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CREATING SHARED VALUES:
AN EXPLORATORY EXAMINATION OF METHODOLOGY

by

George J. Byrtek

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirement for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Administration/Management

Walden University
May 2000

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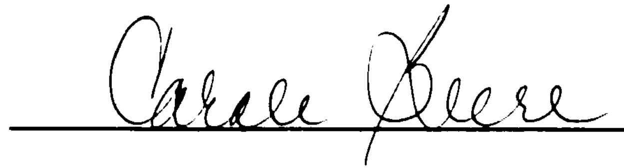

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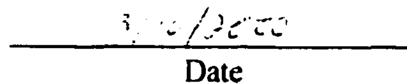

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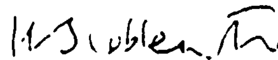

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Human Services Faculty

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ABSTRACT

CREATING SHARED VALUES:
AN EXPLORATORY EXAMINATION OF METHODOLOGY

by

George J. Byrtek

M.S., National Louis University, 1983
B.S., University of Wisconsin, Stevens Point, 1970

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May 2000

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ABSTRACT

This exploratory study sought to examine the roles of values clarification and consensus in the process of creating shared values within an organizational subculture. In particular, this study examined the effects the utilization of consensus and values clarification had on the level of member-group value congruency and the affective variables (general job satisfaction, group cohesion, and organizational commitment), which have been positively associated with person-organization fit.

Using an organizational subculture composed of 125 individuals, this study treated person-group fit, job satisfaction, commitment, and group cohesion as dependent variables with respect to the independent variables: interventions A and B. Intervention A consisted of a group shared values creation exercise utilizing only a group consensus process. Intervention B was a group shared values creation exercise utilizing both a process of personal values clarification and group consensus. Increased levels of value congruence, satisfaction, commitment or cohesion with either method used to create shared values would suggest a positive outcome as a result of the intervention.

Results for both interventions indicated little impact on groups with strong cultures and high pre-existing levels for the affective variables under consideration. Findings also indicated this research should be pursued further using larger samples and more heterogeneous populations, and that additional variables should be examined.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the members of my family team in recognition that I have not completed this program of doctoral study on my own. The support from individual family members has been a critical component of my success. Thank you Daniel and Anna for your patient understanding when I was pressing to meet deadlines, feeling overstressed, and unavailable for you.

In the process of this undertaking I have experienced the blessing of benefiting from the growing professional talents of my own daughter. Michelle, thank you for your advice and counsel in the process of my research design and statistical analysis. Your insights and skill have been an invaluable resource and inspiration to me.

Foremost of all, I owe a life-long debt to my wife, partner, and best friend, Meg. Without your combined encouragement, support, and patient editing of my thoughts and written work throughout my course of doctoral study, this document would never have been completed. Your optimism and unshakable belief in me provided a steadfast rudder that kept the wind in my sails when storms of doubt loomed ominously on the horizon. The words "thank you" will never be enough to express my gratitude for what you have done.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

A dissertation stands as a major written work based on an extensive body of knowledge, and despite being credited to the doctoral candidate, can never be considered the achievement of just one person. As such, the successful completion of my dissertation has been the result of contributions from many people. Members of my committee, George Fox University colleagues, friends, fellow students, and family members have provided substantial aid in the completion of this undertaking.

To the members of my dissertation committee I extend wholehearted gratitude for their skillful assessment and challenging comments that encouraged the refinement of the end product. I am thankful for Dr. Jim McGettigan, whose wit and concise insight kept me on my toes. Dr. Bill Barkley provided a unique perspective that refined my research design and tested my metal, for which I am very grateful. Dr. Karen Erickson joined our committee late in the process, but provided important suggestions that I very much appreciate. My advisor and mentor, Professor Harry Coblentz, served as an inspiration, a role model, and coach during this project from concept to completion. His encouragement, constructive criticism, and timely suggestions were fundamental to keeping my momentum moving forward, even during the periods of apprehension and anxiety that are common to this form of enterprise.

The research activities undertaken in this study were made possible only through the generous participation of a wide range of individuals in the George Fox University

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Community. I want to express my deep appreciation to my colleagues and friends Jim Walker, Mark Ocker, Dr. Susan McNaught, and Dr. Alan Kluge, who took time out of their busy schedules to serve as facilitators and recorders in the shared values interventions. To the leadership participants from George Fox University: Dr. Thomas Johnson, Dr. Eileen Hulme, and Dr. Andrea Cook, I offer my thanks for their involvement and important contributions to the group interventions. For the aid in logistics and getting permissions for this undertaking, I am grateful to Kandie Comfort, Peggy Kilburg, and all the members of the George Fox Staff Development committee. Finally, to the staff employees of George Fox University I extend my thanks for their hard work and willingness to be involved in this research project.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Study

Both the nature and pace of contemporary societal change present managers with critical new challenges. Standing at the forefront of these challenges is the need to develop means to sustain organizational effectiveness while being confronted with an environment of accelerating change (Lawler, 1994). Firms in the most turbulent of these environments are faced with responding to the blending dynamics of globalization, technological innovation, acquisitions, divestitures, market shifts, rising customer and stockholder demands, increased competition, and government regulation. In order to enhance their responsiveness to these shifting forces, organizations have increasingly implemented the use of horizontal structures, loose networks or boundaryless configurations to empower front line managers and employees to implement appropriate adaptation (Ashkenas, Ulrich, Jick, & Kerr, 1995; Lawler, 1994; Nelson, 1997; Schellenberg & Miller, 1998).

This empowerment process has been accompanied by a need to utilize alternative means of control to provide guidance and cohesiveness throughout the organization. Organizational culture, or more precisely, culture in the form of shared values, has been identified as a potentially effective means for accomplishing this outcome (Peters & Waterman, 1982; Schellenberg & Miller, 1998). Yet, a strong organization-wide culture can also retard organizational responsiveness (Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Morgan, 1997). Furthermore, managing through organization-wide shared values is complicated by the pervasiveness and power of subcultures within the organization (Hofstede, 1998; Schein,

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1996; Trice & Beyer, 1993). In turbulent environments, subcultures tend to play a more important role with respect to organizational performance than the firm's global culture (Caudron, 1992; Schein, 1996). In addition, cultural content and adaptability may be factors as significant as cultural strength in enhancing performance (Kotter & Heskett, 1992), and subculture values may be in conflict with those of the larger organization (Caudron, 1992; Hofstede, 1998).

The environmental transitions faced by organizations require not only increasing adaptability, but new managerial methods as well, particularly with respect to human resources. Among the major human resource components of the societal change process confronting organizations are the increasing diversity of the workforce and the shift in the values and value systems they hold (Burke, 1993; Lovelace & Rosen, 1996; Powell, 1998; Suzuki, 1997; Trice & Beyer, 1993). Furthermore, the relationship between the organization and employee is also in the process of change (Laabs, 1995). Increasingly, employees are seeking to fulfill the higher level self-actualization needs identified by Maslow (MacDonald & Gandz, 1992). The loss of the sense of job security in the work place as a result of downsizing and reengineering has made loyalty to the organization difficult to justify, let alone sustain (Carbone, 1997). How then do organizations now gain employee commitment and enthusiasm for their goals and purposes? In the move to flatter loosely networked structures, how do organizations simultaneously empower employees, reduce the levels of supervision, encourage entrepreneurship, and maintain focus and

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control? Shared vision and values hold the prospect of achieving a new working relationship between employer and employee that addresses these concerns (Senge, 1990).

Though shared values have been offered as a means for managers to successfully cope with both the organizational and the human resource consequences of social change identified herein, a major obstacle looms in the path of the shared values management approach. The organizational setting confronts managers with multiple value systems: corporate-wide values, subculture values, their personal values, and the personal values of subordinates. Further, while relatively stable, these value systems can and do change, particularly in times of environmental instability. Senge (1990) contended that for organizations to be effective, to enact generative learning, and to cope effectively with environmental turbulence, systems within the organization such as these must be aligned. They must be coordinated to facilitate one another, rather than working in opposition. It is therefore essential to identify practical means by which managers can achieve and sustain alignment of these value systems.

Statement of the Problem

The process of creating shared values consists of developing an adequate match between two variables: organization or group values and member values (Chatman, 1989; Senge, 1990). Organization or group values are not just the aggregate of member values, but rather the set of values agreed upon by most members (Chatman, 1989; Shockley-Zalabak & Morley, 1989). Although values are regarded as relatively stable and

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transcending specific situations (Enz, 1988; Maslow, 1959; Rokeach, 1973), especially with respect to organizational core values (Oden, 1997; Peters & Waterman, 1982), there is also recognition that organizational values change (Hofstede, 1998; Schein, 1985). Such change has been attributed to the progression of organizational maturation, wherein the process of changing leadership, growth in subcultures, and the influence of acquisitions and mergers work to erode and transform the originating values of the organization (Schein, 1985).

For organizations operating in turbulent market environments these changes are apt to occur at a much more rapid pace than those operating in relatively stable environments. For many organizations environmental changes have and will continue to cause a shift in success factors from size, role clarity, specialization and control, to speed, flexibility, integration, and innovation (Ashkenas et al., 1995). The likely result is a process of ongoing change in organizational values (Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Schein, 1985). In so far as corporate values can originate from the members as well as from the founders and leaders of the firm (Chatman, 1991; Kotter & Heskett, 1992), changing members and changing member values systems also imply momentum for value change at a variety of levels in the organization. As summarized by Kotter and Heskett, organizational values are subject to change by a number of forces. "New challenges can lead to the creation of new ways of doing things. Turnover of key members, rapid assimilation of new employees, diversification into very different businesses, and geographical expansion can all weaken or change a culture" (p. 7).

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There is evidence that the personal values of organizational members are also undergoing a process of change as a result of a variety of factors, hence complicating the process of shared value creation. Through a series of interviews and references to contemporary literature and research, Laabs (1995) profiled the beginnings of a growing interest in spirituality and issues of values in the workplace. He cites the initial and continuing impact of downsizing and restructuring of corporate work forces beginning in the mid 1980s as catalysts for a new worker concern for meaning in the workplace. Laabs contended the loss of job security, and the recognition of the limitations of material and monetary incentives, have created a need to engage more than just workers' minds and desires. This shifting emphasis on values and a search for meaning in the workplace has also been attributed to the current positive social environment in which the basic needs of workers are largely being met (MacDonald & Gandz, 1992).

The shifting composition of the workforce also represents changing personal value sets among organizational members (Trice & Beyer, 1993). Younger workers appear to be bringing into the workplace a stronger concern for competency related values, self-reliance, human support networks, flexibility, and a balanced lifestyle (Burke, 1993; Walker & Moses, 1996). The aging of the workforce also has value implications. As individuals age, there appears to be a shift in value hierarchy, with greater emphasis being placed on moral and spiritual growth and less importance given to pleasure and power related values (Musek, 1993). Evidence also suggests that the increasing proportion of women at various organizational levels portend a greater emphasis on relational values

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found more predominantly among females as opposed to agency values found to be more strongly associated with men (Di Dio, Saragovi, Koestner, & Aube, 1996). Furthermore, affirmative action efforts and globalization are serving as additional sources of value shifts among the organization's membership, bringing both racial and ethnic diversity (Lovelace & Rosen, 1996; Powell, 1998; Suzuki, 1997).

Efforts to achieve a match between organization and member values have been studied under the construct of person-organization fit (Boxx, Odom, & Dunn, 1991; Chatman, 1991; Kristoff, 1996; Westerman, Ambrose, Rosse, & Cyr, March, 1998). Schneider posited that the creation of person-organization fit is one of natural growth in homogeneity as result of the processes of attraction, selection and attrition (ASA) (Schneider, 1987). The basic premise of the ASA framework is that the personalities of the organization's founders and top management have long term effects by influencing organizational goals and structure and thereby persons attracted to the organization, selected, and retained. While plausible for organizations in relatively stable environments, it has been argued that the ASA model overstates the influence of this organizational behavioral pattern for periods of rapid organizational change and turbulent environments (Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995). The earlier noted movement toward flatter and loosely networked organizational structures is decreasing the influence of founders and senior managers, and the emphasis on the value of diversity is undermining the prior trends towards homogeneity (Powell, 1998).

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Contemporary managers are faced with the challenge of creating and sustaining appropriate shared value structures at multiple levels within the organization and ensuring an effective fit between them. Yet, these outcomes must be accomplished within shorter time cycles, and greater levels of instability and diversity than what it appears the ASA approach can address. Consultants, academics, and practitioners have proposed a variety of direct intervention methodologies for managers to consider (Blanchard, O'Connor, & Ballard, 1997; Brown, 1995; Dwyer, 1983; Fitz-enz, 1997; Jaffe & Scott, 1998; Kuczmarski & Kuczmarski, 1995; Laabs, 1995; Mapes, 1996). Typically these shared value methodologies are supported by theoretical constructs, subjective observations, anecdotal evidence, or isolated case studies. Unfortunately, proponents of these methodologies offer little or no empirical evidence to support their assertions or which can serve to assist managers to choose among them.

Purpose of the Study

The processes of employee selection and socialization have been suggested as the primary means for leaders to achieve a strong set of shared values within their organizations (Chatman, 1991; Schneider, 1987; Wiener, 1988). Such an approach relies on a top down imposition of a set of values selected by the leadership. The underlying assumption is that it is the leaders' primary role to identify and promote the values of the organization or group (Barnard, 1938; Denison, 1990; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Schein, 1985; Shockley-Zalabak & Morley, 1994). This method of shared values creation is

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unlikely to be suitable for loosely structured organizations relying on shared values as a means of sustaining organizational coherence, commitment and employee motivation in a turbulent environment (Dessler, 1993; Morgan, 1997; Nanus, 1992; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Senge, 1990). In an environment of rapid change and dependence on organizational learning and adaptation capability, employees at various levels within the organization may be more in tune with the values critical to the organization's success and survival than those in leadership. As a result, values extolled by the organization's leadership may in reality be only espoused values with little or no relevance to member commitment or actions (Argyris, 1990; Argyris & Schön, 1978).

Alternative methods for creating and sustaining shared values propose the combination of a top-down and bottom-up approach to enable participation by members with leadership in the delineation of a set of shared values (Dwyer, 1983; Fitz-enz, 1997; Jaffe & Scott, 1998; Kuczmarski & Kuczmarski, 1995; Laabs, 1995; Mapes, 1996; O'Reilly, 1989a). From the standpoint of leaders responsible for divisions, departments, work groups or teams within the organization, the process of creating shared values is complicated by the need to consider the value systems of the organization as a whole, the unit at hand, and the unit members. The subculture values of the unit may be essential to its performance and distinct from the global values of the organization (Hofstede, 1998; Martin, 1992; Schein, 1996; Trice & Beyer, 1993). Similarly, values of the unit members may differ from both those of the unit and the organization (Dessler, 1993; Powell, 1998),

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or members may actually be unclear as to what their values are (Brown, 1995; Kinnier, 1995; Maslow, 1987; Rokeach, 1973).

In accordance with the theoretical assertions by Senge (1990) and Schein (1996) that alignment of systems within the organization are essential for organizational learning and empowering through shared vision, this study examined intervention methodologies for managers to align organization, subculture, and member value systems. While employee participation through dialogue is common to most of the shared values creation methods advocated by contemporary academics and practitioners, a number uniquely utilize group consensus and or values clarification as important components. The lack of research data regarding the outcomes of such intervention methodologies gives rise to questioning their effectiveness. Consequently, this exploratory study sought to research the role of values clarification and consensus in the process of creating shared values within an organizational subculture. In particular, this study examined what effects the utilization of consensus and values clarification have on the level of member-group value congruency and the affective variables (satisfaction, cohesion and commitment) which have been positively associated with person-organization fit.

Background of the Problem

Efforts to achieve member/organization value alignment in practice have occurred in essentially three primary ways: selection, socialization, and synthesis. For example, Toyota, Saturn, and other organizations utilize a value-based selection process for hiring

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employees in an effort to screen out individuals whose values do not align with those of the company (Dessler, 1993). However, there is a danger to the screening out approach to value system alignment. Individuals may often times adjust their behaviors or interview responses to align themselves with the employer's screening standards (Powell, 1998). As an example, since the onset of pre-employment drug testing, word has gotten out and individuals with drug using habits temporarily modify their behaviors in order to pass the test and gain admittance to the organization (Kawa-Jump, 1998). Similarly, employment candidates will research the history and culture of an organization in order to develop a response strategy that will demonstrate a satisfactory alignment with the values of the organization regardless of authenticity (Dessler, 1993). Morgan (1997) warned that building organizations based on this form of instrumentalism, looking for people who fit in, works for stable environments, but in times of rapid change and unpredictability, it retards organization responsiveness and performance. "Under changing circumstances it is important that elements of organization be able to question the appropriateness of what they are doing and to modify their action to take account of new situations" (p. 78).

Organizations have also attempted to align members to the values of the organization through socialization (Chatman, 1991; MacDonald & Gandz, 1992; Schneider, 1987; Schneider et al., 1995). Such activities may include reinforcement of organizational values through training, mentoring, cultural rites, rituals, symbols, legends, and organizational role models. Efforts are focused at achieving and sustaining an ideological conversion. As an example, Dessler (1993) described the new employee

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assimilation program utilized by Toyota Motor Manufacturing U.S.A., "Employees completing the four-day process are steeped in—and hopefully converted to—Toyota's ideology, its mission of quality, and its values of team work, Kaizen, and problem solving" (p. 83). The process of ideological conversion is then continued and reinforced through ongoing training: "training not just aimed at technical skills but hammering home the basic mission and values of the firm" (p. 84). The weakness in this approach is that it can be perceived as a form of manipulation, since the basic process is that of getting employees to accept another's values as their own. Employee commitment to a set of values dictated by the organization's elite may be only as strong as the effectiveness of the methods of ongoing reinforcement of the cultural value system. This does not bode well for gaining employee commitment to the organization's vision. According to Nanus (1992), "people must freely and enthusiastically accept the vision or they will not have the energy or excitement to work for its fulfillment" (p. 135).

Synthesis, the last of these methods, appears to be receiving increasing support and usage, and it corresponds well with Senge's (1990) approach to value alignment and achieving shared vision (Anderson, 1997; Fitz-enz, 1997; Jaffe & Scott, 1998; Kuczmarski & Kuczmarski, 1995; Oden, 1997; Schein, 1996). It entails specific efforts by the organization and its members to identify and prioritize values and achieve a system of shared team or organizational values all members can support. Kuczmarski and Kuczmarski (1995) described a three-stage process for adopting organizational values based on individual employee preferred values for the organization. A similar process is

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utilized by Jaffe and Scott (1998), but is distinctive in its direct origination with the personal values of employees rather than their preference rankings for organizational values.

O'Reilly (1989) noted that an empowering system of shared values must consist of more than just values of the organization's or unit's leadership, but those of the members as well. This stands as a form of value congruency that implies intensity and breadth of commitment to the value set. He posited that such a system of shared values is likely to include values outside the organization's set of core values, and at the subunit level, may include values unique to the group's function, profession, joint experience, or unit leader's influence.

A pragmatic strategy for the creation of shared values appears to reside in four cultural development mechanisms identified by O'Reilly (1989) as commonly in use: participation, symbolic action, information from co-workers, and comprehensive reward systems. Symbolic action and the design of comprehensive reward systems that support and reinforce the shared values of the group become relatively straightforward tasks once a set of values with potential to be supported by the members is identified. The values clarification and consensus components of the shared values creation methodologies utilized by Kuczmarski and Kuczmarski (1995) and those used by Jaffe and Scott (1998) may offer an effective means for management to incorporate both participation by group members and relevant informational exchange among co-workers. These methods rely on

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the process of dialogue in the creation of shared vision as advocated by Senge (1990) and Schein (1996). They also address, in part, the issue of the difficulty most individuals have in achieving clarity with respect to their own values (Kinnier, 1995; Maslow, 1987). Hence, successful shared value creation, the kind that results in authentic shared vision that energizes and guides performance may be possible through these combined processes of values clarification and group consensus.

Theoretical Support for the Study

The organization's vision has been described as an overt expression of its system of shared values, and the use of vision a distinctive quality of leaders (Fitz-enz, 1997). With respect to the importance of vision Peters (Peters & Waterman, 1982) asserted, "if I were to give off the cuff advice to anyone trying to institute change, I would say, 'How clear is the metaphor? How clear is that understood? How much energy are you devoting to it?'" (p. 105). Senge (1990) emphasized the benefits of shared vision in an organization. He described shared vision as the source of creative energy, excitement, exhilaration, courage, community and sense of personal ownership in the organization by its members. Senge identified values as the foundation of vision. He asserted personal values serve as the basis for personal vision, and shared values serve as the basis for shared vision. In Senge's view, aligning members to the organization's vision, and by extension aligning member values with the values on which the vision is based, is essential to the achievement of authentic shared vision. He argued that such team alignment is also essential to effective

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team functioning and learning in today's loosely networked organizations. Senge observed that alignment of members with the organization's values, and in particular core values, is crucial to the organization, because they function on a daily basis to guide decision-making and behavior. "Core values are necessary to help people with day-to-day decision making. Purpose is very abstract. Vision is long term. People need 'guiding stars' to navigate and make decisions day to day" (p. 225).

The organization's vision, according to Senge (1990), is a product of the personal visions of organizational members rather than a vision imposed or enacted by senior management. "Shared visions emerge from personal visions" (p. 211). In this theoretical framework effective shared vision is developed from a dialogical process between management and members of the organization. Others also argued that employee participation is an essential component of the process of creating and sustaining shared values in an organizational setting (Denison, 1990; Feuer & Chaharbaghi, 1995; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Schein, 1996). O'Reilly (1989) offered further theoretical support for the dialogical, bottom-up development of shared values. He contended for a strong culture to exist there must be consensus among members regarding the values and norms of the group. Further, O'Reilly asserted, "there is an important difference between the guiding beliefs or vision held by management and the daily beliefs or norms held by those at lower levels in the unit or organization. The former reflect top management's beliefs about how things ought to be. The later define how things actually are" (p. 13).

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Classic management theory from the human relations school of thought strongly supports the notion of employee participation. The equalization of power between management and employees is advocated as an important component in the implementation of organizational change and enhancing organizational effectiveness (Leavitt, 1965). McGregor's (1989) Theory Y approach calls for managers to move away from a command and control, top-down focus and toward a process of empowering employees to fulfill their own goals. According to McGregor, "The essential task of management is to arrange organizational conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve their own goals best by directing their own efforts towards organizational objectives" (p. 71). Following along the lines of McGregor, a more explicit theoretical model of Senge's notion of a dialogical alignment of values and vision can be found in Likert's (1961) interaction-influence systems model of organizations. This model describes the various characteristics and processes of the organization as interrelated and interdependent. For an organization to function adequately, Likert contended, the management theory in use, the methods of motivation employed, and the various organizational processes must be appropriately compatible and consistent. In Likert's theoretical ideal of a highly effective organization, such coordination, or consistency incorporates an alignment of highly effective work groups whose members' personal values and goals are aligned with those of one another, related work groups, and the organization as a whole.

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Among the key qualities of highly effective work groups identified in Likert's (1961) model is a set of integrated shared values created through employee participation. "The values and goals of the group are a satisfactory integration and expression of the relevant values and needs of its members. They have helped shape these values and goals and are satisfied with them" (p. 166). Further, the shared values of related work group subcultures are also harmonized with those of the work group. "In so far as members of the group are performing linking functions, they endeavor to have the values and goals of the groups with which they link in harmony with one another" (p. 166). For the highly effective organization as whole, according to Likert's theoretical model, aligned or shared organizational values are to be constructed in a manner such that "Every member of the organization would feel that the values and goals of his work group amply reflect his own values and needs. He would also feel that the values and objectives of the entire organization adequately reflect the values and needs of all members" (p. 182). The net result, according to Likert, is identification by every member with the goals of the work group and the organization, and a view that accomplishment of these goals is the best means for achieving one's personal goals.

A prototype methodology and theoretical support for achieving alignment of individual, work group, and organizational values can be found in the laboratory training group or T-group process model frequently advocated by Likert, McGregor, Argyris, and others (Blake & Mouton, 1981; Leavitt, 1965; Weisbord, 1987). Unlike the classic T-group process, often criticized for overemphasis on sensitivity training and relationship

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building (Lifton, 1972), in this paradigm there is a stronger emphasis on action research and identifiable group outcomes (Felkins, 1995). Employing a facilitative training approach with small groups, such laboratory method interventions are often utilized with the objective of creating greater personal value awareness for participants, development of teams, or addressing issues of systems conflict (Benne, Bradford, & Lippitt, 1964).

Support for the suitability of this model for addressing the process of shared value creation and the alignment of member, subculture and organizational value systems was provided by Benne et al. (1964). They noted that the laboratory learning design incorporates a systems theory approach and intentional learning from observed systems conflict. "The clashes between personal systems, between group systems, between group systems of participants and of staff are all utilized for learning" (p. 31). In addition, Benne et al.'s citing of consensual validation by the group and testing group consensus as critical components of this learning process provides specific support for the use of consensus in this research undertaking.

The primary purpose of this particular effort was to explore the impact of shared values creation invention methodology that utilizes the processes of consensus and values clarification with participants. Developed in accordance with the meso research paradigm (House, Rousseau, & Thomas-Hunt, 1995) the theoretical framework for this study is an integration of three distinct conceptual models in order to consider both macro and micro levels of organizational behavior. This combination provides for an organizational rationale, a process construct, and a means of outcome assessment. As organizational

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rationale, the value system alignment model asserts that organizational learning, responsiveness and effectiveness are tied to the alignment of member, work group and organization value systems (Likert, 1961; O'Reilly, 1989a; Senge, 1990). As process construct, the laboratory training model provides the prototype for the use of group dialogue and consensus to address issues related to systems conflict and values clarification (Blake & Mouton, 1981; Leavitt, 1965; Weisbord, 1987). Finally, as a means of outcome assessment, person-organization fit theory as set forth by Chatman (1989), provides a model for measuring the change in member-group or member-organization value system alignment. If member participation in the form of consensus and or values clarification has an effect on the strength or scope of shared values, it should therefore be evidenced in the degree of value congruency measured in terms of person-organization fit. In addition, as there is a positive association between person-organization fit and number of affective variables: commitment, job satisfaction, group cohesion (Adkins, Ravlin, & Meglino, 1996; Boxx et al., 1991; Chatman, 1991; Harris & Mossholder, 1996; Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Shepherd, 1997; Westerman et al., 1998). Consequently, a change in the level of person-organization fit as a result of the intervention should be observable in a similar change among these variables.

Assumptions

This study built on the key assumption that values are a primary component of both organizational culture and subculture and serve as the logical level for intervention.

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As noted by Schein (1985), values serve as a more effective means than artifacts or assumptions for understanding culture because central values "provide the day-to-day operating principles by which the members of the culture guide their behavior" (p. 15). Schein observed, artifacts, as the most visible level of culture are difficult to interpret and assumptions, the least visible level of culture, operate within the realm of the unconscious and therefore are both difficult to identify and interpret.

While the concern of this study focused on methodologies for managers to create and sustain shared value systems within organizational subcultures, it assumed the role of the manager would be essentially in selection and initiation of the process, and participation as a member of the group. It was not anticipated that mangers should function as group leader in the actual intervention process. The laboratory method provides for a minimal role for the group intervention leader, which is value free and intended to facilitate the decision process for the group members. Therefore, as Likert (1961) suggested, this study assumed that the proper role of the manager in such a setting is both as a member of the work group and as a link to other groups in assisting in alignment of intergroup value systems. It further presumed, in accordance with common practice in loosely linked organizations, that other group members may also serve such linking functions.

Finally, this study has operated from the assumption that the shared values intervention methodologies under examination have positive effects in the organizational environments in which they are used. The popularity and ongoing use of such intervention

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procedures by practitioners, consultants, and their clients gives at least general and anecdotal evidence to support this presumption of positive outcomes. However, apart from this preconception in approach, questioning the nature and extent of such outcomes remained the key focus of this study.

Scope and Delimitations

Frequently the issue of managing culture and the creation of a strong set of shared values is considered in the context of the organization as a whole (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Denison, 1990; Fitz-enz, 1997; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Schein, 1985; Schneider et al., 1995; Spender & Grinyer, 1995). This study accepted the assertions by Peters and Waterman (1982), Schein (1985) and others that culture in the form of a strong set of core values can be important to the effectiveness of the organization. However, for many organizations, especially those operating in turbulent environments, subcultures can be more important in influencing organizational effectiveness and performance than the global corporate culture (Caudron, 1992; Hofstede, 1998; Schein, 1996). For this reason, the narrower realm of organizational subculture, rather than the global culture of the organization as a whole, was chosen as the primary focus for this study.

Because organizational subcultures function within work groups at varying levels within the organization (Hofstede, 1998; Martin, 1992; Schein, 1985; Trice & Beyer, 1993), this study centered on the interventions work group managers can utilize to align member, work group and organization value systems. The decision to create or modify an

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identified set of shared values in a work group may arise from the need to address changes in the competitive environment, organizational or task restructuring, personnel changes, or leadership transitions (O'Reilly, 1989a; Schein, 1993). The creation, changing, or maintenance of shared values, even at the subculture level, is a multistage process (O'Reilly, 1989a). The first stage requires the identification of the critical values that will serve as the value system of the group. The later stages of implementation incorporate the processes whereby these values are reinforced through socialization, symbolic action, or rewards (Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly, 1989b). This study was limited to only the initial stage of intervention by the manager in utilizing group process methodologies for identifying a set of shared values for the work group that align member, work group, and organizational values.

Definitions of Terms

Values

With respect to values as motivators for action, Maslow (1959, 1987) was imprecise regarding the term value, for example using the concept of self-actualization as both a need and a value. The lack of clear distinction between the concepts of values, needs, attitudes, and interests has created controversy in the field of values research (Kinnier, 1995). Rokeach (1973) offered a more concise definition of values than Maslow's, adding directionality to the notion of an enduring construct. "A value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or

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socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence" (p. 5). For the purposes of this undertaking, the Rokeach's definition of a value was utilized to denote personal, group, and organizational values.

Value System

Theorists have maintained that values operate in relationship to one another rather than in isolation (Kinnier, 1995; Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz & Bilskey, 1987). This interrelationship has been termed a value system. Rokeach (1973), branching from his definition of a value, offered a more precise delineation of the concept. "A value system is an enduring organization of beliefs concerning preferable modes of conduct or end-states of existence along a continuum of relative importance" (p. 5). As with values, Rokeach's definition of value system was utilized, incorporating the understanding that in a value system, values, can be, and are ranked in a hierarchy of importance relative to one another.

Organizational Value System

While a variety of values may be manifest in an organization or group, not all are considered part of the joint value system. For the purposes of this study, shared values, in the form of an organizational value system, were deemed to exist when a number of key values regarding the organization's state of affairs or organization related behaviors are shared by most members of the organization (Wiener, 1988). This sharing of values is such that it transcends organizational units and levels.

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Group Value System

Following Wiener's (1988) construct of an organizational value system, shared values, in the form of a group value system, were deemed to exist when most work group members share a number of key values regarding the state of affairs of the group or organization, or regarding behaviors related to the group or organization (Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Wiener, 1988).

Value congruency

The notion of shared value strength or value congruency followed that utilized in a number of value relational studies (Boxx et al., 1991; Enz, 1988; Harris & Mossholder, 1996; Meglino et al., 1989; Shepherd, 1997; Wiener, 1988). Value congruency or alignment of value systems is said to exist to the degree to which the preferred values of the member for the group or organization, align or correspond with the shared values the member perceives as constituting the existing shared value system.

Subculture

In the context of this research, the term *subculture* refers to any subgroup of individuals within an organization that operates under its own set of cultural mechanisms. The use of the term subculture denotes the distinction from organizational culture made by Kotter and Heskett (1992). "Although we usually talk about organizational culture in the singular, all firms have multiple cultures--usually associated with different functional

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groupings or geographic locations. Even within a small subunit there may be multiple and even conflicting subcultures" (pp. 5-6).

Research Questions

Manufacturing and service organizations increasingly use group-centered facilitated interventions, yet most research regarding group facilitation practices occurs only with small experimental groups in laboratory settings (Chilberg, 1995). There is a general lack of empirical research data to determine the effectiveness of such practices in natural settings, contended Chilberg. A review of the literature also reveals a lack of research data regarding the effectiveness of shared value creation intervention methodologies currently in use by managers and organizational change practitioners. As a result, this study explored an area with only limited prior research on which to build. Therefore, this study sought to build a foundation for future research in this subject matter by answering the following research questions.

1. What effect will the use of consensus in a shared values creation intervention have on the levels of person-group value congruence, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and group cohesion?

2. What effect will the use of both consensus and values clarification in a shared values creation intervention have on the levels of person-group value congruence, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and group cohesion?

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3. Of the two shared values creation methods under study, which will have a greater positive influence on the levels of person-group value congruence, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and group cohesion?

Because values clarification has not been utilized as a stand-alone methodology for shared values creation, this study did not undertake to examine the effects of values clarification used in isolation from other practices.

Significance of the Study

As earlier noted, contemporary social change is occurring at a rate which challenges the ability of management to respond in a manner which ensures the viability and effectiveness of their organizations. This environmental turbulence has resulted in the increased use of flat organization designs, loose networks, and boundaryless structures in an attempt to enhance organizational learning and adaptation. Under such conditions subcultures have risen to generally play a more important role than that of the global corporate culture in influencing organizational performance (Caudron, 1992; Schein, 1996). Concurrent with these changes has been a general shift towards value-based management and the reliance on shared value systems as a means for guiding operations (MacDonald & Gandz, 1992). Identifying effective methodologies for use in value-based management, especially in the realm of creating and sustaining shared values at the subculture level, holds promise for enhancing organizational performance and success. The results of the present study are expected to contribute to the knowledge base in this

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area by examining in the subcultural realm the effects of two commonly used methodologies for shared value system creation and maintenance.

More specifically, theorists have asserted that systems alignment, particularly with respect to value systems, is critical to organizational learning and effectiveness (Likert, 1961; Senge, 1990). Proponents argue that an effective process of alignment incorporates employee participation in group value system creation, thus ensuring higher levels of commitment and energy on the part of organization members (Likert, 1961; MacDonald & Gandz, 1992; O'Reilly, 1989b; Senge, 1990). In the context of person-organization fit theory the results of this exploratory study were expected to provide empirical evidence regarding the effects of employee participation through consensus and values clarification. The findings of this study may serve to identify a practical methodology for managers to achieve shared values among work group members despite the challenges of increased workforce diversity and changing value systems. An indication of a positive impact on value congruency or related affective variables would provide evidence supporting the use of such interventions, and inviting further research in this area. An indication of nominal or negative influence would allow managers to opt for alternative methods for values-based management and researchers to consider assessing the impact of other approaches.

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CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

In accordance with the meso research approach of this study, the literature review has been structured to encompass the components of organization rationale, process construct, and outcome assessment means. This chapter reviews the literature regarding the implications of an organization's culture, and in particular its subculture, with respect to various facets of organizational behavior and performance. It considers culture in terms of one of its major dimensions, shared values, and the positions of theorists who assert leaders have an important role in managing the creation and maintenance of shared values. Contemporary research regarding shared values, person-organization fit and the associated affective variables of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and group cohesion are examined. Finally, the nature of values and the process of values clarification as well as research regarding participative decision making and the use of consensus are explored.

The Role of Organizational Culture and Shared Values

The notion of culture as an important dimension in developing an understanding of organizations and their behavior has risen to the level of common acceptance among researchers and practitioners (Hofstede, 1998). Recent interest in culture, from a management perspective, can be traced back to a number of best selling books published in the early 1980's (Denison, 1990; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Trice & Beyer, 1993). Among these works were *Theory Z* (Ouchi, 1982), *Corporate Cultures* (Deal & Kennedy, 1982), and *In Search of Excellence* (Peters & Waterman, 1982). These authors argued that corporate cultures serve as a key component of organizational effectiveness. Others

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maintained there were additional advantages to the concept of organizational culture. For example, culture allows one to make sense of what may otherwise seem to be irrational behaviors by an organization or group (Schein, 1985).

Yet, despite the widespread acceptance of the concept, there remains a general disagreement in the literature regarding the primary elements that constitute culture (Gordon & DiTomaso, 1992; O'Reilly et al., 1991). Peters and Waterman (1982) used the terms culture and shared values interchangeably. For Deal and Kennedy (1982) culture was the dominant values espoused by the organization. Ouchi (1981) described culture as the guiding philosophy used to direct organizational policy towards customers and employees. Schein (1985) contended that culture consists primarily of a pattern of fundamental assumptions which originate in the process of learning to cope with an organization's problems in its external and internal environment, although he also acknowledged values are an important aspect of culture. Trice and Beyer (1993) depicted the substance of culture as an organization's ideology: "relatively implicit sets of taken-for-granted beliefs, values, and norms" (p. 2). Others also defined culture in terms of shared beliefs, values, attitudes, meaning or norms, but placed less emphasis on these elements being tacit (Fitz-enz, 1997; Gordon & DiTomaso, 1992; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Recardo & Jolly, 1997). Although diversity reigned in the effort to define culture, there was also general consensus that shared values, if not the core, are at least a key element of organizational culture (Wiener, 1988). Furthermore, shared values, though less visible

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than artifacts and behaviors, serve as the most readily understood components of an organization's culture (Schein, 1985).

Early on Chester Barnard (1938) recognized the importance of culture to the success of the organization arguing that the key role of the executive was in managing the organization's social system of cooperation. Shared values (culture) sits at the heart of the McKinsey 7-s framework used by Peters and Waterman (1982) to identify the critical organizational variables that must be successfully addressed by management. They contended that a strong culture, "being value driven" (p. 5), is one of the primary distinctives of excellent companies. However, Peters and Waterman uniquely defined excellence in terms of being large and continuously innovative. Culture has been shown to have a significant impact on individuals and organizational performance, but there is evidence that cultural strength alone is not a determinant of organizational effectiveness (Gordon & DiTomaso, 1992; Kotter & Heskett, 1992). From the results of four separate studies of organizations, Kotter and Heskett concluded that (a) corporate culture can significantly influence economic performance both positively and negatively; (b) such negative influence is not rare; (c) culture will increase in its influence on corporate success in the future; and (d) cultures can be managed to enhance organizational performance.

The development of a given organizational culture has been attributed primarily to the influence of the founding leadership and the patterns of behavior that have resulted in success over the life span of the organization (Denison, 1990; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Schein, 1985; Shockley-Zalabak & Morley, 1994). In essence, culture has been described

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as the product of leadership influence and the organization's success. However, the reverse has also been found to be true. Culture has been identified as having very direct and potentially positive effects on the organization that contribute to its success. Among these are the facilitation of the management of uncertainty, the creation of social order, continuity, and a sense of collective identity and commitment among members (Trice & Beyer, 1993). Kotter and Heskett (1992) maintained that a strong culture can facilitate goal alignment among organization members, develop high levels of employee motivation, and provide essential structure and control without reliance on bureaucratization. Beyond cultural strength alone, cultural content has also been associated with enhancing organizational effectiveness, particularly to the degree that the culture emphasizes employee involvement, adaptability, consistency between norms and behavior, and the organization's sense of mission (Dennison, 1990; Gordon & DiTomaso, 1992; Recardo & Jolly, 1997).

Subcultures and Their Influence

The monolithic view of culture articulated by Ouchi (1981), Deal and Kennedy (1982), and Peters and Waterman (1982) has come under criticism for overstating homogeneity of culture in organizations (Caudron, 1992; Stevenson & Bartunek, 1996; Trice & Beyer, 1993). Schein (1985) argued that any new group in the process of learning to work together begins to form a group culture. In so far as organizations are made up groups in the form of teams, task forces, departments, divisions, and employees in specific

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professions, they also contain multiple underlying cultures. These subcultures form more readily than an overarching organization culture, and as a result, exist even when there is no distinctive corporate-wide culture (Martin, 1992; Trice & Beyer, 1993). "Even within a relatively small unit there may be multiple and even conflicting subcultures" (Kotter & Heskett, 1992, p. 6). In response to the question of how the many subcultures should be viewed in relation to the overarching culture of the organization, Trice and Beyer (1993) suggested that a good illustration is the model of multiple subcultures held together with varying strength by an overall culture. The overall culture consists of the elements shared by nearly all persons in the organization. The subcultures, on the other hand, operate as any other culture with distinctive ideologies, artifacts, and patterns of behavior.

Trice and Beyer (1993) asserted that the origination of subcultures can be best understood in terms of homogeneity among groups of organization members and can largely be traced to three conditions that facilitate their development: differential interaction, shared experiences, and personal characteristics. The extent to which some people work together more extensively than others serves as the basis for subculture formation. Similarly, shared experiences over an extended period of time often lead to the development of collective ideology and sense making. Lastly, similar personal characteristics such as demographics or occupation encourage subculture ideology formation because individuals need minimal adaptation to reach common understandings with one another regarding beliefs and values. Typically these conditions for the formation of various subcultures exist in the organization at the functional, occupational, operational

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unit, hierarchical, and social interaction levels (Caudron, 1992; Stevenson & Bartunek, 1996).

Subcultures frequently play an important role with respect to the quality of an organization's functioning. Often the influences of subcultures within a corporation have a stronger effect on behaviors and outcomes in the organization than the overarching culture (Schein, 1985). For example, subcultures supportive of worker empowerment have created an enhanced sense of worker empowerment despite the existence of a global culture of bureaucracy and centralized control (Foster-Fishman & Keyes, 1997). While shared values within a given subculture and between subcultures and the global organizational culture are logically of major importance, identifying and understanding areas of subculture conflict are critical to effective organizational performance (Caudron, 1992; Hofstede, 1998; Schein, 1996). Cultural rifts may lead to failure in the implementation of corporate-wide strategy, or even outright rebellion by subculture members (Hofstede, 1998). Managers may even fail to grasp the influence of other subcultures and the true complexity of the global corporate culture, according to Hofstede, because of the difficulty of seeing beyond the managerial subculture in which they reside.

While values of subcultures provide group members a sense of identity, they may also be in conflict with the overall mission of the organization, and as a result, cause resistance to organizational goals and objectives (Carzo & Yanouzas, 1967; Caudron,

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1992). The set of shared values of a specific occupational or functional subculture can serve to protect and enhance performance within the subcultural group (Trice & Beyer, 1993; Tushman & O'Reilly, 1996). At the same time, when in conflict with the values of other subcultures, these same shared values can inhibit organizational learning by preventing the integration of new information (Schein, 1996). In addition, differences in language usage and mental models between subcultures can also undermine organizational learning (Schein, 1993).

According to the literature, the subcultures of an organization are vitally important because they can serve to enhance or undermine the achievement of organizational mission, strategy, goals, objectives, learning and even survival. As a result, it is clear that since the critical role of leadership is in managing culture (Barnard, 1938; Schein, 1985; Tushman & O'Reilly, 1996), a vital role of managers who serve as leaders at the divisional, functional, departmental, and unit levels is to constructively manage their respective subcultures in order to foster shared values which align with the core values, vision, and mission of the organization. However, despite the assertions of the importance of this managerial responsibility, especially in circumstances of environmental change (Tushman & O'Reilly, 1996), there is an absence of empirical research as to methods managers can use to effectively carry out this function (Stevenson & Bartunek, 1996).

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The Sharing of Values

Consideration of possible avenues for management to effectively influence the formation of shared values at the subculture level in the organization requires a concise conceptualization of the notion of shared values. Though functioning from the perspective of the organization as a whole, Peters and Waterman (1982) presented a generalized view of shared values as overarching goals articulated by management and infused throughout the company. Kotter and Heskett (1992) offered what is among the relatively few overt attempts in the literature to define shared values: "Important concerns and goals that are shared by most of the people in a group that tend to shape group behavior, that often persist over time even with changes in group memberships" (p. 5). Wiener (1988) equated shared values with the key values regarding behaviors and conditions of a social unit that constitute the group's central value system.

Although theorists have argued that managers play a critical role in the shaping of shared values in their organizations (Barnard, 1938; Schein, 1985; Wiener, 1988), there was also recognition that the value systems of those at the top levels of the organization may simply reflect desired outcomes rather than organizational reality (Hofstede, 1998; O'Reilly, 1989a). Others argued that shared values are a product of mutual influence between individuals and the group through the process of socialization (Martin, Sitkin, & Boehm, 1985; Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998). As members become part of the organization, they are also social actors who with other group members create new value sets. This latter

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position gives support to the notion that employee values also influence the value system of an organization or subgroup.

The sharing of values can be conceived of in a number of ways including intensity of attachment, frequency of identification among members, and the similarity of value sets and the strength of value sharing measured accordingly (Gordon & DiTomaso, 1992; Wiener, 1988). The intensity of attachment view considers the importance level or ranking members of the social unit assign to a given value, or limited set of values, as the formulation of the group's value system. The frequency of identification perspective constructs the group's shared value system on the basis of the values most often articulated, expressed, or observed among members. The value set and strength paradigm compiles relevant value sets and delineates the unit's shared values in terms of average or compiled rankings or ratings of importance by members, and/or the social unit as a whole. Shared values can also be considered across a variety of organizational elements such as among stakeholders, between senior management and employees, among senior management and work groups, among work group members, and between employees and their supervisor (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1992).

Research studies attempting to measure the association between shared values and other variables have frequently operationalized shared values in terms of value congruency measured on a number of the aforementioned dimensions. A series of related studies define congruency in terms of the correlation between members' preference q-sort

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rankings and the organization's value priorities as ranked by senior management for a set of 54 values identified as relevant to individuals and organizations (Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Westerman et al., March, 1998). In studying shared values in work groups, Adkins, Ravlin and Meglino (1996) considered value congruency in terms of the correlation in rankings of only four work values (achievement, fairness, honesty, and helping and concern for others) among paired co-workers. Posner (1992) focused on the core values of the organization and member expressions of clarity, consensus, and commitment with respect to this value set. Enz (1988) observed that value congruity can be understood either in terms of perceived congruity of values or latent congruity (comparison of values in use), and utilizes both constructs in a study of power distribution among organizational subunits. Building on the assertion that perception is reality, Boxx, Odom, and Dunn (1991), in an industry-wide study, assessed congruency in terms of Peters and Waterman's (1982) eight values of excellent companies and the correlation between the subject's desired and perceived values of their organization. Other studies have also followed the desired versus perceived value construct as the measure of value congruence (Harris & Mossholder, 1996; Meglino et al., 1989; Shepherd, 1997). While among these and other studies there is recognition of the importance of the shared values concept, in the field of shared values research, there is also a lack of empirical evidence to support prioritizing these approaches to the operationalizing of value congruency (Meglino et al., 1992).

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Person-Organization Fit

The loose-tight properties attributed to excellent companies by Peters and Waterman (1982) reflect control through culture: "In the very same institutions in which culture is so dominant, the very highest levels of true autonomy occur. The culture regulates rigorously the few variables that do count, and it provides meaning" (p. 105). These loosely networked organizational structures with broad participation by members and shared values have been described as ideal for dynamic organization environments, such as the competitive conditions facing high technology firms (Schellenberg & Miller, 1998). The growing use of loose organizational structure provides increased adaptability and responsiveness, but also presents a challenge to existing human resource practices, especially with respect to the concept of jobs and job descriptions (Lawler, 1994; Nelson, 1997). In an organizational world of frequent adaptation in response to changing internal and external environmental demands, and boundaryless structures, the traditional process of identifying requisite knowledge, abilities, and skill areas is likely to prove untenable (Nelson, 1997). Lawler contended employees are the key to the organization's ability to compete through their skills in adaptation, and the learning and performance of static job functions. Nelson suggested the solution to the need for an alternative to a job-based approach to human resource management lies in the construct of shared values between organization and employee, and the concept of person-organization fit advanced by Chatman (1989).

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The person-organization fit paradigm proposed by Chatman (1989) takes an interactional view toward understanding organizational behavior. The framework for this research approach requires the assessment of persons, situations, the influence of persons on situations, and the effects of situations on persons. In Chatman's model, the organizational setting serves as the situation, and organizational members are the persons under consideration. Values serve as the common dimension for measurement of relationship, or fit between the person and organization. The situational segment in the process of interaction is reflected in the organization's efforts to socialize members to its existing values and norms. The person facet in the process of interaction is evidenced in what Chatman described as the preference of individuals for organizational settings that match their own values and norms.

> We have seen that people search for and prefer when organizations' situational norms and values match those they believe are important, and they perform better in such situations. Therefore people have such characteristics in mind when they select organizations, and once they are members, they may try to change norms either through personal control or through power in order to establish congruence with their own values. (p. 344)

Defined as person-organization fit, Chatman proposed that the level of congruence, alignment of shared values between member and organization values, could be measured in terms of the correlation of the Q-sorting of a list of values for the member and for the organization.

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A review of the literature indicates considerable support for the theory that alignment of member and organizational values provides important benefits to the organization. "The informal processes and structure are based on the values and beliefs shared by participants in the informal organization" (Carzo & Yanouzas, 1967, p. 147). "An organization's performance should be greatly enhanced if the cultural values are congruent with the desired beliefs and values of its employees" (Boxx et al., 1991, p. 63). In a study of 11 highly successful retail organizations, common elements found by Berry, Seiders, and Gresham (1997) were both a values driven culture, and value systems that were rich, vibrant, and linked directly with the value systems of employees. From a study of American managers, Posner, Kouzes, and Schmidt (1985) concluded that attempts to enhance employee-organization value congruence should produce increased commitment, and focused energy and effort on behalf of the organization. Anderson (1997) also maintained organizations are more productive when their values are compatible with those of their members and stakeholders.

Much of the research with respect to shared values has been conducted in the context of person-organization fit. Results of such studies have indicated that when employees prefer the prevalent values of the organization, they are more likely to be satisfied and remain with the organization, and their job satisfaction level increases as their values align more closely with those of the organization (Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly et al.,

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1991; Shepherd, 1997; Westerman et al., 1998). Similar results have also been found in studies considering the congruency between the preferred organizational values of individual members and the values they attribute to their organization (Boxx et al., 1991; Meglino et. al., 1989). Harris and Mossholder (1996) also confirmed these findings. However, they found in considering person-organization fit in terms of cultural dimensions which represented value groupings, congruency across some value sets had greater significance with respect to job satisfaction than others. In examining person-organization fit in terms of managers' perceptions of congruency between their personal values and those of the organization, Posner et al. (1985) found positive association between congruency and a number of variables. Here higher levels of value congruency were associated with higher levels of commitment to the organization, feelings of personal success, willingness to work long hours, resistance to unethical behavior, concern for organizational goals, regard for the organization's stakeholders, and lower levels of job induced personal stress.

Although subunits are recognized as having a major impact on organizational performance (Hofstede, 1998; Schein, 1996), research with respect to values and person-organization fit at the subunit level has been limited (Adkins et al., 1996). As with the impact on the organization, similarly one would expect subgroup values would have a greater impact on an individual's attitudes and behavior. Implications of value congruency at the subunit level have been examined in terms of the similarity of values among group members. Meglino et al. (1989) discovered a positive association between employee-

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manager value congruence and employee job satisfaction. Adkins et al. (1996) found work values congruence among co-workers was positively associated with job satisfaction, job social satisfaction, job performance, and attendance measures. Results of this study, however, also indicated that job tenure functions as a moderator, limiting the effects of value congruence with respect to social satisfaction and attendance. Research on a group of senior managers revealed a strong positive correlation between personal value congruence and social liking, co-worker preference, and character attribution (Glaman, Jones, & Rozelle, 1996). In a study of undergraduate student teams working on classroom assignments, Fisher, Macrosson, and Yusuff (1996) found a significant and substantial relationship between shared values and team performance. In contrast to the findings of Harris and Mossholder (1996) regarding organizational values and affective dimensions, Fisher et al. observed that the existence of consensus rather than a specific value or goal shared affects performance. "Our results suggest that which personal goal shared is not of significance; it is the very experience of having agreement which lies close to the core of the individual's beings, energizing and producing enhanced commitment to the agreed goals" (p. 1023).

The Nature of Values

The Birth of Values

The role of values as guiding principles in the lives of humans makes an understanding of their source and developmental process of critical importance. It has

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been argued that there are a relatively small number of values each individual possess and yet there is a common possession of values to varying degrees among all humans (Rokeach, 1973). Where do an individual's values come from? By what process are they given their position in the hierarchy? Are there points at which new values replace existing values? Answers to these and other questions are vital if an understanding of values and their role in human work relations is to be achieved.

Maslow (1959) identified innate individual personality traits and their influence on environmental interactions as the initiating source of values. He asserted, "Constitutional differences in individuals generate preferences among ways of relating to self, and to the world, i.e., generate values" (p.123). Rokeach (1973) described values as being both taught and learned in a two-step process. First, in isolation behaviors and end states are identified for children as always being desirable, an absolutism that assures endurance. Second, in the process of maturation and more complex social interaction children encounter situations in which these absolute values compete with one another. In the process of evaluating one value against another, children learn values have a qualitative dimension and develop a value hierarchy.

Other explanations offered for the origins of values blend both Maslow's and Rokeach's viewpoints. Some values are seen as being determined biologically, and are those that are essential and instrumental to survival. A second category of values derives from one's physical and cultural environment. The remaining values are the result of a personal history of interaction with one's environment (Hechter, 1993). Cognitive style

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has been shown to be an effective predictor of the development of some values and value system hierarchies (Claxton, McIntyre, Clow, & Zemanek, 1996). The notion of value conflict having a developmental role in the formation of a qualitative understanding of values was supported by Kinnier (1995). "Individuals do not consider one abstract value at a time until all of their values are finally clarified. More realistically, they attempt to resolve specific conflicts as they become salient in their daily lives" (p. 21).

The Role of Values in Motivation and Behavior:

When considering the intentional development of shared values in an organizational setting, critical consideration must be the relationship between values, motivation, and subsequent behavior. McClelland (1951) theorized motivation and the implicit values of the culture that shape the super-ego are essentially one and the same. In contrast, explicit values, he maintained, are selected based on an individual's motivation. Rokeach (1973) recognized values as having a powerful motivational element and in addition, behavioral, cognitive, and affective components (p. 14). As noted earlier, Maslow (1959, 1987) at times utilized the terms needs and values interchangeably. Feather (1992), on the other hand, identified a link between values and needs, observing that values have an operational similarity to needs, yet also noting there are two significant differences. First, values are closer to awareness and can be more readily vocalized than underlying needs. Second, in contrast to needs, values are relatively stable in light of the changing states of the individual. He maintained that values create positive or negative

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valences for expected action outcomes similar to those which Lewin (1938) ascribed to needs. According to Feather, the potency of the valences generated by the operation of values and needs determines the direction and strength of the motivational force moving the individual to action. While Schwartz and Bilskey (1987) considered values as related to and supportive of motivations, Feather confessed, "My analysis of the value concept is distinctive in that it treats values not only as generalized beliefs about what is or is not desirable, but also as motives" (p. 111).

Role of values as a critical element of the movement from motivation on to action is outlined in a theoretical model proposed by Locke (1991). He described motivation and subsequent action occurring in a sequence of stages. He asserted the initial stage begins with needs in that, "The ultimate goal of all goal directed behavior is need fulfillment" (p. 289). Needs confront people with the requirement to take action, according to Locke, yet are not determinative of that action. He maintained values serve as the cognitive link between needs and actions, and thus, are the second stage in the motivational sequence. The value linkage to action is accomplished through goals, which Locke identified as "applications of values to specific situations" (p. 292). Finally, Locke concluded action is determined by the interaction of identified goals and the combination of self-efficacy (the perceived ability to accomplish the goal) and expectancy (likelihood of receiving the desired goal outcome). This parallels the linkage between values, expectancy and action described by Feather (1992).

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Value Awareness

It has been observed that despite the powerful impact of values on motivation and behavior of individuals that many people are unaware of their own values (Kinnier, 1995; Raths, Harmin, & Simon, 1978). If in fact values are concepts or beliefs, it would seem that value consciousness would be an essential element of their ability to influence behavior and motivation as is argued by Locke (1991) and Feather (1992). Yet, Maslow (1987) asserted that reaching an awareness of one's needs and values is a major accomplishment. "To be impulse aware, to know that we really want and need love, respect, knowledge, a philosophy, self-actualization, and so forth—this is a difficult psychological achievement" (p. 60).

If consciousness is a critical component of values in action, and reaching an awareness is a difficult psychological task, accomplished by relatively few people, how can values have significant impact on the behavior and motivations of humans as a whole? The answer may reside in the delineation of three levels of consciousness set forth by Epstein (1983): subconscious, preconscious, and conscious. He viewed the preconscious level operating primarily in experiential conceptual system and closely tied to emotions. Epstein maintained that values and beliefs reside at the level of preconsciousness, and operate automatically to orchestrate an individual's daily behavior and experience. Hence, the operation of values does not require a full awareness in order to function in the role of influencing motivation and behavior. Values and beliefs can be brought to the level of full consciousness for consideration, however, through calls to attention and self-awareness

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(Carver & Scheier, 1982; Langen-Fox, 1991; Raths et al., 1978). Such calls to attention can occur as a result of the parameters of a given situation, or the experience of value conflict that stimulates reflection (Rokeach, 1973; Kinnier 1995).

Some argued that clarifying values and bringing them into full awareness, improves decision quality, maturity and performance (Brown, 1995; Raths et al., 1978). Value theory posits that individuals who are unclear or uncertain regarding their values will function immaturely either in over conformity to social demands or in overresistance. An individual with clarified values, on the other hand, is expected to exhibit the behaviors of a self-actualizing person. The strategy for clarification advocated by Raths, Harmin, and Simon (1978) calls for enacting experiences which cause the individual to introspect and bring to consciousness, beliefs, feelings, goals, aspirations, and attitudes. In contrast, Kinnier (1995) argued that after a rapid rise to popularity and the publishing of hundreds of value clarification exercises, interest and belief in the effectiveness of value clarification has waned. He attributed this demise in part to globalized attempts at establishing value consciousness. An individual's value set cannot be crystallized and prioritized all at once, according to Kinnier. Instead, in the context of value conflicts, wherein saliency is achieved, individuals then identify their values and incorporate them into the hierarchy of their value system. As a result, his prescription for a more effective approach in assisting individuals in value clarification entails the sequential consideration of relevant value conflict situations.

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Job Satisfaction

As noted earlier, studies have revealed a positive association between person-organization fit, measured in terms of value congruency, and job satisfaction. Early interest in job satisfaction arose from the assumption that higher levels of worker satisfaction would lead to increased productivity, and hence, increased profit (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). While the initial hypothesis was the existence of a direct relationship between job satisfaction and individual productivity, Smith et al. observed: "It soon became apparent that such a simple formulation was inadequate, and we feel that it is unlikely that any simple relationship between satisfaction and productivity will be found generally" (p. 3). Meta-analytic reviews of research results indicate average satisfaction-performance correlations of only .17 (Fisher & Locke, 1992). Despite this fact, organizations remain concerned about employee job satisfaction levels primarily because of the assumed direct relationship with the achievement of short-term operational goals such as cost cutting, increased productivity, and reductions in errors, absenteeism, and turnover (Smith, 1992).

Research has revealed that job satisfaction is directly associated with other aspects of employee attitudes and behavior which influence organizational effectiveness and success. For example, studies indicate a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Harrison & Hubbard, 1998). With respect to job attachment, job satisfaction has been identified as an antecedent to work related centrality (Mannheim, Yehuda, & Tal, 1997). Job satisfaction has been shown to have a similar antecedent

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relationship with the rates of employee recovery from on the job injuries (Miller, 1998). Meta-analysis of 38 studies conducted between 1980 and 1993 considering the correlation between job satisfaction and intent to leave indicates the relationships found were significant and consistently negative, ranging between -.10 and -.59 (Hellman, 1997). Beyond intent to leave, studies of the relationship between actual turnover and job satisfaction have also concluded the existence of a significant negative correlation (Gregson, 1990; Somers, 1996). Finally, studies have also revealed inverse relationships between job satisfaction and both job stress (Ramanathan, 1991; Ramirez, Graham, Richards, Cull, & Gregory, 1996), and emotional exhaustion (Ramirez et al., 1996), and a positive association with respect to attendance (Steers & Stone, 1988).

Despite these results, criticism aimed at research in the area of job satisfaction focuses on the frequent attempts to connect a general attitudinal construct to a specific behavioral response (Fisher & Locke, 1992). An alternative approach advocated by Fisher and Lock calls for considering job satisfaction in relationship to an aggregate of behavioral manifestations associated with the job. Aggregated positive behaviors have been identified by a variety of terms including organizational citizenship, prosocial, altruistic, or extrarole behaviors. At least 15 contemporary studies have established that job satisfaction is a significant predictor of such aggregated positive behaviors (Organ & Lingl, 1995). Other studies have produced similar relationships between job dissatisfaction and noncompliant or negative aggregate behaviors such as defensive, work avoidance, and passive-aggressive actions (Fisher & Locke, 1992; Henne, 1986; Staehle, 1985).

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While reviewing the literature with respect to job satisfaction supports the notion of its importance as a concern for organizational managers and leaders, it also gives evidence of a dual approach to the conceptualization of job satisfaction. "There appear to be two main approaches to research on the topic: one that examines the facets of job satisfaction and the other that attempts to determine and measure the most relevant dimensions of job satisfaction" (Macdonald & MacIntyre, 1997, p. 5). The facets approach considers dimensions specific to the individual's job. On the other hand, "General job satisfaction involves components not caused by the immediate job situation" (Smith, 1992, p. 5). Because of the focus in this study on subculture values rather than specific job dimensions, the concept of general or overall job satisfaction that Smith considers a function of a variety of aspects of the work environment will be used. Following the approach of Smith et al. (1969), job satisfaction is defined as the feelings or affective reaction a worker has towards his or her job. Support for this course of action can be found in Smith's (1992) observation that general job satisfaction is likely to be an important factor in the effectiveness of loosely networked organizations. Satisfied individuals tend to be optimistic and hence facilitate the process of adaptation to change. "Greater understanding of general satisfaction becomes more important when organizations are facing rapid change" (Smith, 1992, p. 17). Others also support this position with respect to the benefits of general job satisfaction, "Organizational practices that maximize job satisfaction will likely enhance employee's service to customers, and

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their commitment and willingness to contribute to the organization's business success" (Johnson & McIntye, 1998, p. 848).

Organizational Commitment

As with job satisfaction, person-organization fit studies have indicated a positive association with organizational commitment. A review of the literature reveals numerous variations in how organizational commitment is conceptualized and defined (Morrow, 1983). Some have used the term commitment interchangeably with the concept of loyalty to the organization (Price & Mueller, 1986). The most frequently used definition of organizational commitment is that offered by Mowday, Porter, and Steers (Benkhoff, 1997). They described organizational commitment as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in an organization" (Mowday et al., 1982, p. 27). From this definition Mowday et al., portray commitment as a three-faceted concept characterized by the employee's desire to remain with the organization, willingness to exert effort towards the organization's goals, and acceptance of organizational values.

Others have argued that the concept of organizational commitment extends beyond the attitudinal attachment of Mowday et al. (1982) and includes behavioral or calculative commitment (Elizur, 1996; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1981; Salancik, 1977). Illustrative of this latter approach is O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) delineation of organizational commitment as psychological attachment, expressed as: "the degree to which the individual internalizes or adopts the characteristics or perspectives of

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the organization" (p. 493). The basis of organizational commitment in the context of this framework is also characterized by three undergirding facets, in this case: (a) compliance or utilitarian involvement for identifiable rewards; (b) identification or involvement out of desired association; and (c) internalization or involvement based on shared values between the individual and the organization.

A final example of the conceptualization of organizational commitment found in the literature is that offered by Meyer and Allen (1991), which also consists of three elements. In this case, attempting to consolidate the various approaches to organizational commitment found in the literature these authors also proposed a three-component model: affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Affective commitment encompasses the employee's emotional attachment, sense of involvement, or identification with the organization. Continuance commitment incorporates the employee's awareness of the costs of leaving the organization. As the last component in this model, normative commitment reflects the employee's sense of obligation to remain with the organization.

Because of the emphasis on shared values rather than job conditions or reward systems in this present study, organizational commitment will follow the definition offered by Mowday et al. (1982). This will allow consideration of the concept in terms of the three facets of psychological attachment they delineate, which are also integrated as identification and internalization in the O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) model, and as affective commitment in that of Meyer and Allen (1991).

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Although studied extensively, over 30 years of research regarding organizational commitment has failed to produce evidence of a systematic relationship between commitment and the employee behaviors expected to be associated with it: job performance and turnover (Benkhoff, 1997). Yet, meta-analysis of 124 organizational commitment studies over the period of 1967 through 1987 reveals medium to large correlations between commitment and a variety of variables (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). The study by Mathieu and Zajac examined 48 variables within the context of 174 independent samples, 75% of which were focused on attitudinal commitment. These 48 variables were categorized as either antecedents of commitment, correlates, or consequences. Antecedents of organizational commitment were defined as personal characteristics, job characteristics, organizational characteristics, role states, and group-leader relations. For the 26 antecedent variables examined average correlations of approximately half rose above a low level of association: age (.201), perceived competence (.630), Protestant work ethic (.289), skill variety (.207), job challenge (.349), job scope (.503), task independence (.220), leader initiating structure (.289), leader consideration (.335), leader communication (.454), participatory leadership (.386), role ambiguity (-.218), and role overload (-.206). Correlates of organizational commitment incorporated attitudinal variables for which it is difficult to identify precedent causality. Average correlation values for all correlates were the highest for variables in the Mathieu and Zajac study and all at moderate to high levels of association: motivation (.563), job involvement (.432), stress (-.330), occupational commitment (.420), union commitment (.236), and job satisfaction

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(.595). The category consequence variables contained those items normally considered in the realm of performance or withdrawal behaviors. Only weak association between commitment and job performance variables was found with average correlations ranging between .135 and .054. On the other hand, substantially stronger association was revealed with respect to turnover (-.277), intention to search for other job alternatives (-.599), and intention to leave one's job (-.464). Similar results for this later set of variables were found in a more recent meta-analysis comparing the influences of job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the turnover process (Tett & Meyer, 1993). However, while confirming that commitment and job satisfaction independently contribute to predicting turnover intent/cognition, job satisfaction was found to be a stronger predictor than organizational commitment.

Considerable recent research activity regarding correlates with organizational commitment has been conducted in the realm of person-organization fit and values congruence as described earlier in this literature review. Although these variables were not considered in either the Mathieu and Zajac (1990) or Tett and Meyer (1993) studies, correlation levels compare reasonably and fall in the low to medium range between .17 and .42 (Chatman, 1991; Meglino et al., 1989; Shepherd, 1997). In total, review of the literature regarding organizational commitment reveals that little has been done in the realm of causal studies or with respect to specific efforts to increase organizational commitment among employees. Support for the undertakings of this present study can be found in the concluding observation by Mathieu and Zajac that organizational commitment

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"represents a useful criterion for a number of organizational interventions designed to improve employees' attitudes and behaviors" (p. 192). They argued that this is particularly true with respect to efforts related to influence employee socialization, participation, and sense of ownership, which are often the objectives generally associated with shared values creation interventions.

Group Cohesion

As with job satisfaction and organizational commitment, cohesiveness is still a matter of extensive study and debate in the literature (Guzzo & Dickenson, 1996). Despite over 30 years of research on the subject, there remains a lack of general agreement on a satisfactory definition of group cohesiveness (Mudrack, 1989). One of the earliest attempts at creating a working definition was made by Festinger (1950) who defined group cohesion as "the resultant forces which are acting on the members to stay in the group" (p. 274). However, this parallels very closely the concept of group commitment. Carron, Widmeyer, and Brawley (1985), on the other hand, took a multidimensional approach to cohesion, maintaining that cohesion is composed of attraction to the group and group integration, and can exist in the form of social cohesion or task cohesion. Attraction to the group and group integration incorporates an individual's personal involvement with the group. "Task cohesion exists when the group coheres around the task it was organized to perform while social cohesion exists when the group coheres around social (non-task) functions" (pp. 247-248). While more encompassing than the

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definition offered by Festinger, the Carron et al. multidimensional construct is difficult to operationalize, and its use has been primarily limited to sports teams. Other multidimensional approaches have described group cohesion as a combination of risk-taking, instrumental value of the group, and attraction to other group members (Cota, Dion, & Evans, 1993). Based on this later variable of attraction, Price and Mueller (1986) offered a more narrow one-dimensional group cohesion construct for work settings. They defined work group cohesion as "the extent to which employees have close friends in their immediate work units" (p. 250). It is this narrower work group cohesion concept that has been previously explored in association with value congruency (Boxx et al., 1991) and therefore is utilized in this study.

Interest in group cohesion centers around its expected association with absenteeism, turnover, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors, and performance, issues of concern for all organizations. Research results with respect to absenteeism and turnover have been mixed and have varied in accordance with the organizational level at which cohesion was measured (Price & Mueller, 1986). Studies regarding the relationship between group cohesion and organizational citizenship behaviors, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment are more recent. Here results have indicated a positive association between group cohesion and each of these variables (George & Bettenhausen, 1990; Kidwell, Mossholder, & Bennett, 1997; Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995).

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The bulk of the research on group cohesion over the past three decades has been with respect to performance. Here, as is the case with organizational commitment, results have been inconclusive. In a 1972 analysis of 34 studies by Stogdill, results were evenly divided. Roughly one third indicated a positive association between cohesion and productivity, one third showed a negative relationship between the two variables, and one third of the studies indicated cohesiveness and productivity were not related (Stogdill, 1972). Subsequent meta-analysis of 16 studies by Evans and Dion (1991) indicated a moderately strong average correlation of .419 between cohesion and performance. However, these authors offer a caution regarding the generalizability of the results because group sizes were small, varied in nature from natural to artificial groups, and measures of cohesion and performance were also wide ranging.

A more comprehensive meta-analysis of 66 research studies on cohesion and performance by Mullen and Copper (1994) resulted in a smaller, yet still positive average correlation of .248. Correlations were found to vary by study type, group size and cohesiveness measure. Correlational studies, smaller groups, and task related cohesiveness, rather than interpersonal attraction, produced the highest levels of association between cohesion and performance. A third meta-analysis of 46 empirical studies has produced further support for the positive relationship between cohesion and performance (Gully, Devine, & Whitney, 1995). The findings of Gully et al. also indicate level of analysis and task interdependence may serve as moderators in the cohesion-performance relationship and suggest that failure to allow for these and perhaps other

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moderators may account for the variance in prior research findings. More recent research findings indicate goal acceptance may be one such moderator (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Ahearne, 1997).

Cohesion research studies over the past 30 years have been almost exclusively correlational, with limited attempts to consider cohesion as an antecedent to productivity and organizational commitment. There have also been few empirical studies regarding means for the creation of group cohesion, and most have been in the arena of sports teams or military units. Study results have indicated, however, that interventions can raise group cohesion levels, even in groups having relatively high cohesion (Martin & Davids, 1995). The findings of other studies suggest leader behaviors can enhance group cohesion and its association with performance (Podsakoff et al., 1997; Shields, Gardner, Bredemeier, & Bostro, 1997). This limited number of studies supports the need for and the approach of this present study and its attempt to determine the effects of shared values creation interventions on work group cohesion.

Participative Decision Making and Consensus

The focus of this research study is on the effects of utilizing consensus in the process of creating a set of shared values in a subculture. Consensus, however, is but one of a number of forms of participative decision making. In general, research on participative decision-making has been focused on its association with performance variables, such as productivity, and affective variables, such as job satisfaction and organizational

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commitment. Despite widely varying and conflicting empirical research results, participative decision making has grown in acceptance as an effective an appropriate management technique (Watson, Michaelsen, & Sharp, 1991). Locke and Schweiger (1979) in an early meta-analysis of over 50 studies concluded that there was no substantive trend in relationship to productivity, and that results generally supported the positive association with respect to satisfaction but in only 60% of the studies (p. 316). Miller and Monge (1986) in subsequent meta-analysis of 47 studies by participation model and research methodology found strong support for affective models linking participation with employee satisfaction. Results also indicated a small but significant effect on productivity and that research methodology and type of subject were important moderators. Follow up work by Wagner and Gooding (1987) found only minor effects of group size, task independence, task complexity, and performance standards as moderators, and that participation had only small effects on performance, motivation, satisfaction, and acceptance.

In the most recent of the major reviews of participative decision-making research, Cotton, Vollrath, Froggatt, Lengnick-hall and Jennings (1988) explored the hypothesis that participation is a multidimensional construct. In examining 91 research articles, they determined participation could be grouped into six categories and found that the effects on job satisfaction and productivity varied according to the form of participation. Informal participation and employee ownership were found to be effective with respect to both job satisfaction and productivity. Participation in work decisions was found to be positively

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associated with an increase in productivity but inconsistent with respect to job satisfaction. Results with respect to short-term participation were similarly mixed.

While there is growing acceptance of the multidimensional view of participative decision making, debate continues as to the number and specific identification of these dimensions. Black and Gregersen (1997) proposed a set of six drawn from the literature: rationale, structure, form, decision issues, degree of involvement, and decision process. In their own study of the effects of one of these dimensions, involvement, their results indicated that increased involvement in generating alternatives, planning, and evaluating results had a positive association with satisfaction and performance. The use of consensus and the shared values creation methodologies being examined in this research study fall into three of the dimensions of participative decision making proposed by Black and Gregersen: form, degree of involvement, and decision process. This study is therefore important as it extends their work to some degree into two additional dimensions. Further, studies with respect to consensus as a form of participative decision making have been primarily focused on effectiveness compared to individual decision making (Michaelsen, Black, & Watson, 1989; Schwenk & Cosier, 1993; Watson et al., 1991), rather than effects on affective variables such as job satisfaction, commitment, or cohesion. Therefore this study expands consensus research in this regard. Finally, the results of the study by Schwenk and Cosier (1993) provides support for this study's consideration of the use of values clarification in conjunction with the consensus decision process. While examining the use of devil's advocacy as a decision aid in consensus Schwenk and Cosier concluded

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the resultant interaction effects found made it essential that the effects of consensus and decision aids be evaluated simultaneously.

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CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Research Methodology and Design

This study sought to identify measurable indicators of the relative effects of using two alternative group intervention techniques in the effort to create shared values within an organizational subculture. Under consideration was not only the impact of each method on value congruency, but also the impact on the related variables of satisfaction, commitment, and group cohesion. As a result, quantitative experimental research methodology was utilized for this project. The Completely Randomized Design (Kirk, 1995) model was used with three treatment levels: treatment A, treatment B, and a control group. A posttest only research design was employed in conjunction with assignment of participants into the above three-treatment level group structure.

According to Chatman (1989), value congruency is mediated by person-organization fit, which has been found to have a positive association with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and work group cohesion (Adkins, Ravlin, & Meglino, 1996; Boxx et al., 1991; Chatman, 1991; Harris & Mossholder, 1996; Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Shepherd, 1997; Westerman et al., March, 1998). Therefore, for the purposes of posttest assessment a questionnaire was utilized to measure person-organization fit, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and group cohesion. Following the process utilized by Chatman (1991), a profile of individual and group value systems was generated utilizing the 54-item Organizational Culture Profile proposed by O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991). However, as noted by Chatman, who chose a global approach, culture can be studied at a number of levels within the organization. This

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study differed by focusing on subculture, and therefore required some modification of Chatman's methodology.

To obtain a target organization value system profile Chatman utilized a sample of informants within the organization, but outside the research population, and averaged the results. Such an approach is not viable when considering organizational subculture, because all individuals resident in the subculture are included in the research population. As a result, participants used a two step Q-sort process to rank the listed organizational values in order of personal preferred priority for their work group, and then subsequently in order of what they perceived the actual value priorities of the work group to be. Empirical support for the use of such perceived shared value assessments can be found in a number of studies (Boxx et al., 1991; Enz, 1988; Harris & Mossholder, 1996; Meglino et al., 1989; Shepherd, 1997). Therefore, the level of shared values or value congruency was operationalized in terms of the relationship between the individual's preferred group values and the perceived actual group values. Perceived actual group values were defined as the average of each member's perceived actual group value priorities. Thus, person-group fit scores were measured in terms of the average of member perceived actual group value rankings as the target subculture value system.

This research design took an additional departure from the Chatman (1991) model in the treatment of variables. Chatman's study (1991) considered person-organization fit, as a form of value congruency, a dependent variable with respect to socialization effects

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over time and an independent variable with respect to the affective dimensions of job satisfaction and commitment. This study treated person-group fit, job satisfaction, commitment, and group cohesion as dependent variables with respect to the independent variables: interventions A and B. Intervention A consisted of a group shared values creation exercise utilizing only a group consensus process. Intervention B was a group shared values creation exercise utilizing both a process of personal values clarification and group consensus. Increased levels of value congruence, satisfaction, commitment or cohesion with either method used to create shared values would suggest a positive outcome as a result of the intervention. A greater relative increase in the levels of one or more of these variables would indicate a superior performance by one shared values creation methodology over the other.

Population and Sample

As a practical matter, because of the research design used by this study, the size of the research population was an important consideration in the selection of both a suitable subject organization and the subculture level to be studied. The research population had to be large enough to accommodate the creation of two experimental groups and a control group with a sufficient number of subjects to provide meaningful results for statistical analysis. This desire for statistical validity had to be counterbalanced with recognition that the subject organization would be asked to forgo the normal production activities of the study participants for up to a full workday. Hence, the larger the number of participants,

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the higher the associated cost to the organization. In addition, the interventions under examination require facilitated group exercises and therefore the number of subjects should be limited to a quantity that can be reasonably supervised by the facilitator. Consequently, a minimum size for the research population was set at 95 to 120 employees, which would allow the creation of three groups of at least 30 to 35 individuals and provision for lack of availability of some members.

The selected research population for this study consisted of those individuals employed at George Fox University and classified as staff employees working at either its Newberg or Portland, Oregon, campuses. At the time of this study, George Fox University was a Christian higher education institution with its main campus located in Newberg, Oregon. The mission of the university was "...to demonstrate the meaning of Jesus Christ by offering a caring educational community in which each individual may achieve the highest intellectual and personal growth, and by participating responsibly in the world's concerns." The fall 1999 student enrollment stood at approximately 2,400 students. Of this total, roughly 1,400 were traditional students residing and attending classes at the Newberg campus location. To serve its students George Fox University utilized a total of 363 fulltime employees. This workforce consisted of 103 administrators, 135 faculty, and 125 staff employees.

The period of 1997 up to the initiation of this study brought substantial change to George Fox University through a variety of internal and external forces. The 1997 merger

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with Western Evangelical Seminary propelled the then George Fox College to the status of university. Accompanying this shift came the struggles of identity formation and integration of employees from the two organizations. Among the other major internal forces of change stands the unexpected illness and subsequent death of the university president. It resulted in the appointment of an interim president for the 1997-98 school year and eventually the selection of its current president in the summer of 1998. In concert with the presidential transition during this period, the president's cabinet also underwent change through reducing the number of members and a turnover of two vice presidents.

External forces driving change within the university arose from a variety of environmental sectors, but most prominently from the realms of technology and competitive market demands. The pace of technological change, particularly in Northwest industries, accelerated the need to integrate and update technology throughout the university. Competition in the market sector of the university's environment had intensified both as a result of new educational institutions and for profit organizations entering the marketplace and new initiatives launched by traditional competing private and state institutions. This increasing competition for students prompted a growing concern across all levels of the university for strengthening student recruitment efforts and the retention rates for all currently enrolled students.

In 1996, George Fox University developed and disseminated a statement of community values that it continued to maintain and publicize. As such, for subcultures within the university, the stated community values were too vaguely worded to serve as

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guidance for decision-making, or in some cases, were only abstractly related to the functions of any given subcultural unit. The staff subculture of George Fox University consisted of those employees charged with sustaining the daily operations of the institution. Staff employees provided office support, building and grounds maintenance, library, mail, and bookstore services. Development of a more targeted set of shared values for the staff employees held the promise of providing essential guidance that facilitates alignment of their day-to-day decisions and activities with the university's mission, values and needs, as well as the values and needs of the staff employees themselves.

University administrators supported the concept of conducting a shared values creation intervention with the staff employees of the institution, but were unwilling to set aside a full work day for participation in such an event. As an alternative solution, permission was granted for the intervention to be the primary focus of the activities for the biannual staff retreat day, which had been previously scheduled for October 15, 1999. Nearly all staff employees were expected to attend and participate in the staff retreat. Supervisors and managers received notices spelling out this policy and reminding them not to plan on availability of staff employees on this date.

Of the 125 full and part time employees classified as staff, 117 were scheduled to attend the staff retreat and were sent invitations. The remaining 8 staff employees worked for the university's retreat center off campus and work responsibilities required them to remain on duty. Ninety-one of the 117 staff employees invited actually attended the retreat and joined in the intervention activities, yielding a participation rate of 77.8%. Of the 91

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Table 1

Distribution of Staff Employees by Tenure

Years of Service	Invited Staff Count	Percent	Respondent Count	Percent
Less than one year	28	23.9	14	21.2
1 to 5 years	48	41.0	29	43.9
6 to 10 years	26	22.2	16	24.2
11 to 15 years	10	8.5	6	9.1
16 to 20 years	3	2.6	0	0
Over 20 years	2	1.7	1	1.5
No Response			3	4.3
Total	117	100	69	100.0

participants, 69 completed the research questionnaire for a response rate of 75.8%. As shown in Table 1, the university had employed 24% of the invited staff employees less than 1 year, and cumulatively 65% had 5 or less years of service. Table 1 also provides the distribution of respondents by years of service. It follows a pattern very similar to that of the invited staff, indicating that the respondent sample provides an appropriate representation of the staff for this demographic variable.

Distribution by occupation category indicates a wider variance between the total invited staff and those responding to the questionnaire. However, one primary source of

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this variance appears to be in the self-categorization of respondents and ambiguity of distinction between the secretarial/clerical and the provider of other services categories.

As shown in Table 2, the combined percentages for these categories, 70.1% for the invited staff and 69.1% for the respondents, are appropriately comparable. A secondary source of variance can be identified in similar classification confusion between the craft worker/trades person category and the grounds/maintenance/custodial category. In this case however, the combined percentages for these category groupings, 17.1% for invited

Table 2

Distribution of Staff Employees by Occupation Category

Occupation	Invited Staff Count	Percent	Respondent Count	Percent
Secretarial/Clerical	58	49.6	39	59.1
Craft Worker/Trades Person	15	12.8	7	10.6
Grounds/Maintenance/Custodial	5	4.3	11	16.7
Provider of Other Services	24	20.5	7	10.6
Supervisor	15	12.8	2	3.0
No Response			3	4.3
Total	117	100.0	69	100.0

staff and 27.3%, indicate a slightly higher representation of what could be termed blue-collar employees in the response group. The literature review provides limited evidence

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for a relationship between occupation type (blue-collar versus white collar) and the variables under consideration in this research undertaking. Prior studies have, however, demonstrated a stronger link for employees in management for the variables of person-organization fit, job satisfaction and organizational (Benkhoff, 1997; Boxx, Odom, & Dunn, 1991; Chatman, 1991; Harris & Mossholder, 1996; Shockley-Zalabak & Morley, 1994; Wagner & Gooding, 1987). In this regard one should be keep in mind that the lower representation of supervisors means the results of this study provide more of an indication of the effect of the intervention on front line employees.

Sampling Procedure

By combined random and stratified selection processes the 117 employees slated to attend the biannual staff retreat were assigned to each of the shared value intervention methodology groups, A and B and a control Group C. For the process of random selection and initial assignment to groups systematic sampling was used. Using a spreadsheet software random number generator, employee names were put into a random order. Then, beginning with the first individual every 3rd person was assigned to experimental Group A. Beginning with the second individual, every 3rd person was placed into Group B. Finally, starting with the third individual every 3rd person was allocated to the control group. The process of selection of individuals and group assignments continued until the full contingent of 117 employees was assigned to a group. To assure stratified balance among the intervention groups for the demographics of tenure and

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occupation, a follow up random group assignment process was used. Groups A, B, and C were stratified by tenure and individuals randomly drawn from over represented categories and reassigned to groups with under representation for the same category. A similar process was followed for occupation categories.

The activities utilized in this intervention required participants within each experimental group to be structured into teams of 5 to 7 individuals. To accomplish this objective individuals within each group were randomly assigned team numbers ranging from 1 to 7. Nametags for all invited employees were preprinted with their respective intervention group letter (A, B, or C) and team number (1 through 7). Attendees began the day by registering their arrival and were provided their preprinted nametag. Rooms for the intervention workshops were labeled, A, B, and C, and each configured with tables prenumbered one through seven with appropriate seating for five to seven team members. At the start of the day's activities participants were instructed to report the room letter and sit at the table number shown on their nametag.

Description of the Treatment

Building on the work of Benne et al. (1964) both interventions for the creation of shared values in this study utilized a laboratory method approach. As such, consensual validation by the group and the testing of consensus were the primary components of the decision-making process. Members of each experimental group were charged with the task of generating a list of values to serve as the primary set of shared values for the

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identified organizational subculture. Participants were advised that the selected values should be such that they provide guidance to make day-to-day decisions within the subculture (Senge, 1990). Additionally, participants were reminded that the set of shared values selected need not match those of the organization as a whole, but should serve to align in such a manner that they facilitate the subcultural unit's function in contributing to the organization's success (Caudron, 1992; Trice & Beyer, 1993; Tushman & O'Reilly, 1996).

The structure of the facilitated consensus process for both intervention groups followed the protocols of the Interaction Method (IM) (Doyle & Straus, 1976). IM procedures call for the use of both a third party facilitator and a third party recorder. The role of the facilitator is to serve as a neutral process guide, assisting the group members to stay on task and operating within the four primary IM ground rules. "The facilitator is the neutral servant of the group and does not evaluate or contribute ideas" (p. 85). The role of the recorder is to produce a *group memory* by documenting the proceedings of the group decision process visibly on large sheets of paper before the participants. The recorder also serves to support the facilitator by providing feedback regarding the group process. These roles of facilitator and recorder relieve participants from any responsibility for monitoring or enforcement of rules and enable them to concentrate on the task before the group (Chilberg, 1995).

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The individuals who served as facilitators and recorders in this study brought extensive experience in group facilitation (see Appendix A) and received specific training in IM protocols from the researcher. In addition, each facilitator and recorder was provided a guidebook that provided detailed instructions for each stage of the intervention process for the group they were leading (see Appendix B). Included in each guidebook were a time schedule for the day's activities, background, and contextual information on the institution and the staff employee group, functional descriptions for the facilitator and recorder roles and scripts for each to follow, and step-by-step directions for each group activity.

The four procedural rules of the IM process are the Focus Rule, Tool Rule, Consensus Rule, and the No Attack Rule (Doyle & Straus, 1976). The Focus Rule serves to prevent wandering group discussion through the use of an identified agenda and expected outcomes for each agenda item. In this regard facilitators provided group members with an established focus agenda generated by the researcher to conform to the groups' assigned task. The Tool Rule serves to prevent the use of process methodology inappropriate for the group's focus. Process methodology was prescribed by the facilitator for the group members in accordance with the research intervention design for their respective experimental groups. Members of intervention Group B (consensus only) began with a brainstorming process to develop a listing of values for members to consider adopting as part of the shared value set for the staff subculture. Members of intervention Group A first used a values clarification methodology to assist participants in identifying

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their own value priorities and then proceeded on to use the brainstorming process as done in Group B. As part of the process methodology and common to the laboratory method, the Consensus Rule requires that all substantive decisions in the group be arrived at consensually. To carry out this rule facilitators provided participants with an explanation of consensus decision-making process and a description of the expected role of participants. The fourth and final of the IM ground rules is the No Attack Rule. To preserve morale and cohesion, this rule is designed to keep member discussions, critiques, and evaluations on the subject matter at hand rather than generating negative assessments of members involved in the process. Participants in both groups A and B were advised of this rule by facilitators and their intention to enforce it during discussion activities.

The agenda for each intervention group essentially followed the shared values creation design described by Jaffe and Scott (1998). Session length was limited to the traditional staff retreat schedule, which approximated the one-day design recommendations for a norm-shifting seminar as proposed by Blake and Mouton (1981). After initial introductions of personnel, group task, and explanation of ground rules by the group facilitator, subjects in experimental Group A began with a values clarification exercise. Seated at tables in teams of five to eight individuals, subjects completed the Q-sort in order of importance a set of value cards to reflect their key personal values. For the purposes of this exercise the 36 primary values identified by Rokeach (1973) was utilized with a Q-sort pattern of 2-2-4-6-8-6-4-2-2. After arranging the cards in order of personal importance from left to right, subjects placed their name card at the top of the sort.

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Members of Group A then circulated throughout the room to observe each other's patterns of value priorities. Upon completion of this activity individuals returned to their teams. Subjects then engaged in a discussion to consider how their personal values influence their work behaviors. At the conclusion of this discussion, teams were instructed to begin with a brainstorming process and through consensus create a set of seven core values they believe should be adopted by the identified subculture.

In return for permission to conduct the intervention at the staff retreat the university required the researcher to supply additional workshop activities to provide a complete daylong experience for all participants, regardless of the intervention group to which they were assigned. For Group C the day's activities began with completion the questionnaire. Once the instruments had been completed and returned, the balance of the day for Group C was spent following an agenda similar to Group B, but in different sequence. The absence of the values clarification segment in Group B created a shortened agenda that was offset by adding a team decision-making exercise to the beginning of their group activity session. The exercise consisted of a desert survival scenario and gave participants practice in using consensus to arrive at a group decision. The balance of the agenda for Group B called for separately following the identical activity schedule as Group A for the day. After initial introductions of personnel, group task, and explanation of ground rules by the group facilitator, subjects in experimental Group B, situated in similar team configurations, began their activities with the assignment to generate a recommended set of seven core values for the identified subculture using brainstorming

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and consensus. Teams in intervention A presented their core values recommendations to the members of Group A, and similarly, teams in intervention Group B presented their core values recommendations to the members of Group B. The recorders for groups A and B assisted by posting the written lists of shared values recommended by each team on the walls of their respective rooms.

The team originated proposals served as the bottom up segment of the shared values creation process. Using present and former members of the university's presidential cabinet provided the top down component called for in the models under consideration. At the time of the intervention the vice-president of enrollment services and the vice-president of student affairs were serving at the president's cabinet level, and the dean of the university seminary had stepped down from participation in this unit at the end of the preceding semester. One week prior to the staff retreat these three individuals gathered together to generate a proposed list of seven shared values for the staff employees that represented the perspective of the university's leadership. On the day of the staff retreat, each of the cabinet level leaders was assigned to one of the intervention groups. They joined the group's activities at the beginning of the shared value presentations by each team. At the conclusion of the team presentations, the cabinet leader then presented the university leadership's recommended core values and the rationale for their selection. The gathered teams along with the cabinet leader proceeded through a process of discussion and consensus to develop a single agreed set of shared values.

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When the process of generating a set of agreed shared values was completed, each team was allocated one of the values for consideration. Finally, teams were given the assignment to create a statement that reflects their understanding of the value and its application in the work of the staff employees at George Fox University.

Data Collection

Because posttest data would be gathered through the use of a self-administered questionnaire and values Q-sort process, clarity of written instructions, and time frame for completion needed to be determined. A pilot test of the instrument and value Q-sort procedures was conducted with a group of 34 adults ranging in age from 28 to 60 who were senior students in their final semester of completing an undergraduate degree in management at George Fox University. Test results indicated instructions with minor exceptions were sufficiently clear, and completion of the Q-sort process and questionnaire required approximately one hour.

To collect posttest data an assessment packet was distributed to all members of intervention groups A and B at the conclusion of their respective shared values creation exercises. The packet contained written instructions, a set of 54 OCP value cards, the survey instrument, and an unmarked return envelope. The survey instruments were precoded to indicate the experimental groups they represented, and apart from this group identification, subject responses were anonymous. Participants were directed to complete the Q-sort of the value cards, record the results, and answer the questions on the enclosed

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survey instrument. The completed survey instrument and value cards were sealed in the unmarked envelope and given to the group intervention facilitator or recorder before participants left the session. To collect control group data, identical packets were distributed to retreat participants assigned to Group C. The survey instruments were precoded to indicate they represent the control group, and apart from this group identification, subject responses were anonymous. At the onset of the day's activities control group participants were asked to complete the value card Q-sorts, record the results, answer the questions on the survey instrument, and return the survey and value cards in the sealed envelope to the facilitator.

Instrumentation

The questionnaire created for the purposes of this research employed instruments from other studies to measure person-organization fit, satisfaction, commitment, and cohesion of individual subjects. To assess person-organization fit the 54-item Organization Culture Profile (OCP) was utilized. Detailed in a joint research article written by Chatman in conjunction with O'Reilly and Caldwell (O'Reilly, Chatman & Caldwell, 1991), Chatman (1991) indicated the OCP carries an average retest reliability alpha of .73 over a 12-month interval. Person organization fit using the OCP is evaluated by the correlation between individual Q-sort value rankings and those of a target ranking, which in this study was the average of the individual rankings of the perceived value priorities. Chatman established convergent validity for the OCP through correlation of person-organization fit

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scores with normative commitment scores (Caldwell, Chatman, & O'Reilly, 1990) also over a 12-month interval. Person-organization fit scores

> were significantly correlated with perceptions of value congruence (*r* = .28 and *r* = .25, respectively; *p*<.05) indicating that perceptions that one's values are similar to one's firm's are positively related to similarity in the content and patterning of the individual's and organization's scores. (Chatman, 1991, p. 467)

Job satisfaction level of participants was assessed utilizing the Facet-free Job Satisfaction (FJS) scale (Quinn & Staines, 1979). This five-item scale focuses on issues of general job satisfaction, rather than satisfaction with job elements, and job satisfaction is defined as "affective reaction to the job" (p. 205). Job satisfaction level scoring using this index is calculated by summing the response scores for all five questions. Price and Mueller (1986) described the use of this scale with three national samples in 1969, 1973, and 1977 as impressive, and observed, "Only the Job Descriptive Index and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire ... have been more extensively researched" (p. 222). They also noted that despite these and other positive attributes, the lack of a published validity data is a weakness. However, Cook et al. (1981) referred to three studies utilizing the FJS that provided evidence of convergent validity through achieving expected correlations with role ambiguity and work depression. Quinn and Staines (1979) reported a Cronbach's alpha for this scale of .77, further supported by a .80 Spearman-Brown coefficient from the 1976 study by Beehr (Cook, Hepworth, Wall, & Warr, 1981).

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Commitment was measured using the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). The OCQ has been utilized in over 100 studies regarding organizational commitment (Benkhoff, 1997) and is often utilized in studies of person-organization fit. Reported test retest reliabilities for the OCQ range between .53 and .75 ranging over 2 to 4-month intervals (Mowday et al., 1979). The lack of acceptable standards for comparison makes it difficult to establish convergent validity for a measure of organizational commitment (Mowday et al., 1982). Mowday et al. provided evidence for convergent validity by correlation with another instrument utilized to assess a similar organizational commitment construct. "Convergent validities across six diverse samples ranged between .63 and .74 with a median of .70" (p. 225). Convergent validation is further evidenced by correlational pattern comparisons with other studies on variables associated with organizational commitment where average correlation was reported as .52. Because of space limitations and the need to measure only change in commitment levels, rather than association, the nine-item short form of the OCQ with a reliability coefficient alpha of .84 will be used (Harris & Mossholder, 1996). The nine-item scale is constructed by eliminating the six reverse scored questions from the full 15-item set and is reported to carry test retest reliability and convergent validity correlations similar to the 15-item version (Mowday et al., 1982). Using a 7-step Likert scale, scoring for this index is normally generated by calculating the average response score for the nine questions, which was the procedure followed in this study.

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The difficulty in finding an appropriate work group cohesion measure was attested to by Price and Mueller (1986) "Our preference is not to present one of our measures, but since we could find no index of work group cohesion whose psychometric properties are better than those for our index, we will recommend ours" (p. 251). Because of this fact and that this index has been used in prior shared value studies (Boxx et al., 1991), cohesion was measured using the Index of Work Group Cohesion (IWGC) scale developed by Price and Mueller. The IWGC consists of five items assessing the respondents' perceptions regarding the friendliness, trust, personal interest, association desirability, and helpfulness of their immediate work group. Price and Mueller (1986) reported Cronbach reliability coefficient alphas of .88 and .89 for this index. Subject responses are recorded using a five-step linear numeric scale. As evidence of convergent and discriminant validity, Price and Miller cited the 1985 studies by Boyer and Sorensen. "Both Boyer and Sorensen found that the five items load together when factor-analyzed simultaneously with items representing a number of other constructs measured in the study" (p. 252). Included among these constructs were job satisfaction and organizational commitment, which as noted in the literature review, have been shown to have a strong positive correlation with group cohesion in other studies. Despite checking numerous sources, including *Mental Measures*, no other published reliability or validity data could be located for this scale. Scoring for the IWGC is calculated by summing the individual response scores over all five questions.

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Finally, a number of demographic characteristics have shown differential relationships in association with the affective variables under consideration in this study including age, gender, tenure, job level and educational level (Mowday et al., 1982; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Quinn & Staines, 1979). To allow verification that these demographic characteristics have been randomly distributed among the three groups of subjects in this study, demographic questions to gather this data were added to the survey instrument.

Data Analysis

Because of the small size of the sample groups, the random process of selection left this study more susceptible to sampling error than is desirable. To provide a measure of potential sampling error, demographic data for the experimental and control groups was compared. Herein referred to as block variables, these demographic dimensions included gender, age, job tenure, occupation, and education. This stage of analysis sought to determine whether there were significant differences among the groups in demographic characteristics that have been associated with variance with respect to the affective variables: job satisfaction, work group cohesion, and organizational commitment. Comparable distributions between the groups on the relevant demographic characteristics would provide assurance that the random selection process was effective, and the groups could be compared to one another with respect to the influence of shared values creation

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interventions being tested in this study. Cross tabulation and chi-square testing was used for this purpose.

The scales for assessment of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and group cohesion levels utilized ratings on linear numeric response items. Therefore, participant scores for each of these dependent variables were evaluated in terms of the sum or average scores resulting from their respective measurement instruments. On the other hand, person-group fit scores for participants were calculated as the correlation between their individual preferred value rankings on the OCP and the target group value rankings in a manner similar to that utilized by Chatman (1991). Subcultural (target) group value rankings were determined by averaging the OCP value rankings individuals perceived as actually being utilized by the group. Then correlation between individual preferred values and subcultural group values were calculated for each respondent using the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient *r*. In the calculation of population correlation coefficients for ranked data this produces results identical to the use of the Spearman rank correlation coefficient (Bluman, 1997). The associated group means of individual person-group fit scores were compared to assess for a change in correlation levels.

Examination of the returned questionnaires revealed that a number of them were only partially completed by the participant. Missing data arising from such partially completed instruments was handled in the following manner. Person-organization fit scores were calculated for all participants who ranked at least some of the given values,

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which resulted in scores for 60 respondents (88.2% of all respondents). If only a portion of the values were ranked, a person-organization fit score was calculated solely on the basis of the values that were actually ranked. This resulted in the inclusion of only one partial person-organization fit score (1.4% of total responses). Organizational commitment scores were computed for participants who answered more than half (five or more) of the questions in the section. For organizational commitment this resulted in retention of three partial response scores (4.4% of total responses) and rejection of two (2.9% of total responses) as insufficiently completed. Since work group cohesion and job satisfaction scores were comprised of the sum of all the questions in their respective sections, participants with any unanswered questions in a given section were omitted from analysis. For work group cohesion there were two such excluded participants (2.9% of total responses) and for job satisfaction, only excluded one respondent (1.4% of total responses).

Rather than the more common alpha of .05, tests for this study were conducted at an alpha level of .10. As Kirk (1995) pointed out, that when choosing an alpha value, it is important to weigh the cost of making a type I error with the cost of making a type II error.

> In other research situations such as pilot studies, a type I error may be less costly than a type II error. For example, a researcher who makes a type II error may discontinue a promising line of research, where as a type I error would lead to further exploration down a blind alley. Faced with these two alternatives, many

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> researchers would set the level of significance at .10 or even .20, preferring to increase the risk of a type I error and decrease the risk of a type II error. (p. 62)

Because this was an exploratory study with a primary goal of determining whether further research in this area is warranted, the situation described by Kirk applied. There was a greater concern over making a type II error and erroneously rejecting a promising line of research than making a type I error in which further study is encouraged. As indicated, however, the more conservative of the higher-level alpha options offered by Kirk was selected.

For population variables that are normally distributed and studies with adequate sample sizes the ANOVA test is frequently used for data analysis. The ANOVA test is robust with respect to slight departures from normality and also robust with respect to moderately heterogeneous variances across treatment levels. The dependent variables for this study, also referred to herein as response variables, were designated as person-organization fit, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and work group cohesion, The ANOVA test was applied to each response variable to test the following hypothesis:

> H_O: The mean of Group A dependent variable scores equals the mean of the Group B dependent variable scores equals the mean of control Group C dependent variable.
>
> H_A: At least one group mean dependent variable score is different from the others.

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The original design of this study called for the application of Holm's Sequentially Rejective Bonferroni test to detect where the difference in means lies in the event the null hypothesis was rejected. However, results did not support proceeding along this line.

Each response variable was first analyzed using a basic one-way ANOVA. This test found no significant difference between treatment levels for any of the response variables. As it has been shown in previous studies (Mowday et al., 1982; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Quinn & Staines, 1979) that the five block variables may contribute to differences in the four response variables, a general linear model was then employed. This model tests for the significance of the five block variables as well as the significance of the group level (Howell, 1992). As it reduces the variance in the data due to pure error, it was believed this approach might help to isolate any differences in the data due to group level. As not all of the blocking variables were shown to be significant, a general linear model was then employed using only the single most significant block variable. After analyzing histograms, normal plots of the data, and ANOVA residuals for each of these tests, there was considerable concern about the validity of making a normality assumption for any of the response variables. Therefore, all results were validated using randomization analysis.

Randomization analysis is a powerful nonparametric test than can be applied to many different statistical problems (Conover, 1971). This approach enables the calculation of the probability under H_o while eliminating the reliance on assumptions of normal

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distribution and homogeneity of variance (Siegel, 1956). The randomization analysis employed in this study used the Treatment Sum of Squares (SSTR) as the test statistic:

$$SSTR = (\overline{X} - \overline{X}_1)^2 + (\overline{X} - \overline{X}_2)^2 + (\overline{X} - \overline{X}_3)^2$$

Here $\overline{X}$ is the overall sample mean, $\overline{X}_1$ is the sample mean of group 1, $\overline{X}_2$ is the sample mean of group 2, and $\overline{X}_3$ is the sample mean of group 3. If there is no treatment effect, this SSTR should be close to zero. Randomization analysis finds a distribution for this test statistic by randomly selecting 10,000 permutations of the group assignment for the data values in the study and re-computing the test statistic for each of these random assignments. The proportion of these test statistics that are more extreme than the test statistic computed for the actual assignment gives the p-value for this test. When randomization was performed using a block variable, group levels were only permuted within a given level of the block variable.

Summary

This chapter has presented an outline of the research design and descriptions of the research population, sampling procedure, sample population, and instruments used. Reliability and validity scores were provided for each of the scales employed. This section also identified the independent and dependent variables, the hypothesis to be tested, and the statistical approach utilized for analysis of the data. Chapter 4 presents the overall findings of this study.

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CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

This exploratory study sought to research the role of values clarification and consensus in the process of creating shared values within an organizational subculture. The primary focus was the search for empirical evidence as to whether or not these commonly used methods in shared values creation interventions produce quantifiable effects on employees within the subculture. Indications of positive outcomes would provide managers with initial evidence to support the ongoing use of such techniques in turbulent environments where shared values are increasingly being relied on as a means to guide and coordinate employee actions and decision-making. Positive study results would also invite further research regarding these shared values methodologies and their effects.

The independent variable in this study consisted of alternative intervention methods employed with respect to experimental groups A, B, and C. Group A participants utilized values clarification and consensus in the creation of a statement of core values. Group B members utilized only a consensus process for the same activity, and Group C served as the control. The hypothesis to be tested for each dependent variable was as follows:

H_O: The mean of Group A dependent variable scores equals the mean of the Group B dependent variable scores equals the mean of control Group C dependent variable.

H_A: At least one group mean dependent variable score is different from the others.

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Presented in this chapter are the results of the block and response variable data analysis. The block variable analysis addresses the concern regarding comparability among the intervention groups for demographic characteristics associated with variance with respect to person-organization fit and the affective variables: job satisfaction, work group cohesion, and organizational commitment. Sequentially the response variable analysis presents descriptive statistics and the hypothesis testing results for each of the dependent variables.

Block Variable Analysis

The term *block variables* refers to the following demographic variables: gender, age, occupation, education, and tenure. Comparable distributions among the intervention groups on these relevant demographic characteristics provides assurance that response bias has been avoided and that groups can be compared to one another with respect to the influence of the shared values creation interventions. Cross tabulations and chi square statistics were computed for each of the block variables in order to assess their distribution among the three group levels. From this analysis it appears the block variables were fairly evenly distributed across groups A, B, and C.

Gender

Cross tabulation of gender distribution indicates a close relationship between actual count and expected frequency across all three groups. Results of the cross tabulation by gender are shown in Table 3. Chi-square analysis of this distribution

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produces the following result: χ^2 = .756, df = 2, p = .69. This outcome supports the conclusion that with respect to gender, the intervention group respondents were not significantly different.

Table 3

Gender Distribution and Expected Frequency (E.F.) by Group

Group	Female	Male	Total
A			
Count	18	5	23
E.F.	16.48	6.52	23.00
B			
Count	13	6	19
E.F.	13.61	5.39	19.00
C			
Count	17	8	25
E.F.	17.91	7.09	25.00
Total			
Count	48	19	67
E.F.	48.00	19.00	67.00

Age

For age distribution, cross tabulation also indicates a close relationship between actual count and expected frequency across all three groups. Cross tabulation by age is shown in Table 4. Chi-square analysis of this distribution (χ^2= .879, df = 6, p = .99)

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supports the conclusion that with respect to age, the intervention group respondents were not significantly different.

Table 4

Age Distribution and Expected Frequency by Group

Group	Age	18 to 35	36 to 45	46 to 55	Over 55 years	Total
A						
	Count	3	6	10	4	23
	E.F.	3.78	5.84	9.96	3.43	23.00
B						
	Count	4	4	8	3	19
	E.F.	4.82	4.82	8.22	2.84	19.00
C						
	Count	4	7	11	3	25
	E.F.	3.36	6.34	10.82	3.73	25.00
Total						
	Count	11	17	29	10	67
	E.F.	11.00	17.00	29.00	10.00	67.00

Education

Shown in Table 5, cross tabulation by level of education indicates some variance between actual count and expected frequency across the groups. However, chi-square

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analysis of this distribution yields the following values: $\chi^2 = 9.030$, $df = 6$, $p = .172$. These data supports the conclusion that groups were comparable by educational level.

Table 5

Education Distribution and Expected Frequency by Group

Group	High School Diploma	Some College/ Assoc. Degree	College Degree	Grad. Or Prof.	Total
A					
Count	2	12	9	10	23
E.F.	2.79	12.55	5.58	9.96	23.00
B					
Count	4	9	3	8	19
E.F.	2.18	9.82	4.36	8.22	19.00
C					
Count	2	15	4	11	25
E.F.	3.03	13.64	6.06	10.82	25.00
Total					
Count	8	36	16	29	67
E.F.	8.00	36.00	16.00	29.00	67.00

Occupation

Some individual occupational categories had very few respondents. However, when similar occupational categories (blue collar vs. white collar) are combined,

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distributions across groups are nearly equal. Examination of occupational distribution by cross tabulation, presented in Table 6, indicates minimal variance between actual count and expected frequency across all three groups. Chi-square analysis of this distribution yields: $\chi^2 = .485$, $df = 2$, $p = .785$. This outcome supports the conclusion that groups were comparable by occupation type.

Table 6

Occupation Distribution and Expected Frequency by Group

Group	Secretarial/ Clerical Other Service Supervisory	Craft/Trade Grounds/ Maintenance Custodial	Total
A			
Count	17	6	23
E.F.	16.73	6.27	23.00
B			
Count	12	6	18
E.F.	13.09	4.91	18.00
C			
Count	19	6	25
E.F.	18.18	6.82	25.00
Total			
Count	48	18	66
E.F.	48.00	18.00	66.00

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Tenure

Cross tabulation by tenure indicates modest variance between expected frequency and actual count among the three groups. However, as shown in Table 7, for the critical combined groupings (under 1 year, 1 to 5 years, 6 to 10 years, and over 10 years) tenure distribution across all three groups is relatively close to the expected frequency. Chi-square analysis ($\chi^2 = 6.146$, $df = 6$, $p = .407$) supports the conclusion that groups were not significantly different with respect to length of job tenure.

Table 7

Tenure Distribution and Expected Frequency by Group

Group	Under 1 yr.	1 to 5 yrs.	6 to 10 yrs.	Over 10 yrs.	Total
A					
Count	3	9	7	4	23
E.F.	4.88	10.11	5.58	2.44	23.00
B					
Count	6	6	5	1	18
E.F.	3.82	7.91	4.36	1.91	18.00
C					
Count	5	14	4	2	25
E.F.	5.30	10.98	6.06	2.65	25.00
Total					
Count	14	29	16	7	66
E.F.	14.00	29.00	16.00	7.00	66.00

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Response Variable Analysis

The response variables in this study consisted of selected variables that in prior studies have been found to have a direct positive relationship with organizational values. This prior research has indicated that as the congruency between employee values and the values of the organization increases, person-organization fit, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and work group cohesion also increase (Boxx et al., 1991; Chatman, 1991; Harris & Mossholder, 1996; Meglino et al., 1989; Shepherd, 1997; Westerman et al., 1998). Descriptive statistics were calculated for each of the response variables by group level.

Testing of the null hypothesis for each variable was completed through both the use of one-way ANOVA and subsequent use of a blocked general linear model. Concerns regarding small sample sizes and possible violations of the normal distribution assumption were addressed by application of randomization analysis, which served as a non-parametric confirmation of hypothesis test outcomes. For every one of the four response variables being examined, each of the hypothesis test procedures utilized resulted in retention of the null hypothesis at the .10 level of significance.

Job Satisfaction Descriptive Statistics

The Facet-free Job Satisfaction (FJS) scale used to measure job satisfaction in this study consists of five items with answers recorded on linear numeric response scales,

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where one represents the highest level of satisfaction. The highest possible job satisfaction score using the FJS is 5 and the lowest possible score is 16. The mean job satisfaction score for intervention Group A was 7.08 and for intervention Group B was 7.34. As shown in Table 8, the mean score for the control group (C) was 7.48.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics for Job Satisfaction

Group	N	Mean	Median	StDev	SE Mean	Min.	Max.
A	24	7.08	6.00	2.34	0.48	5.00	14.00
B	19	7.34	7.00	2.29	0.53	5.00	13.00
C	25	7.48	6.00	2.80	0.56	5.00	15.00

Hypothesis Testing for Job Satisfaction

The analysis of variance using an adjusted probability level of .10 indicates that groups A, B, and C do not differ [$F(2,65)= .16, p=.85$] with respect to mean job satisfaction scores. Results of application of the general linear model (GLM) to analyze variance for job satisfaction using adjusted sum of squares (Adj. SS) are shown in Table 9. The adjusted sum of squares (type III) indicates what variation the each variable explains given all the other variables are already in the model. For the five block variables, Adj. SS ranged from a high of 32.133 for education, to a low of .522 for

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Table 9

GLM Analysis of Variance for Job Satisfaction Using Adj. SS

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Group	2	3.436	3.902	1.951	0.29	.75
Gender	1	0.956	0.522	0.522	0.08	.78
Age	4	33.799	7.200	1.800	0.27	.90
Education	4	32.152	32.133	8.033	1.19	.33
Occupation	4	6.127	4.870	1.218	0.18	.95
Tenure	4	18.862	18.862	4.716	0.70	.60
Error	45	304.052	304.052	6.757		
Total	64	399.385				

gender. Testing for significance yielded *p*-values ranging from a low of .33 for education to a high of .95 for occupation. Therefore education [$F(2,45)=1.19$, $p=.33$] was selected as the most significant variable and used for a subsequent blocked application of the GLM.

The outcome for GLM analysis based on Adj. SS using education as the most significant blocking variable for job satisfaction, as shown in Table 10, parallels the ANOVA outcome and results in retention of the null hypothesis [$F(2,58)=.47$, $p=.63$]. Randomization analysis using education as a blocking variable developed a p-value of 0.87, indicating H_0 should be retained and confirming the results of the ANOVA and GLM tests.

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Table 10

Blocked GLM Analysis of Job Satisfaction

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Group	2	3.446	5.559	2.780	0.47	.63
Education	4	55.180	55.180	13.95	2.35	.07
Error	58	340.769	340.769	5.875		
Total	64	399.385				

Person-Organization Fit Descriptive Statistics

The Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) used to measure person-organization fit in this study is scored on the basis of the correlation between perceived and preferred value rankings. Thus, mean group scores had a possible maximum to minimum range from +1.00 to −1.00. The average person-organization fit scores presented in Table 11 indicate

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics for Person-Organization Fit

Group	N	Mean	Median	StDev	SE Mean	Min.	Max.
A	24	.54	.55	.17	.04	.21	.81
B	13	.58	.66	.15	.04	.34	.76
C	25	.52	.55	.19	.04	-.03	.74

relatively similar outcomes for each intervention group with the mean for Group A at .54, Group B at .58, and Group C at .52. The control group had the greatest range of scores at

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.77, compared to .60 for Group A, and .42 for Group B. However, standard deviations for all three groups were comparable, falling between .15 and .19 for groups B, A, and C.

Hypothesis Testing for Person-Organization Fit

Using an adjusted probability level of .10 for the purposes of analysis of variance indicates that groups A, B, and C do not differ [$F(2,59)= 0.48$, $p=.62$] with respect to mean person-organization fit scores, and the null hypothesis should be retained. Table 12 provides the results of the GLM analysis of variance for person-organization fit using the

Table 12

GLM Analysis of Variance for Person-Organization Fit Using Adj. SS

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Group	2	0.0303	0.0087	0.0044	0.13	.88
Gender	1	0.0983	0.1647	0.1647	5.06	.03
Age	4	0.0949	0.1143	0.0286	0.88	.49
Education	4	0.0433	0.0307	0.0077	0.24	.92
Occupation	4	0.1265	0.1697	0.0424	1.30	.29
Tenure	4	0.0588	0.0588	0.0147	0.45	.77
Error	41	1.3355	1.3355	0.0326		
Total	60	1.7876				

adjusted sum of squares (Adj. SS). For the 5 block variables, Adj. SS ranged from a high of .1697 for occupation, to a low of .0307 for education. Significance testing resulted in p-values ranging from a low of .03 for gender to a high of .92 for education.

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Consequently, gender [$F(1,41)=5.06$, $p=.03$] was selected as the most significant block variable and used for a subsequent blocked application of the GLM.

Table 13 provides the results of GLM analysis based on the Adj. SS using gender as the most significant blocking variable for person-organization fit. As with the prior ANOVA test outcome, results call for retention of the null hypothesis [$F(2,58)=.47$, $p=.62$]. Randomization analysis using gender as a blocking variable produced a p-value of .54, confirming the results of the ANOVA and GLM tests and the conclusion that the null hypothesis with respect to person-organization fit should be retained.

Table 13

Blocked GLM Analysis of Person-Organization Fit

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Group	2	0.03034	0.02827	0.01414	0.49	.62
Gender	1	0.09830	0.09830	0.09830	3.38	.07
Error	57	1.65899	1.65899	0.02911		
Total	60	1.78763				

Organizational Commitment Descriptive Statistics

Organizational commitment was measured using a nine-item short form of the OCP scale. For recording subject responses the OCP uses a 7-point Likert response scale ranging from 1, ***strongly agree,*** to 7, ***strongly disagree.*** This instrument is scored by computing the average response to nine statements, resulting in a maximum commitment

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score of 1.00 and a minimum score of 7.00. As indicated in Table 13, mean organizational commitment scores differed among the groups with Group A at 1.87, intervention Group B at 1.74, and the control group (C) at 2.18. Standard deviations for Group A (.56) and Group B (.59) stand at half of that of the control group (1.18).

Table 14

Organizational Commitment Descriptive Statistics

Group	N	Mean	Median	StDev	SE Mean	Min.	Max.
A	24	1.87	1.78	0.56	0.12	1.00	3.11
B	20	1.74	1.50	0.59	0.13	1.00	3.00
C	24	2.18	1.63	1.18	0.24	1.00	4.89

Hypothesis Testing for Organizational Commitment

Analysis of variance using an adjusted probability level of .10 indicates that groups A, B, and C do not differ [$F(2,64)= 1.68$, $p=.19$] with respect to mean organizational commitment scores and H_0 should be retained. Table 15 provides the results of applying the general linear model (GLM) to analyze variance for organizational commitment using adjusted sum of squares (Adj. SS). Over the five block variables, Adj. SS ranged from a high of 3.630 for age, to a low of .464 for gender. Testing for significance yielded p-values ranging from a low of .27 for age to a high of .93 for occupation. Therefore, age [$F(4,44)=1.35$, $p=.27$] was selected as the most significant variable and used for a subsequent blocked application of the GLM.

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Table 15

GLM Analysis of Variance for Organizational Commitment Using Adj. SS

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Group	2	1.663	0.379	0.189	0.28	.76
Gender	1	0.665	0.464	0.464	0.69	.41
Age	4	7.295	3.630	0.908	1.35	.27
Education	4	2.908	2.152	0.538	0.80	.53
Occupation	4	0.902	0.578	0.145	0.21	.93
Tenure	4	2.256	2.256	0.564	0.84	.51
Error	44	29.638	29.638	0.674		
Total	63	45.326				

The age blocked results shown in Table 16 for GLM analysis based on the Adj. SS for organizational commitment call for retention of the null hypothesis [$F(2,58)=1.12$, $p=.33$]. An overall randomization analysis produced a p-value of .20 and using age as the

Table 16

Blocked GLM Analysis of Organizational Commitment

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Group	2	1.996	1.418	0.709	1.12	.33
Age	4	7.669	7.669	1.917	3.04	.02
Error	58	36.608	36.607	0.631		
Total	64	46.272				

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blocking variable resulted in a p-value of .18. Thus, randomization analysis confirmed the results of the ANOVA and GLM tests and the conclusion that the null hypothesis with respect to organizational commitment should be retained.

Cohesion Descriptive Statistics

The Index of Work Group Cohesion (IWGC) scale used to measure work group cohesion in this study consists of five items. Subject responses are recorded on a five-step linear numeric scale where five represents the highest level of group cohesion and one the

Table 17

Descriptive Statistics for Group Cohesion

Group	N	Mean	Median	StDev	SE Mean	Min.	Max.
A	24	21.21	22.00	3.59	0.73	14.00	25.00
B	19	20.84	21.00	3.70	0.85	13.00	25.00
C	24	21.17	21.50	3.07	0.63	13.00	25.00

lowest. Consequently, the highest possible cohesion score using the IWGC stands at 25 and the lowest possible score at 5. As can be seen in Table17, the mean group cohesion scores were 21.21 for Group A, 20.84 for Group B, and 21.17 for Group C.

Hypothesis Testing for Group Cohesion

Using an adjusted probability level of .10 for the purposes of the one way ANOVA test indicates that groups A, B, and C do not differ [$F(2,64)= 0.07$, $p=.93$] with respect to

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Table 18

GLM Analysis of Variance for Group Cohesion Using Adj. SS

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Group	2	8.11	5.99	2.99	0.23	.80
Gender	1	0.02	3.69	3.69	0.28	.60
Age	4	115.57	77.08	19.27	1.48	.23
Education	4	16.52	12.23	3.06	0.23	.92
Occupation	4	11.57	8.84	2.21	0.17	.95
Tenure	4	10.82	10.82	2.71	0.21	.93
Error	44	573.38	573.38	13.03		
Total	63	736.00				

mean group cohesion scores, and the null hypothesis should be retained. Table 18 provides the results of the GLM analysis of variance for work group cohesion using the adjusted sum of squares. For the 5 block variables, Adj. SS ranged from a high of 77.08 for age, to a low of 3.69 for gender. Significance testing resulted in p-values ranging from a low of .23 for age to a high of .95 for occupation. Consequently, age [$F(4,44)=1.48$, $p=.23$] was selected as the most significant variable and used for a subsequent blocked application of the GLM.

The outcome for GLM analysis based on Adj. SS using age as the most significant blocking variable for work group cohesion, as shown in Table 19, parallels the ANOVA outcome and results in retention of the null hypothesis [$F(4,58)=.42$, $p=.66$].

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Randomization analysis developed a *p*-value of .92, also indicating H_0 should be retained thus confirming the results of the ANOVA and GLM tests.

Table 19

Blocked GLM Analysis of Group Cohesion

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Group	2	4.82	8.86	4.43	0.42	.66
Age	4	122.94	122.94	30.74	2.89	.03
Error	58	617.10	617.10	10.64		
Total	64	744.86				

Summary of Results

Statistical testing utilizing three different methodologies all result in the retention of the null hypothesis for job satisfaction, person-organization fit, organizational commitment, and work group cohesion. Chapter 5 presents a discussion of these findings and the conclusions for this research project.

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CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

Much of the social progress achieved in the United States in the past 30 years has come as a result of successful innovations and initiatives launched by businesses and non-profit entities. Organizations, effectively led, have brought forth broadened opportunity and rising standards of living and productivity. These successes have been built upon a soaring rate of technological advancement accompanied by an explosive growth in knowledge and information. This undertaking addresses the issue of social progress from the perspective that helping organizations to maintain their effectiveness will help sustain society's current forward momentum. To foster critical thinking, it advances the examination of specific managerial practices and their relevance to sustaining organizational effectiveness.

Concern for equipping managers with means to meet the challenges presented by escalating societal change served as the primary catalyst for this research undertaking. The framework of this study was built on recognition of the recent trend of organizations, particularly in rapidly changing environments, to function with horizontal and loosely networked structures and use values as a means to guide employee efforts. Review of the literature indicated that there were a variety of methods advocated by scholars and practitioners to establish a set of core values to serve this purpose. Also revealed by examination of the literature was the lack of data regarding the effects of such interventions, evidence that might serve to guide managers in choosing among them. Results of prior studies indicated that in rapidly changing environments, subcultures and

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their values had a stronger influence on organizational effectiveness than the global values and culture of the organization. Consequently, the staff employee subculture of George Fox University was selected as the research population for this project.

As an exploratory research undertaking, the objective of this study was to begin the process of filling the existing knowledge void regarding the effectiveness of shared values creation interventions. To achieve this objective, the study design began with the selection of a set of commonly used procedures for the generation of shared values and seeking to determine whether outcomes from such interventions could be quantitatively measured. The use of a dialogical process with consensus decision making, and the addition of a values clarification process were identified as key elements in methodologies utilized. Following a meso research approach, dependent variables were sought in order consider both macro and micro levels of organizational behavior. A bridging construct for this purpose was identified in the area of value congruency, which has been specifically addressed through person-organization fit theory. Hence the elements associated with value congruence: person-organization fit, as a mediator of value congruence, job satisfaction, work group cohesion, and organizational commitment were selected as dependent variables.

Three research questions were identified for this study. The first sought to assess the effects of using consensus in a shared values creation intervention on the dependent variables. The second targeted the effects of using both consensus and values clarification. The third looked for evidence of a comparative advantage of one shared values

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intervention methodology over the other. Answers to these specific queries were expected to help fill the data void regarding the effects of such interventions and provide evidence that might serve to guide managers in choosing among them. However, as an exploration with little prior foundation to build on, the larger question to be answered by this undertaking was whether or not this arena merited further research.

To answer the identified research questions, hypothesis testing began as a multi-stage process with the null hypothesis of equal mean scores for the treatment and control groups as the initial hurdle to overcome prior to subsequent testing. A modified alpha of .10 was selected as the threshold for significance, which stood at the more conservative end of alpha levels for exploratory studies suggested by Kirk (1995). Initial testing utilizing one-way ANOVA yielded *p*-values ranging from a high of .93 for group cohesion, to a low of .19 for organizational commitment. Hence, ANOVA results were insufficient to support rejection of the null hypothesis for any of the dependent variables and progression on to the remainder of the planned hypothesis testing.

Concern that treatment effects may have been obscured due to pure error within a small sample context were addressed through application of a blocked general linear model using only the most significant response variable as a blocking variable. GLM analysis of variance following this approach resulted in *p*-values ranging from a high of .66 for group cohesion to a low of .33 for organizational commitment. Again operating with an alpha threshold of .10, the null hypothesis for each of the dependent variables was retained. No significant difference in mean scores among the three groups could be

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identified for job satisfaction, person-organization fit, organizational commitment, or group cohesion.

Data plotting, histogram analysis, and ANOVA residuals gave rise to reservations regarding the legitimacy of utilizing a normality assumption with respect to the response variables in this study. Consequently, hypothesis testing outcomes were confirmed utilizing randomization analysis of the Treatment Sum of Squares, which avoided reliance on distribution assumptions. This analysis produced *p*-values spanning from a high of .92 for group cohesion to a low of .18 for organizational commitment. Hence, utilizing a .10 alpha, the prior test outcomes were confirmed and the null hypothesis retained for each response variable.

Regardless of the statistical test utilized, a consistent pattern of outcomes was evident. Work group cohesion differentials produced the highest *p*-values, followed by job satisfaction, person-organization fit. *P*-values for organizational commitment, on the other hand, were markedly lower than those of the other dependent variables. While differentials did not rise to the meet the chosen level of significance at .10, results for organizational commitment did fall within the higher .20 alpha level advocated by Kirk (1995) for studies of this nature. Though retrospective application cannot be done, had this lower threshold been utilized, the null hypothesis with respect to organizational commitment would have been rejected.

Kirk's (1995) advocacy of the higher alpha level arose out of concern that type II error, the failure to accept the alternative hypothesis when it is actually true, was a more

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serious error in an exploratory study because of its potential to cutoff future research. Low alpha levels, small sample sizes, and small treatment effects all combine to increase beta error probability and reduce the power of the test of significance (Kraemer & Thieman, 1987). In the case of this study, selection of the more moderate alpha (.10) combined with reduced group sizes, and diminished treatment outcome size potential resulting from ceiling effects appear to have weakened the power of the tests employed. Estimated statistical power of these tests ranged from .18 to .54 (Cohen, 1973, p. 333-339). By extension, the probability of beta error ranged from 46 to 82% that the alternative hypotheses, that is, the interventions had an effect, may have been true, but were rejected. These outcomes indicate that statistical power for a study of this type must be increased and could most likely be accomplished using the larger .20 alpha level together with larger group sample sizes and individuals with greater heterogeneity, lower levels of initial job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and work group cohesion.

Analysis of the descriptive statistics indicates the lack of substantial movement in dependent variables under study was likely caused by the existence of a ceiling effect among the subjects in this study. Significant clusters of responses at the top end of response scales suggest subject answers were limited by the ceiling of the scale in use (Alreck & Settle, 1995). Evidence of a ceiling effect can be seen in the comparison of control group mean scores with response scale maximums. At 7.48, the control group mean job satisfaction score fell within 22.5% of the maximum scale score. For organizational commitment, the control group mean score of 2.18 was within 19.7% of

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the scale top score. Similarly, for work group cohesion, the 21.17 mean score stood within 19.2% of the high end of the scale. With respect to person-organization fit, the mean correlation score of .52 was within 24.0% of a perfect correlation. For person-organization fit it is also worthy to note that in prior use of the OCP with accountants (O'Reilly, Chatman & Caldwell, 1991), scores ranged from -.36 to .62 and average person-organization fit scores among the eight firms in the study ran at .23. In contrast, person-organization fit scores in this study all were more than double this level. One can see from the examination control group mean scores for the response variables individuals in the research population already had extremely high levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, work group cohesion, and person-organization fit prior to the interventions. Consequently, it may have been difficult, if not impossible to intervene in a way that had the potency to raise response scores significantly higher.

When originally selected, the research population chosen for this study appeared to meet many of the critical criteria of concern for a subcultural group functioning in an environment of turbulence. That is to say, significant change was occurring at an accelerating pace in the organization's external environmental sectors. Substantial change had occurred among the organization's leadership as well. However, retrospectively, as one looks more closely at the specific functions of the university staff employees, a contrasting picture emerges. As a subculture, up to time of the research intervention, it appears staff employees remained, in many respects, insulated from the effects of the changes impacting the university. Though at the time of the intervention university

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leadership was beginning to increasingly emphasize the critical roles these employees played in student retention and recruiting, the daily maintenance, grounds, secretarial, and clerical functions continued relatively undisturbed. These conditions appear to have enabled staff employees to build and sustain a strong subculture with high levels of person-organization fit, job satisfaction, work group cohesion, and organizational commitment.

If one disregards the impact of a ceiling effect for the response variables examined, several alternative interpretations of the results of this study could be advocated. The first is that the dependent variables examined in this study are enduring in nature, and as a result, a single day's intervention, or the identification of a set of core values, is not an event significant enough to create even modest levels of change. As a second approach one could assert that changes in these variables may have actually occurred but require a longer time frame to manifest themselves. Thirdly, it could also be asserted that the expected effects resulting from these shared values interventions are not independent of the implementation process, and hence, influences on the variables under consideration will not show until the later stages of cultural change identified by O'Reilly (1989) are carried out. Yet, contrary to these positions, it seems just as likely to expect that the dialogue and consensus processes utilized in this undertaking should be able to move the level of person-organization fit as they create a clearer understanding among individuals as to the rationale behind value prioritizations in the organizational subculture. The same can be argued with respect to organizational commitment and work group cohesion wherein

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participants come to understand one another's value priorities and develop a sense of ownership as a result of participation in the core value authoring process.

Conclusions

From the results of this study one must conclude that neither method of shared values creation had a significant influence on the dependent variables: person-organization fit, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and work group cohesion. However, this conclusion must be conditioned by recognition of its validity only with respect to groups with preexisting high levels for these variables. Furthermore, the purpose of this study in a larger sense was to explore the arena of shared values interventions and to determine whether or not additional research regarding the use of consensus and values clarification methodology is warranted. While the results do not provide the sought-after quantitative indications, the contextual issues surrounding this study give rise to questioning whether or not different circumstances would yield other results. The particular subculture utilized in this study represents the most conservative of all contexts within which to conduct an experiment of this nature. Prior to the intervention subjects operated within a strong culture and at very high levels for the dependent variables under consideration. Thus, the results of the study raise a new question. For a subculture within an organizational setting with a weaker culture, greater heterogeneity in person-organization fit and lower levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and work group cohesion, would outcomes be different? The outcomes with respect to organizational commitment suggest this may be

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so. Therefore, the research questions raised in this study remain open to further examination, and study in this area should be continued, particularly with respect to organizational commitment.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

Exploratory research produces new knowledge from both the study outcomes and the new insights gained as a result engaging in the research itself. The limitations of this study highlight areas in which the effectiveness of similar future research can be improved. The limitation resulting from the relatively low statistical power of the test methods employed can be addressed by calculating advance power estimates in advance, and structuring larger minimum group sizes to attain the appropriate balance between type I and type II error. Obtaining significantly larger groups may be problematic as evidenced by the difficulty encountered by the researcher in securing a research site. Generally, organizations were reluctant to remove large numbers of employees from daily production in order to participate. Consequently, for future research projects, studies should be undertaken as a multistage process utilizing only one experimental group rather than two, which will enable larger group sizes to be drawn from the organizational subculture. Efforts should be made to separately test the effects of using consensus only or using consensus and values clarification first, before attempting to make comparisons. The use of larger subcultural groups such as corporate divisions or regional offices should provide the advantage of making it viable to follow the person-organization fit model used by

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Chatman (1991) and to shorten questionnaire completion times by eliminating the perceived values q-sort process for subjects.

An additional imitation of this study was the unexpected preexisting high levels of person-organization fit, job satisfaction, work group cohesion, and organizational commitment among members of the research population. This served to reduce the potential treatment size and the probability results were impacted by a ceiling effect. Future research efforts can counter this limitation by selecting more heterogeneous research populations with more moderate levels for these experimental variables. The use of a pretest process of some form may be helpful in this regard.

The unique circumstances of the setting of this study required the addition of an extra group activity for experimental Group B to meet the demands of the sponsoring institution for a full day schedule of activities. The exercise employed involved the participants in consensus decision-making activity. While distinct from a personal values clarification exercise as was used with Group A, some may raise concern that such decision processes require the use of values and as such are similar in effect. Consequently, to avoid this possible introduction of experimental error, future research endeavors should limit group activities to only those under investigation.

The objective of this research undertaking was to begin to fill the existing knowledge void regarding the effectiveness of commonly used methods in shared values creation interventions. The study sought to accomplish this goal with a narrowly structured set of measures that would provide quantitative data regarding a specific set of

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variables: job satisfaction, person-organization fit, organizational commitment and work group cohesion. Although based on prior studies these were logical dimensions to assess, they represented only a segment of the elements pertinent to managers that could be positively impacted by these interventions and legitimately measured. Observation of intervention group processes, postintervention interviews, and examination of the shared values proposed by each of the groups in this study provided evidence of these unmeasured, yet positively affected elements.

Observation of the activity levels and discussions within intervention teams and among respective group members at large revealed generally high levels of individual participation and energy. Frequent give-and-take interactions occurred as individuals sought clarification of fellow team and group member perspectives, interpretations, and prioritization of the values under consideration. These actions illustrate that both shared values intervention processes increased communication, understanding, and clarity regarding the core values of the subculture, their contributions to group task, and their relative hierarchy among individuals. It is therefore recommended that future research regarding the impact of shared values creation interventions include measures of increased understanding and clarity regarding personal value priorities, the values of the organization, and those of coworkers.

Interviews with individuals who represented the organization's leadership in the intervention groups revealed two consistent patterns. All three individuals indicated a sense of being reassured by the strong similarity between the core value proposals they

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presented as leaders and those presented by each of the intervention teams. Common value priorities included an active Christian faith, fostering a sense of community, and service to others. Areas of value differences were viewed as learning opportunities and as a means to enhance operational performance. Leader participants were delighted and surprised by unanticipated value priorities that arose in the proposals by various teams and were subsequently supported by their entire group. Two particular values fit this pattern: mentoring students and personal growth. Thus, the intervention processes made leaders aware that staff employees were committed to playing a strong role in the education of students and that staff desired to be engaged in an ongoing process of self-improvement. Two of the three leaders commented that this discovery should serve as an opportunity to redirect university resources into these areas and to advance its objectives for increased student retention and improved productivity. Based on these observations, future research regarding the impact of shared values interventions should include assessment of the relative change in value priority sets between leaders and subordinates.

Postintervention interviews with facilitators and participants indicated that a number of subjects entered the process of creating statements of shared value for the staff employee subculture with serious reservations. Concerns centered on negative experiences with team building and cultural development activities these employees had participated in previously. These individuals expressed a general attitude of cynicism that any significant change would result from the day's activities, as had been their experience in prior events. Such reservations and preconceptions brought to the intervention by participants are

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tangible evidence of elements of the organizational shadow and give indication that they must be taken into account when assessing the effectiveness of shared values interventions. Consequently, it is recommended that future research endeavors in this arena incorporate an evaluation of the current subculture, recent events, and activities in order to identify and isolate factors that may serve to impede the shared values intervention process.

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APPENDIX A: FACILITATOR & RECORDER QUALIFICATIONS

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Group A Facilitator

B.S. in Mechanical Engineering, Purdue University. Since 1990 has served independent management consultant and as director of customer services for Tektronix, Inc, managing worldwide service operations and supervising the acquisition and integration of new subsidiary organizations. Formerly employed as manager of engineering development from 1986 to 1989 for the MacNeal-Schwendler Corporation, a firm developing and marketing software tools used to model and simulate the performance of a product design or manufacturing processes.

Group A Recorder

Certified Christian Conciliator and B.A. Management and Organizational Leadership, George Fox University. Since 1990, has served as vice-president of Successful Transitions, Inc, a provider of administrative and consulting services. Formerly employed as vice-president of The Nurturing Center, Inc. from 1986 to 1990, a firm providing adult and family training services.

Group B Facilitator

PhD in Post-Secondary and Adult Education, Oregon State University. Has served as an associate professor of management at George Fox University since 1996 facilitating adult classes in group and organizational behavior, management, and organizational theory. Formerly employed as executive director of Technology for Life Needs, Inc. from

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1993 to 1996, a federally funded non-profit organization providing technical assistance for persons with disabilities.

Group B Recorder

M.A.T. Adult & Community Education, Alaska Pacific University. Has served as an assistant professor of management at George Fox University since 1998, facilitating adult classes in group and organizational behavior, management, and organizational theory. Formerly employed as Senior Pastor of Rollins Friends Church, Addision, Michigan, from 1990 to 1998.

Group C Facilitator

PhD in Post-Secondary and Adult Education, Oregon State University. Since 1999 has served as associate professor of business teaching courses in management and marketing at both the graduate and undergraduate levels. Formerly employed as the director of the Department of Continuing Education at George Fox University from 1996 to 1999, a unit of the university responsible for providing cohort based degree programs for adult students.

Group C Recorder

M.S. Management and Development of Human Resources, National Louis University. Has served as director of the Department of Continuing Education for George Fox University since 1999. Formerly employed as an assistant professor of management at

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George Fox University from 1990 to 1999, facilitating adult classes in group and organizational behavior, management, and organizational theory.

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APPENDIX B: FACILITATOR GUIDEBOOK

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SHARED VALUES CREATION WORKSHOP FOR GEORGE FOX UNIVERSITY STAFF

Group A Facilitator Guidelines

October 15, 1999

George J. Byrtek

Walden University

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OVERVIEW

George Fox University is a Christian higher education institution with its main campus located in Newberg, Oregon. The mission of the university is "...to demonstrate the meaning of Jesus Christ by offering a caring educational community in which each individual may achieve the highest intellectual and personal growth, and by participating responsibly in the world's concerns". The Fall 1999 student enrollment stands at approximately 2,400 students. Of this total, roughly 1,400 are traditional students residing and attending classes at the Newberg campus location. The balance of the student population is distributed among graduate and adult degree completion programs with courses provided at the Newberg campus and the university's other Oregon and Idaho sites. To serve its students George Fox University utilizes a total of 362 fulltime employees. This workforce consists of 103 administrators, 135 faculty and 124 staff employees.

The period of 1997 to the present has brought substantial change to George Fox University through a variety of internal and external forces. The 1997 merger with Western Evangelical Seminary propelled the then George Fox College to the status of University. Accompanying this shift came the struggles of identity formation and integration of employees from the two organizations. Among the other major internal forces of change stands the unexpected illness and subsequent death of President Ed Stevens. It resulted in the appointment of an interim present for the 1997-98 school year and eventually the selection of its current president, David Brandt, in the summer of

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1998. In concert with the presidential transition during this period, the president's cabinet has also undergone change through reducing the number of members and a turnover of two vice presidents.

External forces driving change within the university stem from a variety of environmental sectors but most prominently from the realms of technology and competitive market demands. The pace of technological change, particularly in Northwest industries, has accelerated the need to integrate and update technology throughout the university. Competition in the market sector of the university's environment has intensified both as a result of new educational institutions and for profit organizations entering the marketplace and new initiatives launched by traditional competing private and state institutions. This increasing competition for students has prompted a growing concern across all levels of the university for strengthening student recruitment efforts and the retention rates for all currently enrolled students.

Table 1

George Fox University Community Values

1	Following Christ the Center of Truth
2	Honoring the Worth, Dignity and Potential of the Individual
3	Developing the Whole Person – Spirit, Mind and Body
4	Living and Learning in Christ-Centered Community
5	Pursuing Integrity Over Image
6	Achieving Academic Excellence in the Liberal Arts
7	Preparing Every Person to Serve Christ in the World
8	Preserving Our Friends (Quaker) Heritage

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In 1996, George Fox University developed and disseminated a statement of community values that it has continued to maintain and publicize. Listed in Table 1, the community values consist of generally stated normative behaviors that are appropriately designed to be applicable to the institution as a whole. As such, for subcultures within the university the stated community values are too vaguely worded to serve as guidance for decision-making, or in some cases, are only abstractly related to the functions of the subcultural unit.

The staff subculture of George Fox University consists of those employees charged with sustaining the daily operations of the institution. Staff employees provide office support, building and grounds maintenance, library, mail, and bookstore services. Development of a more targeted set of shared values for the staff employees holds the promise of providing essential guidance that facilitates alignment of their day-to-day decisions and activities with the university's mission, values and needs, as well as the values and needs of the staff employees themselves.

Workshop Objectives

This workshop has five specific objectives:

1. To begin a process of identifying, communicating, and reinforcing a set of core values for the staff employees that will encourage synergy and continual learning, and facilitate the ongoing success of George Fox University.

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2. To enable members of the University's staff employee group to participate through dialogue and consensus in identifying the core values that should guide their day-to-day decision-making.
3. To generate a list of core values that will serve as the initial draft of the statement of values for the staff employees of the University.
4. To generate behavioral norms for each value identified to assist in the communication and application of the values on a daily basis.
5. To gather research data which will enable an assessment of the effectiveness of the workshop's methods.

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The Facilitator and Recorder Roles

The structure of the facilitated consensus process for this workshop will follow the protocols of the Interaction Method (IM) (Doyle & Straus, 1976). IM procedures call for the use of both a third party facilitator and a third party recorder. The role of the facilitator is to serve as a neutral process guide, assisting the group members to stay on task and operating within the four primary IM ground rules. "The facilitator is the neutral servant of the group and does not evaluate or contribute ideas" (p. 85). The role of the recorder is to produce a *group memory* by documenting the proceedings of the group decision process visibly on large sheets of paper before the participants. "The responsibility of the recorder is to write down basic ideas. The recorder does not edit or paraphrase, but uses the words of each speaker. The objective is not to record everything that is said but to capture enough so that ideas can be preserved and recalled at any time" (p. 86). The recorder also serves to support the facilitator by providing feedback regarding the group process and helping to ensure compliance with the procedural rules. These roles of facilitator and recorder relieve participants from any responsibility for monitoring or enforcement of rules and enable them to concentrate on the task before the group (Chilberg, 1995).

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The Ground Rules

The four procedural rules of the IM process are the Focus Rule, Tool Rule, Consensus Rule and the No Attack Rule (Doyle & Straus, 1976).

1. The Focus Rule serves to prevent wandering group discussion through the use of an identified agenda and expected outcomes for each agenda item.
2. The Tool Rule serves to prevent the use of methods inappropriate for the group's focus. The facilitator will spell out the methods the groups will use to accomplish their tasks.
3. The Consensus Rule requires that all substantive decisions in the group be arrived at consensually.
4. The No Attack Rule is designed to keep member discussions, critiques and evaluations on the subject matter at hand rather than generating negative assessments of members involved in the process

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Values Defined

A commonly accepted basic definition of the term value provides a general picture of the concept. "A value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence " (Rokeach, 1973, p. 5). Here the primary distinctive features of values are:

1. Values are beliefs about preferred ways of behaving or being
2. They are relatively enduring and therefore, unlike typical goals, they extend beyond specific situations.

These characteristics are further emphasized by another definition offered by Schwartz and Bilsky (1987), although they emphasize values as enduring goals that motivate rather than beliefs. "A value is an individual's concept of a transituational goal that expresses interests concerned with a motivational domain and is evaluated on a range of importance as a guiding principle in his/her life" (p. 553). Here additional characteristics of values are identified:

1. Values are prioritized in a hierarchy relative to one another.
2. Values express the motivational interests of the individual.
3. Values serve as guiding principles.
4. A value can be a belief or a special kind of goal that endures beyond specific circumstances

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Example Values

There have been several attempts to provide a complete list of human values. Researchers agree that they are finite, but the theoretical number proposed ranges from 36 to 125. There is no uniformity among these lists of values, and in some cases there is a good deal of overlap either through the inclusion of identical values or synonyms.

Personal Values

Rokeach (1973) is well known for generating the following list of 36 personal values which includes both ways of being and desirable end states of existence.

A Comfortable Life
(a prosperous life)

Ambitious
(hardworking, aspiring)

An Exciting Life
(a stimulating, active life)

A Sense of Accomplishment
(lasting contribution)

A World At Peace
(free of war and conflict)

A World of Beauty
(beauty of nature and the arts)

Broadminded
(open-minded)

Capable
(competent, effective)

Cheerful
(lighthearted, joyful)

Clean
(neat, tidy)

Courageous
(standing up for your beliefs)

Equality
(brotherhood, equal opportunity for all)

Family Security
(taking care of loved ones)

Forgiving
(willing to pardon others)

Freedom
(independence, free choice)

Happiness
(contentedness)

Helpful
(working for the welfare of others)

Honest
(sincere, truthful)

Imaginative
(daring, creative)

Independent
(self-reliant, self-sufficient)

Inner Harmony
(freedom from inner conflict)

Intellectual
(Intelligent, reflective)

Logical
(consistent, rational)

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Loving
(affectionate, tender)

Mature Love
(spiritual and sexual intimacy)

National Security
(protection from attack)

Obedient
(dutiful, respectful)

Pleasure
(an enjoyable life)

Polite
(courteous, well mannered)

Responsible
(dependable, reliable)

Salvation
(saved, eternal life)

Self-controlled
(restrained, self-disciplined)

Self-respect
(self-esteem)

Social Recognition
(respect, admiration)

True Friendship
(close companionship)

Wisdom
(a mature understanding of life)

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Work Values

Elizur (1996) developed the following list of 24 values he believed identified the particular values people associate with their work life.

Achievement	**Independence**	**Security**
Advancement	**Interaction**	**Status**
Benefits	**Job interest**	**Supervisor**
Company	**Meaningful work**	**Use of abilities**
Contribution to society	**Organizational influence**	**Work conditions**
Convenient hours	**Pay**	**Work influence**
Co-workers	**Personal growth**	
Esteem	**Recognition**	
Feedback	**Responsibility**	

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Organizational / Individual Values

O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991) created the following 54-item list that they believed identified both the arrays of primary values of the cultures of organizations and the individual values of the members within them.

A willingness to experiment

Achievement orientation

Action orientation

Adaptability

An emphasis on quality

Autonomy

Being precise

Being aggressive

Being analytical

Being calm

Being careful

Being competitive

Being demanding

Being distinctive-different from others

Being easy going

Being highly organized

Being innovative

Being people oriented

Being quick to take advantage of opportunities

Being reflective

Being results oriented

Being rule oriented

Being socially responsible

Being supportive

Being team oriented

Confronting conflict directly

Decisiveness

Developing friends at work

Emphasizing a single culture throughout the organization

Enthusiasm for the job

Fairness

Fitting in

Flexibility

Having a clear guiding philosophy

Having a good reputation

Having high expectations for performance

High pay for good performance

Informality

Low level of conflict

Not being constrained by too many rules

Offers of praise for good performance

Opportunities for professional growth

Paying attention to detail

Predictability

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Respect for the individual's right

Risk taking

Security of employment

Sharing information freely

Stability

Taking individual responsibility

Taking initiative

Tolerance

Working in collaboration with others

Working long hours

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125 Personal and Corporate Values

Hall and Tonna (1999) developed a list of 125 values that they believe provides a complete itemization of all values pursued by individuals or corporations. Unfortunately, the terminology used in this listing is obscure in some instances and can be confusing without their schedule of associated definitions. Yet, the list is useful in providing additional insight as the broad scope of values that individuals and organizations can use to guide their behavior.

Accountability/Ethics

Achievement/Success

Adaptability/Flexibility

Administration/Control

Affection/Physical

Art/Beauty

Authority/Honesty

Being Liked

Being Self

Belief/Philosophy

Care/Nurture

Collaboration

Communication/Information

Community/Personalist

Community/Supportive

Competence/Confidence

Competition

Complementarity

Congruence

Construction/New Order

Contemplation

Control/Order/Discipline

Convivial Technology

Corporation/Stewardship

Courtesy/Hospitality

Creativity

Decision/Initiation

Design/Pattern/Order

Detachment/Solitude

Dexterity/Coordination

Discernment

Duty/Obligation

Economics/Profit

Economics/Success

Ecority

Education/Certification

Education/Knowledge

Efficiency/Planning

Empathy

Endurance/Patience

Equality/Liberation

Equilibrium

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Equity/Rights
Expressiveness/Joy
Faith/Risk/Vision
Family/Belonging
Fantasy/Play
Food/Warmth/Shelter
Friendship/Belonging
Function/Physical
Generosity/Compassion
Global Harmony
Global Justice
Growth/Expansion
Health/Healing
Hierarchy/Order
Honor
Human Dignity
Human Rights
Independence
Integration/Wholeness
Interdependence
Intimacy
Intimacy/Solitude

Justice/Social Order
Knowledge/Insight
Law/Guide
Law/Rule
Leisure
Limitation/Acceptance
Limitation/Celebration
Loyalty/Fidelity
Macroeconomics
Management
Memberships/Institution
Minessence
Mission/Objectives
Mutual Accountability
Mutual/Obedience
Obedience/Duty
Ownership
Patriotism/Esteem
Physical Delight
Pioneerism/Innovation
Play/Recreation
Presence

Prestige/Image
Productivity
Property/Control
Prophet/Vision
Quality/Evaluation
Reason
Relaxation
Research
Responsibility
Rights/Respect
Ritual/Communication
Rule/Accountability
Safety/Survival
Search/Meaning/Hope
Security
Self Actualization
Self Assertion
Self Interest/Control
Self Preservation
Self Worth
Sensory Pleasure
Service/Vocation

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Sharing/Listening/Trust

Simplicity/Play

Social Affirmation

Support/Peer

Synergy

Technology/Science

Territory/Security

Tradition

Transcendence/Solitude

Truth/Wisdom

Unity/Diversity

Unity/Uniformity

Wonder/Awe/Fate

Wonder/Curiosity

Word

Work/Labor

Workmanship/Art/Craft

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Behavioral Norms

Behavioral norms are the actions derived from values. In other words, behavioral norms are values in action. The effectiveness of an organization's core value statement is enhanced when accompanied by a statement of behavioral norms that help members understand how the values are to be manifested in their day to day behavior. The following are examples of behavioral norms associated with organizational values:

Value	Behavioral Norm
Integrity	We fulfill our commitments and apply our core values in our relationships with each other and shareholders. We are role models when working with others, always being ethical, fair, open and honest.
Caring	We value each other and a work environment that honors diversity, motivates us, rewards us fairly for performance, and provides us with opportunities to learn. We are dedicated to helping our customers manage their financial resources. We invest in the well-being of our communities.
Leadership	We value those who lead by being positive about our company's future, supporting change, and developing others. We value those whose teams include individuals with diverse backgrounds and viewpoints.
Empowerment	We are trusted to make the best decisions for all parties concerned. Our judgment is respected and we are encouraged to consider every possible option.
Performance	We are accountable for achieving results that contribute to our profitability and growth.
Quality	We set expectations, measure results, and continually improve processes to deliver consistently superior service and products that fulfill the financial needs of our customers.
Cooperation	We work together by sharing information, demonstrating confidence in each other's abilities, and incorporating diverse points of view in making decisions. We are consistent and unified in carrying out our decisions.

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Consensus

Consensus will play a major role in the decision-making processes used in this workshop. Perfect consensus implies unanimity of opinion, however this is highly unlikely when it comes to a topic as diverse as values. As opposed to voting or unanimity of opinion, for this workshop consensus is defined as

> a collective opinion arrived at by a group of individuals working together under conditions that permit communications to be sufficiently open—and the group climate sufficiently supportive—for everyone in the group to feel that he or she has had a fair chance to influence the decision. (Johnson & Johnson, 1997, p. 243)

As an outcome of the process of consensus decision-making, all participants:

1. understand the decision;
2. have had a chance to tell the group how they feel about the decision;
3. who have doubts or still disagree will nevertheless publicly state they will support the decision and give it a try.

Participant Guidelines

There are six basic guidelines for consensus decision-making that participants should follow. The facilitator of the consensus process should seek to help group members adhere to them.

1. Individuals should avoid blindly arguing for their own position.

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2. Changing one's mind without sound reasoning only to reach agreement or prevent conflict should be avoided
3. Conflict reducing procedures such as coin tosses, voting, bargaining or averaging should not be used.
4. Differences of opinion should be sought out and addressed.
5. Avoid win-lose assumptions; move stalemates to the next acceptable alternative.
6. Examine carefully underlying assumptions.

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October 15th Group A Workshop Agenda

Location: Sherwood Community Friends Church

Breakout Session Location: Room 5

7:30 am	Setup	30 Minutes
7:45 a.m.	Coffee & Nametags	15 minutes
8:15 a. m.	Welcome, Introductions & Worship	45 Minutes
9:00 a.m.	Values Clarification Exercise	75 Minutes
10:15 a.m.	Break	15 Minutes
10:30 a.m.	Values Brainstorming	60 Minutes
11:30 a.m.	Values Presentations	60 Minutes
12:30 p.m.	Lunch	45 Minutes
1:15 p.m.	Values Consensus	90 Minutes
2:45 p.m.	Break	15 Minutes
3:00 p.m.	Creating Norms	30 Minutes
3:30 p.m.	Completion of Questionnaire	70 Minutes
4:40 p.m.	Workshop Concludes	

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Setup

(30 Minutes)

Workshop participants will be working in seven groups of 5 to 6 people. You have been given seven envelopes, numbered one through seven, containing the name cards for each of the individuals who will be working together.

1. Be sure the room has at least seven tables and adequate seating for each of these small groups.
2. Ensure that participants will be able to see the recorder's activities at the front of the room.
3. Designate a table for each small group and set up the name cards for each group member at the table.
4. Distribute agendas, notepads and pencils at the tables for each participant.
5. Set up overhead projector and screen if necessary.
6. Be sure the room is set up so that there is adequate wall space to display the group memory as the recorder generates it.

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Welcome, Worship

(30 Minutes)

Staff retreat participants will gather as a single large group and begin the day with a time of singing and worship, as has been the tradition for all prior retreats.

Introduction

(15 Minutes)

1. The head facilitator welcomes the participants and briefly introduces himself and the other facilitators and recorders.
2. The head facilitator explains the day's agenda and directs participants to report to their assigned workshop groups, A (Room 5), B (Room 8), & C (Room 6).
3. Once group A participants have assembled as teams in their assigned group, the introduction is continued by the group A facilitator who describes the purpose of the workshop as follows (see also workshop objectives): Use Overhead 1A *George Fox Staff Shared Values Workshop.*

   We've all seen the familiar V formation used by flocks of geese flying south for the winter. Have you ever thought about what science has learned about why they fly that way? As each bird flaps its wings, it creates uplift for the bird immediately following it. By flying in a "V" formation, the whole flock can fly at least 71% farther than if each bird flew on its own. We believe the same is true for people. When they work together, sharing a common direction, purpose, and set of values, people adapt more easily to rapidly changing conditions, accomplish far more, and do so with less effort.

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Use Overhead I B George Fox University Mission

In part all members of the George Fox community are drawn together by the university's mission. That mission is to demonstrate the meaning of Jesus Christ by offering a caring educational community in which each individual may achieve the highest intellectual and personal growth, and by participating responsibly in the world's concerns.

Use Overhead I C George Fox Community Values

Hopefully, you have all seen and been provided the statement of George Fox Community values that serve to guide the overall direction of the university. Today we are going to work together as a team to identify a set of seven core staff values that will draw all staff employees together and align with these officially stated university values. The purpose of these core staff values is to help guide the day to day decision-making activities of every staff employee toward enabling George Fox University achieve its mission. The object is to create a set of core values you would be willing to own, adhere to, and encourage and support other staff employees at George Fox University to do the same.

4. The facilitator briefly describes his role in the workshop as follows:

Most of the decisions you will make today will be through the process of consensus decision-making. Just so that we're all clear my role is as group facilitator of this process. That means I am not going to contribute my own ideas or evaluate yours. My role is to help you focus your energies on the task. I am going to try very hard to remain completely neutral and to defend you from any personal attack if necessary. I'll make some suggestions, but only about the process of your meeting--ways to proceed, not matters of substance. I'm your servant and this is your meeting. Being a good facilitator is difficult, so please help me. If you think I'm pushing too hard or manipulating in any way, please let me know. If you correct me I'll try not to be

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defensive. With your help, I'm sure we'll have a good meeting and get a lot done today (Doyle & Straus, 1976, p. 90).

5. The recorder briefly introduces him or herself.

6. The recorder describes his or her role in the workshop as follows:

   I'm going to try to make a record of this meeting called the group memory that should help everyone to keep track of your observations, decisions, and progress. It'll all go on the paper taped to the wall. I'll also try to help the facilitator keep things on track.

Values Clarification Exercise

(75 Minutes)

1. Begin by explaining that because we will be working together to agree upon a set of values for the staff employees of George Fox University, it is important to start by having each person consider what their own personal value priorities are.
2. This exercise is designed to help participants get a sense of their own value priorities and also the range of diversity in value priorities among their colleagues. Remind everyone that there are no right or wrong answers in this process. The more straightforward and honest we can be with one another in expressing our opinions and preferences, the more successful our efforts will be today and in the future.

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3. As the facilitator is introducing this exercise the recorder should be distributing one set of the values clarification exercise cards to each participant.
4. Using Overhead 2A *Personal Value Priorities* ask the participants to take the 36 primary value cards they have been given and arrange them in an order of importance to reflect their own personal value priorities.
5. They should be sorted into 9 columns in order of importance from left to right with the extreme left column containing the most important two values and the extreme right column containing the least important two values.
6. The number of cards in each column should be as follows 2-2-4-6-8-6-4-2-2.
7. Tell the participants they will have roughly 20-25 minutes to sort these cards and when finished they should put their card name at the top of the sort.
8. As the participants are in the process of sorting, the facilitator and recorder should circulate in the room, observing their progress and answering any questions.
9. When everyone is finished sorting their cards, ask them to circulate around the room and take a look at the value priorities chosen by everyone else. Allow approximately 10 minutes for them to circulate and observe.
10. When finished ask everyone to return to his or her team.
11. Using Overhead 2B *Discussion Questions* instruct the participants that for the next 40 minutes or so they are to discuss among the members of the team their

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answers to the following questions. Suggest that as a group they take each of the questions one at a time.

- What did you observe about the value priorities of your colleagues as you walked around the room?
- Why did you select the values in the last two right-hand columns as least important?
- Why did you select the values in the first two left-hand columns as most important?
- How do these personal value priorities influence the way you operate at work?

12. Again the facilitator and recorder should circulate in the room helping participants to stay on task and ensuring everyone has the opportunity to participate in the discussion.
13. After approximately 40 minutes conclude the exercise by asking the group for their own observations. Remind them that the purpose of this exercise was to help them become clearer regarding their own value systems. Note that despite a diversity of personal priorities, it is possible to craft a set of value priorities for the organization we work for that everyone can feel good about and support.

<u>Break</u>

(15 Minutes)

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Values Brainstorming

(60 Minutes)

1. As the facilitator is providing these definitions the recorder should distribute to the participant teams the *Values Brainstorming worksheet*, markers and several sheets of newsprint.
2. Using Overhead 3A *Vision, Mission, and Values*, explain their purpose in helping members of any organization to work together more effectively, and to adapt successfully to a rapidly changing competitive environment.
3. Using Overhead 3B *Our Definition of Values*, tell participants that this will be our working definition of the term "value" during our remaining time together so that we will all be speaking the same language.
4. Explain to participants that the goal of this next activity is to have the team at each table come up with a list of 7 values they believe should be the core values for guiding the day-to-day operations and decision-making for all staff employees of George Fox University.
5. Review with participants the instruction sheet for this exercise (see following page). Remind them that they have roughly 45 minutes to generate their list of values and be prepared to present and sell their selected values to the entire group.

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Values Brainstorming Worksheet

Your team's objective for this exercise is to create a list of seven values each of you believe George Fox University staff employees should adopt as their core values.

1. Pick someone on your team to be the recorder. This person will be responsible for writing down the team's brainstorming ideas on the newsprint paper provided.
2. Choose someone else to be the team's spokesperson. The spokesperson will be responsible for presenting your team's list of values to the group as a whole and providing the reasons your team had for selecting each of these values.
3. Your team should begin this exercise by spending 15 minutes or so brainstorming as many values as you can that might be useful to consider for George Fox staff employees. Remember that in brainstorming the object is to generate as many ideas as possible without worrying about evaluating them. We are trying to encourage divergent thinking and produce as many different ideas as we can in a short period of time.
4. After your brainstorming session is finished as a group go back over the ideas you have come up with, discuss and evaluate them in terms of which would be the seven most important values for the staff to adopt as their core values guiding values. Work to reach a consensus on the choice of values included on this list.

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5. Write this list of seven values on a sheet of newsprint to present to the whole group.

Values Presentations

(60 Minutes)

1. Begin this exercise by explaining that we're looking to have a representative for each team come up and make a 5 to 7 minute presentation of their team's proposal for George Fox staff's core values. Welcome and introduce Andrea Cook, vice president of Enrollment Service to the group. Explain that she has been invited to present the university's perspective regarding what the guiding values should be for the staff. As part of this exercise she will present a proposed set of shared values from this viewpoint.
2. Remind the group that we'll hold off questions until later when we begin the process of discussing the proposed values.
3. Ask for volunteers to start the presentation process, and as the team representatives present, make sure their list of values is posted high on the wall and visible to all participants.
4. After all teams have presented, conclude this activity by asking Andrea Cook, Vice President of enrollment Services to come forward and give her own list of proposed values for George Fox University and her reasons for advocating them.

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5. Be sure a written copy of the values proposed by Andrea Cook is compiled on newsprint and posted up with the value sets proposed by the various teams.

Lunch

(45 Minutes)

Arrangements have been made for lunch to be delivered to the dinning room on the first floor. Invite the participants to set aside their materials and enjoy their break. Remind them that we will resume with the workshop activities with the team presentations in 45 minutes.

Values Consensus

(90 Minutes)

1. Explain to the group that in this next activity they will be working to come to a consensus on a final list of seven core values for all staff employees at George Fox University. This list may be a distillation of the current 8 lists of values that have been presented to the group or new additions may arise that haven't yet been considered.
2. Remind the group of your role as group facilitator in this process. Also explain to the group that Andrea Cook will be participating in this consensus process in dual roles. She will be joining the discussion in expressing her concerns and opinions as any other member of the group. In addition, however, she also is an officer of the university and carries the responsibility for outcomes that may be strongly affected by the core values we come to agree on.

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3. Using Overhead 4A *Consensus Decision-Making*, explain the process of group decision-making by consensus.
4. Describe the role of participants in this activity using Overhead 4B *Your Role in the Process.*
5. Using Overhead 4C *Our Ground Rules,* review the basic ground rules you will be enforcing in this decision-making process. Remind them that the purpose is keep us moving toward our goal and to ensure every one feels safe to participate and to raise their concerns.
6. The recorder should remind the participants of his or her role in a manner similar to the following example:

    I want to remind you that I'll be your recorder for this exercise. This is a big job so please help me out. I'm going to try to make a record of this discussion called the group memory. It'll all go on the paper taped to the wall. Obviously I can't write down everything, so I'll try to catch key ideas, using your own words. Please let me know if I miss something you think is important or if I start to editorialize or paraphrase. It's hard not to make my own interpretations, so keep me honest. If I get too far behind I'll ask you to wait a moment until I catch up. If you can't read my writing, please let me know (Doyle & Straus, 1976, p. 128).

7. The recorder should implement the following strategy in generating the group memory:
    - Get in the acoustic mode, face your writing not the group.

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- Listen for key words
- Try to capture basic ideas, the essence
- Don't write down every word
- Write legibly, at least one inch high
- Don't worry about misspelling
- Abbreviate
- Circle key ideas, statements or decisions
- Vary colors to highlight and divide ideas
- Underline
- Use arrows, stars, numbers, etc.
- Number all the sheets.(Doyle & Straus, 1976, p. 129)

8. Work the participants through the process of reaching a consensus on seven core values for George Fox University.

Break

(15 Minutes)

Creating Norms

(30 Minutes)

1. Begin by telling the participants that the purpose of this next exercise is to generate a set of statements called behavioral norms for each of the seven core values for George Fox University staff they have selected. This statement clearly communicates how

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staff employees will operate in carrying out the value with which the behavioral norm is associated.

2. Use Overhead 5A *Example Norms* and highlight for the group some examples of behavioral norm statements.
3. Assign one of the seven core values from the prior exercise to each of the workshop teams.
4. Ask the recorder of each team from the prior exercise to take the responsibility of writing the value at the top of a sheet of newsprint and the group's behavioral norm statements below the value.
5. Instruct the teams that they have 20 minutes or so to complete this exercise. Ask the recorders to post these values on the wall at the front of the room when the team has completed its task.
6. If time permits, conclude this exercise by reviewing briefly the results of each team's work.

Completion of Questionnaire

(70 minutes)

1. With the recorder's assistance, distribute the questionnaire envelopes to each participant.

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2. Explain that we are concluding today's workshop by asking each participant to anonymously complete the questionnaire they are receiving in order to do the following:

    - Give specific feedback to the leadership team regarding the current and future core values of George Fox University's staff employees from everyone who has participated in this workshop.
    - Ensure that everyone has had a full opportunity to express his or her position regarding the staff's core values.
    - Provide research data that will be utilized in a current research study regarding Shared Values workshop activities being conducted in conjunction with George Fox University and Walden University of St Paul Minnesota.

3. Tell the participants the directions for completing the questionnaires are self-explanatory, and we estimate the process will take approximately 60 minutes.

Advise the participants that when they've finished the questionnaire they should seal it along with the value cards in the envelope and return it to you or the recorder before they leave.

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Appendix A

Overheads

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George Fox Staff Shared Values Workshop

Overhead 1A 7/99

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George Fox University Mission:

To demonstrate the meaning of Jesus Christ by offering a caring educational community in which each individual may achieve the highest intellectual and personal growth, and by participating responsibly in the world's concerns.

Overhead 1B 7/99

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George Fox Community Values

- **Following Christ the center of truth**
- **Honoring the worth, dignity and potential of the individual**
- **Developing the whole person – spirit, mind and body**
- **Living and learning in Christ-centered community**
- **Pursuing integrity over image**
- **Achieving academic excellence in the liberal arts**
- **Preparing every person to serve Christ in the world**
- **Preserving our friends (Quaker) heritage**

Overhead 1C 7/99

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Personal Value Priorities

- There is a separate overhead slide under this heading which gives both visual and written instructions for this exercise.

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Overhead 2A 7/99

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40

Discussion Questions

- What did you observe about the value priorities of your colleagues as you walked around the room?
- Why did you select the values in the last two right-hand columns as least important?
- Why did you select the values in the first two left-hand columns as most important?
- How do these personal value priorities influence the way you operate at work?

Overhead 2B 7/99

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Vision, Mission & Values

- Vision: A vivid image of what the organization is striving to become.
- Mission: A statement of the organization's purpose.
- Values: Guiding stars to help everyone navigate by day to day toward achievement of the organization's vision and mission.

Overhead 3A 7/99

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Our Definition of Values

values are concepts, beliefs, or goals that:

- are focused on desirable behaviors or ways of being.
- extend beyond specific situations.
- serve to guide choice or evaluation.
- have a hierarchy of importance.

Overhead 3B 7/99

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Consensus Decision Making

a collective opinion arrived at by working together under conditions that permit communications to be sufficiently open—and the group climate sufficiently supportive—for everyone in the group to feel that he or she has had a fair chance to influence the decision.

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Your Role in the Process

- Participate actively and share your viewpoint, while avoiding the temptation to blindly argue for your position.
- Changing your mind without sound reasoning only to reach agreement or prevent conflict should be avoided.
- Seek out differences of opinion and address them.
- Avoid win-lose assumptions; move stalemates to the next acceptable alternative.
- Examine carefully underlying assumptions.

Overhead 4B 7/99

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Our Ground Rules

- We will stick to the objective of this exercise knowing that other problems the organization faces can be addressed later.
- Our major decision-making in this process will be by consensus.
- Criticisms and negative assessments are to be directed at the issues under discussion and not at persons, personalities, or positions.

Overhead 4C 7/99

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Example Norms

- Cooperation: We work together by sharing information, demonstrating confidence in each other's abilities, and incorporating diverse points of view in making decisions. We are consistent and unified in carrying out our decisions.
- Empowerment: We are trusted to make the best decisions for all parties concerned. Our judgement is respected and we are encouraged to consider every possible option.

Overhead 5A 7/99

Appendix B

Agendas of Alternative Workshop Groups

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October 15th Group B Workshop Agenda

7:30 a.m.	Setup	30 Minutes
7:45 a.m.	Coffee & Nametags	15 Minutes
8:15 a.m.	Welcome, Worship & Introductions	45 Minutes
9:00 a.m.	Desert Survival Exercise	75 Minutes
10:15 a.m.	Break	15 Minutes
10:30 a.m.	Values Brainstorming	60 Minutes
11:30 a.m.	Values Presentations	60 Minutes
12:30 p.m.	Lunch	45 Minutes
1:15 p.m.	Values Consensus	90 Minutes
2:45 p.m.	Break	15 Minutes
3:00 p.m.	Creating Norms	30 Minutes
3:30 p.m.	Completion of Questionnaire	70 Minutes
4:40 p.m.	Workshop Ends	

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October 15th Group C Workshop Agenda

7:30 a.m.	Setup	30 Minutes
7:45 a.m.	Coffee & Nametags	15 Minutes
8:15 a.m.	Welcome, Worship & Introductions	45 Minutes
9:00 a.m.	Completion of Questionnaire	75 Minutes
10:15 a.m.	Break	15 Minutes
10:30 a.m.	Values Brainstorming	60 Minutes
11:30 a.m.	Values Presentations	60 Minutes
12:30 p.m.	Lunch	45 Minutes
1:15 p.m.	Values Consensus	90 Minutes
2:45 p.m.	Break	15 Minutes
3:00 p.m.	Creating Norms	30 Minutes
3:30 p.m.	Desert Survival Exercise	70 Minutes
4:40 p.m.	Workshop Ends	

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APPENDIX C: QUESTIONNAIRE

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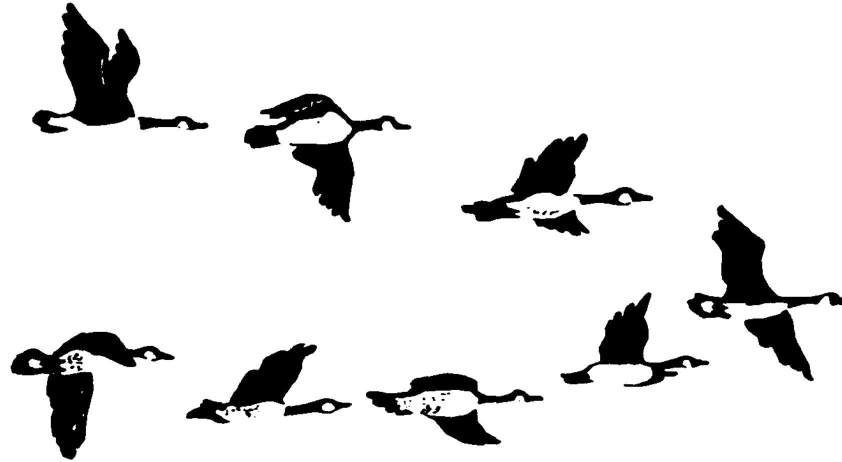
Staff Shared Values Questionnaire



You have been asked to anonymously complete this questionnaire in order to assist in the development of a set of shared values for the staff employees of George Fox University. The purpose of these values is to help guide the day to day activities of every employee toward helping George Fox University fulfill its mission. The object is to create a set of core values you would be willing to own, adhere to, encourage and support others at George Fox University to do the same. Your responses to this questionnaire are therefore very important.

The information gathered from all participants will be used not only to create a new set of guiding values for the staff, but also to assist in a research project designed by a professor of management at George Fox University. The purpose of this study is to examine the effectiveness of methods groups can use to create an agreed set of shared values. There are no risks with respect to your participation in this study, and you will be helping to create a greater understanding of the methods that can be used to enable people to work together more effectively.

For your peace of mind we want you to know that the completed questionnaires from this study will be kept private and only viewed by the researchers. Reports created from this data will not include any information that would make it possible to identify a participant. The researchers conducting this study are George J. Byrtek and Harry S. Coblentz. If you have questions you may contact them at:

George J. Byrtek
Assitant Professor
George Fox University
(503) 554-2873

Harry S. Coblentz
Professor
Walden University
(519) 669-8396

A5101599

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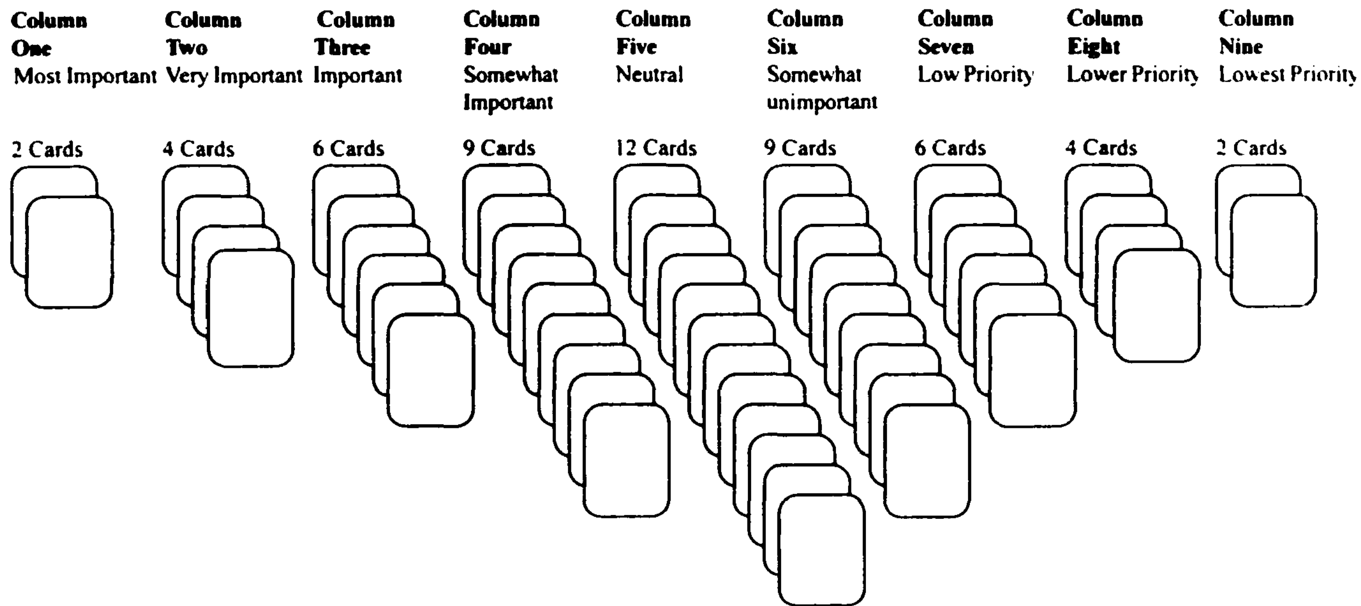
Q-1 Actual Value Priority Sort

You have been provided a deck of 54 value cards. Please think of your experience at George Fox University and sort these cards into 9 columns in an order that reflects the actual value priorities you believe the staff employees follow in their day to day operations. Column one on the left-hand side should contain the most important values, the succeeding columns values of subsequently lower priority, and ultimately column nine containing those of lowest priority. The value cards should be sorted into the pattern:

2-4-6-9-12-9-6-4-2

with 2 cards in column one, 4 in column two, 6 in column three and so on.



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Q-2 Recording the Actual Value Priority for the staff employees of George Fox University

For each of the following values write the number of the column (1 through 9) into which you sorted its card. The first column on the left is number 1 and represents the most important values. The last column on the right is number 9 and represents the least important values. Each value below should have a single column number indicated.

____ A willingness to experiment
____ Achievement orientation
____ Action orientation
____ Adaptability
____ An emphasis on quality
Autonomy
____ Being aggressive
____ Being analytical
____ Being calm
____ Being careful
____ Being competitive
____ Being demanding
____ Being distinctive-different from others
____ Being easy going
____ Being highly organized
____ Being innovative
____ Being people oriented
____ Being precise
____ Being quick to take advantage of opportunities
____ Being reflective
____ Being results oriented
____ Being rule oriented
____ Being socially responsible
____ Being supportive
____ Being team oriented
____ Confronting conflict directly
____ Decisiveness
____ Developing friends at work
____ Emphasizing a single culture throughout the group
____ Enthusiasm for the job
____ Fairness
____ Fitting in
____ Flexibility
____ Having a clear guiding philosophy
____ Having a good reputation
____ Having high expectations for performance
____ High pay for good performance
____ Informality
____ Low level of conflict
____ Not being constrained by too many rules
____ Offers of praise for good performance
____ Opportunities for professional growth
____ Paying attention to detail
____ Predictability
____ Respect for the individual's right
____ Risk taking
____ Security of employment
____ Sharing information freely
____ Stability
____ Taking individual responsibility
____ Taking initiative
____ Tolerance
____ Working in collaboration with others
____ Working long hours

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Q-3 All in all, how satisfied would you say you are with your job? (Circle one number)

1 VERY SATISFIED
2 SOMEWHAT SATISFIED
3 NOT TOO SATISFIED
4 NOT SATISFIED AT ALL

Q-4 If a good friend of yours told you he or she was interested in working in a job like yours for your employer, what would you tell him or her? (Circle one number).

1 STRONGLY RECOMMEND IT
2 HAVE DOUBTS ABOUT RECOMMENDING IT
3 ADVISE HIM OR HER AGAINST IT

Q-5 Knowing what you know now, if you had to decide all over again whether to take the job you now have, what would you decide? (Circle one number).

1 DECIDE WITHOUT HESITATION TO TAKE THE SAME JOB
2 HAVE SOME SECOND THOUGHTS
3 DECIDE DEFINITELY NOT TO TAKE THE SAME JOB

Q-6 If you were free to into any type of job you wanted, what would your choice be? (Circle one number).

1 WOULD WANT THE SAME JOB YOU HAVE NOW
2 WOULD WANT TO RETIRE AND NOT WORK AT ALL
3 WOULD PREFER SOME OTHER JOB TO THE JOB YOU HAVE NOW

Q-7 In general how well would you say that your job measures up to the sort of job you wanted when you took it? (Circle one number)
1 VERY MUCH LIKE
2 SOMEWHAT LIKE
3 NOT VERY MUCH LIKE

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Q-8 Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings individuals might have about the company or organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you are now working, George Fox University, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with the following statements by circling the number of one of the seven alternatives below each statement.

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
STRONGLY AGREE	MODERATELY AGREE	SLIGHTLY AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY DISAGREE	MODERATELY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
STRONGLY AGREE	MODERATELY AGREE	SLIGHTLY AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY DISAGREE	MODERATELY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

3. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
STRONGLY AGREE	MODERATELY AGREE	SLIGHTLY AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY DISAGREE	MODERATELY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

4. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
STRONGLY AGREE	MODERATELY AGREE	SLIGHTLY AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY DISAGREE	MODERATELY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

5. I am proud to tell others I am part of this organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
STRONGLY AGREE	MODERATELY AGREE	SLIGHTLY AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY DISAGREE	MODERATELY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

6. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
STRONGLY AGREE	MODERATELY AGREE	SLIGHTLY AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY DISAGREE	MODERATELY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

7. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
STRONGLY AGREE	MODERATELY AGREE	SLIGHTLY AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY DISAGREE	MODERATELY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

8. I really care about the fate of this organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
STRONGLY AGREE	MODERATELY AGREE	SLIGHTLY AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY DISAGREE	MODERATELY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

9. For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
STRONGLY AGREE	MODERATELY AGREE	SLIGHTLY AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY DISAGREE	MODERATELY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

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Q-9 Listed below are a series of questions that consider possible views individuals might have of the immediate group of people with whom they work. Please indicate your opinion regarding your own work group by circling the number of one of the five alternatives below each question.

1. To what extent are the people in your *immediate work group* friendly?

5	4	3	2	1
VERY FRIENDLY	QUITE	SOMEWHAT	VERY LITTLE	NOT FRIENDLY AT ALL

2. To what extent are the people in your immediate work group *helpful*?

5	4	3	2	1
VERY HELPFUL	QUITE	SOMEWHAT	VERY LITTLE	NOT HELPFUL AT ALL

3. To what extent do the people in your immediate work group take a *personal interest* in you?

5	4	3	2	1
VERY INTERESTED	QUITE	SOMEWHAT	VERY LITTLE	NOT INTERESTED AT ALL

4. To what extent do you *trust* the members of your immediate work *group*?

5	4	3	2	1
A GREAT DEAL OF TRUST	QUITE A LOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY LITTLE	NO TRUST AT ALL

5. To what extent do you *look forward to being with* the members of your immediate work *group* each day?

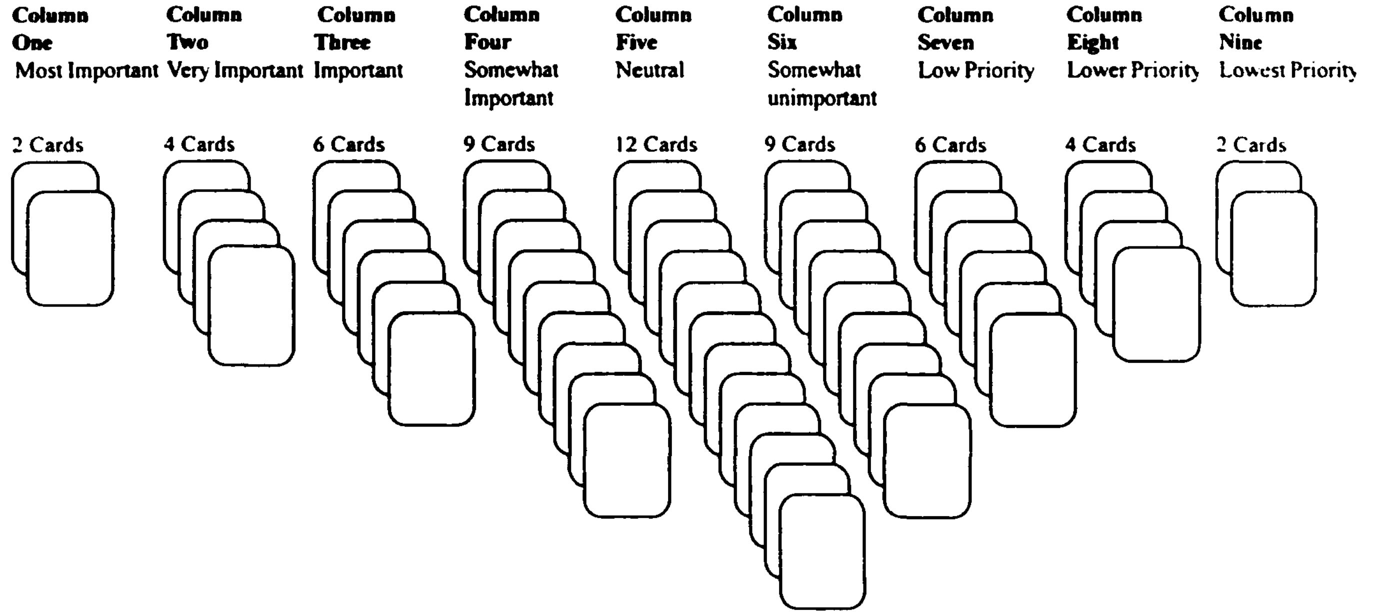
5	4	3	2	1
VERY MUCH LOOK FORWARD TO BEING WITH THEM	QUITE A BIT	SOME	VERY LITTLE	DO NOT LOOK FORWARD TO BEING WITH THEM AT ALL

Q-10 **Preferred Value Priority Sort**

Please gather up and reshuffle the deck of 54 value cards. Now, based on your experience at George Fox University, sort these cards into 9 columns in an order that reflects the value priorities you think the staff employees <u>should</u> follow in their day to day operations. Column one on the left-hand side should contain the most important values, the succeeding columns values of subsequently lower priority, and ultimately column nine containing those of lowest priority. The value cards should be sorted into the pattern:

2-4-6-9-12-9-6-4-2

with 2 cards in column one, 4 in column two, 6 in column three and so on.



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Q-11 **Recording your Preferred Value Priorities for staff employees of George Fox University**

For each of the following values write the number of the column (1 through 9) into which you sorted its card. The first column on the left is number 1 and represents the most important values. The last column on the right is number 9 and represents the least important values. Each value below should have a single column number indicated.

____ A willingness to experiment
____ Achievement orientation
____ Action orientation
____ Adaptability
____ An emphasis on quality
____ Autonomy
____ Being aggressive
____ Being analytical
____ Being calm
____ Being careful
____ Being competitive
____ Being demanding
____ Being distinctive-different from others
____ Being easy going
____ Being highly organized

____ Being innovative
____ Being people oriented
____ Being precise
____ Being quick to take advantage of opportunities
____ Being reflective
____ Being results oriented
____ Being rule oriented
____ Being socially responsible
____ Being supportive
____ Being team oriented
____ Confronting conflict directly
____ Decisiveness
____ Developing friends at work
____ Emphasizing a single culture throughout the group

____ Enthusiasm for the job
____ Fairness
____ Fitting in
____ Flexibility
____ Having a clear guiding philosophy
____ Having a good reputation
____ Having high expectations for performance
____ High pay for good performance
____ Informality
____ Low level of conflict
____ Not being constrained by too many rules
____ Offers of praise for good performance

____ Opportunities for professional growth
____ Paying attention to detail
____ Predictability
____ Respect for the individual's right
____ Risk taking
____ Security of employment
____ Sharing information freely
____ Stability
____ Taking individual responsibility
____ Taking initiative
____ Tolerance
____ Working in collaboration with others
____ Working long hours

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The following section asks for demographic information in order to assure the statistical validity of the data gathered from this study. It will remain confidential and only be used for statistical analysis. Please circle the number of the one response for each of the following demographic questions that best describes you.

Q-12 Your Gender

1 FEMALE 2 MALE

Q-13 Your Age:

1 18 TO 25 YEARS
2 26 TO 35 YEARS
3 36 TO 45 YEARS
4 46 TO 55 YEARS
5 OVER 55 YEARS

Q-14 What is the highest grade of school or level of education you have completed?

1 GRADE 8 OR LESS

2 GRADES 9-11 (SOME HIGH SCHOOL)

3 GRADE 12 (HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA, GED OR ANY HIGH SCHOOL EQUIVALENT)

4 SOME COLLEGE WITHOUT DEGREE

5 SOME COLLEGE WITH DEGREE (GRADUATE OF JUNIOR COLLEGE)

6 GRADE 16 (COLLEGE DEGREE)

7 GRADUATE OR PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION IN EXCESS OF COLLEGE DEGREE

Q-15 Your primary work function:

1 SECRETARIAL /CLERICAL/RECEPTION
2 CRAFT WORKER/TRADES PERSON
3 GROUNDS/MAINTENANCE/CUSTODIAL
4 PROVIDER OF OTHER SERVICES
5 SUPERVISOR

Q-16 How long have you been employed with George Fox University?

1 LESS THAN ONE YEAR
2 1 TO 5 YEARS
3 6 TO 10 YEARS
4 11 TO 15 YEARS
5 16 TO 20 YEARS
6 OVER 20 YEARS

Thank you for completing this questionnaire.
Please place all the value cards and the questionnaire in the envelope you have been provided and return the envelope to the facilitator before you leave today.

CURRICULUM VITA

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Curriculum Vitae

George J. Byrtek received his Bachelor of Science in mathematics and economics from the University of Wisconsin-Stevens Point in 1970. A Masters of Science degree in Management/ Development of Human Resources was subsequently obtained from National Louis University in Evanston, Illinois in 1983.

His professional background includes over 20 years of varied successful management experience in the financial and human services industries. Serving as Assistant Vice President of Central Security Mutual Insurance Company Mr. Byrtek lead underwriting, research, and product pricing operations. As Manager of Marketing for the Association of Mill Mutual Insurance companies, he directed national marketing and advertising campaigns. After leaving the financial services industry he established Recovery Support Services, a company providing administrative support services for organizations providing addiction recovery programs for health and business professionals.

Since 1990, Mr. Byrtek has taught a wide variety of management courses for Department of Continuing Education at George Fox University including group dynamics, organizational theory, management, finance, ethics and research methods. Employed by the university as an assistant professor of management since 1992, he currently serves as the director of the Department of Continuing Education overseeing the department's degree completion and graduate programs in Oregon and Idaho.

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