ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND CHANGE

Assessing Impact In British Higher Education

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Declaration of Author's Rights

"A counterfeit coin is still a coin, though we mistake its nature and its value. Those who are deceived may blame it, but the coin is what it is, no more, no less."

[Eaton, 1990]

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the efforts of British university management to cope with the rapid environmental change experienced during the past fifteen years. Central to these efforts has been the attempt to adopt a more business like approach to management and to inculcate a customer oriented culture amongst staff through training and development.

This study explores key assumptions underlying this strategy of change. First, that organization cultures can indeed be managed by development and training initiatives. Second and more specifically, that training can produce the desired attitude towards customers. To do this, the literature on organization culture and change was critically reviewed to establish both a theoretical and empirical bases for the present study. From the review the operational definition of "culture as meaning" was developed and a distinctively eclectic methodological approach was created. Also an additional hypothesis was added, namely that research and instrument design crucially influence the recorded change in attitude and culture indicated by previous studies, that is, the apparent success of intervention was a function of the mode of measurement adopted.

The results of the study indicate that, if measurement effects are controlled for, training has no systematic impact at all on attitudes. The key influence on attitude is the total experience of working within a particular organization (the "being there" factor), and that only a holistic approach to organizational development would be feasible. Ad hoc initiatives cannot bring about the desired change.

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INTRODUCTION

The assumption that training can have a significant impact on employee attitudes and behaviours has resulted in large amounts of money being invested by universities in training and development programmes. Three key questions related to the stated assumption are: Why are organizations implementing training programmes? Does training really have an impact on employee attitudes and behaviours? If training does have an impact on attitudes and behaviours, then how should the impact be assessed and measured?

The answer to the question of why universities in the United Kingdom have invested so much money in training lies in the changes that have been occurring within the British public sector.

Due to increasing external pressures and new challenges, the British government has tried to change the management and administration of public organizations to encourage them to become more business oriented in approach. As such, the Thatcher government reduced direct taxation, government subsidies and financial support to industry and to public sector institutions. Privatisation of much of the public sector was implemented through competitive tendering and through the sale of public assets.

The "new public management" approach under the reign of the Thatcher government aimed to redirect the thinking of public servants away from a bureaucratic orientation towards a more market oriented approach. It may be argued at this juncture that the stated goal was one that may be described as a cultural shift in public sector management. It is within such a context that training and development takes place in the public sector. In the light of the "new public management," universities have implemented training programmes, particularly for their central administrative staff as part of their attempt to adjust to the new conditions. In attempts to achieve a cultural shift in the public sector, organizations have invested in training and development as a means to organizational change, the presumption being that training and development can change attitudes and behaviours. The rationale used for such a strategy may be explained by the fact that the public service needs to transform its management from being production oriented to being more market oriented. This is necessary because the ability to adapt to an uncertain and changing environment that is no longer stable or slow changing becomes critical. Thus the role of training and development is to "convert" the mentality of the public servant from one that is bureaucratic–production oriented to a more customer and business orientation. The demands made upon universities from the different stakeholders including government and politicians, the public and of course students make the whole business of managing a university complex and difficult.

One of the themes that has evolved as a consequence of changes in the environment as well as from government intervention is that of customer care and consumerism, but applying the customer concept to the public sector is not an easy and clear cut process. Nevertheless, universities have had increasingly to perceive the users of their service as customers rather than clients. The popular management acceptance of the need for "customer care" has resulted in many universities adopting and implementing customer care training for their staff as part of their attempt to face the challenges in the 1990s.

Given the context within which training has taken place in universities, a key interest in the present thesis is to explore the question of whether training does have an impact at all. If training does have an impact, then another related question is that what level of impact does training have? Training may have an impact at the level of behavioural changes or even at more fundamental level of values, beliefs and attitudes. The whole notion of a cultural shift requires that we discuss of the issues surrounding culture management.

The claims made for the role of training in managing organizational change draws upon literature on corporate culture because those who assert that attitudes and behaviours can be altered through training and development often openly invoke the concept of organizational culture. The notion of corporate culture has received considerable attention from organizational theorists due to the presumption that corporate culture has an impact on organizational effectiveness. Managers have therefore resorted to Organizational Development (OD) methods to achieve changes in organizational culture and performance. Such approaches lead us to the second interest of the present study which deals with the question of how to measure the impact of training on attitudes.

This study uses a questionnaire in an attempt to measure any changes in attitudes arise from training programmes, particularly those in "customer care". Based on the literature, it may be said that researchers in the "culture as variable" camp have been the advocates of the use of the survey method and have systematically attempted to measure the culture concept using such an approach. However, the questionnaire instrument used in many of these studies tends to give misleading results. In addition, few empirical studies have examined the impact of training programmes on employee attitudes and behaviour (Miller, 1990). This lack of empirical work in the literature is surprising considering the widespread interest in corporate culture and the large amounts of money invested in training programmes by organizations. If the objective of training and development is to change employee attitudes, then management would need to find methods to measure such changes. In order to do this, organizations need instruments that are designed to tap employee attitudes within the organization. The question of measurement is essentially the second issue of interest of the present study.

In view of the above problem, the present study adopted an eclectic approach in constructing the questionnaire. The argument presented in the thesis is that culture, conceptualized as meaning, may be captured through unobtrusive instrument design. The assumed axiomatic relationship between theoretical concept and method is questioned, based on the argument that the relationship is historical and contingent rather than axiomatic. The present study adopts a sceptical view on the use of discrete questions to "measure" the culture construct. The holistic nature of culture makes it inappropriate to use such approach to measurement.

In attempts to answer the question of whether training has an impact on attitudes, possible intervening variables have been taken into account. First, training as a potential influential factor is considered. The second set of factors may be understood as the cultural context of the employee's work place. In other words, the employee's experience of leadership style, communication processes, procedures and the like may affect attitudes. The third set of factors are biographical such as age, sex, level of education and so on. Through the process of eliminating all possible intervening factors, the question of whether training has a significant impact on attitudes is explored.

The thesis is structured into four main parts. Part I consists of chapters 1 and 2. Chapter 1 provides contextual material on the public sector and higher education environment, while chapter 2 takes a closer look at the popular literature on the notion of organizational culture.

Part II is made up of chapters 3, 4, and 5. Chapter 3 looks at the theoretical and conceptual issues that concern systems perspective and OD programmes, as well as the extent to which systems theory has influenced OD practices. Chapter 4 reviews the literature on climate studies in order to illustrate the point that these studies are methodologically driven with a practical orientation. Chapter 5 reviews the "root metaphor" perspective of culture.

Part III, covered by chapters 6 and 7, discusses the actual research itself. Chapter 6 looks at methodological issues, while chapter 7 concerns data analysis.

Part IV, consisting of Chapter 8, is about our conclusions from the findings of the present study.

CHAPTER 1

The widespread adoption of customer care training among staff (especially administrative staff) in British universities is one indicator of attempts to change the beliefs and attitudes of staff in universities in the past ten years. In a survey conducted for the purposes of this study 60.6% of universities stated that some form of customer care training had been implemented. Of course the implementation of customer care training is only one aspect of a wider agenda of change in British universities and account must be taken of the contextual factors which provide both the backdrop and, in some cases, the impetus for change.

A brief account of factors which influence the university environment will help explain the contextual climate within which universities now operate. It may be said that the election of the Conservative government in 1979 led to a number of changes being imposed on universities, the major factor being the post 1981 cuts in government funding. The higher education environment thus became more turbulent and unpredictable. Pressures from the external environment that puts constraints on universities include not only governmental bodies such as the Parliament, government, Department of Education and Science, and so forth, but also non-governmental forces like public opinion, professions, peer groups, and other societal factors. Having to cope with insufficient funds, universities have had to adopt new business and market approaches in obtaining its finances. In the process of implementing these market-oriented strategies, universities have found it necessary to inculcate a more service-oriented culture. An awareness of the importance of the consumer caught on as the use of the term "consumerism" became in vogue. It may be argued that this new awareness amongst university management was not a coincidence, but was a consequence of a deliberate attempt on part of the Conservative government to change the values and attitudes of British society in order to overcome long term economic decline.

Broadly speaking, governmental policies affecting universities occurred as part of the general strategy to revive the British economy. The impetus for change initiated by the Thatcher government was a response to global events which changed the world radically. In particular, economic changes such as the dominance of the Japanese and present rise of the Far Eastern countries in world markets, followed by the decline of Western industries had a great impact on Thatcherism. The turnaround strategy for the British economy was based on the belief at governmental level that the public sector had to be reformed and that public spending has to diminish as a proportion of national expenditure. In other words, governmental perception was that improving the public sector and reducing its role was a prerequisite for the revival of the private sector.

Economic changes in the international arena paralleled the reconstruction of the United Kingdom public sector. Underlying the ideology of the Thatcherite government basically were key values namely individualism, personal freedom and inequality (Farnham and Horton, 1993). The view was that the role of government and politics should be minimal so as to allow market forces to produce and distribute goods and services in society. In addition the market would be an institutional mechanism for social control and organization. Markets, therefore, were perceived as the key force in facilitating economic wealth through the efficient allocation of scarce resources, thus providing greater choices to both consumers and producers in their own welfare decisions. In short, the new Conservative government aimed at creating an enterprise culture in its overall attempt to turnaround the British economy.

The above agenda sets the context within which the new public management or new managerialism came to pervade both the private and public sectors. Pollitt (1990) defined managerialism "as a set of beliefs and practices, at the core of which burns the seldom-tested assumption that better management will prove an effective solvent for wide range of economic and social ills" (p. 1). Within the private sector, the rise of the new managerialism has been largely market driven. New market conditions increased competition with European and other countries. This was achieved through the opening up of the British manufacturing industry to foreign competition and to deregulating financial services. However, in the public sector, the growth of managerialism was politically driven. The key underpinning understanding was that the model used in the private sector was viewed as being superior to that of public administration models. It was assumed that private sector economistic, rationalist and generic management approaches were more able to improve efficiency and quality of public service. Given such understanding, public organizations have imported private sector management practices and ideologies. In addition, the implication that accompanied this shift towards managerialism was the criticism that a bureaucratic, incrementalist and particularist managerial function could not improve public sector effectiveness and efficiency. Farnham and Horton (1993) listed four key changes that emerged within public services as a result of the thrust towards managerialism. First, public management has been gradually dominated by general managers, rather than professionals or specialist managers. Second, public management has become more objective driven as opposed to problem oriented. Third, public managers have adopted a more positive attitude towards change and have been more prepared to deal with it rather than resist change. Finally, the main concern for public managers seems to be the public rather than other stakeholders such as their own staff members.

Parallel to these changes in the public services is the idea that managing cultural change is one of the key responsibilities of the new general manager. This was partly due to the birth of the corporate culture concept in generic management that took place in America, it focused on the managing of culture, quality and excellence. Management literature soon became saturated with this new wave of cultural management propagated by managerial experts like Deal and Kennedy (1982), and Peters and Waterman (1982). Later in the nineteen-eighties, the concept of total quality management rooted in Japanese management became part of the whole notion of culture management.

Needless to say, the corporate culture concept caught on and found its way into British companies within the decade. In a process that may be described like an osmosis, the British public sector adopted these ideas; the assumption that changing values, beliefs and expectations of public service employees was necessary for the successful implementation of strategies and thus achievement of objectives was in play. The development of a new "public service ethos" was based on the emphasis of customer needs and doing what is right for the customer as opposed to that of the organization. This was supported and reinforced by the White Paper publication, The Citizen's Charter (Prime Minister's Office, 1991) which emphasized four themes namely quality, choice, standards and value. The aim of the publication was to deal primarily with standards of customer service provided to those using public service facilities. Quality of service thus became a key issue for the majority of public managers.

The UK Public Sector

The 1980s may be described as an era in which a process of convergence took place between the British public sector and the private sector. The impetus in the UK public sector started as a result of dissatisfaction about costs and level of quality of service. There were members of the Conservative party who felt that levels of public expenditure and size of the public sector should be reduced, this initiated the process of privatisation of the 1980s. One rationale which may explain the privatisation events was a belief that labour was "featherbedded" in much of the public sector and, as in the private sector, trade unions were far too powerful. The "winter of discontent" of 1978 and 1979, whereby various public service workers went on strike to demand for pay rises, may be said to be a widely accepted explanation for the election of Mrs. Margaret Thatcher's government.

One of the main priorities of the 1979 government was to reduce public expenditure. In efforts to achieve this, the strategy of privatising nationalised industries through the hiving off the public sector's various activities was implemented. The privatisation process resulted in the transfer of public sector services such as that of the telephone services (BT), gas (British Gas), the State owned airline (BA), electricity supply, and a number of other companies and agencies to private ownership.

The drive to reduce public expenditure also meant a series of cuts in actual or planned funding in a range of areas including that of Higher Education, and Health and Local Authority services. It was within such a context that the phrase "value for money" evolved particularly in the Local Authorities. The government argued that implementing such cuts need not result in reduced services as there was massive scope for efficiency. Through legislation, local authorities were to ensure that taxpayers and ratepayers received "value for money" by putting out various local authority services for public tender. If the tender submitted by a private sector contractor was lower than the local authority's in house bid, then the service would be provided by the private sector. A parallel process was taking place in the NHS.

As services were increasingly put out to tender, the emphasis of government policy evolved from that of simply improving efficiency and getting better "value for money," towards that of the superiority of markets in providing excellent quality of service. Consequently, by the end of the 1980's the language "customer oriented approach" or "culture" was being promoted in the various government departments. For instance, by 1991 the Department of Social Security staff were requested to use the term "customers" in place of claimants. However, applying the customer concept in the context of public sector is not an easy and clear cut process. This is so because the relationship between the government and general public is one that is varied and complex. To illustrate the complexity of the problem, we may take the example of the accident and emergency departments of hospitals. The "customers" of these departments usually have no choice in the selection of the particular emergency unit as the emergency services deliver them to the nearest and most accessible accident and emergency department that is available. Fast and responsive service is needed for the fluctuating demand. The main factor in influencing service design concerns operational matters which fulfil treatment requirements within scarce resources. This priority on operational requirements appears to conflict with conventional notion of customer–driven service. The design of a service around operational needs may create dependence on the part of the recipient and could lead to feelings of lost self esteem. "Customer orientation" would suggest that people ought to have a choice as to where they can get help. A "customer orientation" would also take into account the fact that people like to be treated with dignity. The fact remains, however, that fast response, medical skill and access to suitable facilities – all directly operational are far more important than a "customer oriented" atmosphere of service delivery if patients' lives are to be saved in emergency situations.

The task of public sector manager is one that is complex. For instance, advice on policy matters to both national and local politicians is a major part of the public sector manager's job. In this case, the minister or committee are the customers whom the public sector manager has to give advice to. These ministers or committees may not have any other source of advice apart from their political party or external experts. The main problem in service design in this case is the building of trust in the skills and ability of the advisors. In providing advice on policies, the manager has to make sure that the advice is politically acceptable and to an extent predictable. In many respects, the real "customers" of public sector managers are the politicians. These politicians make up the key constituents for the public service as they vote money and exercise political control. Managers who do not comply with the wishes of these politicians may be in a conflicting role, that is, having to please the politicians with one set of behaviours while having to deal with the users with another.

From the examples above, it can be clearly understood that the relationship between service providers and service users is not the same as that of a business firm and its customers. The first issue in service design is therefore concerned with determining who is the user of the service. The answer is not straight forward because in most cases the user is not a single person or group. An obvious case is the prison service whereby the service design has to satisfy magistrates and judges, the general public, the prison officers, the prisoners, the government and the civil servants in the Home Office. It may be said that given such circumstances, the demands of these different user groups will be in conflict with each other. In providing good service to users and in making work life more pleasant for staff, a social service department's budget may be overspent. So the problem in determining "who is the customer" in a public sector organization is a vexed question amongst all the parties involved. Nevertheless, the move towards a customer service has become inevitable for the public sector given the circumstances. The trend towards a customer service orientation was almost certainly derived from the high profile "customer care" programmes adopted by the newly privatised utilities, which needed to learn to cope with "culture change" from consultants, academics and business people.

One widely quoted example of the process of successful culture change may be seen in the privatisation of British Airways (BA). An analysis of the BA change was made by Goodstein and Burke (1991) based on Kurt Lewin's change model which will be discussed in detail in the final chapter. The BA case illustrates the point that privatisation was part of a wide approach by the British government to increase efficiency and reduce public spending. BA would no longer depend on public subsidy if it made a loss. In addition to savings in public finances, the Thatcher government believed that governments should not own businesses. At the same time, deregulation of international air traffic would lead to competition in fares and services and only private sector discipline would allow BA to become competitive. Goodstein and Burke (1991) therefore describe how BA embarked on major change programme that converted the BA culture from a "bureaucratic" and "militaristic" to one that is "service-oriented and market-driven". The essential point is that the process of privatisation inevitably involved organizational and cultural change. Other organizations including British Telecom, British Gas (energy), the power organizations have since been privatised.

The failure of the economic policy during the post-war period to generate economic growth at the same rate as Britain's economic competitors and the re-emergence of unemployment in the nineteen-seventies resulted in the public's lost of confidence and the breakdown of the "post-war consensus" (Flynn, 1990). In addition, Deakin (1987) argued that during the 1970s, new approaches to economic policy were adopted in efforts to refine the role of the State. The public's sceptical attitude towards state intervention that did not contribute to the overall macro economic balance and economic to growth objectives was widespread. The 1979 elected government had drastic plans of change in order to overcome these problems.

With the benefit of hindsight, the reforms may be identified as emerging from four major themes (Flynn, 1990):

1) Market mechanisms should be applied as far as possible even if circumstances do not allow for a fully free market to exist for services. For instance, in housing the practice has been changed from that of general subsidy towards "market" rents.

2) Competition should be encouraged between those who provide the service as well as those who consume or use it. The decision to opt out of state provision is another alternative that is available. Such a step should increase the competition between public providers and the private and voluntary sectors. Service providers cannot adopt a monopoly attitude of "take it or leave it" towards their customers. Competition should promote efficiency and customer orientation because those who are competitive will win customers. Through the 1988 Housing Act, for example the local housing authorities management have been put into direct competition with different landlords giving tenants the choice of landlords.

3) The idea of individualism and individual choice as opposed to collective decision-making is encouraged through the recognition that the concept of a collective society is non-existent. Such an understanding has given parents the

freedom to choose the schools they wish to enrol their children in, the individual's right to purchase a council home and the like.

4) Finally state provision should be minimized and those who can financially supplement state provision or opt out are encouraged to do so. As far as possible, families should help their own members rather that seeking assistance from institutions.

The four themes may be considered as part of the whole notion of changing the culture of the public sector towards one that is more business or service oriented. Earlier it was mentioned that higher education, being one of the state provided services, was affected by the 1979 government's public expenditure cuts. Ashford (1990) believes that the Conservative government made explicit three main aims to be achieved in the reformation of higher education. The first was to increase the accountability of administrative staff, who have been managing universities in the light of their own interests. The "producer-interests" needed to be more accountable to the government in order for university administrators to be considered as true representatives of the public interest. The second aim was to improve management and planning. The government made comparisons between the per student costs of American and British educational institutions. The conclusion made was that the per student cost in the United Kingdom was greater than most of the other developed countries. In the light of such finding, the government has insisted that universities should lower the per graduate expenses through implementing clear institutional goals, management structures and planning. Finally, the aim of reforms in higher education was to make institutions more sensitive and responsive towards the economic and social needs of the country. The government asserted that higher education must contribute to the British economy in efforts to uphold an enterprise culture.

The following paragraphs will discuss only on the traditional university sector which is the focus of this study. The term "university" will be used to mean only those institutions which obtain funds from the University Funding Council (UFC) or its predecessor the University Grants Committee.

The UGC, which was replaced by the UFC in 1989, had a long history. It was set up in 1919 to provide a framework whereby public money could be channelled into universities, which were and remain legally private and autonomous bodies, without the State interfering in the academic autonomy of the Universities. The UGC's role was to act as an intermediary between the universities and, first, the Treasury, then after 1964, the Department of Education and Science in channelling university requests and in disbursing the funds allocated by government. Initially, post 1919 the funds required were relatively small, but after the Second World War the role of the UGC was redefined in New Terms of References (1946):

> "To enquire into the financial needs of university education in Great Britain; to advise the government as to the application of any grants made by parliament towards meeting them; collect, examine and make available information relating to university education throughout the United Kingdom, and to assist, in consultation with the other bodies concerned, the preparation and execution of such plans for the development of the universities as from time be required in order to ensure that they are adequate for national needs."

The composition of the committee after 1946 until its replacement in 1989 was mainly made up of active and prestigious academics to serve as individuals, not as representatives of their disciplines or institutions. Vice chancellors or Principals of Universities were not represented on the committee.

Funds provided by the government to the UGC were allocated and distributed to the different universities. Technically the committee's role was to provide confidential advice to the Secretary of State, but, in practice, the Committee disbursed the money to universities. This arrangement worked out fairly smoothly when the system was still growing. Furthermore, despite pressure from the government in coping with the high inflation of the 1970s, the system of organizing university funds functioned reasonably well (Shattock and Rigby, 1983). The government's 1981 decision to reduce university grants by 15% in real terms over a period of three years affected the UGC in a negative way. The UGC had to make hard decisions in response to the government's decision, consequently the UGC's confidentiality and secrecy resulted in widespread criticism and loss of confidence by the academic community (Carswell, 1985; Kogan and Kogan, 1983). In the years after 1981 the UGC tried to meet the criticisms of its 1981 decisions by trying to develop more sophisticated methods for assessing university quality as it attempted to distribute very limited funds. It tried to combine confidential peer judgement with the gathering of more and more data and, inevitably became more bureaucratic in its methods. All this eventually led to the redistribution of funds and the closure of many departments. It may be said that due to the uncertainties and chaotic circumstances, the UGC assumed a policy role for which it was not designed. The government therefore replaced the UGC with a new body called the University Funding Council which was more overtly an agent of government.

The formation of the UFC was a strategy to reduce the bureaucratic procedures of the UGC, as part of the whole move towards "market" mechanisms. Even though reducing costs has been one of the underlying arguments which influenced the government in adopting market-oriented approaches, the rationale that students should take greater responsibility for the costs of their education also became a viable argument. Replacing grants by loans was an example for such a strategy. In doing so, students possess the right to demand better services and adopt the role of "customers." Against this general background and context, the next section will provide an overview of the nature of higher education environment, including how the changes in the public sector has affected the environment in which universities operate.

Higher Education: An Overview of the Operating Environment

Universities face an external environment that is both complex and changing. Lockwood and Davies (1985) provided a comprehensive overview of the operating environment of higher education. Even though there has been changes as a result of governmental intervention, such as in the case of the UGC (Universities Grants Committee) which has been changed to UFC (University Funding Council), the essential role of the UFC remained the same as that of the previous UGC. Until now, the types of pressures universities in the United Kingdom have had to deal with have not changed. External bodies which pressure universities in varying degrees include Parliament, Government, the Department of Education and Science, public opinion, the University Grants Committee (UGC)/ University Funding Council (UFC), the Research Councils, local authorities, the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals, trade unions, professions, peer groups, industry/commerce, and applicant demand (Lockwood, 1987).

The external environment in which British universities operate, then, has been changing due to a variety of factors. One factor is that universities have to deal with financial contraction as a result of reduced financing from the University Grants Committee (UGC)/ University Funding Council (UFC). In a circular letter 12/85, the UGC alerted universities to prepare for a reduction in recurrent grant of at least 2 percent per annum in real terms over the next few years (Allen, 1988). These financial constraints lead universities to seek other sources of financing. Grants from industry, charitable foundations and Government departments have been used by universities to obtain more funds. University finance reflects the state of the economy and therefore the fluctuating British economy makes the environment turbulent and unpredictable. The allocation made by the UGC is thus affected, and the levels of funding to different institutions become uncertain. The UGC/UFC became highly selective in such economic conditions. Universities also have had to rely on predominantly public funding. The impact of financial contraction is one that affects individual institutions in different ways. Even though most of the institutions face some contraction and a continuing decline in growth, the degree of change and the time factors influencing these institutions may differ. For some institutions, the contraction is slight, but over a long period of time. On the other hand, for the others the contraction may be greater but followed by relative stability. In more severe cases, institutions will face substantial contraction over extended period of time. The financial uncertainty and constraint has also affected universities in that they do not have restricted capacity to plan ahead.

Another pressure which universities have had to face is the changing demographic pattern of society. The question of access to higher education was the focus of the White Paper of 1987. Even though demographic figures show that there is a decreasing trend of 18 to 20 year olds, the forecast demand for higher education will probably remain the same and will not decline. What will change is the type of students universities will need to cater for in the future. The number of mature students applying to universities has been increasing. Despite the fact that mature students are mostly in what were public sector institutions, their numbers in universities have been rising steadily to reach an estimated figure of 40,000 in 1990–91 (Lockwood and Davies, 1985). Universities have had to adapt and broaden the curriculum of higher education to meet the changing demands of applicants. The Green Paper of 1985 encouraged the broadening of the undergraduate curriculum; emphasis was made on linking industry and commerce with research. A significantly greater emphasis on part-time courses, remedial and access courses was advocated and has been made available.

There are a number of factors which affect economic uncertainty, instability and unpredictability which are common to European countries and North America. The principal causes include the "deteriorating state of national economies, the unpredictable and high rates of inflation, the national political swings and the decline in the political priority accorded to institutions of higher education" (Lockwood and Davies, 1985; page 9). In effect, the time scale for planning became shorter and less stable, while the system used for resource–allocation became non–functional due to unpredictable circumstances in the environment. This also resulted in the general public losing faith in higher education evident through declining enrolments. The image of higher education deteriorated in the eyes of the public, higher education became a less attractive option for potential students. The negative public image of universities was also a result of the public's growing demand for changes in course content. The White Paper of 1987 also dealt with issues of quality and efficiency. Quality was defined as improvement in the design and content of courses; by better teaching and by more selectively funded research. Quality was to be measured through students' achievements together with their entry standards. In addition, the extent to which courses meet the requirement of employers have to be considered. Efficiency concerned improvements in institutional management including changes in the management of the system, through the development of performance indicators. Universities were under pressure to fulfil the expectations of applicants, namely, to ensure that the courses were designed to provide skills and knowledge that will be applicable and related to their careers, in short, skills applicable to the industrial and commercial context. Previously, the aim of higher education, as explained in the classic definition of the Robbins Committee (Report, 1963), was thought to be training in useful skills, the advancement of learning, promoting the general powers of the mind and transmitting a common culture and common standards of citizenship.

The lack of public confidence in higher education was also manifested in the political arena where there was a breakdown of consensus concerning higher education between political parties. In the 1983 election, none of the main parties showed much commitment to improve the deteriorating state of higher education (Lockwood and Davies, 1985). Labour proposed reversing the 1981 cuts but intended to replace the UGC by a more accountable Universities Council, and that universities which complied with the party's proposed changes would obtain funds. On the other hand, the Conservatives proposed a more free market system as a way to achieve improvement. The point to be made here is that the relationship between higher education and the political system resulted in doubts and anxieties that jeopardized public opinion. The decline in public support, to a large extent, helped to enable the Government's reduction of financial funds for higher education and a shift in spending to other areas of the public sector. Thus the situation faced by institutions of higher education is one that has become characterized by a decline in public support and shrinking traditional markets.

The degree of autonomy and control which universities have is protected by their legal status. Freedom in a legal sense is a separate issue; in reality universities are still subject to governmental control due to financial dependence. The Government exercises this control over universities through its executive agents namely the Secretary of State for Education and Science and the UGC/UFC. Even though legally independent and exempted from direct government control, for many years universities have relied upon the government's financial support for the bulk of their funds. Traditionally, universities have been considered as the "autonomous" sector and through the UGC, they had the privilege to maintain an arms–length relationship with the government (Berdahl, 1959). The Exchequer is one of the main agents of change through which the Government imposes control. The key role of the Exchequer is to provide a total amount of money allocated to universities as determined by the Government. The UGC/UFC performs role of giving advice which determines the size of the allocation to different institutions. In addition, the UGC/UFC provides as a buffer between universities and Government. It is through this financial mechanism that the Government imposes its policies and regulations on different aspects of higher education on universities. The degree of central control became more apparent when the responsibility for universities was shifted from the Treasury to the Department of Education and Science (DES) in 1964 (Lockwood and Davies, 1985). This change was later followed by a recommendation by the Public Accounts Committee of the House of Commons that the Comptroller and Auditor General should get access to the financial records of the universities and the UGC/UFC. The impact of these two changes in control, especially the first, has had a significant impact on higher education. The planning of universities has been included in the total educational system by the DES. For example, the Departmental Planning Organization, set up by the DES resulted in universities having to compete for funds with other units of the education system in the same way as education has to compete with the demands of the other departments of state. Control of universities in matters that may not be related to education also take place through other policies. Lockwood and Davies pointed to a strategy implemented by Government to relieve the burden of parliamentary grants in 1977 which was to increase tuition fees by about 25 per cent of total income and reducing grants correspondingly. Universities had the option of whether to comply with the decision or forego the income.

The government therefore tries to control universities through different means but the main body through which control is exercised is the UGC/UFC. The UGC/UFC has become more selective in its allocation of funds, and increasingly directive in implementing its decision. Since the planning periods have also become shorter due to environmental uncertainties and constraints, the UGC/UFC decided to allocate its reduced funds based on criteria that used departmental strengths and weaknesses of different academic departments in each university. The judgement was made based on an aggregate of the department's strengths and weaknesses rather than to look at a department as an entity in its own right. The UGC/UFC also has a say in student selection in specific subjects. If a department recruits students beyond the planned UGC/UFC number, the department can be penalized. There have also been cases where universities were forced to close departments. The nature of decision-making of the UGC is flexible and closed. Even though the universities provide their views and a lot of information for the UGC to use in decision-making, the universities are not informed on how the information collected is being used in the UGC's decision-making (Maclure, 1987). For instance, in critical decisions like determining an individual university's size of grant and degree of growth; their relationship with quantitative factors (such as unit costs, economies of scale, space utilization and the like) which are weighted against performance indices (applicant demand, student wastage, research quality and quantity) is knowledge which is unknown to universities. These decisions which are based on value judgements using multiple criteria are difficult to make available to universities in a detailed manner. Apart from a general type of publicised UGC/UFC's Reports, universities do acknowledge that this difficulty is real from their own experience of student selection and assessment, staff appointments and the like. Insufficient knowledge on the UGC/UFC's criteria makes it extremely difficult for universities to plan ahead, and puts universities in a position that makes them defensive or reactive. The funds provided by the UGC/UFC has been for both teaching and research although these are now being separated. The constraints on funds therefore mean that the capacity for some universities to conduct research becomes limited and minimal. The universities have resorted to other sources of funding as a result of the shrinkage of financial resources. Grants from industry, charitable foundations and Government departments increased to approximately 40 per cent of total research grant income by 1981–82 (Lockwood and Davies, 1985).

The Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals (CVCP) is another major agent existing within the higher education system. The CVCP performs an intermediary function in speaking and listening on behalf of universities, as an advocate defending universities against external bodies (Farrant, 1987). The existence of CVCP, on the other hand, also means that universities are subject to a different type of pressure from a body consisting of their own members. The CVCP communicates directly with the Government and with the DES. In April 1984, the CVCP conducted a study on the efficiency of management of universities that resulted in the formation of a steering committee under the chairmanship of a prominent industrialist and an appointment of a group of professional consultants to provide guidance for universities under study. In the Jarratt Report, the Committee recommended that universities be required to prepare a forward plan on a timely basis of every two or three years. The Report suggested that universities need to make explicit their aims and objectives, the means of achieving objectives, and the relevant performance indicators as control mechanisms. In addition to improving management structures and systems, management was also to ensure that accountabilities were clear and be monitored. Another matter tackled by the CVCP is the raising of academic standards through the external examining system.

Other developments during the year 1987 include two government publications. The first, published in July, was a report by the Advisory Board for the Research Councils. The report entitled, A Strategy for the Science Base, argued for a three-tiered system (Allen, 1988), whereby universities would be classified under three major categories. The top tier consists of universities which would be fully funded for research, the middle group for substantial research in a few selected fields only, and the bottom tier comprised of universities confined to teaching only. In summary, the argument put forward was that insufficient resources made it impossible to finance full-scale research in all universities and thereby called for a three-tiered system.

The second document, the Education Reform Bill, outlined radical changes in the areas of funding and tenure. With regards to funding, the government intended to distribute funds to universities based on contractual terms and upon breach of contract, universities would be liable for repayments. The other area of concern, academic tenure, would be reformed in that staff members appointed after 20

November, 1987 (Allen, 1988) would not be protected against the possibility of dismissal based on the grounds of redundancy or inefficiency. The rationale for such a move was that the government thought it would be inappropriate for academics to be a financial burden to the taxpayer when their services were no longer required.

A summary of trends in the late 1980's

The above discussion indicates that the pressures and changes that have taken place in the external environment of higher education have made the management of universities and institutions of higher learning extremely difficult. Lockwood and Davies (1985) sum up the agenda for university management when they suggested that there were seven major management challenges which universities would require to tackle. The first is financial contraction together with requirement to take more students. The second issue is the diminishing degree of autonomy of the universities as a result of increased involvement by the Government through the UGC/UFC. Consequently, funding may take the form of contractual arrangements between universities and the UFC. The situation, as it now stands, has already resulted in increased competition between universities to obtain funds. The third issue that needs attention is the increasing uncertainty and unpredictable financial situation. In addition to shortened planning time frames, universities do not know the UGC/UFC's criteria for selection and allocation of funds in detail to be able to plan far ahead. The fourth is to increase efficiency in all aspects including economical, academic and managerial. Increased accountability will require universities to make explicit their aims and objectives and to implement a system of performance indicators. The market poses the fifth factor that affects universities. Universities are in competition with each other, and with other education and research providers. A more entrepreneurial style of management will be required. The sixth issue is to become more flexible in a less stable environment. The final challenge is to be able to achieve the stated goals without damaging staff and employee morale.

It may be concluded that the changes in the public sector had a great impact on universities. Government legislation to improve the problems of public service inefficiency and to tackle other social and economic problems resulted in education policies that were hostile towards the universities. In order to cope with these government policies, universities have had to adopt new approaches to managing their organizations to meet new challenges and circumstances. In the light of the changing environment, universities were forced to adopt corporate management approaches as the only way to respond positively to the uncertainties (Leyland, 1986). It may be said that it was not easy to adopt such an approach as universities were having to enter into a new endeavour, that of market and consumer orientation, which called for a change in skills, attitudes, policies and procedures to achieve success.

Universities: Towards a Corporate Approach

Due to the UGC/UFC 1981 cuts, universities have had to find new ways of managing. Adapting to a more corporate approach has been one of the strategies universities have tried to adopt. The growing suspicion that universities are "neither efficient nor effective producers of society's needs" has increased the UK government's concern for efficiency and value-for-money (Hardy, 1990, p. 301). It may be said that the Jarratt Report written by the Steering Committee for Efficiency

Studies in Universities (Committee of Vice Chancellors and Principals, 1985) recommended that universities should adopt an industrial model or "ethos" which emphasises formal long term planning with the vice-chancellor acting as a chief executive officer. Opposing this view, Becher (1988) has argued that the internal management of universities should take into account the relationship between the institution and its constituent academic departments. The author asserted that the pluralistic nature of universities makes the task of managing universities a difficult one. The role of the institution should be to make explicit the guiding principles of action rather than to write out uniform procedures which units have to comply with. The role of basic units then, should be to interpret the principles in the context of how they are relevant and applicable to their own academic practice. The above argument recognizes the limited applicability of top-down rational management approaches which tend not to accommodate the differences between departments. Fulton (1991) also supports this argument in that any proposed changes in the management of universities should take into account the internal culture of the institution. Fulton perceives the internal culture as a product of both organizational features as well as that of disciplinary values manifested in the teaching and research practices of departmental units. Accordingly, Becher (1988) highlighted four key implications that are relevant in managing the university. First, a short-term time frame and incremental policies may be more feasible rather than long-term planning. Second, the lack of common goals shows the pluralistic character of the university. Therefore, hierarchical decisions based on an imposed consensus do not reflect the views of those who have to implement the decisions. Instead, a collegial tradition may be more appropriate as it takes into account the views of those affected by the decision. Third, solutions to management problems need to be adaptable to the needs of the individual unit rather than taking a global approach without differentiation. Finally, keeping in mind the devolution of departmental units, the role of central management should be to ensure that consistency and fairness is exercised in the application of these broad principles.

Despite the complexities of the issues involved, governments encouraged the application of business principles into higher education sector. The UK government's pressure to privatise higher education, that is, proposing to privatise business schools, is an example of the move or trend towards managerial and market oriented approach. As mentioned earlier, new methods of income generation have left universities no choice but to adopt more aggressive approaches. For instance, the marketing of surplus infrastructure such as halls of residence during summer vacations has become a common practice for universities. Another strategy that uses the academic skills of staff is the creation of special units which operate on a largely full-cost basis. The special units employ and develop the resource to generate income in isolation from other main institutional programmes. In this way, there will be no problems of conflict between the full-cost activities and academic departments. The establishment of these special units are normally done by external bodies or groups of internal staff. The Centre for Industrial Health and Safety at South Bank Polytechnic and the Institute for Consumer Ergonomics at Loughborough University are examples of such special units. The activities normally deal with a specific subject area which provides an employment interest rather than a traditional academic discipline. Special units help universities to strengthen their image and national reputation as they can increase their range of activities. In addition to the special units, almost all universities have at least one "general unit" which conducts full cost activities by academic groups within the institution. These special units normally offer short courses, research and consultancy services and industrial liaison offices which provide a marketing and organizational base. Most "general units" are set up to provide a service on behalf of the other academic departments. For example, Loughborough Consultants Ltd. gives expert advice and facilities for industrial and local authorities and government departments. The traditional role of extra-mural and continuing education departments is also changing to one which emphasises vocational and full cost training, often funded by external agencies.

It may be said that the creation of "general units" is a move towards a more "mixed economy" institution. Universities realize that they have to put effort into marketing these "general units" through offering research and consultancy in subjects that are in demand, rather than putting together a general prospectus of academic subjects that are offered and hoping that people will be interested in enroling. The teaching methods and delivery is another key element that matters, otherwise the courses offered will not sell. Therefore, institutions which adopt a more market-oriented and entrepreneurial attitude towards the planning of courses will be able to prosper and deal with the problem of reduction in public expenditure on higher education. Those institution which are more aggressive take a step further by tailoring institutional policy to meet the needs of the market. In other words, the income generation strategy adopted by the institution is geared towards an integrated approach that is both market oriented as well as publicly funded. To achieve such level of change, adaptation in the structure and strategy must get the full support and commitment of top management.

In operating these full-cost activities, universities employ academic and administrative staff who can apply their knowledge and skills to the full-cost activities. A typical problem that may arise in employing such people is that they often lack the business training and experience and may tend to be "production" rather than "market" oriented. This is not surprising as staff members do come from a background in research and teaching that is in a specific subject area, whereas employing commercial managers who have limited understanding and experience in education may pose another type of problem. The characteristics of the education environment is unique with its own set of values and skills which are different from that of the private sector. Universities that lead in the market realize the need to overcome this skills problem in running these full-cost activities. To tackle the problem, many universities have engaged in skills training as well as first hand experience. It may be said that those universities which adopt a mixed economy should be able to eventually excel in the current changing and uncertain environment.

Training and Customer Care

Recently, the Department of Education and Science used the term "consumers" to refer to students (Phillips, 1989). As stated earlier, the implication that comes with such terminology is that as consumers, students will need to pay for what they consume. The implementation of student loans and fees are manifestation of the idea. At the same time, the belief is that such an approach will teach self-reliance values to the younger generation. In the past universities have treated students more as clients. Such a treatment is easy for universities as it implies a relationship whereby the client or student is dependent upon the professional expertise of the educators. In a "client" relationship, the student was made to accept the "best" professional advice. The student has to suffer the consequences if the advice is rejected. Universities which continue with this "client" relationship and ignore the new student demand on matters such as teaching methods, course content and courses available may eventually not survive. The implementation of top-up loans and increased fees by the government meant that students have more capacity to influence the type of education they receive. When students pay for an education, they may be viewed as consumers who have a right over the quality of education received. Library facilities, degree of tutor contact, student facilities, sporting events, and social activities make the education experience a whole and an all-encompassing one. Consumers or students may not settle for less and are capable of taking their education investment elsewhere. The attitude of treating students as a source of irritation must change in the course of trying to inculcate a business and market oriented approach in managing a university. Using the term "consumers" to mean students has far-reaching consequences. It is not only an adjustment of communication, but also a complete change in the nature of the universities' relationship with students.

To achieve a complete change in the relationship between university and students, universities must also implement changes at all levels of the institution. The concept of the consumer needs to be inculcated throughout the system. Staff members must understand that the consumer may be defined as any person whom service is being rendered. This definition of the consumer is very broad and includes not only students but also co-workers and peers, subordinates, supervisors, academics, and the like. The totality of the consumer concept therefore encompasses everyone and anyone who interacts within the university environment. As discussed earlier, the public sector is different from that of the private sector in that it is not clear as to who is the customer or user of the public service. Nonetheless, the customer concept should help the transition of the university management to become more customer care oriented.

Given a customer care scenario in the context of university management, the need to increase the efficiency of the central administration staff including that of the registry, finance, residence and catering, and the like, becomes critical. As such, the need to inculcate attitudinal changes, particularly from one that is bureaucratic oriented to one that is more people and market oriented is important. The university management needs to not only be more aggressive in its approach to raise funds from alternative sources, but also to cater for the changing needs of students. To invest on training and development programmes has been a common step taken by management to introduce university central administration to a more market oriented and managerial approach. The belief is that training and development will help staff members to become more customer care oriented in terms of their skills as well as attitudes.

Since no secondary data on how many UK universities have conducted customer training was available, a survey was carried to obtain the information. The response rate was 67.3%, from a total list of 98 universities and institutions chosen for the survey, obtained from the Directory of Commonwealth Universities (1992). The criterion used for this population included universities or institutions which received funding from the University Funds Committee. Results of the survey indicated that of the 66 UK universities which responded, 60.6% conducted a customer care training while the remaining 39.4% did not. Of the total sample, 34.8% conducted training for the central administration in the central office, 25.8% for the administration in the academic departments, 45.5% for the catering manual staff, 34.8% for the security and portering staff, 15.2% for the other manual staff, 4.5% for academic staff, 27.3% in library and related support staff, and 4.5% for other functional categories. The findings indicated that the most popular type of training took in the form of workshops, followed by formal presentations, then informal seminars, and finally on-the-job training. Of those who underwent training, 72.5% reported that training lasted at least half a day or to a full day. In addition, external consultants were the most frequently used, this was followed by in-house administrative staff, and finally a minority had other training agents to conduct training. Lastly, 50% of those who conducted training had some form of feedback after training; the evaluation form was most commonly used, then personal interviews, and finally follow-up surveys.

On the issue of training of university administrators, Schuster (1982) pointed out the need to make explicit the philosophy of training and the underlying concepts and principles which influence the practice. The author highlighted four goals and objectives which are relevant to training of university administrators (Schuster, 1982;

p. 106):

i) the state of the art of management science (theory and practice)

ii) information on changing circumstances particularly legal, economic and political conditions

iii) developing individual ability (knowledge, attitudes and skills) to enable managers to cope with a large variety of tasks

iv) changing behaviour patterns

Training and development programmes become relevant in the context of universities having to change their work procedures to become more market and customer–oriented. The management and administration of the university is very important as working methods that were applicable to the "bureaucratic" public sector becomes obsolete and inefficient in the light of current and changing circumstances. Updating the skills of the central administration of university staff becomes critical to ensure the smooth running of the university. For this reason, universities which embark on an extensive training programme normally include only the central administration staff such as registry, residence and catering, finance offices and other administrative staff, rather than academics. Another rationale for focusing on central administration staff's participation in the training programme may be explained by the fact that the administration staff has the power to create a first impression at the point of contact with potential students and other customers. In this context, the central administration may be perceived to play an equivalent role to that of "reception or front–line staff" of service organizations. Written communication via letters from the registry and the like provides a first impression to the prospective candidate. The ease with which communication takes place, the relevance and accuracy of information provided, prompt replies and other such activities is a selling point for the university as these factors may create a negative impression. For example, if registry does not coordinate their work efficiently, such as in the case of processing the relevant documents quickly, a student who requires a prompt reply from the registry may be inclined to lose interest in enroling in that particular university, and instead choose a different one. Students have the freedom to decide where they wish to invest their higher education.

The earlier discussion on survey results also indicated that training had been mostly focused on non–academic staff only. This may be explained by a study conducted by Matheson (1981). The author made an analysis concerning the issues and difficulties involved in academic staff training and development in universities in the United Kingdom. The issue of training and development is a complex one as the concept and terminology in itself is problematic. There is lack of agreement about the terminology amongst those concerned. The term training seemed to imply somewhat mechanical preparation in skills which has a finite duration. On the other hand, development seemed to give a more sophisticated meaning, development carries with it the implication of continuity of personal growth and skills. Many academics have expressed their views on the need to differentiate between the two terminologies. One of the greatest difficulty in trying to implement any form of training for academics may be due to the general attitude of academic staff (Matheson, 1981). It has been argued that a great obstacle to progress lies in the genuine anxiety and perhaps hostility of academics who view both staff training and development with suspicion. One possible explanation for the hostility may be due to feelings of insecurity amongst academics, such as, "If I'm a good scholar, then I must be a good teacher." A more justifiable reason for such hostility is that the courses conducted have been most of the time ill-advised, and those who run these courses claim to have a specialism that is not widely recognized. Those who express wariness towards staff development felt that efforts to "develop" people and to change them are impertinent. Methods which attempt to overtly facilitate personal growth and techniques that seem to be targeted at individual psyche are therefore viewed with suspicion. As already mentioned, the almost phobic attitude of academics towards training seems to be due to the understanding that training suggests a low-level, technical school type of activity. The argument follows that a very small number of academic staff feel the need for training or professional development that is not concerned with their own discipline. Even when it was felt that "development" was necessary, the attitude adopted was that members of staff were capable of handling it themselves without assistance from the university. From the study conducted by Matheson, it was discovered that training policy tended to be implicit rather than explicit. The central training committee can be said to be largely responsible to initiate an "appropriate training programme," even though responsibility for implementing the training has been delegated to departmental units. Provision of training has been limited, the activities of academic staff training were not supported by external funds. Matheson (1981) admitted that it was difficult not to conclude that the majority of universities in the UK provided some form of training for academics in areas related to teaching only. Few universities implement any form of training which is not teaching related. Finally, even fewer universities were committed to providing a comprehensive training programme which catered for their staff in all areas of professional endeavours. A final note made was that to overcome the problems involved in academic staff training and development, including that of the general negative attitude of academics, lies on individual universities themselves. The above analysis made by Matheson helped to provide some form of explanation as to why academics have not been included in any customer care training as such. Perhaps the changing trend and increasing pressures in higher education may raise questions and issues which can change the degree of involvement of academics in non–teaching related training.

Having discussed the cultural context within which changes in the public sector has taken place, and how it affects universities, the next chapter goes on to take a deeper look at the popular literature on organizational culture. These researchers and writers propagate the view that organizational and cultural change is necessary for the competitive, effective, and efficient functioning of organizations. As mentioned earlier, the British Airways case study was an example of such change. The language from this anecdotal body of literature has been applied to the public sector. Therefore, it becomes necessary to examine closer the ideas and ideologies which have been propagated by these management practitioners and researchers.

CHAPTER 2

The popularity of the study of organizational or corporate culture began when foreign competition became a challenge for firms in the west (Feldman, 1986). In particular, American industries indicated a declining trend while Japanese industries showed increasing success. Managers began to realize that global competitiveness went beyond simply technology, finance, and marketing (Bernstein, 1988). From a non–economic point of view, the rise of the Japanese was attributed to the unique Japanese cultural features which contributed to increased organizational performance and effectiveness (Ouchi, 1981). However, the fascination with Japan may not be the only explanation for the rise in interest of corporate culture and its conceptualization. Frost (1985) suggested that one reason for the serious interest in corporate culture was the quality of working life and the growing need of employees to want something more from work than just material rewards. As well as a "popular" interest in corporate culture in the "popular" management literature read by practitioners (Ouchi, 1981; Pascale and Athos, 1982; and Peters and Waterman, 1982) there developed a concern for the conceptualization and understanding of "culture" in the more traditional academic community. This more academic work reflected a concern for how a complicated concept was being loosely applied in the popular literature. At the same time the academic interest in the concept of organizational culture also reflected a greater interest among academic students of organizational analysis in qualitative research and for analyses based upon the "meaning" of work for employees and managers rather than the more quantitative and positivist approaches of the nineteen sixties and seventies (Pugh et. al., 1968, 1969; Blau and

Schoenherr, 1971).

A number of those researchers who were traditionally "academic" in outlook began to take an interest in business and management aspect of organization. One good example of this phenomenon is Gareth Morgan. His first book "Sociological Paradigms and Organisational Analysis" (with Gibson Burrell) was purely academically oriented. However, later publications such as "Images of Organizations" indicated that Morgan became more oriented to business and industry. This increased tendency for pure academics to become more applications oriented has helped to boost the academic market for the culture concept. Alvesson (1990) provided an explanation which took into account both economic and sociological contextual factors. Alvesson's (1990) first line of reasoning was that there was a market for academic products in the field of organizational culture. Peters and Waterman's <u>In Search of Excellence</u> (1982) is an obvious example of a best-seller that helped to create a market for such products. At the same time, researchers in the field have been highly responsive to the perceived interest of business and industry. Those who want to market the idea claimed that the culture concept is of relevance to businesses which want to succeed. There were writers who claimed that symbolic meanings are inherent within all organizational phenomena and managers need to have a deep understanding of them in order to have adequate knowledge of their organizations. In addition, there are researchers who asserted that culture or parts of it may be changed and controlled to fit management ideology. Managers, who are the targeted consumers, sought quick fix solutions and believed that an organization with a distinctive culture produced a strong and progressive image. Market features as such created an encouraging climate for the marketing of the corporate culture concept.

The second line of reasoning given by Alvesson (1990) was based on a more sociological analysis. Alvesson (1990) argued that changed socialization characterized by the weakening of traditional societal values contributed to the volatile conditions within society. The trend towards the diminishing importance of the earlier Protestant work ethic, paternalism, patriarchal work systems, class differences, religion and the like has created a receptiveness towards new ideas. The forces of change of the capitalistic/post–industrial society were replacing these traditional societal patterns. Of significance were the increasing development towards international exchanges, mass media, fashion and mass consumption that resulted in less rigid and less stable cultural patterns. The changes at the broad societal level paralleled the internationalization of corporations, with increased interactions between customers and suppliers at a global scale. Of particular relevance was the increasing turbulence of environments which not only decentralized management systems, but also created the need for new forms of control mechanisms. To counteract the possibility of disintegration, management was eager and open to new ideas and solutions that might help to control the pace of change. The rapid growth in interest in the corporate culture concept and how it may help management to be in control may contribute to the explanation of why late nineteen eighties saw such an intense interest in the conceptualization of corporate culture.

The growth period of the 1980s resulted in organizations adopting an expansion strategy as a competitive edge, but this led to the dilution of markets. The 1990s instead have increasingly focused on service, targeting the needs of customers or clients. Organizations, both public as well as private, have also come to realize that survival in the nineties called for creating a culture that was service and customer oriented. To be customer oriented was being recognized as the fundamental road to success. The issue of corporate culture thus received considerable attention from organizational theorists due to the presumption that corporate culture has an impact on organizational effectiveness.

On the other hand, as the "academic" researchers began to point out (Bennis, 1966), the changing environment characterized by fluctuating inflation, technological revolution, foreign competition and unpredictable market demand has made it difficult for organizations to respond effectively. A corporate culture that used to be a strength for an organization may turn into a liability in implementing a new strategy to cope with the environment. A lack of fit between the organizational culture and the required changes in the organization can result in a disaster (Business Week, 1980).

The above argument parallels events that have taken place in the public sector. Chapter 1 used the British Airways example to illustrate that organizations, both public and private, had to change their ways in trying to cope with the environmental changes imposed on them. One of the most frequently used methods adopted by managers to cope with such environmental turbulence was the implementation of Organizational Development (OD) using methods which diagnose organizational change and culture. In Chapter 3 we will discuss in greater detail the nature of OD programmes and how it relates to the whole notion of organizational change and culture.

Corporate Culture - A topical issue

A major concern of the past decade has been with changing the cultural system of an organization. The loss of world competitiveness by major American business organizations has led organizational theorists and researchers to believe that the reason and cause of failure is due to managerial incompetence, reflected especially in the culture of the organization and its people management. It has been claimed that the success of the Japanese has been attributed to the ability of the Japanese to inculcate organizational cultures that emphasize values such as high quality and productivity. An article in The New York Times (26 July, 1981) by Lester Thurow highlights the pressures firms in the West have to face:

> America is in the process of being economically surpassed by countries such as Japan, which de-emphasize individual achievements to emphasize teamwork and group loyalty....The United States has the dubious distinction of being the only country in the industrial world where productivity has been falling for the past three years....Unless American managers can find a way to get similar interest in "bubble up" productivity, the American economy will be unsuccessful no matter what is done with our laws in Washington....Once we are convinced that teamwork is important, we can go on to institute the changes that are necessary. Most of these actions....must be done on a company-by-company or plant-by-plant basis. Managers have to learn that promotions to the top jobs will go only to those who have paid their "team dues" and not to managers brought in from the outside. Team play has to become an important part of the route to the top. Workers have to learn that teamwork will pay off in higher wages and productivity bonuses.

The term corporate or organizational culture has a variety of definitions made by different management authors. The majority of the definitions include terms such as shared values, beliefs, assumptions, patterns of relationships and behaviours. Management writers have conducted research on the various aspects of culture and organizational relationships (Woodlands Group, 1989; Sweirczek, 1988; Ouchi and Johnson, 1978; Meyer, 1982). Many cross-cultural studies have also been conducted to see the differences in culture and its managerial implications (Grey and Johnson, 1988; Ali and Bloomen, 1988; Everett, Stening and Longton, 1982; Oberg, 1963; Slocum, 1971; Cummings and Schmidt, 1972). The following paragraphs will quote studies conducted by those who think that culture is important, and to show the differential usage and definition of the term culture.

The book, In Search of Excellence by Peters and Waterman (1982) looked at cultural values which were related to performance and excellence in the marketplace. To Peters and Waterman, culture is understood as "the way things are done around here". Peters and Waterman selected a group of American business organizations which had an excellent reputation for being superior in their performance for many years. The sample consisted of sixty-two companies that represented a wide range of industries in the United States. Examples of the companies selected within each industry were categorized as follows (Peters and Waterman, 1982; page 9):

1) High-technology companies, such as Digital Equipment, Hewlett-Packard (HP), Intel, and Texas Instruments (TI).

2) Consumer goods companies, such as Procter & Gamble (P&G), Chesebrough-Ponds, and Johnson & Johnson (J&J).

3) General industrial goods companies of which included Caterpillar, Dana and 3M.

4) Service companies such as Delta Airlines, Marriot, McDonald's, and Disney Productions.

5) Project management companies such as Bechtel and Fluor.

6) Resource-based companies such as Atlantic-Richfield (Acro), Dow Chemical and Exxon.

The financial criteria used to identify "excellent companies" were made up of six measures from the twenty-year period from 1961 to 1980 of superior financial performance. The six financial indicators were as follows:

1) Compound asset growth (a "least squares" measure that fits a curve to annual growth data).
2) Compound equity growth (a "least squares" measure of annual growth data).
3) The average ratio of market value to book value.
4) Average return on total capital.
5) Average return on equity.
6) Average return on sales.

A company was considered a top performer if it fell in the top half of its industry in at least four out of six of the above measures over the twenty-year period. The selected companies were studied through interviews to obtain information on company characteristics as well as a twenty-year literature review on company history and progress. The results of the study indicated that the excellent companies had in common a set of distinct and identifiable corporate values. These organizational values which were prescribed into eight characteristics were:

1. A bias for action. Employees were encouraged not to hesitate to try out and implement strategies without wasting too much time in analyzing the problem.

2. Close to the customer. An emphasis was given to the customer; without understanding customer needs, one would not understand the organization either.

3. Autonomy and entrepreneurship. Innovative ideas were encouraged;

employees were expected to make mistakes but the idea was to promote a healthy entrepreneurial spirit within the organization.

4. Productivity through people. Employees were the root source of quality, not technology. Respect for the individual and trust were central to organizational values.

5. Hands–on, value driven–management by wandering around or (MBWA) is a common practice; mediocrity and compromise for lower standards of excellence were taboos.

6. Stick to the knitting. Diversification into new business areas was not a strategy; management know–how was important, keep to what the business does best.

7. Simple form, lean staff. "Keep it simple" was a slogan which is applied in everyday running the business, unnecessarily complicating things was discouraged.

8. Simultaneously loose–tight properties. Centralization and decentralization were both important. A few shared values provided the framework, within these basic principles employees should feel confident to experiment with quality and service.

Peters and Waterman therefore attempted to formulate "new theory" through prescribing the above stated attributes for management to apply in the running of their companies. They implied that by implementing these lessons from excellent companies, other companies would also achieve excellence.

Comments:

A major criticism of the conclusion made by Peters and Waterman is that it relied heavily on anecdotal material. The problem is that there remains an unanswered question of whether the comments made can be considered to be adequately representative and conclusive. Since "non–excellent" companies were left out of the study, it will not be known whether a different response would have been received from employees of these less than excellent companies. A theory which propagates a universalist approach in managing organizations is almost bound to fail because it tends to not take serious account of the unique characteristics of an organization as well the constantly changing environment in which organizations exist. For instance, it may be said that the time frame factor can play a key role in influencing which companies fall into the categories of "excellent." In other words, if the time frame had been 1951–1970 instead of 1961–1980, would the same companies be included in the list of excellence? It may be argued that the permanence and vulnerability of these companies are at risk depending on environmental factors. Environmental factors cannot be ruled out as potent in influencing the performance of companies. Companies which rely heavily on highly specialized technological processes or raw materials, like oil companies, would find it extremely difficult to break away from such uncontrollable environmental factors. In such cases, it would be difficult to state that management effectiveness was the reason for a company's decline. In other words, Peters and Waterman have not taken serious account of factors such as proprietary technology, market dominance, access and control over key raw materials, government policies which can have a great impact on a company's performance. It may be said that to assume that a prescriptive approach in changing an organization's culture is to be too simplistic and naive. A second flaw in the research is that Peters and Waterman did not make explicit in their book how they went about analyzing the companies selected. There was no section in the book which covered measurement issues. It may be said that the authors were not thorough enough in explaining the whole methodology process. Questions which arise include: Was any participant observation applied in the data collection, and if so, how many were visited and how extensively. Another question which comes to mind is the concept of excellence itself. The authors have made explicit that the eight attributes are determined reliably through identifying key qualities common in excellent companies. If these attributes exist in the non-excellent companies, then it can be inferred that the attributes are not implemented and practised imperfectly. A question which arises then is how does one know whether an attribute is adequately implemented? As mentioned above, another problem with the study is that companies which were unsuccessful were not included. Consequently, the question which arises would be: Could it be possible that these non-excellent companies also have the same eight attributes as identified? Omitting the non-excellent companies does not provide a control for other possible intervening factors, such as that of the environment, which may contribute to the success of a company. Peters and Waterman also did not make explicit how they measured the culture concept, their definition of the concept of culture as "the way things are done around here" is too vague and broad; it may simply mean anything and everything, or just nothing at all.

Another study conducted by Denison (1984) tested the relationship between corporate culture and performance. Corporate culture was defined as "the set of values, beliefs, and behaviour patterns that form the core identity of an organization (Denison, 1984; page 5). A survey was done to answer the question, whether organizations that are well organized and use participatory decision-making techniques do perform any better than organizations that do not. The measurement of corporate culture was based on "individual perceptions of organizational practices and conditions; these perceptions were used to characterize the culture of each organization" (p. 8; Denison, 1984). The Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan developed a 125–

item standardized questionnaire based on the theories of Rensis Likert which was used in the survey. The respondent's perception on work design, leadership, group functioning, satisfaction and organizational climate were used to obtain a diagnostic picture of the organization. An assumption made in this approach was that certain social processes and relationships exist which are common to all organizations, and that these processes and relationships correlated positively with performance and effectiveness. Denison argued that such an assumption allowed for comparison to be made between organizations according to social, behavioural and cultural dimensions. The study collected data from 43,747 respondents who belonged to 6,671 work groups of 34 companies. The 34 companies represented 25 different industries covering a wide range of fields. For each completed questionnaire, the responses were grouped into topics and an average was computed to obtain an index. Twenty-two indices in the areas of organizational climate, leadership, peer relations, group process, work design, and satisfaction were calculated. A group score was then computed by getting an average of the index scores of all the respondents in one work group. Lastly, a final average was calculated by using the work group scores. For each index, this average represented the score for the entire organization. For example, a set of items that measured communication were combined to obtain an index of communication. The communication index was then correlated to a performance indicator such as return on investment. The decision-making practices index consists of a two-item measure that indicated the degree of involvement employees had in making decisions that concerned them, and the extent to which information was shared across the different levels of an organization. Using a second example, the organization-of-work index was a composite of four questionnaire items that measure the degree to which work was organized in a systematic manner, work procedures were flexible and adaptable to the changing environment, decisions were made at the appropriate levels, and there existed clear organizational goals that were reasonable as perceived by individuals.

Financial ratios used as indicators of performance were return on investment and return on sales. The financial ratios were correlated with the different indices which measured cultural and behavioural aspects of the organization over a period of five years. To obtain a clearer picture of the results, the sample was divided into two; one half performed above average, while the other half were below. The results indicated that the two indices which had the greatest impact on performance were the organization-of-work index, and the decision-making practices index. Overall, the results showed that organizations with a participative culture in particular performed better than those without such a culture. "The study suggests that management of an organization's culture (whether implicit or explicit) should be one of the fundamental elements of a corporation's strategy for staying in business. These findings also give an indication of the potential that exists for monitoring an organization's management system and culture and for predicting their impact on performance in the future" (p. 17). The study therefore suggests a strong association between culture and performance.

Comments:

The study assumed that a linear relationship existed between the cultural dimensions, this is so because calculating the average of an index to indicate the degree of participative culture assumes such linearity. There was confusion between climate and culture constructs because Denison did not make any distinction between climate and culture and seemed to imply that climate and culture were synonymous. Another criticism is that the linkage between culture and organizational performance and effectiveness, as measured by financial ratios, is questionable. The researcher did not seem to take into account external variables, such as market characteristics and the like, which could explain or play an influential role in a company's performance.

DeFrank, Matteson, Schweiger, and Ivancevich (1985) conducted an empirical and objective study on the impact of national culture on the management practices of American and Japanese CEOs. For the purpose of this study, it was implied that corporate culture was defined as work practices, dominant behaviour patterns and work attitudes. The Japanese believe that a collectivist society is critical for survival because the primary assumption is that society will not prosper if individuals do not work together for the common good. This belief is deep rooted in the teachings of Confucius which emphasize hierarchical relationships and loyalty. The historical fact that the feudal system persisted in Japan until barely a century ago, the geographical isolation of the Japanese islands, the vulnerability of the Japanese people to natural disasters, lack of natural resources; all these social, economic and political developments help to explain why a collectivist society developed and why the individual is encouraged to see his or her main obligation to the nation, employer or workgroups. The Japanese belief contrasts with Western culture that has its principles based on Judeo-Christian ethics, the Protestant Reformation, and the economics of the Industrial Revolution. Western societies value the divinity of man's identity, rights, and human obligations. The Western attitude perceives collectivism as a hindrance to society's rate of progress. This is based on the belief held by people in the West that society will not progress fast enough and develop economically if individuals do not compete and seek personal achievements. Individual achievement and growth is encouraged as long as it does not infringe the rights of others. These two opposing world views define the role of the individual in society and social norms have developed accordingly. As a result, the different beliefs have led to contrasting work attitudes that seem to influence management practices in American and Japanese business organizations. According to the study, differences in organizational structure, decision-making processes, time perspectives, and competitive spirit were important. The Japanese structural design depicts a form of authority and responsibility that is based on the principle of harmony. The Japanese firm is not concerned with determining clear lines of authority which indicates each employee's responsibility to an individual manager. The principle of harmony works in such a way that work groups seek to identify with the whole or total organization. The voice of the Japanese CEO is used to find ways of sustaining the harmonious state within the organization. The Japanese CEOs responsibility is to maintain harmony within the organization. On the other hand, American structural arrangement is to establish clear lines of authority in order to place personal responsibility on each manager. Decision-making is one that is characterized by group consensus in the Japanese organization. For example, if a plan or proposal is initiated by anyone at the lower- or middle-management level, the plan will be reviewed by all departments at the same organizational level. Each department gives its authorization and confirmation indicated by a seal of approval. This process takes place at all departments level by level until the proposal is submitted to top management. Therefore, communication is continuous and all levels of the organization participate in decision–making process. In the United States, decision–making takes place in a top–down fashion. The time frames within which planning is made is short–term for American CEOs compared to the longer–term perspective adopted by their Japanese counterparts. This may be attributed to the very old culture of the Japanese, having undergone centuries of social, political, and economic evolution. Compared to the Japanese, Americans have little experience in national evolution with the shortest history of sudden national growth. In addition, the Japanese manager establishes a long–term relationship with one bank which provides primary financial support to the organization, thus the organization is less obliged to report immediate and short–term profits. In contrast, American managers need to display profit figures on a short–term basis to their stockholders who want to know the prospects for the next quarter. Furthermore, reward systems and performance–related procedures encourage and reinforce behaviours which focus on short–term results. Finally, Americans and Japanese industries are both competitive, but the Japanese believe in collective competition rather than individual competitiveness.

The researchers asserted that the personality trait, namely type A behaviour pattern (TABP) as opposed to type B behaviour pattern (TBBP), plays a key discriminating standard of reference in analyzing the differences between work attitudes of American and Japanese CEOs. The TABP was used as a basis for making comparisons because the authors felt that the TABP is a behaviour that is socially acquired through culture, values and mores. TABP may be described as "impatient, competitive, explosive person who has a need to personally control environmental forces" (p. 65). Even though the type B behaviour pattern exhibit many similarities to that of TABP, important and significant differences occur within an occupational context. For instance, type B individuals are not overly concerned about what peers and superiors may think of them, type A persons have a powerful sense of pride in themselves which is the result from internalizing the approval of others. The authors state that American and Japanese CEOs may not be classified into TABP or TBBP categories, but argue that the "sociocultural belief that a capitalistic economy is good appears to play a major role in nurturing and sustaining the type A pattern in the United States and Japan" (p. 66). Material progress is considered to be a main goal, whereby competitiveness and aggressiveness are being rewarded in terms of tangible achievements as one moves up the corporate ladder. However, a major difference between American and Japanese management is the importance of group solidarity and stability as an indicator of success. Japanese work life emphasizes group competitiveness as opposed to individual competitiveness. In conducting the study, the authors incorporated scientific measures of TABP, job satisfaction, ambition, job stress, and tension discharge as comparative dimensions used to analyze differences and similarities of Japanese and American management styles.

The survey method was used to collect data. The American sample was obtained through sending letters and questionnaires to CEOs of companies listed in the Fortune 500 - the 500 largest American industrial firms listed by Fortune magazine. A total of 171 usable responses were received. For the Japanese sample, letters and questionnaires were mailed to the 400 largest Japanese industrial firms as listed in

Diamond's Japan Business Directory. A response of 107 questionnaires were received from the Japanese sample. Translation of the questionnaire into Japanese language was necessary to increase the validity of the instrument.

The results indicated that American CEOs appeared to reveal more Type A behaviour characteristics than did their Japanese counterparts. In measuring ambitiousness, American CEOs were still significantly more ambitious than Japanese CEOs. With regards to job stress and tension discharge, the results were not as anticipated because Japanese CEOs show greater difficulty in discharging tension and therefore suffered from higher levels of job stress. Despite the earlier findings that American CEOs revealed a more type A behaviour and were more ambitious, they did not seem to exhibit greater stress levels due to their ability to release tension. Finally, American CEOs were more satisfied with their job as they felt that they had greater opportunities to exercise autonomy in their job, whereas the Japanese highly conformist group orientation provided limited opportunities to assert their own individuality in job achievement. The results of the study therefore indicated that national culture had a significant influence on management practices, dominant behaviour patterns and work attitudes.

Comments:

The authors used national culture as an independent variable which influences work attitudes and practices. It was made explicit in the study that the dependent variable was composed of personality trait (TABP), job satisfaction, ambition, job stress and tension discharge. On the other hand, national culture was not qualified by the researchers. They did not make explicit what was meant by national culture and how they went about measuring it. Furthermore, the authors did not acknowledge the possibility of other intervening variables in the environment such as technology, market characteristics and the like, as possible factors contributing to a certain work attitude and practise. In addition, the assumption that the Type A Behaviour Pattern is learned from cultural background rather than the Type B Behaviour Pattern is unconvincing because both behaviour patterns may be argued to be two sides of the same coin. Presumably if TABP tends to be more impatient, and TBBP tends to be more patient. Does it not mean that whether an individual is patient or impatient is something learned from upbringing which implies that both types of behaviours are learned?

An earlier study conducted by Grey and Gelford (1990) compared corporate cultures between American and European organizations. The findings of the study indicated that European corporate culture was characterized by greater vitality, innovation, and responsiveness to change when compared to American corporate culture. In addition, European organizations had greater levels of strategic clarity and employee involvement; employees also identified with the corporate goals and decisions among their managers. On the other hand, American corporate culture showed relatively high levels of conservatism and rigidity. Employees were more motivated by individual performance and extrinsic rewards. A follow up study was then conducted to compare Canadian, United States and European corporate cultures. In the light of intensifying global competition and in the context of Europe 1992, the researchers felt the need to highlight competitive advantages and disadvantages of the different countries' corporate cultures, with the aim of recommending prescriptive approaches to enhance the performance of Canadian companies in the international market.

Grey and Gelford asserted that corporate culture affected employee motivation and business performance, and argued that corporate culture may be used as a key factor in influencing the organization's competitiveness in the international environment. A standardized questionnaire instrument called the Business Culture Survey (which was based on the survey instrument developed by Gordon and Cummins (1979) to measure management climate) was used to assess corporate culture. More than 200 large companies were surveyed representing 56 European, 35 Canadian, and 115 American organizations, and covering a wide range of industries. Data was collected from more than 47,000 managers and professionals from Canada, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, the United Kingdom, and the United States. Corporate culture was operationalized into nine dimensions (p. 23):

1. Clarity of direction. Internal understanding of company's strategic aims and plans, and effectiveness of planning process.

2. Decision making. Effectiveness of management structure, process and systems for formulating and implementing business decisions.

3. Organization integration. Quality of internal communication and intergroup coordination throughout the organization.

4. Management style. Encouragement for individual initiative, openness and conflict resolution.

5. Performance orientation. Focus on clear expectations, measures and personal accountability for high levels of performance.

6. Organization vitality. Overall responsiveness to change, sense of urgency and company "stretch."

7. Compensation. External competitiveness, internal equity and relationship of

compensation to performance.

8. Management development. Opportunities for advancement, job challenge and development from within.

9. Corporate image. Internal and external image of the organization as assessed by managers and professionals.

The nine dimensions of corporate culture were made up of 61 standard items which were measured on a seven–point scale. Grey and Gelford argued that employee perceptions of management practices and corporate values were important because these perceptions, though they might differ from organizational realities, shaped employee motivation and behaviour. In the long–run, these perceptions became realities.

The findings of the survey showed that companies in France had the most favourable corporate culture with high scores on the dimensions, clarity of direction, decision–making, and organizational vitality. On the other hand, Canadian, American and United Kingdom corporate cultures scored consistently low on the three stated dimensions of culture, and tended to be more bureaucratic, slow moving and reactive in nature. Canadian and American companies shared a lot in common due to the geographical proximity, strong cultural bonds and the direct participation and American input into Canadian business. With the exception of United Kingdom companies which tended to have parallel characteristics to those of American ones, the European corporate culture showed a consistently distinctive pattern unique to European organizations.

The authors focused on the Canadian corporate culture by highlighting its strengths and weaknesses. The major advantages of the Canadian corporate culture included reward systems, performance emphasis, and corporate image. Reward systems emphasized strong work expectations and personal accountabilities in the achieving of goals. Canadian business also showed favourable compensation practices, employees perceiving compensation to be equitable, competitive and performance-based. Communication was rated to be a strength; lateral, downward and upward flow of communication had an overall positive impact on teamwork. With regards to business ethics, Canadian corporations maintained a high standard of ethical practices which in turn enhanced their corporate images.

In analyzing the pros and cons of Canadian corporate culture, Grey and Gelford stated that the disadvantages outweighed its advantages. The weaknesses could be categorized into three broad areas: strategic focus and leadership, decision-making and responsiveness, and challenge and advancement. Leadership skills lacked direction and focus, and thus Canadian managers and professionals felt less clear with respect to important and key issues such as corporate goals and well-defined guidelines for work. Therefore Canadian corporations tended not to be industry leaders due to the general lack of strategic clarity and direction. This lack of direction and leadership in turn affected decision-making in that the decision-making process tended to be proactive. Decision-making in Canadian organizations placed authority at inappropriate levels. People who made decisions were those who were least involved and affected by it. Consequently this type of decision-making trend correlated with lower scores in adapting to internal changes resulting within the organization, as well as external changes in the environment. Conservative goal setting, poor job challenge and limited opportunities for career advancement inhibited corporate vitality and management drive. Even though Canadian's corporate culture had strong performance pressures, this was not synonymous with job and goal challenges. The authors concluded that given the strengths and weaknesses, Canadian corporate culture might be described as relatively static and bureaucratic, evident in slow growth companies. Despite an emphasis on personal accountability in achieving goals and an emphasis on performance, employees could not relate their own efforts to overall corporate performance.

In conclusion, Grey and Gelford recommended that Canadian organizations should invest in education and training, research and development, and technology. At the same time, organization structures should be more decentralized. Other areas of possible improvement included quality, employee motivation, and product development and distribution. Grey and Gelford continued to assert that "a more focused, flexible and productive corporate culture" would be required in order to implement the recommended strategies.

Comments:

The results of this study seem superficial and simplistic in that the researchers have attempted to be too prescriptive. Since the instrument used to measure culture was taken from a study which measured climate, culture can then be construed as synonymous with climate. Again, no distinction between climate and culture constructs was made. The assumption that all Canadian companies needed to adopt the same approach in order for them to survive in a competitive global market is somewhat naive and difficult to envisage. Each organization's culture is unique and may not be viewed as being the same. The authors have oversimplified the whole notion of corporate culture concept which is definitely more complex than what has been shown in this study.

General Comments:

Based on the review of the above studies, one cannot disagree with the proposition that an organization's culture is socially created. The strong implication that there is a cause and effect relationship between culture and effectiveness is an issue which deserves attention. The further implication is that an ineffective organization can be made effective, and that in doing so a corporation will be able to enhance its profit margin. A questionable assumption implied by the "culture as a variable" perspective which these studies exemplify is the presumption that there exists a real and tangible sense of collective organizational culture that can be created, measured and manipulated in order to enhance organizational effectiveness. The inevitable issue which arises involves changing peoples' values, norms, and attitudes in order for them to make the "correct" contribution towards the "right" collective "culture." An unavoidable issue which tends to be overlooked in adopting such an approach is that of any inherent conflict which exists between an individual's and group's value system and interest. To assume that the values of an individual and the group are coherent, consistent, and in harmony is probably simplistic and short-sighted.

Because the culture concept in the "academic" literature has been adopted mostly from the field of anthropology, the possibility exists that in the transfer process, the concept becomes distorted. Meek (1988) argued that by not accepting the concept entirely, that is, taking into account the historical debates concerning the appropriate uses of the concept, the likelihood may be that, a biased application of the concept occurs as a consequence. The high tendency of researchers from the management tradition to select certain aspects of the culture concept which suit their research interest and popular thinking makes much of their work problematic. Failure to adopt a holistic view or to hold a fragmented view of the concept can result in the diminishing of the concept's original analytical power.

To carry the argument further, it may be said that the above studies conducted fall into a theoretical tradition namely the "structural-functional" perspective. Briefly, the "structural-functional" perspective evolved through the works of social anthropologists such as that of, Radcliffe-Brown (1952), who viewed culture as an inherent characteristic which exists as part of structural properties necessary for the functioning of all societies, thus associating different cultures with different social outcomes. Theorists in organization theory have somewhat distorted the culture concept in the sense that it has been viewed not as a unifying and regulatory mechanism, but rather as a form of mechanism which may be manipulated and used as a social control. This has been the result of selecting certain aspects of the culture concept which evolved from the structural-functionalist tradition and an interpretation which propagated the rationale that leaders create culture in order to control others (Schein, 1985). In the organizational context, leaders are thought to create culture in the light of achieving organizational goals. It may be said that the anthropological view is that cultures are created through the collective social interaction of groups and communities, as opposed to the view that leaders create culture. It might be argued that leaders can play a key role in initiating culture, but leaders do not do so in a vacuum. The social interaction of members provides the context and meaning within which culture emerges. In short, organization theorists who have "borrowed" the culture concept from social anthropology have not applied the concept in the same way as that of its original conceptualization.

In organizational analysis, the application of the structural-functionalist perspective to the culture concept tends to conceptualize it into a unidimensional and unitary concept. At the same time, the prevailing assumption that culture exists as a universal homogeneous force which holds the organization together is based on the assertion that organizations function in a natural state of equilibrium. The premise that internalization of values which provides a stable structural basis and integrated system does not explain any internal conflict within the organization. A paradox exists in that, on the one hand, the theory assumes a complete integration of values whereby all members at all levels believe in a unified corporate culture. On the other hand, however, the implication is that top management values are the key and dominant value system which management needs to impose upon members in order to internalize the values throughout all organizational levels. The realistic problem that management and workers do not belong in the same social class and may not perceive their interests to be the same, has been overlooked. Often this problem has manifested itself in the form of strikes.

Organization theorists who study corporate culture often carry with them the implication that management's behaviour is rational as oppose to the irrational behaviour of lower levels of staff (Gregory, 1983). This pro-management position leads to a biased view which conflicts with the original notion of the culture concept and how it is applied in the anthropological context. Corporate objectives which reflect management's ideology are viewed as rational. Organization theorists who conduct research in this area do so with the intention of developing tools and means of assessing the organization culture so that workers' interests become consistent with that of corporate goals. Based on the belief that corporate culture can be managed and manipulated, managers invest heavily in any kind of programme which has been designed to promote and propagate the organizational culture.

Another related issue that has been taken casually is the recognition that there are sub-cultures which exist within an organization. As mentioned earlier, often internal conflict within the organization manifests itself in the form of a strike. This is normally due to the conflict of values between management and workers. For instance, universities have multiple sub-cultures in the sense that academics, non-academics, and central administrators tend to have different interests and values.

Having said this, it has to be pointed out that the issue of organizational culture is of importance because successful organizations have something more than just superior technology, efficient management, and a strong market position. These factors do contribute to organizational success, but do not fully explain the reason as to why an organization has achieved it. It may be said that whatever it is that makes an organization more successful than others deserves investigation.

Why Is Organizational Culture Important?

Culture is intangible, but it exists, it is highly "visible" and "feelable." Due to the ambiguous nature of the concept, the study of culture is inherently incomplete (Geertz, 1973). Nevertheless, the need to study culture is not merely because it exists, but because culture is widely assumed to be a major variable in affecting organizational behaviour. The impact culture has over an organization is potent, culture is one of the factors which could determine the success or failure of the implementation of a new strategy (Business Week, 1980). Even though there is no consensus on the definition of organizational culture, there are five points of general consensus on why organizational culture is of importance in the context of organizational change (Ott,1989). The first is that organizational culture does exist. The second point of agreement is that each organization's culture is unique. The third point is the recognition that organizational culture is a concept that is socially constructed by members of the organization. Being a socially constructed concept, the fourth point is that organizational culture therefore is a way for members to understand the meaning of events and happenings in the organization. Finally, organizational culture plays an informal role as a control mechanism for guiding behaviours that are approved or otherwise. Agreement is restricted to the stated points only, but these points do not help researchers to agree on what organizational culture is. Consensus is therefore limited to the existence of organizational culture, its relative uniqueness, and the few roles it plays within an organization.

Researchers who view culture as an organizational variable conduct studies with the aim of increasing the organization's effectiveness through manipulating culture. One of the methods used to achieve such aims is to conduct training and development programmes. It may be said that the assertion that underlying the practice of these training and development programmes, more commonly known as OD programmes, is a systems concept which needs to be explored.

Chapter 3 will review the literature on the systems concept, its implications in the practice of Organization Development programmes, and will discuss the extent to which systems theory has indeed influenced OD practices. OD researchers, having their roots in a social psychological tradition, conduct work under the label of climate studies. The practical orientation characteristic of these studies has been for the purposes of developing intervention practices to enable organizations to carry through or adapt to change. Chapter 4 continues to review the literature on climate studies to illustrate the fact that these studies not only have a pragmatic tradition, but are also methodologically driven. It might be argued that the measurement techniques adopted in these studies parallel a scientific paradigm and have been used with specific relevance to intervention activities. Finally, chapter 5 takes a closer look at studies done by researchers who, in contrast to the "culture is a variable" approach advocate the view that culture "is" the organization. Discussion and commentary on the studies reviewed will be included as well as a general discussion on this perspective that culture is best seen as a "root metaphor".

CHAPTER 3

Systems Concept

As mentioned in the second chapter, the issue of corporate culture has become intertwined with the study and practice of organizational change as a result of environmental factors, particularly foreign competition. Long before the birth of the concept of "corporate culture," social scientists and other commentators had already realized the weak ability of prevailing organization structures and practices to cope with change. Burns and Stalker (1961) had conducted research on the relationship between organizational structure and environmental change, but more careful research indicates that many of the problems of change are directly linked to attitudes and values associated with particular structures (Handy, 1985).

Prophetic critiques of the prevailing "bureaucratic" structures of contemporary organization (Bennis, 1970), explicitly addressed the issue of values. Bennis's work made a major contribution to the research of other social scientists, who throughout the 1960s and 1970s, were concerned with training programmes in human relations skills as a means to aid large organizations to cope with change. These consultancy interventions, which came to be known as "organizational development" or OD, led to a substantial and coherent literature upon the subject of attitude and value changes in organizations. Even though the organizational development literature rarely refers to "corporate culture" as a related field, the work on the subject of "organizational climate" and related studies, in effect, addressed much of the same issues as the later and more recent corporate culture studies. If, for example we look at one of the earlier definitions of organizational development, we see the definition identifies with significant aspects of corporate culture (Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly, 1985; p. 676):

> The term "Organizational development"...implies a normative, reeducation strategy intended to affect systems of beliefs, values, and attitudes within the organization so that it can adapt better to the accelerated rate of change in technology, in our industrial environment and society in general. It also includes formal organizational restructuring which is frequently initiated, facilitated and reinforced by the normative and behavioural changes.

The OD consultants used different methods of study including questionnaires, observation and interview schedules and the like in trying to improve organizational effectiveness. The majority of OD consultants were behavioural scientists with a background in psychology. Most of their work, as we shall see in the next chapter on the topic of culture and climate studies, was concentrated on developing change strategies to be implemented on individual and group perceptions, attitudes and behaviour.

To explain organizational change, however, many adopted a "systems" perspective on organizations. It could be argued that the somewhat "blind" adoption and acceptance of systems theory as a basis for OD methodology raises a number of questions, which will be discussed in more detail towards the end of this chapter. The next section provides a review of systems theory followed by the different types of OD programmes most commonly used by practitioners.

Systems Theory and Organizational Development

Systems theory provides the underlying theoretical framework within which OD techniques have been developed. The OD strategies are therefore based on the theoretical assumptions made by systems theorists. Before going into the different forms of intervention that are most commonly adopted by organizations, the need to discuss systems theory as relevant to organizational development (OD) theorists is necessary.

The systems concept is primarily an approach and way of thinking about how to manage. It offers a conceptual framework based on the view that internal and external environmental factors exist as an integrated whole. The systems concept recognizes both the function of subsystems, and the complex supersystems within which organizations exist and operate. The importance of the integrated nature of specific systems is stressed, as well as the fact that each system is a self-contained unit with inputs and outputs. Business organizations are systems that exist as part of a larger system, for instance industry wide among other organizations, and even within society as a whole.

Johnson, Kast and Rosenzweig (1967) defined a system as "an organized or complex whole; an assemblage or combination of things or parts forming a complex or unitary whole" (p. 4). A key aspect of systems theory is the distinction between closed and open systems. This distinction is of relevance to business organizations because systems theory views the business organization as an open system. As a system, organizations are made up of functional sub-units such as marketing, production, accounting and the like, which are coordinated and function as an integrated whole. One way to understand the systems concept is to use the metaphor of the organism as a system (Morgan, 1986). The living organism can be seen as a definite system in itself possessing qualities of wholeness and organization. An organism lives as an open system with the ability to maintain a stable state, even though the matter and energy which enters it constantly change. This state is called "dynamic equilibrium." There is a two way relationship between the organism and its environment, both influencing each other. The activity that takes place between the organism and its environment results in the organism reaching a state of dynamic equilibrium in this environment. Such is the description of an organism as an open system that is related metaphorically to a typical complex organization. The aim of systems theory for management is to provide a better understanding of the complex environment in which the organization exists, and to facilitate decision-making by managers by providing a more explicit framework. Systems theory therefore tries to identify the elements which can be used as a framework for integrated decision-making. As open systems, organizations are hierarchical in form. Each higher level of system is made up of lower systems. Societies as systems, consist of organizations; organizations are made up of departments or groups; groups of individuals; and so on. Systems of different levels have differing characteristics, such as size and complexity, but by virtue of being open systems they do possess common properties. These properties are applicable to all systems of all levels, and help to explain how open systems function. The key characteristics of open systems are: 1) inputs, operations, and outputs; 2) boundary; 3) feedback; and 4) equifinality (Huse and Cummings, 1989).

Inputs are resources that enter from the environment such as labour, information, energy, raw materials and the like. Operations are the processes that convert inputs into other forms. A simple example would be that of manufacturing organizations transforming raw materials into finished goods. The outcome or result of what that has been transferred are the outputs. Educated people are considered to be the output of schools and higher learning institutions.

The boundaries of an open system, especially that of a business organization, are difficult to define and are arbitrary. This is due to the fact that there is a continuous exchange of energy between the system and its environment. Borders or limits of the system may be defined as boundaries. Arbitrary boundaries may be used for social systems by identifying the variables to be stressed. Systems can be relatively open or closed, fixed or diffused depending on the permeability of its boundaries. Conflict over boundaries is inevitable and problems are expected.

Feedback is information received concerning the actual performance or results of the organization. Feedback is information concerning the actual performance of the organization used to compare with targeted performance. Therefore feedback is the information used as a control mechanism in efforts to improve performance, change the organization, and control the future functioning of the organization. It should be stressed that not all information is feedback.

Equifinality is the idea that results may be achieved through different means and different initial conditions. In applying this concept to the business organization, equifinality implies that a manager can achieve a satisfactory level of outputs through implementation of different ways and means, and using varying degrees of inputs. This also implies that there is no rigid or single method and solution to a management problem. System and contingency theory suggest that there is no universal way to manage an organization.

The systems concept had an influence on the thinking of different researchers in different fields of organization theory. The scientific-management movement was concerned with establishing procedures for the work situation as well as offering benefit and opportunities for all involved, namely employees, managers, and owners. Emerging from the Hawthorne Western Electric studies, the human relationists shifted the emphasis of "efficiency experts" from the man as machine concept to motivation and the social interrelationship of individuals and groups in the organization. The focus on effects of interpersonal relationships, human behaviour, and small groups resulted in scholars evaluating the total approach and techniques used in management.

The relatively mechanical models developed by the "scientific management" era eventually gave way to "human-relations" theories. Emphasis was given on "decision-making" and its relationship to communication systems, organization structure, questions of growth and uncertainty. This way of thinking recognized the more complex models of organizational behaviour, resulting in management scientists investigating new alternatives to management theory.

The concept of the business enterprise as a social system also has received widespread attention over the past 40 years. The social-system school views management as a system of cultural interrelationships. Derived from sociology, the concept of social system recognizes the formal and informal organization as constituting the total integrated system. The business organization exist as part of a larger environment and is vulnerable to the external pressures that affects its activities.

One way to describe the formal/informal components of the organization is via the analogy of the organization as an iceberg. The formal components of an organization can be compared to the tip of the iceberg that is "above water." On the other hand, the informal components are "below water" and unseen. The formal components can be said to be the hard issues that are oriented to structural factors. Whereas the informal components are the "soft" issues that deal with non-observable processual and behavioural oriented factors. The formal and informal aspects of an organization indicates the degree of intended change that managers need to consider when implementing a change programme. The depth of intended change therefore depends on the scope and intensity of the organization development efforts. This will be discussed in the next section.

Overview of the types of OD programmes

The organizational iceberg analogy will be used as a basis for looking at the different types of training and development programmes suggested by OD practitioners. Thus, a more detailed discussion of the organizational iceberg will be included in this section. Before doing so, there is a need to state at this point that when implementing an intervention, there are major categories of change that have been identified by Golembiewski, Billingsley, and Yeager (1976), namely alpha, beta and gamma change. Alpha change may be defined as pretest to post-test change that correspond to an actual or absolute change. For instance, if the measure is an evaluative rating of supervisory behaviour, the change in the rating corresponds to an actual change in behaviour. Beta change takes place when the respondent alters his or her subjective metric or scale as result of the observed change. Using the same example, the change in the respondent rating is not the result of actual behavioural change, but rather a change in the respondent's evaluative rating scale for supervisory quality (that is, the respondent's changed perception of supervisor behaviour). Finally, a shift in the meaning or conceptualization of the construct being measured is considered a gamma change. In other words, the change in rating has resulted from the respondent's reconceptualization of the behaviour being rated. Golembiewski et. al. (1976) also pointed out that the intended change of an organizational intervention may be to encourage beta or gamma change instead of alpha change. It has to be stressed here that the depth of intended change (categories of change) can be thought of as consistent with the different definitions of culture managers make when they claim that a change in culture has occurred due to intervention programmes. If culture is defined as behavioural norms, then changes in behavioural norms should be considered as an alpha change. If culture is defined as the way people view things, then a change in the way people perceive different things may be said to be similar to that of beta change. Finally, if culture is defined as the way people make sense of their world, with an emphasis on meaning, then a change in the conceptualization in peoples' mind can be said to be somewhat consistent with a gamma change. This is not to say and imply that it would be easy for researchers to measure the different categories of changes, but to stress that in evaluating an intervention, the three types of change need to be distinguished.

Referring back to the organizational iceberg analogy, this section now looks at formal and informal components of the organization. Some of the formal components that are observable, rational and oriented to structural considerations are as follows: job definitions and descriptions; departmentalization bases; spans of control and hierarchical levels; organization's missions, goals, and objectives; operating policies and practices; personnel policies and practices; and production and efficiency effectiveness measurements. The informal components that are hidden, affective, and oriented to social/psychological process and behavioural considerations are as follows: emergent power and influence patterns; personal views of organization and individual competencies; pattern of interpersonal and groups relationships; group sentiments and norms; perceptions of trust.

The need to match the different OD programmes with the formal and informal organizational aspects is important. Figure 1 depicts the relationship between the source of problem and degree of intended change. Selfridge and Sokolik (1975) suggested that there are 10 levels or targets, of an OD programme. It should be noted here that this thesis focuses on levels five and six, that is, the intended levels of change are on skills and attitudes. The two major types of training that can improve skills and attitudes are on-the-job and off-the-job training (Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly, 1985). The following paragraphs will provide an overview of the types of OD programmes and its intended levels of change as identified by Selfridge and Sokolik (1975). The different OD programmes will be classified into three major categories: structural development methods; skills and attitude development methods (the focus of this thesis); and behavioural development methods.

Figure 1

Model of Organizational Development Targets

STRUCTURAL TARGETS							BEHAVIOURAL TARGETS		
Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Level 5	Level 6	Level 7	Level 8	Level 9	Level 10
Organizat -ional structure	Operating policies and practices	Personnel policies and practices	Job Per- formance appraisal and improve- ment	Manage- ment attitudes and skills	Non- manage- ment attitudes and skills	Intergroup behavior	Intragroup behavior	Individual behavior	Individual -group behavior
LOW				Depth of intended change					HIGH

Adapted from Richard J. Selfridge and Stanley L. Sokolik, "A Comprehensive View of Organizational Development", MSU Business topics, Winter 1975, p. 49, in Organizations: Behavior, Structure, Processes by James L. Gibson, John M. Ivancevich and James H. Donnelly, Jr. (Texas: Business Publications, Inc., 1985), pp. 713.

I. <u>Structural Development Methods</u>

Structural development involves management intervention to improve effectiveness through changing the formal structure of task and authority relationships. Structural changes become inevitable when changes in environmental factors occur resulting in organizational ineffectiveness. Since organization structure is the basis for stable relationships between employees, time and technological factors may make these relationships irrelevant. For instance, a change in the nature of a job will change the existing relationships, aspects of formal task and authority definitions. Two contrasting examples of approaching structural development could be the Management by Objectives (MBO) and System 4.

a. Management By Objectives-(MBO)

Management by objectives is the establishment of specific objectives by both managers and nonmanagers for themselves and their units. MBO therefore uses participative management in determining organizational objectives. Drucker (1955) stated that there were three basic guidelines for implementing an MBO programme:

1. Superiors and subordinates together need to determine objectives that are coherent with overall organizational goals.
2. Superiors and subordinates jointly determine attainable objectives for subordinates.
3. Superiors and subordinates get together at a later date to make sure that subordinates progress are towards the objectives as planned.

The above three elements make up the framework of any MBO programme even though the actual procedures implemented by different organizations vary. The three steps of the MBO approach, objective setting, subordinate participation in objective setting and employee satisfaction, improved attitudes and greater role clarity.

b. System 4 Organization

Likert's system 4 organization development programme (Likert, 1967) is an approach to change an organizational structure from a bureaucratic to one of a more an organic design. The organic organizational design is viewed to be the "ideal type" of organization which will be able to achieve higher levels of performance. Any deviation from the System 4 characteristics will result in lower levels of performance. Likert identified eight organizational dimensions that describe an organization's profile: leadership, motivation, communication, interaction, decision-making, goal setting, control and performance. An organization that wants to change its present structural design to that of an organic structure will first need to diagnose the present state of the organization structure. This is done through the Likert questionnaire instrument. Employees need to complete the questionnaire and indicate the extent they perceive that their organization meets the system 4 description. After the organizational profile has been assessed and management discovers that a discrepancy exists, training programmes that emphasize the System 4 concepts are then implemented in the organization. According to Likert, the system 4 concepts that can help achieve greater performance levels are as follows: 1) supportive and group-oriented leadership; 2) equal distribution of authority in matters of setting goals, implementing control, and making decisions. The rationale is that system 4 structure should encourage positive changes in employee attitudes and help performance.

II. Skill and Attitude Development Methods

One of the most common methods used by organizations to improve employee productivity are training programmes. The aim and objective of such training programmes are to improve participants' knowledge, skills, and attitudes toward their jobs and the organization. The most widely publicized types of training programmes take in the form of either on–the–job or/and off–the –job training.

a. On–the–job Training

On–the–job training is adopted by many organizations based on the believe that if training occurs off–the–job, there is a high possibility that trainees will perform at lower levels when they return to the actual job. From an economic perspective, on–the–job training is cost effective and productive since employees are being trained whilst on–the–job. There are two types of on–the–job training as practised by organizations:

i) Job–Instruction Training – This type of programme is designed for both white and blue–collar employees who undertake on–the–job training. Trainees are first introduced to the job and then receive step–by–step instruction and demonstration of the job functions. Having understood all instructions, the trainees demonstrate their ability to perform the job. This learning on–the–job takes place until trainees achieve a satisfactory level of performance. The aim of this type of training is to increase performance through higher productivity levels, lower scrap costs, and so on. This approach to training is designed for jobs that have specific content. In implementing such training, the trainer needs to be equipped with technical skills and be aware of the importance of repetition, active participation and immediate constructive feedback.

ii) Junior Executive Boards – This type of training is meant for middle- and lower-level managers to expose them to and to provide them with top-level management problem-solving experience. A junior committee board is formed for the purpose of allowing middle- and lower-level managers to participate in major decision-making issues such as investments or personnel planning. The basis for such an approach is that the trainee will be able to understand the complexities and issues involved in top management decision-making. The trainee will also be able to view the organization's overall direction and difficulties. This method allows management to assess the trainee's capacity for decision-making. In other words, the aim of such training is to teach trainees how to cope with major problems.

b. Off-the-job Training

Through the years organizations have found it necessary to supplement on-the-job training. Off-the-job training offers trainees the opportunity to get away from the pressures of the working environment. Trainees are encouraged to develop themselves by stimulating self-analysis. In these attempts to develop, grow and change for the better, off-the-job training provides resource people and material including faculty members and literature to help trainees come up with suggestions and new ideas. The rationale behind off-the-job training is that trainees will be more stimulated to learn by being away from job pressures. How much of what is learned is transferred back to the job is a question that has yet to be answered, but nevertheless off-the-job training programmes are widely used by organizations.

i) The Lecture Method - The objective of the lecture method, which involves cognitive learning, is for the trainee to acquire knowledge and information in a relatively inexpensive way. A main advantage of the lecture method is that the trainer is able to prepare the lecture materials in advance, this gives the trainer more control over what is to be presented to the participants. Another simplicity with the lecture method is that the materials can be used repeatedly. A note of caution needs to be said at this point, that is, despite all the efforts the trainer has put in preparing the lecture, this does not guarantee that learning will take place. Even attendance does not ensure motivation, the participants themselves must be prepared to learn.

ii) The Discussion of Conference Approach - Participants are given the opportunity to exchange ideas and experiences with each other. The aim of such an exercise is to stimulate the participants' thinking, broaden their outlook and improve their communicative abilities. Participants are expected to actively involve themselves actively in the group discussions rather than take a passive role. The trainer acts as a facilitator, she/he must have good interpersonal skills in order to reinforce positive behaviour through providing feedback to each participant on their individual contribution to the group discussion.

iii) The Case Study and Role-Playing Method - This approach uses a description of actual events that took place in an organization. The variety and kinds of problems faced by an organization are illustrated through the use of case studies. For instance, a case study may deal with the problem of how a nursing supervisor tried to motivate subordinates or how a newly promoted foreman dealt with the problem of working with the line workers who used to be his fellow colleagues at the workshop. Trainees are required to read through the case, identify the problems and suggest solutions. One point that needs to be made here is that there is no correct solutions to a case study, but trainees must be able to rationalize in a logical manner as to why they proposed a certain solution.

The role-playing method involves trainees acting out a case. The concept of experiential learning that is based on the concept of learning by doing is applied here. In the previous example, for instance, one participant may act the nurse supervisor role while another three or four participants as the subordinates. The aim for role-playing is to enable participants to "feel" and empathise with the situation by putting themselves in another person's position.

The above on-the-job and off-the-job training requires learning new skills and attitudes. The process of organizational change inevitably includes some form of formal or informal training and learning which precedes change.

III. Behavioural Development Methods

OD programmes designed to affect behavioural processes at the different levels, namely intergroup, intragroup, individual-group, and individual behaviour, also involve emotional and perceptual processes. OD practitioners believe that these programmes can help overcome social/psychological and behavioural problems and therefore increase organizational effectiveness. The four major types of programmes that could be said to fall into this category are the managerial Grid, sensitivity training, team building, and life planning, these will be discussed only briefly as they are not the focus of this study.

a) The Managerial Grid

Blake and Mouton developed the managerial Grid based on their theory of leadership and behaviour. The two leadership dimensions identified by the researchers are concern for production and concern for people. The ideal leadership style that is recommended by Blake and Mouton is one that is balanced concerning for both production and people. The success of implementing such a leadership style also depends on the support of appropriate group behaviour that will sustain it. The programme is made up of six sequential phases and takes between three to five years to implement within the organization. The first phase is to introduce to managers the Grid philosophy and objectives through a one week seminar. The second phase, intragroup development, is the process of learning managerial Grid concepts; building on improving relationships among colleagues of the same level, and between superiors and subordinates; making an evaluation of outdated practices and precedents and extending problem solving capacities in interdependent situations. The third phase is intergroup development whereby group-to-group working relationships is the focus. The aim is to remove the "we win-you lose" feeling and encourage joint problem-solving approach. The fourth phase is organizational goal setting. This step involves developing an organizational blueprint through managers' conviction about ideal management practices and setting attainable objectives. Existing practices are tested through evaluation of its weaknesses and short comings. The fifth phase, goal attainment, focuses on the total organization. This step involve identification of problem areas and the goal of the total organization, the group then looks on corrective action geared towards achieving the organizational goals. Finally, the stabilization period takes about a year before weaknesses and corrective action can be taken to make sure that the implemented plans are properly carried out and organizational goals are achieved.

b) Team Building

Team building is a management technique that focuses on the work group. A group may already exist, or may just have been created, in the form of either command or task groups. The aim and purpose of team building is to help work groups manage tasks more effectively. Issues that are being dealt with include goal setting and prioritising, evaluating group norms and communication processes and decision-making, and interpersonal relationships. Diagnostic meetings that often last for a day are conducted with the aim of allowing open confrontation of the issues and problems among group members. Problem identification and consensus decision-making methods are initial steps that are important for these diagnostic meetings. In applying these steps, a plan of action is needed. The plan of action involves each group member tackling a specific action in an effort to overcome one or more of the identified problems. These problems are discussed in an open manner so that the views of all members are known to the group. It must be emphasized that the ground rule for the success for these diagnostic meetings is that the group must reach a consensus on decisions. These diagnostic meetings are carried out for a year or so, until interunit or interdepartmental competition is replaced by cooperation. Team building is meant to improve group processes and establish an understanding of the role each group member plays.

c) Life planning

Life planning is a method that attempts to integrate individual and organizational goals in an effort to achieve satisfying outcomes. This technique involves a process of intervention that requires the individual to focus on their past, present, and future status. The first point that the individual needs to consider is an assessment of one's strengths and weaknesses, the events and choices that are important at the present time. The next point is to formulate future goals that would achieve and give direction towards the desired lifestyle and career path. Finally, a plan that establishes specific goals, action steps and target dates is drawn up. Life planning exercises vary in format according to organizations, but the three stated points are the key elements of such a programme. The aim of life planning is to focus on life accomplishments rather than job accomplishments as in the MBO technique. The implementation of life planning should help organizations recognize the value of each individual, and to make efforts to integrate individual and organizational aspirations.

d) Sensitivity Training

Sensitivity training has been a widely used technique which focuses on the individual and individual-group problems. The term sensitivity refers to being aware of the self and self-other relationships. The basis for sensitivity training is the underlying assumption that poor task performance is a result of emotional problems among people who have to work collectively. Therefore, solving these emotional problems should help people perform better. This technique stresses the importance of process and emotions rather than the content and conceptual aspects of training. Sensitivity training differs from other traditional forms of training that encourages the individual to acquire a predetermined set of concepts to be applied to the workplace. The implementation of sensitivity training involves the setting up of an unstructured T-group ("T" for training) that meets away form the workplace. A trainer supervises the T-group in group dialogue that has no focus and no agenda. The aim of the T-group is for group members to learn about themselves as they interact with others. Needs and attitudes are unveiled through a two-way behavioural interaction among group members. The outcome of T-groups is to enable participants to improve task performance, but there is scepticism about their ability to achieve this goal. One problem is that the behaviour change may not be transferable to the workplace due to the absence of an open, supportive, and permissive work climate. Nevertheless, advocates of T–groups confirm through studies that sensitivity training does induce positive changes in participants' sensitivity to themselves and to others, and helps improve interrelationships.

Comments:

Having looked at the systems theory and the practice of OD, it may be said that there is great ambiguity in the theoretical underpinnings that govern OD practices. It might be argued that the practice of OD has been influenced by a broad systems perspective as well as the human relations school. The influence of the human relations school on the practice of OD has been such that OD concerns the human side of the organization and emphasizes issues such as interpersonal relationships between individual employees and groups, job satisfaction and motivation and the like. With respect to a systems perspective, the practice of OD has adopted only two aspects of it. Even so, it will be argued here that even these aspects of a systems perspective that seem relevant to OD are problematic.

First, the idea that organizations are open systems interacting with the environment is implicit in so far as the OD approach is implemented to help organizations to adapt to changes in the environment. The claim that has been made by OD practitioners is that the purpose of implementing OD is to facilitate the natural adaptation process. However, it might be argued that in reality the practice of OD is to initiate the change process, rather than assist organizations in doing so. The assumption that organizations automatically adapt to their environment to achieve a state of equilibrium is rendered questionable. A paradox inherently exists in such a view because the assumption that organizations automatically adapt to the environment should mean that an intervention is unnecessary. In reality, organizations do not easily adapt to the changing environment naturally but need help from outside intervention. Therefore, this theoretical assumption is in conflict with actual practice.

Second, the understanding that organizations are made up of functional sub-units which interrelate with each other is evident in the OD practice. As such, the OD approach intervenes in a discrete fashion. The use of discrete intervention becomes paradoxical in that it conflicts with the systems perspective view of organizations, that is, the interrelated parts of any organization functioning as a whole. The actual practice of OD, however, inevitably does not treat organizations as total systems because intervention takes place amongst certain groups of employees or departmental units. For instance, only front-line staff members undergo training in customer care. The other assumptions underpinning the systems perspective do not seem to be manifest in the actual OD practice.

A critical analysis of the systems perspective and the practice of OD indicates that there are other problems. One of the major criticisms of systems theory is the assumption of the consensual model of an organization. The problem with such an assumption lies in the negation of the inherently pluralistic nature of organizations. One major problem with the systems theory is that it tends to ignore the issue of conflict within the organization, and uses the assumption that all the organizational parts function in harmony. Fox (1966) termed such a view as a "unitary frame of reference" which has a simplistic consensual view of an organization.

It might be pointed out that in reality the conflicting interests existing within an organization may be manifested in a variety of forms from passive non-cooperation to strikes. In addition, the fact that OD intervention is needed to overcome problems of such a nature, strongly indicates that consensual view of organizations is impractical. Contrary to such an understanding, OD intervention may be described as the management of the politics of change. As such, OD practitioners are hired by top management to implement management's solution to the perceived problems. OD practitioners are well aware that the OD methodology is not neutral in its activities, but is an approach used by top management to impose its ideology on employees. Given the arguments above, it may be stated that the systems perspective has little relevance to the actual practice of OD.

It might be argued at this juncture that there is no consistent, coherent and comprehensive body of knowledge concerning the theoretical concepts implicit in the OD practice. It is important to highlight the fact that there is a difference between the OD literature and the actual practice of OD. OD, being an applied science, focuses on the applications of action research, rather than developing a conceptual understanding of its own theoretical bases. As a consequence, OD practitioners have not made it an objective of their work to develop such a body of theoretical knowledge. Neither do OD practitioners attempt to defend the theoretical assumptions implied in its methodology.

Despite this, certain OD theorists such as Huse and Cummings (1989), have attempted to provide a theoretical justification for the practice of OD, but have done so unsuccessfully. Even though Huse and Cummings recognize the fact that OD has primarily dealt with action and intervention, they still insist that there should be a body of knowledge to provide explanations on how change programmes work and in what circumstances they are applicable. They stated that much of the literature on OD covers techniques and activities used by change agents in implementing planned intervention. The information provided identifies a general set of change agent activities, but does not explain how certain intervention techniques operate in specific situations. Huse and Cummings assert that there is a need to develop a systematic body of knowledge so as to provide a basis for choosing and implementing interventions within "a science of changing". Huse and Cummings claim that such knowledge is lacking in the OD literature. Being too narrowly focused on identifying organizational problems and solving them, they take the position that OD theorists still fails to make a contribution to developing a body of knowledge that helps one to understand better and learn what is required to alter an organization's status quo, and to form new structures and processes. This new body of knowledge to which they aspire they term as action learning (Huse and Cummings, 1989).

The argument presented by Huse and Cummings shows that there is great difficulty in trying to develop a theoretical justification that explains the practice of OD. The attempt to provide a theoretical explanation has so far been inadequate. The reason may be that theorists and practitioners do not work together and do not seem to have the same objectives, therefore discrepancies exist between actual OD practice and what is laid out in the OD literature.

This chapter reviewed the systems perspective and looked at how it relates to the actual practice of OD. It is clear that there is a link between the approach of OD and contemporary concerns with culture management. Indeed the pioneering studies of both culture measurement and management arose out of the OD tradition albeit the term added was "organizational climate". It might be argued that the whole idea of "culture management" evolved from this "climate" tradition and has had a profound impact on the "culture as variable" perspective.

Chapter 4 provides an examination of these climate studies, and argue that they have bequeathed a distinctive emphasis to subsequent efforts to define and measure organizational culture. First, the need to define "climate" in such a way that it can be measured within the canonical requirements of a prescribed methodology and second, that definition and measurement should be geared towards practical applications.

CHAPTER 4

Chapter 3 reviewed the literature on systems theory and OD practices. Two points were highlighted in the commentary. The first was that the relationship between systems theory and OD practice has been somewhat incoherent in that OD practitioners have adopted only elements of the systems perspective. The second was that OD has been action research oriented and as such, has not been concerned with the development of a consistent and comprehensive body of theoretical knowledge. It may be stated at this point that OD researchers belong to a social psychology tradition who conduct work with the aim of measuring a construct for practical managerial purposes. It may be also pointed out that these researchers conduct work under the label of climate studies. For example, a study conducted by Argyris (1958) researched the working climate in a bank. In his work, Argyris defined climate in terms of "interrelated systems of variables: formal policies, procedures, and positions of the organization; personality factors including individual needs, values, and abilities; and the complicated pattern of variables associated with the individual's efforts to accommodate his own ends with those of the organization" (p.501). Climate was used synonymously with the term informal culture in this study. It would be useful at this point to look closer at studies on climate as an illustration to show that a practical orientation drove the methodology of these studies. It may also be pointed out that the "culture as a variable" perspective evolved from climate research, and that, therefore, the relationship between climate and these "culture as variable" studies needs to be explored.

Climate Research - What were the studies about?

According to Reichers and Schneider (1990), a widely accepted definition of climate is the shared perception of "organizational policies, practices, and procedures, both formal and informal" (p. 22). Climate studies focus on organization members' perception of the work environment and how work is being carried out. The word perception also includes "the meaning attached to the perceived event or thing" (Reichers and Schneider, 1990; p. 23). Climate researchers have also recognized the importance of shared perceptions (meanings) that exist as a collective climate within an organizational context (Joyce and Slocum, 1984). It may be said at this point that climate and culture studies are closely related in the sense that researchers are interested in the "meaning attached" or "meaningful interpretation" of a group or collective. It could be stated that the (perception) meaning attached to reward policies in an organization (climate) imply that certain values and beliefs govern the understanding of worker motivation (culture). This argument takes us to the point that climate may be viewed as a manifestation of culture.

Alternatively, it could be argued that cultural assumptions and values that underlie perception and inferences direct the individual psychologically as to what is important, such as achievement or affiliation. Ashforth (1985) is of the opinion that culture affects climate in two ways. First, culture helps individuals to define what is important and provide meaning to experiences. Second, culture affects climate indirectly through "its very impact on the objective work environment – the raw material of climate perceptions" (Ashforth 1985, p.842). In other words, behavioural norms reflect underlying cultural assumptions and values.

There is great and tremendous diversity in defining the dimensions of climate. However, climate researchers tend to use climate dimensions that apply to the studys' criteria of interest, such as Zohar's (1980) study on safety climate and Schneider's study on climate for service industry (1980). Zohar's (1980) study looked at safety climate as reflected in employees' perceptions about the degree of importance of safe behaviour at work. The results supported the hypothesis that there is general agreement among company employees' perceptions on safety climate. The study tested positive for a second hypothesis which proposed that the level of safety climate is correlated with safety programmes' effectiveness as judged by safety inspectors. It was also discovered that the degree of management commitment to the safety issues and attitude towards safety affected the success of safety programmes. The study concluded that safety should be included as an integral part of the total production system and should not be seen as separate and independent of management operations.

Glick (1985) classified the dimensions of climate into leadership characteristics, communication characteristics and aspects of organizational effectiveness. Hellriegel and Slocum Jr. (1974) used Leavitt's typology (1965) to define climate dimensions as people, structure, task, technology. In addition, Hellriegel and Slocum Jr. (1974) stated that there seemed to be an emphasis on people oriented scales. A study conducted by Downey, Hellriegel, and Slocum Jr. (1975) tested propositions about the interaction of climate with individual personality influences, job satisfaction and performance. In this study, the dimensions of climate were defined as consisting of six factors viz. decision–making, warmth, risk, openness, rewards and structure. The results of the study indicated that job satisfaction is a function of the interaction between individual personality characteristics and the perceived environment or organizational climate. To a lesser degree, the results also showed a positive correlation with job performance.

Lawler, Hall and Oldham (1974) studied the effect of organization structure and processes on perceived organizational climate, which in turn affects organization performance and employee job satisfaction. They claimed that since organization climate is closely related to job satisfaction and performance, it would be important then to identify the elements that make up organizational climate. In this study, the dimensions of climate were identified to include the factors competent/potent, responsible, practical, risk–oriented and impulsive. Climate is viewed as a "generalized perception of the organization which the person forms as a result of numerous experiences in the organization" (pg. 142). The two major influences in the environment that affect individual experience and therefore perception of climate are organization structure and the administrative process of the organization. The first part of the study involved testing the relationship between structural and process variables and the climate of the organization as perceived by the employee. Structural variables were defined to include span of control, size, number of levels, and tall/flat shape. Process variables were identified to include frequency of performance assessment and relationship to compensation programme, professional autonomy, assignment generality, collaboration support and informal budget account. It was discovered that climate factors were related to process variables but not structural variables as perceived by subjects. The second part of the study tested the relationship between perceived climate and job satisfaction and organization performance. Organization performance was measured by technical, administrative and objective performance factors. Satisfaction measures were identified as security, social, esteem, autonomy, fulfilment and pay factors. The result of this second part was that perceived climate was significantly correlated with measures of organization performance and with job satisfaction. In conclusion, the results showed that organization process variables were significantly related to climate even though structural variables were not. Perceived climate was in turn demonstrated to be positively correlated to organization performance and job satisfaction measures.

A review article on climate by Hellriegel and Slocum Jr. (1974) states that climate may be viewed as an independent, intervening or dependent variable by researchers. Climate researchers who view climate as an independent variable conduct research on the effects of climate on dependent variables of organizational effectiveness such as performance and job satisfaction (Hellriegel and Slocum Jr., 1974). For example, Schneider (1972) and Pritchard and Karasick (1973) demonstrate that organizational climate is related to job satisfaction with respect to factors such as interpersonal relations, group cohesiveness, task-involvement and the like. Evidence also show that organizational climate does affect job performance (Pritchard and Karasick, 1973; Downey, Hellriegel and Slocum Jr., 1975; Lawler, Hall and Oldham, 1974). The study conducted by Pritchard and Karasick (1973) discovered that a highly supportive climate will result in higher satisfaction regardless of individual personality characteristics. However, the finding of the study did support the proposition that an individual's need for order does affect performance in a positive way if the climate is perceived to be high in centralized decision-making or as being highly structured.

Climate researchers who view climate as an intervening variable considered job performance and satisfaction as dependent variables. The independent variables in this case were human relations training programmes, leadership styles, or the personality needs of a manager (Hellriegel and Slocum Jr., 1974). The authors use the example of a study conducted by Skinner (1965) on training programmes. According to Skinner, behaviours learned in a programme can be reinforced by an organization. On the other hand, unwanted behaviours can be prevented by not reinforcing them. A behaviour may be reinforced through the organization's reward system. If a trainee perceives that the relationship between performance and rewards is great, then there is great possibility that the trainee will exhibit the reinforced behaviour. In addition, the support of peer group can also reinforce new behaviours. A trainee wanting to apply a new behaviour can receive reinforcement by members of the organization. Leadership styles too can create different climates. Litwin and Stringer's (1968) book on "Motivation and Organizational Climate" demonstrated that the independent variable, leadership style of the president, can create different climates by the way the president acted. Three climates were created namely authoritarian-oriented business, democratic-friendly business and achieving business. The study discovered that the different climates produced as a result of different leadership styles resulted in different levels of performance. The achieving business climate resulted in highest performance, while the democratic-friendly business climate resulted in highest worker level satisfaction.

Pritchard and Karasick (1973) considered six different personality profiles and their relationship to climate, job satisfaction and performance. As mentioned earlier, a positive and supportive climate was significantly correlated to high job satisfaction regardless of individual personality need. Managers with a high need for order tended to perform well in a highly structured climate, while managers with a high need for autonomy were more satisfied working in a climate that characterized decentralized decision-making. Therefore, Pritchard and Karasick (1973) conclude that there is limited evidence that individual needs and climate interact and give impact on different levels of job satisfaction and performance.

Climate researchers who view climate as a dependent variable try to control climate through the organization's structure and implementation of human relations training programmes. Among OD practitioners the same effect would be claimed by the use of sensitivity training programmes (Argyris, 1962). Studies conducted by Litwin and Stringer (1968), Hall and Lawler (1969), Schneider and Bartlett (1970) and Schneider and Hall (1972) indicate that the position of an individual in the organization's hierarchy does affect the individual's perception of his/her climate. Therefore, the way the individual describes his/her organization (climate) and his/her evaluation of climate (job satisfaction) are strongly correlated to the position of the individual in the managerial hierarchy.

One study in particular was conducted in a highly controlled setting in order to test the effect of organizational environment on perceived power and climate (Dieterly and Schneider,1974). The climate dimensions were defined as individual autonomy;

position structure; reward structure; and consideration, warmth, and support. The perceived power dimensions were assessed as referent, expert, legitimate, coercive and reward. The three characteristics of the organizational work environment were level of participation, stockholder/customer orientation and position/hierarchy level. The study discovered that there was no significant relationship between climate and power perceptions. The organizational work environment had a great impact on perceived climate. A customer oriented philosophy resulted in a higher perceived individual autonomy than a stockholder orientation. The positive correlation can be explained by the following relationships: i) between customer/stockholder orientation and level of participation and ii) between level of participation and position level. Reward structure was also dependent upon the philosophy of organization towards customers versus stockholders. The perceived reward orientation was greater in a customer oriented organization than in a stockholder/customer orientation and level of participation directly affected perceived expert power and perceived climate dimension, individual autonomy, in a positive way. Level of participation also interacted with climate. High perceived autonomy and consideration climate were characteristics of a customer oriented and participatory decision-making organizational work environment.

The role of training programmes, sensitivity training in particular, have been applied to measurement of changes by organizational development (OD) researchers (Golembiewski and associates, 1976). The Likert climate instrument was used by these researchers as an indicator of OD effectiveness. The results of the study indicate that there are four points worthy of note. First, sensitivity training helps to reduce the discrepancy score between the trainee's climate preferences and his perception of the organizational climate. Secondly, sensitivity training is able to maintain for a period of time the changes in climate perception achieved during training. Thirdly, the interaction between sensitivity training and the organization's external environment produces changes in organizational climate. The fourth and final point is that a significant reduction in labour force results in changes in climate.

Benjamin Schneider (1973) concluded that customers reacted in the same way as that of the employees towards management. A prominent commercial bank with four branches was selected for this study. Two branches were primarily retail or nonbusiness while the other two were predominantly commercial. The hypothesis tested was as follows: In service organizations characterized by employee-customer face-to-face contact, customers have summary perceptions about organizations that may be based on their perceptions of specific service-related events and behaviours (Schneider 1973; page 248). Two assumptions underlie the hypothesis: First, it was assumed that service organizations are open systems that interact with the environment, that is employee's behaviour towards customers seemed to be a result of the working climate created by the bank; employees, in turn, create the climate perceived by customers. Second, it was assumed that customers perceive specific events and behaviours in organizations and tend to use them as a basis for formulating their summary perception of the larger organization. Through personal interviews conducted in each bank branch, six bank features were identified as important to the customer: convenience, short waiting-time, personal friendly service, full-service banking, safety, and decoration. Items describing each of the six features were then written. In addition, items designed deliberately to tap an intention to switch to another bank by the customer were also included. Correlations between item features and switch intentions were made. The results of the survey indicated that customer intentions to switch banks were significantly related to their perceptions of bank climate and employees. The following generalizations may be derived from the study: First, employee climate perceptions of an organization may be based on customer perceptions of bank employees. Second, summary perceptions of an organization may lead to people leaving the organization. Third, perceiver situation–specific service values were positively correlated to both specific event and summary climate perceptions. Finally, there was no correlation between summary climate perception and the more objective characteristics of customers (example size of account) and of the bank (example number of customers). In a follow–up study of 23 bank branches conducted by Schneider, Parkington, and Buxton (1980), it was discovered that there was a positive correlation between employee and customer perceptions of the quality of service provided. The results also indicated that there was a strong relationship between employee perceptions of service practices and procedures, and customer perceptions of service practices and quality. Therefore, it may be inferred that rules and procedures adopted by an organization will not only affect the way employees perform their task and their job satisfaction, but also the work climate. The work climate as perceived by the customer in turn affects customer satisfaction. This is to say that management's attitude towards creating a customer care culture within the organization is reflected in its structure, policies, rules, and procedures.

Comments:

The review of climate studies indicates that there are two points of relevance that need to be discussed here. First, derived from a social psychology tradition, climate research has been methodologically driven. The use of quantitative techniques such as psychometrics by social psychologists is common. Climate researchers have followed suit in that the methodological tradition applied by climate researchers is consistent with the scientific measurement paradigm. Briefly a scientific paradigm may be understood as broadly positivistic in that reality is viewed as something objective and independent. Coming from a natural science tradition, such a paradigmatic view applies quantitative measurement techniques to the realm of social reality and seeks to explain the relationship between variables in a cause and effect fashion. Within the context of climate studies, the rationale for adherence to a scientific paradigm is primarily for the purpose of making the climate construct measurable as well as practicable for intervention activities. This leads to the second point, that is, the pragmatic orientation of climate studies.

The link between methodological approach, measurement and practical implications are consistent in climate studies. This is to say that the climate construct is explicitly defined into dimensions such as communication, structure, pay scheme, leadership behaviour and the like. The main aim is for management to know which aspect of the organizational environment and work setting needs intervention. In other words, the need to identify specific problems or problem areas is central to the methodology of climate research. As such, a quantitative approach to measuring these climate dimensions becomes appropriate. For instance, climate researchers claim that it would be possible to use aggregate data to show contrasting climates amongst those who hold different positions in the organization (Hall and Schneider, 1973), those who are at different levels in the organization (Schneider and Snyder, 1975), and aggregates of persons with similar perceptions in the organization (Joyce and Slocum, 1982). The point to be made here is that the climate construct needs to be measured quantitatively so that it would be possible for the data findings to be applied and used.

The use of surveys by climate researchers is typical. The purpose of systematic gathering of data and analysis is that the results obtained may be generalizable across organizations. The universal and prescriptive tendencies of climate studies therefore expresses a practical orientation. Establishing relationships between different organizational variables as a basis for intervention becomes the aim of research work. As mentioned, the need to define and operationalize constructs explicitly into quantifiable dimensions is thus necessary. This is so because it would be impossible to apply abstract concepts in a practical form within an organizational context. In other words, if the climate concept is not translated into some form of explicit and objective operationalization, it could not be used to generate data and guide intervention. To use an example, the perception on service climate may be identified as being made up of ten dimensions: teller courtesy, officer courtesy, teller competence, adequate staff, branch administration, handling services, convenience, employee turnover, selling and employee attitudes. The rating scale may be defined as outstanding (5), excellent (4), good (3), not so good (2) and terrible (1). A respondent who scores an aggregate of 50 would feel that the service climate is outstanding. On the other extreme, a respondent who obtained a score of 10 perceives the service climate as poor. The results obtained from such data analysis would indicate which particular climate dimension seems to be the weakest, and therefore the appropriate steps be taken by management. Given the practical orientation of these climate studies, the methodological approach and measurement of the climate concept has been such that the research outcomes can be manipulated to serve managerial purposes. Since effectiveness is of central importance to management, the methodology adopted by these climate researchers has been highly quantitative in nature. The use of mathematical techniques such as multivariate analysis is common. This is necessary because without quantifiable data, management would not be able to assess effectiveness.

To make the point that the methodological approach is directly related to future practical implications, the bank study conducted by Schneider (1973) will be used as an illustration. The study looked at customers' perception of the bank's climate in relation to the customers' intentions to switch banks. A key assumption made in the study was that customers' perception on specific bank features influences the overall summary perception of the total organization. Bank features were identified as convenience, short waiting-time, personal friendly service, and so forth. It was concluded that a significant correlation existed between customer perception on bank features and customer's switch intentions. The aim of climate studies, such as that of the Schneider (1973) bank study, is to allow for managers to apply these findings in their organizational context to help solve problems and to improve performance. To elaborate further, for instance if waiting time was a key problem, then steps would be taken to try and solve it. On the other hand, if customers seemed dissatisfied with the friendliness of personal service given, then management could require or encourage bank employees to participate in a training programme dealing with how to treat customers courteously. From the above study, it can be inferred that the link between customers' perception on climate dimensions and customers' switch intentions indicates effectiveness or level of performance. If a large number of customers have intentions to switch, then it indicates that the bank has problems and is not performing efficiently. Management can therefore take the necessary steps to try and overcome the problem by analyzing which bank feature is perceived to be troublesome. Once the problem area has been identified, procedural steps can be implemented accordingly. Effectiveness, as a key objective, is of practical relevance in applying prescriptive recommendations.

Implicit in the studies conducted is the view that climate is a linear construct. The concept of linearity implies two underlying assumptions. First, the variables relate to each other in a cause and effect fashion which may be depicted in a complex model. Second, given that the variables are related to each in some logical mode, the use of quantitative techniques such as multi-variate analysis can then be applied to explain the relationship. With respect to the climate construct, the dimensions of climate are treated as variables which have equal weight in relation to each other, and which can be summed up to obtain a total score. The summary statistic derived is thus interpreted as depicting the favourableness of an organization's climate. Depending on the scales used, it may be said that a widely accepted interpretation would be that a higher score reflects a favourable climate while a lower total score reflects otherwise. Therefore, the climate construct is seen as something that is made up of the summation of individual organizational dimensions.

However, it has to be pointed out that such an approach to measurement is problematic as the question which arises would be – Is the summation of individual dimensions a valid indicator of climate? If so, then the unrealistic assumption made would be that individuals perceive their environment in such a manner that implies how an individual feels about one aspect of an organization is not related to another. In addition, the numerical quantification of data also implies that perceptions do not exist holistically. In other words, perception is viewed as something that exists in separate dimensions, and that these perceived dimensions may be added into an aggregate data. Referring back to the earlier example on page 14, the ten service climate dimensions were rated on a numerical scale from 1 to 5. Therefore, an outstanding service climate would be an aggregate score of 50 points, while a poor service climate would be a summative score of 10. In this example, it might be stated that the way a respondent perceives employee turnover is not related to the way he or she perceives employee attitudes. Since employee perceptions on the different aspects of organizational life are viewed as being compartmentalized and self-contained within themselves, intervention takes place in a discrete fashion. It might be argued at this point that perceptions seem to exist in a discrete fashion as a consequence of measurement. Instrument design is such that respondents have no alternative but to answer in the manner which has been determined by the researcher. As indicated, the breakdown of the climate construct into separate dimensions leads respondents to answer in a biased way. As such, responses not only tend to be leading, but also create the impression that perceptions do actually exist discretely.

Nevertheless, based on the understanding that employee perceptions of different organizational issues are not related, any form of intervention activity is geared towards manipulating or changing perceptions of only certain aspects of the organization. For instance, if the communication process is perceived to be negative, then management will focus on this particular aspect and may implement some form of intervention in order to overcome the problem. However, the question to be raised is whether such an approach is adequate. Problems may arise if, after intervention, employee perception on communication is inconsistent with some other aspects of the organization like say, decision-making. The argument that follows is that if intervention is to be at all valuable and effective, then the total organization has to undergo change. But this raises another question: What is an holistic intervention, and is such intervention possible? Having looked at these problematic issues, the next section explores further other issues of comparison between both culture and climate constructs.

Culture and Climate Studies

The above examples attempt to illustrate that climate and corporate culture studies share the same root conceptually in that both climate and corporate culture researchers view the two constructs as variables which exist within the organization. Both constructs are assumed to relate to management competitiveness and effectiveness. Researchers who attempt to measure the effectiveness of a firm's corporate culture believe that culture is manageable, changeable and controllable.

Key advocates of this point of view have been researchers originating from a psychological tradition, who approach the issue of change in terms of organizational climate. The thought that cultures or climates exist within an organizational context is not a new idea (Lewin et. al, 1939). Writers in this tradition tend to refer to the term climate as interpersonal practices or social climate. Even though the culture and climate constructs have been used synonymously through the years (eg. Katz and Kahn, 1966, 1978), it may be said that the two concepts do not mean exactly the same thing. Culture, a term more prominently used among academics and applied in business or industry, is thought to be a deeper construct than climate. Climate research has been concerned with actual aspects of a particular organizational phenomena. Culture researchers, however, try to understand the complex system of norms and values that determine the policies and procedures (Sathe, 1983) and the mechanisms through which the beliefs and assumptions are transmitted and communicated (Schall, 1983).

The impact of an organization's culture on organizational behaviour and processes has been an issue of concern among management scholars. It has been claimed that in the 1990s management needs to examine corporate culture and its link to performance, recruitment and human resource policies (Haggerty, 1991). Research and scholarly work has been carried out on the assumption that culture can be managed and changed. Another issue that needs to be addressed in the current interest in organizational change is the use of training programmes as a means of achieving this change. Climate researchers have long implemented organization development techniques (OD) to initiate change. Training and development of personnel has been recognized as one of the components that make up the larger foundation of OD, and "the most comprehensive and most powerful tool in OD's arsenal of weapons" (Miller, 1990; page 429). While OD encompasses the totality of the organization, training and development focuses on individual employees as part of the total organizational system.

Studies of organizational climate began from social psychology using survey research methods. The claim that the school of social psychology made a contribution to the development of the field of organizational culture is questionable. From the previous discussion, it may be argued that the climate researchers were measuring a different construct from that of the culture researchers. Despite this, it may be said that studies of climate and organizational culture look at similar issues and are sometimes difficult to differentiate.. Due to the existing disagreements between climate and culture studies, many scholars are opposed to labelling climate studies as cultural studies. As already mentioned, culture seems indigenous to anthropology, therefore corporate culture can be said to be a borrowed concept. Unlike the culture concept, the climate concept was born in the field of psychology and was comfortably studied by organizational psychologists and organizational behaviourists. The climate concept can therefore be considered as an indigenous concept within applied social psychology. The culture concept therefore would seem to need more careful attention in matters of definition and elaboration. This also explains the great difficulty faced by researchers in trying to define corporate culture. Another difference in the two concepts is the issue of effectiveness versus description. In the study of anthropology, the aim is usually to provide information or "thick description" of the culture studied. No implicit or explicit value judgement is made to evaluate the "effectiveness" of the culture. On the other hand, climate studies tend to be interested in the effectiveness issue by inquiring why and how some organizations function more effectively than others. Despite these traditional differences being concerned with description rather than with effectiveness issue, a group of research–oriented people are interested in studying culture for the purpose of improving organizational effectiveness. These researchers hold the view that culture is what the organization has, rather than that culture is what the organization is. The assumption used in this tradition is that culture, as a variable, can be managed and changed. Included in this line of thought and work are Deal and Kennedy (1982), Peters and Waterman (1982), Schein (1983), and Pettigrew (1990). This interpretation and approach to culture has some distinct similarities to the concept of climate (Schneider, 1985). Although it can be said that the distinction between culture and climate studies is grey and fuzzy, and that culture is probably deeper and more abstract, nevertheless, Reichers and Schneider (1990) agree with Schein (1985) that climate can be considered as the manifestation of culture and that climate can be seen as a cultural artifact. At a general level, one may state that culture and climate concepts overlap considerably. It can be said that culture and climate can be isolated conceptually, but not in reality. Some of the underlying issues and ideas that are both common to the study of climate and culture include structure, job satisfaction, employee responsibility and assessment (Ouchi and Johnson, 1978; Schneider, 1975).

Comments:

In looking at the climate approach, the climate construct is conceptually problematic. The issue of individual group or organization level of analysis seems to indicate that the level of measurement of climate is still a debatable issue amongst climate researchers. Despite the rigorous quantitative techniques adopted by climate researchers in efforts to ensure validity and reliability, the question of the relevant unit of analysis seems to be a vexed one. Based on the argument given by James and Jones (1974), it might be argued that within the context of OD, the idea of psychological climate indicating an individual attribute seems irrelevant. Given that climate studies are conducted with the aim of solving specific problems through OD interventions, the collective level of analysis or group construct seems to be a more logical mode of analysis. In other words, "organization climate" as indicated by the sharing of perception among employees should be more relevant. In relating the issue of level of measurement to the practice of OD, the question which arises would be: What would be the purpose of measuring "climate as an individual attribute?" The review of OD programmes in chapter 3 indicated that OD intervention focuses on interaction within and between groups of employees, such as team building, sensitivity training and the like. It seems that climate research is methodologically confused and that climate scholars seemed unsuccessful in coming to an agreement on what is the appropriate level of analysis for the concept.

As can be seen, the climate construct primarily deals with employee's perceptions of the different organizational phenomena. The aim is to inform intervention to achieve harmony between the employee's mental frame and the organization's desired and espoused ideology. Such an interpretation would mean that climate studies share the same fundamental assumption as the "culture as a variable" perspective. Both type of studies aim to examine and change an employee's understanding and outlook. This is related to the whole notion of the management of meaning. It may be argued that even though there are climate researchers who interpret perception as having meaning, there is a fundamental and conceptual difference between culture, on an interpretative perspective, and climate constructs. The underlying implication of "meaning attached" seems to be that meaning is either desirable or undesirable for the organization. Climate researchers aim to alter employee perceptions by attaching the "desired" meaning to a specific organizational phenomenon. It may be said that "meaning attached" also seems to assume that perceptions may be meaningless or neutral in nature. As such, the OD consultant's role is to attach the appropriate meaning to employee perception. On the other hand, culture researchers, who adhere to a root metaphor perspective, view perception as imbued with meaning. In other words, perception and meaning cannot be viewed as separate concepts existing independently. Rather perception and meaning inherently co-exist; understood in this way, meaning and perception may be said to be constitutive. Therefore, it may be said that a fundamental distinction between the climate view of "meaning attached" versus the culture view of "meaning inherent" exists. The aim of culture research, according to the interpretive perspective, is not to make a judgement on whether employee perceptions are desirable or otherwise. On the other hand, the review on climate studies clearly show that one of the major roles of OD is to change the way employee view the organizations. This is the precise role of an OD consultant applying action research techniques. Most OD intervention uses a third party as a means of changing meanings. Such a managerialist approach is consistent with the perspective which views culture as a variable. Chapter 2 provided a lengthy exposition on the work of culture scholars, who believe in culture as a variable, and whose research work aims to control, manipulate and change culture according to top management ideology. The present study adopts a sceptical view of the idea that meaning can be imposed upon employee perceptions.

Chapter 4 reviewed literature on climate studies so as to make the point that climate studies are not only methodologically driven, but also practically oriented. The link between the methodology and practical implication was illustrated through these studies. It was also argued that the perspective of "culture as a variable" has its roots in the climate tradition. In other words, the climate studies share commonalities with those who advocate culture as a variable. However, those who disagree view culture as a "root metaphor". Chapter 5 will explore the interpretative tradition which views culture as the organization itself.

CHAPTER 5

Chapter 2 illustrated the point that those researchers who view "culture as a variable" differ in their definition of culture. Nevertheless, these researchers share a common approach in that they all employ quantitative techniques in conducting their work. The axiomatic relationship between theoretical concept and methodology is also assumed by those who view "culture as a root metaphor". The aim of chapter 5 is to show that even though culture may also be defined in a variety of ways, it might be argued that the underlying assumption implicit in these definitions is that culture embeds meaning. Reviews conducted on selected works done by these scholars suggests that conceptualizing culture as meaning dictates a qualitative methodology. In addition, this chapter attempts to show that conceptualizing organizations as "cultures" limits the understanding of organizations itself. The "culture as root metaphor" perspective also has its limitations in terms of its practical use.

Organization As A Cultural Phenomenon

This section begins with the notion that the organization itself is a cultural phenomenon. In the book, "Images of Organization," Morgan (1986) uses different metaphorical insights as a means of conceptualizing and analyzing the nature of organizations. The aim was to provide the reader with new ways of thinking about organizations and to give researchers alternatives as to different images of organizations that can be applied in a practical manner for organizational analysis. Morgan (1986) devotes considerable space to examining organizational life through the concept of culture. The idea of the organization as a cultural phenomenon is linked to the idea of an "organizational society" whereby large organizations become a determining factor in influencing the way of life in an industrialized country. For instance, the daily life of a person who works for a large organization revolves around the nature of the occupation involved. Factors such as working hours, rigid routines, wearing uniforms, living in one place and working in another, taking time off for leisure are familiar to any worker of any large organization in industrialized societies. On the other hand, the daily life of a person in more traditional societies, where the household is the basic economic and productive unit, can be said to be different from that of industrialized societies. For example, people of traditional societies who do not experience the hectic existence of urban life do not understand the concept of leisure in the sense that is understood by city dwellers in industrialized societies. The traditional patterns of social order are broken down as societies become more industrialized. According to Morgan (1986), Emile Durkheim has shown that in industrialized societies, common ideals, beliefs, and values are gradually replaced by more fragmented and differentiated patterns of belief and practices as a result of the occupational structure of the new society. As industries become more efficient and specialized, the division of labour becomes an important characteristic of industrialized societies.

The point to be made here is that it is claimed by "convergence theory" that people working in factories and offices in Detroit, Liverpool, Paris, Tokyo all belong to the same industrial culture as they are members of organizational and industrial societies (Kerr, 1962). Life experiences and attitude towards life itself differ from those who live in more traditional societies where work is carried out through domestic systems of production. Occupational rather than national factors determine many of the major cultural similarities and differences in the world. It could be argued that people living in industrialized societies tend to share basic expectations and skills due to the routine of organizational life. The similarities and differences associated with an occupation whether one is a factory worker, banker, or engineer are as significant as those associated with national identity. Perhaps the phrase, the "culture of industrial society", rather than to refer to industrial societies according to the convergence view, is more meaningful. It might be argued that proponents of a convergence view have been too enthusiastic about the enmeshing of technological and cultural factors.

For example, there may be similarities between a textile factory in countries such as Japan and United States, caused by technology. Even though the work practices and patterns of behaviour in a Japanese and an American organization can be very similar since they have been imposed by a shared technology, the meanings employees attribute to these work practices may differ. This is due to the fact that meanings are rooted in the wider society and are a function of the interaction of technological and structural factors, together with the value orientations brought to the work place. The point is that a Japanese worker may construct reality differently to an American worker because the assumptions about, employment relations for instance, may differ in each of the two countries. This helps to explain how the organization, as a cultural phenomenon, can be seen as a socially constructed reality, a view propagated by the "culture as a root metaphor" perspective.

Culture As A Root Metaphor

The interpretive paradigm, as mentioned in the first chapter, takes a cultural perspective on organizations. That is, the view of culture as root metaphor differs from that emphasized in mechanistic or organismic forms of analysis. "Culture is the organization" represents a shift from comparing organizations with physical objects to other cultural artifacts. Scholars in this school look at organizations as "expressive forms, manifestations of human consciousness"(Smircich,1983; p.347). These researchers approach the study of organizations by looking at expressive, ideational, and symbolic aspects of organizational life. The research agenda can be characterized broadly as exploring the organizational phenomenon as meaningful experience, and investigating patterns of meaning that make organized action possible. The social or organizational world is seen as much less concrete, existing as a pattern of symbolic relationships, and having meanings created and maintained through a continuous process of human interaction. Meanings attributed to members' experiences are negotiated and shared, thereby making social action possible. At the end of her article, Smircich (1983) concludes that "cultural framework for analysis encourages one to see that an important role for both those who study and manage organizations is not to celebrate organizations as a value, but to question the ends it serves" (p. 355).

Language, symbols, myths, stories, and rituals, are the focus of attention of these researchers. However, these factors are not seen as cultural artifacts, but rather as mechanisms that generate processes to produce meaningful forms which are fundamental to the organization's existence. The application and understanding of culture as a root metaphor attempts to answer the questions, "How is organization accomplished and what does it mean to be organized?" (Smircich, 1983).

The understandings of the specific nature of culture do differ amongst theorists of this tradition, although all agree to consider organizations as a particular form of human expression. The work conducted by these theorists who look at culture as a root metaphor may emphasize cognitive, symbolic, structuralist or psychodynamic perspectives (Smircich, 1983). All three perspectives are drawn from modern anthropology and provide the basis for different modes of organizational analysis. However, it has to be pointed out that the studies conducted by these researchers do tend to overlap with each other. Barley (1983) argues that structural anthropologists should be considered as semioticians. The discussion below attempts to illustrate that researchers in the interpretive tradition, as do those in the functionalist tradition, differ in their understanding in the concept of organizations which in turn influences their understanding of the culture concept. The relevance of the interpretive paradigm within the context of organizational change and effectiveness will also be explored in this section based on discussion and commentary of selected studies conducted within the "culture as a root metaphor" perspective.

The first perspective, which may be termed ethnoscience or cognitive anthropology, views culture as a system of shared cognitions or as a system of knowledge and beliefs. Generated by the human mind, culture is a product of a finite number of rules or unconscious logic (Rossi and O'Higgins, 1980; p.63-64). The anthropologist has to discover what the rules are and determine how the members belonging to a culture view, understand and describe their world.

Bougon, Weick and Binkhorst (1977) have applied the cognitive perspective in analyzing the Utrecht Jazz Orchestra (UJO). The approach used the participants' cognitive maps to analyse the organization. The study claimed that the organization and the environment, together and undifferentiated, are stored in the minds of participants in the form of cognitive maps, particularly in the form of cause maps. In other words the thought process is what ties an organization together.

The authors view organizations as "snapshots of ongoing processes selected and controlled by consciousness and attentiveness, which in turn reflect snapshots of ongoing cognitive processes whereby the mind acquires knowledge about its environment" (p. 606). Therefore understanding the knowledge of participants' cognitions on environment helps the researcher to comprehend the development of an organization. Since the culture metaphor helps people to reinterpret the nature and significance of organization–environment relations (Morgan, 1986), the way the UJO members make sense of their organizational environment is a process of social enactment. An individual's understanding and knowledge of his/her environment is an extension of the individual's cultural background. This is due to the fact that people learn and comprehend their environment through the belief systems that influence and determine their interpretations and actions. Therefore the mind and the environment are intertwined. The UJO members' cognitive maps thus reflect their understanding of the organization which is culturally derived. It may be inferred here that applying the concept of culture as a root metaphor means that the researcher must tap the members' cognitive maps of their understanding of the nature of the organization, which in this case is the UJO, in order to understand the culture of the organization. In this case, the study conducted took snapshots of certain cognitive maps, called cause maps (Weick, 1979) that belonged to members of the Utrecht Jazz Orchestra. In summary, the UJO study discovered that the cause maps or cognitive maps that existed in the minds of its members depicted a pattern of variables that occurred in a flow of causality.

A weakness of the UJO case study is that it is very situation-specific as one is forced to adopt a more static view of the organization given the fact that mechanisms dealing with change, development, restructuring are not dealt with explicitly. The findings of the study do not answer questions such as, "what will happen if the environment changes and if the capacities of persons within the organization shift?" Therefore what is learned from the study as to what needs to be done is applicable only to that particular environment or situation. In addition, the use of cause maps can be said to be highly intrusive, as asking the respondents to consciously map out their thoughts seems to be an imposition and rather obtrusive in its approach.

In another study conducted by Harris and Cronen (1979), the "rules-theory" perspective was applied to analyze and evaluate organizations. Organizations were conceived as analogous to a culture, a particular structure of knowledge for knowing and acting (Smircich 1983, p. 348). The proposition made in the study perceived organization culture as representing a "master contract" that included constitutive and regulative rules that affect beliefs and actions in the light of the organization's self-image. The assumption made was that the master contract is the result of ongoing interpersonal interaction that provided the context for future interaction. The methodology adopted in this study examined the organization's self-image and the degree of consensus on its constructs. Assessment was made of the extent to which members perceived others' comprehension of the organizational image accurately, so as to be able to use this knowledge as a guideline on whether their behaviour was consistent with the group. The measure of coordination was the extent to which members were able to apply the knowledge of the abstract image and constitutive rules into regulative and functional rules for cooperative action. Harris and Cronen (1979) used an academic department in their analysis, and discovered that there existed significant inconsistencies between what members thought would be their colleagues' perception on the actual and ideal organization, and what members reported as the ideal state. The study interestingly revealed that many members did not realize that their belief in what the organization would be in its ideal state was in fact consistent with the beliefs held by their colleagues. The authors speculated that the misconceptions probably resulted in considerable energy being exhausted in the interaction process. The study conducted by Harris and Cronen thus provided a way for researchers to generate knowledge that group members could apply and use to change the group's own functioning.

An inherent problem with the likes of this study is that it is perhaps too one sided since it does not deal with the possibility that cognition may be retrospective in characteristic. The cognitive perspective on the other hand seems to answer the question, "how does thought get translated into action?" The assumption made in the

Harris and Cronen study, however, is that once the thought process of organizational members are affected, action parallel to these thoughts will follow accordingly. The degree of influence cognition has over behaviour is one that requires further discussion as it may be that cognition has little impact on behaviour. This may be so because cognition can follow rather than precede behaviour as in the case of post dissonance. Cognitions may be retrospective in characteristic in that people make sense of what has occurred rather that what will occur in future (Weick, 1979). Future plans may have little control over behaviour because without actions, they are basically content-free. Actions provide the content for cognitions; without actions, cognitions become vacuous. The main point to be made here is that the cognitive view pays too much attention to cognition and thought and too little attention to actions. The possibility that cognitions do rationalize previous actions instead of determining future actions has not been taken into account seriously enough.

Even though researchers tend not to use the term culture in their work, the cognitive perspective does lead them to conceive organizations as networks of subjective meanings or common frames of references which members of a group share to varying degrees. The understanding of organizations as cultures, whether structures of knowledge, or master contracts, refer to organized patterns of thought.

A second perspective to the interpretive paradigm is the symbolic or semiotic view of culture which conceptualizes societies as systems of shared symbols and meanings. The task of the researcher in this case is to interpret the "themes" of culture. The semiotic approach originated from cultural anthropology approach wherein researchers study the myths, rituals, language and practices of people in a foreign land. This approach found its way into the study of organizational culture when researchers began to recognize that organization members similarly engage in ritualistic practices. "The study of organization culture thus becomes translated into the study of the informal or 'merely' social or symbolic side of corporate life" (Gregory, 1983; p.359). The central issue of the semiotic approach involves the discovery of the "native's point of view" (Sanday, 1979). The main idea of a semiotic approach is to provide a means through which researchers will be able to understand better the conceptual world of the culture being studied. The researcher is required to adopt the mode of thought of the subject, while at the same time be able to "step out" of the culture and apply his/her own faculties to make an analysis of the culture. To embark on such a task can be very difficult for the researcher as it is a struggle and a challenge to the research skills and intellectual capacities of the researcher to be able to "blend" into the cultural context while at the same time questioning. The cultural themes that provide meaning to activities and patterns of behaviour can be uncovered through making the link between the symbols and how they affect the activities of members in a cultural setting.

In applying the symbolic perspective to organizational analysis, the organization is conceptualized as a "pattern of symbolic discourse" (Smircich 1983, p. 350). The researcher therefore must interpret, read or decipher these symbols in the organizational context. In order to interpret an organization, the researcher focuses on members experience as a way to understand the meaning behind the patterns of action. The issue of concern in such an analysis is how members interpret and understand their experience, and how these interpretations in turn influence actions. The research agenda in this case is the documentation of symbolic action that caused the creation and maintenance of the organization (Smircich, 1983). Using symbolic action as the focus of interest, symbolic organization theorists tend to work on common ground with leaders of organizations (Morgan and Smircich, 1980). Although their concerns are different, one with theory, the other with practice, both are involved with practical issues such as how does one create and maintain a sense of organization, and how one does make possible a shared interpretation of situations so that coordinated action takes place amongst organizational members.

One study conducted by Van Maanen (1979) looked at the socialization process influencing the way people understood organizations in order to act or behave appropriately. The research focused on the learning process that neophytes (police academy graduates) went through to understand the system of meaning maintained by the police department. The data gathered was based upon the observation of novice policemen in situ. The location of the study conducted was "Union City", and duration lasted a period of nine months. The researcher spent approximately three months fully participating as a member of Union City Police Academy recruit class. After the initiation process of formal training, four months was spent riding as a back-seat observer in patrol units which were operated by a recruit and his Field Training Officer. The data collected took in the form of conversations that arose from natural encounters with different people within the police domain including recruits, veterans, administrators, wives, friends, reporters and court officials. Formal interviews were also conducted but most of the data gathered was done in a non–

structured fashion through informal conversations.

The "breaking-in" process consisted of four phases namely choice, introduction, encounter, and metamorphosis. Through interviews with the recruits, it was discovered that the choice of a career with the police force was not one that was made casually. The majority of recruits joined the police force in order to perform a role which they perceived to be important to society.

The second phase of admittance and introduction into the department is a probationary period whereby the new recruit is informed that he may be severed from membership rolls any time without warning, explanation, or appeal. The recruit also quickly learns that he is expected to comply with the norms of the police department.

The third phase of change and encounter involves the new recruit to be supervised under his Field Training Officer (FTO) while on patrol. Through direct exposure to the "street," the recruit learns the different appropriate behaviours that is expected of a patrol man. Being accepted by veterans of the Patrol Division makes the newcomer feel a sense of belonging. The process of socialization into this division is done through communicating tales, myths, and legends concerning the department by fellow officers and the FTO. This is the critical stage whereby attitude is shaped because the newcomer feels self-conscious and truly needs advice and guidance.

The final phase is continuance and metamorphosis which focuses upon the perspectives the recruits hold regarding their occupational and organizational setting.

After having mastered the technical and social skills of routine police work, the recruit only needs to learn more about the subjective element of his work and allows his experiences to grow. Learning to be complacent and adopting the group norm of staying out of trouble becomes accepted as part of police work as the recruit knows that most of his time is spent on tasks other than real police work. The study above illustrates that the characterization of recruit socialization in the police force uses symbols that take the form of stories, myths, and legends defined by colleagues and supervisors.

Looking at the police force case study more closely, it may be concluded that it is the behaviour of the new recruit that really matters and is relevant for the socialization process to be considered successful. It is the behaviour that is exhibited by the new recruit that really counts through the different stages of the socialization process. To assume that the new recruit's values have been changed may be erroneous because the likelihood that the candidate accepts all that he or she has been taught is perhaps naive. One weakness of this approach may be that the presence of the researcher as an observer may contaminate the data. This may be explained by the possibility that the officers may be colluding to confirm the researcher's finding that change has occurred. It may also be that officers and recruits fool themselves through engaging in a game of establishing legitimate role behaviours. The truth of the matter will not be known and the researcher is forced to rely on his or her own judgement on the validity of data gathered. The attitude and values of the new recruit may or may not have been influenced by the socialization process, no one will be able to get access to what recruits really believe, obviously not an outside researcher.

A point to be made is that manipulating meaning of organizational symbols such as myths, stories, legends and the like may be more successful in influencing overt behaviour rather than the meaning system of the person as many researchers tend to hope for. This outcome is more consistent with that of the research work of those who view culture as a variable which focuses on the outer levels of the culture construct, namely behavioural norms and patterns of behaviour.

A third variant of the interpretive paradigm emphasizes a structural and psychodynamic perspective of culture that may be defined as the "expression of unconscious psychological processes" (Smircich 1983, p. 351). According to this point of view, organizational forms and practices are seen as projections of unconscious processes. Making sense of organizational forms and practices is done through analyzing the active interaction between the out-of-awareness or unconscious processes and their conscious manifestation. Although Smircich (1983) holds the view that Levi-Strauss's work had little impact on organization theory, she nevertheless uses Levi-Strauss's theory of structuralism to explain the rationale and logic of this perspective. The structural view uses the assumption that the "human mind has built-in constraints by which it structures psychic and physical content" (Smircich, 1983; p.351). The term "unconscious infrastructure" may be used to label this set of constraints or structures because people are unaware of it. Culture therefore is a manifestation of the unconscious infrastructure revealing the outer form of the unconscious. Applying this perspective to the study of culture aims to uncover the unknown, hidden, and universal dimensions of the human mind. In organizational analysis, this approach attempts to answer questions such as, "what sort of problems can be resolved through hierarchical patterns in organizational arrangement?", "what do organizational patterns reveal about the human mind?" and the like. In other words, the organization analyst who adopts a structuralist perspective attempts to penetrate the deep layers underlying the surface level appearances in order to discover the fundamental premises upon which social arrangements are based. Understanding the structural patterns that link the unconscious human mind with its overt manifestations in social arrangement is therefore the key issue of interest for researchers who adopt a structuralist or psychodynamic perspective.

Riley (1983) used a structurationist account of political culture to analyze the political symbols of two professional firms, one routinized while the other was not, in efforts to discover interrelationships of subcultures and to identify the structures that govern the political nature of organizational culture (p. 414). This study used the definition given by Giddens (1979) to explain a "structurationist" view of culture. "Structuration" is a metatheory that aims to conduct social analysis through linking behaviour or human action with structural explanation. The rules and resources people use in their interaction process make up the structures, which are analyzed from two aspects. Structures are viewed as both the medium as well as the result of interaction. As the medium, structures serve as the guidelines regarding rules and resources individuals need to refer to in their meaningful interaction. On the other aspect, structures are considered as an outcome because rules and resources exist as a result of implementation during the interaction process. In other words structures are a reality in the context of the social practices they exist in. Through the application of generative rules and resources, people create and recreate structures forming the patterns of interaction which provide the "framework" of the organization. In psychological terms, the "reality" of the "structures" are continually being reinforced in people's minds by the process of interactions which are carried out according to the norms of the relevant structures. Individuals are seen as carriers and creators of the rules and resources, that is, structures. The individual's understanding of interaction at a general level (such as social norms to guide conversation) together with knowledge of the organization within which they work, (concerning standard operating procedures, organizational chart, etc.) can be used strategically to achieve goals. The influence of both individual level and organizational level inputs leads to a transformation of what goes before or by way of previous knowledge resulting in a change in the structuring process. A key issue dealt with by structuration theory is the identification of conditions that govern continuity of structures. Analyzing culture from a structural perspective focuses on the deeply layered structures that underlie and organize the daily practices in institutions. The organizational culture concept is viewed as an institutional phenomenon in structuration theory.

The research question dealt with in the Riley study is the discovering of symbols used in creating political images of an organization's culture and the reproduction, or transformation, of these symbolic structures across an organization's subgroups. The political aspects of culture are maintained through the interplay of these structures. The organization's task environment, which appears to be the most influential in determining a cultural "type" is the degree of regulation (rules and regulations) versus the degree of flexibility (transformal task practices). The term highly task-structured refers to routinized organization while those with little task structure are labelled non-routinized. The location of this study took place in a large city on the West Coast of the USA. Two firms, both professional subsidiaries of a large parent organization, were selected. In this case, the context within which differences emerge in the political culture is task embeddedness, that is, routinized versus nonroutinized task environments. The first organization, firm R (routinized), dealt mainly with government rules and regulations and was highly routinized in its procedures and tasks. The second organization, firm NR (nonroutinized), can be described as a trouble-shooting development and training firm, constantly confronted by new problems and situations. Data was collected through interviews of respondents, chosen from different hierarchical levels.

In conducting the research, Riley made several points that need to be borne in mind by the reader. First, the highly normative nature of political practices imply that each organizational culture is unique and different and therefore the findings of the study should be generalized with caution. Second, the research topic was perceived as threatening by top executives, therefore the wording of questions which were adapted from previous surveys in the organizational political literature had to be changed to a form that would obtain top management's approval. Finally, respondents were not chosen randomly from each firm. Caution is therefore required in generalizing Riley's interview data.

In summary, the results of the study indicated that a dysynchronous view of organization culture existed within an organization. The different images projected by those in the upper levels and those in the lower levels meant that one group dissociated itself from the rest of the organization, thus providing evidence that sub-cultures do exist within a single organization. There was an illuminating difference between the political cultures of the routinized and nonroutinized firms. The cultural mechanism is apparently influenced by the structures that govern task continuity. Therefore members of the routinized firm looked at organizational life based on the rules and paid little attention into the political aspects of the organization, except for those in higher levels of management whose tasks were more ambiguous. For the non-routinized organization, in which task ambiguity existed at all organizational levels, the organizational culture tended to be more political in nature.

One criticism of Riley's (1983) study is that the researcher has imposed meaning onto the structure of organizational politics through interviewing respondents. The list of questions formulated by the researcher provides the explanatory framework within which organizational politics was supposed to take place, thereby making the study biased towards the researcher's understanding and preconceived ideas of what organizational politics is all about.

<u>General Comments</u>: A key point to observe from the above review is that there exist variations within the "root metaphor" perspective; as discussed in chapter 2 this is also true for the "culture as variable" view. In other words, researchers within the "root metaphor" paradigm differ in their understanding and definition of what culture

is. Nevertheless, all these scholars agree that organizations should be understood as cultures.

One of the problems with the various "root metaphor" theorists is their conceptualization of formal organizations. The definition used by these theorists do not explicitly deal with the question, "what is the definition of an organization?" An abstract and loosely defined concept of an organization such as "manifestations of human consciousness" (Smircich, 1983; p.347) seems problematic. An inherent paradox exists with respect to this point. Root metaphor researchers may not wish to deploy a formal conception of organization. However, the fact that these researchers do and are able to conduct research on organizations becomes parasitic in that they implicitly rely upon conventional conceptions of organizations. In other words, even though these "root metaphor" researchers seem not to commit themselves to a formal definition of organization, they actually "adopt" a quite conventional view for the purpose of "siting" their research.

Implicit in the "root metaphor" perspective is the notion that culture is conceptualized as meaning. As such, meanings are understood as socially constructed realities shared by members. Culture, defined as cognitive maps, embeds meaning in that such maps would be inconceivable otherwise. In other words, cognition is about understanding and therefore implicitly carries meaning. The semiotic perspective of culture is concerned with the meaning underlying symbols. Thus, myths, stories, legends, language and other symbolic aspects of culture are richly imbued with meaning. Understanding the symbolic significance of these cultural artifacts becomes the major aim of the semiotic approach. Finally, the psychodynamic or "unconscious infrastructure" perspective understands culture as manifestation of the unconscious. It might be argued that this third perspective is closer to cognitive maps as the researcher attempts to discover unknown and hidden dimensions of the human mind. Alternatively, what the researcher wants to uncover is the logic or meaning that governs outer manifestations. Therefore, the core underlying concept in all these perspectives is meaning.

The next point to make is that these "root metaphor" researchers adopt a qualitative approach in studying organizations as cultures. This reinforces the assumptions that if culture is understood as a "root metaphor", then the logical and rational method to adopt is a qualitative one. In other words, it is almost by default that researchers in this school of thought unanimously use case study approaches in their work. Central to the theme of this thesis is a critique of the unquestioned assumption concerning the axiomatic relationship between theoretical concept and method. Culture conceptualized as meaning seems to dictate a "thick description" approach. The questionnaire instrument is barely considered as an alternative method to conduct research. As the position taken in the present study challenges this tradition, a detailed discussion on this issue will be covered in Chapter 6 on Methodology.

A final point that emerged from all these studies is that researchers in the "root metaphor" perspective reject the utilitarian view of effectiveness. None of the studies relate their findings to the idea of improving the level of performance. Smircich (1983) argued that the "root metaphor" scholars conduct research to understand and analyze organizations not in economic or material terms, but rather in their expressive, ideational, and symbolic aspects. The research agenda therefore is to "explore the phenomenon of organization as subjective experience and to investigate patterns that make organized action possible" (Smircich, 1983; p. 348). A general theme that seems to emerge out of the studies conducted by theorists in the root metaphor approach is that culture is about knowing the abstract (such as cognitive maps) and meaning (of symbols and action), rather than behaviour.

To sum up chapters 2 to 5, four major points will be reiterated. First, there is clearly two broad traditions which exists in culture research, namely "root metaphor" and "variable" perspectives. The former views organizations as cultures, while the latter views culture as making up part of a total organizational system. Second, evident in both traditions is the assumption that the relationship between theoretical concept and methodology is axiomatic. Thus, "root metaphor" research is qualitative in approach, while "culture as variable" studies are quantitative in nature. Third, these two traditions have differing aims, the root metaphor view aims to discover knowledge as an end in itself, and this is a legitimate purpose. On the other hand, the culture as variable perspective aims to conduct research with a practical orientation so as to apply its findings in an organizational context, specifically with the purpose of improving level of performance. Finally, the ambiguities that exists within and between each tradition indicates that the culture debate cannot yet be articulated fully coherently even though writers like Smircich (1983) have attempted to do so.

Given the issues of concern surrounding the culture literature, it becomes necessary to locate and explain the conceptualization of culture as adopted in the present study. The next section will discuss the problems of definition and explicate the definition that is taken up in this study.

The Culture Concept: Problems of Definition

Organizational culture is a term which is broad, comprehensive and difficult to define. There is no consensus on the definition of culture by anthropologists even though the study of culture originated from within the field of anthropology itself. Therefore, the major problem in defining culture lies in the concept of culture itself (Ajiferuke and Boddewyn, 1970). Another major problem in defining organizational culture is that researchers come from many different disciplines and tend to define culture according to their own perspective. In other words, the economist, anthropologist, sociologist, psychologist, and the students of business will define culture from their own vantage point. As such, culture may be best conceptualized in terms of the problem one wishes to study.

Many researchers on culture have avoided the problem of defining culture and have left the reader to infer from the study the meaning of culture. The lack of definition results in the reader not being able to fully understand how the researcher came to his/her conclusion. On the other hand, many writers like Peters and Waterman (1982), have de facto operational definitions, but these definitions are rather simplistic. To illustrate the point that some writers have tended to avoid defining the culture construct we can take the example of the OD theorists French and Bell who defined OD largely in terms of organizational culture without defining what they meant by the term organizational culture (French and Bell, 1990):

> "Organisation development is a top management supported long range effort to improve an organisation's problem–solving and renewal processes, particularly through a more effective and collaborative diagnosis and management of organisational culture – with special emphasis on formal work team, temporary team and intergroup culture – with the assistance of a consultant–facilitator and the use of the theory and technology of applied behavioural science including Action Research."

There is great difficulty in trying to define culture because the concept of culture can be classified as one of many concepts which fall in the category of concepts which cannot be operationally defined in a manner that is satisfactory to everyone. Katzer, Cook and Crouch (1978) argue that there are several operational definitions for a concept and no one definition is correct. The researcher should make a decision on which definition to use and make justifications for it. Katzer, Cook and Crouch also state that "operational definitions are by themselves sterile: they need to be supplemented with conceptual definitions in order to better communicate the breadth and richness of the concept" (Katzer, Cook and Crouch, 1978). In reviewing the literature on organizational culture, some of the definitions that can be found include the following:

1) "the pattern of all those arrangements, material or behavioral which have been adopted by a society as the traditional ways of solving the problems of its members. Culture includes all the institutionalized ways and the implicit cultural beliefs, norms, values and premises and govern conduct" (Krech et. al., 1962, pg. 380).

2) "prevailing patterns of values, attitudes, beliefs, assumptions, expectations,

activities, interactions, norms, sentiments (including feelings), and as embodied in artifacts" (French and Bell, 1973).

3) "By our definition, norms are statements of what ought to be, only this, they are a part of culture, but not all of it" (Homans, 1950; pg. 125).

4) "Values are the bedrock of any corporate culture" (Deal and Kennedy, 1982).

5) "patterns 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" (Schein, 1983; p.14).

6) "....the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e. historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values...." (Kroeber and Kluckhohn, 1963; pg. 357).

Each of the definitions above gives the meaning of culture according to the individual researcher's perspective. Having reviewed the debates and complexities surrounding the culture concept, the next step is to explicitly define the culture concept as viewed by the present research.

Towards a Working Definition

In this study, culture is conceptualized as the shared meanings, embedded in all aspects of organizational life for example, communication processes; leadership styles; decision-making; structure; and procedures and regulations.

The above definition is appropriate because it may be argued that understanding culture as meaning eliminates the problem of "duality" of culture. As indicated in the earlier chapters, the "variable perspective" on culture focuses on the manifest and more objective aspects of the construct. Whereas the "root metaphor" view emphasizes the phenomenological or more subjective side of culture.

One possible explanation for the difference in the two views may be due to the fact that those from the anthropological tradition who hold the view "culture is the organization" studied cultures in traditional and tribal societies where little changes or where any form of change occurs at an extremely slow rate. It would then be understandable for these scholars to perceive culture as a non–variable. On the other hand, scholars who studied contemporary and advanced societies where values and beliefs change to accommodate new economic and technological challenges, tend to the view that culture should be seen as what the organization has. Since these scholars seem to be interested in how man recreates a "new" culture, they therefore assume that culture is controllable. The point to be made here is that the type of society, whether modern and volatile or traditional and static that scholars have studied may be a contributing factor in, and partly responsible for, shaping the assumptions scholars make concerning culture.

Given the above, it may be stated that conceptualizing culture as meaning resolves the conflict between "root metaphor" and "variable" perspectives. The position taken in the present study is that meaning is central to the whole notion of culture. In other words, the core concept is meaning. As indicated earlier, climate researchers prefer to use the term "perception", "attitudes" or even "behaviours", but tacitly assume that these items are to be meaningful. It would be absurd to speak of meaningless perceptions, attitudes and behaviours because all these are inherently meaningful. Whether the scholars in either paradigm explicitly state in their studies what is meant by culture, the nature of the culture construct is such that it assumes meaning. As explained in the previous section, in the case of the root metaphor perspective, whether culture is understood as shared cognitions, systems of shared symbols, meanings or expressions of unconscious psychological processes, all these definitions assume meaning. Thus the essence of culture is meaning in itself. The operational definition here is meant to be specific, generalizable, and public.

Having discussed the conceptualization of culture as meaning, the next chapter looks at methodological issues and the "measurement" of meaning through the use of the questionnaire instrument.

CHAPTER 6

Chapters 2 to 4 discussed work done by researchers who viewed climate/culture as a variable in an organization system. These researchers have a pragmatic view of culture and therefore aim to generalize their findings in efforts to create general models for business organizations. The surveys conducted by these researchers therefore used the questionnaire instrument for data collection. Either as part of a survey of a total population or of a sample of a population, these studies have deliberately designed the questionnaire instrument to be highly quantitative aimed at measuring dimensions of construct. Chapter 5 looked at culture research conducted by scholars who held a "root metaphor" view of culture. The anthropological approach, particularly that of participant observation, was most frequently used by these researchers. Much of the literature has argued that "thick description" is a necessary approach in order to study culture as a "root metaphor". In addition, the general secondary literature on culture studies has propagated an assumed axiomatic relationship between the conceptualization of culture and the methodological approach.

As stated in the previous chapter, the present study conceptualizes culture as meaning and therefore supports the "root metaphor" view of culture. Despite such an understanding of culture, the present study adopts a questionnaire approach in capturing meaning. The above discussion showed that there exists a historical link between a theoretical concept and the methodology used to study it. Due to the established understanding that studying culture as meaning requires a thick description approach, the use of a questionnaire approach in this study appears to be rather unusual. However, the present study argues against the idea that theoretical concept and methodology are axiomatically connected, as is currently understood, based on the following arguments.

It is clear that from a historical point of view, there exists a traditional link between the two schools of thought, viz "culture as variable" and "culture as root metaphor", and their methodologies; such an understanding has been assumed to be the logical and rational way to conduct culture research. However, it will be argued here that such a relationship is not axiomatic, but rather has been contingent in nature. Researchers in the "root metaphor" tradition have been studying cultures which are "alien" to that of the researchers. The need to immerse oneself into the unknown culture was therefore necessary because the researcher had no background knowledge on what was to be studied. In other words, the approach of studying culture through "thick description" has been problem oriented in that it was the only feasible method to adopt given the circumstances. A question that one might ask is, "What would be the next step for the researcher once he or she has been able to go "native"?

Taking into account the above explanation, the use of "thick description" to study organizations within a researcher's own cultural background becomes less necessary. Due to the fact that the researcher, as a member of the same culture, should be able to understand the meaning context within the organization. This shared framework of meaning therefore should overcome language and meaning barriers that may exist.

Any possible discrepancies in language and meaning use may be explored through the use of a pilot study.

On the other hand, it has also to be argued that the assumed relationship between the questionnaire instrument, surveys, and particularly patterns of multivariate analysis of measurement is also contingent. Many researchers as argued by Kuhn (1970) have been socialized into a scientific paradigm, and as such apply highly quantitative methods to study climate/culture as variable. The understanding is that the only acceptable way to measure the culture construct is through the use of quantitative instruments that reflect reliability and validity as understood within such a paradigmatic scheme. Given such an understanding, the culture construct is operationalized into identifiable dimensions. Numerical representations for each dimensions are made so as to allow for some form of quantitative manipulation. However, the use of non-quantitative questionnaires for case studies is also quite possible. For instance, in a study conducted by John Goldthorpe et. al. (1968) a questionnaire based structured interview was used to understand the meaning of work for selected industrial workers.

The view that questionnaires are always quantitative instruments and part of a survey approach is purely an assumption. So also is the view that conceptualization of culture as meaning assumes a "thick description" approach. The argument presented earlier is that the relationship between theoretical concept and method can be understood as historically based. In other words, there is no inherent necessity to adopt a "thick description" approach just because culture is understood as meaning.

In addition, if it is possible to construct a questionnaire that would not only capture meaning, but also take into account the practical problems associated with a questionnaire, then there would be no reason why a questionnaire based approach should not be appropriate. The conceptualization of culture as meaning, and the potential use of the questionnaire to capture meaning, has to address some issues of concern.

First is the imposition of a meaning framework on the respondent through the use of fixed questions. In other words, the use of questions in itself implies what is of importance and salient with regard to the topic or subject being investigated. Secondly, the orderly construction of questions into a particular sequence influences the kind of responses obtained. Finally, the use of a questionnaire requires either precoding or postcoding of responses, thereby distorting meaning as understood by respondents.

In tackling potential problems that may arise from these issues of concern, the answer to the first is that any form of research must inevitably impose meaning. With respect to the participant observation method, it must be argued that there is no standard imposition of meaning because of the likelihood that individuals react to a researcher in a varied fashion. The interaction effect that takes place between the researcher and the subjects being studied is one that cannot possibly be controlled in a manner that would ensure that the impact of both parties on each other can be eliminated or standardized. The possibility that subjects tend to portray a different picture in the presence of a participant observer is high. With a paper instrument, however, such an interaction can be controlled because the material is presented on paper and interaction thus occurs in a more standardized way. The chances of subjects being intimidated by a questionnaire instrument is less likely when compared to the participant observation method.

Secondly, the problem of closure or of leading responses due to the sequencing of questions can be reduced by minimizing the element of structuring the questionnaire. In other words, if questions are arranged in such a manner that would not allow the respondent to anticipate what kinds of answers are expected, then the problem of closure should be controlled. The mixing of question sequence can be done in such a way that it does not lead the respondent so as to allow him or her to guess what answer is expected in the next question after responding to a previous question. The ability of respondents to try and anticipate what kind of answers the researcher wants can therefore be minimized.

Finally, the question of precoding and postcoding can be tackled by designing questions in an oblique manner. Unobtrusive and subtle question wording can help to overcome potential bias. In other words, questions may be phrased in such a manner that the respondent does not know what the intent of the question is. In addition, a combination of question style in wording may be used, such as mixing closed and open questions together so that the responses can be checked against each other.

Given the above arguments, the present study has adopted some questions of the type that have been used in climate/culture as variable studies for two main reasons. The first is to be able to explore the methodology hypothesis, that is, that instrument design influences responses. In other words, the present study argues that the questionnaires used by "climate/culture as variable" researchers imposes meaning to the extent that it tends to lead responses. In other words, the outcome of the studies often turns out as anticipated due to the way the questions were phrased. The need to test such an approach to questionnaire design is therefore necessary. In order to do so, leading and oblique questions were both incorporated into the present questionnaire. The second reason is the need to look at the practical implications of the climate/culture as variable approach to measurement and questionnaire design. Given that these scholars believe that culture can be changed through intervention, the relevant question that needs to be asked is, "Do people believe that intervention works because of the way outcome is measured?"

Methodological Approach and Measurement

Culture is conceptualized as the shared perception of meanings inherent in aspects of organizational life. In testing the key hypothesis, the impact of training on employee attitudes, possible intervening factors were taken into account. These organizational variables have been identified as the cultural context within which training has taken place. Organizational dimensions which play an important role in signifying and transmitting meaning have been identified as communication, leadership orientation, decision-making and structure, procedures and policies. These act as vehicles within which meaning is transmitted; the process of making meaning legitimate is one that may be described as on-going, constantly evolving and changing. The way employees perceive an organization in terms of the specified dimensions will give some indication as to whether employees feel positively or otherwise towards the organization. It might be argued that an employee's perception of an organization indicates the working experience he or she has had with the organization. An unfavourable view of the organization should indicate that the working experience is negative, and vice-versa. The experiential factor, in this case that of working with a certain organization, is also considered. Especially if training does not have an impact on attitudes, this experiential factor which may be referred to as the "being there" factor, could play an important role. The rationale may be that the total working experience in one organization as compared to another can influence an employee's attitude towards customers rather than discrete dimensions of experience in isolation. In considering the cultural context, the methodological issue of whether the culture construct can be measured through formulating discrete dimensions becomes relevant. Consequently, the findings of the present study will either support or question the measurement of the culture construct through discrete dimensions.

As already mentioned, the rationale for using a questionnaire approach is based on the argument that the relationship between theoretical concept and method may be one that is contingent rather than axiomatic. The present study, therefore, has not adopted a questionnaire instrument which has been developed from past research. Past studies which claimed to have succeeded in measuring the culture construct have used questionnaire instruments which tend to be obtrusive, and have relied heavily on the Likert type instrument. A critical analysis of the System 4 was made by Charles Perrow (Perrow, 1972). The system 4 theory propagated by Rensis Likert and his associates, stated that the motivation–cooperative management style is the best organization system which managers should adopt. The theory dealt not only with leadership, but also with other dimensions including that of motivational forces, communication processes, interaction–influence processes, decision–making processes, ordering of goals, control processes, and performance goals and training. The theory therefore was not limited to leadership alone. However, the four systems of organizations described by Likert as: exploitative authoritative, benevolent authoritative, consultative, and finally participative, seem to depict leadership styles. System 4 values may be described as socially desirable in that the majority of people would not be against such values. For instance, on one extreme system 1 characterized an organization as having no confidence and trust in subordinates. On the other extreme system 4 organizations were described as possessing complete confidence and trust. Generally, managers were most likely to prefer cooperative attitudes with mutual trust and confidence, as opposed to subservient and hostile attitudes toward supervisors. The support for system 4 may also be related to the climate of opinion of the period during which the study was conducted. If the study had been carried out during an earlier period of, say, the 1920s or so when the dominant ideology favoured an authoritative and bureaucratic management style, then it is possible that a majority of people would have supported a system 1.

A closer examination of a few of the specific items, for example that which concerned decision–making, indicated that the question wording was such that managers would have reservations about choosing system 4. For instance, a manager might have felt that it would not be possible for employees to fully participate in decisions regarding their work due to a number of reasons. Employees may not have the knowledge to fully understand certain technical decisions, and its impact on other working units, or it might be that time and money constraints do not permit such an approach. Managers would probably question what is actually meant by being "involved" in decision-making since this is open to interpretation depending upon the task. However, given the response categories: 1. not at all, 2. never involved in decision; occasionally consulted, 3. usually are consulted but ordinarily not involved in decision-making, 4. are involved fully in all decisions related to their work, the manager has little choice but to select system 4. In this manner, it might be argüed that the question wording was leading.

Another point to be made is that the intercorrelations between items were consistently high. In other words, if certain items scored system 3, then the rest of the items tended to also fall into system 3. The argument to bring forward is that if leadership, communication, goal setting, decision-making processes, supportive behaviour, and so on are viewed as being individual organizational characteristics, then presumably some degree of independence among these variables would be expected. It would not be illogical to anticipate that even if communication processes were unsatisfactory, decision-making processes might be satisfactory. The alternative explanation given by Perrow (1972) was the possibility that only one dimension was being tapped, and that this dimension might be the morale of employees. Accordingly, if the climate is favourable and that matters were going well, then it would be expected that employees would respond overwhelmingly to support a system 4. Otherwise, the opposite outcome would be anticipated. Given the above criticisms of the Likert instrument and the problems relating to the study, the present study utilized elements of the Likert instrument with extreme caution and qualitative checks.

Another reason for the need to construct a new instrument was to test the methodological hypothesis: instrument design imposes a meaning context and influences responses. Instrument design involves question content, wording and sequence. The strategies of capturing meaning may be said to be dependent upon the degree of obliqueness of instrument design.

In order to achieve this, it becomes necessary to adapt techniques of question design used in other instruments and to incorporate them into the present study. In this way, the present study has adopted an eclectic approach in constructing the questionnaire. The process of questionnaire construction, in this case, may be viewed not as scientific, but rather an art which requires creativity. Meaning may be described to exist laterally, as opposed to linearity. An inherent characteristic of meaning may be argued to be that it is non-disaggregated and complex. As such, the questionnaire instrument has been designed to take into account these factors. The different levels of obliqueness in question design and the chaotic question location were aimed at capturing the non-linearity nature of meaning.

In formulating the questions, the question design was done in such a manner that respondents were asked to select the answer which most closely approaches their understanding of the situation. In doing so, careful attention has been given to the language used so as to ensure that the language incorporated the cultural meanings inherent in the participants' perspective in daily organizational life and the researcher's own perspective. Thus, in designing the multiple-choice questions, it was fundamental to apply language which communicated as far as possible the common-sense meanings as used in the working environment. Does the language carry the meaning it is supposed to? Has the question been designed in such a way which may be interpreted in various ways by different people? Are questions designed in a manner which provokes defensive responsiveness? The questionnaire was constructed with the above points in mind based on pilot studies.

In capturing "culture" through the questionnaire approach, the problem of possible closure arises. Closure may be defined as bias in responses as a result of question order and sequence. This problem may be overcome through deliberate shuffling of question orders. Question sequence effects were taken into account; the aim was to avoid providing clues to the respondent so as to influence responses. In other words, if the respondent can anticipate the expectations of the researcher through the measuring instrument itself, then the likelihood of producing biased outcomes will be great. In addition, question sequence can overcome the problem of respondent formulating an answer prematurely. The present study has experimented with different ways of getting meanings across to the respondent. It might be argued that the questionnaire instrument generates contextual meaning, and as such may be viewed as a meaning system. In conceptualizing culture as meaning, the questionnaire instrument elicits meaning through different approaches to question wording. The subtle differences in meaning may be captured through different levels of question design.

The measurement of attitude in particular used three different approaches. The first was adapted from Herzberg's critical incident method, while the second was from Fiedler's least preferred co-worker scale. The third approach served more as a check because these questions were phrased literally so as to be leading; the purpose, as already mentioned, was to test the methodological hypothesis. The Herzberg approach was the most oblique as it did not give explicit reference to customers. In addition, the question location was in Section A, which was about the cultural context of the organization as opposed to being about attitude towards the customer. The Fiedler's least preferred co-worker scale gave clues to the respondent by requesting a description of the least preferred customer. The appropriate balance between vagueness and overprecision was the key to formulating this question. Respondents knew that the question dealt with customers, even though many probably would not be able to anticipate the kinds of responses expected from the researcher. Finally, the literal questions were designed to be leading and meant to induce responses.

The outcome responses of these questions suggest not only that question wording is important, but that by exploring the relationship between the responses to different wordings can provide a clearer interpretation of respondents meaning, but also the intensity of this meaning can be achieved. The Fiedler question linguistically sensitizes the respondent towards the kind of language used to describe customers.

Whereas the Herzberg question probes deeper by looking at whether job satisfaction or dissatisfaction was positively related to the customer. In formulating these attitude questions, the discriminatory power of the measuring tool was taken into account. Special attention was given to the whole issue of measuring attitudes in particular because many attitude questions were of a sensitive nature. The potential problem of defensive responsiveness has been dealt with in recognizing which were the socially desirable questions that were most likely to provoke biased responses. In tackling the problem, questions have been designed in an unobtrusive and subtle manner.

Finally, in constructing the questionnaire, the preliminary stage of interviewing and participant observation was not done because the researcher was well acquainted with the background information. In the present study, the researcher has been living within the cultural environment of the subjects and therefore it may be said that a formal anthropological type study for the preliminary stage of information gathering was not necessary. In this sense, it may be argued that the study is beyond the anthropological mode. Based on life experience within the university context, the researcher is already familiar with not only the areas of concern and issues of debate that concern university administrators, but also the language and terminology used. This is not to say that the researcher has not taken an uncritical view of these issues, but the point to be put across is that the researcher developed the questionnaire instrument in light of this background knowledge and involvement.

Certainly, there are limitations of any device used to capture meaning, including the type that has been used in this study. There exists the possibility that the actor's perception and interpretation of the times differs from the answers/options given, thereby restricting any other understanding of their situational definition of reality. This problem is inherent in the "forced" character of the responses. However due to practical reasons, particularly that of time and financial constraints, the questionnaire is the most appropriate instrument to use in the present study.

Aspects of Working Experience

After reviewing the literature on climate, organizational behaviour, and culture the aspects of organizational life that seemed to have meaningful significance to the working experience of employees are as follows:

1) Communication : Communication serves as a vehicle in transmitting meaning and therefore plays an important role in the study of culture. Patterns of communication in an organization can provide insights into the understanding of the culture. What to communicate and the degree of openness in communication are crucial to the study of culture (Evered, 1983; Meissner, 1976).

2) Leadership Orientation : The style of leadership has an impact on culture through the role of the founder. Schein's (1985) book on "Organizational Culture and Leadership" explicitly suggests that the founder shapes the culture of an organization. Leadership and contingency factors have been identified to be closely related to organizational culture (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1985). Others (Davis, 1984; Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Sathe, 1985) have identified dominant leader(s) as one of the determinants of organizational

culture.

3) Decision-making/structure : The level of authority and autonomy an employee has is related to leadership orientation. The degree of centralization/decentralization provides information on control and power distribution. As mentioned earlier, these factors are manifestations of culture. Research conducted by Hofstede (1984) indicates the power distance in an organizational context is related to the degree of centralization of authority and the degree of autocratic leadership.

4) Procedures and Regulations : An indirect manifestation of values and beliefs are the rules and policies in the organization (Pettigrew, 1990; Martin and Siehl, 1983; Deal and Kennedy, 1982, p. 15).

5) Value Orientation : The employees' value orientation towards their job indicates what motivates them to work. The employee's value system influences the way he or she perceives what criteria if of importance to him or her. In relating to attitude towards customers, employees who are motivated by affiliation needs for instance, would be most likely to be relationship oriented and therefore more customer oriented. Some climate researchers use the phrase, attitudes to work, referring to other aspects of organizational culture (Lippitt, Langseth, & Mossop, 1985; Miles & Schmuch, 1971; Tagiuri & Litwin, 1968).

Developing the instrument

The above suggested "dimensions" was based on preestablished studies that used standard instruments to measure the "culture as variable"/climate construct. The original version of the questionnaire, shown in Appendix A, was tested on a group of MBA students. The aim of the pilot was purely analytical in that it was meant to explore the degree to which different types of question design led to different kinds of responses. In other words it was necessary to adopt questions from past studies in order to ascertain the degree to which the questions led responses.

The analysis of data from the pilot confirmed that instrument design influences outcomes. The experience of undertaking the pilot study indicated that the use of standard instruments was inadequate to capture the culture construct as it imposed a rigid meaning framework onto responses, thus making outcomes highly predictable; as questions were formulated in such a manner that answers were "suggested" to respondents. The validity of universal models of culture, for instance that used in Hofstede's Cultural Consequences (1984), was questioned.

The research problem revolved around two main issues. The first is the key hypothesis that customer care training impacts on employee attitude towards the customer. The second is the methodological hypothesis that instrument design influences responses. These two issues are intertwined in that exploring the impact of training on attitudes will be dependent upon how we "measure" attitudes. The problem of attitude measurement is one that is complex due to its sensitive nature. The present study uses a variety of different approaches in question design to tap attitudes. The next section provides a detailed discussion of the formulation of the final version of the questionnaire.

Formulating the final questionnaire

The findings of the pilot study called for a whole new paradigmatic approach in formulating the questionnaire. In taking the view of culture as shared perceptions of meaning, the questionnaire instrument was designed so as to capture the dimension of meaning. The revised questionnaire was made up of two sections, A and B. Section A dealt with the organizational dimensions and employee perception towards the organization. As just stated, the aim was to take into account the working experience at an organization, or the "being there" factor, which may have a possible impact on employee attitudes. If majority of employees perceive an organization unfavourably, this implies that these employees' working experience would also be negative, and vice-versa. Section B dealt with employee attitude towards the customer and training in customer care. Three approaches to attitude measurement was used, this will be explained later.

SECTION A

Part i) – Respondents were required to evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of the organization so that the experiential factor of working at that particular organization may be inferred as favourable or otherwise. Questions 1a to 1l include the organizational dimensions: communication, leadership skills, training and development, a fair appraisal system, clear work procedures, sound organizational structure, quality of senior management, fair pay scheme, service quality, fringe benefits and fair promotion system. The rating scale ranged from great strength to great weakness. "Not applicable to the organization" was an additional choice for the respondents.

Part ii) – Check questions on salient organizational dimensions were meant to tap the respondents' perceptions and understandings of different aspects of organizational life. As such, the meaning inherent in each aspect of working life, as interpreted by respondents, may be inferred.

a) Leadership skills – Question 2 looked at whether the respondent felt that superior behaviour was more task or employee oriented. The question was adapted from the Ohio State studies on leadership which resulted in a two-factor theory of leadership (Stogdill and Coons, 1957). The research identified two factors, referred to as initiating structure and consideration. Initiating structure involved leadership behaviour characterized by well-defined and established patterns, structured and organized relationships, and channels of communication. Consideration involved leadership behaviour that demonstrated friendship, mutual trust, respect, warmth, and rapport with employees. Salient dimensions which characterized task or relationship orientation were selected and incorporated into the questionnaire. Based on the behavioural characteristics of leadership which depict either task or relationship orientation, the respondent was requested to describe how often his or her supervisor exhibited such behaviour. Question 3 requested the respondent to describe the characteristics of senior management. The purpose was to get information on why respondents perceived quality of senior management as a strength or weakness.

b) Communication – Questions 4a dealt with communication within the department. Question 4b looked at communication between the department and university management. Question 7a,b and c requested information on how communication between departments work.

c) <u>Decision-making</u> – Question 5a asked the respondent whether he or she has a say in major decisions within the department. On the other hand, question 5b requested information on whether the respondent's department has a say in major decisions concerning its work. Question 6 requested the respondent to choose the statement which best described the decision-making process affecting his or her work.

d) <u>Organizational structure</u> – Question 8a looked at whether the existing organizational structure was helpful in facilitating communication, work and decision-making. Question 8b was an open-ended question which prompted the respondent to state any changes that would improve any problems.

e) <u>Procedures and regulations</u> – Question 9 requested the respondent to select the answer which best described the way procedures are implemented in the department.

f) <u>Value orientation</u> – Question 10 dealt with the respondent's value orientation towards the job. The purpose was to find out what motivated the respondent to hold the present job. Pay, security, affiliation, achievement, control, and recognition were included in the list.

Part iii) – Training and development

Questions 13 to 18 dealt with training and development. The training questions included the commitment of university staff to training and development, the time off the job training was last received, the usefulness of training in developing work roles, the proper use of training skills acquired, the feedback received or otherwise, and the applicability of training programmes in expanding skills.

Part iv) – Attitude towards the customer

The locations of questions 11 and 12 were deliberately placed in Section A so that respondents would not suspect that the aim was to tap attitude towards the customer. As already mentioned, these two open-ended questions would allow respondents describe in their own words the experience of working at that particular organization. The responses would indicate how work was particularly satisfying or dissatisfying. In addition, the responses would also provide information on whether training had a fundamental impact on employees in that job satisfaction or dissatisfaction may be related to the customer in some way or another. Adapted from Herzberg's motivation–hygiene theory, questions 11 and 12 both dealt with job satisfaction and dissatisfaction respectively. The respondent was requested to describe a time when he or she felt exceptionally satisfied with the job. The same exercise was repeated in question 12, but this time the respondent was asked to describe a dissatisfying experience. Respondents whose satisfying experience was related to customer satisfaction were considered to have a positive attitude towards customers. Respondents whose dissatisfying experience was related to customer dissatisfaction were also considered to have a positive attitude. Those who did not report any customer related satisfaction or dissatisfaction were not considered to be customer oriented.

SECTION B

Part i) - Customer care orientation

Question 1 requested the respondent to state the extent to which he or she agreed or disagreed with the statements describing customer care orientation. Issues included concerned: the definition of the concept of excellent service, awareness and knowledge of front-line employees regarding customer expectations, customer input in defining customer expectations, needs and service quality, the willingness of the organization to learn from employees about customer satisfaction, the participation of top management in demonstrating excellent service, employee opinion of the sincerity of organization's efforts to improve service quality, set standards to make the definition of excellent service concrete and real to employees, measurement of employee performance through customer and management evaluation, employee perception on customer care training programme and procedures to facilitate good service.

Part ii) - Employee attitude towards the customer

Question 2 was designed with the intention to provide enough information so that the respondent would know that the question was pertaining to customers, but at the same time would not have enough clues to anticipate what kinds of responses were expected. Emphasis was placed on the linguistic perspective of describing customers to see whether training had at least sensitized employees in such a way. Adapted from Fiedler's least preferred co-worker (LPC) scale, used in a study concerning leadership orientation of an individual, this measurement tool was incorporated in the present study (Fiedler and Chemers, 1974). Respondents were requested to describe the least-preferred customer. A customer is defined as "people for whom the respondent is providing a service - and who depend on him or her if they are to be effective." Within the university context, students, academics, administrative staff can be considered as customers. Based on the breakdown used in the Fiedler study, an LPC score of 64 or greater implies the respondent is customer oriented or may be said to have a positive attitude towards the customer. Whereas an LPC score of 63 or lower is non-customer oriented or may be described as non-positive attitude.

Question 13 tapped attitude towards the customer, but questions were formulated in a leading manner. This particular question played an important role in inferring meaningful responses in that it provided a basis for comparison of sample outcomes to question 2, section B and questions 11 and 12 of section A. As such, inconsistencies in sample responses would indicate that question wording, as part of the whole process of instrument design, can have great influence on responses. The statements were literally phrased as follows:

I feel personally involved towards the customer care issue.
I feel that customers get too much attention.
I respect customers' beliefs and values.
I feel that there are too many customers to remember and know individually.
I feel a sense of personal satisfaction when my customers are satisfied.
I think the customer care philosophy is essential for this organization.
I feel too busy to be concerned with customer needs.
I am flexible in dealing with customers.

The respondents were requested to state the extent to which he or she agreed or disagreed with the statements by ticking the scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Question 4 was a check on attitudes as it asked the respondent whether complaints were an important source of information.

Part iii) – Training in customer care

Questions 5, 6, 7, 8a and 8b dealt with training in customer care, and were aimed at getting factual information on training. Training issues included were the extent to which employees received training in customer care or otherwise; the time training, both on–the–job and off–the–job, was implemented; the usefulness of training in facilitating the job; and the usefulness of training in helping to deal with customers at the personal or individual level as well as at the staff level.

Part iv) – Organization's commitment to customer care

Questions 3, 9, 10, 11, and 12 looked at the organization's commitment to customer care as perceived by the respondents. The issues of concern included the belief that top management really cares about customer service, the belief that the organization's image has changed as a result of customer care training, the priority given to customers, the adequacy of investment in customer care programmes in terms of time and resources, and the extent top management shows its commitment in trying to provide excellent service. These questions were scattered throughout section B, and were meant as checks to responses in question 1, section B on customer care orientation.

The changes made in the reconstruction of the questionnaire were necessary in order for the instrument to be as unobtrusive and subtle as possible. Since meaning is a construct which cannot be said to exist in a linear fashion, a deliberate attempt was made to present together literally phrased questions together with those that were more oblique. It might be argued that through comparing sample responses of different questions, a more accurate assessment of meaning may be obtained. Due to the inherent non–linear characteristic of meaning, the art of instrument design is not only highly subjective and complex, but also one which requires unobtrusiveness. As such, the present questionnaire needs to be viewed as a non–scientific instrument.

The Research

Sampling procedure

The approach used to select the four universities may be described as one of convenience simply because these institutions agreed to participate in the study. In the study pseudonyms will be used for the universities which cooperated in the study. The names used are Northtown, Westcounty, Southtown, and Newcity. Northtown was chosen because it was believed to have a strong training function. Southtown and Newcity were selected because their academic profiles and traditions were similar to that of Northtown. Westcounty was chosen because it had a different academic profile and tradition. In addition, Westcounty was the one university which had no history in customer care training. From an analytical point of view, a multiple case study using a questionnaire approach has been applied to the present study. The University of Westcounty was the only institution without customer care training while the other three universities had such training; this provides as a control mechanism so that a comparison can be made between those respondents who had training against those who did not.

The questionnaire was administered to non-manual and non-academic staff. The central and administrative staff was widely defined to include registry, finance, estates/residences, catering, security and portering, and library and related support staff. Excluded from the clerical and administration were those of academic departments and autonomous institutions. To make the sample manageable, about 150 respondents were selected from each institution. This meant that in terms of percentages, the sample size from each university differed according to the size of its central administrative staff. Since Westcounty and Northtown were comparable in size, a sample of 50% was taken. On the other hand, Southtown and Newcity had 100% of their central administration in the sample.

In selecting the staff members, the payroll data was used as the grades applied were similar across all the four universities. Based on the payroll grades, the "central administrative services" were isolated. Payroll grades were used because it was not practical to select staff members based on job grades or functional division. Thus, the respondents would vary from the highest level administration to clerical assistants.

<u>Data collection</u>

A total number of 603 questionnaires were sent out. The total sample comprised of: Newcity 130, Southtown 165, Westcounty 151, and Northtown 157. The response rate was 20.8% for Newcity, 18.0% for Southtown, 23.8% for Westcounty, and 51.0% for Northtown. On the whole the response rate was 28.3%. Chapter 7 will discuss the analysis of data and its findings.

CHAPTER 7

Analysis of Data

As mentioned in the introduction, the nature of this study is meant to be exploratory with the purpose of looking at relationships between different variables, namely between training and attitudes. In other words, the aim of this study is to explore the impact of training on employee attitudes. Chapter 2 discussed the point that the literature on culture management claimed, largely from the work of organization development practitioners, that planned intervention such as that of training can alter different aspects of an organization's culture including that of attitudes. Consistent with this view are those who believe that culture is a variable, and who assert that culture can be manipulated and also measured through the use of the questionnaire. The claims made by these organization development researchers are suspect because the instruments used to assess culture use highly leading questions and statements which determine the outcome. In many of the studies, employees of the organization were first asked to evaluate their present organization's profile based on a four-point scale ranging from a highly mechanistic-bureaucratic to a highly organic-participative management style. The same exercise was then repeated, but this time employees were requested to state their preferred organization profile based on their own values and attitudes. The purpose was to compare the actual and the preferred profiles of the organization. This type of approach, as in the Likert (1966) system 4 method, tends to produce a biased or predicted outcome because the majority of respondents tend to choose a more participative style management rather than an autocratic one. In other words, people agree to socially desirable statements because these "motherhood" type statements are socially accepted and use normative language. An example of a Likert type questionnaire may be obtained from Roger Harrison's questionnaire for diagnosing organization ideology with scoring profiles (Ott, 1989).

In exploring the impact of training on employee attitudes, two major questions are raised in this study. The first question deals with the issue of attitude measurement. The root metaphor perspective criticizes the use of a survey approach in studying culture. Proponents of the root metaphor view assert that culture *is* the organization whereby culture is defined as the meaning people attribute to their actions. Such a view adopts an anthropological approach to the study of culture with the aim of providing a "thick description" of that culture. The present study uses a questionnaire instrument to assess attitudes as noted above. The use of questionnaires is based on the argument that question design can be done in an unobtrusive manner. In other words, the problem to be resolved in questionnaire construction is the subtlety and obliqueness of question design so as to be sophisticated enough to tap attitudes and meanings.

Related to the first question of measurement is the problem of how to measure other intervening variables which may influence the attitudes of employees. These intervening variables may be related to the organizational culture in that it has a direct impact on an employee's working experience. In addition, biographical and career related factors need to be taken into account. In exploring the key hypothesis, the impact of training on employee attitudes, the assumption that other factors may influence employee attitudes cannot be ruled out. Furthermore, these other potential intervening variables need to be taken into consideration to serve as a control in order to determine whether training has a positive impact on attitudes. In analysing the data, attitude towards the customer is assumed to be the dependent variable. Three categories of factors which might be argued to play an influential role in shaping employee attitude are as follows:

A. Experience of the organization – the employees' overall experience of the organization's culture is captured through the different aspects of their work:

a. the employees' perception on the organization –

the respondent's perception on the seven salient aspects of work experience identified as:

1.1 communication,
1.2 leadership skills,
1.3 training and development,
1.4 work procedures,
1.5 senior management,
1.6 pay scheme, and
1.7 promotion system (discussion of the identified salient variables will be covered later).

b. supervisor behaviour –

the respondent's perception of whether supervisor behaviour is task or people oriented.

c. general training experience –

the respondent's perception of training experience including whether he or she had training or not, the usefulness and relevance of training, timing of training, and top management's commitment to training.

B. Biographical factors – looks at age, sex, length of time with organization, and level of education.

C. Employees' motivational and value orientation - looks at the individual respondent's two most important value criteria for choosing the present job.

The second question explores the key hypothesis, whether training does have a positive influence on employee attitudes. The attitude towards the customer is compared against sample responses from the different institutions to see whether any trend indicating a relationship between training and attitudes exists. In doing such comparison, a major question arises that is, "does the attitude measurement tool discriminate between institutions which have training and those that do not?" Even if the measurement tool does discriminate between institutions that give training and those that do not, the need to question carefully whether or not training really is responsible for such an outcome of attitudes becomes necessary. In order to check for this, three control measures are carried out. The first is to compare attitude towards the customer against training in customer care, the purpose is to see whether training does influence attitude. The second is to compare attitude towards the customer against all the intervening variables stated above. This second control investigates the possibility that attitude towards the customer is influenced by other intervening variables such as supervisor behaviour, work procedures, communication and the like. These potential intervening variables give an indication of the respondent's first hand experience or some element of the direct impact of the way the respondent is being treated during work, and therefore may be a potent influential factor in shaping attitudes. Finally, the third control investigates further to see whether or not being at a particular university does provide a unique organizational experience to the group of people who work there. In other words, the "being there" factor could be viewed as a socially constructed reality which is related to the whole notion of organizational culture. The interaction of intervening variables, may play a key role in making the employees' work experience at one institution different from that of another. Thus, the third control attempts to single out the possible factor that working at one university that has its own culture may be a key variable in influencing employee attitudes.

The analysis of data is divided into two major parts. Part I explores the methodological hypothesis which states that instrument design influences responses. The aim is to make a case for the use of the questionnaire instrument as a way to measure attitude outcome. Part II explores the key hypothesis, that is, the impact of training on employee attitudes. The purpose is to test the assumption and claim made by those who implement planned interventions in efforts to change the organization's culture.

Appendix B shows the crosstabulations, while Appendix C provides a descriptive commentary for each table. Before going into data analysis, background information on the biographical factors of respondents will be described first. In addition, an analysis of frequencies of the seven salient organizational dimensions as identified will be discussed here. These key organizational dimensions have been selected to be compared against attitude towards the customer, and against the sample responses of the four universities. These comparisons will be analyzed in detail in Part II.

Biographical factors:

a. Sex

Men make up 33.5% of the total sample while the remaining 66.5% were women.

b. Age

The majority of respondents, 59.1%, were in the age group 25–45 years, next largest group, 32.4%, were in the 46–65 age group, and finally the remaining 8.2% were the youngest age group of under 25.

c. Education level

Degree holders make up 42.7%, while non–degree holders constituted 57.3% of the total respondents.

d. Length of time with the organization

The majority of respondents of 44.1% have served the organization for 5 years or less, 33.5% have worked between 6–15 years, and finally 22.4% have been in service for 16 years and over.

Sex against education level (Table 1)

In comparing sex against education level, of the 55 men, 56.4% were degree holders, the rest, 43.6%, were non–degree holders. However, of the 109 women, 35.8% of female employees were degree holders while 64.2% were not.

Sex against age (Table 2)

Looking at sex against age, the majority of 60.7% of women were in the age group

25–45 years, 28.6% were in the 46–65 age group and 10.7% were in the under 25 age group. For the 58 men, 56.9% fell into the 25–45 age group, 39.7% in the 46–65 age group and finally a minority of 3.4% in the under 25 age group.

<u>Sex against length of service</u> (Table 3)

Finally, comparison of sex against length of time in the organization shows that for the women, 49.1% served their organization between 0–5 years, 31.3% were in service for 6–15 years and 19.6% have worked for at least 16 years. For the men, 34.5% have been with the organization between 0–5 years, 37.9% have been employed between 6–15 years, and the remaining 27.6% joined the organization at least 16 years ago.

<u>Age against education level</u> (Table 4)

Crosstabulating age against education levels; the majority of 68.6% of degree holders are between 25–45 years old, 28.5% of degree holders are between 46–65 years of age, and only 2.9% are under 25 years. For the non-degree holders, 54.3% fall in the 25–45 age group, 32.9% in the oldest age group of 46–65 years, and 12.8% are under 25 years.

<u>Age against length of service</u> (Table 5)

In comparing age against time, the majority of 92.9% of the under 25 years have been with the organization for 5 years or less, and only 7.1% worked between 6–15 years. The next age group of 25–45 years has most of its members of 51.5% serving for 5 years or less too, 32.7% have been in service for 6–15 years, while the remaining 15.8% have served for at least 16 years or longer. Finally, the oldest age group of 46–65 years has a majority of 41.8% of its members having served between 6–15 years, 40% have been with their institution for 16 years or longer, and 18.2% have been working only for 5 years or less.

Length of service against education level (Table 6)

The last comparison is between time and education levels. Of the 70 degree holders, 55.7% were comparatively new to the organization having worked for 5 years or less, 30.0% have been in service between 6–15 years, and 14.3% have worked the longest period of at least 16 years or longer. For the 94 non-degree holders, 38.3% have been in service for 5 years or shorter, 36.2% have served between 6–15 years, and 25.5% employed for 16 years or more. Tables 1–6, Appendix B provides the above crosstabulations just discussed.

Salient organizational dimensions:

Out of the eleven listed organizational dimensions in question 1 of section A, seven discriminated between sample responses, the variables chosen divided the responses by at least a 40–60 split as depicted in the table below. These variables did appear to be salient and discriminating because sample responses were substantial in either category.

	Weakness %	Strength %
communication	60.0	40.0
leadership skills	51.0	49.0
training & development	47.0	53.0
clear work procedures	48.0	52.0
quality of senior management	42.0	58.0
fair pay scheme	47.0	53.0
fair promotion system	59.0	41.0

Having gone through the above descriptive commentary, the next section will continue to discuss data analysis based on the methodological hypothesis in Part I, and the major hypothesis of training impact on attitudes in Part II.

PART I

In tackling the first question of attitude measurement, the study uses three approaches to measure attitudes; a more detailed discussion is given in the section on questionnaire construction in the methodology chapter. However, a short overview of the three approaches will be outlined here to illustrate the point that attitude measurement is sensitive to question wording. The first approach adopted the Fiedler least preferred co-worker scale which was used in his leadership study (please refer to question 2, section B). For the purpose of this study, the term "the customer you dislike most" is used. The respondents were requested to describe the attributes of the customer who is disliked most. If the respondent chooses negative language or adjectives to describe the most disliked customer, then he or she is considered to have a negative attitude towards the customer. On the other hand, if the respondent describes the most disliked customer in positive terms, then he or she is considered to have a positive attitude. As mentioned in chapter 6, the threshold score of 64 was based on the original study on leadership orientation conducted by Fiedler (Fiedler and Chemers, 1974). The variable name for this attitude measure is lpccode.

The second approach in attitude measurement is the use of Herzberg's critical incident method on motivation (please refer to questions 11 and 12, section A). The question was designed in an oblique manner so that respondents had no idea that the aim was to tap attitude towards customers. The respondents were asked to describe the times when their present job was particularly satisfying and dissatisfying. Only respondents who report that customer happiness is related to their job satisfaction, or that customer unhappiness is related to their job dissatisfaction are considered as possessing a positive attitude towards the customer. In other words, only respondents who mentioned the people with whom they interacted with during work (internal and external customers) as a source of job satisfaction were classified in the category of having a positive attitude towards the customer.

Finally, the third approach to measure attitude towards customers was to phrase obvious and socially desirable "motherhood" statements about customers (please refer to question 11, section B). Respondents were requested to state whether they agreed or disagreed with the statements. The composite score, the variable named "check", indicated the attitude of respondents towards the customer.

The aim of the methodology hypothesis is to illustrate the disjuncture between the outcomes of the three measures of attitude towards the customer. The results confirm that the way a question is phrased influences the answers given by respondents. Fiedler's lpccode is the most discriminating variable in measuring attitude towards the customer. Attitude towards the customer as measured by Fiedler's lpccode indicate that 55.3% of respondents are non–positive, while the remaining 44.7% revealed a positive attitude. On the other hand, the answers to the open ended questions on job satisfaction and dissatisfaction showed that a majority of 77.9% of respondents did not report customer–related job satisfaction. Only a minority of 22.1% reported customer–related job satisfaction. Finally, a frequency count on the variable, check, exhibited that an overwhelming majority of 97.1% of respondents claimed to have a positive attitude towards the customer, while an insignificant 2.3% showed a non–positive attitude. The analysis of frequency count does strongly indicate that question wording is extremely important in measuring sensitive issues such as attitudes.

Comparing attitude towards the customer as measured through the three different approaches also supports the above claim (tables 7–9, Appendix C). Table 7 crosstabulates Check by Lpccode. The results show that 148 or 97.4% claimed to have a positive attitude as measured by the variable check. Of these 148 positive respondents, 82 or 55.4% actually revealed a non–positive attitude, and 66 or 44.6% showed a positive attitude when compared against the Lpccode variable. It may be argued at this point that socially desirable questions tend not to produce an accurate measure of attitudes.

Table 7

Respondents' Attitude towards Customer	Check on Employee Attitude towards Customer		
	Positive	**Non-Positive**	**Row Total**
Non-positive attitude	*55.4%* 82 *97.6%*	*50%* 2 *2.4%*	84 (*55.3%*)
Positive attitude	*44.6%* 66 *97.1%*	*50%* 2 *2.9%*	68 (*44.7%*)
COLUMN TOTAL	148 (*97.4%*)	4 (*2.6%*)	152 (*100%*)

Number of missing observations = 19

Table 8 crosstabulates Fiedler's Lpccode by Herzberg's customer related job satisfaction. The results indicate that the majority of 77.6% or 97 respondents did not report customer-related job satisfaction. Of those who did not report customer-related satisfaction, 49.5% or 48 respondents showed a positive attitude when measured through Fiedler's Lpccode least preferred customer scale, while 50.5% were non-positive. The remaining 22.4% or 28 respondents reported customer related job satisfaction, but 71.4% or 20 showed a non-positive attitude while only 28.6% or 8 respondents consistently showed a positive attitude when measured according to the Lpccode. This result depicts the discrepancies which exist as a consequence of question wording.

The next illustration in Table 9 compares figures gathered by Herzberg's customer-related job satisfaction and the statement, "I feel a sense of personal satisfaction when my customers are satisfied." An overwhelming majority of 97.8% or 131 claimed to agree to the positive statement made concerning the customer. Of the 131 respondents, only 22.9% or 30 actually reported customer related job satisfaction while the remaining 77.1% or 101 did not. In addition, a total of 104 or 77.6% of respondents did not report customer related job satisfaction. Only 3 or 2.9% of respondents who did not report customer-related job satisfaction consistently disagreed to the statement, "I feel a sense of personal satisfaction when my customers are satisfied." In other words, 100% or all three respondents who disagreed to the statement also did not report customer-related job satisfaction.

Conclusion - Methodological Hypothesis

The three crosstabulations thus demonstrated that the methodology hypothesis cannot be rejected. The data gathered from this survey also indicate that attitude could be measured in an oblique way through the use of questionnaires. It may be argued that highly leading questions do dictate the outcome or responses of the respondent. For example in the Likert system 4 method, the majority of employees tended to choose the organic-participative style management rather than the mechanistic-autocratic one. It becomes almost absurd for any employee to prefer his or her supervisor to not consult him or her in making decisions which directly affects his or her work. People would almost always prefer or agree to a consensus and open style leadership. On the other hand, when questions were formulated in such a way that respondents did not know exactly that their attitude towards the customer was being measured, the outcome or responses tended to be less biased. A more accurate picture of attitudes may be described as a sensitive issue because people would like be seen as having a positive attitude. It becomes extremely difficult to obtain an accurate assessment of attitudes if respondents know how to answer questions in such a way that will put them in a positive light. In order to overcome such a problem, questions must be designed in an oblique way. The Fiedler Lpccode, despite its weaknesses, does discriminate amongst respondents. It may be argued that the attitude measurement tool is less biased in that it is discriminating and does not produce lopsided or skewed responses. Thus, it may be said that the Lpccode is more accurate in measuring attitudes as opposed to the other two measures. Question design is therefore the key to the use of the questionnaire instrument.

PART II

In exploring the key hypothesis, the impact of training in customer care on employee attitudes, the data analysis can be described as a complex process of eliminating "intervening variables" which could have an impact on attitude towards the customer. The sample responses from the four universities were used in two ways. The first was to determine whether there was any difference in attitude between respondents of universities which had training in customer care and those that did not. The second was to use the sample responses as a crude variable in order to determine whether any other "intervening variable" existed apart from those suggested. In determining the most potent factor in influencing attitudes, the data analysis may be summarized according to four major stages as follows:

Question: Was there any difference in attitude towards the customer between universities which had customer care training as opposed to that which did not?

Procedure: Crosstabulation between sample responses from the four universities against attitude towards the customer.

Conclusion: There was a difference in attitude between universities which did have training and the one which did not.

First Control

The first control was to check whether the reason for this was the provision of customer care training and not other aspects of the universities involved.

Question: Does training in customer care have any "systematic" impact on attitudes?

Procedure: Crosstabulation between training in customer care against attitude towards the customer.

Conclusion: Training in customer care does not seem to have an impact on attitude towards the customer.

Second Control

The second control was to identify whether any of the suggested "intervening variables" have an impact on attitudes.

Question: Which of the suggested "intervening variables", if any, have an impact on attitude towards the customer?

Procedure: Crosstabulation between "intervening variables" against attitude towards the customer.

Conclusion: Communication, sex of respondent, and the age group of 25–45 seem to have a marginal impact on attitude towards the customer.

Third Control

The third control was to check whether communication, sex, and the age group did have an independent impact on attitudes. The need to isolate whether any other underlying variable explains the apparent impact on attitudes was necessary.

Question: Is/are there any other factor(s) that could have an impact on employee attitude towards the customer instead of/apart from communication, sex and age group?

Procedure: Crosstabulation between sample responses from the four universities against all the identified intervening variables.

Conclusion: Factors having marginal impact were communication, sex and possibly length of service in organization. The most significant variable which influences attitude is the "being there" factor, that is, the total experience of being in a particular organization.

Based on the above summary, the first step is to compare the sample responses from the four universities, namely Westcounty, Southtown, Northtown, and Newcity against the attitude towards the customer. Table 10 in Appendix C provides the crosstabulation between attitude towards the customer and the sample responses from the four universities. The results indicate that Westcounty, being the institution which did not have any training, had the highest percentage of 66% of its respondents who fell in the non-positive category. Newcity had 54% of its respondents who revealed a non-positive attitude towards the customer, while both Southtown and Northtown had a percentage of 52% of their respondents who felt non-positive towards the customer.

Table 10

University	Respondents' Attitudes towards Customer		
	Non-Positive	Positive	Row Total
Westcounty	*25%* 21 *65.6%*	*16.2%* 11 *34.4%*	32 (*21.1%*)
Southtown	*17.9%* 15 *51.7%*	*20.6%* 14 *48.3%*	29 (*19.1%*)
Northtown	*40.5%* 34 *52.3%*	*45.6%* 31 *47.7%*	65 (*42.8%*)
Newcity	*16.7%* 14 *53.8%*	*17.6%* 12 *46.2%*	26 (*17.1%*)
COLUMN TOTAL	84 (*55.3%*)	68 (*44.7%*)	152 (*100%*)

Number of missing observations = 19

The above results illustrate that the Lpccode attitude measurement tool does discriminate between institutions which had training and those that did not. It may be said that the relationship between attitude towards the customer and sample responses from the different universities appears to show that training has an impact on employee attitudes. However, it is necessary to investigate further whether the attitude outcome is only apparent as opposed to being real. Whether or not training is solely responsible for such an outcome has to be further analyzed. In order to answer this question, three control measures need to be carried out to make sure that other potential intervening variables can be identified as far as possible.

FIRST CONTROL

The first control compared lpccode, attitude towards the customer against training in customer care (please refer to tables 11-15, Appendix B). Table 11 compares attitude towards the customer against the extent employees received training in customer care. Of the 30 respondents who reported that they did not have any training, 60% have a positive attitude while 40% have a non-positive. This implies that training did not seem to make a difference on attitude. Of those who revealed a non-positive attitude towards the customer, a higher percentage of 85.5% said that they received training. On the other hand, a lower 73.5% of respondents who showed a positive attitude reported that they received training. This outcome also indicated that training did not seem to have a positive influence on attitudes.

Table 12 looked at attitude towards the customer against the time employees had undergone training. Of the 84 respondents who had a non-positive attitude towards the customer, 64.3% had training in less than 1 year while 26.2% said they never had training. On the other hand, responses given by those who have a positive attitude towards the customer showed that 63.2% reported to have undergone training in less than a year ago and 30.9% claimed to not having any training at all. These figures showed that attitude towards the customer did not seem to be affected by the time training was carried out and whether training was administered at all. This was so because a higher proportion of respondents in the non-positive category said they had training in less than one year when compared to those in the positive category.

Table 13 examined attitude towards the customer against the usefulness of training in helping respondents in their job. Of 96 respondents who said that training was useful, 56.3% had a non-positive attitude towards the customer while 43.7% were positive. In addition, 32.5% of those in the non-positive category said either training was not useful or that they did not have any training. Ironically, a higher percentage of 37.3% of respondents with a positive attitude said that training was not useful or that they received no training at all. The data indicated that the usefulness of training did not help in shaping employee attitudes in a positive way.

Table 14 looked at whether the employee felt that training had improved the way he or she dealt with his or her customer against the employee's attitude towards the customer. Of the 47 who agreed that training had improved the way they dealt with customers, 63.8% revealed a non-positive towards the customer, while only 36.2% showed a positive attitude. Paradoxically again, a lower proportion of 47.4% of the non-positive respondents said that training did not improve the way they dealt with customers; a higher percentage of 50% of the positive respondents said that training did not help improve the way they dealt with customers. It may be inferred that the impact of training on employee behaviour did not seem to change the employee's attitude.

Table 14

Respondents' Attitude towards Customer	Whether Customer Care Training Improved the Way Respondents Deal with Customers		
	YES	NO	Row Total
Non-positive attitude	*63.8%* 30 *52.6%*	*61.4%* 27 *47.4%*	57 (*62.6%*)
Positive attitude	*36.2%* 17 *50%*	*38.6%* 17 *50%*	34 (*37.4%*)
COLUMN TOTAL	47 (*51.6%*)	44 (*48.4%*)	91 (*100%*)

Number of missing observations = 80

The last Table 15 compared attitude towards the customer against how the employee felt about whether training helped improved the way his or her colleagues in general dealt with customers. Of the respondents who felt that training had a favourable impact on staff behaviour, 64.4% had a non-positive attitude while 35.6% had a positive attitude. Confirming this is the higher proportion of 52.9% of the positive oriented respondents who disagreed that training helped improved behaviour of staff in general; of the non-positive category, a lower 32.6% disagreed that training improved the way staff in general dealt with customers. The result of this crosstabulation indicated that those respondents who perceived that training helped to improve their colleagues' behaviour did not themselves reveal a positive attitude towards the customer. The previous cross-tabulation in Table 14 indicated that even when respondents claimed that training did improve their own behaviour, their own attitude towards the customer were still non-positive. Therefore, it is not surprising that respondents who thought that training was helpful for others did not themselves seem to possess a positive attitude towards the customer.

Conclusion : First Control

The key conclusion to be made from the results of this set of tables is that training did not influence employee attitude towards the customer. The training questions were whether employees had training or not, when training was administered, and usefulness of training in terms of helping employees in their job, dealing with customers, and improving the way staff in general dealt with customers. All the cross-tabulations which compared the customer care training responses against attitude towards the customer indicated that training in customer care did not influence attitude towards the customer in a favourable way.

SECOND CONTROL

The second control compared attitude towards the customer against all the potential intervening variables identified earlier. The purpose was to check whether these other possible intervening variables played an important role in influencing attitude.

A. **Organizational experience - perception on salient organizational dimensions**

For the analysis of attitude towards the customer against the employees' experience on different aspects of the organization, the comparison done against each of the seven individual salient organizational dimensions. Tables

16–22 provide the data for the set of crosstabulations.

1.1 Organizational communication (Table 16)

Table 16 crosstabulated attitude towards the customer against organizational communication. The data indicated that those respondents who rated communication as unfavourable had a higher proportion of 58.9% who had a non–positive attitude towards the customer. On the other hand, those who felt that communication was a strength had a positive attitude towards the customer. This was indicated by a lower percentage of 48.1% of those who felt positive about communication showed a non–positive attitude towards the customer. The data suggested that how respondents perceived organizational communication had a marginal impact on attitude towards the customer.

1.2 Leadership skills (Table 17)

Table 17 compared attitude towards the customer against leadership skills. The percentages showed that 57.7% of the respondents who rated leadership negatively had a non–positive attitude towards the customer. A slightly lower proportion of 52.9% of respondent who felt that leadership was an organizational strength fell into the non–positive category. It may be inferred that perceived leadership skills hardly had any impact on attitude towards customers.

1.3 Training and development (Table 18)

Training and development in general did not have an impact on the attitude towards customers. Of the respondents who thought that training and development was a weakness, 53.6% fell into the non-positive category. The proportion of those who felt that training and development was a strength and who showed a non-positive attitude towards the customer was 53.9%. This implies that how respondents felt about training and development did not have an effect on their attitude towards the customer.

Table 18

Respondents' Perception on Training and Development	**Respondents' Attitude towards Customer**		
	Non-Positive Attitude	**Positive Attitude**	**Row Total**
Weakness	*47.4%* 37 *53.6%*	*47.8%* 32 *46.4%*	69 (*47.6%*)
Strength	*52.6%* 41 *53.9%*	*52.2%* 35 *46.1%*	76 (*52.4%*)
COLUMN TOTAL	78 (*53.8%*)	67 (*46.2%*)	145 (*100%*)

Number of missing observations = 23

1.4 Clear work procedures (Table 19)

The figures indicated that a higher proportion of 58% of respondents who viewed work procedures unfavourably had a non-positive attitude. A lower percentage of 52% of those who felt satisfied with work procedures showed a non-positive attitude towards the customer.

It may be inferred that the way employees viewed work procedures in their organization had an insignificant impact on their attitude towards the customer.

1.5 Quality of senior management (Table 20)

The same trend was depicted from this crosstabulation; 57.8% of respondents who felt negatively towards the quality of senior management also seemed to possess a non-positive attitude towards the customer. On the other hand, 51.2% of those who thought that the quality of senior management was good showed a non-positive attitude towards the customer. The figures indicated that the perceived quality of senior management played a negligible role in influencing attitudes towards customers.

1.6 Fair pay scheme (Table 21)

The data indicated that the pay scheme seemed to have the opposite effect on employee attitudes. A higher proportion of 58.7% of respondents who were satisfied with the pay scheme fell into the non-positive category. On the other hand, a lower percentage of 50% of those who were discontented with pay scheme showed a non-positive attitude towards the customer. The figures do point to a reverse direction in this case, those who felt happy with the pay scheme displayed a non-positive attitude while those who felt unhappy with the pay scheme were more positive towards customers.

1.7 Promotion system (Table 22)

The results of this comparison were consistent to that of the previous table 21. Apparently, a higher proportion of 61.0% of respondents who felt happy with the promotion system held a non-positive attitude towards the customer. A smaller proportion of 49.4% of respondents who felt that the promotion system was unsatisfactory showed a non-positive attitude towards the customer. This implies that those respondents who felt negatively towards the promotion system were more positive towards the customer, while those who felt positive about promotion were less customer oriented.

Comments

The above tables compared attitude towards the customer against the employees' perception on different aspects of their organization. The employees' perception on communication was the only variable which had marginal influence on attitude towards customers. Interestingly, perception on pay scheme and promotion system depicted a reverse relationship with attitude towards customers. Respondents who perceived pay scheme and promotion system as organizational strengths were more non-positive attitude towards customers, and vice-versa. Training and development was the only variable that did not make any difference to respondents. In other words, how respondents felt about training and development did not influence attitude towards the customer either way.

B. Supervisor behaviour (Table 23)

Respondents who perceived supervisor behaviour as people oriented had a percentage 54% who fell into the non-positive category. On the other hand, 58.2% of those who perceived supervisor behaviour as task oriented were classified as non-positive.

Comments

Even though respondents who viewed their supervisors as task oriented were less customer oriented since a larger proportion of these respondents were in the non-positive category, the difference was only marginal. Therefore, it may be inferred that supervisor behaviour hardly had any influence on employee attitude.

C. General training experience (Tables 24-28)

The experience of training in general may be a potential influential factor in affecting attitudes. The first crosstabulation, Table 24, looked at attitude against the respondent's perception on the university's commitment to staff training and development. Of the 118 respondents who agreed that the university was committed; 43.2% fell into the positive category, while 56.8% revealed a non-positive attitude. 50% of respondents who said "no" showed a non-positive attitude while the other 50% were positively oriented towards customers. The results indicated that whether employees' perceived the university as being committed to staff training and development or not did not influence their attitude towards the customer.

Table 25 compared attitude against the time training was administered. For the 90 respondents who had undergone training within one year, 56.7% fell into the non-positive category while the remaining 43.3% showed a positive attitude. Those who had training between one and two years ago also had a slightly greater proportion of 51.7% in the non-positive category and 48.3% in the positive side. Finally, among those who said that they never had training at all, 53.1% revealed a non-positive attitude while 46.9% showed a positive attitude. It may be inferred that the timing of training did not have any impact on attitudes. Respondents revealed a more non-positive attitude towards the customer regardless of whether they went through training or not.

The respondent's judgement on whether training was useful in expanding the respondent's work role was examined against attitude in Table 26. Even though the majority of 88.1% felt that training was useful in one way or another, 56.7% who felt this way had a non-positive attitude. A lower 43.3% revealed a positive attitude. Interestingly, of the 14 respondents who thought that training was a waste of time, 57.1% were more customer oriented, while 42.9% were less customer oriented. The data indicated that training may have a detrimental effect on attitudes because those who felt that training was useful were more negative towards the customer, and vice-versa. In addition, those who thought that training was a waste of time were more customer oriented.

Table 26

Respondents' Attitude towards Customer	Usefulness of Training		
	Useful	Waste of Time	Row Total
Non-positive attitude	*56.7%* 59 *90.8%*	*42.9%* 6 *9.2%*	65 (*55.1%*)
Positive attitude	*43.3%* 45 *84.9%*	*57.1%* 8 *15.1%*	53 (*44.9%*)
COLUMN TOTAL	104 (*88.1%*)	14 (*11.9%*)	118 (*100%*)

Number of missing observations = 53

The respondent's perception on whether the university made proper use of skills acquired was crosstabulated against attitude in Table 27. Of the 85 total respondents in this sample, 54.1% said "yes" while 45.9% said "no." Among those who agreed, 54.3% showed a non-positive attitude while 45.7% revealed a positive attitude. Looking at the data from a different angle, 45.7% of the non-positive respondents thought that the university did not make proper use of skills acquired, while 46.2% of the positive respondents felt the same way. A higher proportion of the customer oriented respondents thought that the university did not make proper use of training skills, while a lower proportion of the less customer oriented respondents felt the same way. Again, the data depict consistency with the results of the previous comparisons.

The last comparison in this set of tables examined attitude against respondent's judgement on whether training and development helped expand skills. The figures in Table 28 showed that 55.6% of those who agreed that training did help expand their skills fell into the non-positive category. Whereas a lower 44.4% of those who agreed to the statement fell into the positive category. This implied that how respondents felt about the usefulness of training in terms of personal development did not affect their attitude towards customers.

Comments

The five tables compared attitude against training experience within the organization. The results indicated that perception of training experience as an independent variable, did not have a positive impact on attitudes. Despite testimony from employees that they felt the university was committed to staff training and development, and that proper use of training skills were being made, it did not seem that attitude towards the customer altered accordingly. Even when employees felt that training helped expand their skills and developed their work role, attitudes did not seem to be affected in a positive way.

B. **Biographical Factors**

a. age (Table 29)

Of the 11 respondents who were under 25, 54.5% fell in the non-positive category while 45.5% showed a positive attitude. Of the 88 respondents who were in the 25–45 age group, 63.6% revealed a non–positive attitude while 36.4% showed a positive attitude. Only the 46–65 age group employees had a greater proportion of 57.7% in the positive category, and 42.3% in the non–positive category. It may be said that those who were in the oldest age group were more customer oriented.

b. sex (Table 30)

The women were less customer oriented with 58.6% in the non–positive category and 41.4% in the positive category. For the male respondents, 50% showed a positive and the other 50% in the non–positive category. Inference from the data indicated that women tended to be less customer oriented compared to men, but the difference was marginal.

c. length of time with organization (Table 31)

Among those who have served the organization for 5 years at the most, 58.5% showed a non–positive attitude while 41.5% were in the positive category. Those who have served the organization between 6–15 were also less customer oriented; 54.9% of employees in this age group fell into the non–positive category while 45.1% fell into the positive category. The same was true for those who had been in service for 16 years or longer; 51.4% were non–positive while 48.6% were positive. Time factor did not have a strong impact on employee attitude even though there was a trend towards becoming more positive as time goes on. The proportion of employees in the non–positive category became smaller as length of service increased.

d. education level (Table 32)

Of the degree holders; 55.6% fell into the non–positive category while the remaining 44.4% showed a positive attitude. Among the non–degree holders, 54.9% were in the non–positive category and 45.1% were positive. This indicated that degree holders were more non–positive when compared to non–degree holders.

Comments

Compared to the other two age groups, the middle group of 25–45 years was significantly least customer oriented. Women were marginally less customer oriented than men, who were indifferent in their attitude towards the customer. Length of service with the organization was directly related to attitude towards the customer, even though the scale difference from one time span to another was almost insignificant. Finally, level of education had no significant impact on employee attitude.

C. Value orientation

a. most important value orientation (Table 33)

The most important value orientation each respondent has could influence attitude towards customers. The need to achieve was selected as the most important reason for choosing the present job, 64.4% of respondents fell into this category. Of those who chose achievement as their first priority, 56.3% were non–positive and 43.7% were positive. The next most frequently chosen value orientation was the need to control with 12.1% of respondents choosing this as the their first priority. Surprisingly, of the respondents who chose control as their most important value orientation, 61.1% were positive and 38.9% were non-positive. A small percentage of 4.7% of respondents selected affiliation as the most important value orientation. Ironically, 71.4% of these respondents were non-positive. This result was unexpected as it indicated that personal value orientation did not have an impact on attitude.

b. second most important value orientation (Table 34)

The majority of 31.7% chose control as the second most important reason for choosing their present job. Of these respondents, 66.7% showed a non-positive attitude while 33.3% were positive. Recognition was the next popular reason with 23.2% of respondents selecting recognition as their second most important value. The data showed that the same trend; that of these respondents, 57.6% were non-positive while 42.4% were positive. 12% of respondents selected affiliation as their second most important reason for choosing the job. Among these respondents, 64.7% were positive while 35.3% were non-positive. It may be inferred that respondents who chose control or recognition as the second most important reason for staying in the present job were less customer oriented. On the other hand, those who felt that the need for affiliation was a more important reason were also more customer oriented.

Comments

Comparing the results of the two tables, it becomes difficult to conclude whether value orientation did affect attitude. The data was too sporadic and conflicting that it may be said that the results are inconclusive.

Conclusion - Second control

The data from all the crosstabulations explored the degree of influence from intervening variables namely organizational experience, the employee's value orientation and biographical factors on employee attitude towards the customer. Communication was the only organizational dimension which had impact on attitude towards the customer, but less significantly. Training and development did not have any impact on attitude either way. Interestingly, both pay scheme and promotion system showed a reverse relationship with attitude towards the customer, but promotion system had a stronger inverse relationship with attitude towards the customer.

Perception on supervisor behaviour on whether employees felt that their supervisor was more task or people oriented did not have a great impact on employee attitude. It may be said that general training experience affected attitude towards the customer in a negative way. The trend depicted by the data showed a reverse relationship between training and attitude. Respondents who recently had training and those who felt that training was useful were less customer oriented than those who answered otherwise. The inference which may be made is that training had almost an unfavourable impact on employee attitude, otherwise training had no effect at all.

Age and sex were the two biographical factors which had a marginal influence on employee attitude. In particular, the middle age group of 25–45 years were the least customer oriented. There was also less significant difference between the attitude of men and women. Length of service in the organization also did not really have a great impact on attitude even though a direct relationship existed between attitude and time factor. Finally, education level did not have any significant impact on employee attitude. The same has to be concluded about value orientation of employees.

In conclusion it may be inferred that communication and the respondent's sex had a marginal impact on attitude. In addition, the middle age group of 25–45 years, was the only intervening variable which had a significantly negative attitude toward customers. Other intervening variables did not play a significant role in influencing attitude towards the customer.

THIRD CONTROL

The third control measure attempted to look at whether the experience of working at one particular university acted as a key factor in influencing attitudes. In order to do this, the sample responses from the four universities were compared against all the potential intervening variables. In addition, the need to investigate not only training versus non–training, but also any non–training factors which may exist at Westcounty university in particular (being the institution without training) is important in order to make any inference that other non–training factors influenced employee attitude. The experience of "being there" attempted to capture the social context within which employees at the different organizations perform their work, and may be viewed as the organization's culture. An employee's total organizational experience can be said to be the context within which interaction of all the organizational dimensions occur. The interaction of these organizational dimensions such as communication, procedures, leadership, and the like provide a different experience for an employee. Each university is a different experience because the social context is different, even though organizational dimensions may be the same. An employee can work at these four different universities and yet obtain a different experience each time. The context within which organizational variables interact with each other provide a different meaning to the people involved. The impact of this total experience on the employee's attitude therefore needs to be considered. The following crosstabulations explored sample responses from the four universities in relation to the potential intervening variables.

A. **Experience of different aspects of the organization**

1.1 Organizational communication (table 35)

Responses from the four universities were compared against the respondent's perception of organizational communication. Westcounty had 79.4% of its respondents who rated organizational communication as weak. The next largest negative response was from Southtown with 63.3%, followed by Newcity with 59.3% and finally Northtown with 51.9%. Employees at Westcounty were the most dissatisfied with the communication system even though all responses from the other universities also indicated that communication was generally poor.

1.2 Leadership skills (table 36)

In looking at leadership skills, Westcounty university came out most

1.3 Training and development (table 37)

Table 37

University	**Respondents' Perception on Training and Development**		
	Weakness	**Strength**	**Row Total**
Westcounty	*18.4%* 14 *45.2%*	*19.5%* 17 *54.8%*	31 (*19%*)
Southtown	*28.9%* 22 *75.9%*	*8%* 7 *24.1%*	29 (*17.8%*)
Northtown	*39.5%* 30 *39.5%*	*52.9%* 46 *60.5%*	76 (*46.6%*)
Newcity	*13.2%* 10 *37%*	*19.5%* 17 *63%*	27 (*16.6%*)
COLUMN TOTAL	76 (*46.6%*)	87 (*53.4%*)	163 (*100%*)

Number of missing observations = 8

Of all the four universities, Southtown had the highest percentage of 75.9% of its employees who felt that training and development was an organizational weakness. This was followed by the responses from Westcounty with 45.2%, then Southtown university 39.5% and finally Newcity with 37.0%. Training and development was rated as unfavourable by a majority of respondents from Southtown. On the other hand, training and development was viewed as less unfavourable negative with 70% of its respondents who rated leadership skills as unfavourable. Southtown university respondents also felt unfavourably towards leadership skills with a 56.7% negative response. Newcity had 51.9% of its respondents who felt dissatisfied with leadership and rated it as a weakness. However, Northtown university had the lowest percentage of 40.3% of its employees who were discontented with leadership skills. Apart from Northtown university which had a higher proportion of its employees who rated leadership skills as a strength, employees at all the other three universities were generally unhappy about leadership skills.

for the others since a higher proportion of employees for the remaining three universities viewed training and development as a strength.

1.4 Clear work procedures (table 38)

For this organizational dimension, Westcounty again had a slight majority of 54.8% of its employees who felt that work procedures were unsatisfactory. Northtown university employees had exactly 50.0% of its employees who thought the work procedures were unfavourable. However, Southtown and Newcity had a lower proportion of 35.7% and 46.2% respectively, employees who felt that work procedures were unsatisfactory. The figures indicated that employees at Westcounty had the highest percentage of its employees compared to the other three institutions who felt negative towards work procedures.

1.5 Quality of senior management (table 39)

All three universities, apart from Westcounty, had a lower percentage of employees who rated quality of senior management as weak; Southtown had 37.9%, Newcity had 37.0%, and Northtown had 33.3%. Westcounty however had a majority of 66.7% of its employees who felt negative towards quality of senior management. It was clear that employees at Westcounty were not satisfied with the way senior management was handling their job.

1.6 Fair pay scheme (table 40)

Newcity had the lowest proportion of 33.3% of its employees who perceived the pay scheme as an organizational weakness, next was Southtown with 41.4%, followed by Northtown with 51.4%, and finally Westcounty with 51.7%. Employees at Westcounty appeared to be the most discontented with the pay scheme.

1.7 Fair promotion system (table 41)

Comparing the responses from the four universities, promotion system was viewed as an organizational weakness by the majority of employees at Westcounty with 70.0%, followed by Northtown with 64.9%, Newcity with 52.0%, and finally Southtown with 40.0%. The results were consistent with those of the above crosstabulations, employees at Westcounty university were the most dissatisfied.

Comments

The trend depicted by the data from tables 35–41 showed that responses from Westcounty university were the most unfavourable. In addition, training and development had been singled out as one organizational dimension which did not have a great impact on employee perception at Westcounty. It may be inferred that even although Westcounty was the one institution without training in customer care, employees did not seem to be overly concerned about it. What was more important to employees appeared to be the day–to–day activities of work which directly affected employees on a continuous basis. The fact that Westcounty did not have any training in customer care did not upset its employees to the extent that the majority felt that training and development was unfavourable. The implication that may be drawn was that only three organizational dimensions, namely communication, leadership skills, and quality of senior management had a significant impact on employee perception. Work procedures, pay scheme, and the promotion system had insignificant influence on employee perception.

B. supervisor behaviour (table 42)

Compared to the three other universities, a greater percentage of employees at Westcounty asserted that supervisor behaviour as being more task oriented. The data showed that 57.6% of employee at Westcounty felt that supervisor behaviour was more task oriented, 27.6% of employees at Southtown thought so, followed by 25.9% of people at Newcity, and finally 19.4% of Northtown employees felt the same way.

Comments

The majority of employees at Westcounty viewed their supervisor behaviour as being task oriented. This was in contrast with the perception of employees from the three other universities who thought that supervisor behaviour was more people oriented.

C. general training experience (tables 43–47)

Table 43 compared responses from the four institutions against employee perception on university commitment to staff training and development. Westcounty university had the highest proportion of 36.4% of its employees who felt that the university was not committed. This was followed by

Southtown with 33.3%, then Northtown with 16.5% and finally Newcity with 11.1%. It was of no surprise that a greater number of employees at Westcounty felt that their organization was not committed to staff training and development since Westcounty did not conduct any training in customer care.

Table 44 looked at university responses against the time employees last underwent training. As expected, Westcounty had the lowest percentage of 47.1% of employees who had training within the previous year. Southtown university had a greater proportion of 55.2%, followed by Northtown with 58.8% and finally 74.1% from Newcity. In addition, employees at Westcounty had the greatest response of 29.4% who reported that they had training between 1–2 years ago. Finally, employees at Southtown had the largest proportion of 41.4% who reported no training. The reason employees at Westcounty felt that university was not committed to staff training and development may be due to the fact that a minority of employees had undergone training within the previous year.

Table 45 explored university responses against the usefulness of training in helping respondent's work role. Of those Newcity had the smallest proportion of 7.7% of employees who felt that training was a waste of time. Southtown had 11.8% of employees who felt the same way. The next greater proportion of responses in this category came from Northtown with 12.7%. Finally, Westcounty had the largest percentage of 16% of its employees who thought training was not useful.

Table 46 examined university responses against employee perception on whether the university made proper use of training skills. Again, Westcounty university had the highest proportion of 70% of its sample who said "no." The next largest group was from Northtown university with 44.4%. This was followed by Southtown with 43.8%, and finally the smallest proportion of 26.7% was from Newcity.

Table 46

University	Whether the University Makes Proper Use of Skills Acquired		
	YES	**NO**	**Row Total**
Westcounty	*11.8%* 6 *30%*	*31.1%* 14 *70%*	20 (*20.8%*)
Southtown	*17.6%* 9 *56.3%*	*15.6%* 7 *43.8%*	16 (*16.7%*)
Northtown	*49%* 25 *55.6%*	*44.4%* 20 *44.4%*	45 (*46.9%*)
Newcity	*21.6%* 11 *73.3%*	*8.9%* 4 *26.7%*	15 (*15.6%*)
COLUMN TOTAL	51 (*53.1%*}	45 (*46.9%*)	96 (*100%*)

Number of missing observations = 75

The results of tables 45 and 46 need to read together because the data implied that there is a relationship between the two outcomes. The figures indicated that Westcounty had the highest percentage of responses in the "waste of time" category. It may be argued that this was so because the majority of employees felt that the university did not make proper use of training skills and therefore training was a waste of time. The reason for such a response may be that the training content itself may be irrelevant to the task, too theoretical, or that employees never had the opportunity to apply the new skills learned. One example quoted by a respondent was that she could not apply the computer skills acquired because the department did not have a machine.

Table 47 crosstabulated university responses against employee perception on whether training helped expand employees skills. Northtown university had the highest proportion of 93.6% of respondents who reported that training was useful, followed by Newcity with 81.5%, then Westcounty with 75.9% and finally Southtown with 66.7%. The results of this comparison showed that employees at Westcounty felt that training helped expand employees' skills.

Comments

In analysing the perception of training experience (tables 43–47) against sample responses from universities, it may be inferred that Westcounty emerged as the most negative institution that received the most unfavourable rating when compared to the other three universities. Despite this (with reference to table 37) a percentage of 45.2% of employees at Westcounty felt that overall training and development was unsatisfactory. Therefore it may be inferred that training and development did not make such a great impact on employee perception. Employees at Westcounty were more concerned with the other organizational dimensions which had a more direct impact on employee perception towards the organization. In addition, it may be said that this result reflected on the management of Westcounty itself in that being an organization which is negative, employee training and development may be less a priority. It was not whether training and development was useful or not, but rather the attitude of management in initiating a programme which seemed to matter to employees.

B. **Biographical factors**

a. age (table 48)

Table 48

University	**Age of Respondent**			
	< 25 yrs	**25-45 yrs**	**45-65 yrs**	**Row Total**
Westcounty	*33.3%* 5 *14.7%*	*14.9%* 15 *44.1%*	*25.5%* 14 *41.2%*	34 (*19.9%*)
Southtown	*13.3%* 2 *6.7%*	*12.7%* 21 *70%*	*12.7%* 7 *23.3%*	30 (*17.5%*)
Northtown	*46.7%* 7 *8.8%*	*47.5%* 48 *60%*	*45.5%* 25 *31.2%*	80 (*46.8%*)
Newcity	*6.7%* 1 *3.7%*	*16.8%* 17 *63%*	*16.4%* 9 *33.3%*	27 (*15.8%*)
COLUMN TOTAL	15 (*8.8%*)	101 (*59.1%*)	55 (*32.1%*)	171 (*100%*)

Number of missing observations = 0

The age distribution for employees at Westcounty was 14.7% in the under 25 group, 44.1% between 25–45 years, and 41.2% in the 46–65 age group. Southtown respondents consisted of 6.7% in the under 25 age group, 70% in the 25–45 age group, and 23.3% in the oldest age group of 46–65 years. Sample from Northtown were made up of 8.8% in the youngest group of under 25, 60% in the 25–45 years, and 31.2% in the 46–65 age group. Finally, the age composition of the Newcity sample are 3.7% in the under 25, 63% in the 25–45 and 33.3% in the 46–65.

From the above data, it may be said that all the four other sample groups had the majority of its members in the 25–45 age group. However, in comparing the percentages, Westcounty university has an interesting age distribution profile because it had the highest proportion in the under 25 and the 46–65 age group, and the lowest proportion in the 25–45 age range. The other three universities had the same age profile in that the highest percentage were in the 25–45 group, followed by the 46–65 group, and finally the under 25.

b. sex (table 49)

Westcounty had the highest proportion of 82.4% women employees, followed by Southtown with 65.5%, Northtown with 63.8% and Newcity with 51.9%. All the four universities had a majority of women in the sample group but Westcounty had the largest.

c. education level (table 50)

Education levels of the sample group of the four organizations did not indicate any particular trend. Degree holders were in the minority for all the four sample groups. In comparing the percentages, Northtown had the largest proportion of 47.4% of degree holders, followed by Newcity with 40.7%, then Southtown with 37.0%, and finally Westcounty with 37.5%.

d. length of time with organization (table 51)

For all the four universities, the time frame profile looked the same, the majority of employees fell in the 0–5 years category, followed by the 6–15 years time frame and the minority in the 16 and over time frame. In comparing the proportion of employee in each organization in the different time factors, Westcounty showed an interesting trend. Westcounty had the highest percentage of 50.0% of its respondents in the shortest time period of 0–5 years. Interestingly Westcounty also had the lowest proportion of 17.6% in the 16 and over time frame. These percentages were consistent with the figures on age profile whereby Westcounty had the highest proportion in the under 25 age group. However, the 17.6% in the over 16 years time frame did not tally with the 41.2% in the 46–65 age group. Presumably, even though Westcounty has the largest proportion of 46–65 age group employees, many must have worked with the organization for less than 16 years. In other words, the staff turnover rate at Westcounty may be quite high because Westcounty had the smallest proportion of employees in the 16 and over time frame. The implication may also be that the top management of Westcounty may be in the 46–65 age group, but who have only recently joined the university for the past five years or so. This may explain the high level of dissatisfaction with the quality of senior management amongst Westcounty employees.

Comments

In looking at biographical factors, Westcounty had a unique age and time frame profile. Comparison of sample responses showed that employees at Westcounty had the lowest percentage in the 25–45 age group. In addition, Westcounty had the highest proportion of employees who have served five years or less, and the lowest proportion who have worked for 16 and over. It may be inferred that the time frame profile may have had a significant impact on the Westcounty sample responses.

C. **Value Orientation**

a. Most important value orientation (Table 52)

Table 52 compared sample responses against the employees most important value orientation for choosing the present job. The percentages showed that for all four organizations, achievement was a first motivation in determining the choice of the present job. Northtown had the highest percentage of 68.4%, followed by Westcounty with 66.7%, then Southtown with 65.5%, and finally Newcity with 51.9%. No particularly interesting trend existed in this comparison.

b. Second most important value orientation (Table 53)

Table 53 looked at sample responses against the employee's second most important value orientation for choosing the present job. With the exception of Southtown, respondents from all the three other universities chose control as the second most important value criteria. Comparing figures in this category, Newcity had 36.0% of its respondents who chose control as their second most important reason, this was followed by Northtown with 35.1%, then Westcounty with 30.3%, and finally Southtown with 21.4%. Again, no interesting pattern was depicted from the outcome of the data in this crosstabulation.

Comments

Sample responses from the different universities did not show any significant result that was unique to any of the universities. For all sample responses, achievement was chosen as the first choice value while control was selected as the second most important value orientation.

Conclusion - Third Control

Comparison of sample responses between the four universities indicated that Westcounty university employees viewed their organization in the most unfavourable light. In looking at the salient organizational dimensions, with the exception of training and development, employees at Westcounty felt that all the variables were organizational weaknesses. Of the seven salient variables, communication, leadership skills, and quality of senior management received the most negative response from

Westcounty employees. However, apart from communication, the two other intervening variables have to be ruled out as influential factors in influencing attitude since the second control measure discovered that leadership skills and quality of senior management had an insignificant impact on attitude. The implication is that leadership skills and quality of senior management, did not play a significant role in influencing attitudes, and the likelihood is that the "being there" factor was the variable responsible for the negative attitude.

Moving on to supervisor behaviour, employees at Westcounty perceived their supervisors as being more task oriented. Despite this, it cannot be said that this perception attributed to the negative attitude towards customers because perceived supervisor behaviour did not act as an influential factor in affecting attitudes as measured in the second control. Again, the inference that may be made is that the "being there" factor was the intervening variable which attributed to such a non–positive outcome.

General training experience was negligible in so far as Westcounty employees were concerned. It may be inferred that they felt indifferent towards the whole issue of training. This was consistent with the outcome measured in the second control. The implication again points towards the "being that" factor.

Sex of respondent was the only biographical factor which did play a marginal role in affecting sample responses from Westcounty. Even though Westcounty had the highest proportion of women in its sample, this marginally influenced responses because women did not show a much difference in attitude towards customers when compared to the men. The Westcounty group had a significantly lower percentage of employees in the 25–45 age group which was the most critical and non–positive towards customers. Therefore it may be inferred that this age factor did not influence the non–positive sample responses at Westcounty, but rather the "being there" factor played a significant role. The lower percentage of degree holders parallels the fact that Westcounty had the highest majority of women in its sample. However, education level did not make any difference to attitude towards customers. Length of time in service may have had some degree of influence on the Westcounty sample responses. Since length of time correlated positively with attitude, the time frame profile at Westcounty may influence attitudes. The fact that the majority of Westcounty respondents have served for five years or less, and that the minority have worked for 16 years or more indicated that the negative responses were influenced to a certain degree by this time factor. Finally, value orientation of employees did not make any impact on the four different sample responses.

In conclusion, it may be said that the intervening variables which made a marginal influence on the sample responses were communication, sex and possibly the length of service in the organization. It must be stressed here that training and development was not significant in either way. The key intervening variable which was most potent may be inferred to be the "being there" factor.

Discussion

Part I explored the methodology hypothesis which stated that instrument design influences responses. The data confirms the methodology hypothesis. Highly leading questions dictate expected responses, while highly misleading questions influence responses in the opposite way. Either approach provides an indiscriminate measure of attitudes. Since the first question is a measurement issue concerned with how to measure attitudes, it may be said that unobtrusive measures are the most reliable in tapping attitudes.

Related to the methodology hypothesis of measurement is the question of how to measure other intervening "cultural" variables which may influence attitudes. Part II explored the key hypothesis, the impact of training on employee attitude, the findings showed evidence that training did not have any impact on employee attitudes. The results showed that communication, sex of respondent and possibly length of time played a marginal role in influencing attitudes. Even though these three intervening variables attributed marginally to the negative attitude of employees at Westcounty, the data indicated that the "being there" factor was the most potent variable in influencing attitudes. Since other intervening variables were insignificant in influencing attitudes, the conclusion that has to be made is that the experience of being at Westcounty was the most important factor in influencing attitudes. The results implied that there is strong indication that the "being there" factor does capture something different in the social and management context within the working environment of Westcounty.

This result answers the question of how to measure intervening variables which suggests that it parallels the root metaphor concept of organizational culture. The data implied that looking at discrete questions does not help in measuring the culture concept. No doubt the need to be subtle and unobtrusive is the key in trying to measure these intervening variables, but formulating separate questions on organizational dimensions which affect the total working experience fails to capture the totality of the culture concept. The organizational context within which the interaction of organizational dimensions take place cannot be measured through discrete questions. Even though the results of this study cannot falsify the claims made by the "culture as a variable" view, a question raised in this study is the usefulness of using discrete questions to measure the culture concept. It may be inferred that the questionnaire used in this study reinforces the conclusion that the "being there" factor is the most influential variable; this supports the view that culture *is* the organization. Such a perspective views culture and the organization as synonymous and therefore considers culture as a non-variable. The total Westcounty experience is what seems to provide a totally different meaning to employees who work there. The unfavourable and almost hostile attitude of employees who work at Westcounty may have deep underlying reasons which this study has not attempted to uncover, a follow-up study based on an anthropological approach would be necessary for any interested researcher. Since training had no impact on attitudes, this outcome again confirms the root metaphor perspective in that culture cannot be manipulated. In addition it may be inferred that training acted more like a symbol; instead of training serving as a vehicle to influence attitudes in a positive way, rather it is the organizations which were already positive that implemented training. On the other hand, the organizations which were negative tended to not bother with training. Such an interpretation gives training a symbolic significance to employees.

CHAPTER 8

Measurement of Attitudes: The Unobtrusive Approach

The analysis of the data indicated that training does not seem to have a measurable impact on employee attitudes. Within the context of the present study, a central issue that is of relevance to the findings is that of evaluation. In the process of exploring the key hypothesis, the impact of training on employee attitudes, evaluation is of critical importance. The need to evaluate the impact of training programmes becomes crucial because a significant number of universities have invested much time and money in customer care training. According to a customer care survey done on the British higher education, 60.6% of universities declared that they conducted some form of customer care training. Given such data, it may be argued that training has so far been implemented based on the generalized assumption that training has some form of beneficial impact on organizational effectiveness. Hussey (1988) argued that there exists a problem of not knowing the criteria by which programme success can be measured. He argued that this failure to demonstrate the economic value of training has resulted in training becoming an act of faith.

As stated above, the findings of the present study indicated that training does not seem to have a measurable impact on employee attitude towards customers. These findings are supported by another study conducted by Miller (1990). Miller's research looked at the impact of training on employee attitudes and behaviour in the civil service. His findings were negative and Miller drew attention to what he called "esoteric" training. He argued that while large amounts of money had been invested in such training in public and private sector organizations, the effect of training on human subjects is doubtful. Training efforts continued to increase even though the validity of attempts at evaluation were in question. One reason for this may be the difficulty in obtaining a true measure of the impact of certain types of training. For example, it would be easier to measure the impact of job skills training such as typing skills, driving skills and the like, whereas "higher cost" training like communication training, leadership training, and others are more difficult to assess due to their qualitative and complex nature. This type of training does not involve teaching subjects specific skills and the testing of a specific application of the newly acquired skill. Assessment of such training cannot be achieved through evaluating tasks using the newly acquired skill in a quantitative way. However, it cannot be concluded at this point that empirical evaluation is unable to capture "higher cost" concepts and their effects on human behaviour and attitude. To make such a decision would be premature as empirical evaluation of such training is still undeveloped. The present study argues for the possibility of measuring "higher cost" training impact through the use of a questionnaire instrument constructed on an eclectic basis.

The approach explored in the present study was the use of an unobtrusive questionnaire, and supports the view that attitudes may be measured imaginatively. It may be argued that the major problem in measuring the impact of training lies inherently in how to measure attitudes. In such an exercise, the level of intervention and level of outcome measurement cannot be separated as these two factors affect each other. In order to address this difficulty, different levels of questioning were used. The measuring instrument used in the study applied three methods for assessing attitudes, which consistently measured the different levels of intervention. Question wording actually influences responses, therefore it was extremely important to formulate questions in such a manner that the respondents were not mislead in either direction. The first approach used a conventional and leading type question whereby the wording may be said to be normative. When questions are designed in a leading manner, measurement of the impact of training becomes impossible because attitudes were not being tapped in the first place. In addition, leading questions which dictate answers produce anticipated and expected results. In such cases, measuring impact would be meaningless. Earlier it was pointed out in the chapter on data analysis that statements like, "Do you feel that the customer is important?", not only do not discriminate responses, but also bias responses in the sense that respondents answered according to what was expected of them. As it turned out, an overwhelming majority of over 90% of respondents agreed to that statement. The problem with such an approach is that it does not only discriminate between responses, but also does not measure anything. Even in the case of Westcounty, whereby employees had not undergone a customer care training programme the majority of employees still agreed to the statement. Socially desirable questions do not measure anything as participants can anticipate what is expected and respond accordingly. These questions may be classified as the "should be" values of society whereby no respondent will disagree with them.

The next level of questioning adapted an approach developed by Herzberg (Herzberg et al, 1959). The question required respondents to describe a time when they felt exceptionally satisfied with their job. The same exercise was repeated for job dissatisfaction. The aim of the question was to tap the source of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction of employees. Within the context of the present study, given that employees have undergone a customer care training programme, it would not have been surprising if employees felt that the customer was the source of job satisfaction. In fact, it would be rational to expect employees who have undergone a customer care programme to have expressed a deeper level of commitment to the customer care issue. The results instead indicated that despite customer care training, the customer was not central or important enough to the employee to affect his or her job satisfaction/ dissatisfaction. The plausible explanation for such an outcome is that when questions were designed to be non-directive; respondents were not lead into answering the question in a certain way. The Herzberg open question on customer related job satisfaction and dissatisfaction produced an insignificant percentage of respondents whose satisfaction and dissatisfaction were related to customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction. In other words, a small number of employees felt satisfied when their customers were happy, and felt dissatisfied when their customers were unhappy.

The third approach to attitude measurement was adapted from Fiedler's least preferred co-worker scale. Respondents were required to describe the least preferred customer. The aim of the question was to see whether customer care training had at least sensitized employees linguistically. Analysis of the data indicated that the Fiedler question did discriminate between responses. In particular, the sample response from Westcounty showed that 65.5% fell into the non-positive category while 34.4% in the positive category. Westcounty also had the highest proportion of its employees in the non–positive category when compared to sample responses from the other three universities. The point to be made is that for the purpose of evaluation, the Fiedler question served as a useful tool because it meaningfully discriminated between sample responses. It may be argued that the present study can legitimately infer that at the least, employees were sensitized in the way that they used positive language to describe customers. However, the reason for such an outcome is not certain because it cannot be concluded that training caused such a behaviour. It may be argued that employees who described customers in a favourable way were those who already have a positive attitude towards customers. An important point that has to be made is that a behavioural change, in this particular case language use, may not necessarily mean that a change in attitude has taken place. It is very likely that employees are sensitized linguistically without any shift in attitudes. It may be concluded that employees who used positive language to describe customers may either fall into the category of those who already possess a positive attitude towards customers, or those who have been sensitized linguistically without change in attitude. However, there is also a possibility that the long–term effect of using favourable language may eventually alter attitudes accordingly. Whatever the real outcome may be, it has to be stressed again that it can be legitimately inferred that the Fiedler question was useful in that it showed that training may have had a minimum impact on employees at the level of language use. The use of polite language therefore possibly means that training, at the least, did sensitize these employees linguistically.

Given these findings, the practical implications would be that management has to decide what level of intervention they would like to achieve and how to measure it.

The Herzberg question measured a more fundamental level, that of attitudes. Only a minority of respondents genuinely and fundamentally had a positive attitude towards customers. Whereas the Fiedler question did not measure attitudinal changes, but rather behavioural changes specifically that of communication and language use. The key point to be put across is that the targeted level of intervention needs to be considered consistently during, not only the questionnaire construction stage, but also when deciding on the contents of training programmes. In other words, in conducting training programmes, management needs to take into account two factors: 1. What level of intervention should training efforts be aimed at, and 2. How to evaluate the impact of that level of intervention.

Returning to the previous point that training possibly could have sensitized employees linguistically, the relevant question which then arises is "why has such an outcome taken place?" In other words, did training cause employees to be sensitized linguistically? As mentioned, the data analysis indicated that training did not seem to have a measurable impact on attitudes. Therefore, the next logical step was to take into account all the possible intervening factors which could have influenced attitudes. The first set of factors were biographical; sex, age, education level and length of time with organization. These had a marginal, but insignificant, impact on attitudes. The second set of factors were the employees' perception on aspects of organizational life. These factors included communication, leadership skills, training and development, work procedures, quality of senior management, fair pay scheme and promotion. After analyzing these discrete organizational dimensions separately, it was discovered that communication had a marginal, but still insignificant, impact on attitudes. It may be argued at this juncture that the procedure of elimination of these possible intervening variables logically pointed to the "being there" factor. In addition, by treating each university as a variable in itself allowed for the comparison of sample responses from the four universities. In other words, it served as a control to check whether the identified intervening variables did influence attitudes or otherwise. For example, in considering whether supervisor behaviour had an impact on attitudes, the data indicated that supervisor behaviour was insignificant. However, when the sample responses from each of the four universities were compared with each other, Westcounty revealed predominantly task oriented supervisor behaviour. Taking into account the two outcomes, the rationale and interpretation would be that since supervisor behaviour did not influence attitudes, it has to be inferred that the "being there" factor was the key intervening variable. In other words, the experience of being at Westcounty influenced employees' attitudes towards customers. Such was the process of eliminating all the possible intervening variables that it leads to the logical conclusion that the "being there" factor has to be the potent factor. The "being there" factor captures the social context within which employees perform their work. These meaningful experiences may be described as the interaction process of aspects of organizational life taking place at work. In other words, the employees' total experience of being at an organization was the key factor in influencing attitudes. It may be inferred that the approach of looking at individual aspects of organizational life in itself did not help in determining the possible influential variables. The process of evaluation therefore was one that required going beyond that of isolating specific effects of different organizational dimensions and to take into account the holistic nature of meaningful experience. In other words, these aspects of organizational experience do not exist in isolation from each other, but rather are interconnected and interact with each other as one whole. The practical implication is that in measuring the impact of intervention, an individual's meaningful experience therefore cannot be separated into individual parts such as communication, leadership and the like. As explained, sample responses from the four universities were compared against each other to see whether the possible intervening variables (biographical, training, and aspects of organizational life – communication, leadership and so on) affected attitudes, or rather the total experience of working at an organization influenced attitudes. It is through the process of eliminating these key intervening variables that captured the cultural context within which employees experience the "being there" factor. Meaning, therefore may be captured through invalidating all the key possible intervening variables. Given that the "being there" factor has been identified as the most significant intervening variable, the next concern is with the relationship between evaluation and the theoretical conceptualization of culture.

The "Root Metaphor" and "Scientific" Method

The data analysis implied a root metaphor perspective on culture, and that culture is conceptualized as meaning. The nature of the culture construct is such that it is holistic, non-linear, and complex. The root metaphor view considers the organization itself is a cultural phenomenon, and thus a non-variable which cannot be manipulated. According to the present study, culture may be viewed as socially constructed realities (Morgan, 1986) which define the context within which employees make sense of their experience. In other words, culture does not exist in some concrete set of procedures and rules. Exploring organizational culture from this root metaphor perspective implies that every aspect of organizational life is embedded with meaning. As already explained, in order to capture the culture construct, the approach to instrument design is such that meaning was tapped through the "being there" factor. Therefore the need to use an eclectic approach in constructing the present instrument was essential. The issue of measurement, and thus the process of instrument design, has to be seen as something of an art, rather than a scientific process. The present instrument, cannot therefore be viewed as part of a scientific or quantitative paradigm.

A scientific paradigm may be understood as a model, inherently derived from the physical sciences, which views reality as something that exists in a concrete and objective form. Such a view therefore adopts highly structured, linear, and quantitative techniques to analyze data. Linearity may be defined as the view that considers any phenomenon under investigation to be analyzed in a logical and ordered way in terms of specific dimensions. In addition, the assumption used is that the concept under analysis can be constructed into variables which have some form of relationship. The scientific paradigm thus emphasizes the ability to identify these underlying relationships, however complex, which can be mapped out into some form of structure. Having identified the dimensions, the research tradition is to apply quantitative analytical tools that can examine the data set. Measurement instruments used in such an approach are designed so as to treat the data set in structured and sequential form. In addition, cause-and-effect diagrams, Pareto charts, control charts, and other graphic displays of data are typically used to depict the scientific image of systematic and organized reporting.

Given the nature of the culture construct, it would be impossible and inappropriate to use such highly quantitative techniques in order to capture the construct. The concepts of reliability and validity are not applicable to this measuring instrument since these two concepts apply to a scientific paradigm in which instruments have been designed to measure quantitative concepts in a highly linear and structured fashion. The present study it must be emphasized, does not subscribe to the traditional, scientific, and quantitative approach to questionnaire design. In other words, the general rules and criteria based on a scientific paradigm cannot be used for an instrument that is meant for the analysis of nominal type data. In addition, the present study challenges the widely accepted assumption subscribed to by a majority of academics that real measurement can only be achieved through the analysis of interval type data. Given the scientific and quantitative approach, the view that is widely accepted in the academic field is that any competent research has to be characterized by interval data which relies heavily on quantitative statistical techniques, otherwise any research work which does not depict such an image or meet the "standards" cannot be considered as valid and reliable. This scientific prescriptive methodology requires the concept to be identified, defined, operationalized into specific dimensions. The concept is thereby rendered into a multi-dimensional construct. The point to be made is that the culture concept cannot be treated in this way as a linear construct. Meaning by its very nature, does not manifest itself in terms of specific dimensions. Culture, conceptualized as meaning, is holistic and non-disaggregated and cannot be viewed as a multi-dimensional construct that can be separated into different segments.

To attempt to divide the culture concept into dimensions and to attempt quantitative manipulation, does not do justice to the whole notion of culture. Firstly, being holistic in nature, such an approach could be thought to be absurd. Secondly, even if the culture concept were to be treated as being linear and multi-dimensional, the scientific paradigm does not deliver the rules, procedures and criteria required to make data analysis a valid one. To elaborate, question 1 of section B will be used as an illustration. The question requested the respondent to state the extent to which he or she disagreed or agreed on a five point scale that the statements given described the organization's customer care orientation. Customer care orientation has been identified by different statements which concern issues like definition of service quality, customer and employee expectations, willingness to learn from customers, top management participation in providing excellent service, sincerity and appropriateness of service quality, standards set to ensure high quality service, performance measures, perceptions of training programmes, and rules and procedures that facilitate good service. The summation of the individual scores, the summary statistic, depicts whether an employee had a positive or non-positive perception of his or her organization's customer care orientation. The problem arises when a decision has to be made on the range of scores which would classify a total score as either positive or non-positive. It is left to the discretion and judgement of the researcher to extrapolate and decide. To illustrate further, the scale used was numerically represented as follows: 1 strongly disagree, 2 disagree, 3 uncertain, 4 agree, and 5 strongly agree. The procedure by which the breakdown of the scores could be determined consisted of a trial and error exercise. Given the scale was from 1 to 5, and that ten different statements characterized customer care orientation, the minimum score a respondent could obtain was 10 while the maximum was 50. However, dividing the range into two distinct categories by dividing 50 by 2, so that 10–25 would be non-positive and 26–50 would be positive, depicts a skewed breakdown. This is so because a respondent who strongly disagreed to five of the statements and strongly agreed to the remaining five would have a score of 30 and would automatically fall into the positive category. In other words, the scale is such that it is easier for a respondent to fall into the positive because the numerical representations of 4 (agree) and 5 (strongly agree) carries more weight. The point that the scale is skewed may be shown by the fact that a respondent who answered uncertain to all ten statements would still score 30 points and fall into the positive category. The implication is that the 30 point mark for positive category is still too low. In order to increase the bench mark, it becomes necessary to consider different possibilities. For instance, a respondent may be uncertain towards five of the statements and agreed to the remaining five making the summary statistic 35. However, this bench mark may be rather high. Again, for instance a respondent who agreed to six of the statements and felt uncertain towards the remaining four would obtain a score of 37. This bench mark may be too high. It is through the process of trial and error, applying the data from completed questionnaires as test data, to obtain a "realistic" breakdown of scores which best reflected a positive and non-positive attitude. The problem to highlight is that there are no set rules and criteria on how to decide on key issues, such as the breakdown of scores, in order to make data more meaningful for interpretation.

Another example to illustrate the point that often the researcher has to apply his or her own judgement in making such decisions is found in an article by T. Cannie (1989), who developed a short 16-item questionnaire to assess an organization's customer care culture. The dimensions identified were as follows: a customer care orientation, management climate, cooperation/ integration, attitudes and skills, and cost prevention/results. A five point scale ranging from 1 to 5 was used. The point to note is that the author does not give an explanation as to how the breakdown of scores was derived as follows (p. 26):

68–80	Your corporate culture seems very customer oriented.
48–67	You seem personally committed to service excellence, but you need to get your systems in line.
23–47	You may need to recognize the importance of customers, but your organization doesn't seem to be acting this way.
16–22	You and your organization seem to be interested in other things instead of service excellence.

It may be argued that from the above example, it becomes obvious that the author must have used his personal judgement in making the arbitrary decision. Whether a scale system is good or bad is open to debate and is beside the point. The fundamental argument that must be recognized is that there is no logical set of rules that is independent of the researcher's judgement that can be applied to capturing a phenomenon such as that of culture. Furthermore, aggregate scores reflect meanings imposed by the researcher rather than by the respondent. The point to be made is that there is no conceivable method which explicitly states the rules of thumb in deriving bench mark scores, and that any technique will be inherently judgemental. Within a scientific paradigm, such an arbitrary method would be epistemologically unsound and invalid. Given the procedure that a researcher goes through in determining the breakdown of scores, the researcher inevitably imposes his or her own meaning as to what constitutes positive and non-positive attitude. Thus, the researcher imposes his or her meaning onto employee perception in the process of deciding whether it is favourable or otherwise. Having presented the weaknesses inherent in linearity, and the nature of the meaning construct, the need to apply an eclectic approach in questionnaire design becomes even more necessary.

The "Eclectic" Approach

An eclectic approach has been used in that different types of question design has been adopted and incorporated into the questionnaire. The shuffling of question sequence was deliberate, the apparently chaotic structure of the instrument was intended to overcome the problem of closure or of the leading response. The questions used may be classified broadly into open/non-directive and closed/ directive. The presentation of the questions varied from using grids, tables, forced choice, and open-ended format. To use the illustration of the question on attitude towards the organization, the broad concept of organization was divided into dimensions namely, communication, leadership skills, training and development, fair appraisal system, clear work procedures, sound organizational structure, quality of senior management, fair pay scheme, service quality, fringe benefits and fair promotion system. Before proceeding, a note of caution has to be made here in that the analysis of data on the employees' experience of the total organization did not use the summation of cumulative scores of the identified dimensions as rated by respondents. Instead, each organizational dimension was considered individually in the process of eliminating all the possible intervening variables which could influence attitudes. In other words, the employee's experience of leadership within the organization was crosstabulated against the employee's attitude towards the customer to see whether leadership experience had a potent impact on attitudes. The present instrument, therefore, has incorporated a multi-dimensional view of an organization, but the difference is in the way the data has been used and manipulated.

It has to be reiterated here that the findings from the data strongly imply that perceptions do not exist and occur in separate dimensions. Functioning as a check mechanism, forced choice questions on the salient organizational dimensions were formulated. These questions were supplemented with open ended questions so that the respondent would be able to express why a certain answer was chosen. In this way, the respondent's understanding on the meaning of certain organizational phenomena may be tapped. For instance, the question on communication dealt with two levels; the first was lateral or within departmental unit while the second was vertical or between the department and top management. For each question, the respondent was given the opportunity to elaborate and explain if communication was not satisfactory.

Ranking was used for the question on value orientation. The aim was to see whether an employee's value orientation, which may be defined as what the employee values most about his or her job, played an important role in influencing attitudes. The values given included pay, security, affiliation, achievement, control, and recognition. This question was non-directive in that it did not lead the respondent to rank the values in a certain way there being are no right or wrong answers. Even though the question is a forced choice in the sense that the respondent was coerced into making a decision on which was the most important to the least important value orientation, the question did not provide any clues as to how to rank order the values given. Furthermore, the respondent had no idea how the question was related to the customer care issue. If the question had been designed in such a manner that respondents could guess that affiliation should be the most important because he or she is customer oriented, then the question would have been leading.

On the issue of attitudes, measurement was done in different ways. The Herzberg open question did not provide any clues to the respondent as to the fact that the question was related to the customer care issue. It was left entirely to the respondent to state what job satisfaction/dissatisfaction meant to him or her. In addition, the location of this particular question was deliberate in that it was not placed in section B which concerned attitude towards the customer. Therefore, it may be argued that such an unobtrusive and subtle approach cannot lead the respondent to answer in a certain way. At the other extreme, question 13 in section B was designed to be leading. The literal and socially desirable manner of question wording led respondents to agree to statements which indicated a positive attitude, and to disagree to statements which indicated otherwise. Finally, the Fiedler question applied linguistics and semantics to tap employee attitudes. The respondent was given a list of attributes to describe the least preferred customer. The question gave some clues to the respondent in that he or she would be aware that the information requested was customer related. However, the way the question has been phrased was subtle and unobtrusive because the respondent cannot anticipate what kind of answers are expected. The data analysis indicated that the use of vocabulary in this manner has been useful in that it discriminated between sample responses, and made possible to establish a link between the employee's attitude towards the customer and the "being there" factor. Given the taxonomy of questions used in the present instrument, it may be argued that the essence of the eclectic approach is about how to go about exposing respondents to the customer care issue. This leads to the next point of argument which challenges the double axiom regarding the relationship between theoretical concept and method.

Theoretical Concept and Method

Historical tradition assumes that the nature of culture (an ontological issue) and how to gain knowledge about culture (an epistemological issue) are axiomatically related. In other words, the root metaphor tradition propagates an ethnography approach, while the variable perspective assumes a quantitative approach. To reiterate, chapter 2 dealt with the latter view and chapter 5 discussed the former perspective. Based on the data analysis, the present study challenges this assumption. Our argument is based on the rationale that although culture is conceptualized as meaning, capturing the culture concept may be achieved through the questionnaire instrument. As argued earlier, subtlety and obliqueness is the key to instrument design for this purpose. Our argument is that the relationship between theoretical concept and method is contingent, rather than axiomatic. The assumed relationship between theoretical concept and method may be said to have evolved as part of a historical tradition. With reference to the conceptualization of culture as meaning, an anthropological approach would be assumed to be appropriate. However, it may be argued that given the fact that an anthropological researcher would normally have little background knowledge of the social and cultural context of the people being studied, it would be necessary for the researcher to merge into the cultural context of the subjects' environment in order to make it possible to collect any data. The present study has not conducted a preliminary "thick description" study based on the grounds that the researcher has spent adequate time within the university environment, and is well aware of the issues of concern and debate, language used, and context within which cultural consonants apply.

The use of the questionnaire in this particular case does not, by default, subject it to the rules and procedures and criteria applied within the context of a scientific paradigm. As explained earlier, the issue of what fulfils a scientific mandate raises serious questions. The problem arises not only with how to define explicit rules that are epistemologically valid and sound, but also the presumptions made as to what makes a competent research work. Kuhn (1970) argued that people are socialized into an understanding of what constitutes competent research. The criteria and guidelines developed may then be said to be cultural in the understanding which they give on how to go about conducting research work. In other words, the scientific paradigm propagates a way of carrying out research that is characterized by highly structured, objective and quantitative methods. To step out of the tradition of applying a highly structured and systematic approach in questionnaire design does not, of itself, mean that an instrument is invalid and unreliable. If the nature of the study is such that it dealt with a linear construct, such as a sales trend, then it would be sensible to make a judgement that a structured approach is appropriate. Given that the present study concerns culture, a non-linear construct, the logical and practical approach to questionnaire design has to be one that is deliberately unstructured and non-systematic. Within the context of the present study, the underlying argument is that viewing culture as meaning does not necessarily mean that the "right" approach to conduct culture research is through "thick" description. Because the nature of meaning is such that it exists laterally and is holistic and complex does not rule out the possibility of using a questionnaire approach. As we have illustrated, the findings of the present study does indicate that capturing meaning is possible through the process of eliminating all the possible intervening variables. The point to be made as a result of the above argument is that the established relationship between theoretical concept and method that has been taken for granted is too rigid and inflexible. As Kuhn (1970) pointed out, paradigms train and socialize researchers to conduct research work in a prescribed manner. Thus, the existing double axiom unprofessionally reinforces research work without considering all the possibilities in terms of the appropriateness and relevance of a particular approach. To assume that a scientific approach is the only reliable and valid way and has to be applied to all research work, and vice-versa is to undermine the utility and usefulness of either approach. A reasonable statement to make is that either approach is contingently right with respect to the appropriateness and relevance of the circumstances involved.

Questionnaires and Nature of Meaning

The problem of how to expose respondents to the customer care issue revolves around the whole notion of meaning. The argument that an eclectic approach towards questionnaire design is needed because of the nature of the meaning construct leads to the next point, already discussed in chapter 6, but needing to be reiterated again, which is the issue of the imposition of meaning upon responses. It may be argued that both approaches, participant observation and the questionnaire, impose meaning onto data collected. With participant observation, the researcher's preconceived ideas and understandings of what to look for become an imposition of meaning in itself. In the case of the questionnaire, however, question design as well as the structural context of the instrument may be constructed in such a manner that is not leading. The eclectic approach adopted in the present study is such that the structural context of the questionnaire does minimise the imposition of meaning on the data collected. The imposition of meaning is intertwined with the interaction that takes place between the instrument and the respondent during the measurement process. This "measurement of interaction" may be reduced and controlled not only by the way in which a standardized questionnaire is presented to the respondent, but also through the use of language that is common to both the researcher and respondent. Thus the likelihood of misinterpretation of questions is kept to a minimum. Unlike the participant observation method, where the interaction between the researcher and the subjects occur in a randomized fashion because individuals tend to respond differently to the researcher. At the same time, it is difficult for the researcher to be completely impartial during the interaction process and may also find himself or herself responding differently to various subjects. Thus, it may be argued that in comparison with the questionnaire approach, the participant observation method has less control over the "measurement of interaction".

So far two major theoretical implications have been derived from the data analysis. First, the measurement of training impact or evaluation has to be approached in an unobtrusive and oblique way. Second, the assumed relationship between theoretical concept and method is one that may be challenged. The rationale is based on the argument that either approach, whether qualitative or quantitative, is contingent upon situational factors and circumstances, and should not be viewed as universalistic. The third theoretical implication that may be derived from the data analysis is that culture is a holistic concept. Culture is therefore a non–variable which cannot be managed.

Much evidence in the literature on culture management propagates the view that training can change an organization's culture. However, the present study's findings indicated that training did not have a significant impact on the organization's culture, but rather implied that training is expressive of the organization's culture. In other words, organizations that were perceived as being positive were those which conducted training. If the assumption that training has no measurable impact on employee attitudes is true, and that the key variable in influencing attitudes was the "being there" factor, defined as the experience of being at a particular organization, then the implication which follows is that the culture concept is holistic in nature.

In the earlier discussion on evaluation and the adoption of an eclectic approach, it was explained that through the process of elimination of all possible intervening variables that meaning was tapped through the "being there" factor. It was also argued that the "being there" factor cannot be measured in a quantitative fashion. The rationale for such an approach is based on the holistic nature of the "being there" factor. The term holistic implies that the construct does not exist in some discrete manner within the organization in order for the objective and quantitative measurement of it. In other words, it would not be possible to separate the concept into dimensions. To do so would be meaningless to the whole notion of the "being there" factor. To illustrate, an employee's experience of leadership or supervisor behaviour does not exist in isolation to other experiences within the organization. Other aspects of organizational life including that of communication, structure, appraisal system, pay scheme and the like are interrelated in such a way that is impossible to separate these experiences. Alternatively, it cannot be said that the different aspects of organizational experiences which an individual has are self-contained or compartmentalized within each aspect. There is active interaction between all these aspects of organizational life. It would be absurd and inconceivable to assume that the experience of one aspect of organizational life has nothing to do with the experience of another aspect. Reality is such that these experiences cannot be understood as separated individual units or dimensions. Rather these experiences exist as a whole affecting and influencing the total experience of being at an organization. Such is the totality of the "being there" concept. Therefore, the "being there" factor provides the cultural context within which employees make sense of these experiences. As mentioned earlier, meaningful experiences do not exist in isolation. Within the context of customer care training, how an employee responds to the programme and makes sense of it depends on other experiences within the organization. The interpretation of new events does not occur in a vacuum, the social context provides meaning to what is taking place within the organization. For instance, an organization which implements a customer care programme for all employees, but does not take into account customer care issues in its annual appraisal implies that customer care is not of real importance. To stress this point, another relevant example would be that of an organization which propagates the view that its employees are valuable and important, but adopts a retrenchment strategy in a financial crisis. In such a case, the organization would not seem to care for its employees, but rather puts higher value on money. Given that meaning does not exist in isolation, tampering with certain aspects of meaning could be disastrous for an organization. Consistent with the perspective that culture is best conceptualized as meaning, is the point that culture is a non–variable which cannot be manipulated. This is supported by the results of the data analysis which implied that training is expressive of an organization's culture, instead of acting as a change agent.

OD and Implications for Implementation

Within the context of the present study, that is of training and customer care in universities, the outcome of training has broader implications for the OD approach. Many OD practitioners would rationalize the negative outcome as being the result of training not being implemented as part of a total OD package. We would argue that even if training had been part of a comprehensive OD approach, the outcome would still be problematic. Given the nature of culture, questions which would arise would be: What is a holistic intervention? Is it practical and possible to embark on such an intervention?

In understanding organizations from a root metaphor perspective, implementing change through an OD approach is not only inappropriate, but also impossible. The rationale is that intervention in a discrete fashion would not succeed since organizations are inherently holistic. It may be argued that any OD approach is inherently problematic because it necessarily intervenes with certain aspects of an organization. Discrete intervention means that techniques applied to initiate a change process occur step by step or level by level based on a systems approach. Earlier in the thesis it was explained that the systems perspective views organizations as consisting of sub-systems which interact with each other. Given such an understanding, intervention is carried out through the total organization sub-system by sub-system. In the context of culture management, implementing training as part of a total OD effort means that training tends to target only certain groups of employees or departmental units. Such culture management through training does not take into account the reality that culture, as meaning, does not exist in isolation. The point to make is that the totality of the "being there" factor is manifest by meanings enmeshed into a whole system within an organization. As discussed earlier, the problem with implementing training as part of an OD approach is that this approach ignores the fact that meanings do not exist in isolation. As just stated, the underlying assumptions adopted by OD consistently treats an organization as a system. Conflict in meanings is therefore likely to occur because implementing training, thus targeting the employee or human variable, can oppose existing meaning systems. In other words, training imposes a set of meanings upon employee perception without taking into account the fact that these meanings rely on the organizational context. Manipulating meaning of a sub-component can result in negative conflicting meanings. With reference to the present study, the experience and context within which training takes place influences training impact. Using the example of Westcounty university, the already hostile attitude of employees towards their organization would possibly inhibit any kind of change if management were to impose any form of OD intervention. Since meaning is a function of experience and context, implementing an OD type intervention may result in Westcounty employees having an even more negative attitude. This is so because new meanings are a function of old meanings. Therefore, to embark on a training programme for employees who are already antagonistic towards management would be at best problematic in that such an activity would probably be viewed with suspicion. It may be said that OD may have a short-term impact on employees, but in the long-run the existing prevalent meanings would undermine the new meaning that was imposed by OD intervention. The understanding adopted by an OD practitioners is based on the belief that changes in attitudes lead to changes in individual behaviour (Beer, Eisenstat, Spector, 1990). However, the problem that exists with such a belief is that it does not take into account organizational context. It may be argued that creating a new organizational context will impose new roles and responsibilities which in turn could effectively impact on attitudes. The failure to consider organizational context can lead to the opposite effect, that of old meanings replacing the new ones. In short, if preestablished meanings are negative, then new meanings also become negative. In other words, the totality of meaningful experiences of working at an organization implies that one cannot separate out the holistic concept of the "being there" factor. OD practitioners make the claim that implementation of any change programme implies a long-term project which takes into account all sub-systems involved. However, in the light of the data analysis, our findings implied that training presupposes a positive culture. Without a pre-existing positive culture it would then be ineffective to embark on such an intervention. In other words, OD becomes expressive of an organizational culture as opposed to changing that culture. Culture conceptualized as meaning, the organization as synonymous to culture, implies that organizations exist as cultures which in turn are embedded with meaning. All these three concepts are equivalent.

OD and the Implications for Evaluation

On the subject of evaluation, it may be argued that the unitary view of organizations adopted by the OD approach is problematic. A related issue concerning OD intervention is that there is no adequate consensus as to whether the OD approach really works. It may be said that the unitary view of organizations and the criteria for measuring the impact of intervention are related within the context of evaluation. Confusion on the subject of criteria arises from the fact that there is no agreement on how to evaluate the impact of OD intervention. Therefore, the criteria for measuring the impact of change interventions needs further discussion. The findings of the present study challenges a simplistic view of organizations as systems, an assumption that has been adopted by OD practitioners. A closer examination of what is actually meant by successful intervention may be said to be open for debate. The assessment of the British Airways case study, for example, may be used as an illustration. Even though there have been writers who claimed that the BA cultural change was a success, the use of testimonial data as evidence to measure this success is questionable. Furthermore, the use of "hard criteria" to measure impact of intervention may be said to be biased and unconvincing. The problem may be said to be due to the fact that the criteria for evaluation is not known, and therefore any assessment of the BA case study is suspect.

To illustrate the above point, a closer look on the BA case study based on the assessment by Goodstein and Burke (1991) will be considered. The change process took place over a period of five years from 1982 to 1987. The Kurt Lewin change model categorized the steps implemented into three stages: unfreezing, movement and refreezing. The first stage of unfreezing involved managing resistance to change through breaking the present pattern of behavioural norms. At the individual level, the step of unfreezing may include the acts of selective promotion or termination for employees. At the structural level, this could involve implementing training programmes that would provide experiential learning for employees. At the climate level, there would be collection and provision of information feedback on employee views about management practices. The second stage, movement, involved implementing actual change strategies to move the organization to another level of response. At the individual level, employees would be expected to behave differently such as applying new skills acquired from the training programme. At the structural level, actual changes in organizational structure like reporting relationships would take place. At the climate level, behavioural changes that manifest interpersonal values like trust and openness are expected. The final stage, refreezing, involved institutionalizing the changes made so that these new behavioural patterns become a norm. At the individual level, refreezing could take place at the early stage of the recruitment process whereby only those candidates who exhibit the organization's value system are selected. At the structural level, new behaviours may be reinforced and eventually institutionalized through the reward system. At the climate level, a more participative management style that encourages trust and openness should be adopted by top management.

The BA case study is used as an example of the application of Lewin's change model, the three stages of the change process were (Goodstein and Burke, 1991):

i) <u>Unfreezing</u> - The first step in this stage resulted in a reduction in BA's workforce from 59,000 to 37,000. The downsizing of the work staff was done, it is claimed, with compassion with offers of early retirement together with financial settlements to all employees affected. This resulted in a higher level of performance as indicated by fewer delays for both arrival and departure times, less lost baggage, fewer out-of-service aircraft, a more efficient reservation service through telephone and telecommunications. A greater degree of autonomy was given to employees at the operating level so that the bureaucracy was reduced resulting in a higher level of efficiency.

Another change that took place during the unfreezing stage was the appointment of a new Chief Executive Officer, Colin Marshall, who came from a marketing background. The new slogan "the World's Favourite Airline" was an early attempt to change the BA image. All BA customer contact personnel participated in "Putting People First," the first of many training programmes.

ii) <u>Movement</u> - Training programmes for senior and middle management were launched to support this second stage. Experiential programmes were instituted which involved individual feedback on each participant's behaviour regarding job procedures and management practices. The major aim of such training programmes was to identify dysfunctional management practices in an effort to develop new practices. A critical shift that had a positive impact on the climate was redefining BA's business as a service rather than that of transportation. This new understanding of what BA was about encouraged a more open climate, good interpersonal skills and teamwork. One critical element of emotional support which helped employees cope with the nature of their work was the concept of "emotional labour," which recognized that such service is emotionally heavy going and could lead to burnout and permanent psychological damage. Another key support mechanism was training personnel staff to become internal change agents who had to provide support to line and staff managers. A new bonus system also changed a number of internal BA structures and systems. A permanent training centre was established through the purchase of Chartridge House. This allowed for more integrated staff training.

iii) Refreezing – BA's top management's continuous involvement and commitment ensured that the changes made during the unfreezing and movement stages become "permanent." Promotion was made selectively on the criteria that those who exhibited the new BA values were likely to be chosen. A new performance appraisal system based on both employee behaviour and resulting performance was implemented. The aim of the new appraisal system was to reinforce and help sustain a customer service orientation and the development of subordinates. In addition a performance-related pay scheme was included as part of the system. In the attempt to change the image of BA, the symbolic aspects of the organization were dealt with through designing new, upscale uniforms, refurbishing aircraft, using the motto "We fly to serve" on corporate coat of arms. To ensure consistency in cabin service, the old typically ad hoc approach to staffing was replaced by the creation of teams. Finally, the continuous use of data feedback on management practices served as a checking and control mechanism throughout the system.

The process of change was said to be difficult, maintaining and managing the change implemented was said to be even more difficult to achieve. Behavioural change at both individual and organizational levels meant eliminating habitual responses and replacing with new responses which may make employees feel awkward and unfamiliar (Goodstein and Burke, 1991). An important point to keep in mind was that the transition period would result in disorganization and temporarily lower the level of performance. The chaos and anger that normally characterize the transition was part of the adaptation process. A combination of techniques were used to help the transition including process consultation, role clarification, team building and structural changes. The OD intervention of process consultation was effected through a consultant whose role was to be counternormative. The consultant's role through raising questions and issues, and making direct observations acted as an intervening mechanism which helped the change process.

In a general discussion of evaluation and the impact of OD intervention, Goodstein and Burke stated that the use of "hard criteria" such as productivity and quality indices were used to measure success. Performance levels and employee satisfaction were the two criteria mentioned as variables positively correlated to the change intervention. No mention of the specific indicators of performance measures and employee satisfaction was made. In addition, they did not make explicit the criteria which were used for the measurement of the impact of OD which were specific to the case study. In another article by Leigh (1987), it was claimed that the impact of the OD intervention at BA was assessed through random interviewing of managers. In other words, testimonies were used as the basic indicators of the success of the training.

The above claims made by OD practitioners that OD interventions are successful in changing culture is thus doubtful. The use of "hard criteria" such as number of customer complaints, amount of lost baggage, and the like are indicators of efficiency and of levels of performance. It seems appropriate to claim that procedural changes to solve specific problems have had a positive impact on levels of performance. However, the further claim that a culture change has occurred, and that the values and attitudes of employees have altered is more questionable. The present study challenges such claims because no proper measurement of attitude change has been made.

With reference to the BA case study, the process of intervention was based on open systems thinking which involved a phased and multi-faceted approach of managing change. The change from a bureaucratic to that of a service oriented culture must be examined critically. The discrete intervention implemented by the OD practitioners apparently works, but the strike in June, 1993 by BA employees indicated otherwise. The implication that may be made from the strike is that the unitary view of organizations does not reflect reality. The practice of OD will continue to become problematic if OD theorists do not recognize that organizations are by nature not only non-harmonious but also pluralistic, and do not adjust automatically to the environment. A unitary view of organizations implies that meaning is essentially derived from top management. In other words, it is a set of meanings based on management's understanding on how employees should feel towards organizational issues. The unitary view of organizations is a fallacy in that strikes do occur within organizations. As stated the June, 1993 strike by British Airways employees also indicated that meanings may be inconsistent as a result of a pluralistic value system. It may be argued that the "hard criteria" of performance measures reinforces the unitary view of organizations in that top management imposes its own values of profit making as the main priority and key criteria for evaluation. Earlier in chapter 3, it was pointed out that the participative management climate propagated by top management is not based on the belief that people, as humans, should be trust worthy, but instead, openness is for the efficient functioning of the organization in its goal to make profits. The same rationale may be applied to the use of "hard criteria" performance measures, the intention is for the increased efficiency of the organization. In other words, within a customer care context, customers are treated well because they provide the financial support which organizations need in order to be successful. In the case of universities, it may be said that despite customer care training and all it was supposed to achieve, universities are still in control and in charge of its customers. Alternatively, it is a producer's market whereby universities actually determine factors such as how many students to take in and which courses to offer. With regards to the issue of discrete intervention, universities have used the same approach by implementing customer care training on an ad hoc basis. Such an approach views culture management as intervention taking place selectively whereby training is confined to sections of employees. However, given the interconnectedness and holistic characteristic of culture and its manifestation through meaningful experiences of employees, viewing culture management just as another task amongst other organizational tasks may be said to be unrealistic. Within the context of inculcating a customer service orientation in universities, the focus then has to be on procedures and patterns of relationships that facilitate customer service. Rather than trying to change an employee's attitude, management should look at specific problems and try making procedural changes to solve it accordingly.

Summary Conclusion

To summarise, the changing culture of public organizations, such as that of universities, has resulted in increased interest in training and development programmes. However, in the light of the findings of the present study, one has to question the issue of how to apply training and development programmes to achieve some form of change. Given that culture is understood as meaning, the implication is that culture cannot be changed. Rather management should aim at encouraging employees to exhibit etiquettes and behaviours which are consistent with the kind of image and customer care orientation that is needed. The difference is that whatever meaningful experiences each employee goes through in his or her daily working environment is beyond intervention. It may be argued that it is not within management's capacity to impose an understanding on what an employee's experience means to himself or herself. It might be also argued that since training appears to be expressive of culture, then the implication is that training is of symbolic significance.

Having discussed the findings of the present study, the key points that have been inferred from data analysis are as follows: the results support the root metaphor perspective of culture, the relationship between theoretical concept and method may not be axiomatic and, finally, training seems expressive of culture. A few research implications may be derived from these inferences. The first concerns the issue of measurement and the possibility of using the questionnaire approach to capture meaning. Based on the argument that the relationship between theoretical concept and method is one that should be transient and contingent upon situational factors, rather than axiomatic, new avenues for culture research can be explored. The use of the questionnaire approach to tap meaning is an area that needs further research.

The prevailing understanding is that the only valid approach to study meaning is through ethnography or "thick description". One of the main reasons which shaped such an attitude may be said to be due to the questionnaire instruments used by climate researchers. It may be argued that the confusion between climate and culture constructs have also contributed to the problem. There have been culture researchers who used instruments developed by climate researchers to study organizational culture (Reynierse and Harker, 1986; O'Reilly III, Chatman and Caldwell, 1991). These researchers view culture as a variable and treat it as a phenomenon that is describable in organizational terms, such as communication, leadership, structure, and the like. What these researchers fail to recognize is that culture is "something essentially lived and experienced" (Hales, 1993; p. 207). The stated problem can account for the antagonistic attitude of many culture researchers to survey research, especially those who view culture as synonymous to the organization.

Earlier it was argued that the present day tools have proven to be inadequate in measuring the impact of training. This may be attributed to the leading manner in which many of these instruments have been designed. In addition, the literal and linear manner in which the culture concept has been operationalized has lost its richness of meaning. The use of summary statistics derived from adding up scores attributed to "cultural dimensions" is characteristic of such questionnaire instruments. It may be argued that the need to experiment with new approaches in questionnaire design is critical. Despite strict empirical methodology in questionnaire design, attempts to measure accurately the impact of training has so far been disappointing and unsatisfactory. Given the arguments presented above, the present study has adopted an eclectic approach in questionnaire construction. Questions were designed to tap attitudes in various ways. The whole issue of measuring the impact of training is not only problematic, but also new in that the criteria for success is not known. It may be argued that so far the use of "hard criteria" for performance and efficiency, rather than work satisfaction and well-being of employees, implies management's interest is in organizational goals as opposed to employees'. Further, the "success" of training as a form of mechanism to inculcate or change an organization's culture depends on the criterion of success. The question which then arises is whose criterion of success should be used as training affects and bring about different consequences for management and employees. At the moment, apparently it is management's criterion that prevails. Having raised these issues, the need for further research on the subject of training evaluation is needed to provide more information on this area.

The second research implication deals with the manageability of culture. If the root metaphor perspective of culture is more realistic, the question that should be raised is: Within the context of training, what is the value and usefulness of the culture concept? The present findings implied that culture cannot be treated as a variable that can be manipulated through training. Rather, training symbolically signifies a positive culture. Given such a finding, the implication for further research is to consider culture as an umbrella concept that encompasses context. In other words, the role which culture plays is contextual, otherwise training takes place in a vacuum. The route of considering culture as making up a sub-system existing within an organization does not seem to be justified given the inherent holistic characteristic of the culture concept. Another question that should be derived from the root metaphor perspective of culture is that: If culture is not a variable that can be manipulated like any other organizational variables to help towards organizational effectiveness, then the implication is that there are other factors that may contribute to organizational success. Alternatively, if the assumption that organizational culture has a direct relationship with the level of performance and effectiveness is suspect, then future research should attempt to discover what other factors may be responsible or more influential in affecting the level of performance. The extent to which strong organization culture is related to high performance was challenged by Reynolds (1986). In addition, others (Soeter, 1986; Peters, 1989; Pascale, 1991) have questioned the degree to which "excellent" companies with strong cultures maintain their performance in the market. Carroll (1983) was critical of the extent to which these "excellent" companies had exclusively been high performers. In chapter 2, it was argued that certain conditions in the market such as the organization's position in the market and its competitive advantage could contribute to the success of these "excellent" companies. For instance, within the context of customer care, strong customer orientation and a high service quality is only possible on condition that others are not doing so. Otherwise, the competitive advantage of the organization concerned would not be realized. It might be pointed out that if all organizations practised customer orientation and provided high service quality as part of their culture and value system, then the notion of competitive advantage in customer service would disappear. The idea that organizational culture may be changed and manipulated is a moot point. The present study recognizes that culture does slowly evolve and change in the long-run. Management's expectations therefore should be focused on the a short-term based upon procedural and processual changes, as opposed to fundamental ones.

Finally, due to its exploratory nature the findings of the present study need further investigation in order to shed more light on the conclusion that training seems expressive of culture. As explained earlier, meaning was tapped through the "being there" factor. The data analysis indicated that the experience an employee has by being at one organization, as opposed to another, influences the way he or she feels about different aspects of organizational life. This experiential factor, therefore, influences meaningful events which take place within the context of normal daily working life. In other words, the experience of leadership behaviour, communication process, other procedural and organizational processes provides a unique experience for employees of different organizations. Having argued that culture is something lived and experienced affecting employees meaningful working lives, the significance of the "being there factor" merits further investigation. In other words, the present study has discovered that the importance of the "being there" factor is of great significance. It may be said that what "being there" means to employees of an organization has not been dealt with in the present study. In addition, the purpose of conducting this research was to provide clues on which important issues concerning organizational change and culture are worth looking at. Therefore, it would be appropriate at this juncture to recommend further follow-up research using ethnography or "thick description" approach on Westcounty in particular. Since employees at Westcounty showed a hostile attitude towards the organization, a case study approach would be necessary for an in depth analysis. Within the context of training, the relevant question would be whether it would be worth while to invest in training and development given that the organizational culture is unfavourable. Maybe one of the important prerequisite conditions for successful training is a favourable working environment whereby employees would not be hostile towards any form of intervention. Otherwise training efforts would be of a waste of time and money.

In conclusion, it has to be said that the assumption that culture can be managed, and that training is a means to manipulate culture is unconvincing. With the criteria for measuring the "success" of human resource training apparently unknown and no apparent form of reliable evaluation, the final question raised by this study is to wonder at why so much money continues to be invested in such activities. In many organizations there appears to be scope for a further research agenda centering on the question of what is the rationale behind such apparently irrational behaviour.

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APPENDIX A

Questionnaires

Questionnaire 1
Pilot Study

INDIVIDUAL PROFILE

Male [ ] Female [ ]

Age : Under 25 [ ]
25 - 35 [ ]
36 - 45 [ ]
46 - 55 [ ]
56 - 65 [ ]

Position in Organisation :

Length of Time in Organisation :

Education : . . . .

. . . .

Other Professional Qualification : . . . .

. . . .

. . . .

Would you please describe what your tasks in this organisation are? (Job Description)

. . . .

. . . .

. . . .

. . . .

Size of Organisation : . . . .

Type of Service/Product : . . . .

Industry/Commerce : . . . .

SECTION A

Employee Attitude Towards Organisation

Q.1 What do you think are the strengths (advantages) and weaknesses of your organisation? (please tick appropriate box)

		Very Great Advantage	Great Advantage	Advantage	Very Great Weakness	Great Weakness	Weakness	No Relevance	
a.	Organizational Communication	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
b.	Leadership skills	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
c.	Training and Development	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
d.	Appraisal System	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
e.	Top Management Motivation	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
f.	Rules and Policies	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
g.	Top Management Experience	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
h.	Pay Scheme	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
i.	Work Environment	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
j.	Service Quality	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
k.	Fringe Benefits	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
l.	Health and Safety	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

Q.2 How would you describe your superior? (please tick where applicable)

Flexible	[ ]	Inflexible	[ ]	
Helpful	[ ]	Unhelpful	[ ]	
Caring	[ ]	Uncaring	[ ]	
Fair	[ ]	Unfair	[ ]	
Trustworthy	[ ]	Untrustworthy	[ ]	[ ]

Q.3 To what extent does the management listen to employees?

Listens more than necessary	[ ]	
Listens adequately	[ ]	
Does not listen enough	[ ]	
Is very bad at listening	[ ]	[ ]

Please explain your answer by giving an example/illustration ....

....

Q.4 How much power does management give to its employees in making decisions?

A great deal	[ ]	
Adequately	[ ]	
Does not delegate enough	[ ]	
Does not delegate at all	[ ]	[ ]

Please explain your answer by giving an example/illustration ....

....

Q.5 Is the decision-making process a joint-consultation and joint-agreement amongst **ALL** employee members?

Supervisor and all members make the decision together	[ ]	
Supervisor makes decision after consulting all members	[ ]	
Supervisor makes decision after informing all members	[ ]	
Supervisor makes decision and does not inform members	[ ]	[ ]

Q.6 Is your organization more employee-centred and focused on management/ employee relationships, or is it task-oriented and concerned for job completion?

Employee-oriented [ ] Task-oriented [ ] [ ]

Q.7 How often do departmental units interact and communicate with each other?

All the time [ ]
Most of the time [ ]
Occasionally [ ]
Not at all [ ] [ ]

Q.8 How often do you communicate to someone in another department about your work?

Almost every hour [ ]
Every day [ ]
Every week [ ]
Every month [ ]
Never [ ] [ ]

Q.9 Is the relationship between departments as one that is two-way and inter-dependent upon each other?

YES [ ] NO [ ] [ ]

Please explain or illustrate ....

....

Q.10 (a) Are rules in your company helpful guidelines for employees?

YES [ ] NO [ ] [ ]

Please explain or illustrate ....

....

(b) Are the rules applied too restrictively?

YES [ ] NO [ ] [ ]

Please explain or illustrate ....

....

Q.11 Does management reward employees for their good performance?

YES [ ] NO [ ] [ ]

Q.12 Are employees given training to update their skills?

YES [ ] NO [ ] [ ]

Please specify ....

Q.13 Does the management believe in training and development?

Yes, definite commitment [ ]
Yes, but other priorities [ ]
No, but will give support [ ]
No, just going through the motions [ ] [ ]

Q.14 When did you last receive 'off-the-job' training? (This includes college based courses on day release; block release course; distance learning; correspondence courses; seminars, etc away from the work.)

Within the last six months [ ]
Between six months and a year ago [ ]
Between a year and two years ago [ ]
More than two years [ ]
Never [ ]
Cannot remember [ ] [ ]

Q.15 How useful was this training in helping you to do your job?

Very useful [ ]
Of some use [ ]
Little use [ ]
Waste of time [ ]
No training [ ] [ ]

In what ways? ....

....

Q.16 When did you last receive 'on-the-job' training? (This includes all training, coaching and counselling at your place of work.)

Within the last six months [ ]
Between six months and a year ago [ ]
Between a year and two years ago [ ]
More than two years [ ]
Never [ ]
Cannot remember [ ] [ ]

Q.17 How useful was this training in helping you to do your job?

Very useful [ ]
Of some use [ ]
Little use [ ]
Waste of time [ ]
No training [ ] [ ]

In what ways? ....

....

Q.18 Does your supervisor discuss your training needs before training?

YES [ ] NO [ ] [ ]

How is this done? If no, why not? ....

....

Q.19 Are performance targets set through agreement by both your supervisor and you?

Yes, supervisor and I negotiate and agree on target [ ]
Yes, supervisor consults with me and makes a decision [ ]
No, supervisor dictates to me what the targets are [ ]
No, there is no such performance targets [ ] [ ]

Q.20 Do you feel that the supervisor's role in training and development in your organization is to give counselling and encouragement to employees?

YES [ ] NO [ ] [ ]

If no, what should the role be? ....

....

Q.21 Are employees given feedback on their performance during training?

Yes, employees are kept informed on a timely basis [ ]
Yes, but not enough feedback given [ ]
Yes, but feedback is given at the end of training [ ]
No, employees are not given feedback at all [ ] [ ]

Q.22 Do you feel that development programmes help expand employee skills?

Yes, very useful and applicable [ ]
Yes, of some use [ ]
Yes, in theory but not applicable in my work [ ]
No, waste of time [ ] [ ]

This section is concerned with management philosophy and how you feel about it. Please state the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements below by ticking the appropriate box.

KEY:
1 Strongly Agree
2 Agree
3 Uncertain
4 Disagree
5 Strongly Disagree

Statements on Management Philosophy	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**COMMENTS**
The company believes people are its greatest assets						
Relationships between people are based on trust						
Management believes in open communication						
Quality is a priority in work performance						
Honesty, (truthfulness and sincerity) is a value that is important						
The organisation cares for its customers						

This section deals with customer care orientation. Please state the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements below about your organisation's commitment to service quality.

KEY:
1 Strongly Agree
2 Agree
3 Uncertain
4 Disagree
5 Strongly Disagree

Statements on Customer Care Orientation	1	2	3	4	5	COMMENTS
The organisation has clear definition and meaning of the concept of excellent service to customers						
Front-line employees are aware and have knowledge of the specific expectations of customers						
The organisation seeks input from customers in defining customer expectations, customer needs and service quality						
The organisation is willing to learn from its own employees about customer satisfaction						
Managers set a personal example by demonstrating excellent service to customers through increased contact with customers						
Employees have a high opinion of the sincerity and appropriateness of organisation's efforts to improve service quality						
There are standards set to make the definition of excellent service concrete and real to employees in the organisation						
Employee performance is measured through customer's eyes as well as management						
Employees have a high commitment to delivering good service to co-workers						
Employees have a positive perception on the customer care training program.						
The organisation' rules and procedures facilitate good customer service.						

SECTION B

Employee Attitude Towards Customers

Q.1 How do you think the customer rates the quality of your service/ product?

Excellent	[ ]	
Good	[ ]	
Acceptable	[ ]	
Bad	[ ]	[ ]

Q.2 Is the customer view fair and accurate?

Yes [ ] No [ ] [ ]

Please explain why yes or no . . . .

. . . .

Q.3 How would you describe customers in general? (Please tick where applicable)

Friendly	[ ]	Unfriendly	[ ]	
Valuable Asset	[ ]	Not Worth Much	[ ]	
Important	[ ]	Unimportant	[ ]	
Honest	[ ]	Dishonest	[ ]	[ ]

Q.4 How do you think customers view the employees? (Please tick where applicable)

Friendly	[ ]	Unfriendly	[ ]	
Caring	[ ]	Uncaring	[ ]	
Helpful	[ ]	Unhelpful	[ ]	
Polite	[ ]	Rude	[ ]	[ ]

Q.5 Is the customer view fair and accurate?

Yes [ ] No [ ] [ ]

Please explain why yes or no . . . .

. . . .

Q.6 Is it your belief that managers really care about customer service?

Yes, they are genuinely committed [ ] No, its largely public relations, window dressing [ ] [ ]

Q.7 To what extent do you feel that customer expectation is important?

Very important [ ]
Important [ ]
Not very important [ ]
Unnecessary [ ] [ ]

Q.8 To what extent do employees listen to their customers?

Listens more than necessary [ ]
Listens adequately [ ]
Does not listen enough [ ]
Does not listen at all [ ] [ ]

Q.9 Do you think that customer complaints are an important source of information?

Yes [ ] No [ ] [ ]

Q.10 Do you think that customer surveys are important as a means to obtain information from customers?

Yes [ ] No [ ] [ ]

Q.11 To what extent do employees receive training in customer care?

Receive more than enough training [ ]
Receive adequate training [ ]
Receive some training [ ]
No training in customer care [ ]
Don't think customer care matters [ ] [ ]

Q.12 Do you believe that the organisation's image has changed over the past two years?

Improved quite a lot [ ]
Improved considerably [ ]
Improved very little [ ]
Worse than before [ ] [ ]

Q.13 When did you last receive any customer care training (include both on-the-job and off-the-job training)?

Within the last six months [ ]
Between six months and a year [ ]
Between a year and two years ago [ ]
More than two years [ ]
Never [ ]
Cannot remember [ ] [ ]

What form did this training take? . . . .

. . . .

Q.14 How useful was this training in helping you in your job?

Very useful [ ]
Of some use [ ]
Little use [ ]
Waste of time [ ]
No training [ ] [ ]

Please explain your answer . . . .

. . . .

Q.15 In which areas of customer care would you like to have more training?

Dealing with customer complaints [ ]
Follow-up service [ ]
Communication skills [ ]
Support staff [ ]

Other (please specify) ....

....

.... [ ]

Q.16 To what extent **do** customers come first for this organisation?

Yes, the customers do come first [ ]
No, customers do not come first [ ]
Depends on circumstances/situation [ ]
No strong feelings/indifferent [ ] [ ]

Q.17 Would you say that your organisation sees its first priority as being to serve its customers?

Definitely the case [ ]   No, other priorities [ ]   [ ]

Q.18 Would you consider that your organisation's investment in time and resources in customer care programmes is enough?

More than enough [ ]
Enough [ ]
Just adequate [ ]
Not enough [ ]
Don t care [ ] [ ]

Q.19 To what extent does top management participate in trying to provide excellent service?

Very committed	[ ]	
Committed	[ ]	
Not so committed	[ ]	
Not committed/lip service only	[ ]	
No knowledge	[ ]	[ ]

Why do you think this is to be the case? ....

....

Q.20 *This section deals with customer service orientation. Please indicate in the boxes the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements below.*

KEY:
1 **Strongly Agree**
2 **Agree**
3 **Uncertain**
4 **Disagree**
5 **Strongly Disagree**

Statement on Customer Service Orientation	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**COMMENTS**
I feel personally involved towards the customer care issue.						
I do believe that customers deserve individual attention						
I respect customers beliefs and values						
I recognise and remember regular customers						
I feel a sense of personal satisfaction when my customers are satisfied						
feel motivated to satisfy my customers						
believe that customers are the organisation's biggest asset						
think the customer care philosophy is essential for this organisation						
am sensitive to customer needs						
am flexible in dealing with customers						

Questionnaire 2

Universities which carried out customer care training

INDIVIDUAL PROFILE

Male ☐ Female ☐ ☐

Age : Under 25 ☐

25 – 35 ☐

36 – 45 ☐

46 – 55 ☐

56 – 65 ☐ ☐

Please state your job title : . . . . ☐
(do not identify department)

Length of time in organisation : . . . . ☐

Education : . . . .

. . . .

. . . . ☐

Other Professional qualifications : . . . .

. . . .

. . . . ☐

Would you please describe what your main tasks in this Organisation are? (Job Description)

. . . .

. . . .

. . . .

. . . . ☐

SECTION A

Employee Attitude Towards Organisation

Q.1 What do you think are the strengths and weaknesses of your organisation? (Please ✓ appropriate box)

	Great Strength	Strength	Weakness	Great Weakness	Not Applicable to the Organisation	
a. Organisational Communication	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. Leadership Skills	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. Training and Development	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. A Fair Appraisal System	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. Clear Work Procedures	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. Sound Organisational Structure	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
g. Quality of Senior Management	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
h. Fair Pay Scheme	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
i. Service Quality	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
j. Fringe Benefits	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
k. Fair Promotion System	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q.2 Supervisor's Behaviour : We want to look at some background issues that **may** affect your work. How you view your boss's actions can be useful for us to know. Please answer the following questions by ringing the number that is closest to what your boss actually does. Remember we are interested only in the overall picture. Anonymity of your boss is guaranteed as much as yours is!

My boss :

		Always	Often	Occas.	Seldom	Never	
(i)	sees to it that everyone works to the limit	1	2	3	4	5	☐
(ii)	insists that we follow standard ways of doing things in detail	1	2	3	4	5	☐
(iii)	gives clear directions about what is to be done	1	2	3	4	5	☐

		Always	Often	Occas.	Seldom	Never	
(iv)	lets others do their work the way they think best	1	2	3	4	5	☐
		Often	Fairly Often	Occas.	Once in a While	Very Seldom	
(v)	offers new approaches to problems	1	2	3	4	5	☐
		A Great Deal	Quite a Lot	To Some Degree	Fairly Little	Not at all	
(vi)	"needles" us for greater effort	1	2	3	4	5	☐
(vii)	emphasises the meeting of deadlines	1	2	3	4	5	☐
		Always	Often	Occas.	Seldom	Never	
(viii)	makes people feel at ease when talking to them	1	2	3	4	5	☐
(ix)	puts suggestions from me (us) into operation	1	2	3	4	5	☐
(x)	tries to make sure that people get rewarded for good work	1	2	3	4	5	☐
(xi)	treats people in a way that doesn't consider their feelings	1	2	3	4	5	☐
(xii)	expresses appreciation when one of us does a good job	1	2	3	4	5	☐
(xiii)	is effective in keeping us well regarded by higher management	1	2	3	4	5	☐
		Often	Fairly Often	Occas.	Once in a While	Very Seldom	
(xiv)	acts without consulting us on matters that concern us	1	2	3	4	5	☐

Q.3 What would you say are the characteristics of senior management in the University?

. . . .

. . . . ☐

Q.4. a) Do you consider the quality of communications between managers and subordinates within your department/sector/unit satisfactory?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know ☐ ☐

If no, why not : ....

.... ☐

b) Do you feel the quality of communications between managers and subordinates within your department and the university management satisfactory?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know ☐ ☐

If no, why not : ....

.... ☐

Q.5 a) Are you allowed a say in the major decisions that affect how you do your work within your department?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know ☐ ☐

If no, can you give an example : ....

....

.... ☐

b) Do you think that your department has a say in the major decisions that affects it's work?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know ☐ ☐

If no, can you give an example : ....

....

.... ☐

Q.6 Which one of these four statements comes nearest to describing the decision-making process in matters that affect your work?

Manager/Supervisor and all members make the decision together through a consensus ☐

Manager/Supervisor makes a final decision independently after consulting all members ☐

Manager/Supervisor makes decision after informing all members ☐

Manager/Supervisor makes decision and does not inform members ☐ ☐

Q.7 a) Does your work involve communication with other departments?

Yes ☐ No ☐ ☐

b) If Yes, which one of the following describes how communication works?

It is quite difficult to get the information we need. ☐

People are usually quite willing, but there's a lot of confusion and misunderstanding. ☐

There are a number of problems, but usually we work them out quite well. ☐

We get all the information we need. Other people are helpful and cooperative. ☐ ☐

Please illustrate your answer? . . . .

. . . .

. . . . ☐

c) Is there any change that you can think of that would improve communication?

. . . .

. . . . ☐

Q.8 a) How helpful do you think the existing organisational structure is in :

	Helpful	Unhelpful
Facilitating communication in your department?	☐	☐
Getting the work done?	☐	☐
The decision-making process?	☐	☐

b) What changes in structure would improve any of the above problems?

. . . .

. . . .

. . . . ☐

Q.9 Looking at procedures and regulations, which one of the statements describes the way work is done in your department :

Very tightly governed by written procedures and regulations. ☐

Largely governed by written procedures with staff having some discretion. ☐

Rules only giving general guidelines, staff have some discretion. ☐

Staff are expected to be aware of general policy, but there are no rigid procedures applying in my work. ☐ ☐

Q.10 Here are some statements about how people view their work. Mark the most important with **1**, the next most important with **2**, the next with **3**, then **4**, then **5**, and finally **6** for the least important.

"The main attraction in any job is simply the pay you get. That is the main reason for determining what is a good job". ☐

"The main attraction in a job is the security it offers. I would prefer a job which pays less if it offers more security". ☐

"The main attraction in a job is the opportunity it offers to work with other people. I'd hate to be stuck away on my own somewhere". ☐

"What I like is the chance to achieve something. I want to be able to look back at a job and say that I did it". ☐

"I like a job that gives you an ability to control resources or to influence events". ☐

"Above all, I want someone to recognise when I've done a good job". ☐ ☐

Q.11 I'd like you to think of a specific time here when your work was specially satisfying. In a few sentences, tell me what you were doing at that time and what made you feel good about it.

. . . .

. . . .

. . . .

. . . .

. . . .

. . . . ☐

Q.12 Now think of the opposite. When working here was really upsetting you and you felt very dissatisfied. Again, tell us what your job was about, and what was it that really made you pretty fed-up with it?

. . . .

. . . .

. . . .

. . . .

. . . .

. . . . ☐

Q.13 How committed, in your view, is the University to staff training and development?

- Yes, definite commitment ☐
- Yes, but other priorities more important ☐
- No, but will give some support ☐
- No, just going through the motions ☐ ☐

Q.14 When did you last receive 'off-the-job' training? (This includes college-based courses on day release; block release course; distance learning; correspondence courses; seminars; etc, away from the work.)

- Within the last six months ☐
- Between six months and a year ago ☐
- Between a year and two years ago ☐
- More than two years ago ☐
- Never ☐
- Cannot remember ☐ ☐

Q.15 How useful was this training in developing your work role within the University?

- Very useful ☐
- Of some use ☐
- Little use ☐
- Waste of time ☐
- No training ☐ ☐

In what ways? . . . .

. . . . ☐

Q.16 Does the University make proper use of the skills people have acquired during training?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know ☐ ☐

Please illustrate your answer . . . .

. . . .

. . . .

Q.17 Look back at your reply to Question 14. Unless you answered "never" or "cannot remember", would you say that you received any information or evaluation ("feedback") on how well you were performing during or after that training event or programme? Please tick one box.

Yes, I got information at the time ☐

Yes, but the "feedback" was not enough ☐

Yes, but the "feedback" was after the training was over ☐

No, I didn't receive any feedback ☐☐

Q.18 Do you feel that the training and development programmes that you have received at the University have helped expand your skills?

Yes, very useful and applicable ☐

Yes, of some use ☐

Yes, in theory but not applicable in my work ☐

No, waste of time ☐

No training and development ☐☐

SECTION B

Employee Attitude Towards "Customers"

In lots of organisations nowadays, people who provide a service for other people or other units within the organisation are being asked to think about these people as if they were "customers". For some of us in universities we are asked to see "students" as customers, others of us have academic departments as our "customers", others may be providing services to other administrative units.

Now, we are not asking you here whether you think that is a good idea or not, but try to answer these questions where "customer" is used as a shorthand for "*people for whom you are providing a service - and who depend on you if they are to be effective*".

Q.1 This section deals with customer care orientation. Please state the extent to which you agree or disagree that the statements below describe how your University actually approaches service quality.

STATEMENTS ON CUSTOMER CARE ORIENTATION	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
The University has clear definition and meaning of the concept of excellent service to customers.					
Front-line employees are aware and have knowledge of the specific expectations of customers.					
The University seeks input from customers in defining customer expectations, customer needs and service quality.					
The University is willing to learn from its own employees about customer satisfaction.					
Top managers set a personal example by demonstrating excellent service to customers through increased contact with customers.					
Employees have a high opinion of the sincerity and appropriateness of the University's efforts to improve service quality.					
There are standards set to make the definition of excellent service concrete and real to employees in the University.					
Employee performance is measured through customer's eyes as well as management.					
Employees have a positive perception on the customer care training programme.					
The University's rules and procedures are helpful in giving good service.					

Q.2 The "Customer" You Dislike Dealing With

Think of someone whom you are providing a service for – a "customer" of yours – whom you don't like dealing with. This does not have to be someone you dislike as a person – but he or she gives you more problems than most. Describe this person (or group of people) as he/she appears to you by circling the appropriate number on the scale.

Please circle a number on EVERY line

Pleasant	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Unpleasant	☐
Friendly	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Unfriendly	☐
Rejecting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Accepting	☐
Helpful	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Frustrating	☐
Unenthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Enthusiastic	☐
Tense	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Relaxed	☐
Distant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Close	☐
Cold	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Warm	☐
Cooperative	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Uncooperative	☐
Supportive	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Hostile	☐
Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Interesting	☐
Quarrelsome	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Harmonious	☐
Self-assured	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Hesitant	☐
Efficient	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Inefficient	☐
Gloomy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Cheerful	☐
Open	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Guarded	☐

Q.3 Is it your belief that top management really cares about customer service?

Yes, they are genuinely committed. ☐

No, its largely public relations, window dressing. ☐

Don't Know ☐ ☐

Q.4 Are customer complaints an important source of information?

Yes ☐ No ☐ ☐

Q.5 To what extent do employees receive training in customer care?

Receive enough training ☐

Receive some training, but not enough ☐

No training in customer care ☐ ☐

Q.6 When did you last receive any customer care training (include both on–the–job and off–the–job training)?

Within the last six months ☐

Between six months and a year ☐

Between a year and two years ago ☐

More than two years ago ☐

Never ☐

Cannot remember ☐ ☐

What form did this training take? ....

....

.... ☐

Q.7 How useful was this training in helping you in your job?

Very useful ☐

Of some use ☐

Little use ☐

Waste of time ☐

No training ☐ ☐

Please explain your answer ....

....

.... ☐

Q.8 For those who have undergone formal customer care training :

a) Do you think that training has improved the way you deal with customers?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know ☐ ☐

Please explain your answer ....

.... ☐

b) Do you think that customer care training has improved the way staff in general deal with customers?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know ☐ ☐

Please explain your answer ....
....
....
.... ☐

Q.9 Do you believe that the organisation's image has changed as a result of customer care training?

Image has always been good ☐

Improved considerably ☐

Improved very little ☐

Worse than before ☐ ☐

Q.10 Would you say that your organisation sees one of its first priorities as being to serve its customers?

Yes, customer care is a first priority ☐

No, customer care is not a first priority ☐ ☐

Q.11 How would you rate your organisation's investment in time and resources in customer care programmes?

Satisfactory ☐ Unsatisfactory ☐ ☐

Q.12 To what extent does top management show its commitment in trying to provide excellent service?

Very committed ☐

Committed ☐

Not so committed ☐

Not committed/lip service only ☐

No knowledge ☐ ☐

Why do you think this to be the case? ....

....

.... ☐

Q.13 This section deals with customer service orientation. Please indicate in the boxes the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements below.

STATEMENTS ON CUSTOMER SERVICE ORIENTATION	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I feel personally involved towards the customer care issue.					
I feel that customers get too much attention.					
I respect customers' beliefs and values.					
I feel that there are too many customers to remember and know individually.					
I feel a sense of personal satisfaction when my customers are satisfied.					
Customer satisfaction has nothing to do with my motivation to perform.					
I think the customer care philosophy is essential for this organisation.					
I feel too busy to be concerned with customer needs.					
I am flexible in dealing with customers.					

Questionnaire 3

University which has not carried out customer care training

INDIVIDUAL PROFILE

Male ☐ Female ☐ ☐

Age : Under 25 ☐

25 - 35 ☐

36 - 45 ☐

46 - 55 ☐

56 - 65 ☐ ☐

Please state your job title : .... ☐
(do not identify department)

Length of time in organisation : .... ☐

Education : ....

....

.... ☐

Other Professional qualifications : ....

....

.... ☐

Would you please describe what your main tasks in this Organisation are? (Job Description)

....

....

....

.... ☐

SECTION A

Employee Attitude Towards Organisation

Q.1 What do you think are the strengths and weaknesses of your organisation? (Please ✓ appropriate box)

	Great Strength	Strength	Weakness	Great Weakness	Not Applicable to the Organisation	
a. Organisational Communication	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. Leadership Skills	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. Training and Development	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. A Fair Appraisal System	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. Clear Work Procedures	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. Sound Organisational Structure	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
g. Quality of Senior Management	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
h. Fair Pay Scheme	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
i. Service Quality	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
j. Fringe Benefits	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
k. Fair Promotion System	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q.2 Supervisor's Behaviour : We want to look at some background issues that **may** affect your work. How you view your boss's actions can be useful for us to know. Please answer the following questions by ringing the number that is closest to what your boss actually does. Remember we are interested only in the overall picture. Anonymity of your boss is guaranteed as much as yours is!

My boss :

		Always	Often	Occas.	Seldom	Never	
(i)	sees to it that everyone works to the limit	1	2	3	4	5	☐
(ii)	insists that we follow standard ways of doing things in detail	1	2	3	4	5	☐
(iii)	gives clear directions about what is to be done	1	2	3	4	5	☐

		Always	Often	Occas.	Seldom	Never	
(iv)	lets others do their work the way they think best	1	2	3	4	5	☐
		Often	Fairly Often	Occas.	Once in a While	Very Seldom	
(v)	offers new approaches to problems	1	2	3	4	5	☐
		A Great Deal	Quite a Lot	To Some Degree	Fairly Little	Not at all	
(vi)	"needles" us for greater effort	1	2	3	4	5	☐
(vii)	emphasises the meeting of deadlines	1	2	3	4	5	☐
		Always	Often	Occas.	Seldom	Never	
(viii)	makes people feel at ease when talking to them	1	2	3	4	5	☐
(ix)	puts suggestions from me (us) into operation	1	2	3	4	5	☐
(x)	tries to make sure that people get rewarded for good work	1	2	3	4	5	☐
(xi)	treats people in a way that doesn't consider their feelings	1	2	3	4	5	☐
(xii)	expresses appreciation when one of us does a good job	1	2	3	4	5	☐
(xiii)	is effective in keeping us well regarded by higher management	1	2	3	4	5	☐
		Often	Fairly Often	Occas.	Once in a While	Very Seldom	
(xiv)	acts without consulting us on matters that concern us	1	2	3	4	5	☐

).3 What would you say are the characteristics of senior management in the University?

....

.... ☐

Q.4. a) Do you consider the quality of communications between managers and subordinates within your department/sector/unit satisfactory?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know ☐ ☐

If no, why not : ....

.... ☐

b) Do you feel the quality of communications between managers and subordinates within your department and the university management satisfactory?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know ☐ ☐

If no, why not : ....

.... ☐

Q.5 a) Are you allowed a say in the major decisions that affect how you do your work within your department?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know ☐ ☐

If no, can you give an example : ....

....

.... ☐

b) Do you think that your department has a say in the major decisions that affects it's work?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know ☐ ☐

If no, can you give an example : ....

....

.... ☐

Q.6 Which one of these four statements comes nearest to describing the decision-making process in matters that affect your work?

Manager/Supervisor and all members make the decision together through a consensus ☐

Manager/Supervisor makes a final decision independently after consulting all members ☐

Manager/Supervisor makes decision after informing all members ☐

Manager/Supervisor makes decision and does not inform members ☐ ☐

Q.7 a) Does your work involve communication with other departments?

Yes ☐ No ☐ ☐

b) If Yes, which one of the following describes how communication works?

It is quite difficult to get the information we need. ☐

People are usually quite willing, but there's a lot of confusion and misunderstanding. ☐

There are a number of problems, but usually we work them out quite well. ☐

We get all the information we need. Other people are helpful and cooperative. ☐ ☐

Please illustrate your answer? . . . .

. . . .

. . . . ☐

c) Is there any change that you can think of that would improve communication?

. . . .

. . . . ☐

Q.8 a) How helpful do you think the existing organisational structure is in :

	Helpful	Unhelpful
Facilitating communication in your department?	☐	☐
Getting the work done?	☐	☐
The decision-making process?	☐	☐

b) What changes in structure would improve any of the above problems?

. . . .

. . . .

. . . . ☐

Q.9 Looking at procedures and regulations, which one of the statements describes the way work is done in your department :

Very tightly governed by written procedures and regulations. ☐

Largely governed by written procedures with staff having some discretion. ☐

Rules only giving general guidelines, staff have some discretion. ☐

Staff are expected to be aware of general policy, but there are no rigid procedures applying in my work. ☐ ☐

Q.10 Here are some statements about how people view their work. Mark the most important with **1**, the next most important with **2**, the next with **3**, then **4**, then **5**, and finally **6** for the least important.

"The main attraction in any job is simply the pay you get. That is the main reason for determining what is a good job". ☐

"The main attraction in a job is the security it offers. I would prefer a job which pays less if it offers more security". ☐

"The main attraction in a job is the opportunity it offers to work with other people. I'd hate to be stuck away on my own somewhere". ☐

"What I like is the chance to achieve something. I want to be able to look back at a job and say that I did it". ☐

"I like a job that gives you an ability to control resources or to influence events". ☐

"Above all, I want someone to recognise when I've done a good job". ☐ ☐

Q.11 I'd like you to think of a specific time here when your work was specially satisfying. In a few sentences, tell me what you were doing at that time and what made you feel good about it.

. . . .

. . . .

. . . .

. . . .

. . . .

. . . . ☐

Q.12 Now think of the opposite. When working here was really upsetting you and you felt very dissatisfied. Again, tell us what your job was about, and what was it that really made you pretty fed-up with it?

. . . .

. . . .

. . . .

. . . .

. . . .

. . . . ☐

Q.13 How committed, in your view, is the University to staff training and development?

Yes, definite commitment ☐

Yes, but other priorities more important ☐

No, but will give some support ☐

No, just going through the motions ☐ ☐

Q.14 When did you last receive 'off-the-job' training? (This includes college-based courses on day release; block release course; distance learning; correspondence courses; seminars; etc, away from the work.)

Within the last six months ☐

Between six months and a year ago ☐

Between a year and two years ago ☐

More than two years ago ☐

Never ☐

Cannot remember ☐ ☐

Q.15 How useful was this training in developing your work role within the University?

Very useful ☐

Of some use ☐

Little use ☐

Waste of time ☐

No training ☐ ☐

In what ways? . . . .

. . . .

. . . .

Q.16 Does the University make proper use of the skills people have acquired during training?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know ☐ ☐

Please illustrate your answer . . . .

. . . .

. . . .

Q.17 Look back at your reply to Question 14. Unless you answered "never" or "cannot remember", would you say that you received any information or evaluation ("feedback") on how well you were performing during or after that training event or programme? Please tick one box.

Yes, I got information at the time ☐

Yes, but the "feedback" was not enough ☐

Yes, but the "feedback" was after the training was over ☐

No, I didn't receive any feedback ☐☐

Q.18 Do you feel that the training and development programmes that you have received at the University have helped expand your skills?

Yes, very useful and applicable ☐

Yes, of some use ☐

Yes, in theory but not applicable in my work ☐

No, waste of time ☐

No training and development ☐☐

SECTION B

Employee Attitude Towards "Customers"

In lots of organisations nowadays, people who provide a service for other people or other units within the organisation are being asked to think about these people as if they were "customers". For some of us in universities we are asked to see "students" as customers, others of us have academic departments as our "customers", others may be providing services to other administrative units.

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There are standards set to make the definition of excellent service concrete and real to employees in the University.					
Employee performance is measured through customer's eyes as well as management.					
The University's rules and procedures are helpful in giving good service.					

Q.2 <u>The "Customer" You Dislike Dealing With</u>

Think of someone whom you are providing a service for – a "customer" of yours – whom you don't like dealing with. This does not have to be someone you dislike as a person – but he or she gives you more problems than most. Describe this person (or group of people) as he/she appears to you by circling the appropriate number on the scale.

Please circle a number on EVERY line

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Friendly	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Unfriendly	☐
Rejecting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Accepting	☐
Helpful	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Frustrating	☐
Unenthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Enthusiastic	☐
Tense	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Relaxed	☐
Distant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Close	☐
Cold	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Warm	☐
Cooperative	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Uncooperative	☐
Supportive	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Hostile	☐
Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Interesting	☐
Quarrelsome	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Harmonious	☐
Self–assured	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Hesitant	☐
Efficient	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Inefficient	☐
Gloomy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Cheerful	☐
Open	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Guarded	☐

Q.3 Is it your belief that top management really cares about customer service?

Yes, they are genuinely committed. ☐

No, its largely public relations, window dressing. ☐

Don't Know ☐ ☐

Q.4 Are customer complaints an important source of information?

Yes ☐ No ☐ ☐

Q.5 To what extent do employees receive training in dealing with "customers"?

Receive enough training ☐

Receive some training, but not enough ☐

No training in customer care ☐

Q.6 When did you last receive training in dealing with "customers" (include both on-the-job and off-the-job training)?

Within the last six months ☐

Between six months and a year ☐

Between a year and two years ago ☐

More than two years ago ☐

Never ☐

Cannot remember ☐ ☐

What form did this training take? . . . .

. . . .

. . . . ☐

Q.7 How useful was this training in helping you in your job?

Very useful ☐

Of some use ☐

Little use ☐

Waste of time ☐

No training ☐ ☐

Please explain your answer . . . .

. . . .

. . . . ☐

Q.8 For those who have undergone the above training :

a) Do you think that training has improved the way you deal with "customers"?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know ☐ ☐

Please explain your answer . . . .

. . . .

. . . .

. . . . ☐

b) Do you think that customer care training has improved the way staff in general deal with customers?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know ☐ ☐

Please explain your answer . . . .

. . . .

. . . .

. . . . ☐

Q.9 Would you say that your organisation sees one of its first priorities as being to serve its customers?

Yes, customer care is a first priority . . . . ☐

No, customer care is not a first priority . . . . ☐ ☐

Q.10 To what extent does top management show its commitment in trying to provide excellent service?

Very committed ☐

Committed ☐

Not so committed ☐

Not committed/lip service only ☐

No knowledge ☐ ☐

Why do you think this to be the case? . . . .

. . . .

. . . . ☐

Q.11 This section deals with customer service orientation. Please indicate in the boxes the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements below.

STATEMENTS ON CUSTOMER SERVICE ORIENTATION	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I feel personally involved towards the customer care issue.					
I feel that customers get too much attention.					
I respect customers' beliefs and values.					
I feel that there are too many customers to remember and know individually.					
I feel a sense of personal satisfaction when my customers are satisfied.					
Customer satisfaction has nothing to do with my motivation to perform.					
I think the customer care philosophy is essential for this organisation.					
I feel too busy to be concerned with customer needs.					
I am flexible in dealing with customers.					

APPENDIX B

Tables

TABLE 1

Education Level of Respondent

Sex of Respondent		NON-DEGREE	DEGREE	ROW TOTAL
	Male	25.5% 24 43.6%	44.3% 31 56.4%	55 33.5%
	Female	74.5% 70 64.2%	55.7% 39 35.8%	109 66.5%
	COLUMN TOTAL	94 57.3%	70 42.7%	164 100%

Number of missing observations = 7

TABLE 2

Age of Respondent

Sex of Respondent		< 25 YRS	25 - 45 YRS	46 - 65 YRS	ROW TOTAL
	Male	14.3% 2 3.4%	32.7% 33 56.9%	41.8% 23 39.7%	58 34.1%
	Female	85.7% 12 10.7%	67.3% 68 60.7%	58.2% 32 28.6%	112 65.9%
	COLUMN TOTAL	14 8.2%	101 59.4%	55 32.4%	170 100%

Number of missing observations = 1

TABLE 3

		Length of Time in Organization			
		0 - 5 yrs	6 - 15 yrs	16+ yrs	ROW TOTAL
Sex of Respondent	Male	26.7% 20 34.5%	38.6% 22 37.9%	42.1% 16 27.6%	58 34.1%
	Female	73.3% 55 49.1%	61.4% 35 31.3%	57.9% 22 19.6%	112 65.9%
	COLUMN TOTAL	75 44.1%	57 33.5%	38 22.4%	170 100%

Number of missing observations = 1

TABLE 4

		Education Level of Respondent		
		NON-DEGREE	DEGREE	ROW TOTAL
Age of Respondent	Under 25yrs	12.8% 12 85.7%	2.9% 2 14.3%	14 8.5%
	25 - 45 yrs	54.3% 51 54.3%	68.6% 48 48.5%	99 60.4%
	46 - 65 yrs	32.9% 31 60.8%	28.5% 20 39.2%	51 31.1%
	COLUMN TOTAL	94 57.3%	70 42.7%	164 100%

Number of missing observations = 7

TABLE 5

Length of Time in Organization

Age of Respondent	0 - 5 yrs	6 - 15 yrs	16+ yrs	ROW TOTAL
Under 25yrs	17.3% 13 92.9%	1.8% 1 7.1%	0	14 8.2%
25 - 45 yrs	69.3% 52 51.5%	57.9% 33 32.7%	42.1% 16 15.8%	101 59.4%
46 - 65 yrs	13.3% 10 18.2%	40.4% 23 41.8%	57.9% 22 40%	55 32.4%
COLUMN TOTAL	75 44.1%	57 33.5%	38 22.4%	170 100%

Number of missing observations = 1

TABLE 6

Education Level of Respondent

Length of Time in Organization	NON-DEGREE	DEGREE	ROW TOTAL
0 - 5 yrs	38.3% 36 48%	55.7% 39 52%	75 45.7%
6 - 15 yrs	36.2% 34 61.8%	30% 21 38.2%	55 33.5%
16 + yrs	25.5% 24 70.6%	14.3% 10 29.4%	34 20.7%
COLUMN TOTAL	94 57.3%	70 42.7%	164 100%

Number of missing observations = 7

TABLE 7

Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer × Check on Employee Attitude Towards Customer

	POSITIVE	NON - POSITIVE	ROW TOTAL
Non-positive attitude	55.4% 82 97.6%	50% 2 2.4%	84 55.3%
Positive attitude	44.6% 66 97.1%	50% 2 2.9%	68 44.7%
COLUMN TOTAL	148 97.4%	4 2.6%	152 100%

Number of missing observations = 19

TABLE 8

Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer × Customer Related Job Satisfaction

	NON-CUSTOMER RELATED	CUSTOMER RELATED	ROW TOTAL
Non-positive attitude	50.5% 49 71%	71.4% 20 29%	69 55.2%
Positive attitude	49.5% 48 85.7%	28.6% 8 14.3%	56 44.8%
COLUMN TOTAL	97 77.6%	28 22.4%	125 100%

Number of missing observations = 46

TABLE 9

Customer Related Job Satisfaction

Feel a Sense of Personal Satisfaction When My Customers are Satisfied

	NON-CUSTOMER RELATED	CUSTOMER RELATED	ROW TOTAL
Disagree	2.9% 3 100%	0	3 2.2%
Agree	97.1% 101 77.1%	100% 30 22.9%	131 97.8%
COLUMN TOTAL	104 77.6%	30 22.4%	134 100%

Number of missing observations = 37

TABLE 10

Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer

University

	NON-POSITIVE	POSITIVE	ROW TOTAL
University of Westcounty	25% 21 65.6%	16.2% 11 34.4%	32 21.1%
University of Southtown	17.9% 15 51.7%	20.6% 14 48.3%	29 19.1%
University of Northtown	40.5% 34 52.3%	45.6% 31 47.7%	65 42.8%
Newcity	16.7% 14 53.8%	17.6% 12 46.2%	26 17.1%
COLUMN TOTAL	84 55.3%	68 44.7%	152 100%

Number of missing observations = 19

TABLE 11

		Extent Employee Received Training in Customer Care		
		RECEIVED ENOUGH TRAINING	NO TRAINING	ROW TOTAL
Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer	Non-positive attitude	58.7% 71 85.5%	40% 12 14.5%	83 55%
	Positive attitude	41.3% 50 73.5%	60% 18 26.5%	68 45%
	COLUMN TOTAL	121 80.1%	30 19.9%	151 100%

Number of missing observations = 20

TABLE 12

		When Customer Care Training was Administered			
		LESS THAN 1 YR	MORE THAN 1YR	NEVER	ROW TOTAL
Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer	Non-positive attitude	55.7% 54 64.3%	66.7% 8 9.5%	51.2% 22 26.2%	84 55.3%
	Positive attitude	44.3% 43 63.2%	33.3% 4 5.9%	48.8% 21 30.9%	68 44.7%
	COLUMN TOTAL	97 63.8%	12 7.9%	43 28.3%	152 100%

Number of missing observations = 19

TABLE 13

Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer × Usefulness of Training in Helping Respondent in His/Her Job

	USEFUL	NOT USEFUL/ NONE	ROW TOTAL
Non-positive attitude	56.3% 54 67.5%	51% 26 32.5%	80 54.4%
Positive attitude	43.7% 42 62.7%	49% 25 37.3%	67 45.6%
COLUMN TOTAL	96 65.3%	51 34.7%	147 100%

Number of missing observations = 24

TABLE 14

Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer × Whether Customer Care Training Improved the Way Respondent Deal with Customers

	YES	NO	ROW TOTAL
Non-positive attitude	63.8% 30 52.6%	61.4% 27 47.4%	57 62.6%
Positive attitude	36.2% 17 50%	38.6% 17 50%	34 37.4%
COLUMN TOTAL	47 51.6%	44 48.4%	91 100%

Number of missing observations = 80

TABLE 15

Whether Customer Care Training Improved the Way Staff Deal with Customers

Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer		YES	NO	ROW TOTAL
	Non-positive attitude	64.4% 29 67.4%	43.8% 14 32.6%	43 55.8%
	Positive attitude	35.6% 16 47.1%	56.3% 18 52.9%	34 44.2%
	COLUMN TOTAL	45 58.4%	32 41.6%	77 100%

Number of missing observations = 94

TABLE 16

Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer

Respondent's Perception on Organizational communication		NON-POSITIVE ATTITUDE	POSITIVE ATTITUDE	ROW TOTAL
	Weakness	68.3% 56 58.9%	58.2% 39 41.1%	95 63.8%
	Strength	31.7% 26 48.1%	41.8% 28 51.9%	54 36.2%
	COLUMN TOTAL	82 55%	67 45%	149 100%

Number of missing observations = 22

TABLE 17

Respondent's Perception on Leadership skills (rows) by Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer (columns)

	NON-POSITIVE ATTITUDE	POSITIVE ATTITUDE	ROW TOTAL
Weakness	55% 45 57.7%	50% 33 42.3%	78 52.7%
Strength	45.1% 37 52.9%	50% 33 47.1%	70 47.3%
COLUMN TOTAL	82 55.4%	66 44.6%	148 100%

Number of missing observations = 23

TABLE 18

Respondent's Perception on Training and Development (rows) by Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer (columns)

	NON-POSITIVE ATTITUDE	POSITIVE ATTITUDE	ROW TOTAL
Weakness	47.4% 37 53.6%	47.8% 32 46.4%	69 47.6%
Strength	52.6% 41 53.9%	52.2% 35 46.1%	76 52.4%
COLUMN TOTAL	78 53.8%	67 46.2%	145 100%

Number of missing observations = 26

TABLE 19

Respondent's Perception on Clear Work Procedures × Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer

	NON-POSITIVE ATTITUDE	POSITIVE ATTITUDE	ROW TOTAL
Weakness	50.6% 40 58%	44.6% 29 42%	69 47.9%
Strength	49.4% 39 52%	55.4% 36 48%	75 52.1%
COLUMN TOTAL	79 54.9%	65 45.1%	144 100%

Number of missing observations = 27

TABLE 20

Respondent's Perception on Quality of Senior Management × Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer

	NON-POSITIVE ATTITUDE	POSITIVE ATTITUDE	ROW TOTAL
Weakness	46.8% 37 57.8%	40.3% 27 42.2%	64 43.8%
Strength	53.2% 42 51.2%	59.7% 40 48.8%	82 56.2%
COLUMN TOTAL	79 54.1%	67 45.9%	146 100%

Number of missing observations = 25

TABLE 21

Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer

Respondent's Perception on Fair Pay Scheme		NON-POSITIVE ATTITUDE	POSITIVE ATTITUDE	ROW TOTAL
	Weakness	42.1% 32 50%	51% 32 50%	64 46%
	Strength	58% 44 58.7%	49.2% 31 41.3%	75 54%
	COLUMN TOTAL	76 54.7%	63 45.3%	139 100%

Number of missing observations = 32

TABLE 22

Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer

Respondent's Perception on Fair Promotion System		NON-POSITIVE ATTITUDE	POSITIVE ATTITUDE	ROW TOTAL
	Weakness	54.4% 41 49.4%	64.6% 42 50.6%	83 58.5%
	Strength	45.6% 36 61%	35.4% 23 39%	59 41.5%
	COLUMN TOTAL	77 54.2%	65 45.8%	142 100%

Number of missing observations = 29

TABLE 23

Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer

Respondent's Perception of Supervisor Behaviour		NON-POSITIVE ATTITUDE	POSITIVE ATTITUDE	ROW TOTAL
	People oriented	68.4% 54 54%	72% 46 46%	100 69.9%
	Task oriented	31.6% 25 58.2%	28.1% 18 41.9%	43 30.1%
	COLUMN TOTAL	79 55.2%	64 44.8%	143 100%

Number of missing observations = 28

TABLE 24

University Commitment to Staff Training and Development

Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer		YES	NO	ROW TOTAL
	Non-positive attitude	56.8% 67 80.7%	50% 16 19.3%	83 55.3%
	Positive attitude	43.2% 51 76.1%	50% 16 23.9%	67 44.7%
	COLUMN TOTAL	118 78.7%	32 21.3%	150 100%

Number of missing observations = 21

TABLE 25

When off-the-Job Training was Administered

Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer

	LESS THAN 1 YR	MORE THAN 1YR	NEVER	ROW TOTAL
Non-positive attitude	56.7% 51 61.4%	51.7% 15 18.1%	53.1% 17 20.5%	83 55.0%
Positive attitude	43.3% 39 57.4%	48.3% 14 20.6%	46.9% 15 22%	68 45.0%
COLUMN TOTAL	90 59.6%	29 19.2%	32 21.2%	151 100%

Number of missing observations = 20

TABLE 26

Usefulness of Training

Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer

	USEFUL	WASTE OF TIME	ROW TOTAL
Non-positive attitude	56.7% 59 90.8%	42.9% 6 9.2%	65 55.1%
Positive attitude	43.3% 45 84.9%	57.1% 8 15.1%	53 44.9%
COLUMN TOTAL	104 88.1%	14 11.9%	118 100%

Number of missing observations = 53

TABLE 27

Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer × Whether the University Makes Proper Use of Skills Acquired

Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer	YES	NO	ROW TOTAL
Non-positive attitude	54.3% 25 54.3%	53.8% 21 45.7%	46 54.1%
Positive attitude	45.7% 21 53.8%	46.2% 18 46.2%	39 45.9%
COLUMN TOTAL	46 54.1%	39 45.9%	85 100%

Number of missing observations = 86

TABLE 28

Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer × Usefulness of Training in Terms of Whether it Helped Expand Respondent's Skills

Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer	USEFUL	IRRELEVANT/ NONE	ROW TOTAL
Non-positive attitude	55.6% 65 85.5%	52.4% 11 14.5%	76 55.1%
Positive attitude	44.4% 52 83.9%	47.6% 10 16.1%	62 44.9%
COLUMN TOTAL	117 84.8%	21 15.2%	138 100%

Number of missing observations = 33

TABLE 29

Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer

Age of Respondent		NON-POSITIVE ATTITUDE	POSITIVE ATTITUDE	ROW TOTAL
	Under 25yrs	7.1% 6 54.5%	7.5% 5 45.5%	11 7.3%
	25 - 45 yrs	66.7% 56 63.6%	47.8% 32 36.4%	88 58.3%
	46 - 65 yrs	26.2% 22 42.3%	44.8% 30 57.7%	52 34.4%
	COLUMN TOTAL	84 55.6%	67 44.4%	151 100%

Number of missing observations = 20

TABLE 30

Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer

Sex of Respondent		NON-POSITIVE ATTITUDE	POSITIVE ATTITUDE	ROW TOTAL
	Male	31% 26 50%	38.8% 26 50%	52 34.4%
	Female	69% 58 58.6%	61.2% 41 41.4%	99 65.6%
	COLUMN TOTAL	84 55.6%	67 44.4%	151 100%

Number of missing observations = 20

TABLE 31

Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer

Length of Time in Organization		NON-POSITIVE ATTITUDE	POSITIVE ATTITUDE	ROW TOTAL
	0 - 5 yrs	15.5% 38 58.5%	40.3% 27 41.5%	65 43%
	6 - 15 yrs	33.3% 28 54.9%	34.3% 23 45.1%	51 33.8%
	16+ yrs	51.2% 18 51.4%	25.4% 17 48.6%	35 23.2%
	COLUMN TOTAL	84 55.6%	67 44.4%	151 100%

Number of missing observations = 20

TABLE 32

Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer

Education Level of Respondent		NON-POSITIVE ATTITUDE	POSITIVE ATTITUDE	ROW TOTAL
	Non-degree	56.3% 45 54.9%	56.9% 37 45.1%	82 56.6%
	Degree	43.7% 35 55.6%	43.1% 28 44.4%	63 43.4%
	COLUMN TOTAL	80 55.2%	65 44.8%	145 100%

Number of missing observations = 26

TABLE 33

Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer

Respondent's First Choice Value Orientation

	NON-POSITIVE ATTITUDE	POSITIVE ATTITUDE	ROW TOTAL
Pay most important	8.5% 7 70%	4.5% 3 30%	10 6.7%
Security most important	1.2% 1 20%	6% 4 80%	5 3.4%
Affiliation most important	6.1% 5 71.4%	3% 2 2.6%	7 4.7%
Achievement most important	65.9% 54 56.3%	62.7% 42 43.7%	96 64.4%
Control most important	8.5% 7 38.9%	16.4% 11 61.1%	18 12.1%
Recognition most important	9.8% 8 61.5%	7.5% 5 38.5%	13 8.7%
COLUMN TOTAL	82 55%	67 45%	149 100%

Number of missing observations = 22

TABLE 34

Respondent's Attitude Towards Customer

Respondent's Second Choice Value Orientation

	NON-POSITIVE ATTITUDE	POSITIVE ATTITUDE	ROW TOTAL
Pay 2nd most important	6.4% 5 62.5%	4.7% 3 37.5%	8 5.6%
Security 2nd most important	10.3% 8 61.5%	7.8% 5 38.5%	13 9.2%
Affiliation 2nd most important	7.7% 6 35.3%	17.2% 11 64.7%	17 12%
Achievement 2nd most important	12.8% 10 38.5%	25% 16 61.5%	26 18.3%
Control 2nd most important	38.5% 30 66.7%	23.4% 15 33.3%	45 31.7%
Recognition 2nd most important	24.4% 19 57.6%	21.9% 14 42.4%	33 23.2%
COLUMN TOTAL	78 54.9%	64 45.1%	142 100%

Number of missing observations = 29

TABLE 35

Respondent's Perception on Organizational communication

University		WEAKNESS	STRENGTH	ROW TOTAL
University	University of Westcounty	26.5% 27 79.4%	10.6% 7 20.6%	34 20.2%
	University of Southtown	18.6% 19 63.3%	16.7% 11 36.7%	30 17.9%
	University of Northtown	39.3% 40 51.9%	56.1% 37 48.1%	77 45.8%
	Newcity	15.7% 16 59.3%	16.7% 11 40.7%	27 16.1%
	COLUMN TOTAL	102 60.7%	66 39.3%	168 100%

Number of missing observations = 3

TABLE 36

Respondent's Perception on Leadership skills

University		WEAKNESS	STRENGTH	ROW TOTAL
University	University of Westcounty	27.1% 23 69.7%	12.2% 10 30.3%	33 19.8%
	University of Southtown	20% 17 56.7%	15.9% 13 43.3%	30 18%
	University of Northtown	36.5% 31 40.3%	56.1% 46 59.7%	77 46.1%
	Newcity	16.5% 14 51.9%	15.9% 13 48.1%	27 16.2%
	COLUMN TOTAL	85 50.9%	82 49.1%	167 100%

Number of missing observations = 4

TABLE 37

Respondent's Perception on Training and Development

University		WEAKNESS	STRENGTH	ROW TOTAL
	University of Westcounty	18.4% 14 45.2%	19.5% 17 54.8%	31 19%
	University of Southtown	28.9% 22 75.9%	8% 7 24.1%	29 17.8%
	University of Northtown	39.5% 30 39.5%	52.9% 46 60.5%	76 46.6%
	Newcity	13.2% 10 37%	19.5% 17 63%	27 16.6%
	COLUMN TOTAL	76 46.6%	87 53.4%	163 100%

Number of missing observations = 8

TABLE 38

Respondent's Perception on Clear Work Procedures

University		WEAKNESS	STRENGTH	ROW TOTAL
	University of Westcounty	22.1% 17 54.8%	16.7% 14 45.2%	31 19.3%
	University of Southtown	13% 10 35.7%	21.4% 18 64.3%	28 17.4%
	University of Northtown	49.4% 38 50%	45.2% 38 50%	76 47.2%
	Newcity	15.6% 12 46.2%	16.7% 14 53.8%	26 16.1%
	COLUMN TOTAL	77 47.8%	84 52.2%	161 100%

Number of missing observations = 10

TABLE 39

Respondent's perception on
Quality of Senior Management

University		WEAKNESS	STRENGTH	ROW TOTAL
	University of Westcounty	32.4% 22 66.7%	11.5% 11 33.3%	33 20.1%
	University of Southtown	16.2% 11 37.9%	18.8% 18 62.1%	29 17.7%
	University of Northtown	36.8% 25 33.3%	52.1% 50 66.7%	75 45.7%
	Newcity	14.7% 10 37%	17.7% 17 63%	27 16.5%
	COLUMN TOTAL	68 41.5%	96 58.5%	164 100%

Number of missing observations = 7

TABLE 40

Respondent's Perception
on Fair Pay Scheme

University		WEAKNESS	STRENGTH	ROW TOTAL
	University of Westcounty	20.55 15 51.7%	16.9% 14 48.3%	29 18.6%
	University of Southtown	16.4% 12 41.4%	20.5% 17 58.6%	29 18.6%
	University of Northtown	52.1% 38 51.4%	43.4% 36 48.6%	74 47.4%
	Newcity	11% 8 33.3%	19.3% 16 66.7%	24 15.4%
	COLUMN TOTAL	73 46.8%	83 53.2%	156 100%

Number of missing observations = 15

TABLE 41

Respondent's Perception on Fair Promotion System

University		WEAKNESS	STRENGTH	ROW TOTAL
	University of Westcounty	22.3% 21 70%	13.8% 9 30%	30 18.9%
	University of Southtown	12.8% 12 40%	27.7% 18 60%	30 18.9%
	University of Northtown	51.1% 48 64.9%	40% 26 35.1%	74 46.5%
	Newcity	13.8% 13 52%	18.5% 12 48%	25 15.7%
	COLUMN TOTAL	94 59.1%	65 40.9%	159 100%

Number of missing observations = 12

TABLE 42

Respondent's Perception on supervisor behaviour

University		PEOPLE ORIENTED	TASK ORIENTED	ROW TOTAL
	University of Westcounty	12.4% 14 42.4%	39.6% 19 57.6%	33 20.5%
	University of Southtown	18.6% 21 72.4%	16.7% 8 27.6%	29 18%
	University of Northtown	51.3% 58 80.6%	29.2% 14 19.4%	72 44.7%
	Newcity	17.7% 20 74.1%	14.6% 7 25.9%	27 16.8%
	COLUMN TOTAL	113 70.2%	48 29.8%	161 100%

Number of missing observations = 10

TABLE 43

University Commitment to Staff Training and Development

University		YES	NO	ROW TOTAL
University	University of Westcounty	16% 21 63.6%	31.6% 12 36.4%	33 19.5%
	University of Southtown	15.3% 20 66.7%	26.3% 10 33.3%	30 17.8%
	University of Northtown	50.4% 66 83.5%	34.2% 13 16.5%	79 46.7%
	Newcity	18.3% 24 88.9%	7.9% 3 11.1%	27 16.0%
	COLUMN TOTAL	131 77.5%	38 22.5%	169 100%

Number of missing observations = 2

TABLE 44

When off-the-job Training was Administered

University		Less Than 1 yr	More Than 1 yr	NEVER	ROW TOTAL
University	University of Westcounty	16.2% 16 47.1%	31.3% 10 29.4%	20.5% 8 23.5%	34 20%
	University of Southtown	16.2% 16 55.2%	3.1% 1 3.4%	30.8% 12 41.4%	29 17.1%
	University of Northtown	47.5% 47 58.8%	46.9% 15 18.8%	46.2% 18 22.5%	80 47.1%
	Newcity	20.2% 20 74.1%	18.8% 6 22.2%	2.6% 1 3.7%	27 15.9%
	COLUMN TOTAL	99 58.2%	32 18.8%	39 22.9%	170 100%

Number of missing observations = 1

TABLE 45

Usefulness of Training

University		USEFUL	WASTE OF TIME	ROW TOTAL
University	University of Westcounty	18.3% 21 84%	25% 4 16%	25 19.1%
	University of Southtown	13% 15 88.2%	12.5% 2 11.8%	17 13%
	University of Northtown	47.8% 55 87.3%	50% 8 12.7%	63 48.1%
	Newcity	20.9% 24 92.3%	12.5% 2 7.7%	26 19.8%
	COLUMN TOTAL	115 87.8%	16 12.2%	131 100%

Number of missing observations = 40

TABLE 46

Whether the University Makes Proper Use of Skills Acquired

University		YES	NO	ROW TOTAL
University	University of Westcounty	11.8% 6 30%	31.1% 14 70%	20 20.8%
	University of Southtown	17.6% 9 56.3%	15.6% 7 43.8%	16 16.7%
	University of Northtown	49% 25 55.6%	44.4% 20 44.4%	45 46.9%
	Newcity	21.6% 11 73.3%	8.9% 4 26.7%	15 15.6%
	COLUMN TOTAL	51 53.1%	45 46.9%	96 100%

Number of missing observations = 75

TABLE 47

Usefulness of Training in Terms of Whether it Helped Expand Respondent's Skills

University	USEFUL	IRRELEVANT/ NONE	ROW TOTAL
University of Westcounty	16.8% 22 75.9%	29.2% 7 24.1%	29 18.7%
University of Southtown	10.7% 14 66.7%	29.2% 7 33.3%	21 13.5%
University of Northtown	55.7% 73 93.6%	20.8% 5 6.4%	78 50.3%
Newcity	16.8% 22 81.5%	20.8% 5 18.5%	27 17.4%
COLUMN TOTAL	131 84.5%	24 15.5%	155 100%

Number of missing observations = 16

TABLE 48

Age of Respondent

University	< 25 YRS	25 - 45 YRS	45 - 65 YRS	ROW TOTAL
University of Westcounty	33.3% 5 14.7%	14.9% 15 44.1%	25.5% 14 41.2%	34 19.9%
University of Southtown	13.3% 2 6.7%	20.8% 21 70%	12.7% 7 23.3%	30 17.5%
University of Northtown	46.7% 7 8.8%	47.5% 48 60%	45.5% 25 31.2%	80 46.8%
Newcity	6.7% 1 3.7%	16.8% 17 63%	16.4% 9 33.3%	27 15.8%
COLUMN TOTAL	15 8.8%	101 59.1%	55 32.1%	171 100%

Number of missing observations = 0

TABLE 49

Sex of Respondent

University		MALE	FEMALE	ROW TOTAL
University	University of Westcounty	10.3% 6 17.6%	25% 28 82.4%	34 20%
	University of Southtown	17.2% 10 34.5%	17% 19 65.5%	29 17.1%
	University of Northtown	50% 29 36.3%	45.5% 51 63.8%	80 47.1%
	Newcity	22.4% 13 48.1%	12.5% 14 51.9%	27 15.8%
	COLUMN TOTAL	58 34.1%	112 65.9%	170 100%

Number of missing observations = 1

TABLE 50

Education Level of Respondent

University		NON-DEGREE	DEGREE	ROW TOTAL
University	University of Westcounty	21.3% 20 62.5%	17.1% 12 37.5%	32 19.5%
	University of Southtown	18.1% 17 63%	14.3% 10 37%	27 16.5%
	University of Northtown	43.6% 41 52.6%	52.9% 37 47.4%	78 47.6%
	Newcity	17% 16 59.3%	15.7% 11 40.7%	27 16.5%
	COLUMN TOTAL	94 57.3%	70 42.7%	164 100%

Number of missing observations = 7

TABLE 51

Length of Time in Organization

University		0 - 5 YRS	6 - 15 YRS	16+ YRS	ROW TOTAL
	University of Westcounty	22.7% 17 50%	19.3% 11 32.4%	15.8% 6 17.6%	34 20%
	University of Southtown	17.3% 13 44.8%	15.8% 9 31%	18.4% 7 24.2%	29 17.1%
	University of Northtown	46.7% 35 43.8%	43.9% 25 31.3%	52.6% 20 24.9%	80 47.1%
	Newcity	13.3% 10 37%	21.1% 12 44.4%	13.2% 5 18.6%	27 15.9%
	COLUMN TOTAL	75 44.1%	57 33.5%	38 22.4%	170 100%

Number of missing observations = 1

TABLE 52

Respondent's First Choice Value Orientation

University		PAY	SECURITY	AFFILIATION	ACHIEVEMENT	CONTROL	RECOGNITION	ROW TOTAL
University	University of Westcounty	36.4% 4 12.1%	28.6% 2 6.1%	14.3% 1 3%	20.2% 22 66.7%	10% 2 6.1%	14.3% 2 6.1%	33 19.6%
	University of Southtown	9.1% 1 3.4%	9.1% 1 3.4%	42.9% 3 10.3%	17.4% 19 65.5%	15% 3 10.3%	14.3% 2 6.9%	29 17.3%
	University of Northtown	36.4% 4 5.1%	9.1% 1 1.3%	14.3% 1 1.3%	49.5% 54 68.4	60% 12 15.2%	50% 7 8.9%	79 47%
	Newcity	18.2% 2 7.4%	42.9% 3 11.1%	28.6% 2 7.4%	12.8% 14 51.9%	15% 3 11.1%	21.4% 3 11.1%	27 16.1%
	COLUMN TOTAL	11 6.5%	7 4.2%	7 4.2%	109 64.9%	20 11.9%	14 8.3%	168 100%

Number of missing observations = 3

TABLE 53

Respondent's Second Choice Value Orientation

University		PAY	SECURITY	AFFILIATION	ACHIEVEMENT	CONTROL	RECOGNITION	ROW TOTAL
	University of Westcounty	*44.4%* 4 *12.1%*	*13.3%* 2 *6.1%*	*21.1%* 4 *12.1%*	*14.8%* 4 *12.1%*	*19.6%* 10 *30.3%*	*23.1%* 9 *27.3%*	33 20.6%
	University of Southtown	*22.2%* 2 *7.1%*	*20%* 3 *10.7%*	*26.3%* 5 *17.9%*	*22.2%* 6 *21.4%*	*11.8%* 6 *21.4%*	*19.4%* 6 *21.4%*	28 17.5%
	University of Northtown	*11.1%* 1 *1.4%*	*40%* 6 *8.1%*	*47.4%* 9 *12.2%*	*44.4%* 12 *16.2%*	*51%* 26 *35.1%*	*51.3%* 20 *27%*	74 46.3%
	Newcity	*22.2%* 2 *8%*	*26.7%* 4 *16%*	*5.3%* 1 *4%*	*18.5%* 5 *20%*	*17.6%* 9 *36%*	*10.3%* 4 *16%*	25 15.6%
	COLUMN TOTAL	9 5.6%	15 9.4%	19 11.9%	27 16.9%	51 31.9%	39 24.4%	160 100%

Number of missing observations = 11

APPENDIX C

Descriptive Commentary

TABLE 1

Men made up 33.5% while women made up 66.5% of the sample. 57.3% were non-degree holders, the remaining 42.7% were degree holders. Of the men, 43.6% were non-degree holders while degree holders made up of 56.4%. Women employees were majority non-degree holders with a percentage of 64.2%, and 35.8% were degree holders.

TABLE 2

34.1% were men while 65.7% were women. The age distribution was as follows: under 25 years 8.2%, 25–45 years 59.4%, and 46–65 years 32.4%. Of the men, 3.4% were under 25, 56.9% were between 25–45 years, and 39.7% were between 46–65 years. On the other hand, the women comprised of 10.7% in the under 25, 60.7% between 25–45 years, and 28.6% between 46–65 years.

TABLE 3

Men comprised of 34.1% while women made up 65.9%. 44.1% worked with the organization for at least five years or less, 33.5% served for 6–15 years, and finally 22.4% have been in service for 16 years and over. Of the male employees, 34.5% served for 5 years or less, 37.9% between 6–15 years, and 27.6% for 16 years and over. On the other hand, female employees had a majority of 49.1% who have worked for five years or less, 31.3% served between 6–15 years, and 19.6% served for 16 years and over.

TABLE 4

The age distribution was as follows: 8.5% were under 25 years, 60.4% were between 25–45 years, and 31.1% were between 46–65 years. Non-degree holders were 57.3% while 42.7% were degree holders. Of the non-degree holders, 12.8% were under 25 years old, 54.3% were between 25–45 years, and 32.9% were between 46–65 years. On the other hand, degree holders consisted of 2.9% in the under 25 age group, 68.6% in the 25–45 age group, and finally 28.5% in the 46–65 age group.

TABLE 5

The under 25 made up 8.2% of sample, the 25–45 years were 59.4%, and the oldest age group of 46–65 years were 32.4%. 44.1% have been in service for five years or less, 33.5% served between 6–15 years, and finally 22.4% worked for 16 years and over. For the group who worked for five years or less, 17.3% were under 25 years, 69.3% were in the 25–45 age group, and 13.3% were in the 46–65 age group. Employees who have served between 6–15 years had a majority of 57.9% in the 25–46 age group, 40.4% in the 46–65 age group, and finally 1.8% in the under 25 years. Lastly, for those who have been in service for 16 years and over, 57.9% were in the

46–65 age group, and the remaining 42.1% in the 25–45 age group.

TABLE 6

The percentage breakdown for length of service was as follows: 45.7% in five years or less time frame, 33.5% in 6–15 years time frame, and 20.7% in the 16 years and over. Non–degree holders were 57.3% while degree holders were 42.7%. Of the degree holders, 38.3% have been in service for five years or less, 36.2% between 6–15 years, and 25.5% for 16 years and over. Degree holders had 55.7% who have served for five years or less, 30% served beteen 6–15 years, and the remaining 14.3% for 16 years and over.

TABLE 7

Accoding to the lpccode measure of employee attitudes, 55.3% were non–positive while the remaining 44.7% were positive. On the other hand, the check measure of attitudes indicated that 97.4% were positive and 2.6% were not. Of the 97.4% who were so–called positive, 55.4% revealed a non–positive attitude while 44.6% revealed a positive. In addition, the 2.6% who claimed to be non–positive, 50% fell into the non–positive category while the other 50% fell into the positive category.

TABLE 8

55.2% showed a non–positive attitude while 44.8% showed a positive attitude. 77.6% did not report customer related job satisfaction, the remaining 22.4% reported customer related job satisfaction. Of those who were non–positive, 71.0% did not reported customer–related job satisfaction, while only 29.0% did report customer–related job satisfaction. On the other hand, of those who revealed a positive attitude, 85.7% did not report customer–related job satisfaction, and only 14.3% reported customer–related job satisfaction.

TABLE 9

An overwhelming majority of 97.8% agreed that they felt a sense of personal satisfactin when customers were satisfied. Only 2.2% disagree to the statement. In addition, 77.6% did not report customer–related job satisfaction, while 22.4% did. Of those who disagreed that they felt a sense of personal satisfaction when customers were satisfied, 100% did not report customer related job satisfaction. Of those who agreed to the statement, 77.1% did not report customer related job satisfaction, and 22.9% did.

TABLE 10

Sample comprised of 21.1% from Westcounty university, 19.1% from Southtown university, 42.8% from Northtown university, and 17.1% from Newcity. 55.3% revealed a non-positive attitude, while the remaining 44.7% were positive. The sample response from Westcounty had 65.6% who were non-positive, while 34.4% were positive. Southtown had 51.7% who were non-positive, and 48.3% who were positive; Northtown had 52.3% of respondents who fell in the non-positive category, and 47.7% who were positive; finally Newcity had 53.8% of its sample responses who revealed a non-positive attitude, and 46.2% in the positive category.

TABLE 11

55.0% fell into the non-positive category, while the rest comprising of 45.0% fell into the positive category. 80.1% received training, whether some or enough, the remaining 19.9% did not receive training at all. Of those who received training, 58.7% were non-positive and 41.3% were positive. On the other hand, of those who did not undergo training 40.0% were non-positive, and 60.0% were positive.

TABLE 12

Non-positive respondents made up 55.3%, while positive respondents made up 44.7%. 63.8% had training within less than one year, 7.9% had training more than a year ago, and 28.3% never had training. Of those who had training within the year, 55.7% were non-positive, 44.3% were positive. Of those who had training more than a year ago, 66.7% were non-positive, 33.3% were positive. Finally, those who did not have training, 51.2% were non-positive, and 48.8% were non-positive.

TABLE 13

54.4% were non-positive, while 45.6% were positive. 65.3% of respondents thought training was useful while the remaining 34.7% felt otherwise or did not have training. Of those who felt that training was useful, 56.3% were non-positive, 43.7% were positive. Of those who felt that training was not useful or did not have training, 51.0% were non-positive, and 49.0% were positive.

TABLE 14

62.6% were non-positive and 37.4% were positive. 51.6% felt that customer care training improved the way they dealt with customers, while 48.4% felt otherwise. Of those who answered "yes," 63.8% were non-positive, while 36.2% were positive. On the other hand, those who answered "no," 61.4% were non-positive, and the remaining 38.6% were positive.

TABLE 15

55.8% were non-positive and 44.2% were positive. 58.4% felt that customer care training improved the way staff dealt with customers, while 41.6% felt otherwise. Of those who said "yes" 64.4% were non-positive, and 35.6% were positive. Ironically, of those who said "no" 43.8% were non-positive, and the remaining 56.3% were positive.

TABLE 16

Organizational communication was viewed as a weakness by 63.8% of respondents, 36.2% felt it was a strength. Of the total, 55.0% were non-positive respondents while the remaining 45.0% were positive. Of those who evaluated communication unfavourably, 58.9% were non-positive, and 41.1% were positive. Of those who rated communication favourably, 48.1% were non-positive, and 51.9% were positive.

TABLE 17

A slight majority of 52.7% of respondents felt that leadership skills was an organizational strength, while 47.3% felt otherwise. 55.4% were non-positive, and 44.6% were positive. Of those who felt that leadership was a weakness, 57.7% were non-positive while 42.3% were positive. On the other hand, of those who felt that leadership skills was a strength, 52.9% were non-positive while 47.1% were positive.

TABLE 18

A slight minority of 47.6% felt that training and development was a weakness, while the remaining 52.4% felt it was a strength. 53.8% were non-positive while 46.2% were positive. Of those who felt unfavourable towards training and development, 53.6% were non-positive, while 46.4% were positive. Of those who felt favourably towards training and development, 53.9% were non-positive while 46.1% were positive.

TABLE 19

Respondents who thought work procedures were unsatisfactory made up 47.9%, while 52.1% were satisfied. 54.9% revealed a non-positive attitude, while 45.1% revealed otherwise. Of those respondents who felt that work procedures were an organizational weakness, 58.0% were non-positive while 42.0% were positive. Of those who felt that work procedures were an organizational strength, 52.0% were non-positive while 48% were positive.

TABLE 20

A minority of 43.8% thought quality of senior management was a weakness, while the remaining 56.2% thought otherwise. Non-positive respondents made up 54.1% of sample, while 45.9% made up of positive respondents. Of those who rated quality of senior management as unfavourable, 57.8% were non–positive, while 42.2% were positive. On the other hand, of those who rated quality of senior management as a strength, 51.2% were non–positive while 48.8% were positive.

TABLE 21

Respondents who felt that the pay scheme was an organizational weakness made up 46.0% of the sample, while 54.0% felt otherwise. 54.7% were non–positive towards the customer, while 45.3% were positive. Of those who felt discontented about the pay scheme, 50.0% were non–positive and the other 50.0% were positive. Of those who were contented, 58.7% were non–positive while the remaining 41.3% were positive.

TABLE 22

58.5% were unfavourble towards the promotion system, while 41.5% were favourable. 54.2% revealed a non–positive towards the customer, 45.8% were positive. Of those dissatisfied with the promotion system, 49.4% were non–positive, while 50.6% were positive. Of those satisfied with the promotion system, 61.0% were non–positive, while 39.0% were positive.

TABLE 23

Supervisor behaviour was perceived to be people oriented by 69.9% of respondents, while 30.1% thought it was task oriented. 55.2% were non–positive towards the customer, while 44.8% were positive. Of those who felt the supervisor behaviour was people oriented, 54.0% were non–positive, while 46.0% were positive. Of those who felt that supervisor behaviour was task oriented, 58.2% were non–positive, while 41.9% were positive.

TABLE 24

78.7% of respondents felt that the university was committed to staff training and development, while 21.3% thought otherwise. 55.3% revealed a non–positive towards the customer, while 44.7% revealed a positive. Of those who answered affirmatively to universtiy commitment to stafff training and development, 56.8% were non–positive, while 43.2% were positive. On the other hand, of those who felt otherwise, 50.0% showed a non–positive attitude while the other 50.0% showed a positive attitude.

TABLE 25

59.6% of respondents had training less than one year ago, 19.2% had training more than one year ago, and finally 21.2% never had training at all. 55.0% were non–

positive towards the customer, while 45.0% were positive. Of those who had training within a year ago, 56.7% were non–positive, while 43.3% were positive. Of those who had training more than one year ago, 51.7% were non–positive, while 48.3% were positive. Of those who never had training, 53.1% were non–positive, while 46.9% were positive.

TABLE 26

88.1% of respondents thought that training was useful, while the remaining 11.9% thought it was a waste of time. 55.1% showed a non–positive attitude towards the customer, while 44.9% showed a positive attitude. Of those who thought the training was useful, 56.7% were non–positive, while 43.3% were positive. Of those who felt that it was a waste of time, 42.9% were non–positive, while 57.1% were positive.

TABLE 27

54.1% of respondents said that the university made proper use of skills acquired, while 45.9% thought otherwise. 54.1% were non–positive towards the customer, while 45.9% were positive. Of those who thought that the university made proper use of skills acquired, 54.3% were non–positive, while 45.7% were positive. Of those who felt otherwise, 53.8% were non–positive, while 46.2% were positive.

TABLE 28

84.8% of respondents thought that training helped expand their skills, while 15.2% thought that it was irrelevant or did not have training at all. 55.1% were non–positive towards the customer, while 44.9% were positive. Of those who said that training helped expand their skills, 55.6% were non–positive, while 44.4% were positive. Of those who said it was irrelevant, or those who did not have training, 52.4% were non–positive, while 47.6% were positive.

TABLE 29

7.3% of respondents were under 25 years old, 58.3% were between 25–45 years old, and finally 34.4% were between 46–65 years old. 55.6% revealed a non–positive attitude, while the remaining 44.4% revealed a positive attitude. Of those who were in the youngest age group of under 25 years, 54.5% were non–positive and 45.5% were positive. Of those in the middle age group of 25–45 years, 63.6% were non–positive, while 36.4% were positive. Finally, of those who were in the oldest age group of 46–65 years, 42.3% non–positive, and the rest comprising of 57.7% were positive.

TABLE 30

Men constituted 34.4%, while women made up the remaining 65.6%. 55.6% were non–positive, while 44.4% were positive. Of the men, 50.0% were non–positive, while the other 50.0% were positive. On the other hand, the women respondents had 58.6% who were non–positive, and 41.4% who fell into the positive category.

TABLE 31

43.0% of respondents served their organization for five years at the most, 33.8% have been in service between 6–15 years, and finally 23.2% worked for at least 16 years. 55.6% were non–positive towards the customer, while 44.4% were positive. Of those who worked for five years or less, 58.5% were non–positive and 41.5% were positive. Of those who have been with the organization between 6–15 years, 54.9% were non–positive, and 45.1% were positive. Finally, of those who have worked the longest period of at least 16 years, 51.4% fell into the non–positive category, while 48.6% fell into the positive category.

TABLE 32

Non–degree holders were 56.6%, while degree holders were 43.4%; 55.6% fell into the non–positive category, while 44.8% fell into the positive category. Of the non–degree holders, 54.9% were non–positive and 45.1% were positive. Of the degree holders, 55.6% were non–positive, while 44.4% were positive.

TABLE 33

The ranking of the most important value orientation was as follows: acheivement with 64.4%, control with 12.1%, recognition with 8.7%, pay with 6.7%, affiliation with 4.7%, and security with 3.4%. 55.0% revealed a non–positive attitude, while 45.0% were positive. Of those who chose pay as most important value orientation, 70.0% were non–positive, while 30.0% were positive. Of those who chose security, 20.0% were non–positive, while 80.0% were positive. Of those who chose affiliation, 71.4% were non–positive, while 2.6% were positive. Of those who chose achievement, 56.3% were non–positive, while 43.7% were positive. Of those who chose control, 38.9% were non–positive, 61.1% were positive. Of those who chose recognition, 61.5% were non–positive, while 38.5% were positive.

TABLE 34

The ranking of the second most important value orientation was as follows: control with 31.7%, recognition with 23.2%, achievement with 18.3%, affiliation with 12.0%, security with 9.2%, and finally pay with 5.6%. 54.9% were non–positive, while 45.1% were positive. Of those who chose control as the second most important value orientation, 66.7% were non–positive while 33.3% were positive. Of those who chose recognition, 57.6% were non-positive, while 42.4% were positive. Of those who chose achievement, 38.5% were non-positive, 61.5% were positive. Of those who chose control, 66.7% were non-positive, while 33.3% were positive. Of those who chose recognition, 57.6% were non-positive, while 42.4% were positive.

TABLE 35

20.2% of respondents were Westcounty employees, 17.9% worked at Southtown, 45.8% were employed at Northtown, and 16.1% were from Newcity. 60.7% rated organizational communication as an organizational weakness, 39.3% rated it as a strength. Of those employed at Westcounty, 79.4% thought communication was a weakness, 20.6% felt otherwise. Amongst the Southtown employees, 63.3% rated communication as a weakness, 36.7% felt otherwise. 51.9% of Northtown employees rated communication as a weakness, while 48.1% thought it was a strength. Finally, Newcity had 59.3% of its employees who felt communication was a weakness, and 40.7% was a strength.

TABLE 36

Westcounty employees were 19.8%, Southtown employees were 18.0%, Northtown employees were 46.1%, and finally Newcity employees were 16.2%. Overall, 51.9% of respondents rated leadership skills as organizational weakness, while 49.1% rated it as a strength. Of the Westcounty employees, 69.7% evaluated leadership skills weak, 30.3% felt otherwise. Of the Southtown employees, 56.7% felt that leadership skills were weak, 43.3% felt otherwise. Of the Northtown employees, 40.3% were dissatisfied with leadership, 59.7% were satisfied. Finally, of the Newcity employees, 51.9% were disconted with leadership, while 48.1% were contented.

TABLE 37

19.0% were Westcounty employees, 17.8% were Southtown employees, 46.6% were Northtown employees, and finally 16.6% were Newcity employees. 46.6% perceived training and development as a weakness, 53.4% perceived it as a strength. Of the Westcounty employees, 45.2% felt training and development was a weakness, 54.8% felt otherwise. Of the respondents from Southtown, 75.9% were dissatisfied with training and development, while 24.1% were satisfied. Of the sample responses from Northtown, 39.5% thought training and development was a weakness while 60.5% felt otherwise. Of the Newcity respondents, 37.0% thought training and development was a weakness, while 63.0% thought otherwise.

TABLE 38

19.3% were sample responses from Westcounty, 17.4% were from Southtown, 47.2% were from Northtown, and finally 16.1% were from Newcity. 47.8% of respondents perceived work procedures as an organizational weakness, 52.2% perceived otherwise.

Of those who worked at Westcounty, 54.8% were unhappy with work procedures, while 45.2% were satisfied. Of the Southtown responses, 35.7% felt that work procedures were unsatisfactory, while 64.3% felt otherwise. Of the Northtown employees, 50.0% were contented with work procedures, while the other 50.0% felt otherwise. Finally, of the Newcity respondents, 46.2% thought work procedures were an organization weakness, while 53.8% thought otherwise.

TABLE 39

20.1% of respodents were from Westcounty, 17.7% were Southtown employees, 45.7% were Northtown employees, and 16.5% were Newcity employees. 41.5% of respondents rated quality of senior management as an organizational weakness, while 58.5% thought otherwise. Of the Westcounty employees, 66.7% thought quality of senior management was weak, while 33.3% thought otherwise. Of the Southtown employees, 37.9% felt quality of senior management was unfavourable, while 62.1% felt otherwise. Of the Northtown employees, 33.3% were dissatisfied with the quality of senior management, while 66.7% were satisfied. Finally, of the Newcity employees, 37.0% rated quality of senior management as weak, while 63.0% rated it as a strength.

TABLE 40

18.6% were Westcounty employees, 18.6% were Southtown employees, 47.4% were Northtown employees, and 15.4% were Newcity employees. 46.8% felt pay scheme was a weakness, while 53.2% felt otherwise. 51.7% of Westcounty employees rated pay scheme as weak, while 48.3% rated it otherwise. 41.4% of Southtown employees rated pay scheme as a weakness, while 58.6% rated it otherwise. 51.4% of Northtown employees felt that pay scheme was unsatisfactory, while 48.6% were satisfied. Finally, of the Newcity employees, 33.3% were disconted with the pay scheme, while 66.7% were contented.

TABLE 41

18.9% were Westcounty employees, 18.9% were Southtown employees, 46.5% were Northtown employees, 15.7% were Newcity employees. 59.1% of respondents felt the promotion system was an organizational weakness, while 40.9% felt otherwise. Of the Westcounty employees, 70.0% rated promotion system as weak, while 30.0% rated it otherwise. Of the Southtown employees, 40.0% felt that the promotion system was a weakness, while 60.0% felt otherwise. Of the Northtown employees, 64.9% felt dissatisfied with the promotion system, while 35.1% felt satisfied. Of the Newcity employees, 52.0% were disconted with the promotion system, while 48.0% were contented.

TABLE 42

20.5% were Westcounty employees, 18.0% were Southtown employees, 44.7% were Northtown employees, and 16.8% were Newcity employees. 70.2% of respondents perceived their supervisors as people oriented, while the remaining 29.8% perceived supervisor behaviour as task oriented. Of the Westcounty employees, 42.4% viewed their supervisors as people oriented, while 57.6% thought supervisors were task oriented. Of the Southtown employees, 72.4% felt their supervisors were people oriented, 27.6% felt they were task oriented. Of the Northtown employees, 80.6% thought supervisor behaviour was people oriented, 19.4% thought supervisor behaviour was task oriented. Of the Newcity employees, 74.1% viewed their supervisors as people oriented, 25.9% viewed their supervisors as task oriented.

TABLE 43

19.5% were Westcounty employees, 17.8% were Southtown employees, 46.7% were Northtown employees, and 16.0% were Newcity employees. 77.5% thought that the university was committed to staff training and development, while the remaining 22.5% thought otherwise. Of the Westcounty employees, 63.6% said "yes," 36.4% said "no." Of the Southtown employees, 66.7% agreed, 33.3% disagreed. Of the Northtown employees, 83.5% responded affirmatively, 16.5% responded negatively. Finally, of the Newcity employees, 88.9% agreed, and 11.1% disagreed.

TABLE 44

20.0% were Westcounty employees, 17.1% were Southtown employees, 47.1% were Northtown employees, and finally 15.9% were Newcity employees. 58.2% of respondents had training less than a year ago, 18.8% had training more than one year ago, and 22.9% never had training. Of the Westcounty employees, 47.1% had training within the past year, 29.4% had training over a year ago, and 23.5% never had training. Of the Southtown employees, 55.2% had training less than a year ago, 3.4% had it more had a year ago, and 41.4% never did. Of the Northtown employees, 58.8% had training within the past year, 18.8% had it more than a year ago, and 22.5% never did. Of the Newcity employees, 74.1% had training less than a year ago, 22.2% had it more than a year ago, and 3.7% never did.

TABLE 45

19.1% were Westcounty employees, 13.0% were Southtown employees, 48.1% were Northtown employees, and 19.8% were Newcity employees. 87.8% felt that training was useful, while 12.2% felt otherwise. Of the Westcounty employees, 84.0% said training was useful, 16.0% said it was a waste of time. Of the Southtown employees, 88.2% thought training was useful, 11.8% thought otherwise. Of the Northtown employees, 87.3% answered "useful," 12.7% answered "waste of time." Of the Newcity employees, 92.3% felt that training was useful, while 7.7% felt otherwise.

TABLE 46

20.8% were Westcounty employees, 16.7% were Southtown employees, 46.9% were Northtown employees, and 15.6% were Newcity employees. 53.1% of respondents thought that the university made proper use of skills acquired, while 46.9% thought otherwise. Of the Westcounty employees, 30.0% felt training skills were put into proper use, 70.0% disagreed. Of the Southtown employees, 56.3% responded "yes," 43.8% responded "no." Of the Northtown employees, 55.6% answered affirmatively, 44.4% answered negatively. Of the Newcity employees, 73.3% felt that acquired training skills were implemented appropriately, 26.7% felt otherwise.

TABLE 47

18.7% were Westcounty employees, 13.5% were Southtown employees, 50.3% were Northtown employees, and 17.4% were Newcity employees. 84.5% of respondents felt that training and development helped expand their skills, while 15.5% thought it was irrelevant or they had no training. Of the Westcounty employees, 75.9% felt that training and development helped expand their skills, 24.1% either had no training or felt it was irrelevant. Of the Southtown employees, 66.7% said training and development was useful in expanding their skills, 33.3% reported either no training or training was irrelevant. Of the Northtown employees, 93.6% felt training and development did expand their skills, 6.4% either did not have training or felt that training was irrelevant. Finally, of the Newcity employees, 81.5% said training helped expand their skills, while 18.5% never had training or felt that training was irrelevant.

TABLE 48

19.9% were Westcounty employees, 17.5% were Southtown employees, 46.8% were Northtown employees, and 15.8% were Newcity employees. 8.8% of respondents were under 25 years old, 59.1% were between 25-45 years, and 32.1% were between 45-65 years. Of the Westcounty employees, 14.7% were in the youngest age group, 44.1% were in the middle age group, 41.2% were in the oldest age group. Of the Southtown employees, 6.7% were in the youngest age group, 70.0% were in the middle age group, 23.3% were in the oldest age group. Of the Northtown employees, 8.8% were under 25 years, 60.0% were in the middle age group, 31.2% were in the oldest age group. Of the Newcity employees, 3.7% were in the youngest age group, 63.0% were in the middle age group, and 33.3% were in the oldest age group.

TABLE 49

20.0% were Westcounty employees, 17.1% were Southtown employees, 47.1% were Northtown employees, and 15.8% were Newcity employees. 34.1% of respondents were men, while the remaining 65.9% were women. Of the Westcounty employees, 17.6% were men, 82.4% were women. Of the Southtown employees, 34.5% were men, 65.5% were women. Of the Northtown employees, 36.3% were men, 63.8%

were women. Of the Newcity employees, 48.1% were men, 51.9% were women.

TABLE 50

19.5% were Westcounty employees, 16.5% were Southtown employees, 47.6% were Northtown employees, and 16.5% were Newcity employees. 57.3% were non-degree holders, 42.7% were degree holders. Of the Westcounty employees, 62.5% were non-degree holders, while 37.5% were degree holders. Of the Southtown employees, 63.0% were non-degree holders, 37.0% were degree holders. Of the Northtown employees, 52.6% were non-degree holders, 47.4% were degree holders. Of the Newcity employees, 59.3% were non-degree holders, 40.7% were degree holders.

TABLE 51

20.0% were Westcounty employees, 17.1% were Southtown employees, 47.1% were Northtown employees, and 15.9% were Newcity employees. 44.1% have served their organization for the shortest period of five years or less, 33.5% have been in service between 6–15 years, and 22.4% have worked for the longest time period of 16 years or over. Of the Westcounty employees, 50.0% have worked for the shortest time period of 0–5 years, 32.4% between 6–15 years, and 17.6% for 16+ years. Of the Southtown employees, 44.8% have served for 0–5 years, 31.0% for 6–15 years, and 24.2% for 16+ years. Of the Northtown employees, 43.8% have been in service for 0–5 years, 31.3% for 6–15 years, 24.9% for 16+ years. Of the Newcity employees, 37.0% have served for 0–5 years, 44.4% for 6–15 years, and 18.6% for 16+ years.

TABLE 52

19.6% were Westcounty employees, 17.3% were Southtown employees, 47.0% were Northtown employees, and 16.1% were Newcity employees. The first choice value orientation was ranked as follows: 64.9% achievement, 11.9% control, 8.3% recognition, 6.5% pay, 4.2% for security, and 4.2% for affiliation. Of the Westcounty employees, the ranking was: 66.7% achievement, 12.1% pay, 6.1% for security, control, and recognition; 3.0% for affiliation. Of the Southtown employees the ranking was: 65.5% achievement, 10.3% for affiliation as well as control, 6.9% for recognition, 3.4% for pay as well as security. Of Northtown employees, the ranking was: 68.4% achievement, 15.2% control, 8.9% recognition, 5.1% pay, 1.3% security as well as affiliation. Of the Newcity employees, 51.9% achievement, 11.1% security, control as well as recognition, 7.4% pay as well as affiliation.

TABLE 53

20.6% were Westcounty employees, 17.5% were Southtown employees, 46.3% were Northtown employees, 15.6% were Newcity employees. The ranking for the second most important value orientation was as follows: 31.9% control, 24.4% recognition, 16.9% achievement, 11.9% affiliation, 9.4% security, and 5.6% pay. Of the Westcounty employees, the ranking was: 30.3% control, 27.3% recognition, 12.1%

achievement, affiliation, pay, 6.1% security. Of the Southtown employees, the ranking was: 21.4% achievement, control, recognition, 17.9% affiliation, 10.7% security, 7.1% pay. Of the Northtown employees, the ranking was: 35.1% control, 27% recognition, 16.2% achievement, 12.2% affiliation, 8.1% security, 1.4% pay. Of the Newcity employees, the ranking was: 36% control, 20% achievement, 16% recognition as well as security, 8% pay, 4% affiliation.