

**DIAGNOSING ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE
IN THE ARMY**

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ABSTRACT

Every time I go to a successful battalion, I am struck by how well the things are going on and the sense of leadership in which all personnel are eager to be a member of that battalion. Also I was taken by surprise by the delightful and energetic people around me. Maybe it was the commander itself who has been involved in the formation of that kind of organization. So I thought that leaders must be aware of their critical role by understanding the role of O.C culture in managing the organizations. Although it is difficult to define the concept of O.C it would help the leaders to solve some problems in their efforts to stimulate learning and change.

“ Cultural analysis illuminates sub cultural dynamics within organizations ”. The concept of O.C not only has become a part of organization level analysis, but also it has aided understanding of what goes on inside organizations.

Also corporate culture is the key factor in achieving a high-performance organization. An effective culture can enable organizations to perform better and it can be beneficial in adapting to new conditions with an appropriate strategy.

Military culture is somewhat different from the others by encompassing both the change and continuity in some aspects. Like in all organizations the social evolution process takes places in military organizations too. But the military espouses conservative, moralistic ideology as reflected in its ethics and customs.

KEY WORDS: Organizational Culture, Cultural Analysis, Involvement, Mission

ÖZET

Her seferinde, görevlerinde başarılı bir birliđi ziyaret ettiđimde işlerin yürütülmesindeki başarı ve birlikteki mevcut yöneticilik anlayışı beni çok etkilemiştir. Bunun yanında çevremdeki enerjik ve üretken kişiler de oldukça iyi bir intiba bırakmıştır. Bütün bu olumlu faktörlerin sebebi olarak yöneticiler ön plana çıktığı düşünülebilir. Bu nedenle yöneticiler, kültürün organizasyondaki etkisi hakkında yeteri kadar bilgiye sahip olmalıdır. Kültür konseptini bütün detaylarıyla ifade etmek çok kolay olmasa da, yeterli bilginin bazı problemlerin çözümünde faydalı olacağı beklenmektedir.

Kültürel analiz organizasyonlardaki alt kültürel dinamiklerin anlaşılmasını sağlar. İşletme kültürü konsepti sadece genel düzeydeki problemlerin incelenmesini sağlamaz, aynı zamanda organizasyon içindeki görünmeyen problemlerin de çözülmesine yardım eder.

Bunlara ek olarak, kültürün organizasyonların performansları ile de doğrudan bir bağlantısı olabileceđi düşünülmektedir. Etkili bir kültür daha verimli bir iş ortamı sağlayabilir ve organizasyonların deđişim ihtiyaçlarına daha iyi cevap verebilir.

Askeri kültür diđer kültür tanımlarından farklı olarak içinde deđişim ve devamlılığı beraber içerebilir. Diđer bütün organizasyonlarda olduđu gibi, Silahlı Kuvvetler içinde sosyal evrim ilkeleri geçerlidir. Fakat, Silahlı Kuvvetler daha ziyade ahlaki ve tutucu deđerler empoze eder.

ANAHTAR KELİMELEER: Organizasyon Kültürü, Kültürel Analiz, İçerme, Görev.

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CHAPTER 1

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE AND RESEARCH

1.0 The Concept Of Culture

National culture encompasses the context in which organizations survive. In that context there are some rules, values and customs in which organizational behavior occurs. As Kurt Lewin described; behavior (B), is a function of the interaction between personal characteristics (P) and the environment (E) around the person, or $B = f(P.E)$. Inside that environment lies a powerful force which determines the behavior of individual and groups; Organization Culture.

Viewing organizations as cultures is not an old phenomenon. This new phenomenon is different from the old one by defining organizations with personalities like individuals rather than vertical levels, departments and authority relationships. Although social scientists and practitioners choose to focus their attention on tangibles, they recognized that some of most important things to study and manage could not be observed or controlled directly. Culture is the force and a social energy that affects members of the organization to behave in certain ways.

Culture fills in the gaps between what is formally decreed by the organization and what actually takes place. Culture thus determines how formal statements will be interpreted and provides what the written documents leave out. The surest way to kill an organization is to have all members follow every written rule to the letter. The best way to make an organization successful is to have a culture that influences all members to adopt, by tacit agreement, the most effective approach, attitude and behavior on the job (*Kilmann, Saxton, Serpa, 1985*).

Concern with workplace cultures is not new. In 1939, Chester Barnard noted that informal organizations were essential to the successful functioning of formal organizations. Codes of conduct, as he referred to them, arose and ensured commitment, identity, coherence, and a sense of community (*Louis, 1985*).

Over the past fifty years the management of organizations in general have become more rational and also more human. So the softer qualities have begun to gain precedence over the harder survival oriented ones. The same process of evolution has affected the theory and practice of management. Contemporary management theory and practice is more social, behavioral and humanistic in its orientation. That behaviorally

approach to management anticipates the approach to organization culture of Edgar Schein. This rationality based corporate culture includes enduring and adaptable relations with social forces inside and outside the organization, both formally and informally constituted, reinforced by continuity of learning and policymaking and by homogeneity of outlook (Lessem, 1988).

“Cultural analysis illuminates sub cultural dynamics within organizations” (Schein, 1992)¹. The culture concept is not popular only for its relevance to organization level analysis but also it has aided understanding of what goes inside organizations when different subcultures and occupational groups must work with each other.

“Cultural analysis is necessary for management across national and ethnic boundaries” (Schein, 1992)². As culture concept helps the understanding of sub cultural phenomena in organizations, it has also become relevant to the analysis of broader national and ethnic interrelationships as more organizations find themselves working with other nations and cultures.

¹ Schein, Edgar H. (1992) ‘Organizational Culture and Leadership’, p. xii

² Schein, Edgar H. (1992) ‘Organizational Culture and Leadership’, p. xiii

Finally it can be said that culture defines, supports, and sets the boundaries of an organizations ability to function. The challenge in creating a high performance culture is to combine a strong, steady heart with flexible arms and legs. That synthesis would result in a high-performing organization with the following characteristics.

- Strategic focus
- Clear view of reality
- Commitment rather than compliance
- Aligned behavior

1.1 Different Approaches To Culture Definition

The term O.C represents an anthropological approach to manage the organizations and in this area the anthropologists are the experts. But also in the 1980s the interest of organization culture studies came from management scientists and behavioral scientists that were more familiar with hypothesis-testing quantitative methodologies and bureaucratic models of organization (*Hamada, Sibley, 1994,p-4*).

Although there are many researches about the definitions and concepts in that field, the culture concept turned to be a

paradigm. So in that chapter the culture concept will be analyzed in two parts; the anthropological approach and the management approach.

1.1.1 The Anthropological Approach

Management interest in anthropology focuses on the methodology as published in management journals by anthropologists (*Morey and Luthans, Sanday, Schwertzman*).

Anthropology is the study of the human condition, or the nature of humanity, in all times and places. Anthropology searches for the essential biological and social characteristics shared by all primates. So the discipline has articulated an important issue of human variation and similarity. Anthropology has accumulated a distinctive database on human ideas, customs, traits and principles involving human work life.

From the anthropological perspective, organization culture is holistic, integrated and super organic. Management researchers, however generally define culture as additive. Culture is one more variable, a characteristic that an organization has. It is usually described as the values and beliefs of an organization but in reality represents the messy human staff that managers and organizational theorist alike

cannot quite figure out what to do with. They do not see culture as super organic, the whole that includes all the other variables they study (*Jordan, Napa Bulletin 14, P-4*).

Assumptions about the nature of organization can differ by anthropological perspective as follows.

- Organization is a social-cultural system embedded in larger socio-cultural environments.

- The management culture of an organization is not necessarily the organization culture.

- Organization life is more fluid than linear; decisions, actors, plans and issues continuously carom through an ever-changing labyrinth of meanings, positions, statuses, barriers and traps.

- Values are often sub-consciously perceived, and yet they influence organizational members behaviors, decision-making patterns, and emotional and affective reactions to organizational phenomena.

- Anthropologists look at not only what happens, but also what it means.

- Significant events and processes in organizations are often ambiguous and uncertain.

- Socio-political alliances of organizational members are not necessarily the same as the cultural integration of their ideational worlds (*Hamada, Sibley, P-26*).

1.1.2 Management Approach

In management the term organization culture is used in a different manner than the anthropology. Disciplines used in management to define organization culture can be as follows; organizational behavior, human resource management, organization development, operations management, and so forth on. For example in the field of organizational behavior, researchers are interested in productivity, turnover, absenteeism, and job satisfaction. Organization behavior tends to focus on micro level, psychological approaches to individual behavior. So the people trained in organization behavior find it difficult to understand the impact of organizational structure, or

other macro level variables, an individual behavior (*Morey, Napa Bulletin, P-18*).

From management perspective, culture is something that might be useful to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of organizations, and to help them do their jobs.

Managers largely believe that organizational culture can be imposed from top downward. In addition, most managers think of culture only in terms of the middle and upper levels in organization. There is little thought given to culture among operating employees (*Morey, P-14*).

Some management science researchers introduce the culture as a tool for fitting the current strategic plan for more efficient organization (*Denilson, 1990*).

Some culture definitions are as follows.

“A belief system shared by an organizations members” (J.C. Spender, Myths, Recipes, and Knowledge-Bases in Organizational Analysis)

“Strong, widely-shared core values” (C.O’Reilly, Corporations, Cults, and Organizational Culture: Lessons from Silicon Valley Firms)

“The way we do things around here” (T.E. Deal and A.A. Kennedy, Corporate Cultures)

“The collective programming of the mind” (G.Hofstede, Cultures Consequences: International Differences in Work – related values)

“A set of shared, enduring beliefs communicated through a variety of symbolic media, creating meaning in peoples work lives” (J.M. Kouzes, D.F.Caldwell, and B.Z. Posner, Organization Culture: how it is Created, Maintained, and Changed)

“A set of symbols, ceremonies, and myths that communicate the underlying values and beliefs of that organization to its employees” (W.G. Ouchi, Theory Z)

“A dominant and coherent set of shared values conveyed by such symbolic means as stories, myths, legends, slogans,

anecdotes, and fairly tales”(T.Peters and R.H. Waterman, In search of Excellence)

“The pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration” (E.H. Schein, The Role Of Founder In Creating Organizational Culture)

1.2 Culture Formation

One of the most problematic areas in Organization Culture studies is how culture originates and what lies at the root of culture.

Many culture researchers use the Schein’s model of the “levels of organization culture” which is presented in Figure 1 as leverage for their researches. At the root of Schein’s model, which is influenced by cognitive perspective, basic assumptions rather than values lie at the deepest level of Culture Concept.

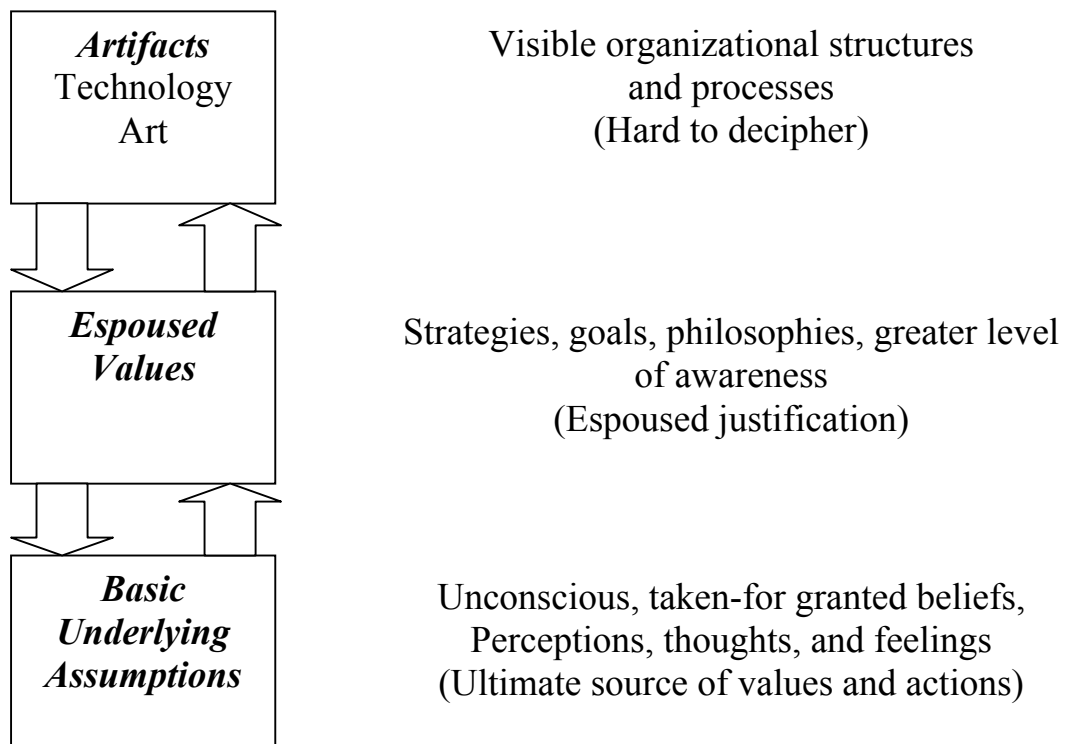


Figure 1: Levels of Culture (*Schein, Organizational Culture and Leadership*)

Schein described culture as a solution to problems of external adaptation and internal integration. Then culture taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to problems of external adaptation and internal integration which are presented in Figure 1 (*Schein, Organizational Culture and Leadership*).

Finally these solutions regarded as the assumptions about the nature of reality, truth, time, space and human activity, and

human relationships-then they come to be taken for granted and finally, drops out of awareness.

Once a group has had enough of a history to develop a set of basic assumptions about itself, the culture can be viewed as three levels.

<i>Problems of External Adaptation and Survival</i>	<i>Problems of Internal Integration</i>
Developing Consensus on:	Developing Consensus on:
1. The core mission, functions and primary tasks.	1. The common language.
2. The specific tasks.	2. The group boundaries.
3. The basic means to be used in accomplishing the goals.	3. The criteria for allocation of status.
4. The criteria to measure results.	4. The criteria for friendship.
5. The remedial strategies if goals are not achieved.	5. The criteria for rewards.
	6. Concepts for managing the unmanageable.

Table 1: The External And Internal Tasks Facing All Groups (*Schein, Organizational Culture, American Psychologist, 1990, 114.*)

Basic Underlying Assumptions: When a solution works repeatedly for any problem, then it is treated as reality. Basic assumptions then come to be taken for granted and varies a little within a cultural unit (*Schein, Organizational Culture and Leadership*).

Basic assumptions are the most difficult level to change. Changing any assumption requires resurrecting, reexamining,

and changing some of the more stable portions of cognitive structure. Changing any assumption requires learning a new one. But such learning is difficult because the reexamination of basic assumptions destabilizes cognitive style and release large quantities of anxiety (*Schein, Organizational Culture and Leadership*).

Cognitive stability is important for a happier world. Any change in cognitive style can cause cognitive dissonance because of the difference between new cognitive style and behavior.

Espoused Values: When a group is first created or when it deals with a problem, the solution that problem reflects some individual own assumptions rather than a group decision. Individuals who play an important role in decision-making process later identified as “leaders” or founders. The key point in that process is that the group doesn’t have any shared knowledge because of the lack of a common action in response to the new problem. Therefore whatever proposed can only have the status of value from the point of view of group (*Schein, Organizational Culture and Leadership*).

For example, if a solution of the manager to a certain problem works and the group is convinced to act on the managers belief, then the perceived value related to solution gradually starts a process of cognitive transformation. Firstly, the solution will be transformed into a shared value or belief and finally into a shared assumption.

Artifacts : At the surface level of Schein model of culture lies artifacts, which includes all phenomena that one sees, hears, and feels when one encounters a new group with an unfamiliar culture (*Schein, Organizational Culture and Leadership*).

Artifacts are the visible behavioral manifestations of underlying concepts. Although it is easy to see them, it is very hard to decipher (*Schein, Gaining Control of the Corporate Culture*).

The observer can have some clues about the cultured by artifactual visible and audible environment. But interfering deeper assumptions from artifacts can be projections of ones own feelings and reactions.

“If the observer lives in the group long enough, the meanings of artifacts gradually become clearer. If, however, one wants to achieve this level of understanding more quickly, one can attempt to analyze the espoused values, norms, and rules that provide the day-to-day operating principles by which the members of the group guide their behavior” (Schein, 1992)³.

Assumptions have a crucial role in culture formation, understanding the Schein’s model of culture may give some answers to problem of culture formation by a system perspective. But some researchers especially Denison criticized this model in the following ways.

- This model have tended to glorify basic assumptions as the true domain of culture without explaining their link to the more visible levels of culture.

- This models approach tended to emphasize the search for understanding at the cognitive level and de-emphasize the more visible levels of culture.

³ Schein, Edgar H. (1992) ‘Organizational Culture and Leadership’, p. 18

- Schein's model tended to lead researchers to take the idea of "levels of culture" a bit too seriously.

- Several important questions are unanswered in Schein's model. To whom are these basic assumptions "unconscious" Insiders? Outsiders?

- The emphasis on espoused values begs the question of the role of "values-in-use" in linking basic core assumptions with the actions of organizational members and the more visible manifestations of culture (*Denison, Organizational Culture: Can it be a Key Lever for Driving Organizational Change?*).

1.3 Types Of Culture

Another area of research within the culture concept is whether an organization culture is to be homogeneous or heterogeneous. Many researchers studied on developing taxonomic or typing systems that allow organizations to be categorized according to their predominant features. Such systems include.

Deal and Kennedy (1982):

- Tough-guy macho culture
- Work hard-play hard culture
- Bet-your-company culture
- Process culture

Williams, Dobson and Walters (1989):

- Power orientation
- Role orientation
- Task orientation
- People orientation

Harrison (1972); Schein (1985)

- Power culture
- Role culture
- Achievement culture
- Support culture

Graves (1980)

- Barbarian
- Monarchical
- Presidential
- Paranoiac

It is important to recognize that such taxonomic approaches make an important assumption: namely that each organization may be classified as a whole, regardless of the many sub-components which may exist within it. In today's fast-changing workplace, with the introduction of rapid formation project teams, and an increased focus on project-based work, not only may cultures differ between organizational groups and sub-units, but also they may be continuously shifting, as projects are completed and new groups formed. Sackmann (1992) found evidence for distinct sub-cultural groupings within a single organization, differentiated on the basis of shared knowledge and communication.

Among the alternatives Harrison's four dimensional culture models will be analyzed to learn more about culture types.

• Power Culture

The power-oriented organization is based on the inequality of access to resources. A resource can be anything that one person controls that another person wants. The people in power are resources to satisfy or frustrate the needs of others and thus control the others behavior. People in power-oriented

organizations are motivated by rewards and punishments and by the wish to be associated to be a strong leader.

It rests on the acceptance of hierarch and inequality as legitimate by all members of the organization.

As the size and complexity of the business increases, the demands on the leadership of a power-oriented organization multiply exponentially. Large power-oriented are inefficient and full of fear and confusion, unless the power orientation is supplemental by good structures and systems for setting the work done. As the distance between leaders and followers increases, effective control becomes more difficult. When power-oriented organizations expand, they often run short of a leadership talent, because followers have been conditioned to be dependent (*Harrison, Strokes, 1992*).

• **Role Culture**

Often referred to as bureaucracy, it works by logic and rationality. Its pillars represent functions and specialisms. Departmental functions are delineated and empowered with their role e.g. the finance dept. the design dept etc. work within and between departments is controlled by procedures, role

descriptions and authority definitions. Communication structures and well defined systems and products. There are mechanisms and rules for processing decisions and resolving conflicts.

Co-ordination is at the top-the senior management group. Job position is central to this not necessarily the jobholder as a person. People are appointed to role based on their ability to carry out the functions.

Performance required is related to role and functional position. Performance over and above role is not expected and may disrupt.

Efficiency stems from rational allocation of work and conscientious performance of defined responsibility (*Harrison, Strokes, 1992*).

• **Achievement Culture**

Both the power-oriented and the role-oriented organizational cultures depend on the use of external rewards and punishments to motivate people. Organization members are expected to contribute their personal energy in return for rewards. However, many people like their work, want to make a worthwhile

contribution to society and enjoy interacting with colleagues or customers. These intrinsic rewards are qualitative rather than quantitative and arise from the nature of work and/or the context in which it takes place. Traditional power and role-oriented organizations are not designed to provide such intrinsic satisfactions, and their presence is either result of chance or through the occupational choices people make their own.

The achievement-oriented organization is frequently under organized; it relies on high motivation to overcome its deficiencies in structures, systems and planning. Although it evokes enthusiasm and commitment, it may not have a heart. People's needs are subordinate to the organizations missions and needs (*Harrison, Strokes, 1992*).

• **Support Culture**

The support culture may be defined as an organizational climate that is based on mutual trust between the individual and the organization. In such an organization people believe that they valued as human beings, not just as cogs in machine and contributors to ask task. A support culture fosters warmth and even love not just driving enthusiasm. People like to come to work in the morning, not just because they like work, but also

they care for people with whom they work. Because they feel cared for, they are more human in their interactions with others: customers, suppliers, the public and their fellow workers.

Like achievement organizations, support oriented organizations assume that people want to contribute. Rather than evoking their contribution through a common purpose or ideal, the support-oriented organization offers its members satisfaction that comes from relationships: mutuality, belonging and connection. The assumption is that people will contribute out a sense of commitment to a group or organization for which they feel a real sense of belonging and in which they believe they have a personal stake (*Harrison, Strokes, 1992*).

Advantages and Disadvantages of Classification

Advantages

- Can compare and contrast cultures in order to predict and control areas of misunderstanding before they occur.
- Empirical data from groups, clusters or types may yield counter-intuitive findings that simple guesswork would not show.

- Gathering empirical data can test theories of classification. In this sense, they can be discarded, revised or supported.

- Simple "typing" helps people become aware of their own culture and how it differs from others, making more immediate and accessible a complex and elusive concept.

Disadvantages

- Classification systems are only as good as the evidence upon which they are based, and this is frequently poor.

- Different statistical techniques yield different dimensions and it is not certain which are more useful.

- Very "broad brush" classification systems can be insensitive, omitting important dimensions.

- Classifying culture does not explain the consequences of differences or similarities, or what to do about them (*Adapted from Furnham and Gunter, 1993*).

1.4 Importance Of Culture

There are many both qualitative and quantitative studies about the cultures role in organization effectiveness and company performance. All these studies show that there is a close relationship between strong organization culture and organization effectiveness as well as performance (*Denison, Corporate Culture and Organizational Effectiveness, 1990; Kilmann, Saxton, Serpa, Gaining Control Of The Corporate Culture 1985* .

Denison's theory of corporate culture and organizational effectiveness has argued that strategies, structures, and their implementation are rooted in the basic beliefs and values of an organization and present both limits and opportunities for what may be accomplished. Also this theory argues that the effectiveness of an organization must be studied as a cultural phenomenon, linking assumptions and shared values, which were described in the previous section, with management practices and strategies in order to understand a firm's adaptation over time (*Denison, Corporate Culture and Organizational Effectiveness, 1990*).

Based upon studies about culture's role in organization effectiveness and performance, the importance of culture can be investigated in two parts.

- The increased commitment by employees
- The fit of culture and strategy

1.4.1 Culture and Commitment

Culture is critical in developing and maintaining levels of intensity and dedication among employees that often characterizes successful companies. This strong attachment is particularly valuable when the employees have knowledge, which is important for the success of organization.

Adams (1963) has argued that membership of and performance in organization continues for so long as there is seen to be a balanced ratio between inputs and outcomes in the organization (*Graves, Corporate Culture Diagnosis and Change, 1986*).

The lack of balance between inputs and outputs can cause certain problems for an individual like leaving the organization. A strong organization culture may enable people to accept that

a cognitively unfavorable work bargain is psychologically attractive for them because the culture somehow raises their input of work to a greater level of meaning (because the organization understand them) and the outcomes are more salient for them because the organization, which is an extension of their personality, is somehow enhanced (*Graves, Corporate Culture Diagnosis and Change, 1986*).

Adams proposition has support from many researchers who found that people stayed in their jobs even though the jobs did not meet their requirements.

Also it is possible to treat organizational culture as a stabilizing force that acts to maintain behavioral direction when expectancy conditions are not met and do not function. This is exactly the definition of organizational commitment and it follows that culture is the mirror image of commitment, and therefore represents the investment of the organization in the individual member, just as commitment is the investment of the individual in the organization (*Graves, Corporate Culture Diagnosis and Change, 1986*).

Kiesler (1971) suggested, furthermore that attitudes and values are generally formed so as to be consistent with

behavior: thus culture may be the means by which the organization manages to secure long-term membership, by enabling the employee to rationalize his continuing long-term membership of the organization despite an equity imbalance (*Graves, Corporate Culture Diagnosis and Change, 1986*).

1.4.2 Strategy and Corporate Culture

Every company has a competitive strategy that orients the company in market and positions itself with respect to competitors. After establishing, a company's strategy dictates asset of critical tasks or objectives that must be accomplished through congruence among elements of people, structure, and culture.

For a strategy to be successfully implemented, it requires an appropriate culture. When companies change strategies, sometimes they fail because the underlying shared values do not support the new approach.

Deal and Kennedy believe that employees in a strong company culture have a clearer idea of what they should be doing, and that this sense of mission results in huge productivity increases. Furthermore, individuals within a strong

company culture know what is expected of them, how to act and react when confronted with an unfamiliar situation. Conversely those in a weak culture spend a great deal of time deciding what they should do and how they should do it (*Irani, Sharp, Kagioglou; Improving Business Performance Through Developing a Corporate Culture*).

A strong culture may be an important factor but only when it is the appropriate culture. If this manner of doing things is the most adequate for achieving success in the organizations competitive environment, then the culture is asset for an organization. In the current work, an organization achieves the fit between its strategy and its culture is said to have a strategic culture (*Cabrera, Elizabeth F.; Bonache, Jaime; Human Resource Planning v. 22 no1 (1999) p. 51-60*).

Clearly, the most effective combination is a strong strategy matched by a strong culture. Furthermore, it can be postulated that if a strategy and culture fit together, the resulting success will strengthen the culture, which in turn enforces the strategic fit. Hence, culture and strategy go hand in hand, with each affecting the other. Only by considering them jointly can a company hope to realize the maximum gain from its strategic

direction (*Irani, Sharp, Kagioglou; Improving Business Performance Through Developing a Corporate Culture*).

As known, strategy is the approach chosen by an organization to achieve success or a competitive advantage. Thus, the culture will be an asset for an organization if it encourages the behaviors that support the organization's intended strategy. That is, of course, assuming that the strategy chosen is appropriate for success given the organization's competitive environment. In the current work, an organization that achieves this fit between its strategy and its culture is said to have a strategic culture. A key issue then, is to identify the appropriate behaviors for a given strategy (*Cabrera, Elizabeth F.; Bonache, Jaime; Human Resource Planning v. 22 no1 (1999) p. 51-60*).

CHAPTER 2

UNDERSTANDING AND ANALYSIS OF ORGANIZATION CULTURE

2.0 Introduction

Culture in organizations is defined in many ways. There are as many meanings of “culture” as people using the term. Existing definitions include and emphasize different components of culture such as manifestations, ideas or cognition, or the holistic nature of culture (*Sackmann, 1985*).

From a cognitive perspective, an understanding of culture in a given setting requires uncovering these underlying, cognitive components, such as assumptions or beliefs, which serve as map-making devices for perceiving, thinking, feeling, and acting (*Frake, 1977*).

As mentioned before artifacts located at the surface level are hard to decipher. But cultural cognitions or beliefs are below the surface. Understanding them is critical for deciphering the visible manifestations, but eliciting them requires a special probing device (*Sackmann, Sonja A. Journal Of Applied Behavioral Science, Sep91, Vol.27 Issue 3, p295*).

If a study of culture centers on corporate artifacts, two major problems may arise. One is that the observable artifacts and behavioral manifestations may endure within a given organization as relics of a past era. Their specific meanings may no longer be relevant for the organization as it currently operates, or they may not even be known any longer. Therefore, knowledge of artifacts and behavioral manifestations may not say much about the current cultural belief systems (*Sackmann, Sonja A. Journal Of Applied Behavioral Science, Sep91, Vol.27 Issue 3, p295*).

Given these problems, an understanding of culture in a given organizational setting requires an understanding of the ideational aspect of culture - the underlying process of sense making, the cognitive constructions, or the cultural knowledge that exist in a particular organization and that are used to attribute meaning to observable behaviors and corporate artifacts. The important question, then, is which methodology and methods are most appropriate to unravel these underlying sense-making processes (*Sackmann, Sonja A. Journal Of Applied Behavioral Science, Sep91, Vol.27 Issue 3, p295*).

The methods for studying culture in organizations are closer either to a deductive mode of inquiry conducted from an

"outsider's" perspective or to an inductive one conducted from an "insider's" perspective. These different approaches are based on a different understanding of culture in organizational settings. Inquiry from the outside is based on positivistic science with the goal of generalizing from the data and establishing universal laws. Hypotheses are deducted from theory and tested. In this mode of inquiry, researchers introduce their concepts to the research site, which is relevant to them only in regard to their specific questions. Hence researchers play the role of detached onlookers. In this approach, culture is treated as one of several organizational variables that can be controlled (*Sackmann, Sonja A. Journal Of Applied Behavioral Science, Sep91, Vol.27 Issue 3, p295*).

In contrast, inquiry from the inside aims at gaining an understanding of life within a particular research site. The obtained knowledge is context specific and situationally relevant, but it cannot be generalized beyond its immediate context. The researcher interacts with members of the research setting (Alderfer & Smith, 1982) and becomes experientially involved. Concepts and hypotheses may emerge in this interactive process. Researchers who subscribe to this mode of inquiry consider culture as something an organization is, and

they are interested in a thorough understanding of this cultural context (*Sackmann, 1990*).

Potentially a problem arises whether the qualitative or quantitative methods are most appropriate for the study of organizational culture.

Advocates of qualitative methods have taken several positions supporting qualitative research and countering the use of quantitative cultural measures. Louis (1983) and Smircich (1983) have argued that culture reflects a social construction of reality unique to members of a social unit, and that this uniqueness makes it impossible for standardized measures to tap cultural processes. Schein argues that quantitative assessment conducted through surveys is unethical in that it reflects conceptual categories not the respondents own, presuming unwarranted generalizability. Deal (1986) suggests that traditional academic methods applied to studying culture “sterilize” the construct and reflect a relabeling of old approaches to studying organizations (*Denise M. Rousseau, 1990*).

Two issues are actually being raised here: (1) whether cultural processes are in any way amenable to quantitative assessment, and (2) more generally, what the relative strengths

and weaknesses are of quantitative and qualitative assessments in tapping how individuals experience the organization. This debate stems from the resurgence of qualitative methodology in organizational research and controversy regarding the assumptions on which it is predicated (*Denise M. Rousseau, 1990*).

Quantitative assessment offers opportunity for inter-organizational comparisons to assess often-assumed relations between culture and organization success, strategy, and goals. Qualitative research can explore the meanings behind the patterns. Some questions remain: If top managers really do have different sets of norms and expectations than their subordinates, what implications do these have for the values and priorities the organization embodies, the service or products it produces, and the integration of members into the organization? How do members of organizations with weak cultures (where mutuality or shared beliefs are lacking) make sense of their environment? If culture changes mean unfreezing of old values and beliefs, how do people interpret and react to times of transition and how do they relearn a culture (*Denise M. Rousseau, 1990*).

Finally it can be said that culture research remains a controversial subject in the field of organizational behavior.

Driven largely by methodological preferences and a topical subject matter rather than by theory, we are still in the earliest phases of understanding cultures role in organizations.

2.1 Ways of Measuring Organizational Culture

Methods used to study culture range from mailed questionnaires (e.g., Gordon, 1985), to participant observations (e.g., Kleinberg, 1989; Pacanowsky, 1987, Sapienza, 1985). Other methods such as structured interviews (e.g., Weiss & Delbecq, 1987), documentary analysis (e.g., Clark, 1972), group discussions (Schein, 1985), and in-depth interviews (e.g., Sapienza, 1985). It will become apparent in the following discussion that each of these methods has strengths and limitations in uncovering culture in organizational settings (*Sackmann, Sonja A. Journal Of Applied Behavioral Science, Sep91, Vol.27 Issue 3, p295*).

Prestructured questionnaires, which were used in the research, are effective in covering large samples at low cost. Comparisons can be made between responses obtained from respondents within and across different research settings. The results can be generalized to the population from which the sample is drawn. Because the format of a questionnaire is

standardized, objectivity is usually high in regard to its administration, analysis, and interpretation. The reliability of questionnaires tends to be assumed without being specifically addressed. The validity thereof remains the big problem (*Petermann, 1975*).

What does a prestructured questionnaire, designed to uncover cultural issues of a specific organizational setting, measure? Respondents answer questions thought to be relevant by the researcher and posed from the researcher's cultural perspective (Spradley, 1979; Evered & Louis, 1981). Hence respondents try to understand and conform to the researcher's culture rather than employing the language of their own culture and raising issues important to them in their particular cultural setting. Thus the apparent advantage of a neutral and emotionally detached researcher may be a disadvantage in a study of culture in particular (*Sackmann, Sonja A. Journal Of Applied Behavioral Science, Sep91, Vol.27 Issue 3, p295*).

Furthermore, prestructured questionnaires require for their development a priori knowledge about culture in organizations. Currently, however, little empirically based knowledge that could guide such a development is available. And so at the present time, questionnaires may, in fact, reveal more about the

authors and their theoretical biases than about cultural aspects in a particular setting (*Kaplan, 1964*).

Structured interviews (e.g., Weiss & Delbecq, 1987) are subject to the same problems and hence to the same criticism as questionnaires. Objectivity and reliability need to be addressed and accounted for in the research design as well as in the collection of data, data analysis, and interpretation of the results. With both, comparisons can be made across respondents and research settings. Structured interviews are somewhat less effective in covering large sample sizes than are questionnaires. But as with questionnaires, the data tend to reveal more about the researcher's culture than about the particular cultural setting under investigation. If, however, structured interviews are part of a research methodology and developed on the basis of knowledge generated within the particular research setting, they may be helpful in investigating a particular issue that has evolved during the research process (*Sackmann, Sonja A. Journal Of Applied Behavioral Science, Sep91, Vol.27 Issue 3, p295*).

Documentary analysis is an unobtrusive method that is rarely applied in isolation. Such an analysis can be used either in a deductive or in an inductive mode of inquiry. Documents

can be analyzed for the kind of information submitted in writing, for quantity of information, or the degree of formality. The more the researcher stays on the surface level or, to put it another way, the more the research focuses on "signifiers" (Broms & Gahmberg, 1987), the closer it is to the deductive end. The more the researcher attempts to understand the underlying meanings or the "signified," the closer the research moves to the inductive end of the methodological continuum. Such a move is not possible, however, without deeper immersion into the cultural reality of the research setting. Such a move represents an apparent threat to the "neutrality" and objectivity of the researcher-qualities that a positivistic mode of inquiry considers important (*Sackmann, Sonja A. Journal Of Applied Behavioral Science, Sep91, Vol.27 Issue 3, p295*).

In-depth interviews are used to uncover culturally based values (Phillips, 1990; Schein, 1985), cultural beliefs, or knowledge structures (Sapienza, 1985). Depending on the researcher's training, such an in-depth interview may be called ethnographic (Phillips, 1990; Spradley, 1979), clinical (Schein, 1985) or phenomenological (Massarik, 1977). The common denominator is that researchers do not introduce cultural issues from the outside or from their own cultural reference groups. Instead, by using broad and open-ended questions, by trying to

use the insider's language, and by bracketing their own assumptions (Leiter, 1980), the interviewers entice the interviewees to unravel aspects of their everyday life in their particular cultural setting (*Sackmann, Sonja A. Journal Of Applied Behavioral Science, Sep91, Vol.27 Issue 3, p295*).

For all their strengths, in-depth interviews have two major problems: (a) differentiating between individual opinions and cultural data and (b) ensuring objectivity and reliability in obtaining and analyzing interview data. Data obtained from an individual interview of this type do not differentiate between individual opinions and cultural issues. The latter need to be identified in a so-called cultural analysis, in which data from all interviewees from one cultural setting are compared and contrasted with each other. Equivalent information across individuals is likely to be culturally based. The researcher must determine the cutoff point between individual (random) answers and culturally meaningful ones.

In the in-depth interview, investigators need to be aware of their biases and influences during the data collection process (e.g., Hyman, Cobb, Feldmann, Hart, & Stember, 1954), as well as their biases and potential errors while analyzing the data. Objectivity in data analysis can be ensured by having different

people analyze the same data and by establishing interrater reliability. To do this, however, requires appropriate training in applying analytical categories and also an understanding of the research setting from an insider's perspective. Objectivity is enhanced if data are reanalyzed at some later time and the results of both analyses are compared (*Sackmann, Sonja A. Journal Of Applied Behavioral Science, Sep91, Vol.27 Issue 3, p295*).

Group discussions about cultural issues are another method of uncovering cultural assumptions "because the group provides the stimulus to bring out what is ordinarily hidden" (Schein, 1985, p. 127). Although group discussions may not reach the same depth as individual interviews, they have other advantages. Through unfolding group dynamics, individual opinions can be separated from cultural beliefs, and existing taboos may be uncovered. The researcher needs several skills to make this happen.

First, a group must be selected that is most appropriate for the research questions (Alderfer & Smith, 1982). Second, researchers must intervene skillfully to bring out the hidden aspects and taboos that usually are not explicitly addressed (Van Maanen, 1988). In addition, the unfolding processes must

be observed carefully, and the researchers must be aware of their own cultural biases that influence them in their role as participant investigators in the research setting (Alderfer & Smith, 1982). This latter aspect also is relevant in participation observation (*Sackmann, Sonja A. Journal Of Applied Behavioral Science, Sep91, Vol.27 Issue 3, p295*).

Participant observation is a method used primarily by ethnographers and anthropologists. The researcher attempts to achieve a holistic understanding of a culture from an insider's or emic perspective by living with these insiders over an extended period of time (e.g., Kleinberg, 1989; Pacanowsky, 1987; Sapienza, 1985; Tunstall, 1985). It is based on a phenomenological perspective (Fetterman, 1989). The investigator is experientially immersed as an actor in the research setting. The advantage of participant observation is that no a priori knowledge is required. Concepts are developed inductively during the research process without immediate value judgments. Whatever is studied is placed in its context of time and space. Events are traced back and reconstructed in their historical evolution. Resulting descriptions are rich, detailed, context specific, and (presumably) close to the insider's perspective. The degree of closeness can be tested by a

participant's review of the observer's interpretations (*Lincoln & Guba, 1985*).

Participant observation poses several problems. It is time consuming and costly to both the organization and to the researcher. Researchers have spent up to 5 years studying one setting (e.g., Kleinberg, 1986; Pacanowsky, 1987). A team of investigators may shorten the time (Martin, Sitkim, & Boehm, 1983), but each person performed discrete rather than replicative activities as compared to a single researcher. This poses problems for the validity and reliability of the accumulated observations. Furthermore, results obtained from different informants within the same setting are difficult to compare because their responses may be based on different cultural experiences and reference groups (Shibutani, 1962). Comparisons and generalizations beyond the immediate context of the study remain speculative. A series of ethnographies exploring similar issues are therefore required for theory-building efforts.

During participant observations, investigators may influence the research setting in unforeseen ways. A move from the "informed outsider" to an apparently over-informed or overcurious insider with privileges and blessings from the boss

may create suspicion (Phillips, 1990) and result in seriously biased data. Other problems include differences between researchers' ability to establish rapport, to open doors, or to obtain access to culturally sacred matters (Clifford, 1983). Like investigators who conduct research from a deductive mode of inquiry and operate from an outsider's perspective, ethnographers are influenced in their research efforts by their particular training and the field's current zeitgeist (Van Maanen, 1988). In addition, the understanding, interpretation, and reporting of observed and recorded data create serious difficulties. In understanding the cultural setting, participant observers need to transcend their own cultural biases while at the same time the interpretation and reporting of their findings require translation into a different culture (*Fetterman, 1989; Rosen, 1989; Van Maanen, 1988*).

Each of the methods discussed has strengths and limitations. Given the present state of research into the topic of culture in organizational contexts, it seems appropriate to start with an inductive mode of inquiry (Van Maanen & Barley, 1984). The chosen approach should, however, take into account the strengths and pitfalls of the different methods discussed earlier, the specifics of organizations as research settings (Sackmann, 1989), and the need for more empirically based

knowledge about culture in organizations as a contribution to theory building. It is apparent that such an approach cannot be limited to one method. Rather, the overall methodology must strike a balance between an unstructured, in-depth inquiry and a highly structured approach.

2.2 Some Corporate Culture Surveys

2.2.1 Organizational Culture Inventory (Cooke and Lofferty, 1989)

The OCI focus on behaviors that facilitate fitting in to the organization and meeting expectations of co-workers. The 12 basic subscales are the following.

<i>Humanistic/Helpful</i>	<i>Self-Actualization</i>	<i>Dependence</i>	<i>Power</i>
<i>Affiliation</i>	<i>Approval</i>	<i>Avoidance</i>	<i>Competitive</i>
<i>Achievement</i>	<i>Conventionality</i>	<i>Opposition</i>	<i>Perfectionism</i>

These subscales reflect the circumplex model based on the intersection of two dimensions which are task-people and security-satisfaction and which provide the four secondary subscales of the questionnaire. There are 120 items, each one rated on a 1-5 scale.

2.2.2 Culture Gap Survey (Kilmann&Saxton, 1983)

The CGS was developed to measure behavioral norms. There are four subscales reflecting a 2×2 framework

(Technical/Human Concern and Short/Long Term Orientation):
Task Support, Social Relations and Personal Freedom.

2.2.3 Organizational Beliefs Questionnaire (Sashkin, 1984)

This is a 50-item questionnaire with 5-point scales (strongly agree to strongly disagree) measuring organizational values. The inventory has 10 subscales.

<i>Work Should be Fun</i>	<i>Quality</i>
<i>Being the Best</i>	<i>Communicating to Get The Job Done</i>
<i>Innovation</i>	<i>Growth/Profit/ Indicators of Success</i>
<i>Attention to Detail</i>	<i>Hands on Management</i>
<i>Worth&Value of People</i>	<i>Importance of a Shared Philosophy</i>

The 50 were chosen to minimize social desirability: for each subscale one item is stated positively and the other negatively and the wording is constructed to make it difficult to determine the items desirability (*Sashkin&Flummer, 1985*).

2.2.4 Corporate Culture Survey (Glaser, 1983)

The development of this questionnaire is based on Deal and Kennedy's (1982) description of culture types and intends to measure organizational values. It consists of 20 items rated on a 5-point scale from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree).

The questionnaire holds four subscales, which are the following.

Values

Traditions/Rituals

Heroes/heroines

Cultural Network

2.2.5 Denison Corporate Culture Survey

This survey, which was used in the research, originally presents a set of 60 statements that describe different aspects of an organization. Denison's model of organization culture based on four traits of organizational cultures; *involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission*.

Two of the traits, involvement and adaptability, are indicators of flexibility, openness, and responsiveness, and were strong predictors of growth. The other two traits, consistency and mission, are indicators of integration, direction, and vision, and were better predictors of profitability. The survey used in that research consists of 30 statements to describe only two cultural traits, each of this traits measured with three component indexes, each of these indexes is measured with five survey items. Each of four traits was also significant predictor of other effectiveness criteria such as quality, employee satisfaction and overall performance

(Daniel R. Denison-Aneil K. Mishra, Organizational Science Vol6, 1995) .

Traits

Indexes

<i>Involvement</i>	Empowerment, Team-Orientation, Capability Development
<i>Consistency</i>	Core Values, Agreement, Coordination And Integration
<i>Adaptability</i>	Creating Change, Customer Focus, Org.-Learning
<i>Mission</i>	Strategic Direction, Goals And Objectives, Vision

The models used in the Survey differentiate from others in several characteristics. First, it is rooted in research on how culture influences organizational performance, and is focused on those cultural traits that having a key impact on business performance. In contrast to most frameworks that emphasize the uniqueness of organizational cultures, this model focuses on comparative generalizations about cultures at the values level. At the same time, the model acknowledges that there are many aspects of the deeper cultural levels of beliefs and assumptions are difficult to generalize about across organizations (*Organizational Culture: Can it be a Key Lever for Driving Organizational Change, Daniel Denison, June 2000*).

CHAPTER 3

A SURVEY STUDY IN A MILITARY ORGANIZATION

3.0 Overview

In the previous chapter the main emphasis has been on the definition of culture and some examples of diagnosing culture. In this chapter another system for diagnosing culture designed by Denison is introduced and explained.

As explained before, a survey technique to explore organizational culture has some advantages as well as disadvantages. The key factor to use survey method is that it can be applied to many organizations in the same way. Hence the results may help to compare different organizations in the same index.

The focus of the survey method used in this study is to explore the set of values and beliefs that lie at the core of an organizations culture and the practices which are explained in both Schein's and Denison's model of Organization Culture.

Nowadays, studies on Organizational Culture have a cognitive orientation and this perspective focuses on the assumptions and beliefs of organizational members. One example of this cognitive approach is Schein's model of the "levels" of organizational culture, presented in part 1.2. Denison criticized this model in some ways as presented in part 1.2.

Denison's model of culture has several main differences. The main one being how culture influences organizational performance and focuses on some cultural traits which have a key impact on performance. In contrast to most models that emphasize the uniqueness of organizational culture, this model focuses on comparative generalizations about cultures at the values level. Also, the model acknowledges that there are many aspects of the deeper cultural levels of beliefs and assumptions which are difficult to generalize about across organizations (*Organizational Culture: Can it be a Key Lever for Driving Organizational Change? Daniel Denison, June 2000*).

The model as presented in Figure 2 is based on four cultural traits that have been shown to have a strong influence on organizational performance: involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission. Each of these traits is measured with three component indexes, and each of those indexes is measured

with five survey items. A complete listing of the items included in the Appendix.

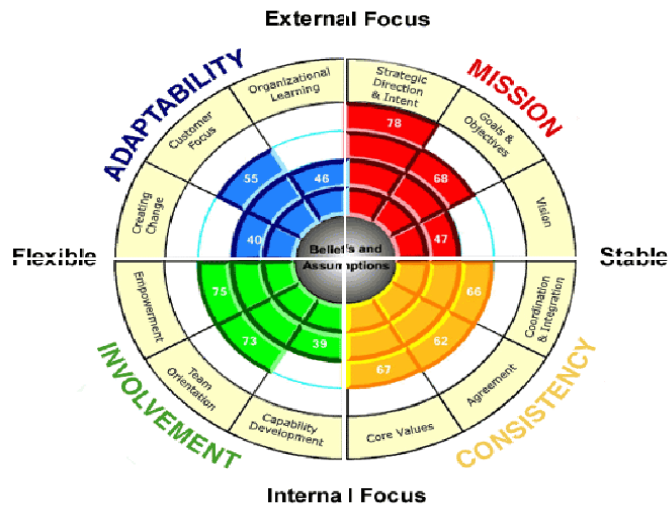


Figure 2: Denison’s Model Of Organizational Culture (*Organizational Culture: Can it be a Key Lever for Driving Organizational Change, Daniel Denison, June 2000*).

“ **Involvement.** Effective organizations empower their people, build their organization around teams, and develop human capability at all levels. Members of the organization are committed to their work, and feel that they own a piece of the organization. People at all levels feel that they have at least some input into decisions that will effect their work and feel that their work is directly connected to the goals of the

organization. In the model, this trait is measured with three indexes:

Empowerment. Individuals have the authority, initiative, and ability to manage their own work. This creates a sense of ownership and responsibility toward the organization.

Team Orientation. Value is placed on working cooperatively toward common goals for which all employees feel mutually accountable. The organization relies on team effort to get work done.

Capability Development. The organization continually invests in the development of employee's skills in order to stay competitive and meet on-going business needs.

Consistency. Research has shown that organizations are also effective because the organization is consistent and well integrated. People's behavior is rooted in a set of core values, leaders and followers are skilled at reaching view, and the organization's activities are well coordinated and integrated. Organizations with these traits have a strong and distinctive culture significantly influences people's behavior. This type of consistency is a powerful source of stability and internal

integration that results from a common mindset and a high degree of conformity. In the model, this trait is measured with three indexes:

Core Values. *Members of the organization share a set of values, which create a sense of identity and a clear set of expectations.*

Agreement. *Members of the organization are able to reach agreement on critical issues. This includes both the underlying level of agreement the ability to reconcile differences when they occur.*

Coordination and Integration. *Different work together well to achieve common goals. Organizational boundaries do not interfere with getting work done.*

Adaptability. *But well-integrated organizations are often the most difficult to change. Internal integration and external adaptation can be at odds. Adaptable organizations are driven by their customers, take risks and learn from their mistakes, and have capability and experience at creating change. They are continuously improving the organization's ability to provide value for its members. Organizations that are strong in*

adaptability usually experience sales growth and increased market share. In the model, this trait is measured with three indexes:

Creating Change. *The organization is able to create adaptive ways to meet changing needs. It is able to read the business environment, react quickly to current trends, and anticipate future changes.*

Customer Focus. *The organization understands and reacts to their customer's and anticipates their future needs. It reflects the degree to which the organization is driven by a concern to satisfy their customers.*

Organizational Learning. *The organization receives, translates, and interprets signals from the innovation, gaining knowledge, and developing capabilities.*

Mission. *Perhaps the most important cultural trait of all is a sense of mission. Organizations that don't know where they are going usually end up somewhere else. Successful organizations have a clear sense of purpose and direction that defines organizational goals and strategic objectives and expresses a vision of what the organization will look like in the*

future. The most troubled organizations are often those that have had to change their basic mission. When an organization's underlying mission changes, corresponding changes in strategy, structure, culture, and behavior are also required. In this situation, strong leadership is required to define a vision for the future and build a culture that will be measured by three indexes:

Strategic Direction and Intent. *Clear strategic intentions convey the organization's purpose and make it clear how everyone can contribute and "make their mark" on the industry.*

Goals and Objectives. *A clear set of goals and objectives can be linked to the mission, vision, and strategy, and provide everyone with a clear direction in their work.*

Vision. *The organization has a shared view of a desired future state. It embodies core values and captures the hearts and minds of the organization's people, while providing guidance and direction. " (Daniel Denison, June 2000). ⁴*

⁴ Denison, Daniel (2000) 'Organizational Culture: Can it be a Key Lever for Driving Organizational Change' p.9-11.

At the center of this model lies underlying beliefs and assumptions. The beliefs and assumptions about the organization may create a tightly knit logic that holds the organization together. Also this model presents the culture concept in a way that links managerial actions, cultural traits, and underlying assumptions into a framework based on research about what impacts performance. In addition to these factors, Denison's model forms the base for a diagnostic process that allows these traits to be measured and helps to point a clear picture of the culture of an organization that suggests some clear links to action. (*Organizational Culture: Can it be a Key Lever for Driving Organizational Change, Daniel Denison, June 2000*)

3.1 Methodology

Denison Organizational Survey is used as an instrument in attempting to identify basic cultural traits that are common in the Turkish Army. Although original survey consists of 60 statements that describe different aspects of an organization's culture and ways that organization's operate, the survey used in the research consists of 30 statements to describe only two cultural traits; involvement and mission, each of these traits measured with three component indexes, each of these indexes is measured with five survey items.

Subjects in the survey have not chosen randomly because of the difficulties in selecting and reaching the subjects. Therefore subjects have been selected from various parts of Turkey. Although this has put limitations on the research, nevertheless empirical and survey approach have been preferred. Because of the difficulties in contacting all the subjects, the people who have a master degree are chosen as representatives for the application of questionnaire. Then a meeting was held with the representatives. The main objective of this meeting was to give a general explanation about the study. Afterwards the representatives introduced and explained the questionnaire to the subjects. Finally the questionnaires are gathered and mailed by the representatives.

3.1.1 Reliability And Validity Of The Instrument

Hee-Jae Cho does the reliability and validity of the instrument. In the procedure four measurement models for each index (Involvement, Consistency, Adaptability, and Mission) are estimated separately. It is an item-level analysis; 15 items in each index were analysed to check whether three scales (3 latent constructs) were extracted from 15 items. As a first step,

the purpose was to identify the presence of latent constructs (scales) in the O.C questionnaire. It is to check “dimensionality” of the questionnaire.

Analysis methods: Factor analysis: exploratory factor analysis (factor loading tables) and confirmatory factor analysis (RMSEA and fit statistics) (*Hee-Jae Cho, 2000*)⁵.

3.2 Results Of The Survey

As noted before, each trait is measured by three index and also each index is measured by five survey items, which are averaged to produce an index score. The results are presented in two forms; firstly the results are presented in terms of quartile data , indicating that the organizations percentile score falls in the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, or 4th quartile in relationship to a database of nearly 120 person in the army as shown in following charts. The charts display scores in quartiles and percentiles, which compare an organization's score to the higher and lower-performing organizations in Denison's research. Third and fourth quartile scores are those generally found in higher-performing organizations.

⁵ Cho, Hee-Jae (2000) 'The Validity and Reliability of the Organizational Culture Questionnaire' p. 1-17

The second way that is used in the study presents some statistical information collected from the Denison corporate Culture Survey. Also the means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum scores for each index score can be seen in the following tables.

INVOLVEMENT

As shown in the model, involvement trait consists of three index: empowerment, team orientation and capability development.

Examination of the culture profile of the Army personnel reveals some key factors which are assumed to be important in analyzing culture. All of the measures of Involvement are a little poorer than the measures of Mission.

Empowerment falls in the third quartile like the other involvement indexes, showing a strength in including the personnel in decision making process. Greater involvement in workplace decisions is a good example of an effective management. The average of the empowerment score is 3,1 which is grater than the team-orientation but lower than capability development. Since the standard deviation of

empowerment is 0,5 ,higher than the others, means there is inconsistency between items studied in the survey.

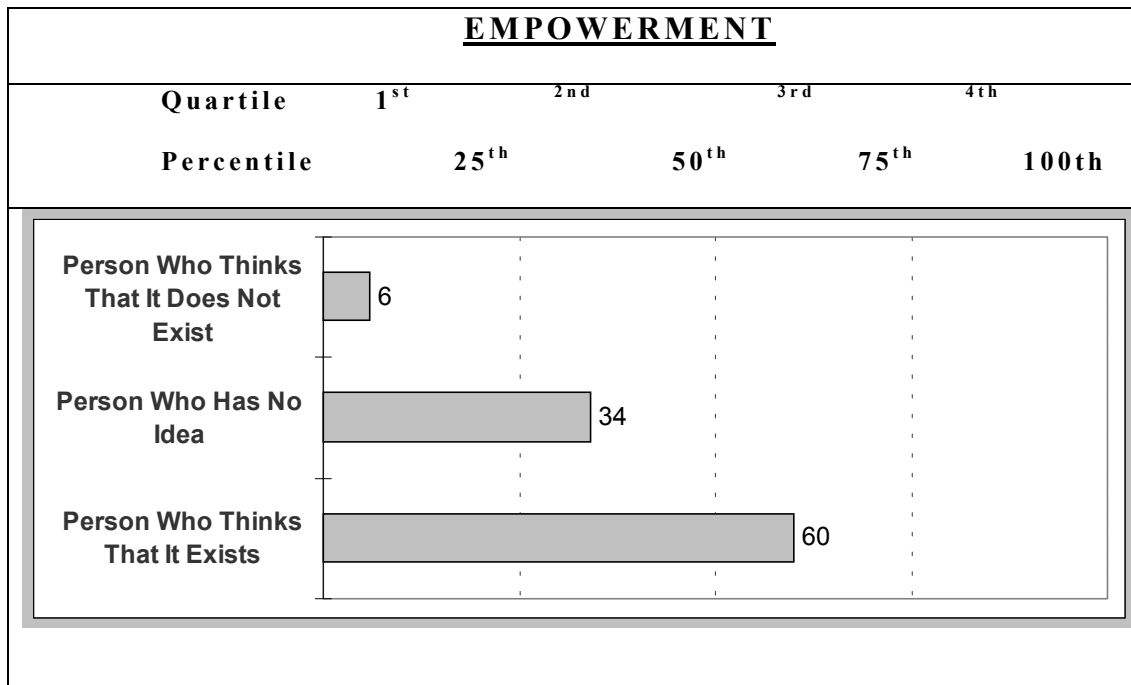


Chart 1: Percentage of The Results Based On Empowerment Index

<u>Empowerment</u>	<u>Scores</u>
Mean	3,108
Standard Deviation	0,52
Minimum	2,4
Maximum	3,8

Table 2: Summaries Of Empowerment Index

Team-Orientation falls in the third quartile, showing strength in working cooperatively toward common goals. The

average of the team-orientation score is 3,05, lower than both the scores of empowerment and capability development.

Another factor in team-orientation index is the high number of people who thinks that it doesn't exist, which falls in the first quartile. Contrary to empowerment index, standard deviation of team-orientation is 0,25, lower than both empowerment and capability development, means there is consistency between survey items. Difference between minimum and maximum scores are not as high as the others, means stability in answers.

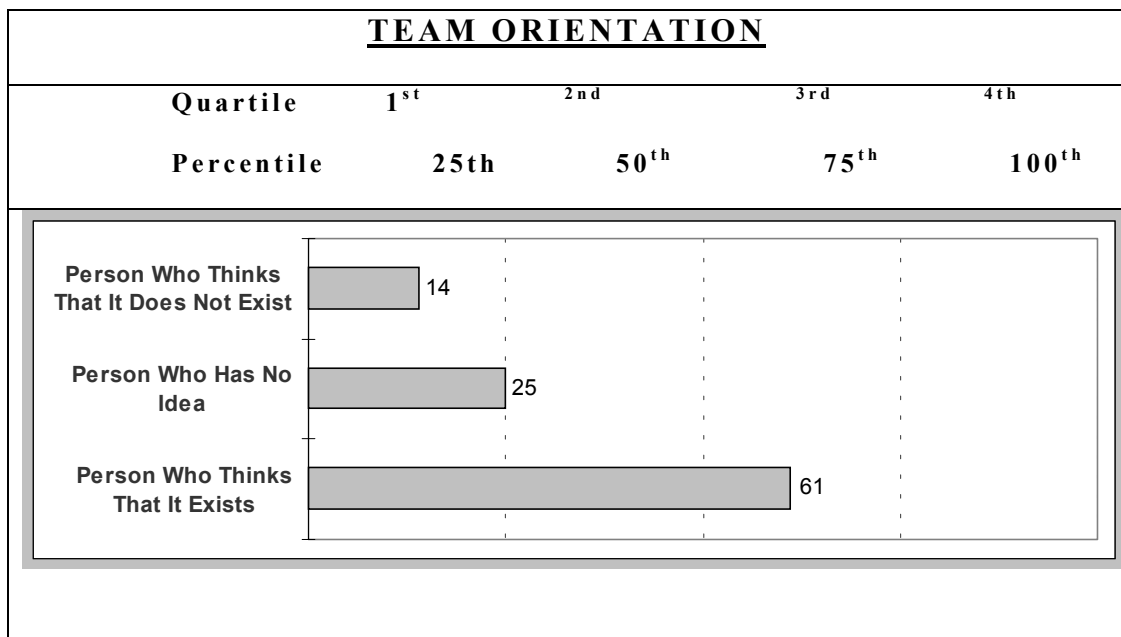


Chart 2: Percentage of The Results Based On Team Orientation Index

<u>Team Orientation</u>	<u>Scores</u>
Mean	3,05
Standard Deviation	0,25
Minimum	2,6
Maximum	3,2

Table 3: Summaries Of Team Orientation Index

Capability Development falls in the third quartile like all other involvement indexes, showing much more strength in investing the human. The average score is 3,31, highest among the involvement indexes, means a human oriented organization. Since the standard deviation 0,33, a little high, means different scores in various survey items.

The number of people who think that it does not exist is very low that means a strong confidence toward the organization. Maximum score, which is 3,8, is a good indicator of development in the army personnel.

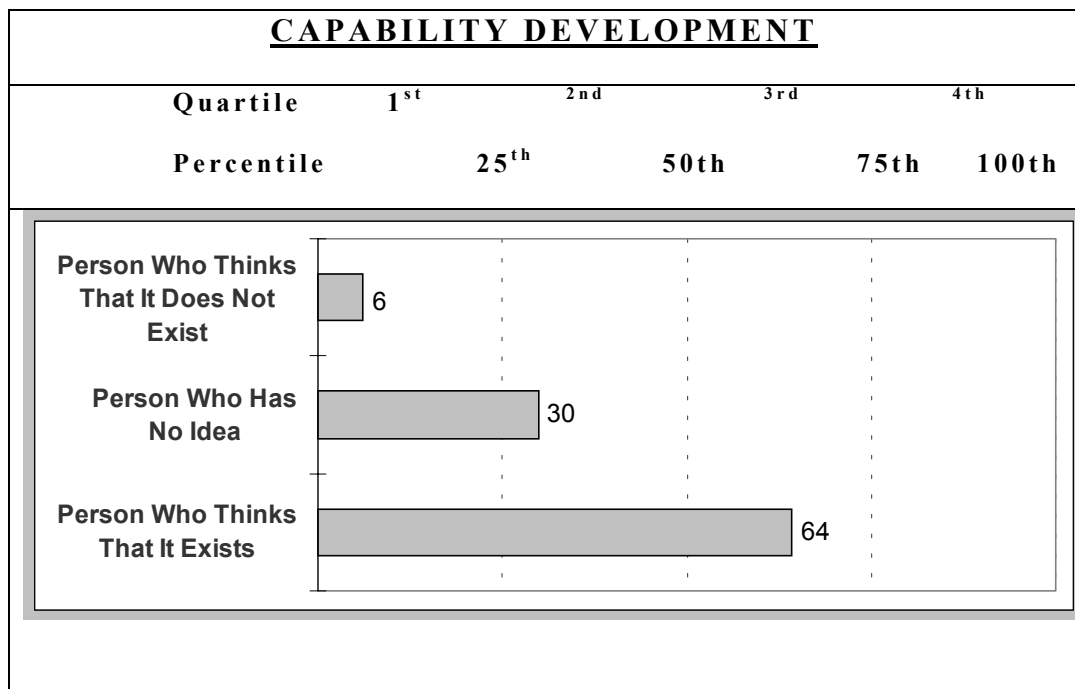


Chart 3: Percentage of The Results Based On Capability Development Index

<u>Capability Development</u>	<u>Scores</u>
Mean	3,31
Standard Deviation	0,33
Minimum	2,9
Maximum	3,8

Table 4: Summaries Of Capability Development Index

The Table 5 presents the general evaluation of the indexes used in analyzing the Involvement Trait.

<u>INVOLVEMENT</u>	<u>Scores</u>
Mean	3,16
Standard Deviation	0,13
Minimum	3,05
Maximum	3,3

Table 5: Summaries Of Involvement Trait

MISSION

All of the measures of Mission trait, which is assumed to be most important among the four cultural traits, is higher than the measures of Involvement.

Strategic-Direction falls in the fourth quartile, showing strength in conveying the organizations purposes. The average of the strategic-direction score is 3,43 , highest among the all indexes used in the survey, clarifies the high level of understanding of the organizational goals. Since the standard deviation , 0,58 , is high comparing to other scores of Mission indexes , means inconsistency between the items used in the survey.

Also the number of people both thinks that it does not exist and has no idea is very low with respect to other index scores.

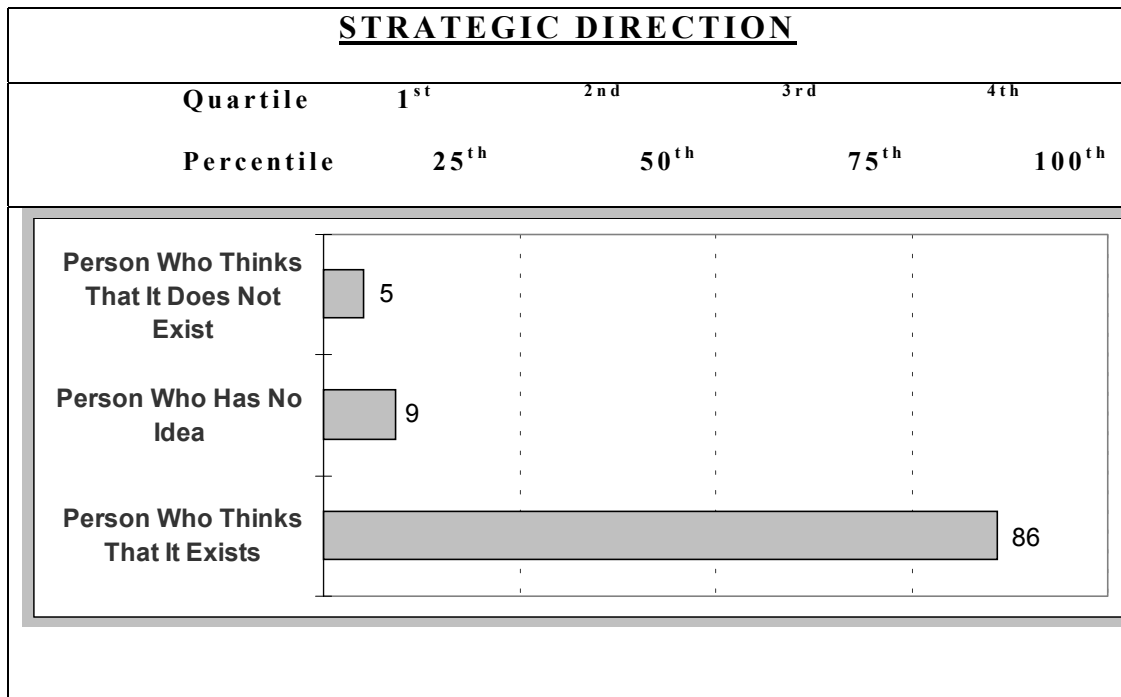


Chart 4: Percentage of The Results Based On Strategic Direction Index

<u>STRATEGIC DIRECTION</u>	<u>Scores</u>
Mean	3,43
Standard Deviation	0,58
Minimum	2,4
Maximum	3,8

Table 6: Summaries Of Strategic Direction Index

Goals and Objectives falls in the third quartile showing strength in establishing a clear set of goals and objectives. The average of the goals and objectives score is 3,01 , lower than strategic direction but higher than vision, means everyone in the army has a clear direction toward the Army’s goals. Standard deviation of goals and objectives index is 0,25 , which is assumed to be low with respect to other index scores.

The number of people who thinks that it does not exist is higher than the strategic direction that means there should be some developments in the area.

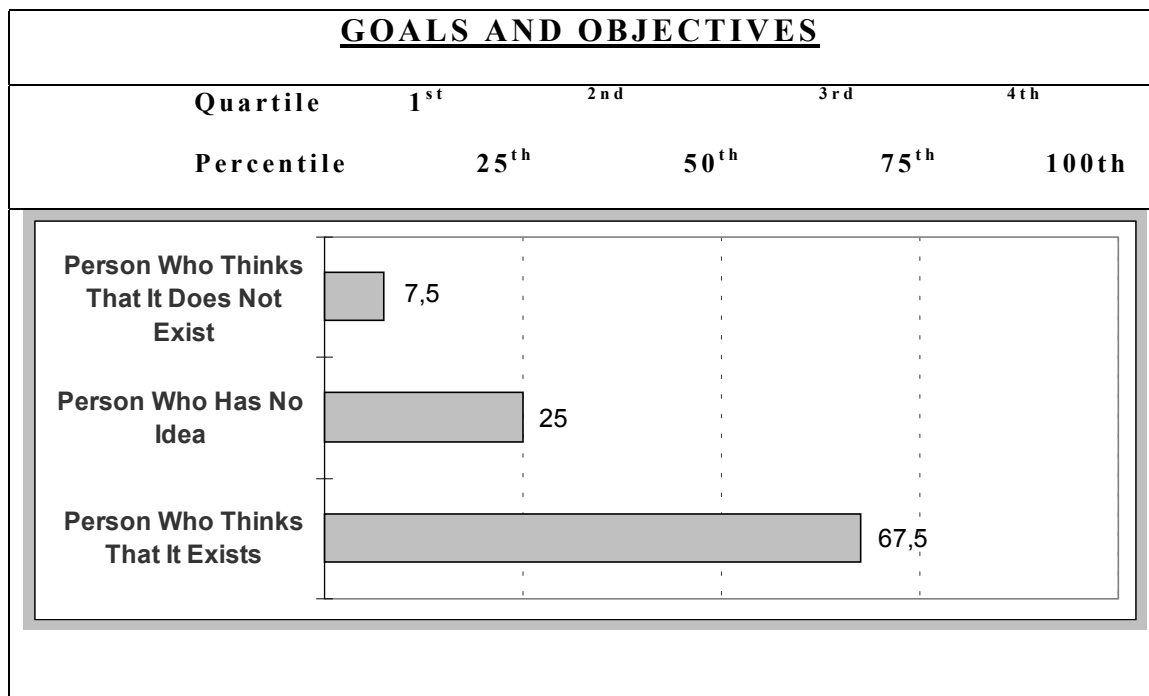


Chart 5: Percentage of The Results Based On Goals Ands Objectives Index

<u>Goals And Objectives</u>	<u>Scores</u>
Mean	3,01
Standard Deviation	0,25
Minimum	2,7
Maximum	3,3

Table 7: Summaries Of Goals And Objectives Index

Vision falls in the third quartile showing a little strength in sharing the view of a future state. Although it falls in the third quartile, has a score of 2,84 , is the lowest among the all indexes used in the survey. But contrary to all other indexes, the standard deviation of the vision index is 0,13 , assumed to be lowest among all other indexes, means consistency between the items used in the survey.

Also the number of people who thinks that it does not exist is a little high, means that there should be some developments in this area.

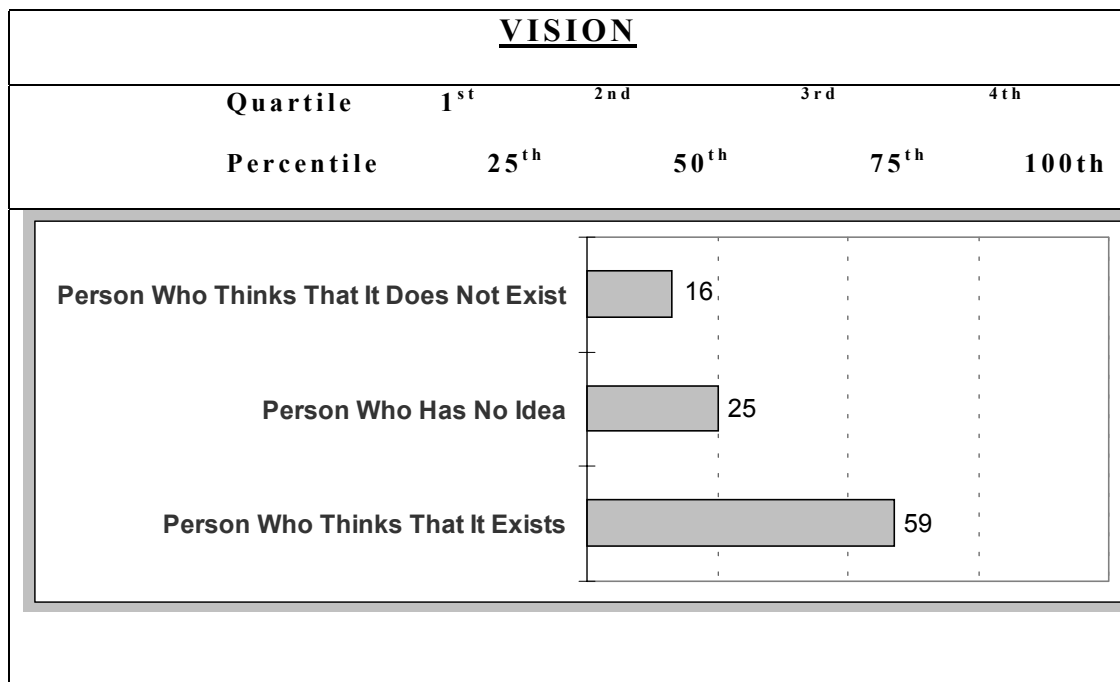


Chart 6: Percentage of The Results Based On Vision Index

<u>Vision</u>	<u>Scores</u>
Mean	2,84
Standard Deviation	0,13
Minimum	2,6
Maximum	2,9

Table 8: Summaries Of Vision Index

The table 13 presents the general evaluation of the indexes used in analyzing the Mission trait.

<u>MISSION</u>	<u>Scores</u>
Mean	3,09
Standard Deviation	0,32
Minimum	2,8
Maximum	3,4

Table 9: Summaries Of Mission Trait

CHAPTER 4

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The term 'organizational culture' has been defined in several different ways. There is no fully accepted definition. Variation in definitions stems from the variation in purpose. Alvesson (1993) said that this variation is a result of fact that organizational culture is studied by researchers from various disciplines -for example, management, communication, sociology, psychology, anthropology, and folklore- and with research orientations ranging from the positivistic to the interpretive and the post-modernist.

However, most of these studies on organizational culture have emphasized the importance of values and beliefs in an organization's social system. The topics studied in the area generally about the ways in which organizations develop and maintain these central values and the behaviors that accompany them (*Sathe 1983, Schein 1985, Louis 1980*).

Schein's model of organizational culture is a good example of that approach in which basic assumptions and beliefs lie at

the core of an organization. But linking these underlying assumptions and beliefs with the management practices is often neglected. As explained in previous chapters, Schein's model tended to emphasize the search for understanding at the cognitive level and de-emphasize the more visible levels of culture. But this model neglected more visible levels of culture in which it is mainly related to organizational culture and effectiveness.

In this work Denison's model has been examined. The model has the following characteristics:

- Behaviorally based
- Designed and created within the business environment
- Business language used to explore business-level issues
- Linked to bottom-line business results
- Fast and easy to implement
- Applicable to all levels of the organization

In the light of these factors, Denison's model has been used in the research to study the culture of Turkish Army.

The Army personnel seem to have a significant preference for the stability in which Mission indexes have higher scores than the Involvement. The most important cultural trait of Denison's model is Mission that enables an organization to have a clear sense of purpose and direction.

In relation to high scores of Mission, it can be said that a strong leadership exists in Army. As noted before, culture is a prerequisite to implement an effective strategy. So high score of strategic direction reveals the fact that Army personnel know how to contribute and "mark their mark" on the organization.

One way of reaching the desired level for a successful organization is to combine personal and organizational goal settings in the same direction. Although Score of goals and objectives is satisfactory to link the set of goals and objectives with mission, vision, and strategy, number of people who has no idea is quite high. So personal and organizational goal settings can be combined with a strong communication for a higher levels of achievement.

High score of Mission reveals that the Army applies future perfect thinking. That feature displays that Army can shape current behavior of its personnel by envisioning a desired

future state. But quite high number of people who thinks that it does not exist and have no idea reveals that there should be some developments in establishing long-term goals.

The Involvement hypothesis argues that a high level of Involvement establishes a sense of ownership and responsibility. Scores of Involvement shows that Army personnel committed to organization and there is a lesser need for an overt control system.

The Army's policy of empowering their members is a requisite for doing military missions effectively. But, there exist some limitations on the personnel because of the characteristics of Army. So the current level of empowerment seems to be satisfactory to participate the personnel in decision-making and to manage their own work.

To the degree that high involvement exists within the Army it can be said that value is placed on working cooperatively toward common goals. Although it seems to have a high level of score, there may be some future steps in increasing teamwork capability of the Army by transferring successful stories of older personnel to the young person.

Army's long tradition of trying to invest to human resource undoubtedly contributed a high level of involvement among the members of Army. Formal or informal systems of education expose internal competition to develop ones skills.

Finally this research hopefully could be used to identify the cultural characteristics and management practices of the Turkish Army. Clearly more research is needed to explore the effects of culture on the organization, as an example the culture and performance relation. The prerequisite of all this efforts is to understand the cultural characteristics of the organization.

The research provides clues for assessing the current culture of Army, which can be defined as participative, and having a strong sense of Mission. The importance of culture in organizations is well known. In this regard, it is hoped that the results of survey could be beneficial in analyzing a well-known organization as a model.

Appendix A

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

SORULAR

(Involvement)

Empowerment

1. Personelin birçoęu yaptıkları işlerle çok ilgilidir.

- A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
- B. Genelde katılmıyorum
- C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
- D. Genelde katılıyorum
- E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum

2. Kararlar genelde konuyla ilgili bilgiye sahip olanlar tarafından verilir

- A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
- B. Genelde katılmıyorum
- C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
- D. Genelde katılıyorum
- E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum

3. Bilgiler tamamıyla bütün personel tarafından paylaşılır ve ihtiyaç duyan personel bilgiye kolayca ulaşabilir(gizli nitelikli bilgi ve durumlar hariç).

- A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
- B. Genelde katılmıyorum
- C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
- D. Genelde katılıyorum
- E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum

4. Bütün personel orduya olumlu bir katkısı olduğuna inanır.

- A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
- B. Genelde katılmıyorum
- C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
- D. Genelde katılıyorum
- E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum

5. Görevler planlanırken genelde bütün personelin fikri alınır.

- A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
- B. Genelde katılmıyorum
- C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
- D. Genelde katılıyorum
- E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum

Team Orientation

1.Ordunun bütün kademelerinde işbirliği yapmak teşvik edilir.

- A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
- B. Genelde katılmıyorum
- C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
- D. Genelde katılıyorum
- E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum

2. Personel takım ruhu içerisinde çalışır.

- A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
- B. Genelde katılmıyorum
- C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
- D. Genelde katılıyorum
- E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum

3. İş sonuçlandırmada takım uygulaması kullanılır (yani üst yönetimin müdahalesine gerek kalmaz).

- A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
- B. Genelde katılmıyorum
- C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
- D. Genelde katılıyorum
- E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum

4. Çalışma grupları ordunun temel taşıdır.

- A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
- B. Genelde katılmıyorum
- C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
- D. Genelde katılıyorum
- E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum

5. Ordunun amaçları ile personelin amaçları arasında paralellik vardır.

- A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
- B. Genelde katılmıyorum
- C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
- D. Genelde katılıyorum
- E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum

Capability Development

1. Yetki devri olduğundan dolayı personel gerektiğinde kendi kararlarını verebilir.
 - A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
 - B. Genelde katılmıyorum
 - C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
 - D. Genelde katılıyorum
 - E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum
2. Personelin yetenekleri devamlı olarak gelişmektedir.
 - A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
 - B. Genelde katılmıyorum
 - C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
 - D. Genelde katılıyorum
 - E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum
3. Personelin yeteneklerinin geliştirilmesi için devamlı olarak çalışmalar yapılmaktadır.
 - A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
 - B. Genelde katılmıyorum
 - C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
 - D. Genelde katılıyorum
 - E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum
4. Personelin yetenekleri Ordunun gelişmesi için önemli bir vasıta olarak görülmektedir.
 - A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
 - B. Genelde katılmıyorum
 - C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
 - D. Genelde katılıyorum
 - E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum
5. Görevleri başarıyla yapmak için gerekli kabiliyete sahip olmadığımız zaman genelde problemlerle karşılaşırız.
 - A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
 - B. Genelde katılmıyorum
 - C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
 - D. Genelde katılıyorum
 - E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum

(Mission)

Strategic Direction

1. Orduda ileriye yönelik amaç ve yönelimler mevcuttur.
 - A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
 - B. Genelde katılmıyorum
 - C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
 - D. Genelde katılıyorum
 - E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum
2. Birlikler daha başarılı olmak için diğer birliklerin olumlu taraflarını taklit ederler.
 - A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
 - B. Genelde katılmıyorum
 - C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
 - D. Genelde katılıyorum
 - E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum
3. Yaptığımız işleri anlamlı kılan belirlenmiş görevler vardır.
 - A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
 - B. Genelde katılmıyorum
 - C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
 - D. Genelde katılıyorum
 - E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum
4. Orduda geleceğe yönelik stratejiler mevcuttur.
 - A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
 - B. Genelde katılmıyorum
 - C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
 - D. Genelde katılıyorum
 - E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum
5. Ben geleceğe yönelik stratejileri anlamıyorum.
 - A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
 - B. Genelde katılmıyorum
 - C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
 - D. Genelde katılıyorum
 - E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum

Goals And Objectives

1. Amaçlar hakkında genelde fikir birliği vardır.
 - A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
 - B. Genelde katılmıyorum
 - C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
 - D. Genelde katılıyorum
 - E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum
2. Komutanlar iddialı fakat gerçekçi amaçlar ortaya koyarlar.
 - A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
 - B. Genelde katılmıyorum
 - C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
 - D. Genelde katılıyorum
 - E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum
3. Komutanlar ulaşmaya çalıştığımız amaçlara genelde dikkat etmezler.
 - A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
 - B. Genelde katılmıyorum
 - C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
 - D. Genelde katılıyorum
 - E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum
4. Amaçlara ulaşmak için devamlı gelişim gösteririz.
 - A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
 - B. Genelde katılmıyorum
 - C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
 - D. Genelde katılıyorum
 - E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum
5. Personel uzun vadede başarılı olmak için ne yapılması gerektiğini bilir.
 - A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
 - B. Genelde katılmıyorum
 - C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
 - D. Genelde katılıyorum
 - E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum

Vision

1. Personel ordunun gelecekte nasıl olacağına dair yeterli vizyona sahiptir.
 - A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
 - B. Genelde katılmıyorum
 - C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
 - D. Genelde katılıyorum
 - E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum
2. Komutanlar uzun döneme ilişkin görüşlere sahiptir.
 - A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
 - B. Genelde katılmıyorum
 - C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
 - D. Genelde katılıyorum
 - E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum
3. Genelde kısa dönemli görüşlü uzun süreli amaçlarla uzlaşır.
 - A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
 - B. Genelde katılmıyorum
 - C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
 - D. Genelde katılıyorum
 - E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum
4. Genelde kısa dönemli amaçlarımızı karşılamak için vizyonumuza ters davranışlar sergileyemeyiz.
 - A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
 - B. Genelde katılmıyorum
 - C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
 - D. Genelde katılıyorum
 - E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum
5. Ordunun vizyonu personel arasında ilgi ve heyecan uyandırır.
 - A. Tamamıyla katılmıyorum
 - B. Genelde katılmıyorum
 - C. Herhangi bir fikrim yok
 - D. Genelde katılıyorum
 - E. Tamamıyla katılıyorum

Appendix B

General Statistical Results

INVOLVEMENT

A. Empowerment

Question 1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	8	7,0	7,0	7,0
2,00	39	34,2	34,2	41,2
3,00	6	2,6	2,6	43,9
4,00	47	41,2	41,2	85,1
5,00	20	14,9	14,9	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 2

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	21	18,4	18,4	18,4
2,00	35	30,7	30,7	49,1
3,00	14	9,6	9,6	58,8
4,00	35	30,7	30,7	89,5
5,00	15	10,5	10,5	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 3

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	10	8,8	8,8	8,8
2,00	36	31,6	31,6	40,4
3,00	11	7,0	7,0	47,4
4,00	39	34,2	34,2	81,6
5,00	24	18,4	18,4	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 4

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	5	4,4	4,4	4,4
2,00	16	14,0	14,0	18,4
3,00	11	7,0	7,0	25,4
4,00	49	43,0	43,0	68,4
5,00	39	31,6	31,6	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 5

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	25	21,9	21,9	21,9
2,00	51	44,7	44,7	66,7
3,00	11	7,0	7,0	73,7
4,00	25	21,9	21,9	95,6
5,00	8	4,4	4,4	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Empowerment	120	2,4	3,8	3,108	0,52

B. Team Orientation

Question 1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	12	10,5	10,5	10,5
2,00	29	25,4	25,4	36,0
3,00	23	17,5	17,5	53,5
4,00	40	35,1	35,1	88,6
5,00	16	11,4	11,4	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 2

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	13	11,4	11,4	11,4
2,00	31	27,2	27,2	38,6
3,00	7	3,5	3,5	42,1
4,00	45	39,5	39,5	81,6
5,00	24	18,4	18,4	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 3

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	24	21,1	21,1	21,1
2,00	39	34,2	34,2	55,3
3,00	14	9,6	9,6	64,9
4,00	33	28,9	28,9	93,9
5,00	10	6,1	6,1	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 4

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	16	14,0	14,0	14,0
2,00	23	17,5	17,5	31,6
3,00	23	20,2	20,2	51,8
4,00	30	23,7	23,7	75,4
5,00	28	24,6	24,6	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 5

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	21	18,4	18,4	18,4
2,00	29	25,4	25,4	43,9
3,00	12	7,9	7,9	51,8
4,00	44	36,0	36,0	87,7
5,00	14	12,3	12,3	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Team Orientation	120	2,6	3,2	3,05	0,25

C. Capability development

Question 1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	13	11,4	11,4	11,4
2,00	40	35,1	35,1	46,5
3,00	14	9,6	9,6	56,1
4,00	40	35,1	35,1	91,2
5,00	13	8,8	8,8	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 2

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	15	13,2	13,2	13,2
2,00	34	29,8	29,8	43,0
3,00	14	9,6	9,6	52,6
4,00	28	24,6	24,6	77,2
5,00	29	22,8	22,8	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 3

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	17	14,9	14,9	14,9
2,00	24	21,1	21,1	36,0
3,00	15	10,5	10,5	46,5
4,00	43	37,7	37,7	84,2
5,00	21	15,8	15,8	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 4

	Frequency	Percent	ValidPercent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	10	8,8	8,8	8,8
2,00	24	21,1	21,1	29,8
3,00	11	7,0	7,0	36,8
4,00	42	36,8	36,8	73,7
5,00	33	26,3	26,3	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 5

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	13	11,4	11,4	11,4
2,00	14	12,3	12,3	23,7
3,00	7	3,5	3,5	27,2
4,00	38	30,7	30,7	57,9
5,00	48	42,1	42,1	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Capability Development	120	2,9	3,8	3,31	0,33

MISSION

D. Strategic Direction

Question 1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	10	7,9	7,9	7,9
2,00	10	7,9	7,9	15,8
3,00	14	11,4	11,4	27,2
4,00	48	41,2	41,2	68,4
5,00	38	31,6	31,6	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 2

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	9	6,1	6,1	6,1
2,00	16	13,2	13,2	19,3
3,00	12	9,6	9,6	28,9
4,00	45	38,6	38,6	67,5
5,00	38	32,5	32,5	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 3

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	11	7,9	7,9	7,9
2,00	20	16,7	16,7	24,6
3,00	13	10,5	10,5	35,1
4,00	50	43,0	43,0	78,1
5,00	26	21,9	21,9	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 4

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	13	9,6	9,6	9,6
2,00	15	12,3	12,3	21,9
3,00	17	14,0	14,0	36,0
4,00	36	30,7	30,7	66,7
5,00	39	33,3	33,3	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 5

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	37	31,3	31,6	31,6
2,00	33	27,8	28,1	59,6
3,00	18	14,8	14,9	74,6
4,00	23	19,1	19,3	93,9
5,00	9	6,1	6,1	100,0
Total	120	100	100,0	

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Strategic Direction	120	2,4	3,8	3,43	0,58

E. Goals And Objectives

Question 1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	21	16,7	16,7	16,7
2,00	31	26,3	26,3	43,0
3,00	16	13,2	13,2	56,1
4,00	39	33,3	33,3	89,5
5,00	13	10,5	10,5	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 2

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	22	17,5	17,5	17,5
2,00	39	33,3	33,3	50,9
3,00	14	11,4	11,4	62,3
4,00	35	29,8	29,8	92,1
5,00	10	7,9	7,9	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 3

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	17	14,0	14,0	14,0
2,00	46	39,5	39,5	53,5
3,00	9	7,0	7,0	60,5
4,00	34	28,9	28,9	89,5
5,00	14	10,5	10,5	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 4

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	11	8,8	8,8	8,8
2,00	25	21,1	21,1	29,8
3,00	10	7,9	7,9	37,7
4,00	55	47,4	47,4	85,1
5,00	19	14,9	14,9	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 5

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	15	11,4	11,4	11,4
2,00	33	28,1	28,1	39,5
3,00	11	8,8	8,8	48,2
4,00	46	39,5	39,5	87,7
5,00	15	12,3	12,3	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Goals And Objectives	120	3,3	3,01	0,25	

F. Vision

Question 1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	20	16,7	16,7	16,7
2,00	35	29,8	29,8	46,5
3,00	16	12,3	12,3	58,8
4,00	37	31,6	31,6	90,4
5,00	12	9,6	9,6	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 2

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	19	15,8	15,8	15,8
2,00	29	24,6	24,6	40,4
3,00	19	15,8	15,8	56,1
4,00	39	33,3	33,3	89,5
5,00	14	10,5	10,5	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 3

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	35	28,9	28,9	28,9
2,00	25	21,1	21,1	50,0
3,00	17	14,0	14,0	64,0
4,00	35	29,8	29,8	93,9
5,00	8	6,1	6,1	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 4

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	28	22,8	22,8	22,8
2,00	30	25,4	25,4	48,2
3,00	18	14,9	14,9	63,2
4,00	29	24,6	24,6	87,7
5,00	15	12,3	12,3	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Question 5

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	19	15,8	15,8	15,8
2,00	32	27,2	27,2	43,0
3,00	21	17,5	17,5	60,5
4,00	31	26,3	26,3	86,8
5,00	17	13,2	13,2	100,0
Total	120	100,0	100,0	

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Vision	120	2,6	2,9	2,84	0,13

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