared understandings of corporate values and corporate norms as a reflection of the strength of corporate culture.

Corporate values were assessed by utilizing four of the Survey of Organizations (SOO) subscales. These included Organization of Work (ORG), Concern for People (CONCERN), Communication Flow (COMFLO), and Decision-Making Practices (DIS). Corporate norms were assessed by using part of the Kilmann-Saxton Culture-Gap Survey (KSCG). The norms assessed were Task Support (TS), Task Innovation (TI), Social Relationships (SR), and Personal Freedom (PF). The shared understanding of a corporation's culture was investigated by examining three levels of employees. Job Level 1 included employees in top and middle management positions, including the Chief Executive Officer (CEO). Job Level 2 included employees in supervisory positions, and Job Level 3 included employees in non-supervisory positions.

The following research questions formulated for this study were:

1. Is there a difference in corporate values due to job level?
2. Is there a difference in corporate values due to corporation?
3. Is there an interaction of job level and corporation on corporate values?
4. Is there a difference in corporate norms due to job

level?

5. Is there a difference in corporate norms due to corporation?
6. Is there an interaction of job level and corporation on corporate norms?

Subjects for this study were 412 employees from 10 corporations in the midwest. Each subject completed a self-administered questionnaire which assessed corporate values and corporate norms. The effects of the two dependent variables, job level and corporation, and their interaction effect on the four corporate values and four corporate norms, were examined by using a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). All significant main effects were examined by using a Duncan's Multiple Range Test.

Research Question 1

Is there a difference in corporate values due to job level?

This research question was examined by the analysis of variance (ANOVA) results for null hypothesis 1a, 2a, 3a, and 4a. All of these null hypotheses were rejected at the .05 level of significance. The ANOVA applied to the value subscales of Organization of Work (ORG), Concern for People (CONCERN), Communication Flow (COMFLO), and Decision-Making Practices (DIS) revealed significant differences on these values due to job level. On the values ORG, COMFLO, and CONCERN, responses for Job Level 1 were significantly different from and higher than those of Job Levels 2 and 3 whose responses were similar. On the value DIS, the scores of all three job levels were significantly different. Job

Level 1 had a higher mean than Job Level 2 whose mean was higher than that of Job Level 3.

Research Question 2

Is there a difference in corporate values due to corporation?

This research question was examined by the ANOVA results for null hypotheses 1b, 2b, 3b, and 4b. All of these null hypotheses were rejected at the .05 level of significance. The ANOVA applied to the value subscales ORG, COMFLO, CONCERN, and DIS revealed significant differences due to corporation. Across the value subscales, corporation 7 had higher means than corporations 10 and 6. Corporations 9 and 4 tended to have consistently high means as well.

Research Question 3

Is there an interaction of job level and corporation on corporate values?

This research question was examined by the ANOVA results for null hypotheses 1c, 2c, 3c, and 4c. There was lack of evidence to reject these null hypotheses at the .05 level of significance. There were no interaction effects of job level and corporation on any of the value subscales.

Research Question 4

Is there a difference in corporate norms due to job level?

This research question was examined by the ANOVA results for null hypotheses 5a, 6a, 7a, and 8a. Three of these null hypotheses were rejected at the .05 level of significance. There was a lack of evidence

to reject null hypothesis 7a. There were significant differences due to job level on the norm subscales TS, TI, and PF. On these three norm subscales, Job Level 1 was significantly different and higher than Job Levels 2 and 3 whose scores were similar. There were no significant differences due to job level on the norm subscale SR.

Research Question 5

Is there a difference in corporate norms due to corporation?

This research question was examined by the ANOVA results for null hypotheses 5b, 6b, 7b, and 8b. Null hypotheses 5b, 6b, and 8b, were rejected at the .05 level of significance. The results revealed significant differences due to corporation on the norm subscales TS, SR, and PF. There was no consistent pattern in differences due to corporation on the norm subscales. On TS and SR, corporations 5 and 4 scored significantly different from and higher than corporations 6 and 9. On the subscale PF, corporation 10 scored significantly different from and higher than corporations 9 and 2. There was a lack of evidence to reject null hypothesis 7b. There were no significant differences due to corporation on the corporate norm subscale TI.

Research Question 6

Is there an interaction of job level and corporation on corporate norms?

This research question was examined by the ANOVA results from null hypotheses 5c, 6c, 7c, and 8c. The null hypotheses 5c, 7c, and 8c were rejected at the .05 level of significance. There was a significant

interaction effect between job level and corporation on the norm subscales TS, SR, and PF. Although the means of these interactions were plotted, they were uninterpretable. Scatterplots of the interactions are available in Appendix B. There was a lack of evidence to reject null hypothesis 6c. There was no significant interaction between job level and corporation on the corporate norm subscale TI.

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to examine shared understandings of corporate values and corporate norms as a reflection of the strength of corporate culture.

Significant results led to conclusions that appear to be warranted. The first conclusion is differences exist relative to corporate values and corporate norms due to job level and corporation.

With regard to differences in job level, the results indicated that on seven of the eight corporate value and norm subscales, persons in management positions consistently responded differently from those in supervisory and non-supervisory positions. On six of the subscales, those in supervisory and non-supervisory positions responded similarly. This would support Gordon's (1985) position that in some corporations, the leadership was badly out of touch with the organizational values that influence a corporation's employees. However, these findings contradict Ernest (1985) and Davis (1984) who contended that to understand the values of a company's executives is to understand a corporation's culture. Furthermore, top management form the basis of a corporate culture and the top executive represents that culture.

Uttal (1983) and Schwartz and Davis (1981) agreed that top executives personified the value system.

The findings in this study supported Wilkins' (1983) contention that it is important, in the assessment of a corporation's culture, to obtain data from all job levels in the corporation to discover the extent to which beliefs are or are not shared. Louis (1985) agreed that culture must be assessed by determining how far down the corporation corporate culture extends, by assessing whether top-level prescriptions are manifested among first-line supervisors, and whether there is significant variation among employee's translations of shared meanings.

Results of the findings of this study indicated that there were differences in corporate values and norms due to corporation. In order to further examine the differences in corporation regarding corporate values and norms, scatterplots of means and standard deviations according to job level were made on those corporations who tended to score higher on the corporate value and norm subscales and those who tended to score lower. These are illustrated in Figures 1-7. Regarding the corporate values, corporations 4, 7, and 9 tended to have mean scores higher than those of corporations 10 and 6. Regarding corporate norms, the mean scatterplots did not appear to produce an observable tendency.

In examining the mean scatterplots on the value subscales available in Figures 1-4, it appeared that corporations with higher means tended to follow the pattern of a higher mean for the management level, dipping to a lower mean for the supervisory level, and rising

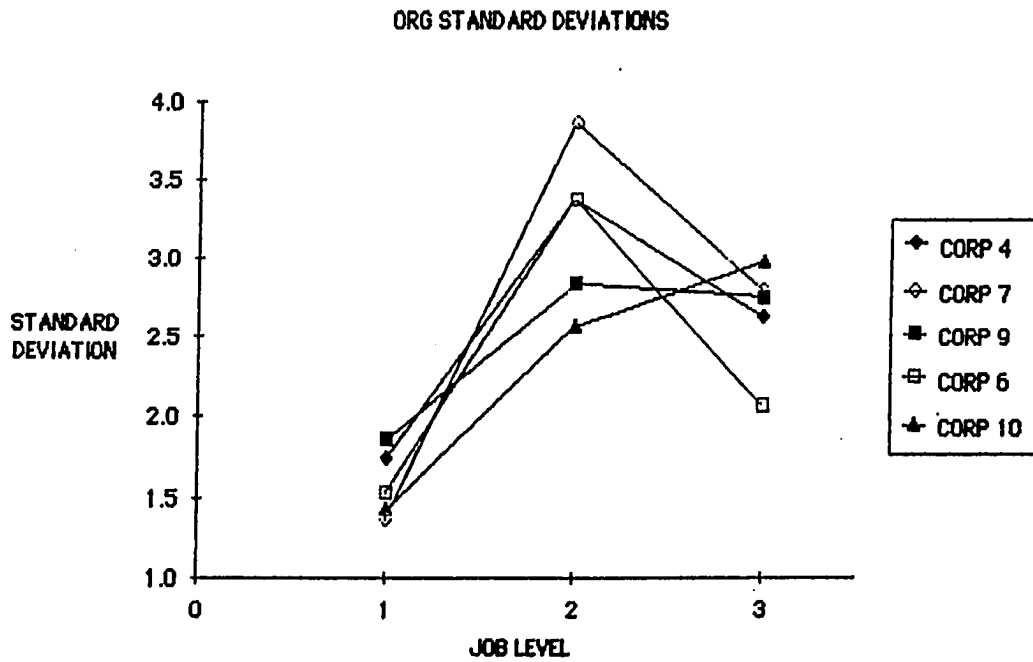
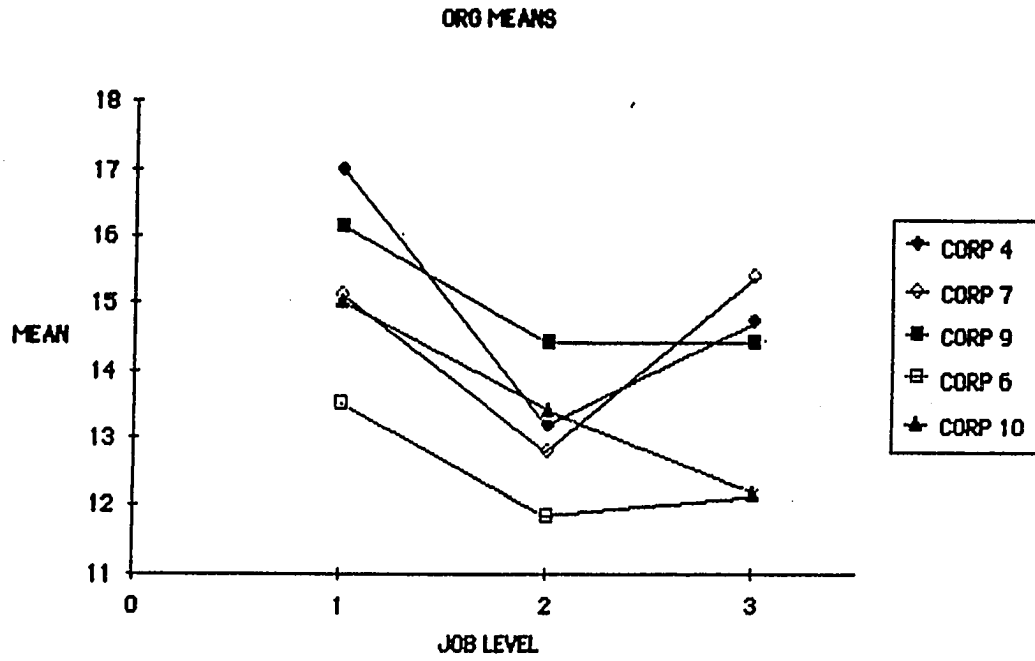


Figure 1. Organization of Work means and standard deviations for corporations 7, 9, 4, 10, and 6

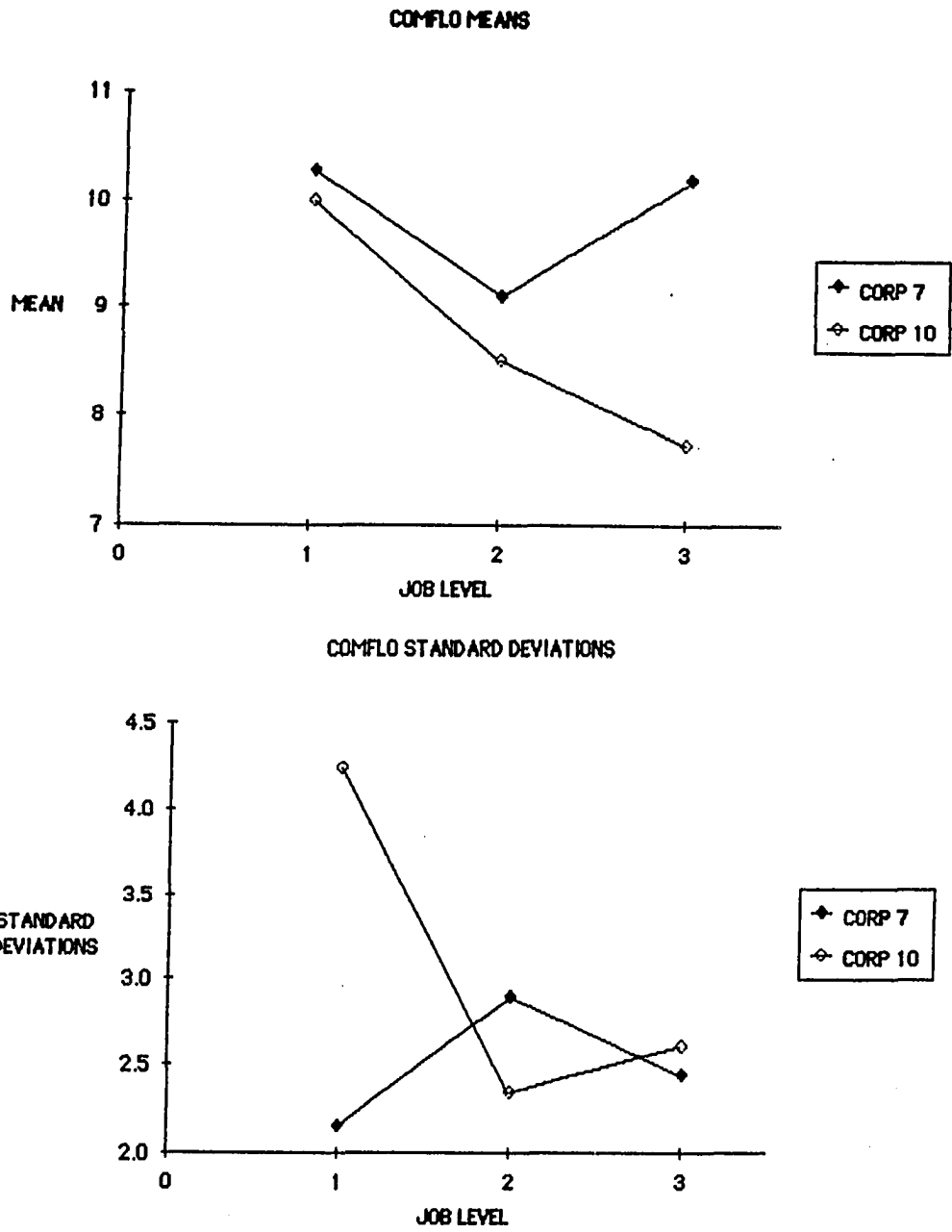


Figure 2. Communication Flow means and standard deviations for corporations 7 and 10

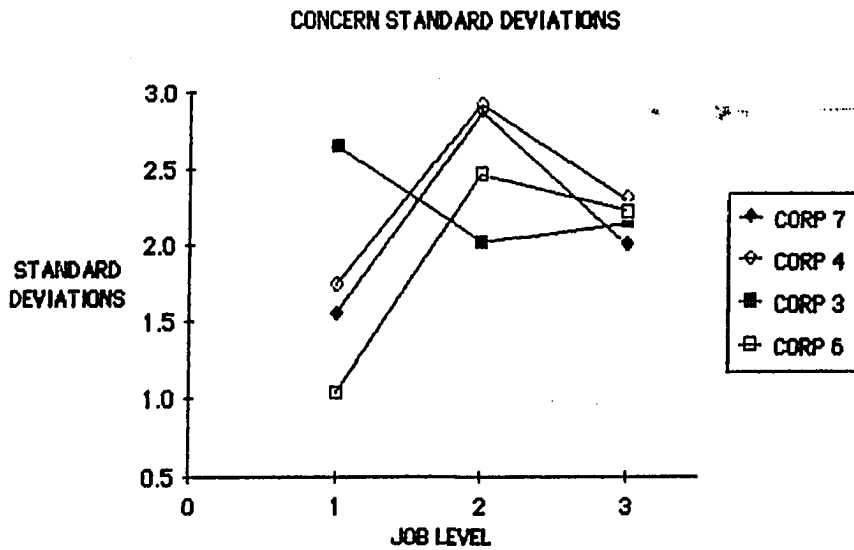
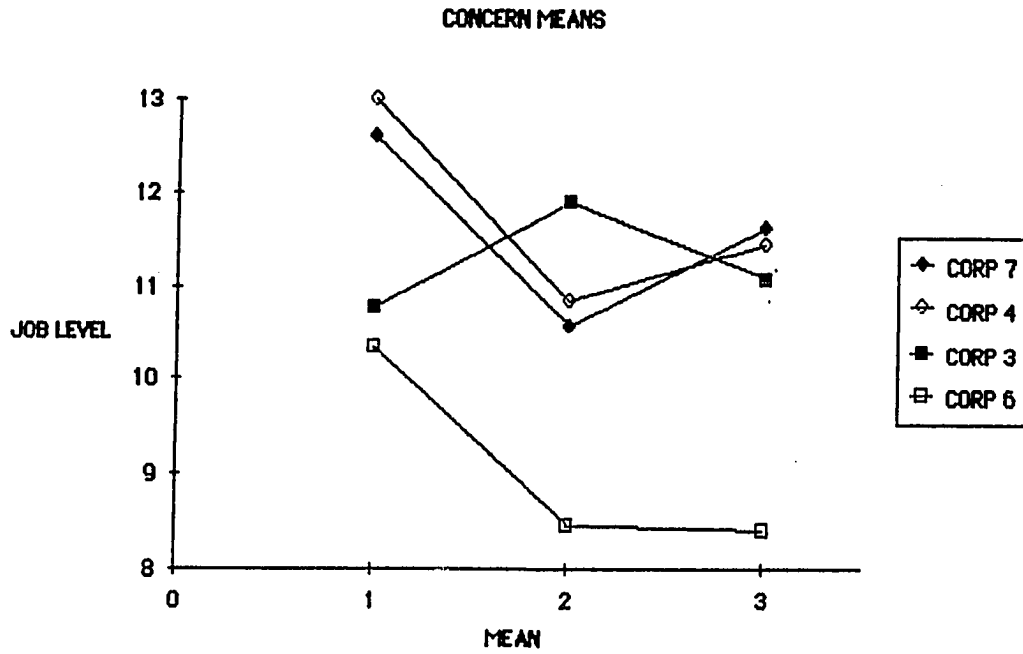


Figure 3. Concern for People means and standard deviations for corporations 7, 4, 3, and 6

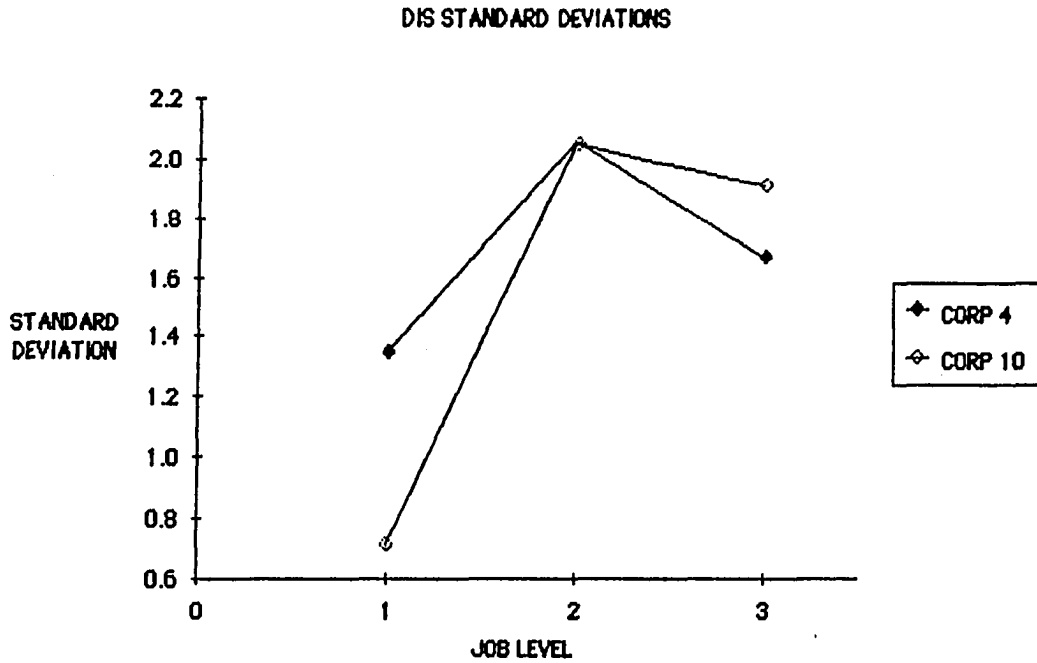
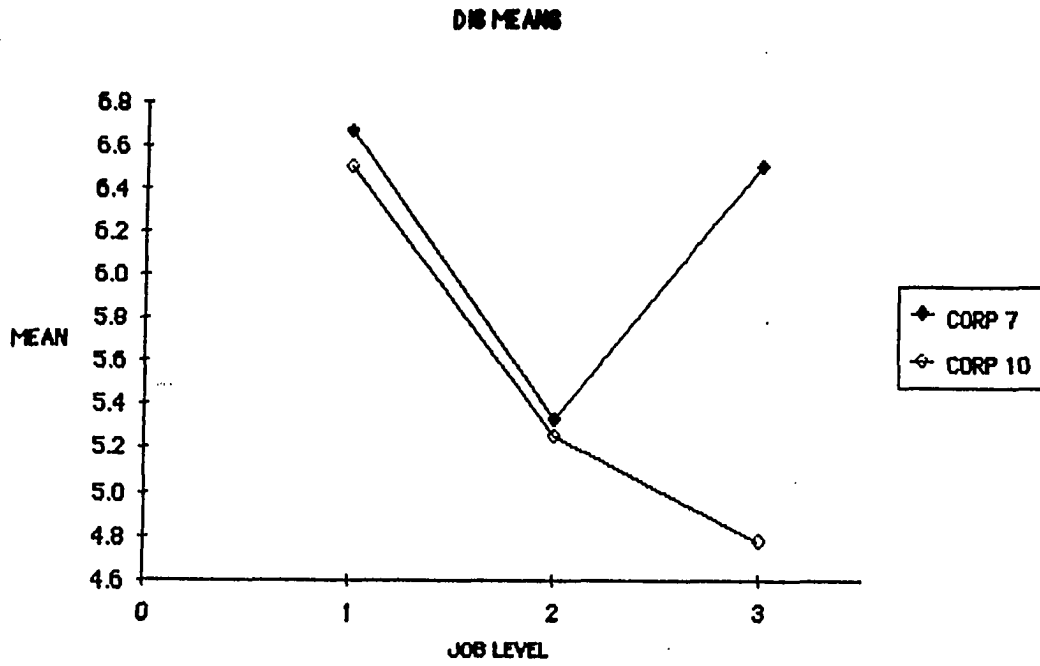


Figure 4. Decision-Making Practices means and standard deviations for corporations 7 and 10

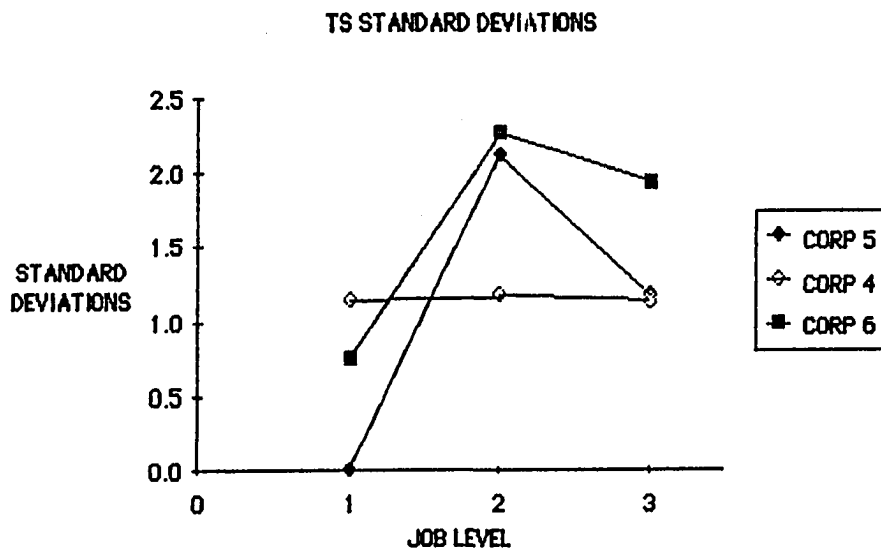
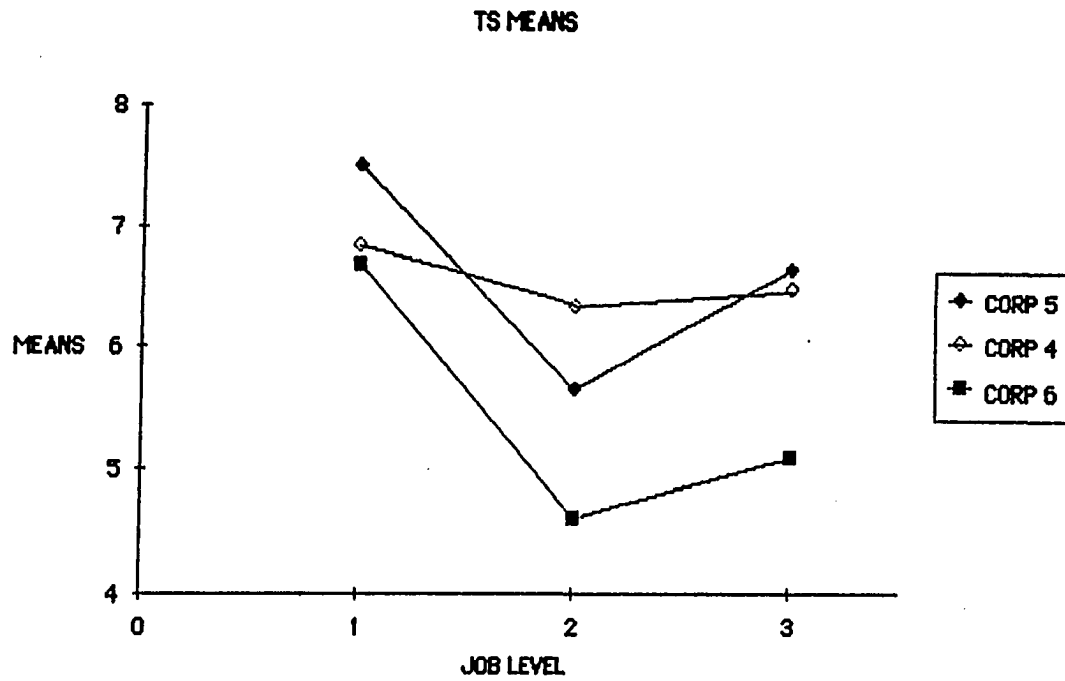


Figure 5. Task Support means and standard deviations for corporations 5, 4, and 6

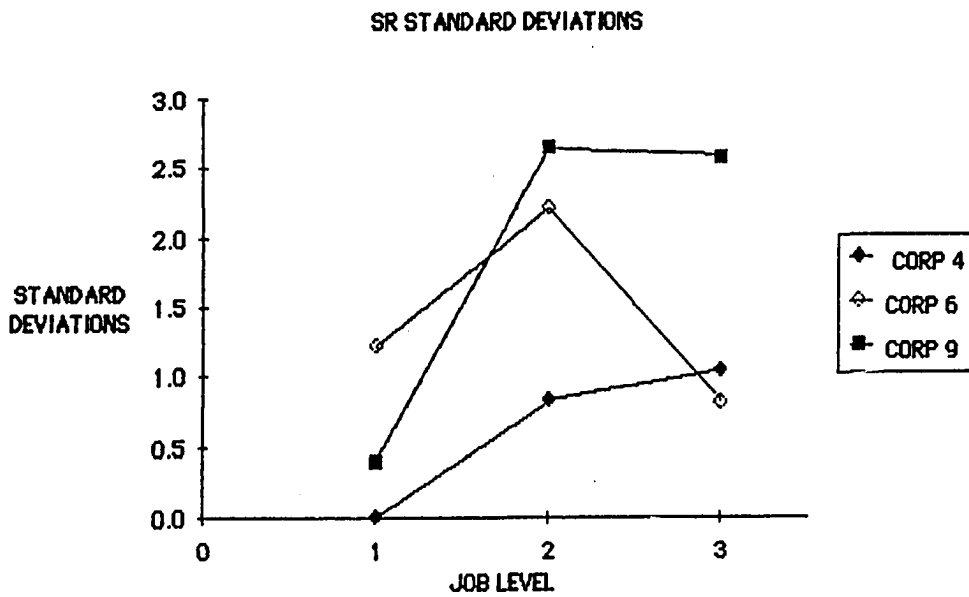
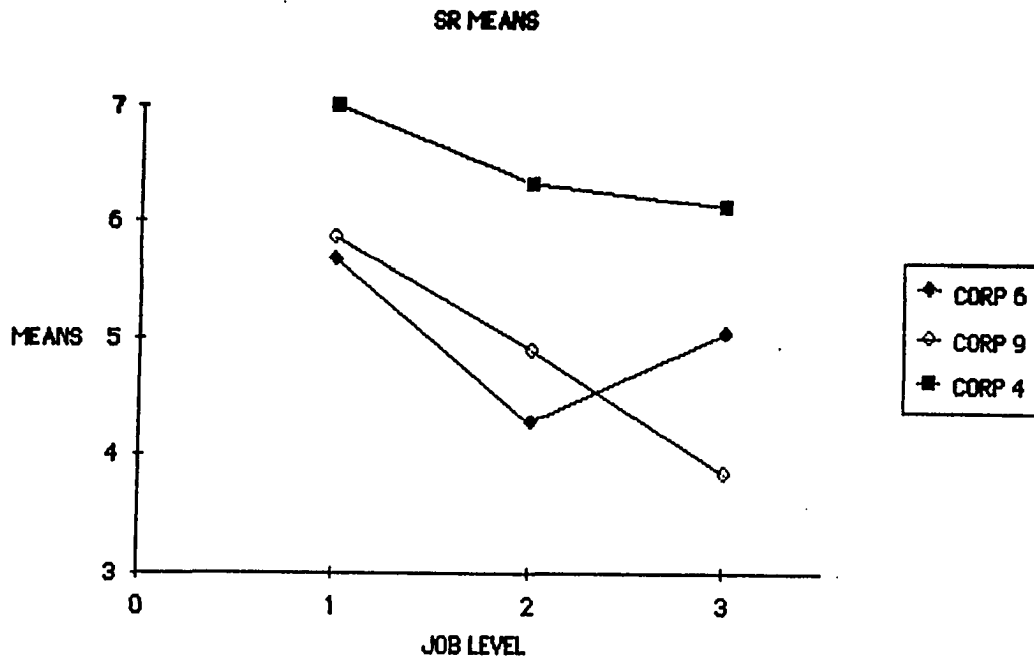


Figure 6. Social Relationships means and standard deviations for corporations 4, 6, and 9

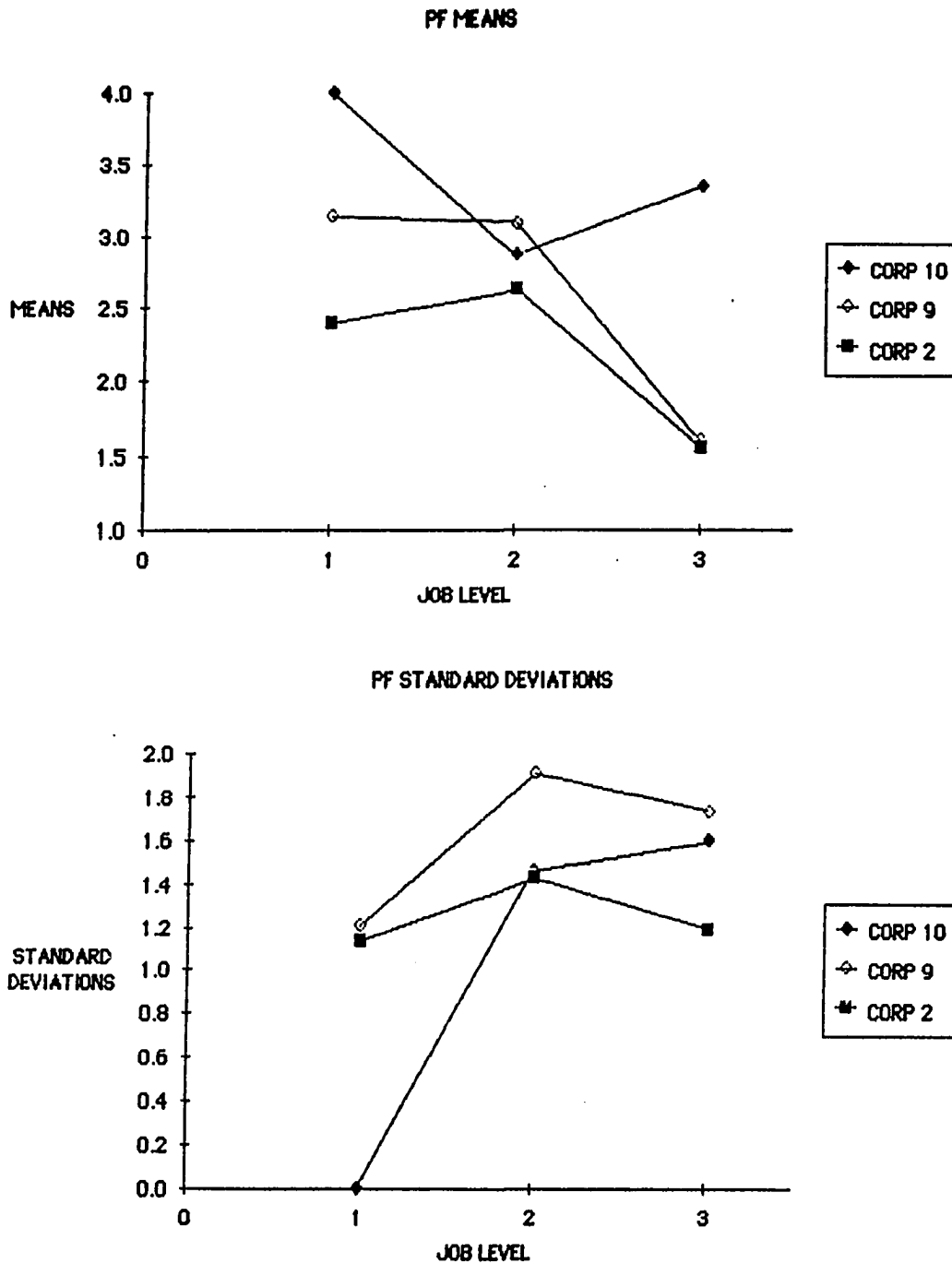


Figure 7. Personal Freedom means and standard deviations for corporations 10, 9, and 2

again for the non-supervisory level. A different pattern existed among those corporations with lower means. This pattern exhibited a downward trend with management having a higher mean than the supervisory level, followed by a lower mean among the non-supervisory level.

In examining the scatterplots of the standard deviations regarding corporate values, there appeared to be a tendency for the corporations with higher means to have higher standard deviations. There also tended to be a pattern of higher standard deviations, an indication of greater variability, in the supervisory level than management or non-supervisory levels. In an effort to examine the differences among the corporations with high mean value scores and those with lower mean value scores, the researcher looked at information acquired during the executive interviews. In doing so, it appeared that corporations with higher means had histories of consistent leadership where founders or generations of founders were still running the companies. The focus of these corporations was on service. The corporations with lower mean value scores tended to have histories of rotating leadership and absentee ownership, with a focus on manufacturing.

Though the scatterplots regarding corporate norm means as seen in Figures 5-7 revealed no clear-cut pattern, the scatterplots of the standard deviations of corporate norms revealed that the corporations with higher means tended to be lower than those corporations with lower means, indicating less agreement within corporations with lower means.

In general, the scatterplots indicated that there may be something

working in the supervisory level which needs to be further examined and understood. Meanwhile, it might be speculated that the tendency of a lower mean with a higher standard deviation on the value subscales among this job level occurs due to the nature of that particular job level which is one with some ambiguity. Supervisors may be in a period of transition between non-supervisory and management positions. They may feel a pull between management directives and responsibility to a non-supervisory group, and may not, as a group, be as cohesive as other job level employees.

A second conclusion warranted from this study is that this survey instrument can be used to assess strength of corporate culture as reflected by shared values and norms. As Denison (1982) suggested, using a survey instrument has two strengths; 1) the same method can be applied to several corporations in the same manner, and 2) the results can be used to compare and generalize. This suggests that there is potential for making comparisons within a corporation.

A third conclusion warranted from these findings is that this survey instrument can be used as a means of developing a corporate culture profile which would be of use to corporate executives and business consultants in determining the scope of corporate culture. Such a profile would be a valuable asset in periods of corporate modifications.

As was revealed in the review of literature, there are various reasons why the ability to profile and compare corporate cultures would benefit a corporation. These include 1) integrating employees

successfully into the corporation (Pascale, 1984; Louis, 1980; Ernest, 1985), 2) manipulating and managing it to fit the market place (Deal & Kennedy, 1982), 3) instituting effective organizational development plans (Ernest, 1985), and 4) making easier transitions during mergers, takeovers, industrial changes and diversifications and thus, reducing the chances of high turnover, low morale, and loss of productivity (Ernest, 1985; "Corporate Culture," 1980; Louis, 1982; Main, 1984). Schwartz and Davis (1981) and Sathe (1983) believed that if executive can evaluate corporate culture, they can learn how to manage through strategic change. As Business Week ("Corporate Culture," 1980) stated, "a corporation's culture can be its major strength when it is consistent with its strategies" (p. 30).

Corporate culture profiles may be created by plotting means and standard deviations of the eight corporate value and norm variables according to job level. By looking at the size and directionality of the means and standard deviations, one can make assessments and interpretations regarding corporate culture. The corporate culture profile of corporation 7 as seen in Figure 8 offers an example.

An examination of the corporate culture profile of corporation 7, reveals that the means of the corporate values and norms have similar directionality. The corporate value and norm means of those in supervisory positions are lower than those in management and non-supervisory positions. The standard deviations of values is the reverse of the mean value trend. The standard deviations of those in supervisory positions tends to be higher than those in management and

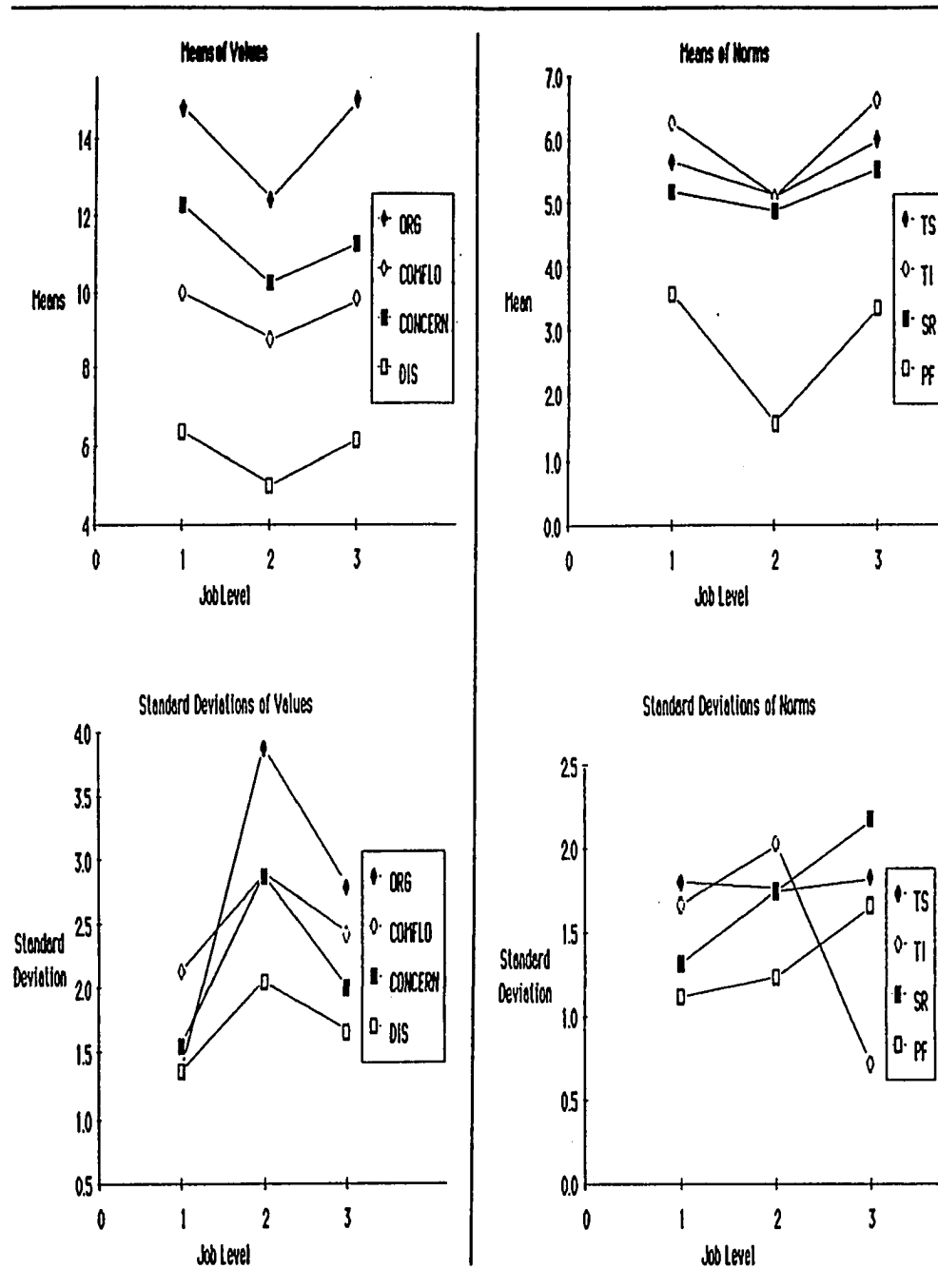


Figure 8. Corporate culture profile for corporation 7

non-supervisory positions, particularly with the value, Organization of Work, where there tends to be a great deal of disagreement. There appears to be more agreement concerning the value, Decision-Making Practices.

An examination of the means of norms for Corporation 7 reveals a similar pattern to the value means pattern with the supervisory level employees having a lower perception of the norms than do the management and non-supervisory levels. There is a much lower perception of the Personal Freedom norm across all job levels when compared with the other norms.

An examination of the standard deviations of norms reveals more agreement regarding the norm, Task Innovation, among non-supervisory employees than management and especially supervisors and less agreement regarding the norm Social Relationships, than supervisors or management.

Indicated by the results of this study, the use of a survey instrument in creating a corporate culture profile has merit and can be utilized as a means of assessing corporate culture to the advantage of the corporate world. Using a survey instrument removes subjectivity, is less time consuming, and more cost effective than techniques used to date. In addition, corporate culture profiles can be used to indicate corporate culture strength or weakness within corporations and allow cultures to be accounted for, managed, manipulated, compared, and contrasted.

Recommendations

Based on the findings from this investigation and the researcher's insights, the following recommendations are made:

1. Create corporate culture profiles for corporations at different time intervals to examine the consistency of the proposed instrument.
2. Create corporate culture profiles for corporations and compare with measures of corporate success.
3. Corporate consultants consider creating an instrument which can be made corporation specific.
4. Create corporate culture profiles for several corporations in order to determine whether similar patterns emerge among corporations with similar corporate focus.

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APPENDIX A: SURVEY INSTRUMENT

SURVEY INSTRUCTIONS

This questionnaire is designed to collect information about how people in your organization work together. The purpose is to gain insight into how employees view their work environment. Therefore, it is important that you answer each question as thoughtfully and frankly as possible.

This is not a test and there are no right or wrong answers. Your participation is voluntary and your individual responses will not be identified. Information from this survey will be used for research purposes only and will have no impact on your employment. To insure complete confidentiality please do not write your name anywhere on the questionnaire.

In this questionnaire, the following terms have these definitions.

ORGANIZATION -- The company which employs you. In large organizations this ordinarily means the division, plant, or office site where you work.

SUPERVISOR -- The person to whom you directly report.

WORK GROUP -- All the persons who report to the same supervisor.

We appreciate your answering the following questions.

PART I

The first 19 questions have five possible responses. Please record your answer by circling one of the numbers next to each question. If you do not find the exact answer that fits your needs, use the one that is closest to it.

To very little extent.....1
 To a little extent.....2
 To some extent.....3
 To a great extent.....4
 To a very great extent.....5

1. To what extent is this organization generally quick to use improved work methods?.....1 2 3 4 5
2. To what extent does this organization have goals and objectives that are both clear-cut and reasonable?.....1 2 3 4 5
3. To what extent are work activities sensibly organized in this organization?.....1 2 3 4 5
4. To what extent does your organization provide you with opportunities to offer ideas to management?.....1 2 3 4 5
5. In this organization, to what extent are decisions made at those levels where the most adequate and accurate information is available?.....1 2 3 4 5
6. How adequate is the information your work group gets about what is going on in other departments or units?.....1 2 3 4 5
7. To what extent does your organization provide training for you in personal development areas such as stress management, time management and communication skills?.....1 2 3 4 5
8. To what extent does this organization tell your work group what it needs to know to do the best possible job?.....1 2 3 4 5

9. How receptive are people above your supervisor to ideas and suggestions coming from your work group?.....1 2 3 4 5
10. To what extent does this organization have a real interest in the welfare and overall satisfaction of those who work here?.....1 2 3 4 5
11. How much does this organization try to improve working conditions?.....1 2 3 4 5
12. To what extent does your organization provide you with avenues for consultation and counseling in case you experience personal emotional difficulties?....1 2 3 4 5
13. To what extent are there things about working here such as policies, practices or conditions that encourage you to work hard?.....1 2 3 4 5
14. When decisions are being made, to what extent are the persons affected asked for their ideas?.....1 2 3 4 5
15. To what extent does your organization provide you with recognition for special accomplishments?.....1 2 3 4 5
16. People at all levels of an organization usually have know-how that could be of use to decision makers. To what extent is information widely shared in this organization so that those who make decisions have access to this knowledge?.....1 2 3 4 5
17. To what extent does your organization provide you counseling resources to help you plan for retirement?.....1 2 3 4 5
18. In general, how much say or influence does each of the following groups of people have on what goes on in your organization?
- a. First-line supervisors.....1 2 3 4 5
- b. Top management.....1 2 3 4 5
- c. Non-supervisory employees.....1 2 3 4 5

- d. Middle managers (department heads, area managers, etc.).....1 2 3 4 5

- 19. To what extent does your organization provide you with health education, wellness or exercise alternatives?.....1 2 3 4 5

PART II

Every organization develops its own "rules of the game" and then pressures each member to follow them. While these NORMS, as they are called, are seldom written down or discussed, this survey enables you to identify the ones that are operating in your organization. You may not agree with the usefulness of these norms, nor do you follow them all of the time. But, they do influence what goes on in your organization.

The following are 28 pairs of norms. For each pair, please circle the "A" or "B" which BEST describes the actual norm in your organization. In some cases, both the "A" and "B" norms may be operating, but please circle the one that is operating most strongly most of the time.

It is important that you choose the "A" or "B" norm according to the pressures your organization puts on its members. This may be quite different from how you behave, or how you would like to behave at work.

1. A. Put down the work of other groups.
B. Support the work of other groups.
2. A. Encourage creativity.
B. Discourage creativity.
3. A. Don't socialize with your work group.
B. Socialize with your work group.
4. A. Dress as you like.
B. Dress in the accepted manner.
5. A. Share information to help others.
B. Share information with other groups only when it benefits your work group.
6. A. Keep things the same.
B. Make changes.

7. A. Mixing business with friendships is fine.
B. Don't mix friendships with business.
 8. A. Don't go outside the regular lines of communication.
B. Feel free to communicate with anyone.
 9. A. Don't divide and assign work fairly.
B. Divide and assign work fairly.
 10. A. Try new ways of doing things.
B. Don't "rock the boat".
 11. A. Don't develop friendships with your co-workers.
B. Develop friendships with your co-workers.
 12. A. Use your own judgment in following rules and regulations.
B. Comply with all rules and regulations.
 13. A. Complete all tasks in the best possible way.
B. Do as little as necessary to get by.
 14. A. Don't try to change.
B. Always try to improve.
 15. A. Encourage socializing on the job.
B. Discourage socializing on the job.
 16. A. Please the organization.
B. Do what pleases you.
-

17. A. Share information only when it benefits you.
B. Share information to help the organization make better decisions.
18. A. Help others put new ideas into practice.
B. Resist putting new ideas into practice.
19. A. Don't bother getting to know the people in your work group.
B. Get to know the people in your work group.
20. A. Express your personal preferences on the job.
B. Keep your personal preferences to yourself.
21. A. Help others complete their tasks.
B. Concentrate only on your own tasks.
22. A. Resist taking on new tasks.
B. Be willing to take on new tasks.
23. A. Participate in social activities with others in your organization.
B. Don't participate in social activities with others in your organization.
24. A. Live for your job or career.
B. Live for yourself or your family.
25. A. Compete with other work groups.
B. Cooperate with other work groups.

- 26. A. Encourage new ideas.
B. Discourage new ideas.

- 27. A. Don't socialize with those in other work groups.
B. Socialize with those in other work groups.

- 28. A. Believe in your own values.
B. Believe in the organization's values.

PART III

The following questions request basic employee information such as age, sex, amount of education and length of time in the organization. Your response to these personal items will not be used to identify you. Rather, they will be used to study how different groups of people respond to the questions.

Please answer each of the following questions by circling the number under the answer you want to give or filling in the blank.

1. Your sex:

1. Male
2. Female

2. How long have you worked for this organization?

..... years.

3. How old are you?

..... years old.

4. How much formal education have you had?

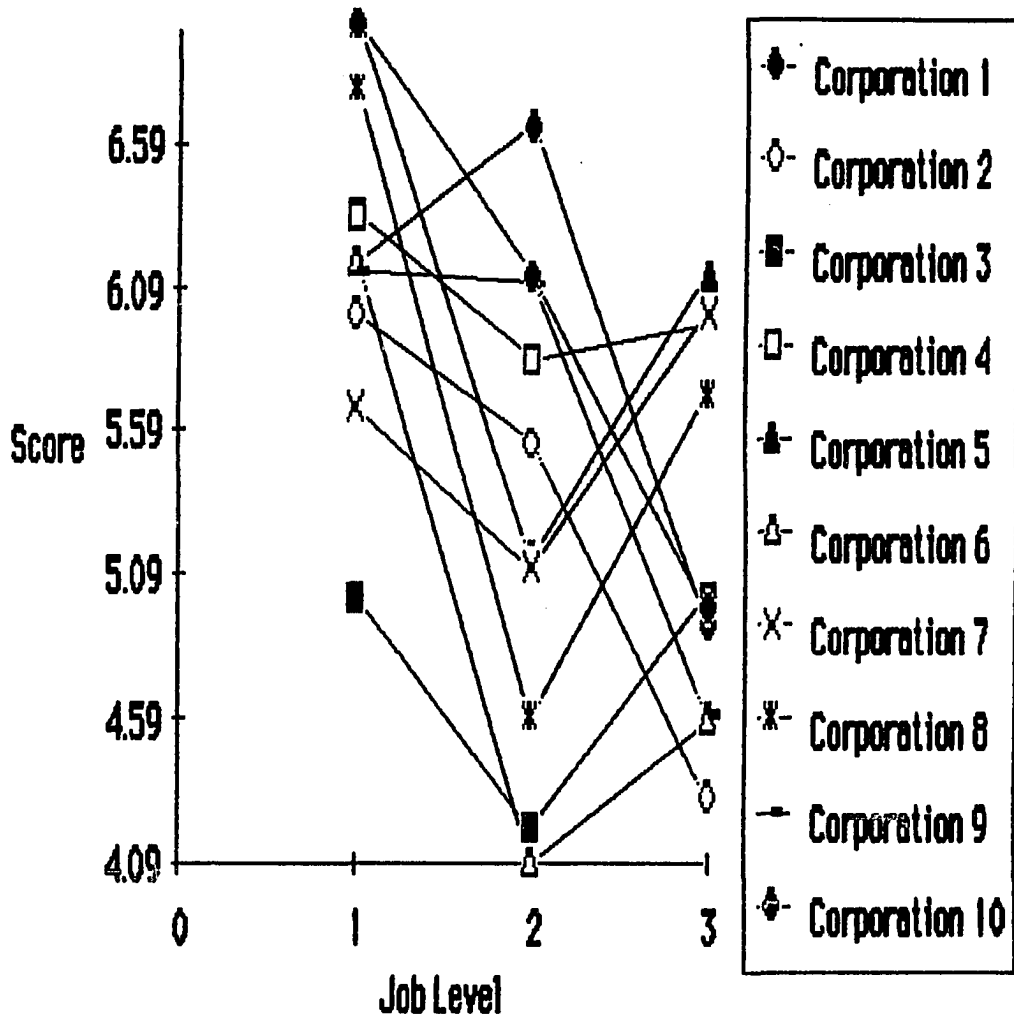
1. Up to some high school
2. Completed high school
3. Some college
4. Completed college
5. Some graduate school
6. Completed graduate school

5. Is your job primarily:

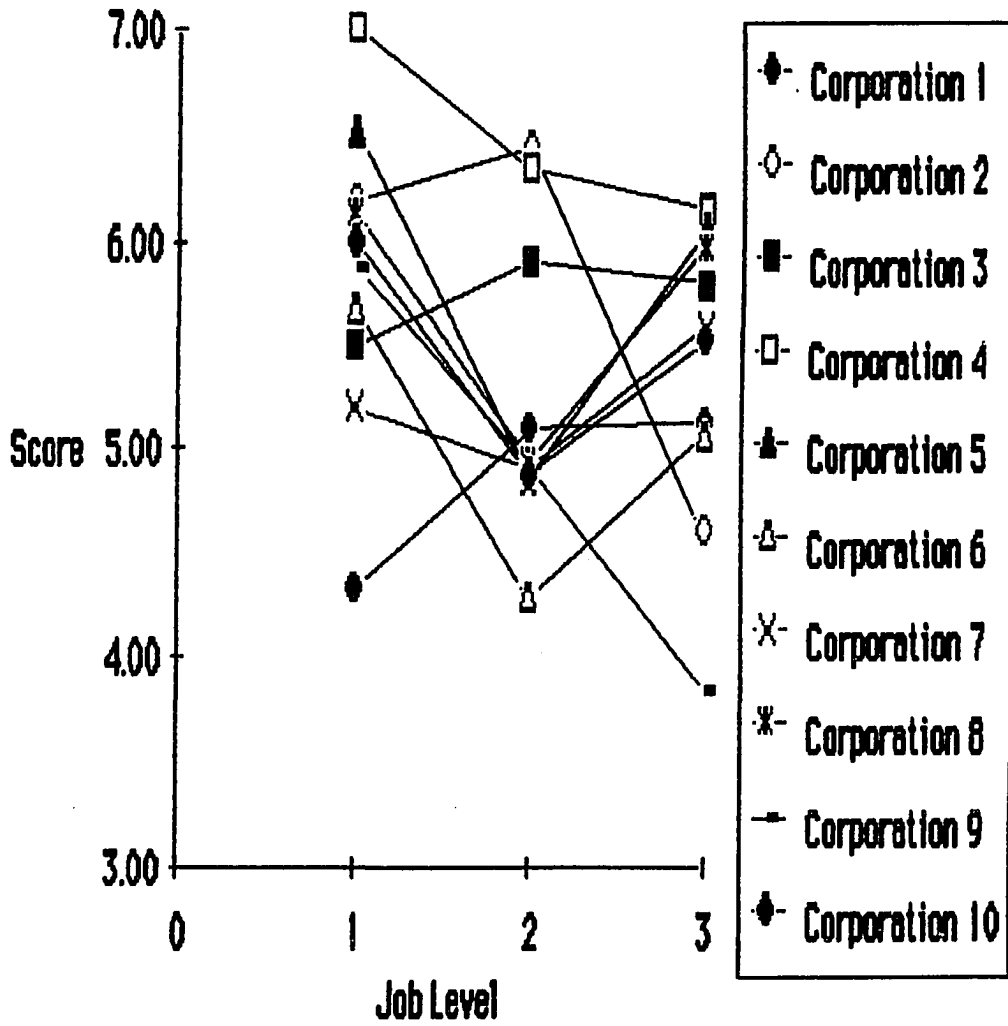
1. Non-supervisory production and maintenance
2. Non-supervisory technical or service
3. Non-supervisory clerical or inside sales
4. Non-supervisory outside (field) sales
5. First-line supervision -- production or maintenance
6. First-line supervision -- technical or service
7. First-line supervision -- clerical or sales
8. Professional or senior technical
9. Middle management/senior administrative
10. Top management

APPENDIX B: MEANS OF NORMS INTERACTIONS

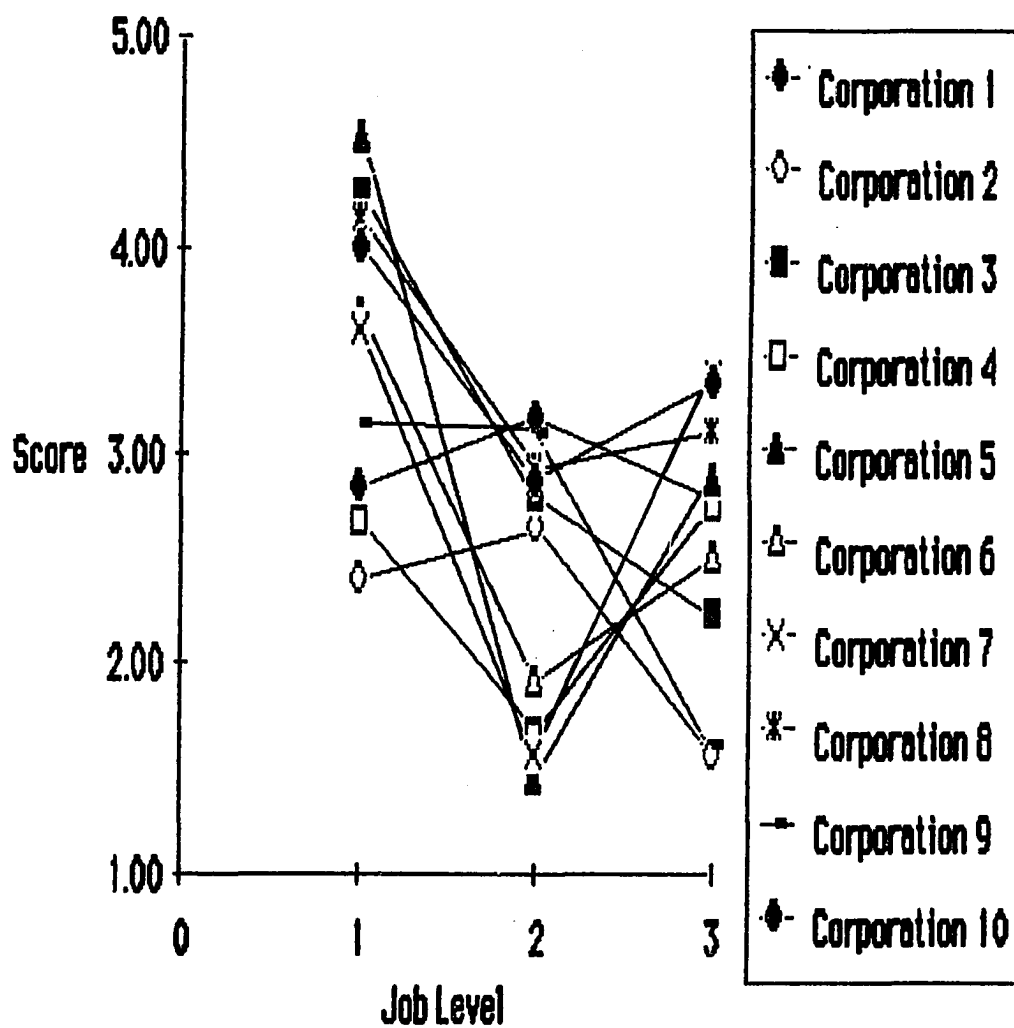
Means of Task Support



Means of Social Relationship



Means of Personal Freedom



APPENDIX C: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS ON ALL VARIABLES

VALUES

Part I

Organization of Work (ORG)

ORG = 4 items; 1, 2, 3, 5; R = 1-20.

CORP	Job Level 1			Job Level 2			Job Level 3		
	N	\bar{X}	SD	N	\bar{X}	SD	N	\bar{X}	SD
1	6	12.50	1.97	11	13.00	2.24	24	12.88	2.11
2	5	15.00	1.73	11	13.00	2.58	25	12.28	3.26
3	4	14.75	2.99	10	12.90	3.00	27	12.78	2.74
4	3	17.00	1.73	6	13.17	3.37	32	14.42	2.63
5	2	15.00	1.41	7	13.29	3.55	32	13.97	2.56
6	6	13.50	1.52	11	11.82	3.37	24	12.13	2.07
7	15	15.13	1.36	9	12.78	3.87	16	15.38	2.80
8	9	15.00	1.50	12	13.75	2.09	20	12.20	3.33
9	7	16.14	1.68	10	14.40	2.84	25	14.40	2.75
10	2	15.00	1.41	8	13.38	2.56	31	12.16	2.97

Communication Flow (COMFLO)

COMFLO = 3 items; 6, 8, 9; R = 1-15.

CORP	Job Level 1			Job Level 2			Job Level 3		
	N	\bar{X}	SD	N	\bar{X}	SD	N	\bar{X}	SD
1	6	9.50	1.87	11	8.55	1.51	24	8.21	2.13
2	5	10.20	1.10	11	10.55	1.51	25	8.72	2.37
3	4	10.75	1.26	10	10.00	2.11	27	8.85	2.57
4	3	12.00	2.00	6	9.50	2.59	32	8.91	2.83
5	2	9.00	1.41	7	9.43	3.41	32	9.72	2.28
6	6	10.67	2.58	11	8.45	3.39	24	8.42	2.36
7	15	10.27	2.15	9	9.11	2.89	16	10.19	2.43
8	9	10.78	1.09	12	8.92	1.88	20	8.20	2.53
9	7	10.86	2.41	10	9.70	1.77	25	8.80	2.71
10	2	10.00	4.24	8	8.50	2.33	31	7.71	2.60

Concern for People (CONCERN)

CONCERN = 3 items: 10, 11, 13. R = 1-15.

CORP	Job Level 1			Job Level 2			Job Level 3		
	N	\bar{X}	SD	N	\bar{X}	SD	N	\bar{X}	SD
1	6	11.17	2.40	11	10.73	2.20	24	9.50	2.04
2	5	10.80	1.10	11	10.36	2.20	25	8.20	2.38
3	4	10.75	2.65	10	11.90	2.02	27	11.07	2.15
4	3	13.00	1.73	6	10.83	2.93	32	11.44	2.30
5	2	11.50	.71	7	9.43	2.70	32	10.44	2.64
6	6	10.33	1.03	11	8.45	2.46	24	8.38	2.22
7	15	12.60	1.55	9	10.56	2.88	16	11.63	2.00
8	9	12.67	1.22	12	9.42	2.54	20	8.85	3.00
9	7	12.00	.82	10	11.30	2.21	25	10.56	2.62
10	2	11.50	2.12	8	10.00	2.56	31	8.61	2.45

Decision-Making Practices (DIS)

DIS = 2 items: 14, 16. R = 1-10.

CORP	Job Level 1			Job Level 2			Job Level 3		
	N	\bar{X}	SD	N	\bar{X}	SD	N	\bar{X}	SD
1	6	5.00	1.10	11	5.91	.70	24	5.00	1.44
2	5	6.40	.55	11	6.55	1.44	25	4.52	1.90
3	4	6.75	1.50	10	6.60	2.01	27	5.67	1.73
4	3	6.67	1.53	6	6.00	1.67	32	5.81	1.79
5	2	7.00	1.41	7	5.29	2.29	32	5.69	1.71
6	6	6.17	1.17	11	5.45	1.57	24	4.75	1.26
7	15	6.67	1.35	9	5.33	2.06	16	6.53	1.67
8	9	7.11	1.17	12	5.92	1.38	20	4.85	2.03
9	7	6.86	1.21	10	6.30	1.16	25	5.72	1.99
10	2	6.50	.71	8	5.25	2.05	31	4.77	1.91

NORMS

Part II

Task Support (TS)

TS = 7 items: 1, 5, 9, 13, 17, 21, 25. R = 0-7.

CORP	Job Level 1			Job Level 2			Job Level 3		
	N	\bar{X}	SD	N	\bar{X}	SD	N	\bar{X}	SD
1	6	6.17	.98	11	6.64	.67	24	4.92	1.67
2	5	6.00	1.41	11	5.55	1.63	25	4.32	1.86
3	4	5.00	3.37	10	4.20	2.66	27	5.00	2.20
4	3	6.33	1.15	6	5.83	1.17	32	5.97	1.23
5	2	7.00	.00	7	5.14	2.12	32	6.13	1.18
6	6	6.17	.75	11	4.09	2.26	24	4.58	1.93
7	15	5.67	1.80	9	5.11	1.76	16	6.00	1.83
8	9	6.78	.44	12	4.58	2.61	20	5.70	1.22
9	7	6.14	.90	10	6.10	.99	25	4.60	2.22
10	2	7.00	.00	8	6.13	1.13	31	4.97	2.39

Task Innovation (TI)

TI = 7 items: 2, 6, 10, 14, 18, 22, 26. R = 0-7.

CORP	Job Level 1			Job Level 2			Job Level 3		
	N	\bar{X}	SD	N	\bar{X}	SD	N	\bar{X}	SD
1	6	4.33	2.16	11	5.64	1.86	24	5.33	1.90
2	5	6.80	.45	11	6.27	1.01	25	4.36	2.38
3	4	6.25	.96	10	5.30	2.45	27	5.48	2.08
4	3	7.00	.00	6	5.33	2.42	32	6.47	.98
5	2	6.00	1.41	7	5.29	2.14	32	5.47	2.17
6	6	6.00	1.55	11	4.45	2.46	24	5.13	2.17
7	15	6.27	1.67	9	5.11	2.03	16	6.63	.72
8	9	7.00	.00	12	4.75	2.56	20	5.75	1.62
9	7	6.86	.38	10	5.90	1.85	25	5.36	2.31
10	2	7.00	.00	8	5.88	1.81	31	5.52	2.20

Social Relationships (SR)

SR = items: 3, 7, 11, 15, 19, 23, 27. R = 0-7.

CORP	Job Level 1			Job Level 2			Job Level 3		
	N	\bar{X}	SD	N	\bar{X}	SD	N	\bar{X}	SD
1	6	4.33	3.01	11	5.09	1.70	24	5.13	1.48
2	5	6.20	.84	11	6.45	.82	25	4.60	1.96
3	4	5.50	1.29	10	5.90	.88	27	5.78	1.48
4	3	7.00	.00	6	6.33	.82	32	6.13	1.04
5	2	6.50	.71	7	4.86	2.34	32	6.03	1.03
6	6	6.67	1.21	11	4.27	2.20	24	5.04	.81
7	15	5.20	1.32	9	4.89	1.76	16	5.56	2.19
8	9	6.11	.78	12	4.92	1.68	20	5.95	1.57
9	7	5.86	.38	10	4.90	2.64	25	3.84	2.58
10	2	6.00	1.41	8	4.88	1.96	31	5.52	1.36

Personal Freedom (PF)

PF = items 4, 8, 12, 16, 20, 24, 28. R = 0-7.

CORP	Job Level 1			Job Level 2			Job Level 3		
	N	\bar{X}	SD	N	\bar{X}	SD	N	\bar{X}	SD
1	6	2.84	1.94	11	3.18	1.40	24	2.79	1.67
2	5	2.40	1.14	11	2.64	1.43	25	1.56	1.19
3	4	4.25	.50	10	2.80	1.14	27	2.22	1.69
4	3	2.67	.58	6	1.67	1.63	32	2.75	1.46
5	2	4.50	.71	7	1.43	1.13	32	2.88	1.36
6	6	3.67	1.21	11	1.91	1.81	24	2.50	1.56
7	15	3.60	1.12	9	1.56	1.24	16	3.38	1.67
8	9	4.11	1.45	12	2.92	1.78	20	3.10	1.45
9	7	3.14	1.21	10	3.10	1.91	25	1.60	1.73
10	2	4.00	.00	8	2.88	1.46	31	3.35	1.60

APPENDIX D: CORPORATE CONSENT FORM AND INSTRUCTIONS

CONSENT FORM

I have examined the questionnaire which Iowa State University graduate student, Suzanne Mulder is administering in our corporation for purposes of her dissertation and am satisfied that the confidentiality and rights of our employees are being protected.

I understand that the information derived from this study will be strictly confidential and will be used only for purposes of Ms. Mulder's dissertation.

As a result, we are willingly cooperating in this study.

Signature

Title

Company

INSTRUCTIONS

In order to insure consistency in this study, it is important that these requirements be followed:

1. Employees should complete the survey on the same day during working hours. They should be allowed at least 15 minutes of uninterrupted time.
2. The employee sampling procedure should involve a systematic random process by determining a sampling fraction with a numerator of 40 and a denominator of the size of your employee population. e.g. $40/400 = 1/10$ Every 10th person on your personnel list would be sampled.
3. Employees should be assured that the information from the surveys will be strictly confidential and used only for research. There will be no impact on their employment.