A Study of Organizational Culture in Ontario Colleges with High Student Satisfaction

by

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Abstract

Academic institutions face countless pressures within a context of ongoing globalization, societal change, and increased accountability measures. The use of organizational culture assessment can assist organizations to understand their current culture and, consequently, to inform strategies for change management.

This study examined the perceptions held by administrators at four Ontario colleges with above average Student Satisfaction (KPI) about their institution's current and preferred organizational culture and their own management competencies. A descriptive research method was employed using a modified version of Cameron and Quinn's (2006) Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) and Management Skills Assessment Instrument (MSAI).

Different culture types were found in the current state at the four colleges. Two colleges exhibited a dominant Market or 'competing' type culture, one a dominant Hierarchy or 'controlling' type culture and, one a dominant Clan or 'collaborative' type culture. Evidence of strength and congruence of organizational culture was found at some of the four colleges. Results from all colleges combined exhibited meaningful influence of both Clan and Hierarchy type cultures. Dominant culture type differed by gender and number of years' experience in the job.

Administrators at all four of the colleges reported use of Clan type management skills (i.e., Managing Teams, Interpersonal Relations, and Development of Others) most frequently. This was followed by Adhocracy, Hierarchy and Market type skills. Three colleges ranked Managing

Competitiveness as their lowest. OCAI dominant culture type differed from MSAI dominance at three of the colleges and one exhibited the same Clan type OCAI and MSAI.

Desire in the preferred state to increase collaboration was evident with dominant Clan type culture and focus on flexibility. Focus was split equally with two internal and two external, and culture strength was found at two colleges.   Consistency exists between preferred dominant culture type and management skills of administrators, suggesting administrators' skills at each of the colleges are aligned with where they desire their college's organizational culture to be heading.

This study identifies implications for leadership of college culture linked to effective performance. The results build on existing evidence that dominant type, strength and/or congruence of culture is linked with performance effectiveness.

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An entire Clan made this thesis possible.

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Dedication

To Diana Rose, who taught me life is precious and to Rachel Mary, who makes life precious.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Introduction

Academic leaders, who share the responsibility of institutional leadership with a broad stakeholder group of students, faculty and staff, governors, employers, governments and community, face countless internal and external pressures within a broader context of ongoing societal change. The complexities of today's world require thoughtful leaders, data-driven decision making and a rigorous commitment to the business of academia. Ultimately, academic leaders committed to generating change and enhancing organizational culture must acquire a cultural perspective that enriches decision making and the power of their individual leadership.

> … once you have acquired what I would call a "cultural perspective," you will be
> amazed at how rewarding it is. Suddenly, the world is much clearer. Anomalies
> are now explainable, conflicts are more understandable, resistance to change
> begins to look normal, and, most important, your own humility increases. In that
> humility, you will find wisdom. (Schein, 1999, p. 191)

This statement by Edgar H. Schein, a world-renowned expert in organizational culture, provides both motivation and inspiration for leaders and scholars interested in understanding the relationship between organizational culture and organizational performance, a relationship that constitutes the fundamental purpose of this doctoral study. The perceptions held by college administrators about their institution's organizational culture and their own management skills are investigated in this study. The goal is to build a better understanding about Ontario college organizational culture and how leadership can affect change given the increased complexity of global forces/trends and demands for accountability.

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Chapter 1 provides an overview of research issues, the importance of these issues, theoretical frameworks, research questions, and introduces research methods, including limitations and definitions. To begin, however, it is most useful to examine the forces affecting postsecondary education today. The discussion in this thesis reflects the broader North American institutional and geographic contexts of higher education, which are assumed to be the same in Ontario colleges unless otherwise specified.

Background

To establish the necessary context and build the rationale for why it is so vital today to assess organizational culture in academic institutions, it is useful to describe the inter-connectivity of three major themes: 1) the key trends or forces that impact higher education today and how they influence culture; 2) the current focus on college performance measures and accountability initiated by governments and the implications of same for culture and management; and 3) the resultant need for change management tools that senior college leaders can use to understand and describe the culture of their organization and, consequently, to develop strategies for changes where necessary.

Forces/Trends in Higher Education

In its simplest form, culture can be defined as the "the way we do things around here" (Deal & Kennedy, 1983; Clemmer, 1995; Cameron & Quinn, 2006). The forces and trends that influence what and, ultimately, how things get done, are fundamental to understanding organizational culture. For the most part, these forces and trends can be grouped into five categories: 1) globalization; 2) student demographics; 3) aging professoriate; 4) financial constraints; and 5) the rise of accountability frameworks. To understand the effect these forces

can have on organization and culture, it is enlightening to understand the forces themselves and how they are changing institutions.

Economists, academic scholars and education leaders such as Skolnik (2003), Hargreaves (2003), Duderstadt (2005), Bergquist and Pawlak (2008), Clark, Moran, Skolnik and Trick (2009), Roueche, Richardson, Neal and Roueche (2008), and Fisher and Rubenson (1998) reinforce that these forces are complex and dynamic. This is motivation to compel leaders to constantly keep sharp attention to their environment, both internally and externally.

Profound economic shifts over the past 20 years have led to describing the 21st century as a global knowledge-based society. The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) defined knowledge-based economies as "economies, which are directly based on the production, distribution and use of knowledge and information" (1996, p. 3).

The link is logical; according to Hargreaves, a knowledge society "is really a learning society" (2003, p. 3). Hargreaves draws a connection between the terms 'knowledge societies,' 'knowledge economy' and a 'learning society' by linking them all to "processes of information and knowledge that maximize learning, stimulate ingenuity and invention, and develop the capacity to initiate and cope with change" (p. 3). These processes are driving both our economy and our world-wide culture.

As the world changes, the forces of change generate impacts that cause changes in higher education. Concrete examples of these changes are found in student demographics (Roueche, et al., 2008; Fullan & Scott, 2009; and Clark, et al., 2009), aging professoriate (Rae, 2005; LaRochelle-Côté & Gilmore, 2010; Statistics Canada, 2009; Clark, et al., 2009; ACCC, 2011; and Masterson, 2010), and financial/resource constraints (OECD, 2007; Fullan & Scott, 2009; Clark, et al., 2009). These three factors alone collectively represent a profound postsecondary shift that

demands enhanced leadership decision making and academic prioritization.

Reflecting upon the point made by Hargreaves, it is reasonable to consider that the forces/trends in higher education make an ongoing impact on organizational culture in higher education through new social networks and new types of relationships and interdependencies. Impacts affect both institutional culture and curricula within postsecondary education. These impacts are intensifying and accelerating social interchanges and activities for all stakeholders, and affecting both how we look at the material world and how we consider our society; in other words, changing how we think, what we do, what we teach and how we are learning.

Although this researcher believes this to be a logical assumption, the literature has been found somewhat lacking in evidence to substantiate this statement. However, it does appear that other researchers such as Tierney (2008), Bender (1997), and Fullan and Scott (2009) see social interchanges and globalization as being linked with organizational culture by considering the 'ways things are done.'

In essence, the forces of globalization and the knowledge economy have created a different context for higher education today: the numbers and types of students; the evolving methods and resources for teaching and learning; the changing social networks and relationships; the finances of individuals and institutions; and the skills, experience and talent pool capacity of faculty. In turn, postsecondary organizations (and the socialization of organizations) are reacting and responding to these forces as they determine what and how they will do things. As previously stated there is little evidence on how this might be impacting culture. Nevertheless, it is this researcher's belief that change management to address these forces can be strengthened through a strong understanding of one's organizational culture. By examining the organizational culture of some Ontario colleges, this thesis is intended to add to the literature that links culture

assessment to these forces of change, change management and effective performance.

Performance Measures and Accountability

Building on the theme of forces in higher education, the next section of this analysis addresses the theme of performance measures and accountability, in particular performance measures, by considering the current focus on the part of taxpayers and governments to set additional context, expectations and implications for culture and management.

Demand for measures. An increased focus on quality and performance has been demonstrated throughout the business world over the past 30 years. Scholarly literature supports Porter's (1980) six crucial conditions found in successful companies as "those with sustained profitability and above-normal financial returns" (Cameron & Quinn, 2006, p. 2). The current focus on college performance and accountability by governments has significant implications for organizational culture and management.

Implementation of effectiveness and performance initiatives related to postsecondary education that began around the early 1990s, such as the National Student Engagement Survey – NSSE (Kuh, 2001; Jones, 2007), and KPIs (Government of Ontario, 2005), support the premise that effectiveness and performance measures have become a greater priority for both governments and college stakeholders, although it is fair to say that governments are the direct drivers of the demand for measurement.

Effectiveness and performance management. In the early 1980s, researchers contributed significantly to our knowledge about performance and organizational culture and the links between leadership, culture and performance. The following summary provides the reader with an overview of the topic, described in more detail in Chapter 2 of this thesis.

Peters and Waterman are recognized for their contribution of the perspective that "certain cultural configurations characterize excellent companies" and "thus presumably provide formulas for success" (1982, p. 21). The work of Pfeiffer (1984), Carroll (1983) and Johnson, Natarajan, and Rappaport (1985) disputed Peters and Waterman's theory through an examination of Fortune 1000 companies. Critics of the Peters and Waterman approach argue they ignored the impact of differing environments and circumstances of organizations in their assumptions (Trice & Beyer, 1993, p. 21). Nevertheless, these researchers have collectively contributed to our appreciation for the complexity of organizational culture, and the recognition that environmental conditions are a variable in establishing whether or not an organization has a 'successful' culture and that the elements of one successful culture may not be the same elements that create success in another culture (p. 21).

Wilkins and Ouchi (1983) provided further insight into the relationship between performance and culture by arguing that cultures are more efficient when 1) transactions occur under conditions of ambiguity, complexity and interdependence; 2) enough people share the same set of ideas that set forth appropriate orientations; 3) the costs of maintaining the culture are not too high; and 4) sub-units do not develop cultures and operate to the detriment of a larger organization lacking in culture (cited in Trice & Beyer, 1993, p. 22). These scholars further suggest that some organizational culture will presumably be irrelevant to performance, while some forms of culture will promote and some will inhibit efficient operation, depending on the conditions listed above.

By the 1990s scholars turned their focus on cultural alignment in organizations as the key to successful performance. Deal and Kennedy (1982) argued that "strong cultures" led to success. Prior to that time Sathe (1985), Starbuck, Greve and Hedberg (1978), and Miller (1990),

promoted the opposite position – suggesting a strong culture could, by its very nature, inhibit the change required or discourage needed change and thereby limit success (Trice & Beyer, 1993, p. 22). Kets de Vries and Miller (1984) suggested that "cultures may derive unhealthy modes of functioning from the psychopathological problems of their chief executives making some cultures sick, even neurotic." Trice and Beyer (1993) challenge this theory stating, "It is hard to imagine that the neurotic firms, as described by Kets de Vries and Miller, are financially successful for very long" (p. 23).

An analysis by Barney (1986) saw culture as a viable source of competitive advantage and identified financial value, cultural distinction and limited ability to imitate as three conditions for a company to sustain superior financial performance (cited from Trice & Beyer, 1993, p. 22).

By the mid-1980s, companies throughout the world were beginning to recognize the need for increased capacity to adapt to global and local change, while struggling to respond to the total quality movement. Schein (1985) acknowledged the abstract concept of culture and its practical applications by leaders interested in understanding the dynamics of organizations and change, when he wrote:

> The concept of culture is rooted more in theories of group dynamics and group growth than in anthropological theories of how large cultures evolve. When we study organizations, we do not have to decipher a completely strange language or set of customs and mores. Rather, our problem is to distinguish – within a broader host culture –the unique features of a particular social unit in which we are interested. (p. 191)

In examining the relationship between organizational culture and performance, Truskie (2002) asserts that the most significant breakthrough began in the 1980s when management

scholars and academics started studying both culture within organizations and management's impact on culture. Citing the work of Denison (1996), Truskie concludes that "the results of these efforts led to the discovery of the extent to which organizational culture can and does affect organizational performance and the impact that leadership has on forming the culture of organizations" (p. 2). Truskie further points out that the method and format of dissemination caused this information about organizational culture to be obscure for leaders in academic and scholarly management circles, making it difficult to bring study results to the practical level in a meaningful way (p. 3).

In this context, it is evident that the increased demand for effectiveness and performance assessment has caused postsecondary leaders to examine their role. Leadership is probably the most studied and analyzed aspect of work organizations (Stogdill, 1974; Bass, 1981, 1985; Trice & Beyer, 1993). Trice and Beyer (1993) underscore the significance of the persistence of widespread beliefs in leaders and leadership with their suggestion that individual beliefs create ideological overtones (p. 194). Moving beyond the belief that most leadership theories tend to emphasize the instrumental consequences of leadership – how leaders influence the accomplishment of the work within organizations (Daft, 1983, cited in Trice & Beyer, 1993, p. 255) to the thinking that most behaviours have dual consequences in that leaders both do and say things that may not align (Leach, 1976). Trice and Beyer add to the literature about the role leaders play in organizational culture through their affirmation that, "A cultural approach to leadership should illuminate the other side of leadership – how leaders influence the development and expression of culture in their organizations" (p. 255). This scholarly work underscores the importance of leadership to the theoretical framework of this thesis, affirming that performance is linked in some way to organizational culture.

Change Management and Leading Culture Change

Linking the themes of forces impacting higher education, and increased focus on performance and effectiveness to a theme of change management, this section addresses significant changes in Ontario colleges and the resultant need for tools that senior college management can use to describe the culture of their organization and develop strategies for change, where necessary.

Many forms of change are known to occur on college campuses today due to global pressures and the knowledge-based economy, internal and external pressures, such as increased student access, aging faculty, reduced revenues, changing mandates, and the rise of accountability frameworks. These changes can be depicted as both reactionary to external and/or internal influences, and planned to anticipate or accommodate future internal and/or external pressures.

There is an abundance of literature available on change management and leading change. Chapter 2 of this thesis demonstrates the complexity of change leadership and the relationship it has to changing organizational culture. Examples of frameworks to help leaders and organizations manage and lead change can be found in the work of Kotter (2002), Augustine (1998) and Fullan (2002).

Organizational change research reveals that effective use of data and information can raise performance, productivity, and outcomes at all levels – for students, faculty, administration, and governance (Petrides, 2004). Extrapolating from use of data to only manage change to the use of data to effectively manage organizational culture, it is reasonable to question whether or not data about an institution's organizational culture can be used to change culture and, ultimately, to enhance performance. This frames a second purpose of this study to describe a mechanism whereby data-based evidence can assist academic institutions to reflect on their culture and the

behaviours that shape it which, in turn, may improve performance.

Leadership demands a strong understanding of all three themes: 1) forces affecting postsecondary education; 2) effectiveness and performance measurement; and 3) change management. Significant literature emerged in the 1980s denoting the important role a leader has in the success of any organization (Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Ouchi, 1981; Peters & Waterman, 1982). These researchers, along with many others of the day, built the backbone for 20th-century organizational culture and leadership theory, now part of the management repertoire for the 21st century.

Schein asserts that quality cultures improve work environments and may enhance innovation, creativity and employee satisfaction (1996). The role of a leader, as described by Deal and Peterson (1990), includes the need to focus on creating, changing and shaping culture, and the authors further stress the responsibilities of leadership. However, within a broader and more shared leadership model, it is prudent to look beyond the primary leader's role, and his or her individual experience, to the skill and strength of those heading an organization and their ability to consider what tools can be used to build stronger academic institutions and what role organizational culture can have in establishing that foundation. Leadership will be strengthened by application of such tools as well as an improved understanding of how to manage organizational culture.

Statement of the Problem

As a member of the Ontario Committee of College Presidents for six years, this researcher has participated in frequent discussions about the forces affecting higher education, the reactionary and/or planned changes as a consequence, and the increased attention to institutional effectiveness and performance measurement. Nevertheless, the fact remains there is little

research to address or demonstrate what type(s) of organizational culture is aligned with high

levels of performance in Ontario colleges. Not only is there an urgent need to identify an

effective tool for the assessment of organizational culture, there is also the need to identify the

cultural types associated with high performing colleges.

Purpose of the Study

This study was, therefore, designed to examine organizational culture at several Ontario

colleges in order to lay the groundwork for analysis about the importance of organizational

culture in complex academic institutions and to begin a preliminary investigation into

organizational culture in Ontario colleges.

The purpose of this study is to examine the perceptions held by college administrators

about their institution's organizational culture. The administrators were recruited from four

Ontario colleges that achieved a numerical score during the period 2004/05-2008/09 above the

system average for Student Satisfaction as measured by the KPIs mandated for use in Ontario

since 1998 (Colleges Ontario, KPI). The relationship between institutional culture and

performance was explored within the context that student satisfaction is one of many performance

indicators currently used in the Ontario college system. Since the KPI measure of overall student

satisfaction is an aggregate of four capstone questions, particular attention was paid to scores for

Capstone Question # 26 of the Student Satisfaction Survey, which asks students to assess the

overall quality of the learning experiences in this program.

The study also assesses the applicability of the Organizational Culture Assessment

Instrument (OCAI) and Management Skills Assessment Instrument (MSAI) based on the

Competing Values Framework (CVF) of Cameron and Quinn (2006) for assessing organizational

culture in Ontario colleges. Further, the results may help guide college leaders who seek to

improve performance by profiling both the culture and leadership skills of high-performing institutions and by highlighting the importance of understanding organizational culture through formal assessment.

Rationale and Significance of the Research

Researchers such as Hughes and Beatty (2005) and Sammons, Hillman and Mortimore (1995) have documented the considerable emphasis placed on developing an organization's vision, values and mission. Sheridan (1998) and Cooke (2007) reinforce the importance of this for Ontario colleges. Such vision, values and mission help to define an organization. According to Barber (2005), successful organizations both understand and align attributes of mission, vision and values with character and culture. This alignment, within the construct of a concrete framework, is the fundamental reason for assessing the existing or desired organizational culture of a college. Without some form of culture assessment, how does a leader know if these goals or objectives are permeating an organization and guiding the way people behave and perhaps, ultimately, guiding and influencing directly the outcomes of an institution?

Cameron and Quinn (2006) observe that over the years scholars have, for the most part, documented the models and practices that have already been tried by corporate management.

The reason organizational culture was ignored as an important factor in
accounting for organizational performance is that it encompasses the taken-for-granted
values, underlying assumptions, expectations, collective memories, and definitions
present in an organization. It represents "how things are around here." It reflects the
prevailing ideology that people carry inside their heads. It conveys a sense of identity to
employees, provides unwritten and often unspoken guidelines for how to get along in the
organization, and it enhances the stability of the social system that they experience.

(Cameron & Quinn, 2006, p. 16)

Key to this discussion is the affirmation by Cameron and Quinn that organizational culture is taken for granted. This researcher's personal experience, both as a college president and, more recently, as a university vice-president, suggests that presidents often describe their organization's culture differently than other members of their organization. They appear to have a general overview of their organization's culture, and may bias their assessment of their own institution's culture to be more like how they would prefer it to be. Therefore, decisions are based on their own assumptions, whether those assumptions are correct or not. Often this reinforces what may be described as unwanted culture and is described by Argyris (2010) as a 'culture trap.' Nevertheless, it is essential for leaders to have an understanding of the existing and desired cultures to inspire and motivate the organization to embrace change and evolution. It is clear that it is essential to have a portrait of organizational culture derived from multiple points within the institution in order to initiate reactionary or planned change, respond to internal and external trends, and measure effectiveness and performance, but the leadership perspective is at the root of aspirations for the institution and its future.

Although the term 'culture' is used quite liberally by Ontario college leaders, and even elevated as an important attribute of an organization, the term itself resists clear definition. There also appears to be no evidence that data intended to define organizational culture are collected consistently, or that a framework exists in Ontario to provide credence to the description of 'culture' used by Ontario college leaders.

This tendency toward adopting a 'loose' definition of organizational culture is complicated when one considers research on change models by authors such as Kotter (2002, pp. 21-22), Augustine (1998, pp. 159-188) and Fullan (2002), who together provide strong evidence

of the need for a thorough understanding of one's organization, along with a solid plan, prior to implementing and evaluating change.

How can a leader manage change when they do not have data to support their understanding of their organization's current or potential culture? Or, as Schein so purposely questioned, "how can a leader factually explain the anomalies, understand the conflict and resistance to change in their organizations?"(Schein, 1999, p. 191). To be fair to academic leaders, the implicit reality in the statement indicates there is little evidence of formal assessment of organizational culture in Ontario colleges. This can be explained, to some degree, by the very abstract nature of organizational culture itself.

Using the OCAI based on the CVF by Cameron and Quinn (2006), this study is intended to provide a profile of the organizational culture at four Ontario colleges that performed above the numerical average on Ontario's KPI Survey of Student Satisfaction, with specific consideration to Capstone Question # 26 – "The overall quality of learning experiences in this program" (Colleges Ontario, KPI, 2010). The study includes an examination of the perception of college administrators at the four colleges about their organization's current culture and what they think their culture should be in the future based on anticipated future environmental demands and anticipated future opportunities. The data collected are intended to provide a culture type profile for each of the four colleges in the study as well as a culture type profile of the average of the four colleges combined. This enabled the comparison of the four colleges' individual culture types. It also allows for each college culture type to be compared with the average for all colleges combined and a comparison against the average OCAI culture profile for Public Administration Employees, as provided by Cameron and Quinn (2006). The study is meant to serve as the foundation and framework for further analysis of Ontario college cultures and may serve as a

guide for institutions, regardless of whether they ranked well or not well on student satisfaction performance, when considering their change plans.

Using the MSAI (Cameron & Quinn, 2006, p. 163), this study also provides a management skills profile of college administrators at each college and a collective profile of the colleges participating in the study. This is intended to serve as a guide for the management skills, which are linked to behavioural changes that Cameron and Quinn put forth as a means to reinforce and develop desired new cultural values in an organization in order to fundamentally change it (p. 117).

The pressure for change is further complicated by an opposing desire for stability. Over time, as organizations adapt and respond to challenges that arise from both internal and external forces, there is a tendency to acquire a dominant organizational culture (Schein, 1983; Sathe, 1983). Generating the willingness to change is essential for success and one of the greatest challenges for leadership.

Clearly the forces of change permeate Ontario colleges today. If one accepts the concept that globalization and trends affecting higher education can influence change in academic leadership, and that there is an increased emphasis on effectiveness and performance measures, the question becomes what do we know about the organizational culture at effective institutions that score well on performance measures?

The above questions are multifaceted. Given the complexity of both organizational culture and performance measures, it is logical to narrow the problem as much as possible in order to begin research and contribute to the scholarly knowledge about these two topics.

This narrowing of issues, to gather information for the purpose of data-driven decisions, inspired my interest in the topic of organizational culture. My personal perspective on

understanding culture as a means to manage change is described in more detail in Chapter 2, Changing College Culture – A Personal Perspective. However, it is important to underscore my personal choice for this research study was first influenced by readings on higher education and an earlier interest in change management. Those two influences combined led me to begin to formulate a sense that successful change management strategies are different for different organizations. I began to realize that there is not enough understanding about current situations in organizations before institutions make decisions about change. Data about organizational culture and managing change in higher education in Ontario were, and remains, scarce. Even more noteworthy is that this researcher does not believe the right data are effectively available for decision making, nor are data used as frequently as they should be. It became clear to me that other than climate surveys, higher education institutions, and specifically colleges, were using insufficient or sometimes meaningless data to assess their individual organizational culture. Without this knowledge and without a more formal process to inform leaders making decisions about the current situation and an understanding of what the organization should be, colleges were implementing change management processes without a common understanding of the pattern of shared basic assumptions. In other words, when leaders forge ahead with change strategies, without knowing how the group has learned to solve its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, they risk that the values and attributes that have existed for staff through past situations may prevent the very change they aspire to achieve.

By collecting the views of college administrators about their institution's organizational culture and their leadership competencies for colleges that score above the system average on student satisfaction, it is this researcher's intention to begin to examine whether or not there are implications for other institutions wanting to inform their change management process and

ultimately improve their performance.

Research Questions

In general terms, the questions investigated in this research study consider the perceptions of college administrators regarding their institution's organizational culture and their own management competencies within the framework of the Competing Values theory developed by Cameron and Quinn (2006). The study is divided into two parts. The first part investigates organizational culture and the second part of the study investigates administrators' management competencies. The specific research questions are listed below.

Part 1: Organizational Culture Assessment

Primary Research Questions

1.1   What are the current and preferred organizational culture type profiles of the combined four colleges in the study with a numerical score above the system average for Student Satisfaction KPI?

1.2   What are the current and preferred organizational culture type profiles of each college in the study with a numerical score above the system average for Student Satisfaction KPI?

Secondary Research Questions

1.3   To what degree do the "now", herein referred to as "current", responses on the OCAI, made by all college administrators at the combined Ontario colleges surveyed, correspond to their combined "preferred" responses?

1.4   To what degree do the "now", herein referred to as "current", responses on the OCAI, made by college administrators at each of the four Ontario colleges surveyed, correspond to their "preferred" responses?

1.5   What are the current and preferred highest cultural content dimensions of the combined

colleges in the study?

1.6   What are the current and preferred highest cultural content dimensions of each college in

the study?

1.7   To what degree do the responses on the OCAI by college administrators at the combined

Ontario colleges correspond with the average OCAI culture profile described by Cameron

and Quinn (2006) for public administration employees (p. 78)?

1.8   To what degree do the responses on the OCAI, by college administrators at each of the

four Ontario colleges correspond with the average OCAI culture profile described by

Cameron and Quinn (2006) for public administration employees (p. 78)?

1.9   Do the perceived current and preferred organizational culture profiles differ between male

and female administrators and, if so, how?

1.10   Do the perceived current and preferred organizational culture profiles differ according to

administrators' years of experience in their current position and, if so, how?

Part 2 – Management Skills Assessment

Primary Research Questions

2.1   What is the management skills profile of college administrators at the combined four

Ontario colleges surveyed with a numerical score above the system average for Student

Satisfaction KPI?

2.2   What is the management skills profile of college administrators at each of the Ontario

colleges surveyed with a numerical score above the system average for Student

Satisfaction KPI?

Theoretical Frameworks

This research is grounded in the CVF developed by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) and described by Cameron & Quinn (2006), in Diagnosis and Changing Organizational Culture: Based on the Competing Values Framework, which provides a suitable theoretical rationale for using the OCAI and the MSAI in college-oriented research.

Observing that organizational culture originally came to light from an anthropological foundation (with the belief that organizations are cultures) or a sociological foundation (with the belief that organizations have culture) and that both of these foundations can either have a functional approach (explanation of behaviour in needs or relation to a society) or semiotic approach (something that pertains to signs/symbols). Cameron and Quinn describe the CVF as adopting the definition of culture represented by the functional, sociological tradition. In other words, the CVF focuses on attributes or "how things are done," rather than how individuals 'feel' about them. Further, these researchers affirm that culture can be measured separately from other phenomena in the organization and therefore can be useful for predicting what organizations will succeed (pp. 145-147).

Developed over the past 35 years, the CVF focuses on a theory of how stable or flexible the organization is and how externally or internally focused it is and features four culture types: 1) Clan; 2) Hierarchy; 3) Adhocracy; and 4) Market. The CVF framework is set up to provide a way for organizations to engage in a dialogue and interpret the elements of their organizational culture as a baseline point to enable change and improvement. Cameron and Quinn describe an internally focused, flexible organization as a Clan. In comparison, an internally focused, stable organization is a Hierarchy. An externally focused, flexible organization is described as an Adhocracy, and an externally focused, stable organization is thought of as Market. The OCAI

queries the perceptions of employees to review the different attributes and dimensions of organizational culture in the current and preferred situations. Cameron and Quinn describe the OCAI assessment tool to be practical, timely, involving qualitative and quantitative data that are manageable and valid (p. 20). The four culture types (clusters of criteria that define the core values used to judge an organization) are labelled as Clan, Adhocracy, Market or Hierarchy and described in Figure 1, which follows:

The Competing Values of Leadership, Effectiveness, and Organizational Theory

Flexibility and Discretion

Internal Focus and Integration

External Focus and Differentiation

Culture Type: CLAN **Orientation:** COLLABORATIVE **Leader Type:** Facilitator Mentor Team builder **Value Drivers:** Commitment Communication Development **Theory of** **Effectiveness:** Human development and participation produce effectiveness.	**Culture Type:** ADHOCRACY **Orientation:** CREATIVE **Leader Type:** Innovator Entrepreneur Visionary **Value Drivers:** Innovative outputs Transformation Agility **Theory of** **Effectiveness:** Innovativeness, vision, and new resources produce effectiveness.
Culture Type: HIERARCHY **Orientation:** CONTROLLING **Leader Type:** Coordinator Monitor Organizer **Value Drivers:** Efficiency Timeliness Consistency and uniformity **Theory of** **Effectiveness:** Control and efficiency with capable processes produce effectiveness.	**Culture Type:** MARKET **Orientation:** COMPETING **Leader Type:** Hard driver Competitor Producer **Value Drivers:** Market share Goal achievement Profitability **Theory of** **Effectiveness:** Aggressively competing and customer focus produce effectiveness.

Stability and Control

Figure 1. Competing Values of Leadership, Effectiveness, and Organizational Theory. Source: From Cameron & Quinn (2006), *Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture: Based on the Competing Values Framework*. Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, p. 46.

Cameron and Quinn developed the MSAI as a companion document to the OCAI. This self-assessment tool is designed to help individuals create a profile of their current management

skills and identify management behaviours to reinforce the culture change process. Items on the questionnaire have been derived from extensive research on managerial behaviour. Whetten and Cameron (2005) summarized 15 studies and found a substantial overlap in the lists of skills produced (Cameron & Quinn, 2006, p. 119). Cameron and Quinn clustered the skills and competencies that emerged from these studies into a set of competency categories applicable to mainly mid-level and upper-level managers, which they define as skills appropriate for managers managing managers. Cameron and Quinn affirm that management categories "summarize many of the critically important managerial leadership competencies typical of effective mid- and upper-level managers" (p. 120).

Application of the OCAI and MSAI enables analysis and understanding of the responses of the four colleges included in this study. Specifically, these tools allow for a categorization of the current and preferred organizational culture into an organizational culture profile and a management skills profile respectively. The profiles can be used to interpret the current situation and design strategies to change the existing culture into a preferred culture. Self-identification of management skills found among the leaders participating in the study enables an analysis of skill gaps and determines what management behaviours need enhancement and/or should be emphasized. In totality, the OCAI and MSAI can be used to interpret, understand and enhance existing individual college cultures and management skills. The instruments thus have the potential to become an integral part of the theoretical framework college leaders can deploy to manage trends, measure effectiveness and performance and implement reactionary and/or planned change to further the success of their postsecondary institution.

Limitations of the Study

DePoy and Gitlin (1998) frame limitations as the results of boundary setting or bounding

the research. It is particularly important to establish the boundaries of research in a purposeful

manner so the results can be analyzed and considered within the limits or phenomena that have

the potential to influence the outcomes.

The principal limitations of this study relate to the generalizability of the findings. The

survey has been conducted with respondents from only four Ontario colleges in order to build a

comprehensive organizational profile as well as a comprehensive managerial skills profile for

each institution. Arguably, the data and findings have limited generalizability to other colleges.

However, it is hoped that the shared level of overall student satisfaction will enable a deeper

analysis of other variables and that the similarities among colleges will be identifiable and

thereby useful for other colleges examining this analysis. Further examination of each college's

organizational culture, in light of their scores on Capstone Question # 26 (the student's perception

of the quality of learning experiences), may provide further insight into the relationship between

organizational culture and performance.

This study does not constitute a comprehensive assessment of organizational culture by all

constituencies at any of the colleges participating in the study. The sample is limited to the

perceptions of senior college administrators and does not reflect the views of students, faculty or

support staff. However, the use of students' perceptions through the KPI survey results does

bring some student perspective to this study.

The perspectives of senior administrators will add to the scholarly understanding of

organizational culture at Ontario colleges as, in theory, they form the key group driving change in

the policies and processes of their organization. Further research that includes all staff at each

institution would be required to provide a more comprehensive assessment of organizational

culture, and it would be hoped that this thesis will motivate more comprehensive analyses.

Further, the sample of administrators was identified by each of four college presidents, based on definitions provided in the study. The interpretation of definition of administrators could have been different at each institution, although it has been reported by each institution that the definition was applied as per instructions. According to Oyster, Hanten and Llorens, respondents' bias may result due to tendencies to answer in "set patterns which have little relation to the reality or content of the research" (1987, p. 124). For example, the relationship between the president and each respondent administrator could result in a biased response.

This study does not address the overall performance of the colleges participating in the study. The discussion about how to measure performance of Ontario colleges is very controversial and should be recognized as such when considering the outcomes of this study. However, given that students represent the core reason for colleges to exist, student satisfaction, a central element of KPI mandated by the Government of Ontario for Ontario colleges, was established as the key measure of performance. The strength of using this measure emanates from the fact that the core mandate of the Ontario colleges is preparing students for their careers. Nevertheless, it must be recognized that this measure cannot be used as an overall performance measure for all aspects of an institution. Student satisfaction represents only one dimension of the multiple performance measures that define the success or failure of an institution.

Finally, as the sample includes four colleges with above average student satisfaction, there is no way of knowing whether lower ranked colleges do not have the same organizational culture.

Although the study has limitations, the design does enable a more controlled discussion of organizational culture combined with performance measures given the theoretical frameworks provided. Further, this approach to the problem minimizes the negative impact for colleges who agreed to participate in the study by: a) restricting participation to Ontario colleges with above

average student satisfaction; and b) avoiding labour relations issues with unionized staff. Also, this research provides insights into the OCAI and MSAI tools and how they can be applied within the college environment.

This study will not evaluate the effectiveness of the organizational culture or the effectiveness of the college administrators. The researcher stresses there is not one 'right' organizational culture or one 'right' management skills profile. Organizational culture and management behaviour is specific to an organization. While the findings will describe the organizational cultures and management competencies associated with high performing colleges, they are not to be taken as prescriptive for other institutions. Rather, the findings can act as a springboard for additional research with other colleges and highlight a process of formal assessment and a theoretical construct that other organizations might consider when assessing organizational culture with the intent of managing change. In addition, the results are limited to the description of an organizational culture profile and management skills profile associated with a high-performing institution as measured by student satisfaction.

While not expected, given the assurances to participants related to confidentiality and anonymity, there is a possibility of response reliability issues, perhaps if college administrators felt embarrassed and did not truthfully reflect their view of their organization's culture and/or their own management skills.

Lastly, there is a possibility of some bias by this researcher as a practicing leader in higher education, although this should be offset by an awareness of my role as an objective data collector and analyst.

In spite of these limitations, implementation of the Competing Values Framework within four colleges serves to enlighten the debate and discussion among college leaders faced with

ongoing change and the drive for improved performance.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions are provided to create a common understanding of the terms offered by the researcher solely for the purposes of this research. Detailed descriptions of Organizational Culture, OCAI, and MSAI are found in Chapter 2.

Organizational Climate

Organizational climate is distinguished from organizational culture, in that: Organizational climate refers to more temporary attitudes, feelings and perceptions on the part of individuals (Cameron and Quinn, 2006, p. 147).

Competing Values Framework (CVF)

The Competing Values Framework model defines an effective organization to the extent that the emphasis on criteria in the four different quadrants meets constituency preferences: 1) Clan (collaborative); 2) Adhocracy (creative); 3) Hierarchy (controlling); and 4) Market (competitive).

Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI)

The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) is a self-assessment questionnaire designed for individuals to respond to questions around two main dimensions that differentiate effectiveness criteria that have been found to be equally predictive of an organization's culture. One main dimension emphasizes flexibility, discretion, and dynamism from criteria that emphasizes stability, order, and control. The second main dimension emphasizes an internal orientation, integration, and unity from criteria that emphasizes an external orientation, differentiation, and rivalry. These two dimensions form four quadrants, representing four core values (Hierarchy, Clan,

Adhocracy, and Market) and represent opposite or competing assumptions. Questions on the OCAI are clustered into six content dimensions. Respondents are instructed to divide 100 points among these four alternatives depending on the extent to which each alternative is similar to their own organization, giving the highest ranking to the alternative most similar to their organization. The instrument asks respondents to respond to the questions considering the current organizational culture (now) and, when finished, to go back and respond to the same six items while thinking about the future demands of the environment and the opportunity to be faced by the organization (future). A sample of the OCAI is provided in Appendix A.

The following four culture types and dimensions are identified in the OCAI:

Clan Culture: This culture is described to have a collaborative orientation with value drivers that include commitment, communication and development.

Adhocracy Culture: This culture is described to have a creative orientation with value drivers that include innovative outputs, transformation and agility.

Market Culture: This culture is described to have a competing orientation with value drivers that include market share, goal achievement and profitability.

Hierarchy Culture: This culture is described to have a controlling orientation with value drivers that include efficiency, timeliness, consistency and uniformity.

Cultural Content Dimensions: Cultural content dimension is the term used in the OCAI to describe six aspects of an organization to reflect key values and assumptions. These allow individuals to respond to situations using their organization's underlying archetypal framework including: dominant characteristics, organizational leadership and management of employees, organizational glue, strategic emphasis and criteria of success.

Each of the six content dimensions has four sub-dimensions in the OCAI for a total of 24 content dimension-related questions.

The following five standards are used to interpret culture profiles developed using the OCAI:

Type: The type of culture that dominates your organization (p. 69).

A dominant culture type is defined to be the quadrant on the OCAI culture profile with the highest score and points to the basic assumptions, styles and values that tend to be most emphasized in an organization (p. 71).

Discrepancy: The difference between the current and preferred culture type. Cameron and Quinn recommend particular sensitivity be given to differences of more than 10 points (p. 72).

Strength: Strength of the culture is determined by the absolute value awarded to a specific culture type on a scale of 0-100 (p. 72). In this study, differences between quadrant scores greater than 10 points will be referred to as uniquely strong.

Congruence: Congruence of culture means that various aspects of an organization's culture are aligned. That is, the same culture types are emphasized in various parts of the organization including strategy, leadership style, reward system, approach to managing employees and dominance characteristics. In congruent cultures, the culture profiles would look similar (p. 73).

Comparison: Comparison is a standard used to interpret culture plots by looking for similarities and differences between the average culture plots of one institution against the average culture plot of another institution. Comparison can also be used when an individual is interested in comparing their average culture plot with the average culture plot of their institution.

Management Skills Assessment Instrument (MSAI)

> The Management Skills Assessment Instrument (MSAI) is a self-assessment tool designed to obtain descriptions of management behaviour on the job. Items on the questionnaire have been derived from research on managerial behaviour and the intent is to provide a profile of managerial competencies. A sample of the Management Skills Assessment Instrument is provided in Appendix B.

College Administrator

> For the purpose of this study, a College Administrator is defined as mid- and senior-level leaders in Ontario colleges with the responsibility to develop policy and manage others who can influence institutional performance. These individuals typically occupy the position of President, Vice-President, Dean or Director. Cameron and Quinn (2006) refer to this group as "managers managing managers" (p. 120).

Numerical Score – Above the Level of System Average for Overall Student Satisfaction

> The numerical score – above the level of system average for Overall Student Satisfaction - is a score greater than the average (Mean) for all of the 24 Ontario college scores on the KPI Student Satisfaction Survey over the period of 2004/05-2008/09. Colleges with a numerical score above the combined college system average are said to have a numerical above average student satisfaction score.

Above Average Student Satisfaction

> Above average student satisfaction is defined to be at least one standard deviation from the mean score for all colleges completing the Ontario Government mandated Key Performance Indicators (KPI) Student Satisfaction Survey over the period of 2004/05-2008/09. Colleges with scores above one standard deviation from the mean score for all

colleges are deemed above average.

Capstone Question # 26

Ontario's KPI Survey of Student Satisfaction, Capstone Question # 26 – "The overall quality of the learning experiences in this program" (Colleges Ontario, KPI).

Organization of the Thesis

This thesis is organized in five chapters. Chapter 1 provides a contextual overview of the research issues and the purpose of the study. In addition, Chapter 1 addresses the importance of the study, the theoretical framework used, the research questions, and an introduction to the research design and methods. The limitations and definitions used in this study are also presented.

Chapter 2 details the relevant literature on four major bodies of knowledge relating to this study: our changing world and trends in higher education, effectiveness and performance management, a theoretical framework of organizational culture including definitions and culture assessment, and, finally, leading organizational change in a college context.

In Chapter 3, the research methodology is addressed by describing the design of the study, research questions, the rationale for college site and participant selection, description of the survey sample, data collection process, ethical considerations and, lastly, the analysis of the data collected for this study.

Finally, in Chapters 4 and 5 the research findings are presented, and implications, conclusions and recommendations are discussed.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

The purpose of this literature review is to provide a broad understanding of organizational culture as background and context for research into the perceptions of college administrators regarding their institution's organizational culture and their own management competencies. Their view is the basis of the overall research objective of this study, which is an examination of administrators' perception of organizational culture at four Ontario colleges with a numerical score above the system average Student Satisfaction (KPI) and their self-reported management skill competencies.

The review attempts to synthesize and interpret the vast amount of research on five major bodies of knowledge as they relate to academia, including: our changing world; organizational culture definitions and theory; effectiveness and performance measurement; culture assessment; and leading culture change. It will be shown that the considerable change in our world, primarily as a result of technological progress, has forced a greater emphasis on effectiveness and performance and provides a strong rationale for the use of culture assessment as a means to improve change management and increase effectiveness in higher education.

The review begins first with an examination of external pressures created by our changing world and the impact societal change is having on higher education. This provides a context for an increased focus on effectiveness and performance. Second, definitions of organizational culture, perspectives from the relevant literature on culture, as well as the theory behind the dimensions and attributes of organizational culture over the past 30 years are looked at to illustrate the complexity of culture and emphasize its importance. Third, an examination of the literature on effectiveness and performance provides an overview of how trends evidenced in

business and industry, caused by an increasingly competitive global economy, is influencing an increased focus on effectiveness and performance in academia. The review also illustrates the keen interest of governments and taxpayers in improved management and overall performance within higher education, broadly and, in particular, in Ontario colleges which are required to conduct KPI surveys. Further, the controversy of 'what' and 'how' to assess effectiveness and performance within colleges and universities today will be discussed in the context of organizational culture. Fourth, an overview of the types of organizational culture assessments found in higher education, as well as the role of organizational assessment in transforming culture, are also discussed. Finally, literature regarding the role of leaders in organizational culture and change is examined by exploring change management models and the role of leaders in change management. Considering the abundance of literature on leadership and change management, this review purposely focuses on college leadership and provides a link between assessment of college cultures and gained intelligence about culture change found within higher education settings.

In sum, this literature review is intended to provide a basis for a clear investigation of administrators' perceptions about their own organizational culture and their own management competencies. An understanding of trends, coupled with the drive for effectiveness and performance in an era of significant change, provides the background to questions about the perceptions leaders have about their organizational culture and the roles they play in change management.

Our Changing World

According to Childress and Senn (1995), the complexity of issues and transformation of society are driving leaders to manage significant change. Peter Drucker, frequently described as

the father of modern management, poignantly states, "We are in one of those great historical periods, that occur every 200 or 300 years, when people don't understand the world anymore, and the past is not sufficient to explain the future" (cited in Childress & Senn, 1995, p. 10).

Trends in Postsecondary Education and the Impact on Culture

By its very nature, the academic arena is affected by the rapid rate of technological change, meta-communications, and global competition in the new world-society. Although many argue this new world-society is yet to be defined, somewhat like business and industry, the impact of our transforming world on the majority of colleges and universities is staggering. Economists, academic scholars and education leaders such as Skolnik (2003), Hargreaves (2003), Duderstadt (2005), Bergquist and Pawlak (2008), Clark, Moran, Skolnik and Trick (2009), Roueche, Richardson, Neal and Roueche (2008), and Fisher and Rubenson (1998), acknowledge profound economic shifts have been happening over the past 20 years and recognize the 21st century as a global knowledge-based society. This includes the consolidation of programs, shrinking financial resources, downsizing, outsourcing, increasing class sizes, fewer full-time faculty, aging professoriate, and diminishing academic support and learning resources. For the past 15 years, leaders in the academic arena espoused the fear that a new order appeared imminent, but were unsure as to how to prepare for change. Pragmatists today say that change due to external pressures is no longer a phenomenon but, rather, our new modus operandi.

It would be difficult to find an Ontario college or university that has not signalled financial concerns or directly faced serious financial challenges over the past decade. Canada's secondary student graduates are increasing at a rate well above the international average (Canadian Council on Learning (CCL), 2009, p. 13). This considerable growth, a result of government efforts to improve the numbers of young people who complete secondary school, is

one of the factors forcing a shift in the ratio of full-time and part-time teachers towards an increased use of the latter as well as adjunct faculty. This increase might be somewhat offset in the future by projections of a diminished population, but not entirely.

As student numbers have increased, the overall quality of incoming students and graduates has come under closer inspection. According to Wiggers and Arnold (2011), "the focus of governments and postsecondary institutions has expanded from barriers to access, [in an attempt to increase the skills of incoming students] and from first- and second-year retention and persistence towards the broader and more all-encompassing concept of student success" (p. 17). Lederman (2010, para.1) suggests, financial investment in expanded student success services needs to be balanced by the increase in retention rates:

> 'Student success' programs of various types -- learning communities, first-year experience programs, and the like -- have proliferated on college campuses, driven by the reality that it's easier to keep current students than recruit new ones. The programs are popular, but as is true of just about all campus efforts these days, they are open to scrutiny about their effectiveness -- and their cost effectiveness.

One impact of the challenging financial realities is evident in the increased reliance on part-time faculty over full-time faculty. In 2005, Statistics Canada published a labour force report on the trends in the teaching profession from 1999 to 2005. The report indicated the ratio of contractual and part-time work has increased for all educators since 1999 when only 15.5% of university professors were non-permanent. By 2005, this proportion had doubled to 31.7%. An increase from 21.0% to 24.9% was also found for college and vocational professors.

With fewer permanent faculty, academic institutions are addressing the need for updated curriculum, increased technology and state-of-the-art resources. To meet the demands of weaker

and underprepared students, and a more focused, demanding business and industry future

employer, there has been pressure on faculty at many institutions to revise curriculum standards

in both diplomas and degrees to meet competing demands. Some would argue the dichotomy of

the challenge created by weaker students and the increased expectations of employers and

society, identified by Roueche, et al. (2008), presents a difficult pedagogical challenge.

According to Roueche, et al. (2008), today's college student presents new challenges.

More of them are seeking a higher level of technical engagement when selecting their college of

choice. In addition, they present a different profile, including greater numbers of first-generation

students (first in their family to access postsecondary education), students with identified special

learning needs, and increased proportion of international students and English as second language

learners. Professors are facing a second generation of students very experienced in adapting to

the technology revolution. Meeting the needs of these 'tech savvy' students is further

complicated by an aging staff (both faculty and administrative) who struggle to adapt to new

ways of creating and sharing knowledge. It is today the norm that many of these 'tech savvy'

students excel in the use of technology, often beyond the skill of the professor. Decreased

funding per student is driving institutions to alternative revenue streams, such as entrepreneurial

endeavours and philanthropy, while there are increased public and government expectations of

demonstrated accountability.

According to Skolnik (2003), "the most pervasive trends affecting post-secondary

education, in recent years and likely over the next 10 years are those associated with

globalization" (p. 3). Duderstadt (2005) comments further suggesting, "…the age of knowledge

will substantially broaden the roles of higher education" (p. 82). This broader role is described by

Scott (2005) in an examination of both the opportunities and threats of globalization, and he

issues the challenge: "the reluctance of higher education to embrace globalization is a puzzle that demands explanation" (p. 43). Scott offers three explanations. Firstly, globalization has become closely associated with economic liberalism, which many academics would view as a threat to the central mandate of academia. Secondly, Scott differentiates between free-market globalization and internationalization. Globalization represents a threat that could supercede politics (and perhaps public policy) and internationalization represents an economic and cultural interchange, to which most universities are committed. Finally, globalization is explained as both problematic and contested; and both globalization and internationalization concepts are readily seen by observing the different approaches and emerging tensions exhibited by and between different countries.

Fisher and Rubenson (1998) considered the changing role of universities in Canadian society during a period of fundamental shifts in the relationship between capital and labour and between the public (external) and private (internal) spheres of the institutions. "Institutions are changing their practices to accumulate power. Our universities are becoming more corporate, technocratic, utilitarian and far more concerned with selling products, than with education" (p. 87). The authors express strong concerns that the essence of the university in Canada will change in ways that undermine some of the best parts of the tradition that emphasized national norms and public service. Further, they suggest the external factors forcing change are driven by softened federalism, blurring of the vocational vision of colleges and universities with results that include: increased specialization and differentiation within the university system; increased competition for research funding and students; less autonomy as a result of closer ties with business and industry; continuing bifurcation of the opportunity structure in the labour market; and increased expectations that universities will become more the preserve of society's elite.

The complex transformations occurring in the economic, political, scientific and social global climate have generated a new world-society commonly referred to as the knowledge-driven or knowledge-based society. Jones, McCarney and Skolnik (2005), in the introduction to their book *Creating Knowledge, Strengthening Nations: The Changing Role of Higher Education,* identify the response by higher education to changes is "increasingly contested with a view to better balancing the economic purpose of higher education with its cultural, moral, and intellectual purposes" (p. 3). Further, they emphasize that many of the tensions in higher education today can be associated with the balance of 'economic versus non-economic objectives' (p. 3). In addition, these researchers point out that this dichotomy is readily observed in the longstanding debate about the search for knowledge and a more entrepreneurial university.

This debate about the impact of our transforming world on higher education is not unique to Canada. Looking at politics, intellect, and American universities, Thomas Bender (1997) writes about the quality of American research. He observes that 80% of all citations in electronic retrieval systems are written in English, the awarding of Nobel Prizes to Americans is increasing, and American research institutions are large exporters of research and importers of graduate students. Lamenting that the public has "taken little notice" of the international success of their academic institutions, Bender points to a lack of recognition as contributing to the demise:

> Within academe, moreover, there is a pervasive sense of unease, and the origins of this self-doubt precede the current financial crisis of higher education. In fact, there is a certain paradox in the success of academe. Its recognized achievements (disciplinary excellence in the context of dramatic expansion) have not strengthened academic culture as a whole. It has even produced conflicts about its mission, particularly its civic role, and there has been a weakening of the informal compact between the university and society.

(p. 19)

In the book *Changing Cultures in Higher Education – Moving Ahead to Future Learning* (2010), Ehlers and Schneckenberg use worldwide experts to develop a more holistic view on the changing cultures within universities. Citing the perspective that these "changing cultures are triggered by the fundamental changes visible through integration and adoption of technologies into all areas of universities," the authors encourage management to:

> Stress the need for university management to consider innovation and change as an emerging and ongoing phenomenon to be embraced by the entire higher education community – students, administrators, management and teachers, as well as policy makers – in its entirety, as a part of a culture of change in higher education institutions. (p. 7)

Further, Ehlers and Schneckenberg (2010, p. 1) cite the work of Cross (2010, pp. 43-54) and Carneiro (2010, pp. 55-67) to support the thinking that universities need to change, and that scholars and academic practitioners believe that revolution, not evolution, is the paradigm that coherently characterizes the required changes in the higher education landscape. However, the rate of change does not appear to be consistent in the literature. Peter Drucker (Forbes, 1997) was also cited by Ehlers and Schneckenberg (p. 1) for predicting dramatic change: "Thirty years from now the big university campuses will be relics. Universities won't survive. It's as large a change as when we first got the printed book." Close to 14 years later, there doesn't appear to be a clear consensus of how or what the dramatic change is, or what that change will really involve.

Ehlers and Schneckenberg reinforce the work of others addressing trends in higher education by presenting the following comprehensive list of current trends and assertions about new or changing needs in universities: growing diversity among students; changing population demographics; the need for competence rather than knowledge transfer; demand for practice-

oriented learning scenarios rather than artificial "as-if" education; enforced student mobility; new balance of teaching-learning-research; interdisciplinary, flexible and learner-centered educational models oriented toward innovation and competence development; changing roles of teachers from information transmitters to coaches who support social interaction, innovation and invention in participatory and reflective learning environments; revised models of assessment and measurement; administrators who support teaching and research centres and adopt the values, beliefs and everyday practices of a modern university within an environment of information and communications technology (ICT) for learning, research and teaching; less management and more leadership in the vision of a forward-leading learning organization; government and communities that will find new ways of relating to universities as major actors to solve problems (current and future), as well as serve the well-being and economic prosperity of citizens (2010, pp. 2-3).

In addition to the above trends, Ehlers and Schneckenberg raise a concern that the following fields have emerged without universities fully understanding the potential these changes have to reform the current landscape: lifelong learning; ICT adoption into all levels of education; ubiquitous learning; affordable education; collaborative learning; diversity; international and intercultural education; and new forms and patterns between provisions of education, research and service to the public (p. 3).

Looking to the Ontario college arena, conflicting opinion about external world impact is evidenced in the debate about the 'access agenda'. This researcher has observed one side of debate supports the thinking that increased access and participation in postsecondary education should be ensured due to the complex world we live in and the rising standards of education for entry to work in Ontario. Others argue that we should not educate those who have insufficient

academic qualifications, blaming increased access for the rising number of underprepared students in college classrooms who may graduate underprepared for work. This review does not include the debates about scholarship versus skills, the type and level of research in academic institutions, or the debate about access to higher education. However, Bender's work illustrates the impact the external environment is having on these issues today:

> Academe is also a victim of larger transformations in American society. The incorporation of higher learning into the center of American established institutions, including the government, has enhanced the university, but it has also made it vulnerable to a larger disaffection with those institutions. Universities have also been focal points (and sometimes at the leading edge) for increasingly controversial efforts to overcome racial and sexual injustices. The most compelling aspirations of the universities—whether one speaks of advanced scholarship or progressive social interventions—have prompted more criticism than congratulation. (Bender, 1997, p. 19)

These societal pressures are globally evident in academic environments. In Canada, governments, employers, and community alike, all appear to have greater expectations for colleges and college graduates. In September 2002, the Research and Planning Office of the Committee of Presidents, Association of Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology Ontario (ACAATO), now known as Colleges Ontario (CO), provided a snapshot of postsecondary trends and issues at the Fall Presidents' Planning Retreat. Similar to the CO snapshot of postsecondary trends and issues, the League for Innovation, an American-based service consortium dedicated to catalyzing the college movement, identified 10 key trends in 2003. Table 1 depicts these findings.

Table 1

Colleges Ontario and League of Innovation – Snapshot of Postsecondary Trends and Issues

CO Snapshot of Trends/ Issues (2002)	League of Innovation Key Trends (2003)
• Changing landscape of postsecondary education. →Decreased funding by government for postsecondary education.	• Increasing enrolment, budget cuts, and rising tuitions have many implications.
• Access for all qualified applicants. →Targeted funding and the need for partnerships and collaboration to access funding some initiatives.	• There is a strong trend toward community college presidents becoming leaders in private fundraising.
• Increased focus of workplace development. →Increased demand for postsecondary education.	• Given the broad budget challenges, program redesign and service creativity have become a priority.
• Use of performance indicators as key accountability measures. →Client diversity and changing expectations.	• Trends in secondary school/community college dual enrolment, expanded university transfer and business partnerships point to the community colleges' continuing and strengthening role in facilitating student transitions.
• Increased importance of postsecondary education for future success. →Leadership at the political, system and local levels.	• Technology change is still with us, although a greater focus seems to be on training and expanding the use of technology in services and instruction to meet student demand.
• Efforts to improve responsiveness and flexibility of institutions/system. →Compliance costs.	• Helping foster a culture that supports change and creativity has become a must.
• Emphasis on transferability/articulation. →Affordability for all prospective students.	• More colleges are embracing their role in fostering student responsibility, civic engagement, and service.
• Increased emphasis on the role of colleges in economic development. →Postsecondary education more competitive.	• Legislators and communities continue their call for accountability from colleges.
• Collaboration and partnerships key to success.	• As our massive employee turnover continues, we are challenged to create effective orientation programs and honour the past through thoughtful retirement and transition strategies.
• Attention to effective governance and public accountability. →Implementation of accountability mechanisms.	• Workforce training/development offerings and business partnerships continue to be important for community colleges.
• Focus on e-learning/virtual and technology in colleges. →Cost of implementing e-learning.	
• Skills shortages. →Demands for human, financial and physical resources.	

Note. Adapted from: "Snapshot of Postsecondary Trends and Issues" by ACAATO, September 2002, Fall Presidents' Planning Retreat and *League for Innovation key trends: Survey #22.* League for Innovation, (2003), p. 1.

It is interesting to note that both the Ontario and American list of trends and issues are similar, although explicit to the list provided by the American League for Innovation is the need to foster a culture that supports change and creativity.

The struggle to hold on to what is known to be safe and sure, juxtaposed on the pressure to respond to change, has resulted in considerable debate about what is best for institutions and how to measure performance. In turn, this has created an increased competitiveness among Ontario colleges. From a macro-perspective, increased competition has been exemplified by increased efforts to recruit students, garner government favour, and generate additional funding for special projects and infrastructure. Competition has increased in particular since the introduction of KPIs in Ontario in 1998. Even though there was an agreement among Ontario college presidents not to use the data for competitive purposes, there is ample evidence that colleges publish selected results in print and electronic media, and at student events to bolster student recruitment marketing. It is also interesting to note that colleges have, overall, made improvements in their individual institutional KPIs since they were introduced by the Government of Ontario 10 years ago (CO, KPI, 2010). The literature on our changing world and changing trends in higher education provide a context for why postsecondary leaders are struggling with considerable pressures to change. The impact of organizational culture during these dynamic times is increasingly important as institutions react to the change required in the current environment.

The importance of understanding organizational culture is in part driven by the massive changes in our world today. No business, industry, government or academic institution is immune to the innovations defining our life and work or the changing technologies impacting manufacturing and communications. How do institutions of higher learning adapt? How do leaders assist their organizations in understanding the impact of change and move forward in this

era where for any organization to stand still results in that organization lagging behind?

An important question in these complex times is how does understanding and improving organizational culture fit into the current climate of Ontario's colleges?

Organizational Culture: Definitions and Theory

This section examines relevant literature since 1980 concerning organizational culture definitions and the dimensions and attributes of organizational culture. The role of particular surveys in transforming culture and four specific culture assessment tools are reviewed for the purpose of this study.

Definitions

Culture, a commonly accepted and liberally used word, is frequently expended imprecisely, offhandedly, casually and even carelessly in its day-to-day use. Close inspection of the meaning of culture in scholarly research indicates a more precise definition, albeit, after an extensive literature review, there is no clear consensus on the exact definition of culture. In many ways, this ambiguity is at the very core of the meaning of culture.

For the purposes of this discussion, culture/organizational culture/corporate culture are considered to have the same meaning; culture and climate will be defined separately. According to Schein (1999):

> The concept of culture is rooted more in theories of group dynamics and group growth than in anthropological theories of how large cultures evolve. When we study organizations, we do not have to decipher a completely strange language or set of customs. Rather, our problem is to distinguish – within a broader host culture –the unique features of a particular social unit in which we are interested. (p. 191)

Over the past 25 years, Schein has evolved his definition of culture.

1985   Culture: a pattern of basic assumptions – invented, discovered, or developed by a

given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and

internal integration – that has worked well enough to be considered valid and,

therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and

feel in relation to those problems (Schein, 1985, p. 9).

1999   In encouraging managers to take a more realistic view of culture content versus the

popular view that culture is about human relations, Schein offers a more abstract

definition: Culture is the sum total of all the shared, taken-for-granted

assumptions that a group has learned throughout its history (Schein, 1999, p. 29).

2004   Culture is a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved

its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well

enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the

correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems (Schein,

2004, p. 17).

Deal and Kennedy (1983), authored a paper entitled *Culture, A New Look Through Old Lenses* and concluded there is a need for more research to assist applied scientists, managers and consultants to understand and improve modern organizations (19/4. p. 504). These researchers proposed that every organization has a distinguishable culture, and contributed to the literature a definition that supports the need to be able to describe an organizational culture in order to understand how work is done, what the rules are and what will be rewarded and/or penalized:

Culture by definition is elusive, intangible, implicit, and taken for granted. But every

organization develops a core set of assumptions, understanding, and implicit rules that

govern day-to-day behaviour in the work place. Participants often describe these patterns as 'the way we do things around here,' and thus informally sanction and reinforce them. Until newcomers learn the rules, they are not accepted as full-fledged members of the organization. Transgressions of the rules on the part of high-level executives or front-line employees result in universal disapproval and powerful penalties. Conformity to the rules becomes the primary basis for reward and upward mobility. (19/4, p. 501)

Over the past 40 years, many other scholars have weighed into the debate about organizational culture. A few examples follow:

1990   Lessem provided a purposeful definition worthy of consideration: A culture does not exist for itself but, rather, to provide a context within which the primary intention of the organization are filled (p. 8).

1993   Trice and Beyer: Cultures are collective phenomena that embody people's responses to uncertainties and chaos that are inevitable in human experience (p. 2).

1996   Wagner and Spencer and others support Schein's definition: A pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those patterns. (cited in Kraut, 1996, p. 12)

The next couple of examples come from the management literature and illustrate a less precise use of the word culture and organizational culture/corporate culture:

1995   Clemmer, in *Pathways to Performance*, defines culture in both the short- and long-term future perspective applying Deal and Kennedy's original definition: Develop a two-track approach to your change and improvement efforts. One track is short

term. You're looking for quick wins and immediate results, particularly from

changes to operating processes. The other track is a long-term culture change.

You need to think through and establish the teams, skills, measurements, and

structural and systems alignments, as well as the education and communication

strategies that will profoundly and permanently change 'the way we do things

around here' (how I define culture) (Clemmer, 1995, p. 194).

2006   In *Encyclopedia.com*, organizational culture is defined as: the values, customs,

rituals, attitudes, and norms shared by members of an organization, which have to

be learnt and accepted by new members of the organization. It is argued that there

are at least three different types of organizational culture:

1. In an integrative culture, the objective is to obtain a consensus regarding

    the values and basic assumptions of the organization and to produce

    consistent actions. This integration brings unity, predictability, and clarity

    to work experiences.

2. In a differentiated culture, subcultures develop that have internal consensus

    about values and basic assumptions but differ greatly between each

    subculture; this produces inconsistencies throughout the organization.

3. In a fragmentation culture, there are multiple interpretations of values and

    assumptions, which produce great ambiguity. This can arise from fast

    changes within the organization, the growing diversity of the workforce,

    and the increasingly global environment with which organizations are

    faced.

Given the use of the term culture/organizational culture/corporate culture is applied less

specifically in management literature than the more precise definition in the social science literature, these two bodies of researchers may be adding to confusion about the meaning of what culture is and what it is not.

Further complexity regarding the definition of culture is generated by authors such as Sathe (1983), Denison (1996), and Trice and Beyer (1993), who acknowledge the interchangeable misuse of the word culture and climate by both scholars and management authors. Denison (1996) attempts to provide clarity by distinguishing the two terms:

> Climate refers to a situation and its link to thoughts, feelings and behaviours of
>
> organizational members. Thus, it is temporal, subjective, and often subject to direct
>
> manipulation by people with power and influence. Culture, in contrast, refers to an
>
> evolved context (within which a situation may be embedded). Thus, it is rooted in history,
>
> collectively held, and sufficiently complex to resist many attempts at direct manipulation.
>
> (p. 644)

Denison notes that the two terms, culture and climate, are distinct in theories, methods, and epistemologies. They also each have a distinct set of findings, failings, and future agendas (p. 644).

Trice and Beyer (1993) further delineate the differences between culture and climate affirming culture is not: group think, social structure (believed to be more tangible and specific ways that human beings order their relations), and not "a metaphor for describing organizations as they exist as real systems of thought, feeling and behaviour that inevitably result from sustained human interactions" (p. 21).

Although there does not appear to be one clearly accepted definition of culture, the majority of authors acknowledge the definition(s) put forward by Schein. Schein contributes

further to the literature on culture by describing culture at three different levels – with the term

level meaning the degree to which the cultural phenomena is visible to the observer. Figure 2

provides a diagram of Schein's model of the three levels of culture.
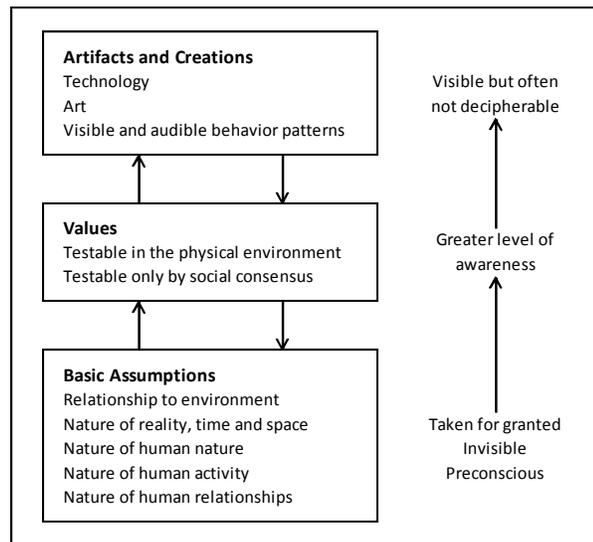
Figure 2. Levels of Culture and Their Interaction. Source: In *Organizational culture and leadership, a dynamic view.* From E.H. Schein (1985), Jossey-Bass, California, p. 14.

The things one sees, hears and feels when encountering a new group with an unfamiliar

culture, Schein describes as level one - Artifacts and Creations. These visible organizational

structures and processes, according to Schein, are hard to decipher because one's interpretations

are based on one's perceptions of one's feelings and reactions.

The second level of culture in Schein's model is Espoused Beliefs and Values. These are

the strategies, goals, philosophies of an organization, which are based on the recognition that

someone originally thought of these beliefs and values. It is not until these beliefs and values are

acted upon, in a way enabling the group to experience positive outcomes that these beliefs and

values become shared assumptions. However, certain values may not be testable at all, in which

case Schein notes the value can only be confirmed by a shared social experience of the group

(i.e., those who do not follow the group risk becoming outcasts, making the values and beliefs learned rather than tested phenomena). The values are usually promulgated by the leaders' work to reduce uncertainty in the decision-making process. Schein describes these phenomena as espoused justifications.

The final level is described as Underlying Assumptions. These are the unconscious, taken-for-granted beliefs, perceptions, thoughts and feelings. Schein calls this the ultimate source of values and action.

Drawing from the research of Argyris (1976) and Argyris and Schön (1974) (Schein, 2004, p. 25) identified as 'theories-in-use,' Schein concludes that theories-in-use are the basic assumptions that guide behaviour based on concepts that have become so taken for granted by the group that there is little variation in a social unit. This becomes the group's culture. It is a pattern of shared, basic, taken-for-granted assumptions. This culture will manifest itself at the level of observable artifacts and shared espoused beliefs and values.

In analyzing cultures, Schein (2004) notes, "it is important to recognize that artifacts are easy to observe but difficult to decipher and that espoused beliefs and values may only reflect rationalizations or aspirations" (p. 36). Further, Schein underscores the importance of attempting to get at the group's shared basic assumptions, and the learning process by which assumptions come to be, as crucial to understanding a group's culture.

For example, if one examines a college's organizational culture aligned to the paradigm offered by Schein, one might suggest that the underlying assumptions would include the commonly held desire that the classroom facilitates learning, and a belief that learning will advance people's abilities. Espoused beliefs and values would include shared understanding that teachers intend to do a good job and are committed to enabling learning, and perhaps supporting

vision and mission statements that have been collectively derived. In addition, artifacts would include student essay and examination results, as well as institutional KPI results.

Wagner and Spencer (1996) offer five common themes and understandings from literature definitions. The first theme is an organization's culture effectiveness depends on: the degree that it supports the organization's mission and strategy; whether it is aligned with the other components of the organizational system (formal and informal organization, work processes, and people); and, whether it helps the organization to anticipate and adapt to environmental change. The second theme is based on the theory that an organization's culture provides a sense of meaning for people, particularly when they are confronted with ambiguity or competing alternatives for action. In turn, the successes of the organization reinforce its specific cultural characteristics; over time the behavioural patterns and the deeper values, beliefs, and underlying assumptions become unquestioned and implicit standard operating procedures. The third theme is culture serves as an integrating perspective for the social system and a sense of identity for that system's members. This characteristic of culture may be the root of why culture is so difficult to change in that changing an organization's culture may also involve changing the way individuals view their own identities. The fourth theme considers identifiable subcultures within an organization with many cultural attributes similar to the attributes of the corporate culture and, at the same time, also have attributes that are unique and quite distinct from those of other business units or functions. Finally, member stability and the strength of a culture are associated. This association can create perpetuation of culture over time as the collective success of an organization's responses leads to greater member stability. In turn, this reinforces the development of members' automatic responses and assumptions about how to respond to situations, which then leads to an ever stronger culture. The ongoing reinforcement can present a

paradox as these scholars believe that the strength of an organization's culture can block the organization's ability to adapt to a changing environment (Wagner & Spencer, pp. 68-69).

The literature described above both defines culture and underscores the abstract nature of culture. Because of its abstract nature and the complexity of coming to a common understanding, one can appreciate why it appears to be easier for leaders to assume a responsibility to drive organizations' beliefs and values as a mechanism to move organizations to deal with internal and external opportunities. At the same time, leaders do not appear to apply the same attention to mechanisms intended to enhance understanding and change their organizations' culture to build more successful companies/institutions of higher learning.

A Selected Look at Culture Research Over 30 Years: 1980 to 2010

Inspiring a greater understanding of cultural influence, Schein wrote:

[But] once you have acquired what I would call a 'cultural perspective,' you will be amazed at how rewarding it is. Suddenly the world is much clearer. Anomalies are now explainable, conflicts are more understandable, resistance to change begins to look normal, and – most important – your own humility increases. In that humility, you will find wisdom. (Schein, 1999, p. 191)

Schein has contributed a lifetime to the understanding of and encouragement of others to seriously observe culture and to build a greater understanding of what, how and who can have influence on culture. This is reinforced by Schein's ongoing belief that a cultural perspective provides a clearer lens to view our working environments.

The following provides a sample of the relevant research over the past 30 years and offers a perspective of what has helped to shape our understanding of culture today.

The 1980s – Emergence of effectiveness and performance measurement. Interest in

culture/organizational culture/corporate culture by society and its researchers is not new. From the turn of the 20th century, authors have been discussing some form of organizational culture, although the focus appears to have increased somewhat in the 1970s, followed by an even greater increase in the 1980s. Literature from the 80s continues to be a reference point in the scholarly literature today.

Tom Peters and Robert Waterman, Jr., (1982) well known for their work *In Search of Excellence: Lessons from America's Best-Run Companies,* write about managing ambiguity and culture. They described the dilemma facing businesses in the 80s on this 'softer' side of business as follows:

> Some colleagues who have heard us expound on the importance of values and distinctive cultures have said in effect, "That's swell, but isn't it a luxury? Doesn't the business have to make money first?" The answer is that, of course, a business has to be fiscally sound. And the excellent companies are among the most fiscally sound of all. But their value set *integrates* the notions of economic health, serving customers, and making meanings down the line. As one executive said to us, "Profit is like health. You need it, and the more the better. But it's not why you exist." (p. 103)

From previous research work, Peters and Waterman (1982) observed that companies that focused only on financial goals do not do nearly as well financially as companies that had broader sets of values. Hailing the importance of culture, Peters and Waterman further reflect:

> Perhaps culture was taboo as a topic following William H. Whyte, Jr.'s *The Organization Man* and the conformist, gray flannel suit image that he put forward. But what seems to have been overlooked by Whyte, and management theorists until recently, is what, in Chapter 12, we call the "loose-tight" properties of the excellent companies. In the very

same institutions in which culture is so dominant, the highest levels of true autonomy

occur. The culture regulates rigorously the few variables that do count, and it provides

meaning. But within those qualitative values (and in almost *all* other dimensions), people

are encouraged to stick out, to innovate. (p. 105)

Peters and Waterman identify eight attributes that emerge to "characterize most nearly the

distinction of the excellent, innovative companies" (p. 13). These attributes include: a bias for

action; close to the customer; autonomy and entrepreneurship; productivity through people;

hands-on, value driven; stick to the knitting; simple form, lean staff; and, simultaneous loose-tight

properties.

Trice and Beyer (1993) examine the work of scholars during the early 80s and identify

positions that contributed to our understanding of organizational culture. The first theme

emerged from Peters' and Waterman's work (previously introduced in this chapter) described

"certain cultural configurations that characterized excellent companies and thus presumably

provide formulas for success" (p. 21). However, Trice and Beyer recognize that around the same

time the work of Pfeiffer (1984), Carroll (1983), Johnson, Natarajan, and Rappaport (1985)

disputed this through examining other Fortune 1000 companies.

Perhaps the most telling criticism of the Peters and Waterman approach, from a cultural

perspective, is that it ignored the differing environmental contingencies and other

contextual circumstances of organizations, apparently assuming that similar cultural

features are equally plausible and likely to be successful in all circumstances. (Trice &

Beyer, p. 21)

It is easy to understand why practitioners were engaged by Peters' and Waterman's work during

this era as they offered a somewhat packaged solution for leaders to apply in their own

organization. Nevertheless, Trice and Beyer underscore the view that the complexity of

organizational culture was demonstrated in clarifying that "cultural configurations associated with

success at one point in time are not necessarily successful at other times when environmental

conditions have changed" (p. 21).

A second position that emerged in the 80s was 'strong cultures' lead to success. Deal and

Kennedy authored a book entitled, *Corporate Cultures: The Rights and Rituals of Corporate Life*

(1982). Citing the work of Sathe (1985), Starbuck, Greve, and Hedberg (1978) and Miller

(1990), Trice and Beyer (1993) challenge this theory as a key to success by acknowledging that a

strong culture could, by its very nature, inhibit the change required or discourage needed change

for success (p. 22).

Our knowledge about culture type and strength of culture was expanded through a

national study of four-year American colleges conducted by Krakower and Niwa (1985), which

resulted in a by-product self-study instrument – the Institutional Performance Survey (IPS). The

study was designed to assess how various institutional conditions were related to an institution's

external environment, strategic competence, and effectiveness. This assessment instrument was

found to measure dimensions not tapped by other instruments such as perceptions of competition,

enrolment and revenue condition, resource allocation and institutional functioning. Unfortunately

the instrument did not measure: educational outcomes; climate; relations of members of different

groups; current and desired conditions; assessment of institutional public goals; assessment of

research goals; and assessment of productivity and efficiency. A section of the survey has

questions about characteristics, leaders, 'organizational glue' and emphasis, which are based on

the Competing Values Framework (CVF) originally develop by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983).

These are similar to some of the questions found in the Organizational Culture Assessment

Instrument (OCAI) created by Cameron and Quinn (2006). Relevant to this research, Krakower and Niwa summarize the utility of the IPS tool and conclude "the IPS does a fairly good job of identifying the strengths and weaknesses of an organization" and cautions that "failure to seriously investigate what an institution's scores on the dimensions assessed actually mean; and, how conditions are related and impact one another, may result in spurious or inappropriate conclusions" (p. 17). This study laid the groundwork for future research on type of organizational culture and strength of organizational culture, which is measured in this research.

A third position arises from the work of Kets de Vries and Miller (cited in Trice and Beyer, 1993), who suggest that "cultures may derive unhealthy modes of functioning from the psychopathological problems of their chief executives making some cultures sick, even neurotic" (p. 22). Trice and Beyer (1993) challenge this theory stating "it is hard to imagine that the neurotic firms (described by Kets de Vries and Miller) are financially successful for very long" (p. 23).

The fourth position about organizational culture and performance identified by Trice and Beyer in the early 80s emerged from the work of Wilkins and Ouchi (1983):

Some organizational culture will presumably be irrelevant to performance; some forms of culture will promote and some will inhibit efficient operation, depending on the conditions listed below. Cultures are more efficient when: 1) transactions occur under conditions of ambiguity, complexity, and interdependence; 2) enough people share the same set of ideas that set forth appropriate orientations; 3) the costs of maintaining the culture are not too high; and 4) sub-units do not develop cultures and operate to the detriment of a larger organization lacking in culture. (cited in Trice & Beyer, 1993, p. 22)

Trice and Beyer go on to note that Barney (1986) saw culture as a viable source of

competitive advantage and identified cultures must be valuable, rare and not easy to imitate for a

company to sustain superior financial performance. Concluding that certain conditions,

oversimplifications, different characteristics and financial considerations are all limiting ways to

examine organizational culture, Trice and Beyer pose that it is time to "liberate researchers and

managers from past assumptions and ways of thinking about organizations and suggest new

paradigms for their study and management" (p. 23).

By the mid-80s, companies throughout the world were beginning to recognize the

need for increased capacity to adapt to global and local change, while struggling to respond to

the 'total quality' movement. Schein (1985) acknowledged the abstract concept of culture and its

practical applications by leaders interested in understanding the dynamics of organizations and

change.

In the early 80s, researchers such as Ouchi (1981), Pascale and Athos (1981), Peters and

Waterman (1982), Deal and Kennedy (1982), Schein, (1980, 1985, 1990), and others contributed

to the conceptualization of organizational culture in higher education (Cameron & Quinn, 2006,

p. 16). In the early 1990s, Trice and Beyer bridged researchers' earlier work by describing some

typologies of organizational cultures based on research from the 70s and 80s. This became very

useful in identifying a sample of common dominant ideologies by researchers rooted in levels of

control, risk taking, regard for employees, levels of trust and balance between flexibility and

control. It is interesting to note Trice and Beyer identify the use of terms Clan and Hierarchy

(which are later used by Cameron and Quinn), were also used as early as 1978 by Ouchi and

Jaeger.

According to Schein, (1983), Sathe, (1983) and Cameron & Quinn, (2006, p. 144), as

organizations adapt and respond to their changing environment, they tend to develop a dominant

organizational culture. Given the evolving study of organizational culture, as depicted in the literature, it is increasingly clear that culture/organizational culture/corporate culture can no longer be passively considered. The external influences affecting postsecondary institutions, such as funding, performance, accountability, and the ability to attract students, are clearly active forces that dominate organizational reputation and influence organizational sense of worth.

This mid-80s literature also indicates that culture dominates the environment in organizations, interpreted or understood as both elusive and tangible. This dichotomy is evident in the literature and the challenge of defining or harnessing a corporate culture. Changes in the postsecondary environment require that its leaders are cognizant of, and responsive to, both this dichotomy and the challenge factor.

The 1990s and beyond – refining culture theory. Around the early 1990s, there was increased interest by social scientists in the culture of organizations, which provoked a renewed interest in the concept of culture in research on higher education, as evidenced by the work of Lessem, (1990), Ohnuki-Tierney, (1991), and Bergquist, (1992). This idea was reinforced by Peterson and Spencer who wrote, "Although the major interest in research activity related to culture and climate has occurred outside of higher education institutions, interest within is also expanding" (Peterson & Spencer, 2000, p. 171).

Ronnie Lessem, described by Bergquist and Pawlak (2008) as a corporate analyst, provides a thoughtful case for a developmental approach (p. 9). Lessem (1990) poses, that culture is a result of a need by humans to create a context (or as he calls it, "a space of time") where the production and consumption of worthwhile and quality products and services can take place. From Lessem we learned that a culture exists to provide a context within which the primary intentions of the organization are filled. Guptara, who provided a review of Lessem's

two books from 1990 (*Developmental Management: Principles of Holistic Business* and *Managing Corporate Culture*) credits Lessem for bringing together "remarkably comprehensive principles," which contribute to the growing body of practitioner knowledge helping to increase the number of institutions "interested in going beyond the rhetoric [of culture]" (Guptara, 1991, p. 143).

Another respected researcher of the 90s was Emiko Ohnuki-Tierney. From a social scientist perspective, Ohnuki-Tierney builds a theory of valuing anthropologists in the historical study of culture. In the book, *Culture Through Time*, Ohnuki-Tierney explains a dynamic complexity between 'culture and history' and observing the inter-dependency between the two. This dynamic "raises important issues and offers clear direction for further research on culture mediated by history and history mediated by culture - a new field of inquiry that transcends both history and anthropology" (Ohnuki-Tierney, 1991, p. 5). For example, studying culture over a long period of time allows the strategic advantage of examining the question of change versus stability, often phrased as the problem of "plus ça change, plus c'est la même chose (translation: the more things change, the more they remain the same)" (p. 8).

Ohnuki-Tierney also identified three "divergent" research strategies for long-term changes in culture: namely, a historical moment of structural break; reoccurrence of key scenarios; and a focus on a dominant metaphor that offers a key to the order of meaning in a given culture and traces its changing forms and meanings (p. 11).

Bringing together the research of the 80s and 90s, Trice and Beyer provide scholarly insight into why culture is so important to organizations by identifying what is different about culture. The authors help to bridge between the anthropological perspective and a more contemporary perspective, cautioning that to simplify one's approach will only provide a partial

explanation that could be misleading and limited in valuable insights.

While cultural anthropologists who studied tribal societies tended to include all aspects of social life as part of cultures, their all-encompassing approach does not seem suited to the analysis of modern, complex organizations. Research in management fields like organizational behaviour, human resources, strategy, as well as in the social science disciplines of sociology, psychology, and political science, has already developed many useful ways of looking at people in work organizations. Each of these approaches, however, greatly simplifies reality by treating only selected aspects of human behaviour in organizations. Thus, each offers only a partial explanation - one that can sometimes be misleading to the degree it ignores valuable insights provided by other approaches or misses important aspects of behaviour. (Trice & Beyer, 1993, p. 5)

Trice and Beyer believe that people's responses to uncertainties and chaos fall into the two major categories of: 1) Cultural substance – includes shared, emotionally-charged belief systems. Trice and Beyer call these belief systems ideologies, and 2) Cultural forms – described to be observable entities, including actions through which members of a culture express, affirm, and communicate the substance of their culture (p. 3). These authors go on to explain that both cultural substance and form tend to be 'more encompassing.' This approach also recognizes that due to the complexity of modern, multifaceted organizations, cultural approaches do not try to 'encompass everything' (p. 3).

Further to this expanded thinking on culture, Trice and Beyer detail six characteristics of culture helping others envision the complexity of organizational culture. The first characteristic is that cultures are *collective*. They cannot be produced by individuals acting alone. The second characteristic, which identifies a new element of culture, yet to be discussed in this literature

review, is that culture is *emotionally charged*. By way of explanation, the authors observe that cultures help manage anxieties whose substance and forms are played out through people's established ideologies, which makes the future more predictable. "People's allegiances to their ideologies and cultural forms thus spring more from their emotional needs than from rational considerations. When ideologies and cultural practices are questioned, their adherents react emotionally" (p. 6).

The third characteristic is that culture and its *historical base* cannot be separated. In order for cultures to develop, people interact and share common ambiguity and ways of dealing with that uncertainty. Considering the attention to symbolism by other authors, such as Ohnuki-Tierney (1990), it is not surprising that the fourth characteristic is that culture is *inherently symbolic*. The inherent shared symbols of communication and expression in an organization are easy to accept; what is unique to this description is that Trice and Beyer point out the need to pay attention to this as symbolic of an organization's culture. Along the same lines, it is not surprising that the authors identify that culture is in continuous motion and therefore the fifth characteristic is *dynamic*. Finally, the sixth characteristic is that culture is *inherently fuzzy*. Well-labelled, this characteristic represents the notion that culture incorporates contradictions, ambiguities, paradoxes, and just plain confusion (Trice & Beyer, 1993, p. 5).

In addition to their contribution to defining characteristics of culture, Trice and Beyer provide insight into some of the discrepancies of the era's anthropologists and researchers. It appears that, during the 80s, books published for managerial purposes by Peters and Waterman, Deal and Kennedy, and Ouchi argued that organizations had distinctive cultures and that leaders influence that culture. Organizational scholars in the 90s challenged this with the argument that organizations have subcultures. Considering the complexities of large organizations, the external

influences of our changing world, and the trends in higher education impacting learning in the context of a knowledge-driven economy, it becomes readily acceptable that a large organization must indeed have subcultures.

Trice and Beyer indicate a lack of agreement by researchers around rigid versus malleable cultures, stating some researchers believed cultures were unchanging and recognizing more believed change does occur. Schein (1985, 1990) postulated changing cultures exist when social learning processes are changed. This concept is addressed further in the literature review when Schein's (1999) *Corporate Culture Survival Guide: Sense and Nonsense about Culture Change* is discussed in more detail.

Another discrepancy among researchers, identified by Trice and Beyer, stems from the agreement by some researchers, "that some consensus about cultural form is a distinguishing feature about culture" (Trice & Beyer, 1993, p. 5). However, they also note there was disagreement "about whether to include consensus within the term culture" (p. 13).

An analysis suggests that there are three perspectives on organizational cultures: integrated, differentiated, and fragmented (Meyerson & Martin, 1987). The integrated view emphasizes organization-wide consensus; internal consistency and clarity; the differentiated view emphasizes consensus within subcultures, inconsistencies between them, and clarity only within subcultures; the fragmented view emphasizes a lack of consensus, both organization-wide and in subcultures; a lack of either clear consistency or inconsistency; and the pervasiveness of ambiguity (Trice & Beyer, p. 13). The question left unanswered by these researchers is, "If there is more congruence, is the organization better?"

The work of Martin (1992) exploring culture in organizations is complex and theoretical in nature, however in *Cultures in Organizations: Three Perspectives,* Martin describes in detail

the three different culture perspectives held by social scientists: integration, differentiation, and fragmentation. Martin's analysis assists in the understanding of each perspective, the limitations, and further provides scholarly insight into the complexity of the culture research. Through a fascinating exposé, Martin creates a case study to show three different views of the same metaphorical company (OZCO). The author's work demonstrates how you can see the company in ways congruent with all three perspectives described in the following chart. Martin then proposes moving beyond a single perspective to manage cultural change by "adopting a subjective, three-perspective view of any organizational culture" (p. 169).

Table 2

Defining Characteristics of the Three Perspectives

Perspective	Integration	Differentiation	Fragmentation
Orientation to Consensus	Organization-wide consensus	Sub-cultural consensus	Multiplicity of views (no consensus)
Relation among manifestations	Consistency	Inconsistency	Complexity (not clearly consistent or inconsistent)
Orientation to Ambiguity	Exclude it	Channel it outside subcultures	Focus on it
Metaphors	Clearing in jungle, monolith, hologram	Islands of clarity in sea of ambiguity	Web, jungle

Source: Adapted from: Martin, J. (1992).*Cultures in Organizations.* New York: Oxford University Press, p. 13. Martin & Meyerson (1988), Table 1; Meyerson & Martin (1987), Figure 3; and Frost, Moore, Louis, Lundberg, &Martin (1991), Table 1.1, p. 13.

Martin also challenges the ability of previous researchers to agree on fundamental issues, posing four important questions with many implications: 1) is culture a source of harmony, an effect of irreducible conflicts of interest or a reflection of the inescapable ambiguities that

pervade contemporary organizational life?; 2) must culture be something internally consistent, integrative and shared? Or can it be inconsistent and expressive of difference? Or can it incorporate confusion, ignorance, paradox and fragmentation?; 3) what are the boundaries around culture(s) in organization? Are boundaries essential?; and, 4) how do cultures change? (p. 4)

Moving beyond the one perspective, Martin proclaimed the Objectivist (i.e., a single perspective view of types of organizational culture), was "cured" when he promoted a "more elaborated approach and argued that organizations progress through states of cultural development, reflecting one of these three perspectives at each stage" (p. 171).

William H. Bergquist (1992) identified four different and interrelated cultures in higher education in *The Four Cultures of the Academy*. These cultures are collegial, managerial, developmental and advocacy. In more recent work, Bergquist and Pawlak (2008) propose two additional external influences in our global culture that significantly impact academic institutions and change the way things are being done. These are the virtual culture, which is the result of technological and social forces that have emerged over the past 20 years. Perhaps most uniquely is the tangible culture, which values its roots, community, and physical location and has only recently been evident as a separate culture, partly in response to emergence of the virtual culture. This work illustrates the impact of the knowledge-driven society and further supports the changing trends in higher education discussed earlier in this literature review (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008).

In recent years, Schein also elaborated his view of organizational culture when he described culture to be "most often thought of as an accumulated shared learning of a given group, covering behavioural, emotional, and cognitive elements of the group members' total psychological functioning" (Schein, 2004, p. 17).

According to Cameron and Quinn (2006) organizational culture is an important factor in accounting for organizational performance. They explain, organizational culture:

Encompasses the taken-for-granted values, underlying assumptions, expectations, collective memories and definitions present in an organization. It represents 'how things are done around here'. It reflects the prevailing ideology that people carry inside their heads. It conveys a sense of identity to employees, provides unwritten and often unspoken guidelines for how to get along in the organization, and it enhances the stability of the social system that they experience. (p. 16)

These scholars further suggest "without culture change, there is little hope for enduring improvement in organizational performance" (p. 16) and credit conceptual work and scholarship for providing counsel to managers probing for methods to improve effectiveness in their organizations.

Although the term 'culture' is bantered about liberally by Ontario college leaders, and in spite of its elusive definition, the notion of organizational culture emerges as a concept that is accepted and elevated as an important attribute of an organization. However, there is little evidence that data have been collected affirming the assumptions behind the usage of institutional cultural descriptions. Even though organizational culture is discussed and the importance of understanding organizational culture is reinforced in the media by other organizations and throughout higher education research, there is little evidence that shared or individual college organizational culture in Ontario is well understood.

Not only are the distinguishing characteristics of each college's organizational culture not well understood, specific changes that could be implemented to achieve a desired culture outcome are also not well defined. It is very possible the broad and liberal use of the term culture, in

today's society, can be seen as contributing to the lack of understanding of the concept of culture, contributing to its ongoing abstractness and inhibiting formal assessment to determine the distinguishing cultural features of an organization.

Effectiveness and Performance Measurement

An increased focus on quality and performance is evident in both business and academic contexts. The following is a selective review of the effectiveness and performance literature as the body of work relates to this study. The objective is to build on the context of trends in higher education within a framework of effectiveness and performance measurement, and to further understand the impact that these themes have on organizational culture.

Scholarly literature supports Porter's (1980) six crucial conditions found in successful companies defined as "those with sustained profitability and above-normal financial returns" (cited in Cameron & Quinn, 2006, p. 2.). The six conditions are:

1) The presence of high barriers to entry (i.e., when other organizations face difficult obstacles to engaging in the same business as your organization, such as high costs, special technology, or proprietary knowledge).

2) Non-substitutable products.

3) A large market share exists allowing a firm to capitalize on economies of scale and efficiencies.

4) Low levels of bargaining power by buyers because they are dependent on the firm's product and they have no other sources to buy. (Note – this is readily observable in the resource sector over the last five years, as the price of fuel and energy has driven massive changes all over the world.)

5) Suppliers have low levels of bargaining power. Like buyers, they have become

dependent on the company for sales to sustain their business which can drive down cost and quality up.

6) Rivalry among competitors which helps deflect attention away from head-to-head competition with your company. Competitors struggle against one another instead of targeting your firm as the central focus of attack. This is seen as important as stiff competition can raise the standards of performance in the entire industry. Porter also states that incentives to improve are a product of rigorous competition (Cameron & Quinn, 2006, pp. 2-3).

In a study examining the use of strategy to enhance performance, Mankins and Steele (2005) report that Marakon Associates surveyed senior executives from 197 companies worldwide, with sales exceeding $500 million, to see how company strategy was affecting performance. The findings of this survey are reported in an article entitled, *Turning Great Strategy into Great Performance*. These researchers conclude that companies typically realize only about 60% of their strategies' potential value because of defects and breakdowns in planning and execution. They identify 11 reasons for close to a 40% performance gap, citing 3.7% of the gap is due to organizational silos and culture blocking execution. Other reasons include inadequate or unavailable resources – 7.5%; poorly communicated strategy – 5.2%; actions required to execute not clearly defined – 4.5%; unclear accountabilities for execution – 4.1%; inadequate performance monitoring – 3 %; inadequate consequences or rewards for failure or success – 3%; poor senior leadership – 2.6%; uncommitted leadership – 1.9%; unapproved strategy - .07%; and, inadequate skills and capabilities – 0.7% (p. 68). This researcher recommends organizations interested in changing their culture consider the above performance gaps, within a context of their desired culture, as a means to improve their effectiveness and

performance outcomes.

In the book, *Leadership in High Performance Cultures,* Truskie (2002) poses a critical question:

In order to understand an integrated and balanced culture and how it contributes to successful and consistent performance more fully, it is instructive to review what we know about leadership, organizational culture and performance. In other words, is there scientific evidence to support a cause-and-effect relationship between and among these three important factors? (p. 3)

Truskie's work is further discussed in the section of this literature review on leading cultural change. However, for the purpose of examining the relationship between organizational culture and performance, it is significant to note his affirmation that the most significant breakthrough began when management scholars and academics started studying culture in organizations and management's impact on it in the 80s. Citing the work of Denison (1996), Truskie concludes that "the results of these efforts led to the discovery of the extent to which organizational culture can and does affect organizational performance and the impact that leadership has on forming the culture of organizations" (p. 2). Truskie further points out that method and format of dissemination caused this information to be obscure for leaders out of the academic and scholarly management circles, making it difficult to bring it down to the practical level in a meaningful way (p. 3).

By the mid-80s, attention to organizational effectiveness in America increased, largely due to competition from abroad (Cameron& Quinn, 2006). Indicators about the challenging world of work at that time are apparent when you consider facts such as the Department of Commerce in the U.S. reported in 1984 a trade deficit exceeding all the trade surpluses

accumulated from 1945 to 1983. It is interesting to note that 1.8 million manufacturing jobs in the U.S. alone were lost between 1980 and 1985. According to Statistics Canada, employment across the country was down by more than 400,000 jobs between October 2008 and October 2009 (Last updated: March 3, 2010).

Cameron (1986) notes that popular literature expanded over this same time period to assess the success of firms through analysis of how to achieve high quality, productivity, efficiency, and possessing vitality. Through these tough times, when survival became paramount, innovation, close proximity to customers, management-by-walking-around, and participatory leadership styles started to evolve as important predictors of effectiveness (Cameron, 1986, p. 539). However, despite the argument that organizational effectiveness had found a prominent place in modern organizations in North America, Cameron suggests that "confusion and ambiguity still characterize scholarly writing on the subject...Problems of definition, circumscription, and criteria identification plague most authors' work" (p. 539).

The following work by Cameron (1986) identifies five statements summarizing agreed-upon characteristics of effectiveness, and three statements summarizing areas of continued conflict suggesting there is no agreement regarding what makes organizations successful:

Consensus in the Characteristics of Effectiveness:

1) Despite the ambiguity and confusion surrounding it, the construct of organizational effectiveness is central to the organizational sciences and cannot be ignored in theory and research.

2) Since no conceptualization of an organization is comprehensive, no conceptualization of an effective organization is comprehensive. As the metaphor describing an organization changes, so does the definition or appropriate model of

organizational effectiveness.

3) Consensus regarding the best, or sufficient, set of indicators of effectiveness is impossible to obtain. Criteria are based on the values and preferences of individuals, and no specifiable construct boundaries exist.

4) Different models of effectiveness are useful for research in different circumstances. Their usefulness depends on the purposes and constraints placed on the organizational effectiveness investigation.

5) Organizational effectiveness is mainly a problem-driven construct rather than a theory-driven construct.

Conflict in Effectiveness Evaluations:

1) Evaluators of effectiveness often select models and criteria arbitrarily in their assessments, relying primarily on convenience.

2) Indicators of effectiveness selected by researchers are often too narrowly or too broadly defined, or they do not relate to organizational performance.

3) Outcomes are the dominant type of criteria used to assess effectiveness by researchers, whereas effects are most frequently used in policy decisions and by the public.

Cameron's work adds to the broader understanding of organizational culture and is applicable to this research study for two reasons. First, Cameron's concepts accentuate the world movement toward grasping the fundamental importance of effectiveness for organizations by linking the ways companies are doing things (i.e., focusing on culture to increase or improve performance). Second, Cameron's work contributes to the 'ongoing' paradox that still exists today in that as much as effectiveness is a goal, it resists measurement. It is interesting to note

that more than 25 years after this work by Cameron was published, researchers such as Jones (2005), Clark, et al., (2009), and Callaghan (2003) also identified some accepted principles in researching organizational effectiveness and some disagreement or conflict in accepted effectiveness evaluation criteria. This agreement/lack of agreement reinforces it is important to recognize that the criteria used in the evaluation of organizational culture must also be scrutinized carefully. "Basic problems surrounding organizational effectiveness are not theoretical problems, they are criteria problems" (Cameron, 1986, p. 541). Cameron suggests these criteria problems are compounded by another consideration (i.e., situational problems) (p. 541). In other words, the characteristics and criteria used to measure organizational effectiveness are also impacted by situations in organizations.

Cameron contributes additional clarity to the literature on measuring organizational effectiveness by summarizing models of organizational effectiveness:

1) The Goal Model – defines an effective organization in terms of the extent that it accomplishes its stated goals. This model is most applicable when goals are clear, consensual, time-bound and measurable.

2) The System Resource Model – defines an effective organization to the extent that it acquires needed resources. This model is most preferred when a clear connection exists between inputs and performance.

3) The Internal Processes Model – defines an effective organization as one that has an absence of internal strain with smooth internal functioning. This model is most preferred when a clear connection exists between organizational processes and performance.

4) The Strategic Constituencies Model – defines an effective organization to the extent that all strategic constituencies are at least minimally satisfied. This model is most preferred

when constituencies have powerful influence on the organization, and it has to respond to demands.

5) The Competing Values Model – defines an effective organization to the extent that the emphasis on criteria in the four different quadrants meets constituency preferences. The quadrants are: Clan (collaborative), Adhocracy (creative), Hierarchy (controlling), and Market (competitive). This model is most preferred when the organization is unclear about its own criteria or change in criteria, over time, are of interest.

6) The Legitimacy Model – defines an effective organization to the extent that it survives as a result of engaging in legitimate activity. This model is most preferred when the survival or decline and demise among organizations is of interest.

7) The Fault Driven Model – defines an effective organization to the extent that it has an absence of faults or traits of ineffectiveness. This model is most preferred when criteria of effectiveness are unclear, or strategies for improvement are needed.

8) The High Performing Systems Model – defines an effective organization to the extent that it is judged excellent relative to other similar organizations. This model is most preferred when comparisons among similar organizations are desired (p. 541). [1]

These models are all implicated in the administration of colleges, some more than others. Each institution may adopt or adapt any of these models. However, with the pressures and trends currently existing in the world-society described in this thesis, this researcher believes that the Competing Values Model offers a quantifiable approach with significant insights into how colleges can be managed effectively.

Chaffee (1984) and Ewell (1989) found effectiveness of four-year American institutions is

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[1]The Competing Values Model is the basis of the organizational culture assessment used to gather data for this PhD research. The Competing Values Model will be discussed further in this literature review.

highly correlated with their espoused missions (cited in Smart & Hamm, 1993). Smart and

Hamm (1993) conducted a study to investigate the effectiveness and mission orientation of two-

year colleges given the debate over college parallel/academic transfer agendas,

technical/vocational agendas, and development/remedial, and adult/continuing education agendas

at these institutions. These researchers applied nine dimensions of organizational effectiveness

put forth by Cameron (1978) (cited in Smart & Hamm, 1993): student educational satisfaction;

student academic development; student career development; student personal development;

faculty and administrator employment satisfaction; professional development and quality of the

faculty; system openness and community interaction; ability to acquire resources; and

organizational health (p. 495).

Smart and Hamm concluded that the nine dimensions proposed by Cameron to understand

and improve the management and institutional performance of two-year colleges is appropriate

for use in two-year colleges. The study further found that two-year colleges with tripartite and

dual missions are the most and least effective, respectively, while those with a singular mission

occupy the middle position. Smart and Hamm infer from the results that organizational

effectiveness in two-year institutions is enhanced most by the capacity of campus leaders to

embrace a comprehensive mission. If this is not accomplished, the next best strategy appears to

be a mission that focuses on a single important mission, with the least successful alternative being

a middle-of-the-road approach that emphasizes two of the three traditional missions, but denies

the legitimacy of the third (p. 499). Smart and Hamm's work is interesting when one considers

the move toward greater differentiation in the Ontario college and university system. Without a

measure of performance, differentiation may improve a sense of focus – enabling stronger,

aligned leadership and execution or it may only exasperate an already crumbling resource-

challenged educational sector by adding confusion and lack of identity.

Of equal interest to this literature review is the applicability of this type of research in Ontario today and alignment between Cameron's nine dimensions of organizational effectiveness and the student satisfaction type questions as compared to those found on the Student Satisfaction Survey as part of the KPIs mandated for use in colleges by the Government of Ontario in 1998. The KPIs are discussed later in this chapter.

More recently Jenkins (2006) reviewed what he described to be "surprisingly little rigorous research on institutional effectiveness in community colleges" (p. 1) as part of a study that considered management practices known to promote student success. Jenkins' review included the work of Astin, Tsui, & Avalos (1996), Bailey, Calcagno, Jenkins, Kienzl, & Leinbach, in press, Mortenson (1997), Pascarella & Terenzini (1991), Porter (2000), Ryan (2004), Scott, Bailey, & Kienzl, in press, Titus (2004), Muraskin & Lee (2004), Carey (2005), Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, Whitt and Associates (2005), Habley & McClanahan (2004), Bailey, Calcagno, et al. (2005). Through this review, Jenkins identifies ways some community colleges are more effective in promoting their students' educational success:

1) An institutional focus on student retention and outcomes, not just on enrolment.

2) Offers of targeted support for underperforming students.

3) Well-designed, well-aligned, and proactive student support services.

4) Support for faculty development focused on improving teaching.

5) Experiments with ways to improve the effectiveness of instruction and support services.

6) Use of institutional research to track student outcomes and improve program impact.

7) Management of the institution in ways that promote systemic improvement in student success.

Jenkins acknowledges the complications in comparing performance of different institutions based on different mixes of students, characteristics, resources and program mix and offers the suggestion that a better way to gauge whether a college is doing well (i.e., a better benchmark, would be to conduct a review of their own historical performance) (p. 42).

Subsequent work from Jenkins (2011) reviewed five relevant studies by Carey (2005), Jenkins (2007), Kuh, et al. (2005), Muraskin & Lee (2004), and SREB (2010) to investigate undergraduate institutions associated with superior student outcomes. Jenkins identified the following high-performance practices:

- Leadership with a strong focus on student success, well-coordinated, proactive student support services;

- Innovation in teaching and methods for improving student success;

- Use of data analysis to monitor student progress and guide program improvements;

- Targeted programs that provide advising and academic support specially designed for at-risk students;

- Emphasis on engaging students, particularly in the first year; committees or work groups that monitor and promote student success efforts;

- Collaboration across departments, with broadly shared responsibility for ensuring student success;

- Small class sizes, even in freshman introductory courses; and

- Strong institutional culture, particularly a willingness to see changes through, even if results take time to become evident (p. 6).

From this review, Jenkins (2011) puts forth a Continuous Improvement Process as a model that encompasses the lessons from research on high-performance organizations including setting

learning outcomes, measuring student learning progression, identifying learning gaps, alignment and improvement of policies and processes, external linkages, professional development and leadership focused on outcomes (p. 40).

With an increasing focus on performance, colleges throughout North and South America look to reform models for strategies to improve their performance. Three such reform mechanisms include the Baldrige National Quality Award, the Academic Quality Improvement Program (AQIP) of the Higher Learning Commission (HLC) of the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools, and Achieving the Dream, an initiative involving more than 100 American community colleges.

Although there is no clear consensus on the wisdom of increased accountability models or approaches, the trends globally and specifically in higher education influenced leaders and administrators to build accountability frameworks and measures to ultimately enhance quality. As financial challenges continue to mount, the demand for efficiency is forcing institutions to look at maintaining quality as an integral element to success, particularly given that reputation for quality is paramount in an inter-institutional competitive market. Some would ascribe a more altruistic motivation than financial exigency for embracing increased accountability; namely to provide a framework and gather data to be used as a catalyst that "improves the quality of teaching and learning and provides an opportunity to communicate past and present effectiveness" (AACC, 1997, p. 11).

Regardless of the motivation, the movement for increased performance measurement and drive for greater effectiveness has been encapsulated in higher education to some degree. One such example can be found in *Managing Your Institution's Effectiveness: A Users' Guide*, developed by Midlands Technical College in Columbia, South Carolina. The authors suggest

institutional effectiveness, for most colleges, involves asking and answering three basic questions

(1997, p. 12): What is the mission (business) of our college; What are the major results we expect

from the achievement of the mission; and, What specific evidence are we willing to accept that

these results have been achieved?

The Model of Institutional Effectiveness

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                    ┌──────────────────────┐
          ┌────────▶│  Mission Statement   │
          ┊         └──────────────────────┘
 Redefine ┊                    │ Defines
          ┊         ┌──────────────────────┐
          └ ┄ ┄ ┄ ▶│ Institutional Goals  │◀─────┐
                    └──────────────────────┘      │
          ┊                    │ Determine         │
          ┊         ┌──────────────────────┐      │ Measures
 Changes  ┊         │    Indicators of     │       │
          ┊         │     Measurable       │       │
          ┊         │     Outcomes         │       │
          ┊         └──────────────────────┘      │
          ┊                    │ Yield             │
          ┊         ┌──────────────────────┐      │
          └ ┄ ┄ ┄ ▶│  Quantifiable Data   │──────┘
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Source: National Alliance of Community and Technical Colleges
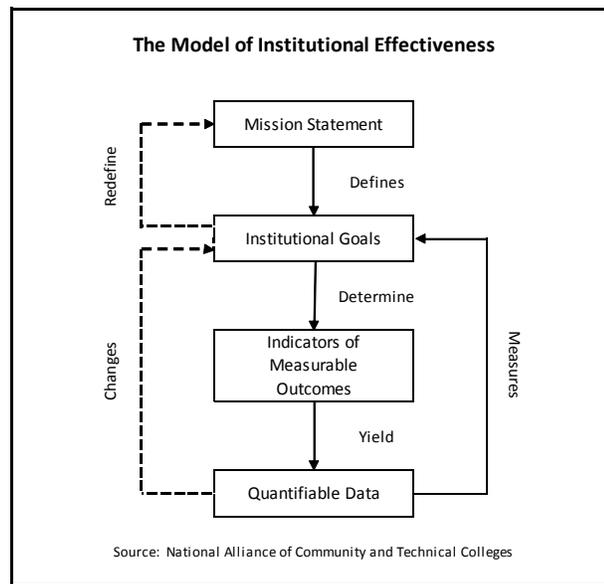
Figure 3. Midlands Technical College Institutional Effectiveness Model. Source: In *Managing
Your Institution's Effectiveness: A Users' Guide.* AACC prepared by Midlands Technical
College, (1997), p. xii.

In the forward to the user guide, James L. Hudgins, President of Midlands Technical

College, describes the generally accepted process for 'operationalizing' institutional effectiveness

to include an established strategic planning process that articulates a vision and mission, an

'operationalized' planning process, a developed evaluation system and use of data to improve

effectiveness and communication. Further, the guide's author emphasizes that the following must

be considered to achieve successful college-wide institutional effectiveness: support of the

president and trustees; linkage of assessment to mission, involvement of all units of the college;

establishment of an organizational structure to monitor and report on outcomes; use of data for

decision making; and adequate funds for assessment (p. 12). The model as presented by President

Hudgins, although generally accepted in the literature, does not identify the critical role

institutional or organizational culture can play in an effective internal business model.

Another model that does illustrate the integral role of culture was presented by H. Douglas

Barber at a forum on Sustainable Common-unity for Hamilton, Ontario in March 2005.
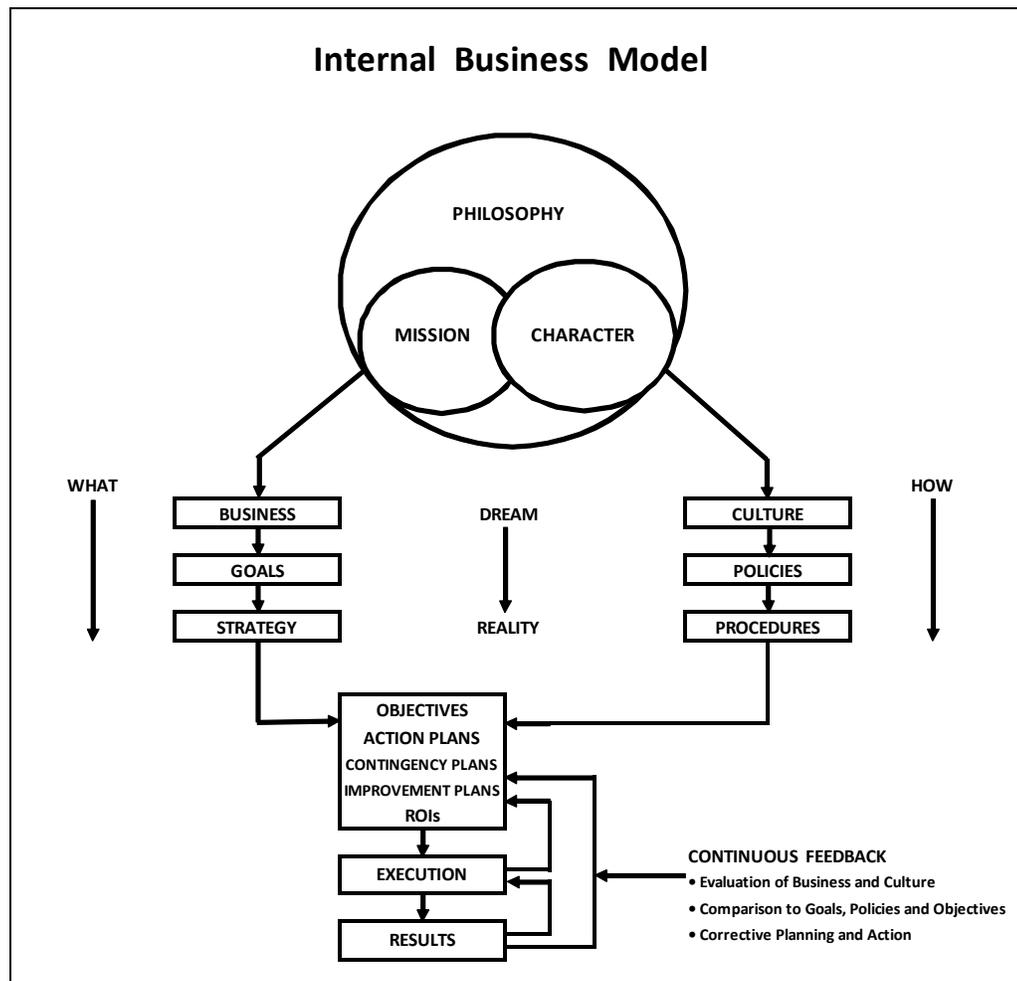
Figure 4. Barber Internal Business Model. Source: In *Sustainable Common-unity for Hamilton*. From H.D. Barber, (2005), Hamilton, p. 4.

Barber is a Distinguished Professor-in-Residence, Faculty of Engineering, McMaster

University and Past President and Chief Executive Officer of Gennum Corporation. Gennum is a

successful Canadian company listed on the Toronto Stock Exchange, which designs innovative semiconductor solutions and intellectual property (IP) cores for the world's most advanced consumer connectivity, video broadcast and data communications products. Barber, recognized as a community leader, entrepreneur and successful businessman, explains:

> The core purpose of [an organization] is the philosophy and mission, while the core values are the philosophy and character. These core elements have to be expressed in simple terms so everyone can understand and identify with them. They have to be big enough and good enough to be inclusive and unchanging. (p. 4)

 Further in his presentation, Barber observed:

> It is the responsibility of leaders to cultivate and protect the foundational elements of the community. Unfortunately, groups that are experiencing alignment and integration and prosperity don't make the news often. They may also neglect their own roots because they believe it will go on forever. (p. 6)

Barber's model aligns with a definition that culture is 'the way we do things around here' and integrates the attributes of mission/character with 'how and what' within the construct of a concrete framework.

Effectiveness has recently gained increasing attention within Canadian higher education. Common examples of institutional measures used by colleges are success of student transfer to degree completion institutions, employment rates of graduates, satisfaction of graduates, satisfaction of employers, economic impact statements of colleges on communities, and student satisfaction. Indications that effectiveness has gained increasing attention can be found in the report prepared by the CCL (2008). The report identified a number of institutions, advocacy agencies and governments exploring different approaches and measurement tools to assess the

quality of Canada's postsecondary institutions. The report notes that the Government of Ontario

recently established the Higher Education Quality Council of Ontario (HEQCO), whose primary

mandate is to "provide leadership in creating a quality framework for the postsecondary education

sector" (CCL, 2009, p. 136). Further, the CCL report identified the proliferation and

diversification of postsecondary institutions as responsible for introducing another complexity

into the higher education landscape. This complexity exemplifies the imperative for ensuring

quality education in the future. The report calls for mandatory procedures for evaluation in order

to maintain and improve quality (p. 134).

The Education Policy Institute (EPI), a private for profit collective association of

researchers and policy analysts, developed a paper for HEQCO entitled *Producing Indicators of*

Institutional Quality in Ontario Universities and Colleges: Options for Producing, Managing and

Displaying Comparative Data. The report found the comparable data that exist in Ontario are not

centralized and are not available in an easily-accessible format. The report also described

potential models for common data architecture to produce indicators of institutional quality in

Ontario colleges and universities with a recommendation for an 'Open Access Model' defined by

EPI to be collaboratively developed and maintained by key stakeholders, and intended to meet the

informational needs of government, institutions and students (July, 2008, p. 18).

In *Academic Transformation: The Forces Reshaping Higher Education in Ontario,* Clark,

et al., (2009) discuss the impact of quality and accountability measures in Ontario colleges and

universities. Reiterating the lack of agreement about how to define quality in higher education,

the authors underscore several distinct ways found in the literature for conceptualizing quality

including inputs, educational processes, outcomes and value added. Value added, as defined by

the authors, is "a refinement of outcome measurement…refers to the changes in the knowledge,

competencies, and attitudes of students between the time of entry and graduation" (p. 118). The debate about *what* data and *how* data should be collected, analyzed and maintained, and *what* should influence accountability frameworks and effectiveness and performance measures is further complicated by the fact that much assessment, such as admission selectivity, resources, volume of faculty research and educational processes in higher education has not been goal orientated. These measures focus on inputs and do not measure the outcomes (outputs) in order to assess effectiveness and performance.

As a result of the Vision 2000 review of the mandate of Ontario colleges, in 1993 the Ontario government established the College Standards and Accreditation Council (CSAC), which resulted in a model to examine program content and develop consistent learning outcome standards for all college programs. In 1996, the government took over the process. In 2003, the college system, through Colleges Ontario, began working with the Ontario government to introduce a quality assurance process known as the Program Quality Assurance Process Audit (PQAPA). In 2007, the Government of Ontario introduced the aforementioned HEQCO with a mandate to provide leadership in creating a quality framework for the postsecondary education sector. For the most part, all four of these recently introduced measures tend to measure inputs and existing processes (Clark, et al., 2009, p. 121). However, these initiatives support the argument that effectiveness and performance measures have gained greater attention in Ontario colleges and are of increasing importance to government and taxpayers seeking a return on investment.

Other effectiveness and performance initiatives that began in the early 90s, such as the National Student Engagement Survey (NSSE) and KPIs, also support the premise that effectiveness and performance measures have become a greater priority for college stakeholders.

For the most part, these measures involve making greater use of feedback from students, and provide institution-specific information about the perceptions held by students regarding their experience at individual postsecondary institutions.

Even though there appears to be a lack of consensus, and the debate about what and how to measure data continues, it is important to understand the relationship of performance and effectiveness to organizational culture. A closer look at some of the recently introduced performance measures demonstrates the complexity of effectiveness and performance measures.

The NSSE represents another example of a performance measurement tool used in many Canadian and American academic institutions. Yearly, data are collected from hundreds of four-year colleges and universities about student participation in programs and activities, which institutions provide for both their learning and personal development. The data allow an assessment of how undergraduates spend time and where they are benefiting from attending postsecondary education. Colleges and university leaders and administrators support participating in this data collection and use published results to gain a greater understanding of the undergraduate experience both in the classroom and throughout other campus experiences. Their administrative and academic goal is to effect improvements in providing education. There are also efforts to improve results motivated by the need to compete for reputation among institutions. In Canada, *Maclean's* magazine, a national publication, annually publishes selected results gathered through NSSE to rank universities, with the intention to assist students in choosing universities.

According to the NSSE website (2010), more than 1,300 different colleges and universities in the U.S. and Canada have participated in the survey since it was first administered in 2000. NSSE's widespread use has spawned several other nationally used instruments including

the Beginning College Survey of Student Engagement, the Community College Survey of Student Engagement, the Faculty Survey of Student Engagement, and the Law School Survey of Student Engagement, most of which are supported through institutional participation fees.

In an article *The NSSE Experience: What Have Ontario Universities Learned,* Jones (2007) observes NSSE has been used for institutional analysis with a view to facilitating change, while other institutions see the survey as an end product. He also identifies an increased focus on related research as universities have become more attentive to the limitations of NSSE. Two commonly cited examples of the limitations of NSSE are: a concern that the survey focuses only on the student experience; and there is a lack of longitudinal data to track the changing perceptions of students over time. Following a workshop sponsored by the HEQCO on April 2009 in Toronto, Ontario, Jones noted a general consensus among the participants that NSSE would serve as a quality framework but not as an indicator of institutional performance (p. 5). A broader conclusion might have been that NSSE could serve as a quality framework but not be considered as the only indicator of quality. Given a predisposition to negate negative results, too often a narrow perspective is used when looking at evaluation of quality in higher education.

KPIs, introduced in 1998 and formalized through the legal authority of subsection 8(2) of Ontario Regulation 34/03 made under the Ontario Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology Act, 2002, provide another example of complex performance measures. KPIs were designed to enable increased accountability related to college performance and government's ability to monitor college funding (Government of Ontario, 2005). Gathered by an independent research company, KPI results are obtained by surveying students, employers, and graduates. Since 1998, colleges have been mandated to collect and report performance data in five areas, including graduate satisfaction, student satisfaction, employer satisfaction, graduate employment rate, and graduation

rate.

Callahan (2003) contributed to the Ontario provincial literature on accountability and performance assessment in higher education through the observation "accountability should be centered in the mission of the system or institution and should respect the diversity of the constituent parts" (p. 46). Callaghan further emphasizes that the "object or performance to be measured needs to be clear and explicit and related to a specific purpose and expectation" (p. 46).

Recognizing conflict regarding the acceptance of and criteria for performance indicators in colleges and universities in Ontario, Callahan underscores the points made earlier that conflict still exists today on the acceptance of and criteria for performance indicators in colleges and universities in Ontario (p. 46). Whether motivated by accountability or criticism, for the most part, KPIs have become integral to measuring Ontario colleges, and have affected organizational culture as individual institutions endeavour to improve their results.

Although all six conditions as identified by Porter, discussed previously, are seen as crucial conditions found in successful companies, the introduction by the Ontario government of Student Satisfaction as one of the five KPI measurements could be regarded as a mechanism that particularly promotes Porter's sixth condition – rivalry among competitors – to increase standards across the system. Within the Student Satisfaction Survey, there are questions that the Government of Ontario has designated as capstone questions: questions that generate comparative analysis and that can affect institutional funding levels as the financial incentives in the funding model are based in part on responses to the key or capstone questions.

Despite the lack of agreement identified by Callahan (2003) and Clark, et al., (2009), between 1999 and 2008 the average Student Satisfaction by students attending Ontario colleges rose from 68 to 78.4%, representing an increase of 10.4 percentage points or 15.3%. This

dramatic improvement in results suggests actions were undertaken by Ontario colleges to achieve this significant increase in performance.

If one considers the trends in business and higher education that are driving an increased focus on effectiveness and performance measures, the questions become - what do effectiveness and performance measures have to do with organizational cultures, how is performance impacted by culture type, and is the premise put forth by some researchers that certain cultures and management skills create higher levels of organizational performance correct? More specifically, the literature on effectiveness and performance measures suggests a need to answer the questions, what can we learn from colleges, with better than average Student Satisfaction performance, about college organizational culture; and are there implications for other institutions wanting to inform their change management process and ultimately improve their performance?

Even more perplexing is the question about how we balance the goal differences among students, institutions, governments and community. For example in *Academic Transformation* (2009), Clark, et al., argue that Ontario's performance indicators are poorly aligned with provincial goals (p. 126). Those who believe inputs affect outputs dispute the goal-orientated approach. They stress that other outcomes that may be important are ignored in this approach and that measuring the goals supersedes true achievement of the goal (i.e., we begin to teach to the test rather than teach for the outcome. Logically, goals should be an important factor in assessment, with the strong caution that goal-oriented assessment could foster a tendency for institutions to become totally focused on goals). This, in turn, could drive both actions and assessment at the cost of many other important lost opportunities. More discussion is needed on how to balance inputs, outputs, goal-orientated assessment and how we can measure the 'value-added' component addressed by Clark, et al.

In summary, attention to organizational effectiveness and performance has increased in business, industry and higher education overall – clearly evident in Ontario colleges and possibly demonstrated by improvements in Student Satisfaction. There appears to be general consensus on the need for institutional accountability frameworks and performance indicators, but the criteria for what to measure and how to measure continues to elicit considerable debate. Over the last 20 years there has been movement from measurement primarily on input toward a greater emphasis on output measurement, as well as recognition of the importance of considering the 'value-added' educational experience. Further, there is recognition that goal-orientated assessment is needed to drive higher education with the caveat that to do so, without considering other inputs and 'value-added' prospects, may restrict opportunity.

The increasing interest in performance and effectiveness constitutes a fundamental reason to examine more closely the organizational culture within Ontario colleges, both individually and collectively. It is possible that an institution's organizational culture may provide insight into performance and effectiveness. In developing strategies for improved performance in Ontario colleges at the institutional level, which would ultimately improve student experience and achievement, it is helpful to have an understanding of organizational culture in high performance institutions.

All of this understanding enriches the research objective of this thesis to examine administrators' assumptions, preferences and competencies regarding organizational culture at four Ontario colleges with a numerical score above the system average for Student Satisfaction. This researcher believes that analysis of organizational culture at these colleges will demonstrate attributes of an institution that have strongly aligned perceptions about their current and preferred cultures on the OCAI. Further, they will demonstrate a tendency to be more focused on results.

Culture Assessment

As is the case with most assessment of practice, there are often issues around what should be measured, how it should be measured and for what purpose. Numerous researchers have discussed assessment of organizational culture and have contributed to this researcher's belief that Ontario colleges can benefit from analysis of organizational culture.

To accept the importance of organizational culture assessment, two major theories must be considered. First, individuals will revert to, or re-assert, their own habitual behaviours when challenged, threatened, or faced with uncertainty and/or ambiguity (Staw, Sandelands & Dutton, 1981; Weick, 1984; as cited in Cameron and Quinn, 2006). Secondly, core competence and strategic intent are considered to be prerequisites for organizational adaptability (Prahalad & Hamel, 1990, as cited in Cameron & Quinn, 2006, p. 144).

Smart and St. John (1996) contribute to the knowledge about culture type and 'strong' versus 'weak' culture based on the CVF. Using data from 332 American four-year colleges and universities collected nation-wide, these scholars discovered close to two-thirds of colleges and universities have a Clan culture type. Further, the Clan culture type was viewed by trustees, administrators and department chairpersons to be the most valued in the higher education community, while the strong bureaucratic cultures (i.e., Hierarchy and Market culture types) were perceived as consistently ineffective. Smart and St. John also found strong Adhocracy and Clan type cultures to be among the most effective in promoting student academic development, student educational satisfaction, and system openness and community interaction, and note that these three dimensions are compatible with flexibility, individuality and spontaneity. Student career development was the only effectiveness dimension in the study that institutions with strong Clan cultures were not among the most effective. Smart and St. John conclude that institutions with

strong Adhocracy and Market culture types, who were found most effective in promoting student career development, may be more successful in this area because of their external focus as their culture types are "aligned with external, achievement-oriented focus of institutions" (p. 234).

This study concluded that culture type has a decidedly stronger independent effect on institutional performance than culture strength. However, the differences are more pronounced on campuses with stronger rather than weaker culture type. Two hypotheses are tested in this study applying criteria based on the work of Krakower and Niwa (1985). The first is that colleges and universities have organizational practices that are congruent with the espoused beliefs of the organization. These institutions are more likely to be effective than those in which incongruities are evident. (This hypothesis will be discussed later when congruence is discussed.) The second hypothesis is a matter of interest to the current discussion about culture type. Smart and St. John tested organizations that value free and informed choice, valid information, and internal commitment at both the espoused and practical levels (i.e., strong Clan and Adhocracy culture types) and found them more likely to be effective than are those with strong culture that emphasize rationality and goal attainment (i.e., strong Hierarchy and Market culture types).

As for weak cultures, Smart and St. John's study suggests that significant differences on campuses with weak cultures exist in only two of the Krakower and Niwa criteria: namely, Clan type culture in institutions with weak culture had significantly higher scores on student personal development and Market type culture had significantly higher scores on ability to acquire resources than the three other culture types.

In considering the role of cultural assessment, much can be learned from the work of Kotter and Heskett (1992) who challenge the thinking that only strong cultures enable effective performance. The authors examined more than 200 firms and concluded that "certain types of

cultures help while other types of culture undermine the long-term economic performance" (1992, p. 141). Further, these authors recognize the link between the need for strong corporate cultures (described as common behaviours and methods of doing business) to fit the company context: "Strong cultures with practices that do not fit a company's context can actually lead intelligent people to behave in ways that are destructive – that systematically undermine an organization's ability to survive and prosper" (p. 142).

Detert, Schroeder and Mauriel (2000) identify considerable debate regarding the measurement and dimensions of organizational culture. Through an integrative review of the literature, these researchers identified eight general dimensions of organizational culture: the basis of truth and rationality in the organization; the nature of time and time horizon; motivation; stability versus change/innovation; orientation to work/coworkers; isolation versus collaboration; control versus autonomy; and internal versus external (p. 854).

Several other studies provide helpful insight into the linkage between organizational culture and performance management, which reinforce the value of culture assessment. Some of the studies listed below are addressed elsewhere in this literature review and remain controversial. However, this composite list provides useful criteria when interpreting data gathered from culture assessment. Peters and Waterman (1982) hail the importance of culture and advance eight characteristics that distinguish excellence with a view that some types of organizational culture can provide a formula for success. Pfeiffer (1984), Carroll (1983) and Johnson, Natarajan, and Rappaport (1985) all disputed Peters and Waterman's theory arguing they ignored the impact of differing environments and circumstances of organizations in their assumptions, while Wilkins and Ouchi (1983) expressed the theory that cultures are more efficient in specific circumstances. Cameron and Ettington (1988) affirmed the type of culture is more important than the congruence

or strength of culture. Deal and Kennedy (1992) argued that 'strong cultures' led to success. Sathe (1985), Starbuck, Greve and Hedberg (1978), and Miller (1990) all promoted the opposite position – suggesting a strong culture could, by its very nature, inhibit the change required or discourage needed change for success. Kets de Vries and Miller (1984) (cited in Trice and Beyer, 1993, p. 22) suggested that cultures may derive unhealthy modes of functioning from the psychopathological problems of their chief executives making some cultures sick, even neurotic. Trice and Beyer (1993) challenge this theory, stating they could not support the thinking that the neurotic firms (as described by Kets de Vries and Miller) are financially successful for very long. Barney (1986) saw culture as a viable source of competitive advantage and identified financial value, cultural distinction, and limited ability to imitate as three conditions for a company to sustain superior financial performance. Schein (1985) acknowledged the abstract concept of culture and its practical applications by leaders interested in understanding the dynamics of organizations and change. Kotter and Heskett (1992) found the difference between higher performing and lower performing companies was strength and congruence (culture aligned with strategy) and type of culture (firms that value equally customers, stockholders and employees). Denison (1984) found that companies with a participative culture reap a Return on Investment (ROI) that averages nearly twice as high as those in firms with less efficient cultures. Cameron (1980) identified the need for organizations to consider multiple outcomes as they pursue value creation strategies.

Quinn and Cameron (1983) identified relationships between organizational culture types and organization life cycles by reviewing nine models of organizational life cycles proposed in the literature. Life cycle stages, defined as a loose set of organizational activities and structures (Dodge, et al., 1994; Hanks, et al., 1993; Quinn & Cameron, 1983, as cited in Lester & Parnell,

2004), include activities of decision making, information processing, and operational procedures.
Structural issues include reporting relationships, the distribution of power, and department or
divisional organization (Lester & Parnell, 2004). According to Van de Ven (1992) life cycle
stages serve as important descriptions of organizations and the activities and structures that
determine the life cycle change over time (Van de Ven, 1992, cited in Lester & Parnell, 2005).
From the literature, Quinn and Cameron (1983) derived a summary model of life cycle stages,
integrating each of the nine models to create a four stage life model encompassing: Stage 1 –
Entrepreneurial, typified by innovation, creativity, and marshalling of resources; Stage 2 –
Collectivity, characterized by informal communication and structure, a sense of family and co-
operativeness among members, high member commitment, and personalized leadership; Stage 3 –
Formalization and Control, typified by organizational stability, efficiency of production, rules and
procedures, and conservative trends; and Stage 4 – Elaboration of Structure, the organization
monitors the external environment in order to renew itself or expand its domain. Based on certain
characteristics typifying organizations in different stages of development, Quinn and Cameron
hypothesized that certain criteria of effectiveness in the CVF are important in particular life cycle
stages but not others. In the Stage 1 – Entrepreneurial, the strongest culture appears to be
Adhocracy type, whereas organizations experiencing Stage 2 – Collectivity, appear to have a Clan
type culture. In the Formalization and Control (Stage 3), culture types appear to be Hierarchy and
Market. In Stage 4 – Elaboration of Structure, Adhocracy appears to receive the most emphasis.
Through a longitudinal study Quinn and Cameron found a correlation between life cycle stages
and culture types, which highlight the potential of diagnosing and predicting organizational
change (Yu & Wu, 2009).

Holistically, Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983); Quinn and Cameron (1983); and Cameron (1986) suggest the need for companies to respond appropriately to their environment and goals in their discovery that: some organizations were effective if they demonstrated flexibility and adaptability; other organizations were effective if they demonstrated stability and control; and, similarly that some organizations were effective if they maintained efficient internal processes, whereas others were effective if they maintained competitive external positioning relative to customers and clients.

In examining the relationship between organizational culture and performance, Truskie (2002) asserts that the most significant breakthrough began when management scholars and academics started studying both culture in organizations and management's impact on culture in the eighties.

The literature on the impact of culture assessment is furthered by Wagner and Spencer (1996), who support the theory that culture surveys can help an organization understand and improve performance. They identify four ways culture surveys can assist in culture change including: collectively designing a survey; responding to the survey; reporting; and creating a metric to discuss organizational performance. Wagner and Spencer affirm these actions contribute to a broader, shared, integrated and common understanding which, as previously stated, Kotter and Heskett (1992) believe can be linked to performance through a strengthened organizational culture identity.

A literature review on cultural assessment would not be complete without acknowledging that Fitzgerald (1988) did not believe that assessment of culture for the purpose of culture change was possible. Fitzgerald argues that an intelligent discussion about changing cultures can't occur until "we understand how to change underlying values" suggesting that for most members of an

organization "such matters are not established by deliberative process, nor are they afflicted by the hesitation and ambivalence" (p. 9). Respectful of this caution, it is still this researcher's belief that the importance of diagnosing and managing organizational culture through assessment has increased due to the constant change in our world today, which is driving the need to mould different organizations through structural changes such as consolidation, downsizing and outsourcing (Cameron & Quinn, 2006, p. 144).

Goffee and Jones (1998), Schein (1999), Cameron and Quinn (2006), and Desjardins and Huff (2001) each provide a formal approach to assessing organizational culture. Each offer different approaches to leaders in the process of assessing organization. These four approaches will be reviewed later in the next section of this thesis.

Double S Cube

Goffee and Jones (1998) assert that the character of an organization can be enlightened by identifying its sociability and solidarity. Sociability is defined as the degree of friendliness among members. Solidarity is defined as the degree to which people in an organization share a common understanding of job-related tasks and goals. Both dimensions have a positive and negative aspect. Based on the two dimensions, these researchers have created a framework to help assess culture called the Double S Cube.

This framework looks somewhat like a Rubik's Cube with four squares stacked around a vertical axis as the dimension of sociability, and a horizontal axis as the dimension of solidarity. There is a range on these two axes that runs from low to high. The authors put forth the concept that organizations characterized by high sociability and low solidarity are defined as Networked culture. Opposite to the Networked culture are organizations characterized by high solidarity and low sociability defined as Mercenary culture. Organizations low on both sociability and

solidarity are defined as Fragmented culture. Finally, high levels of both sociability and solidarity combine to create the Communal culture.

The assessment proposed by Goffee and Jones to assess culture type is very complex based on four tests that include: an observation checklist; the Corporate Character Questionnaire; assessment of Is Your Culture Positive or Negative; and a Critical Incident Analysis. Thoughtful discussion in the book describes the four culture types in detail and offers recommendations about how to manage change. There are some similarities of the Double S Cube culture types to the types found in the OCAI developed by Cameron and Quinn (2006), which is packaged in a much more user-friendly assessment tool.

The Corporate Culture Survival Guide

At the turn of the century, Schein offered the *Corporate Culture Survival Guide: Sense and Nonsense about Culture Change* for managers, executives and consultants on the front lines of change wanting to respond to the increasing number of mergers, acquisitions, and reengineering, which Schein described as "putting corporate culture on a collision course." Recognizing the complexity of the working environment, Schein developed the guide on the premise that managers had a familiarity with culture but lacked an understanding of what it is, how it operates and, perhaps more importantly, what can be done to improve it. According to Schein (1999), this guide provides a straightforward approach to evaluating one's current organizational culture and best fit for organizational goals.

Using the three levels of organization culture found in his earlier work, Schein describes in this guide how to go beyond the first level of visible, organizational structures and processes or 'artifacts', which he notes make it hard to decipher culture. He encourages managers to do a deeper assessment of the second level of culture (espoused values) prompting the question: how

can two organizations have practically identical values and principles and yet have different working styles? Finally, he encourages a look at the shared tactical assumptions that form the unconscious, taken-for-granted beliefs, perceptions, thoughts, and feelings which, according to Schein, are the ultimate source of values and action.

In encouraging managers to take a more realistic view of culture content versus the popular view that culture is about human relations, Schein offers a more abstract definition that culture is the sum total of all the shared, taken-for-granted assumptions a group has learned throughout its history (1999, p. 29). Further, he notes that most assessments consider communications, teamwork, superior-subordinate relationships, the degree of autonomy or empowerment that employees feel, and the level of innovation or creativity that they display. Schein cites Goffee's work in 1998 describing 'sociability' and 'solidarity' as well as the work from Cameron and Quinn, (1999, 2006) describing 'internal versus external focus' and 'flexibility versus stability and control,' as examples of typologies built on the popular view of culture. Schein assesses them to be correct, although it is important to note he commented that they are "dangerously narrow" (pp. 27-28).

Proposing profound implications for managers who take culture seriously due to the realization that culture is essentially invisible, stable, and difficult to change, Schein prophesizes:

> Perhaps most important of all, you begin to realize that there is no right or wrong culture, no better or worse culture, except in reaction to what the organization is trying to do and what the environment in which it is operating allows. (Schein, 1999, p. 21)

To assist managers to understand the 'more realistic perspective of culture,' Schein details three elements that build corporate culture: external survival issues, internal integration issues, and deeper underlying assumptions. Table 3 describes the content of the three areas:

Table 3

What is Culture About?

External Survival Issues	Internal Integration Issues	Deeper Underlying Assumptions
Mission, strategy, goals	Common language and concepts	Human relationships to nature
Means: structure, systems, processes	Group boundaries and identity	The nature of reality and truth
Measurement: error-detection correction-systems	The nature of authority and relationships Allocation of rewards and status	The nature of human nature and The nature of human relationships The nature of time and space

Source: Adapted from *The corporate culture survival guide: Sense and nonsense about culture change.* From E.H. Schein (1999), Jossey-Bass, California, p. 30.

   The Corporate Culture Survival Guide: Sense and Nonsense about Culture Change

assessment process requires a group of colleagues to come together with a facilitator for a group

interview process to: define the problem; review the concept of culture; identify artifacts; identify

an organization's values; compare values with artifacts; and, as required, repeat process with

other groups. Finally, the group would assess their shared assumptions. This open, collegial

process has the benefit of providing greater insight into the diverse perceptions of individuals

within the organization that form a group understanding. The process is built on Schein's belief

that, "culture can be assessed by means of individual and group interview processes with group

interviews being far the better method both in terms of validity and efficiency" (Schein, 2004, p.

87). Emphasizing this approach, Schein cautions that surveys or questionnaires cannot assess

culture because one does not know what to ask and doubts the reliability and validity of the

responses.

   Considering the complexity of understanding organizational culture and the potential bias

entrenched in group behaviour, the role of the facilitator is vital to this process. Schein's only requirement of the facilitator is that the person knows something about culture along the lines of his work. A highly skilled facilitator could help mitigate group bias, although not entirely, and Schein offers little advice on how to ensure the group functions effectively through the process. It could be the case that the current culture is only reinforced within the exercise by the typical behaviour of the group, rather than an outcome that produces an enlightened assessment of the organization.

Leading Edge: Competencies for Community College Leadership in the New Millennium

In *Leading Edge: Competencies for Community College Leadership in the New Millennium* (Desjardins & Huff, 2001), Desjardins addresses the leadership role in organizational cultural development at American colleges. Through stories and experience about great leaders from leading community colleges, Desjardins discusses four principle areas of leadership competency including leadership, influence, business management, and culture/climate.

Out of the 22 competencies identified, over a third of the competencies are listed in the culture/climate section. These competencies include: creates a student-centred learning environment; stresses community centeredness; values cultural pluralism; creates cohesiveness; prevents crises; empowers others; fosters creativity and innovation; and recognizes and rewards excellence. This practical management handbook provides concrete examples for leaders, however, the author uses culture and climate interchangeably. The following example from Desjardins and Huff (2001) illustrates both the insight shared about leadership and the confusion around culture/climate – a common phenomenon in culture literature.

I see our organization as a living system, a set of relationships formed to accomplish more than we could independently or in subgroups. As the manager of the system, it is my

responsibility to create and sustain an environment where every unit is consciously

connected to the whole, i.e., understands the matters of the whole organization, has access

to the learning of every other unit, and has a meaningful role in carrying out the purpose

of our organization. I must see to it that a balance between hive-mind and individual

growth exists. (p. 29)

Desjardins offers a list of leadership competencies recommended for leading colleges in

these changing times, but does not provide a rating mechanism for leaders to assess their own or

their group's skills. Given the competencies are for college leadership, the tool is useful for

individual college leaders who are seeking to build a framework of competencies to lead/change

culture. Also, leaders who are serious about building their own competencies could readily

develop a ranking system for personal use. Three concerns worth noting about these leadership

competencies being used as an organizational culture assessment tool are: 1) Desjardins uses

climate and culture interchangeably; 2) there isn't any evidence of reliability or validity; and, 3)

the competencies are formed from the observations of the author's own and others' experiences,

which may contain bias.

Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument

In *Diagnosis and Changing Organizational Culture: Based on the Competing Values

Framework,* Kim S. Cameron and Robert E. Quinn (2006) describe OCAI and the Management

Skills Assessment Instrument (MSAI). As the title of the book suggests, these two instruments

are designed to assist in the assessment of organizational culture and management skills. Their

purpose is to assist in organizational culture change and both instruments are solidly rooted in the

CVF (Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983).

An examination of the origin and theory behind the CVF is beneficial as way of

background to the OCAI and MSAI. According to Kwan and Walker (2004), who conducted a study to validate the CVF as a representation of organizational culture through inter-institutional comparisons, this framework has become known nowadays as the dominant model in the quantitative research on organizational culture. The CVF assesses how stable or flexible an organization is, as well as how externally or internally focused it is. Cameron and Quinn describe an internally focused, flexible organization as a Clan. In comparison, an internally focused stable organization is a Hierarchy. An externally focused, flexible organization is described as an Adhocracy, and an externally focused, stable organization is thought of as Market. This framework provides a structure for organizations to engage in a dialogue and interpret the elements of their organizational culture as a baseline point to enable change and improvement. Figure 1, found in Chapter 1 (page 20), provides a visual illustration of the framework.

Over the past 35 years, scholars have contributed to the development, analysis of the results, and assessment of the value of CVF. CVF's origin surfaced in the work of Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983), who conducted a statistical analysis of a list of 39 indicators created by John Campbell and his colleagues in 1974 (p. 365). Quinn and Rohrbaugh used previous research conducted on the major indicators of effective organizations to determine if an organization is effective or not. Results indicated two major dimensions and four main clusters. The first dimension distinguishes between effectiveness criteria that emphasize flexibility, discretion, and dynamism from criteria that emphasize stability, order and control. Organizations demonstrating organizational versatility and pliability on one end of the spectrum, as well as organizations demonstrating steadiness and durability on the other end, can be seen as effective - given their circumstances. The second dimension identified by Quinn and Rohrbaugh distinguishes between effectiveness criteria that emphasize an internal orientation, integration, and unity from criteria

that emphasize an external orientation, differentiation, and rivalry. These two dimensions form four quadrants, each named to represent a distinct set of organizational effectiveness indicators. A description of the theory development of these four quadrants, labelled as Clan, Adhocracy, Market and Hierarchy, follows.

The Hierarchy culture is based on the work of German sociologist Max Weber, who studied government organizations in the early 1990s and proposed seven characteristics, namely: rules, specialization, meritocracy, hierarchy, separate ownership, impersonality, and accountability. These characteristics represent an ideal organization with stable, efficient, and highly consistent products and services. This type of culture evolves through clear lines of authority and decision making. It is maintained through standardized rules and procedures and the key to success was the value of control and accountability mechanisms. Cameron and Quinn suggest fast food chains, such as McDonald's, reflect company organizational cultures that model Hierarchy.

By the mid-1960s, when organizations were facing different challenges than they were in the 1990s, the Market culture became popular. Scholars such as Williamson (1975) and Ouchi (1981) are credited by Cameron and Quinn (2006, p. 39) for identifying an organization that functions as a Market itself, due to its external orientation, instead of internal operations. The main focus of a Market culture is to conduct transactions with suppliers, customers, contractors, licensees, unions and regulators, and feature primarily economic market mechanisms which are considered to be monetary transactions. Unlike the Hierarchy culture that values control and accountability mechanisms, the Market culture values competitiveness and productivity. Cameron and Quinn cite General Electric's former CEO, Jack Welsh, who established a corporate culture known for 'results-or-else' and 'take-no-prisoners.'

Researchers looking at Japanese companies in the late 1960s and early 1970s found examples of shared values and goals, cohesion, 'participative-ness,' individuality and a sense of 'we-ness,' which are found in the Clan culture. Cameron and Quinn recognize the Clan culture as being similar to a family-type organization. The Clan culture is more like an extended family than an economic entity. Rules and procedures are replaced by teamwork, employee involvement programs, and corporate commitment to employees. Rewards are given for performance of the team, with a focus on individual improvement and empowerment. Unlike the Market culture, value is given to the long-term benefit of individual development and a highly cohesive morale, with a premium placed on teamwork, participation and consensus.

The fourth and final quadrant of Cameron and Quinn's CVF was identified through the emergence of the information age, which followed the industrial age to respond to "hyper-turbulent, ever-accelerating conditions that increasingly typified the organizational world of the 21st century" (Cameron & Quinn, 2006, p. 43). This Adhocracy quadrant is based on assumptions that innovative and pioneering initiatives are what lead an organization to success. Due to the need to adapt quickly, these organizations allow power to flow from individual to individual or from task team to task team, depending on the problem being addressed. With an emphasis on individuality, risk taking, and anticipation of the future, almost everyone in the organization becomes involved in production, clients, research and development, and other matters. The Adhocracy values dynamic, entrepreneurial and creative behaviours. There is an acceptance of risk takers and leadership is visionary, innovative and risk oriented. At the heart of all the Adhocracy is the commitment to experimentation and innovation, wherein success is defined as producing new and original products and services.

Hooijberg and Petrock (1993) provide evidence on how the CVF can help leaders execute

a transformational strategy. Using a case study approach, the authors describe how Petrock, a consultant, adapted the CVF survey to begin with a needs assessment, develop action plans, and assess whether the action resulted in culture change. The authors conclude that using the CVF provides an "intuitively sound framework for understanding and conceptualizing their current situation, as well as for defining what they want the organization to be in the future" (p. 49).

Studies by Deal and Kennedy (1982); Geertz (1983); Schein (1983); Sathe (1983); Cameron and Ettington (1988); Denison (1990); Martin (1992); and Trice and Beyer (1993), address the issues, boundaries and theoretical framework issues associated with assessment. Cameron and Quinn categorize three categories of controversy in organizational culture: definitional issues, measurement issues, and dimensional issues (what key dimensions should characterize culture) (2006, p. 145) and adapted the CVF to create the OCAI as a mechanism to move beyond these assessment issues.

The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) is a questionnaire designed for individuals to respond to questions around two dimensions that differentiate effectiveness criteria that have been found to be equally predictive of an organization's culture. Like the CVF, one dimension emphasizes flexibility, discretion, and dynamism from criteria that emphasizes stability, order, and control. The second dimension emphasizes an internal orientation, integration, and unity from criteria that emphasizes an external orientation, differentiation, and rivalry. These two dimensions form four quadrants, representing four core values (Hierarchy, Clan, Adhocracy, and Market) and represent opposite or competing assumptions. Questions on the OCAI are clustered into six content dimensions. Respondents are instructed to divide 100 points among these four alternatives depending on the extent to which each alternative is similar to their own organization, giving the highest ranking to the alternative most similar to their

organization. The instrument asks respondents to respond to the questions considering the current

organizational culture (now) and, when finished, to go back and respond to the same six items

while thinking about the future demands of the environment and the opportunity to be faced by

the organization (future).

The unique design of OCAI, requiring respondents to rank both the current and preferred

organizational culture, can be linked to change management theory which integrates evaluation,

planning and implementation in successful change management models (Kotter, 2002; Augustine,

1998; Fullan, 1993). The benefits of having a comprehensive perspective of where your

organization's organizational culture is currently and what culture you would like in your

organization is reinforced by Carter, Giber and Goldsmith (2001) who documented a case study

of Advanced Micro Devices (AMD). This case study examined how AMD, a company with

revenues of over $2.5 billion and 13,000 employees worldwide, designed a retention program to

help employees align their interests, values, and skills with rapidly changing business needs

through a set of integrated activities.

> Cognizant that a clear assessment of the current state versus the desired outcomes was
>
> critical to the success of the retention strategy, a needs assessment was conducted as a first
>
> step…By applying the findings of the multidimensional needs assessment, guidelines for
>
> implementation emerged. (p. 310)

The OCAI has been used in several scientific studies of over 1000 companies (Cameron

and Quinn, 2006, p. 75) involving different types of organizations, including colleges recognized

with above average student satisfaction over the previous five years. Survey reliability was tested

on the use of the OCAI during a study conducted by Quinn and Spreitzer (1991). Zammuto and

Krakower (1991), in their study of college cultures, produced further evidence of validity by

discovering Clan culture was associated with decentralization, trust, a sense of equity among organization members, high morale, and satisfaction with the leader. Evidence for the extent to which phenomena that were supposed to be measured were actually measured (validity) was produced by Cameron and Freeman (1991) in a study representing all four-year colleges and universities (334) in the U.S. with 12 to 20 individuals at each institution for a total sample of 3,406 participants. Further evidence of validity is found in the work of Quinn and Spreitzer (1991), and Zammuto and Krakower (1991). This groundwork was very useful in establishing the opportunities inherent in this research. Yu and Wu (2009) conducted a more recent review of studies using the CVF and cited Howard (1998); Lamond (2003); Denison and Mishra (1995); and Ralston, Terpstra-Ton, Terpstra, Wang and Egri (2006), for testing validity and reliability of the CVF and the OCAI.

The OCAI also provides an opportunity for organizations to compare their results with other similar type companies. This type of benchmarking creates opportunities for discussion about how one's institution compares with another through a data based format providing more concrete information for interpretation and assessment. College administrators' perspective of their current culture and preferred culture can be compared with average Public Administration organizations cited by Cameron and Quinn (2006, p. 78) and other scholarly research such as that by Berrio (2003) who examined the profile of Ohio State University Extension personnel using the OCAI. Describing applications of the research for the Ohio State University Extension team, Berrio concluded the assessment demonstrated a dominant Clan type culture in both the current and preferred states. Reporting study results to be consistent with the work of Smart and St. John (1996), Berrio noted the Clan culture type was slightly strong in the current state and moderately strong in the preferred state.

Management Assessment Skill Instrument

The MSAI was designed by Cameron and Quinn (2006) as a companion tool for the OCAI to assist individuals interested in managing a significant change effort through understanding their own competencies and adapting their behaviour. Based on the CVF, items on the survey have been derived from extensive research on managerial behaviour. Cameron and Quinn clustered the skills and competencies that emerged from these studies into a set of competency categories applicable to mainly mid-level and upper-level managers – which they define as skills appropriate for managers managing managers. Whetten and Cameron (2005) summarized 15 of those studies and found a substantial overlap in the lists of skills produced (Cameron and Quinn, 2006, p. 119). According to Cameron and Quinn, the categories in the MSAI, "summarize many of the critically important managerial leadership competencies typical of effective mid-and upper-level managers" (p. 120).

The motivation behind the MSAI is that by understanding one's own individual behaviour and the organization's collective leadership behaviour, one can find insight into the change management process:

> A change in culture, in the end, depends on the implementation of behaviours by individuals in the organization that reinforce the new cultural values and are consistent with them. It is possible to identify a desired culture and to specify strategies and activities designed to produce change, but without the change process becoming personalized, without individuals being willing to engage in new behaviours, without an alteration in the managerial competencies demonstrated in the organization, the organization's fundamental culture will not change. (Cameron & Quinn, 2006, p. 117)

Each of the four culture types and management skills profile for each type are illustrated

succinctly in Figure 1 introduced in Chapter 1 (page 20).

Like the OCAI, the MSAI has been widely used and is considered an important supplement to the OCAI for managing change and leadership behaviour. Collett and Mora (1996) have analyzed the psychometric properties of the MSAI through a new statistical technique called a Within-Person Deviation Score or D-Score (Cameron and Quinn, 2006, p. 163).

Summary of OCAI and MSAI

Cameron and Quinn (2006) identify six advantages to the OCAI tool for diagnosing and changing organizational culture:

1) It is practical: It captures key dimensions of culture that have been found to make a difference in an organization's success.

2) It is timely: The process of diagnosing and creating a strategy for change can be accomplished in a reasonable amount of time.

3) It is involving: The steps in the process can include every member of the organization, but they especially involve all who have a responsibility to establish direction, reinforce values, and guide fundamental change.

4) It is both quantitative and qualitative: The process relies on quantitative measurement of key cultural dimensions as well as qualitative methods, including stories, incidents, and symbols that represent the immeasurable ambience of the organization.

5) It is manageable: The process of diagnosis and change can be undertaken and implemented by a team within the organization – usually the management team. Outside diagnosticians, culture experts, or change consultants are not required for successful implementation.

6) It is valid: The framework on which the process is built not only makes sense to people as

they consider their own organization, but is also supported by an extensive empirical

literature and underlying dimensions that have a verified scholarly foundation (p. 20).

Yu and Wu (2009) contributes significantly to the comparisons of the CVF and OCAI to

five other major organizational culture models/scales including: 1) the Theoretical Model of

Culture Traits (Denison & Mishra, 1995), which is considered to be conceptually similar to the

CVF, and its matched scale, the Organizational Culture Survey, with three items; 2) the

Organizational Culture Inventory (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988), with three dimensions and 120

items; 3) the Organizational Culture Profile (O'Reilly, Chatman & Caldwell, 1991), with seven

dimensions and 54 items; 4) the Multidimensional Model of Organizational Culture (Hofstede, et

al., 1990), with six dimensions and 135 items; and 5) Values in Organizational Culture Scale

(Zheng, 1990), with nine dimensions (p. 40).

In comparing the CVF and OCAI with the above organizational assessment models and

scales, Yu and Wu (2000) identified the following advantages: the OCAI has only two

dimensions but broad implications; the CVF and OCAI have been empirically validated in cross-

cultural research; the CVF and OCAI are most succinct; and finally, the most extensively applied

in China (p. 40). This last advantage demonstrates the international interest and application of

Cameron and Quinn's OCAI.

The tools created by Cameron and Quinn have been found to be the most detailed of all

four of the assessment processes reviewed in this literature review. Both OCAI and MSAI have

been widely used in the public and private sectors, establishing the ability to compare the

assessment of one organization to a profile of a similar type organization. Specifically, research

on the use of OCAI in higher education environments is available for comparison purposes. The

tools provide detailed data, linked to easy to follow assessment processes that could be

implemented within most organizations. There is also demonstrated evidence of reliability and validity for these two instruments.

In summary, the literature reviewed in this section, for the most part, supports the concept that culture assessment is worthy of further investigation and that assessment, in the right context, can be used as a mechanism to build action plans to stimulate and/or motivate culture change. Colleges and other postsecondary institutions will benefit from a thorough understanding of organizational culture, how to assess its current state, and how to implement change to improve its shared nature while respecting the individuality of sub-groups. The outcome desired will always be to improve the institution's change management processes and, ultimately, measured performance.

Leading Culture Change

The next section briefly introduces leadership and reviews selected literature that addresses the impact leadership can have on organizational culture change. Leadership, as it relates to organizational culture and culture change in higher education, is examined with a view to understanding the role of leaders in organizational culture, culture assessment, and culture change.

Changing College Culture – A Personal Perspective

This researcher's interest in organizational culture began several years ago when I began an intense reflection on my own leadership style and capabilities through my doctoral studies. I began this adult learning journey as a part-time student, working at an Ontario college as the vice-president academic. With more than 15 years in the Ontario college system at that time, I had the benefit of a rich learning experience, having held numerous responsibilities in a variety of areas that spanned the operations of the college's academic and service areas. My progression of

learning evolved as I moved through positions from professor to academic leader to vice-president marketing, communications and development; enriched by several special research and community projects interwoven throughout my postsecondary employment.

I have now had the rare experience of participating in a 10-year journey of researching college and university models, and advocating for government funding to bring a new university adjacent to a college campus in the largest community in Canada without a university. It was also significant that this community had a low percentage of university graduates and a high proportion of blue collar workers. I was eager to better understand the 'whys' of higher education. This represented a 'once-in-a-lifetime opportunity'-- in that my portfolio also included supporting the president in developing the business case, working with key stakeholders, and advocating with government to bring this new model of university to our community. I quickly understood clearly there were lessons to be had from the experience.

At the time, the silo structure of the Ontario college and university model was even more predominant than it is today. This is supported by Jones in his work, *Higher Education in Canada: Different Systems, Different Perspectives*. In discussing higher education in Ontario during the late 90s, Jones notes the high participation rate, financial challenges, accountability, and steps taken to deregulate some aspects of higher education. On the matter of the structural relationship between colleges and universities in Ontario, he writes:

> Finally, the appropriate relationship between the two sectors continues to be an issue. While recent increases in articulation agreements between colleges and universities and the clarification of credit transfer arrangements for students moving from CAATs (Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology) to universities represent considerable progress, many feel that there is a need to go much further and argue that the role of the

CAATs should be expanded to include associate degree and/or university-transfer function. It will be extremely difficult to address or resolve this recurring issue in the absence of some body or agency with a system-wide, rather than a sectoral perspective (Jones, 1997, p. 157).

Originally my interest was focused on a determined desire to understand what made the two models of higher education (i.e., college and university), so varied and so unconnected. Ultimately, I began to seek what could be leveraged to build stronger ties between these two predominant postsecondary systems in Ontario. And, at the same time, in recent years, in Alberta and British Columbia, major changes have generated new universities in place of colleges.

The new university I helped develop, unique in Canada, with a market-orientated vision and mission, was formed under the Government Act to implement the measures contained in the 2002 Ontario budget (Schedule O, University of Ontario Act, 2002). Perhaps the most noteworthy difference for Canada was the fact that at the outset one president would preside over both the university and the college. Although the university had its own Board of Governors, six university governors were co-terminus appointments from the college Board of Governors (i.e., they had voting seats on the boards for the college and the university). Functionally, the boards met collectively in the early days believing that the mission, vision, values, and outcomes of the two institutions could be aligned, although they recorded their decisions independently.

It was quickly apparent that the historical decisions, values, beliefs, and attitudes contributed strongly to the similarities and differences between colleges and universities. My interest in organizational culture was expanded and the journey was informative. There were many lessons learned over the period of the establishment of a new university aligned with the college campus, which I had the privilege to follow until it opened in September 2003. In

December of that year, I accepted an appointment to be the president of a large Ontario college.

As I was preparing to accept my new appointment, my interest in organizational culture was once again inspired. Three articles greatly influenced my thinking and my strategy as I began my new post. Hagberg and Heifetz wrote, *Telling the CEO his/her Baby is Ugly* (Hagberg, 2000), addressing the importance of understanding and assessing an organization's culture as the difference between success and failure. The authors emphasized that most CEOs base their views of the organization on hope, more than objective fact. When you consider this along with Gordon Nixon's (2003) work on college leadership identifying a fit to the organization and the need to manage change (p. 55), the link to the question of how a new president can understand how the culture of an organization can be utilized to effect change becomes readily apparent.

The third author to influence my inquiry into organizational culture was Christine McPhail (2002), in an article identifying five stages of leadership by culture management: preparation, connection, involvement, stimulation, and execution.

Arguably, there is no easy recipe in preparing how to become a new president, but these three articles afforded me a context from which to begin my work in a struggling institution, where I was the fourth president in six years. I quickly learned once again the lesson of history and how it affects an institution. I saw firsthand the impact of the complexity the external environment had on a college that was once recognized as a leader in Ontario, struggling with the realities of day-to-day operations. This realization, combined with a predetermined failure perspective held by many of the staff, resulting from limited success over the previous six years, provided me a new perspective about organizational culture. It was both humbling and energizing to realize how essential it was to understand both past and current cultures, and perhaps, even more importantly, the desired culture, in order to manage the expected change.

In *Turning Knowledge Into Data*, Petrides writes:

Recent developments in organizational change research reveal that effective use of data

and information can raise performance, productivity, and outcomes at all levels – for

students, faculty, administration, and governance...Data collected, analyzed and

appropriately applied – contributes to the successful efforts by institutions and

institutional leaders in responding to numerous demands from a variety of audiences.

(Petrides, 2004, p. 13)

Recognizing my perception was indeed just that – my perception, I began to question, was there a

formal means to measure organizational culture? After polling the Ontario colleges for work on

institutional research, it was clear that no standard formal process existed to assess and compare

institutions other than a smattering of climate surveys, many of which were not rooted in

organizational theory.

Given the constant drive for change, it was (and still is) alarming to me that we do not

heed the importance of understanding culture more formally. I was then, and I still am concerned

that too many decisions are made in Ontario colleges today that are not evidence based.

Decisions are influenced by the 'current discussion of the day' without the benefit of facts and

figures. I did not want to add to the practice of assessing one's own culture or to make decisions

superficially as Hagberg and Heifetz (2000, p. 1) describe to be formulated in hope, not fact.

Subsequently, I found the work of Cameron and Quinn*, Diagnosing and Changing

Organizational Culture: Based on the Competing Values Framework* (2006), which serves as a

framework for this research project.

Although I do not expect others to value this personal journey in the same way as I have,

the experience sharpened my observation skills and awareness and reinforced my belief that to

understand an organization is one of the most important aspects of success. Countless stories by CEOs, in the business literature, illustrate the importance of observing and how that assists in learning about your organization.

> The telling of your own story approach is commonly used in the business literature. Take Jack Welch, who transformed General Electric from a sleeping giant to a top global organization. Although his success has become the darling of case studies and textbooks—and his business philosophy a mantra for corporate change—the fundamentals of his formula for leadership still hold. (Kotter, 2002, p. 21)

It is clear that, by understanding your own organization, there are lessons from which to build successful businesses. Terry O'Banion makes a similar argument for academic institutions in his book, *A Learning College for the 21st Century: Emerging Models of the New Paradigm at Jackson Community College,* when he wrote the following about transformation of the culture:

> Ask Peter Senge what fish talk about, and he will tell you that he's not sure, but he does know they don't talk about water. Fish are so close to water, just as we are to our culture, that they, and we, don't give it a second thought. Yet our beliefs, moral code, values, and patterns of behaviour are part of our culture and how we interact with our environment. Without examining the current culture and how it works, colleges won't be able to make the changes so desperately needed. (1997, p. 145)

> In summary, from a personal perspective as an academic leader, the changes and trends in our world, essential management competencies and, finally, comprehensive understanding of the cultures within higher education can provide sound grounding for the realities facing leaders today. This glimpse at one situation in an Ontario college, based on the author's personal experience, has been expressed to emphasize both the interest in and need for an increased

understanding of organizational culture in Ontario's colleges.

Leading Culture Change – A Theoretical Perspective

Drucker's statement (cited in Childress & Senn, 1995, p. 3), that "we are in one of those great historical periods that occurs every 200 or 300 years when people don't understand the world anymore, and the past is not sufficient to explain the future," underscores our lack of confidence in what the future holds. There appears to be a common understanding held by leaders that we are in new times, making the case that it is increasingly more vital for organizations to understand who they are. By understanding who one is, appreciating one's cultural antecedents and enhancing our understanding of the world, it may be possible to map out a direction more focused for tomorrow's world than it would be to rely only on institutional historical data and influences; and our postsecondary institutions and their students will benefit from this understanding.

Clemmer (1995), in *Pathways to Performance,* writes about his experience in organization improvement, leadership development and personal effectiveness, contributing examples of core themes and the character of successful leaders. In a discussion about operational pathways and pitfalls Clemmer suggests there can be early adoption of a culture from changing operating practices, but leaders must think through long-term culture change taking into consideration teams, skills, measurements, structural and system alignments, education and communication strategies (p. 195).

Advice about change, change management and leading change is abundant in the literature. The sophistication of change leadership is apparent when you examine the work of scholars such as Kotter (1998, p. 7), Augustine (1998, p. 167) and Fullan (2003) – who all offer complex strategies to manage change. Each of these scholars, who are highly respected for their

contributions in this field of study, suggests steps to consider in the change management process. In 2003, this researcher sorted these processes into the categories of plan, implement and evaluate in an attempt to identify similarities and simplify the complexity of change. Table 4 illustrates this model.

Table 4

Change Models Simplified

Simplified	Plan	Implement	Evaluate
8 Steps for Successful Large-scale Change, Kotter, 2002	1. Increase urgency 2. Build the guiding team 3. Get the vision right	4. Communicate for buy-in 5. Empower action 6. Create short-term wins	7. Don't let up 8. Make change stick
Reshaping an Industry Augustine, 1997	1. Read the tea leaves 2. Have a road map even when there are no roads 4. Make megachanges (set attainable goals) 5. To think outside of the box, get outside of the box	3. Move expeditiously (announce an ambitious schedule) 7. Don't lose sight of day-to-day 8. Focus on the customer 9. Be decisive 10. Create one culture for one company 11. Remember that your real assets go home at night	6. Benefit by benchmarking (establish indices and measure)
Change Forces Fullan, 1993	1. You can't mandate what matters 2. Change is a journey, not a blueprint 3. Problems are our friends 4. Vision and Strategy planning come later	5. Individualism and collectivism must have equal power 6. Neither centralism nor decentralism work 8. Every person is a change agent	7. Connection with the wider environment is critical for success
West-Moynes, Unpublished, 2003	1. Understand your culture and common expectations 3. Clarity of vision, mission and values 4. 'Students and learning are at the heart of all you do'	2. Start with champions and empower ownership, action and commitment 5. Communicate (!!!) 6. Inspire empowerment, ownership and action	7. Create clear expectations 8. Use data to inform and complete the cycle 9. Celebrate Success
Change Simplified	**Plan for Opportunity**	**Massage change – best practices**	**Identify barriers and success**

Although it is unlikely that understanding culture of an organization and managing change will ever be simplified, it is helpful to look at the steps one might consider when thinking about managing a culture change strategy. Table 4 demonstrates the recommendations from Kotter, Augustine and Fullan have more similarities than differences and that the simple model of planning, implementing and evaluating is a useable framework to map out a change management strategy. One important caveat – the timeline for implementing change can vary depending on the volume or implications of change occurring and anticipated. The majority of authors discussing culture change overwhelmingly agree changing culture takes significant time and does not happen quickly in most situations.

Leading Culture

"Give me a good theory over a strategic plan any day of the week," is the opening statement by Fullan and Scott in *The Six Secrets of Change: What the Best Leaders Do to Help Their Organizations Survive and Thrive* (2009, p. 1). Fullan and Scott believe that having a theory removes the concern of an abstract plan. Affirming that theories are practical and insightful for the purpose of understanding complex situations and can help point leaders to likely, effective actions, these scholars offer the following six secrets to guide and monitor leadership and organizations: love your employees, connect peers with purpose, capacity building prevails, learning is the work, transparency rules and systems learn (p. 15).

Somewhat akin to the field of change, advice about leadership is also commonly found throughout the literature. Hanna (2003) identifies 11 strategic challenges for leaders in higher education, building a vision that will capture the advantage of a more central focus in response to the technological developments impacting institutions (p. 31). The author describes the most difficult changes in higher education institutions as being the transformation of decision-making

processes and past operating practices. Hanna describes the evolving college/university culture moving from a 'traditional academic culture' on a continuum to an 'emerging academic culture.' The continuum includes movement of 21 of what Schein would describe as artifacts and creations, values, and underlying assumptions such as: rules, policies, procedures, decision making, structures, communication, systems and resources, stability level of budgets, evolutionary versus revolutionary actions, changing relationships, common vision/values, recognition, etc. Hanna concludes that:

> The processes for achieving transformation have evolved: early efforts, in the previous two decades, focused on the strategic improvement of quality through the improvement of a variety of administrative and instructional processes, whereas current efforts emphasize the creation of a more open, honest, and comprehensive assessments and the re-creation of vision, mission, culture, strategy, decision-making processes, and outcomes. (p. 32)

Researchers such as Sheridan (1998) and Cooke (2007) identify the considerable emphasis that has been placed on developing an organization's vision, values and mission in academic institutions. Without some form of culture assessment, the question remains as to how a leader knows if these objects are permeating an organization and guiding the outcomes.

Other researchers from business and industry have focused their inquiries on one specific aspect of an organization's culture. This is not to be confused with the discussion of sub-culture, which describes a unit within an organization having a subtly different culture or a unique culture from the overall organizational culture. We can look to the topic of managing and preventing risk to illustrate this. Risk management has become a critical focus more recently as global financial institutions have impacted the world economy in a way described by some to be close to the brink of another depression. Through case studies, Lynch (2008) describes the approach to create

value-aligned processes and to build a risk-conscious culture. Lynch outlines five tenets of a risk-conscious culture as being essential foundational elements, namely: 1) motivate and engage all stakeholders; 2) engage in all directions, and continuously validate; 3) establish, communicate, and measure a robust strategy, standards and actions; 4) promote information/news flow; and5) monitor all types of change (p. 151). Lynch evokes a philosophy that culture is 'everyone's responsibility' and stresses the role of leadership in building a risk-conscious culture identifying that it requires hard work, investment, time, learning, knowledge, sharing, technology, and management focus.

> It is not a science but an art, not a one-time effort but an ingrained culture – trial, error, learning and continuous improvement are all key ingredients of successful execution. Organizations must be more aware of the external environment and the stakeholders they depend on – their risk attitude and aptitude, up and down the value chain. But it can be accomplished; it just requires focus, the involvement of others, strong leadership, and common business objectives. (p. 229)

Argyris, the James Bryant Conant Professor of Education and Organizational Behaviour Emeritus at Harvard University, further illustrate the many angles of reviewing organizational culture in *Organizational Traps: Leadership, Culture and Organization Design* (2010). Argyris believes human beings are governed by four values: be in unilateral control; win and do not lose; suppress negative feelings; and, behave rationally (p. 63). These authors' work addresses how human beings can either add to the traps inherent in an organization, or work in a way to eliminate the traps in an organization. This is an excellent resource for those who agree with Clemmer's definition of organizational culture as the 'way things get done around here.' These scholars recommend typical culture barriers, inherent in organizations, must be identified and

exposed to build more transparency.

The role of the leader in cultural development is supported by 12 Vanguard Learning Colleges who served as model programs and best practices from 2000 to 2004 for a League for Innovation Learning College Project. Wechsler (2008) interviewed three Vanguard Learning College presidents to learn more about the president's role in leading an institution's journey to become more learning-centred and captured their advice. It is relevant to note that from the eight emerging themes, 'use employee orientation sessions to acclimate people to the college and its culture' and 'use data to drive the need for change' were identified (p. 3).

The Social Identity Model of Organizational Leadership (SIMOL), constructed by Hogg and van Knippenberg (2003) was expanded by Cicero, Pierro and van Knippenberg (2007) to analyze the degree to which individual employee efforts can be attributed as an outcome of leadership effectiveness. The effect of leaders was examined in relation to team identification and high leader group proto-typicality (defined as the extent to which a leader is representative of the group or organizational identity). The results showed that subjects in groups exhibiting both high team identification and proto-typicality perceived leaders were more effective than subjects in groups where team identification was either high or low combined with low leader group proto-typicality. Although the study has limitations, it is relevant to understanding complex organizational processes such as leadership and effectiveness. As organizational processes are seen by some researchers as an indicator of organizational culture, alignment to the leader's activities or behaviours can support or change the future culture of an organization. If this is the case, assessment of organizational culture may provide data which will serve as a guide for managers striving to improve their organization's effectiveness (p. 16).

It is relevant for leaders to note that not all authors see the shift to adapt and/or be more

like business and industry as constructive. Fisher and Rubenson (1998), as discussed earlier in this literature review, would not agree. Their concern, supported by many college and university academics, is that the essence of the university in Canada will change in ways that undermines some of the best parts of the tradition known to encase national norms and public service.

The debate about whether colleges and universities should align themselves to be more like a business is further exercised by the debate about the role that colleges and universities play as institutions of public policy and change. Moorhead, Griffin, Irving, and Coleman (2000) describe how the culture of universities and colleges must be perceived within their context stating:

> Values can be fully understood only in the context of the organization in which they
>
> developed. In other words a description of the values and beliefs of one organization is
>
> not transferable to those of other organizations; each culture is unique. (p. 436)

Capturing what this researcher believes to be one of the most important aspects in this ongoing debate, Moorhead, et al., suggest leaders should focus less on the debate about whether colleges and universities should be more or less like business, and more on engaging stakeholders in shaping their culture. This focus on stakeholders is reinforced within the context introduced earlier by Kotter and Heskett (1992), whose research reinforces the view that the strength of a culture is only important for financial viability and managing culture change in a context that the organizational culture is meaningful to all stakeholders.

Simply said, leading culture, understanding culture, and impacting culture does not immediately translate into successful institutions. Appreciation for organizational culture constitutes only one of the many variables that are part of the complicated puzzle that makes organizations who they are and, by that very statement, that can assist leaders (both formal and

informal) and their organization to be successful.

An illustration of the complexities of organizational culture in leading change is found in the book, *Becoming a Strategic Leader* by Hughes and Beatty (2005), consultants with the Center for Creative Leadership (CCL). These authors detail a case study about their experiences after being invited to facilitate a strategic planning process by the dean for the College of Liberal Arts at a major university. After analyzing the data from a needs assessment completed by department heads, senior faculty and staff agency heads, the consultants felt they were approaching the first retreat to develop a strategic plan with a sense of hopefulness. This was tempered by their own personal history with faculty politics and earlier unsuccessful retreats, combined with a respect for the dean who had commissioned the process. However, the consultants were 'stunned, frustrated, and angry' (p. 196) by the contentious behaviour and non-constructive working relationships, which ended in a discontinuation of the work. Hughes and Beatty observed the situation to have: a general antagonistic undercurrent toward business or business methods by participants; lack of appreciation of faculty politics with several powerful faculty leaders, who had not joined in the needs assessment but who played pivotal roles in creating an adversarial climate; hidden agendas and those who came with guarded optimism found themselves in no-man's-land; and, the belated realization that there was no shared vision or mission for the college (pp. 195-197). It appears that there wasn't a common commitment to the process or shared organizational culture. Further, it is evident the institution had powerful sub-groups who were traditionally adversarial. From this case study the authors affirm:

> …the profound way that underlying organizational conditions can either facilitate or obstruct the efforts of individual leaders to think strategically, act strategically, and influence others strategically. In the college, for example, the dominant aspects of culture

included resistance to change and higher valuation given to academic departments than to

the college itself. And, paradoxically, while most of the retreat participants seemed

perplexed by the challenge of attracting more faculty to leadership positions, the group

nonetheless collectively perpetuated some of the very conditions that make academic

leadership unattractive and made their task even more difficult. (p. 197)

Hypothetically, the dean of the Liberal Arts College at this university is to be congratulated for

initiating a strategic planning session. However, initiating strategic planning without

commitment to the process was clearly problematic in successfully completing a strategic plan.

This researcher believes the dean made another mistake common to many leaders.

Without data about the organization's perception of their culture, the dean and consultants could

only base their ideals on their own perceptions 'about the way things were done' in the Liberal

Arts College. Had data been collected and shared about organizational culture, it might have

assisted both the organizers and participants to design a strategic plan and change management

processes in context of their own behaviours and sub-group cultures. This is not an easy task,

especially in light of the case study department's current lack of alignment on vision, mission and

values. However, without leadership, the adversarial behaviours will persist, regardless of the

leader.

In *Turnaround Leadership for Higher Education,* Fullan and Scott (2009) move beyond

the judgement around the change forces affecting academia and focus on how to build quality and

capacity in universities. A review of the empirical research on the 'how' of effective change

management, building capability for change and implementing change is captured in the

following key implications for action proposed to achieve effective change in large systems:

1) Change is a complex learning and unlearning process for all concerned. It is not a

one-time event.

2) Organizational and individual capabilities to manage change are directly linked. Change-ready and change–capable organizations are made up of change-ready and change–capable staff.

3) Of course, there is a big difference between change and progress. The former is about something being made different or becoming different. The latter involves coming to a value judgement about the worth of each change effort. Change management is, therefore, heavily value-laden.

4) Strategic change and continuous quality improvement are two sides of the same coin. The former is concerned with setting and implementing new directions, the latter with ensuring that current practice is regularly tracked and the key areas for enhancement identified are addressed promptly and wisely. (p. 92)

Fullan and Scott (2009) also discuss the essence of 'turnaround leadership,' which they see as 'listening, linking, and leading (in that order) and about modelling, teaching and learning' (cited from Scott, Coates & Anderson, 2008, p. 97). Using evidence from a study funded by the Australian Learning and Teaching Council that applied an adaptation of two conceptual frameworks, leadership-capacity and learning-leadership, Fullan and Scott describe the findings about satisfactions and challenges of being a leader. Making change happen, interaction, achieving goals, setting direction, staff development, building talent and strategy are among the satisfactions identified. It is not surprising that the challenges identified were about archaic and clunky processes, handling administrivia, attending 'ritualized meetings,' lack of focus on core activities, managing complaints, managing performance processes and dysfunctional systems. Although this study was conducted in Australia, based on personal experience, this researcher

suggests the list would be somewhat similar in many places. Perhaps most instrumental in this work is that Fullan and Scott report on suggestions for individual leadership action. Examples from these suggestions include: build capacity, diagnose challenges, build talent, strengthen leadership capability to listen, link and lead, apply lessons identified by Julius, Baldridge and Pfeffer (1999), continue the dialogue on capacity of leadership, and actively model the capabilities that count (pp. 123-125).

Argyris (2010) further contributes to our understanding about leading culture through a discussion about traps created by individuals using defensive reasoning. These scholars found a large degree of agreement among respondents in a literature review of culture studies supporting the theory that productive cultures were characterized by the following six features:

1) Seek and accept feedback that may not be favourable to ourselves.

2) Commit to continued cultural change and learning.

3) Encourage flexibility in the development and implementation of policies.

4) Reward risk-taking.

5) Encourage taking chances on people assignments.

6) Focus on strengthening of trust and co-operation (p. 119).

Argyris also cites the following factors that inhibit cultural change: 1) rigid and bureaucratic organizations; 2) fear; 3) lack of rewards; 4) blaming others or the system; 5) victim mentality; 6) enthusiasm from the top; 7) lack of persistence and time; and 8) concern about harming one's reputation. In items 1 to 5, the authors place blame on organizational factors, while items 6 to 8 blame the top executives. Argyris suggests that "human beings are very competent at producing trap behaviours, are skilled at it and, in fact, are skilled in being unaware of what they are doing" (p. 57).   Further, they state that people are "competent at avoiding threatening and

embarrassing situations" driven by the following four rules that may inhibit successful change leadership: 1) produce consequences that we do not intend when dealing with difficult problems; 2) hold other people or the system responsible for errors and not examine our own responsibility; 3) repeat errors skillfully so that they can continue to be repeated; and, 4) create organizational black holes in which information is driven underground (p. 61).

This logic is based on two premises. First, people use theories of actions to produce intended results, and the theories they use and the theories they say they use may be different. Second, there are two models of reasoning (i.e., Model I – defensive reasoning, and Model II – productive reasoning). Defensive reasoning (more typically the model in use) enables a person to protect and defend themselves against fundamental, disruptive change and is guided by four governing values of action: be in unilateral control, win and do not lose, suppress negative feelings, and behave rationally. Productive reasoning (usually the espoused theory to prevent the counterproductive consequences of defensive reasoning) is governed by values that seek valid (testable) information, create informed choice, and monitor vigilantly to detect and correct error. In essence, Argyris states, "The problem – and the reason we create traps for ourselves – is that we espouse Model II reasoning (productive) when our actions are, in fact, based on Model I (defensive). Thus, we think we are acting in a way that creates trust, informed choice, and valid information but, in fact, we are acting in ways that undermine those values in order to defend the self" (pp. 58-65).

On the matter of leadership and culture, Goffee and Jones (1998) add to our knowledge base through their book, *The Character of a Corporation: How Your Company's Culture Can Make or Break Your Business.* There are four emerging themes from their work:

1.   Most organizations, in their many parts, are characterized by several cultures at once,

and it is critical that leaders and individuals alike understand where these different cultures exist, how they work together and how they clash.

2. Some companies experience an archetypal life cycle of their culture or cultures, starting with the communal and often ending in the fragmented.

3. There is not one 'right' or 'best' culture for an organization – only the appropriate culture for a business environment.

4. Any form of culture can be functional or dysfunctional – all it takes to slip from the good to the bad is people demonstrating the behaviours of sociability or solidarity to their own benefit, not the organization's benefit. Preventing this dynamic is primarily the work of leadership but can and should be owned by every member of the organization. (pp. 15-16)

This selected review of the vast, though relevant, literature on leadership and its relationship to culture may be enriched by analysis of the quality of leadership, which adds a further dimension to the discussion. For example, Bennis in the forward to *Authentic Leadership: Rediscovering the Secrets to Creating Lasting Value* (George, 2003) underscores the need for "leaders who have a deep sense of purpose and are true to their core values" (p. 15).

The characteristic qualities of an authentic leader include understanding of purpose, practicing of solid values, leading with heart, establishing connected relationships and demonstrating self-discipline (George, 2003, p. 18). George's thesis is that these five dimensions of an authentic leader are developed continuously through a leader's life and are not learned in a sequential process. The transformation to leadership described by George reveals a personal journey of experience, faith, challenges, and finding the right fit with an organization, all of which George found as the CEO of Medtronic. Some of the same characteristics and behaviours

promoted for leaders are found in *Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture: The Competing Values Framework.*

According to George, the five characteristics of an authentic company parallel the five dimensions of an authentic leader: purpose (mission and vision); values (company values); heart (empowering employees to serve customers); relationships (enduring and committed organization); and self-discipline (results for all stakeholders).

Although George does not talk about organizational culture in specific terms, the discussion about authentic leadership and authentic companies aligns with the definition of organizational culture. By being specific about purpose, values, empowerment, serving customers and organizational commitment, George is once again talking about the culture definition of 'how we do things around here.'

In the last chapter of *Embracing the Tiger*, Robert Gordon (1997), Past President of Humber College, describes that institution's quality journey. Gordon describes the trends influencing the college along with the strategies and structures used to respond to the external and internal complexities.

> Humber's organic approach to effectiveness for over a decade has been focussed on human resource and organizational development in an evolving milieu of customer service, participation, innovation, and partnering. The process for transformation has developed and prepared the corporate culture and social infrastructure to the point where the college can cope with serious crises and at the same time take full advantage of information technology tools for processing data and information and for establishing reference points for comparison purposes. The integration of co-operative workgroups and more friendly technological applications of software and hardware into 'groupware'

provide an emerging framework for measuring effectiveness that responds to the differing

roles, levels, needs and perceptions of various stakeholder groups. (p. 157)

Finally, underscoring the importance of leadership, George Baker, in *Cultural Leadership:*

Inside America's Community Colleges (1992), writes:

An organization's culture and its leadership are integrally entwined, and organizational

effectiveness is linked to the role of leadership in creating and managing culture. Culture

must be the focus of well-developed research if we are to learn how to better build upon

our colleges to support the communities we serve. Conversely, leaders who understand

and value the cultural aspects of the organizations can effectively intervene in the culture

evolution process by consciously working to create a common value and belief system

that motivates commitment around a shared vision for the future. (p. 15)

Summary of the Literature Review

This review provides a relevant, selected sample of the literature in order to set the context

for examining organizational culture for the case study of the culture of four Ontario colleges

with numerical scores above the system average for Student Satisfaction. The literature has been

presented with a focus on five areas of research endeavour including: our changing world and

trends in higher education; effectiveness and performance measurement management; a

theoretical framework of organizational culture including definitions; culture assessment; and

leading culture change in the college environment. These themes have been drawn together to

demonstrate their interdependencies as well as the need for a greater emphasis on culture as a

mechanism worthy of consideration for colleges wanting to improve and the leaders who want to

manage needed change.

The literature supports the notion that the world continues to change and that cultural and

economic pressures within a global world-society is increasingly competitive. Further, signs indicate this will continue to affect the management or leadership of postsecondary educational institutions. Indeed, global trends and competitiveness have increased the focus on effectiveness and performance of all private and public sector organizations.

On the matter of effectiveness and performance measurement management, the literature predicts that accountability and performance measurement will continue to be applied to leadership and corporate or institutional management in an effort to maximize outputs. In the case of postsecondary education, these performance measures must be balanced between the ability of students to learn in a postsecondary environment and the demands of employers for qualified workers.

When we consider the combination of our changing world/effectiveness and performance measurement management, there is strong support that global trends are forcing change in higher education. These changes are not perceived by all stakeholders to be positive, although government and society require more visible accountability through performance measures. Measurement of performance requires further research to determine what to measure and by what criteria.

In general terms, it appears that the definition of culture/organizational culture/corporate culture and the understanding of culture's impact on organizations continue to evolve in complexity. The literature affirms that culture is different from climate. However, there is no firm agreement on the definition of culture. Alignment of thinking is found in the belief that while culture is abstract, difficult to see and challenging to define in organizations, understanding organizational culture and subcultures is integral to implementing change and enhancing performance. Assessment of culture is a more recent theme in the culture literature.

The literature further supports the expectation that management and social scientists will continue to apply the term organizational culture with increasing precision; with management being more likely to apply the principles of organizational culture to specific leadership initiatives.

Although there is an abundance of articles on culture, change, and leadership, there currently exists only limited examination of organizational culture in Ontario colleges, how culture impacts Ontario colleges, and whether or not culture assessment is a viable tool to improve change management strategies. The literature does, however, support the need for better understanding of organizational culture to achieve institutional or organizational success.

In summary, this literature review builds a conceptual framework for the relationship between global trends, rise of accountability frameworks including Student Satisfaction, KPIs, effectiveness and performance measurement, and change. This literature review also builds a foundation about the importance of understanding organizational culture and leads one to consider the thesis that through a better understanding of Ontario college culture and culture change, stronger accountability frameworks and improved performance may be achieved among Ontario colleges.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Introduction

The first and second chapters of this thesis have oriented the reader to the context of the study and introduced the relevant literature and theory. This chapter describes the methods used to conduct the study. This includes a discussion of the purpose of the study, research questions, research design, survey sample selection, data collection and recording, data credibility and analysis, and ethical considerations.

Since a major task of this study was to examine the assumptions held by college administrators about their own institution's organizational culture and management competencies, the relationship between culture and performance was explored within the context that student satisfaction is just one of many performance indicators currently being used in the Ontario college system.

Specifically, performance was examined with reference to overall institutional Student Satisfaction KPI scores as well as the scores for Capstone Question # 26 – "The overall quality of the learning experiences in this program." The study also assessed the applicability of Cameron and Quinn's Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) and Management Skills Assessment Instrument (MSAI), based on the Competing Values Framework (CVF) (Cameron and Rohrbaugh, 1983) for assessing organizational culture in Ontario colleges and, as a result, will identify implications for leading institutional change. Further, the results may help guide college leaders who seek to improve performance by profiling both the culture and leadership skills of a high-performing institution, and by highlighting the importance of understanding organizational culture through formal assessment.

Research Questions

The research questions posed by this study are:

Part 1 – Organizational Culture Assessment

Primary Research Questions

1.1   What are the current and preferred organizational culture type profiles of the combined four colleges in the study with a numerical score above the system average for Student Satisfaction KPI?

1.2   What are the current and preferred organizational culture type profiles of each college in the study with a numerical score above the system average for Student Satisfaction KPI?

Secondary Research Questions

1.3   To what degree do the "now", herein referred to as "current", responses on the OCAI, made by all college administrators at the combined Ontario colleges surveyed, correspond to their combined "preferred" responses?

1.4   To what degree do the "now", herein referred to as "current", responses on the OCAI, made by college administrators at each of the four Ontario colleges surveyed, correspond to their "preferred" responses?

1.5   What are the current and preferred highest cultural content dimensions of the combined colleges in the study?

1.6   What are the current and preferred highest cultural content dimensions of each college in the study?

1.7   To what degree do the responses on the OCAI by college administrators at the combined Ontario colleges correspond with the average OCAI culture profile described by Cameron and Quinn (2006) for public administration employees (p. 78)?

1.8   To what degree do the responses on the OCAI, by college administrators at each of the four Ontario colleges correspond with the average OCAI culture profile described by Cameron and Quinn (2006) for public administration employees (p. 78)?

1.9   Do the perceived current and preferred organizational culture profiles differ between male and female administrators and, if so, how?

1.10   Do the perceived current and preferred organizational culture profiles differ according to administrators' years of experience in their current position and, if so, how?

Part 2 – Management Skills Assessment

Primary Research Questions

2.1   What is the management skills profile of college administrators at the combined four Ontario colleges surveyed with a numerical score above the system average for Student Satisfaction KPI?

2.2   What is the management skills profile of college administrators at each of the Ontario colleges surveyed with a numerical score above the system average for Student Satisfaction KPI?

Research Design

Quantitative research methods were employed to enable the researcher to compare numerical rankings of the perceptions of college administrative leaders at four Ontario colleges exhibiting above average student satisfaction. Two survey tools were used to gather data about the perceptions of college administrators regarding their institution's organizational culture and their own management skills competencies. The first questionnaire required participants to describe their organizational culture, both in terms of its current state and what they considered their preferred state. The statement of preference is fundamental to the use of the survey data by

institutions interested in changing their organizational culture. The second questionnaire asked respondents to assess their management skill competencies. An understanding of a baseline of management competencies is important also for institutions interested in changing their organizational culture as they can determine whether or not they are leading the type of culture they desire through their own actions and behaviours. Finally, participants were asked demographic questions in order to gather data about the gender and years of work experience of individuals participating in the study.

Profiles of each respondent's perceptions about organizational culture at their institution are described in terms of the organizational culture sub-scale score from the OCAI (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Data from the OCAI on current and preferred cultures were reviewed to reflect administrators' responses, framed in terms of Cameron and Quinn's Clan, Adhocracy, Market and Hierarchy culture types. Organizational culture profiles are presented to examine college cultures in terms of: type, strength, discrepancies, congruence, trends, and comparison with other profiles. Administrators' perceptions of the current and preferred culture characteristics of their college are also analyzed to reflect Cameron and Quinn's six culture content dimensions: Dominant Characteristics, Organizational Leadership, Management of Employees, Organizational Glue, Strategic Emphases, and Criteria for Success.

In addition to the individual organizational profiles of each of the four colleges, a combined colleges profile was created, using the average responses from all respondents in the study. The combined college profile was used in comparisons with each of the four colleges in the study. It was also compared with the Public Administration organizational culture profile plotted by Cameron & Quinn (2006, p. 78). Administrator responses are contrasted in relation to

their gender and length of employment in their current job responses to the demographic questions on the survey.

In addition to organizational profiles, profiles of each individual's perceived management competencies are described in terms of the management skills sub-scale score from the MSAI (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). MSAI data were analyzed to create a management competency profile for all colleges combined and for each college in the study.

This non-experimental study was descriptive in nature. According to Singh and Bajpai (2007) and Gravetter and Forzano (2009), descriptive research is defined as non-experimental and is intended to be used to deal with relationships between non-manipulated variables in a natural, rather than artificial, (lab) setting. Further, the events and conditions of research interest already exist and the relevant variables may be easily analyzed. Accordingly, in this research study trends in higher education, increased attention to effectiveness and performance measurement, and change constitute the non-manipulated variables said to impact the non-manipulated variables of organizational culture. In other words, the perceptions of administrators about their organizational culture were not manipulated; they were measured and analyzed in relation to the perceptions of other administrators at their own institution and other institutions. Through this method, similarities and differences can be identified.

Descriptive research is also understood to apply logical methods of inductive and deductive reasoning in order to arrive at generalizations. Induction or inductive reasoning, sometimes called inductive logic, is the process of reasoning in which the premises of an argument are believed to support the conclusion but do not entail the premises (i.e., they do not ensure its truth). Induction is a form of reasoning that makes generalizations based on individual instances (Hawthorne, 2011). In contrast "deductive reasoning starts with a general principle and

predicts a specific observation" (Ary, Jacobs, Sorenson & Razavieh, 2010, p. 9). In other words, inductive reasoning is used to try and find new information and deductive reasoning is used to "prove" it. Inductive and deductive reasoning have been applied in this research to formulate generalizations from the profiles created using data collected in this study for combined colleges and each college. Finally, in descriptive research both the variables and the procedures are described in detail. This is also the case in this study.

The rationale for creating a description of culture at these institutions is to create an understanding about what organizational culture looks like at the four Ontario colleges participating in this study with a numerical score above the system average for Student Satisfaction KPI. It is appropriate to use a descriptive research approach to analyze and compare the similarities and differences of the responses for combined colleges and each college as a means to achieve this understanding, building on the primary objectives of this study to examine the organizational culture type and management competency type. Organizational culture type profiles and management competency profiles will be built based on the data collected in this study to accomplish this objective.

The aim is to see if there is anything in common between these four institutions about their organizational culture and management competencies. Through identification of commonalities (or discord), a discussion is possible about the association between the organizational culture presented through this study and the fact that each of these colleges exhibited performance above the system average Student Satisfaction KPI. Further research will be required to provide empirical evidence of any association between organizational culture and performance. However, this study has been designed to provide an understanding of organizational culture at four Ontario colleges as a means to build a foundation for further

research on organizational culture and performance.

One disadvantage of descriptive research design is that you cannot identify the cause of the situation. One can only describe the situation and report on the findings. In this case, the colleges studied are completely in their natural state and the cause of their unique organizational culture cannot be determined. There are, however, numerous advantages to descriptive research. For example, in this study a significant amount of information can be acquired about different cultural values by assessing the perceptions administrators hold about their current and preferred organizational culture. Descriptive research is also useful for mapping variables in specific contexts. In this case the two sets of variables are the perceptions of organizational culture by senior managers, and their perceptions of management competency skills. Finally, descriptive research has the advantage that it can help identify other variables throughout the course of the study, which can be tested through further research.

Site Selection and Survey Sample

Twenty-four publicly funded colleges existed in Ontario at the inception of this study. All of the province's publicly funded colleges are required through legislation to participate in Key Performance Indicators (KPIs). This legislation was introduced in 1998 and formalized through the legal authority of subsection 8(2) of Ontario Regulation 34/03, enacted under the Ontario Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology Act, 2002.

The target population for this study was mid- and senior-level college administrators from selected Ontario colleges. The selection of colleges was based on two criteria: 1) obtained a numerical score above the system average for the Government of Ontario mandated Overall Student Satisfaction KPI during the five-year period of 2004/05-2008/09; and, 2) achieved above average performance on Capstone Question #26 of the Ontario KPI Student Satisfaction Survey.

Capstone Question #26 measures the degree to which students are satisfied with the overall

quality of the learning experiences in their program of study. This measure is clearly considered

a key component of college performance since the Government of Ontario has identified it as a

'Capstone' question.

Based on the participation criteria described above, eight Ontario colleges were invited to

participate in the study. Four colleges agreed to participate and were asked to conduct a local,

internal ethical review, if required, to finalize involvement in the study. The Presidents at each

institution identified administrators to participate in the study. Guidance was given to each

President to include members of their administrative team who held mid- and senior-level

positions with responsibility to develop policy and manage others who can influence institutional

performance. These individuals typically occupy the position of president, vice president,

dean/chair or director. This direction was provided to arrange a similar mix of survey

respondents at each institution.   A copy of this correspondence is found in Appendix C. A

concern with this method of participant selection is that it might be tempting for a President to

identify only administrators that would make their institution look favourable. There is no

evidence that this occurred in this study and all four college Presidents indicated a keen interest in

their own institution's results to enable future planning.

Cameron and Quinn (2006) refer to this group as "managers managing managers" (p.

120). This group was selected for two reasons. The first is that similar studies using the CVF to

assess culture in academic settings were conducted by Cameron and Freeman (1991) and Smart

and St. John (1996). The Cameron and Freeman study was conducted at 334 American four-year

colleges and universities where questionnaires were distributed to presidents; chief academic,

finance, student affairs, external affairs, and institutional research officers; selected faculty

department heads; and selected members of the board of trustees. Twelve to 20 individuals from each institution completed the questionnaire, resulting in a 55% response rate. The Cameron and Freeman study represents a broader range of constituencies than this thesis as faculty and members of the board of trustees were surveyed. In Smart and St. John (1996), respondents included presidents, administrators and trustees. One to 19 individuals from each institution completed the questionnaire, resulting in a 49% response rate; again, the range of constituencies is broader than this study. The decision to acquire a minimum of 10 respondents from each participating institution in this study was influenced by the two research studies described above.

The second reason administrators (managers) were chosen for this study is mainly a matter of circumstance. At the time the study was planned, colleges were conducting labour-relations negotiations with their faculty, and college presidents expressed no interest in a wider constituency-based study. The selective use of senior administrators can also be seen as an asset as this group plays a key role in policy development and the implementation of strategic priorities.

Student Satisfaction KPI Performance for Participating Colleges

The requirement for colleges to participate in this study was a numerical score above the system average for Overall Student Satisfaction on the KPI survey for the period of 2004/05-2008/09 mandated by the Government of Ontario for all Ontario Colleges. This criterion was established to set a benchmark of high performance for the colleges selected for this study. Clearly, this is just one of numerous performance indicators for academic institutions, albeit a very important one that provides a basis for discussion about organizational culture and performance based on the assumption that academic institutions would aspire to an organizational culture that demonstrates higher than average student satisfaction.

Closer analysis of Overall Student Satisfaction was undertaken to determine if there was any distinction between the results at the four colleges selected for the study. As a result of this analysis Above Average Student Satisfaction was further defined to be an average KPI score, for the period of 2004/05-2008/09, of at least one standard deviation above the mean score for all colleges completing the Ontario KPI Student Satisfaction Survey over the same period. Colleges with mean scores above one standard deviation from the system mean were deemed to be Above Average. Applying the one standard deviation criterion represents a more robust statistical definition of Above Average than the raw numerical score used to determine each college's eligibility. Three of the four colleges that agreed to participate in the study performed above one standard deviation from the system mean for Overall Student Satisfaction. Table 5 compares data from Overall Student Satisfaction, Capstone Question #26 and identifies participating colleges with a mean Overall Student Satisfaction KPI score one standard deviation above the mean score for all Ontario Colleges.

The KPI scores for Capstone Question #26 (which considers the quality of the learning experience) also demonstrates that three of the four colleges also achieved a score greater than one standard deviation above the system mean for the period 2004/05-2008/09.

Therefore, for the purpose of this study, Colleges A, C, and D may be said to be Above Average; that is, they performed one standard deviation above the system mean for both Overall Student Satisfaction and Capstone Question # 26 – Quality of the Learning Experience. College B, however, did not meet the one standard deviation above the system mean criterion. For the purpose of organizational culture and performance discussions only, in Chapters 4 and 5 of this thesis, College B is considered Average as it is .52 standard deviation above in Overall Student Satisfaction, and -0.70 standard deviation below with regards to Capstone Question #26.

Table 5

*Classification of Performance: Overall Student Satisfaction KPI Score and Capstone
Question # 26 – Quality of Learning Experience*

KPI Measure	Provincial Mean	SD	College A Mean	College B Mean	College C Mean	College D Mean
Overall Student Satisfaction	77.56	0.79	82.8	78.08*	80.18	85.6
Capstone Question # 26 – Quality of the Learning Experience	81.3	0.82	84	80.6*	82.8	87.2
Classification of Performance			Above Average	Average	Above Average	Above Average

Note. College B does not meet the "Above Average" definition of one standard deviation above the system mean.

Survey Instruments

The work by Cameron and Quinn has been found by this researcher to be the most advanced and reliable of all the culture assessment processes examined in the literature review of Chapter 2. The decision to select the survey instruments developed by Cameron and Quinn was based on several factors including their applicability to an academic organization, range of use by other researchers and academic institutions, ability to implement survey effectively within Ontario colleges, and usefulness of information obtained.

Grounded in the theory of the CVF, both the OCAI and MSAI instruments have been widely used in the public and private sectors, concretely establishing the ability to compare the assessment of one organization to a profile of a similar type organization (Yu & Wu, 2009).

As mentioned in Chapter 1, the OCAI has been used in several scientific studies of over 1000 companies (Cameron and Quinn, 2006) involving different types of organizations, including colleges recognized with above average student satisfaction over the previous five years.

As a trial test for this research project the OCAI was completed by administrators from one Ontario college. Although the data are not in the public domain, data collection and analysis provided experience to this researcher and insight for the design and collection of data for this case study. The MSAI was conducted for each individual administrator in the pilot study; however, a combined profile of that institution was not created.

Instrument reliability and validity are important to build confidence about the quality of the data gathered in any research study. Reliability is generally accepted to be defined as the "extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable" (Joppe, 2000, p. 1). Fundamentally, reliability concerns the extent to which an experiment, test, or any other experimenting procedure yields the same results on repeated trials (Carmines & Zeller, 1979).

For the purpose of this study, reliability is viewed in the context of whether or not the different items that claim to assess a culture type really assess it. The less variation an instrument produces in repeated measurements of a variable, the higher the reliability, consistency or dependability of the measure (Burns and Grove, 1997; Nieswiadomy, 2002).

Validity is defined to be the extent to which an instrument measures what it was intended to measure (Carmines & Zeller, 1979, p. 34). In this instance, validity considers the extent to which the OCAI measures the four types of organizational culture and the extent to which the MSAI measures the four types of management skills categories.

In assessing the reliability of scales used in the questionnaire, a coefficient of internal consistency was calculated using Cronbach's alpha methodology (Santos, 1999). This researcher

used Cronbach's alpha in order to determine the reliability of the online data collection

instrument. According to Vierra, Pollock and Golez (1998) an alpha coefficient of 0.70 or above

is indicative of adequate internal consistency.

Studies Previously Demonstrating Reliability and Validity of OCAI and MSAI

Instrument validity and reliability for the OCAI have been established through numerous

other studies. The following section describes previous studies that test the validity and reliability

of the instruments used in this study.

Survey reliability was tested on the use of the OCAI during a study conducted by Quinn

and Spreitzer (1991). Zammuto and Krakower (1991), in a study of college cultures, produced

further evidence of validity in discovering Clan culture was associated with decentralization,

trust, a sense of equity among organization members, high morale, and satisfaction with the

leader.

According to Cameron and Quinn, the OCAI instrument has been used by many

researchers in many different types of organizations. Reliability of the instrument (i.e., the extent

to which the instrument measures culture types consistently), has been tested by Quinn and

Spreitzer (1991) with 796 executives from eighty-six different public utility firms. Cronbach's

alpha coefficients, a reliability statistic type, were computed for each culture type. The

coefficients were .74 for Clan culture, .79 for Adhocracy culture, .73 for Hierarchy culture, and

.71 for Market culture. The results indicate that respondents tended to rate their organization's

culture consistently across the various questions on the instrument (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

Two other researchers, cited by Cameron and Quinn, that achieved similar results include Yeung,

Brockbank and Ulrich (1991), who applied the instrument with 10,300 human resource

executives and various associates; and, Zammuto and Krakower (1991), surveying more than 1,300 higher education administrators, department chairpersons and trustees.

Berrio (2003) used the CVF to describe the organizational culture type exhibited by Ohio State University Extension (OSU Extension) personnel. Berrio found OSU Extension personnel exhibited a Clan culture type as dominant in both the current and preferred states. The Clan culture portrays OSU Extension as an organization that concentrates on internal maintenance with flexibility, concern for people, and sensitivity for customers.

Cameron and Freeman (1991) demonstrate the OCAI instrument measured the four types of organizational culture in a study of 334 institutions of higher education, with 12 – 24 individuals responding from each institution for a total of 3,406 individuals participating. After examining three dimensions of culture – cultural strength, congruence and type – and organizational effectiveness, the study found that cultural strength and cultural congruence were not nearly as powerful in predicting organizational effectiveness as culture type.   Validity of the instrument was determined by matching the domain of effectiveness in which the organization excelled and the type of decision making, structure and strategy employed.

Convergent validity and discriminant validity, using a multi-trait, multi-method analysis and a multi-dimensional scaling analysis, was also found by Quinn and Spreitzer (1991).

More recently Yu and Wu (2009, p. 40) reported on a large number of empirical studies that have established the reliability and validity of the CVF and OCAI citing Howard (1998), Lamond (2003), Denison and Mishra (1995) and Ralston, et al. (2006).

Like the OCAI, the MSAI has been widely used and is considered an important supplement to the OCAI for managing change and leadership behaviour. Collett and Mora (1996) analyzed the psychometric properties of the MSAI through a new statistical technique called a

Within-Person Deviation Score or D-Score (Cameron and Quinn, 2006). This method was used to determine potential inter-quadrant factors to answer the following questions: are Adhocracy quadrant skills negatively correlated with Hierarchy quadrant skills, as predicted by the framework; are Clan and Market quadrants negatively correlated; are the competency dimensions within each quadrant positively correlated; and do intra-dimension item correlations show adequate reliability? Results show, consistent with the CVF, the correlation between the Clan and Market quadrants is -.43, and the correlation between Adhocracy and Hierarchy quadrants is -.68. The correlations between adjacent quadrants are negative, but the coefficients are much smaller than between diagonal quadrants (Adhocracy to Market, -.10; Market to Hierarchy, -.18; Clan to Hierarchy, -.34; Clan to Adhocracy, -.23). This could be interpreted to mean that inter-quadrant relationships within cultures within colleges are definitely subject to cultural values, and organizational cultures are affected by adherences by groups aligned to these quadrants.

Data Collection

Administrators meeting the selection criteria for participation in this study were identified by the President of each college. This included 'managers' and typically included president, vice-presidents, deans and directors. A list of names (appointed by each President) was provided to a Research Contact. Following receipt of an introductory email to administrators from the President at their college, each participant received a follow-up email (distributed by the Research Contact) from the researcher detailing the study (a sample is attached as Appendix D), explaining the rationale, and inviting interested participants to sign the consent form.

The Research Contact at each institution was provided a Research Contact Checklist, along with instructions on the procedure to collect data anonymously. Each participant signed a consent form and delivered it to the Research Contact, who then assigned each participant a

unique code, starting with their college's distinct alphabetic code. Code lists were maintained by the Research Contact and kept separate from the data submitted electronically to the researcher. The Research Contact provided the unique code to the participant as well as the URL to enable the participant to log onto the survey site electronically. The URL site required each individual's unique code to enable access to complete the survey. The Research Contact recorded each participant's name and their unique code for distribution of individual culture type profiles once the study was completed, as agreed to by the researcher.

The electronic survey tool was made up of the OCAI survey (Part 1), and the MSAI survey (Part 2), plus four specific questions designed to capture additional information about the participant including gender, number of years of experience in college settings, number of years at their current institution, and number of years in their current job. A copy of the electronic survey is attached as Appendix A and B.

The OCAI, as an assessment tool completed by employees, is designed to review different attributes and dimensions of organizational culture. Respondents were advised that the purpose of the survey instrument is to assess six key content dimensions of organizational culture and that there are no right or wrong answers. Each of the six content dimensions has four questions and is represented through two columns marked *current* and *preferred*. For the current column, respondents are asked to divide 100 points among four alternatives, depending on the extent to which each alternative is similar to their organization and by giving the higher number of points to the alternative that is most similar to their organization. For the preferred column, they are asked to follow the same directions based on what the respondents think is most important for their organization in the future.

The MSAI is designed to assess the skills of managers so they can be clustered into 12

management competencies within the CVF. To complete the MSAI, respondents were asked to

answer ninety-three questions using a five point rating scale of: 1 – strongly disagree, 2 –

moderately disagree, 3 – slightly agree and/or slightly disagree, 4 – moderately agree, or 5 –

strongly agree. Respondents were asked to describe their behaviour as a manager and to respond

to the items as they actually behave most of the time, not as they might like to behave. In

addition, respondents were asked to rate their own effectiveness on the 12 managerial as: 1 –

poor, 2 – marginal, 3 – average, 4 – very good, or 5 – outstanding.   This was followed by a

request to rate the importance of the same 12 managerial competencies that the respondent felt

was required to succeed in their current position as: 1 – of little importance, 2 – of some

importance, 3 – moderately important, 4 – very important, or 5 – critically important.

Overall, collection of the data went as planned and conformed to the process outlined in

the protocol submitted for this study to the Ethical Review Board at the University of Toronto.

Participants did not report any challenges accessing or completing the survey electronically.

However, the timeline to collect the survey data took approximately 22 weeks in total, which was

about 10 weeks longer than originally expected. One institution was able to complete the survey

during four weeks over the summer of 2010. Two institutions were unable to complete the survey

over the summer and early fall as the institutions felt administrators needed to focus on the start

up of a new academic year. Data collection began in September 2010 for these two colleges.

Data were successfully collected from participants at these two institutions over a six-week period

after the rush of fall start up was over. The fourth institution began data collection in late October

and the minimum sample size was achieved in January 2011.

In order to achieve the appropriate sample size, it was necessary at two colleges to request

the Research Contact to send out two reminders to potential respondents to complete the survey

as soon as possible. Research Contacts at two colleges shared informal feedback that a couple of administrators indicated it was motivating for them that the researcher had committed, in advance, to provide each participant with their own culture assessment profile and management skills competency profile, as well as provide an average profile of their institution for comparison purposes once the analysis was finished. The researcher also promoted participation by offering to conduct a workshop with participants to discuss the institution's cumulative results after the research data were collected and analyzed. Both participation rates and the informal feedback suggest a keen interest in organizational culture and effectiveness by the participants. Involvement and encouragement of participants by the college presidents may also be recognized as a commitment to effectiveness, and may have influenced the acquisition of the required number of participants at each institution.

The size of the population invited to participate in the survey was made up of College A (27 respondents) + College B (30 respondents) + College C (13 respondents) + College D (11 respondents) for a total sample of eighty-one potential participants. A total of 44 respondents completed the survey, representing a total completion rate of 54.3%. This included 11 from College A (40.7% completion rate), 13 from College B (43.3% completion rate), 10 from College C (76.9% completion rate), and 10 from College D (90.9% completion rate).

The original design of the study set a desired rate of 75% return with an absolute minimum of 10 participants from each institution. The minimum target was set considering the current organizational structure of college administration in Ontario and recent studies that used a similar sample size. Although the minimum response of 10 responses per institution was achieved, the overall response rate of 54% was lower than the desired 75% response rate in the original planning of the study. It is, however, consistent with the 55% response rate obtained by

Cameron and Freeman (1991) in a study of senior staff at 334 American four-year colleges and universities and the 49% response rate obtained by Smart and St. John (1996) in a study of presidents, administrators and trustees. While the overall response rate was 54%, the rate varied by college, ranging from a high of 90.9% to a low of 40.7%. Given the number of survey responses reached the minimum expected at each college, and the response rate was consistent with the data from other studies, the sample obtained in this study is acceptable for the purposes of the research.

<div align="center">**Data Analysis**</div>

This study employed quantitative methods to conduct a descriptive study. The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) sorted and analyzed the data collected for this study. Data were analyzed collectively for all colleges and for each of the four individual colleges from the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) and Management Skills Assessment Instrument (MSAI).

OCAI

Instructions for plotting an OCAI profile provided for an average "Now" (referred to as current in this study) and "Preferred" score for each alternative (A, B, C and D) on the organizational culture profile, which has the four quadrants of culture: Clan, Adhocracy, Market and Hierarchy; and two opposite dimensions: internal focus and integration versus external focus and differentiation; and flexibility and discretion versus stability and control.

An average numerical calculation is created from the questions geared to each of the four quadrants for each participant in the study. These average numerical calculations are used to establish points to form a four-sided figure that Cameron and Quinn describe as a "kite-like" shape as depicted in Figure 5. This creates a visual plot of organizational culture showing the

relative strength of each of the four culture quadrants (i.e., Clan, Adhocracy, Market and Hierarchy).
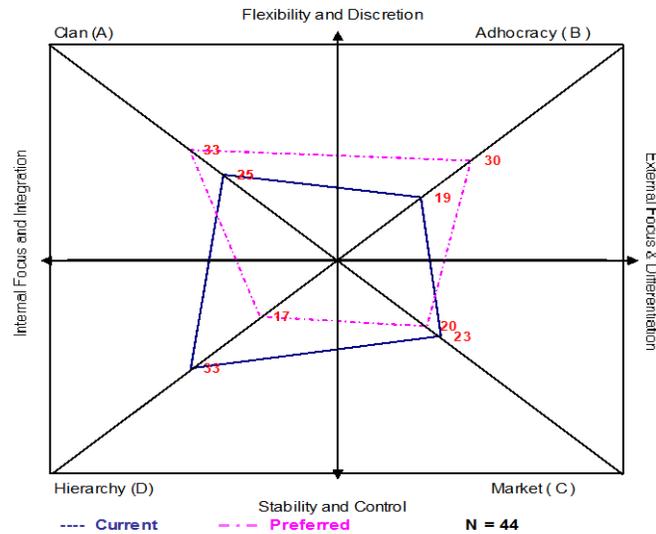
Figure 5. Sample Organizational Culture Profile

For the purpose of this study, the current and preferred profiles provide a graphic representation of what key college administrators currently think about their culture, compared to what they would prefer the culture to be. These profiles were analyzed to identify the similarities and differences of the subject college's profile with the average OCAI profile for public administration employees as described by Cameron and Quinn. The profiles were also analyzed to compare the similarities and differences in the college's current and preferred response data for each college, within the four quadrants of Clan, Adhocracy, Market and Hierarchy.

In summary, the data analysis software package was used to compare the results from colleges in the study as follows:

Type of Culture

1. Organizational Culture Profile – based on current responses;

2. Organizational Culture Profile – based on preferred responses;

Strength of Culture

3. The strength of culture is determined by the number of points awarded to a specific culture type;

Discrepancies between Cultures

4. Comparison of current and preferred profiles;

Congruence of Cultures

5. To explore whether or not various aspects in an organization are aligned, the OCAI allows for an assessment of six aspects of an organization, including:

   i. Organizational characteristics – The dominant characteristics of the organization, or what the overall organization is like;

   ii. Organizational leader – The leadership style and approach that permeate the organization;

   iii. Management of employees – The management of employees or the style that characterizes how employees are treated and what the working environment is like;

   iv. Organizational glue – The organizational glue or bonding mechanisms that hold the organization together;

   v. Strategic emphases – The strategic emphases that define what areas of emphasis drive the organization's strategy; and,

   vi. Criteria of success – The criteria of success that determine how victory is defined and what gets rewarded and celebrated.

   An aligned organization would tend to emphasize the same set of cultural values and each of the individual profiles would look similar. Cameron and Quinn (2006) suggest

congruent cultures, although not a prerequisite for success, are more typical of high-

performing organizations than incongruent cultures (p. 73).

Comparison with Other Culture Profiles

6. Comparison of the current culture profile for the combined colleges to the average profile

    of Public Administration group as presented by Cameron and Quinn (2006, p. 78);

7. Comparison of the current culture profile for each of the four individual colleges to the

    average profile of Public Administration group as presented by Cameron and Quinn

    (2006, p. 78).

OCAI Validity and Reliability

As detailed earlier in this chapter, instrument validity and reliability for the OCAI has

been established through numerous other studies (Zammuto & Krakower, 1991; Quinn &

Spreitzer, 1991; Collett & Mora, 1996; Cameron & Freeman, 1991; Berrio, 2003). More recently

Yu and Wu (2009, p. 40) reported on a large number of empirical studies that have established the

reliability and validity of the CVF and OCAI citing Howard (1998), Lamond (2003), Denison and

Mishra (1995) and Ralston, et al. (2006).

Cronbach's Alpha was used to assess the inter-correlations of test items to determine

reliability through internal consistency of test scores. Table 6 illustrates that values in this

research study are in agreement with a study conducted by Zammuto and Krakower (1991) to

investigate culture completed by 1300 respondents from higher education institutions. Although

the sample size of forty-four, or 54.3% of the potential population, included in this study, is not

considered large, both the current culture and preferred culture alpha coefficients are greater than

0.70, which is deemed to indicate internal consistency or reliability (Vierra, Pollock & Golez,

1998).

Table 6

Coefficients of Internal Consistency Using Cronbach's Alpha Methodology

Culture Type	Reliability Coefficients for Current	Reliability Coefficients for Preferred	Comparison Reliability Coefficients*
	Combined Colleges	Combined Colleges	Cameron & Quinn, 2006
Clan	0.84	0.85	0.82
Adhocracy	0.86	0.74	0.83
Market	0.88	0.89	0.67
Hierarchy	0.87	0.85	0.78

* Reliability coefficients from Zammuto and Krakower (1991), cited in Cameron & Quinn (2006)

MSAI

A second component of the data analysis was to analyze the individual college and combined college responses using the SPSS software to create profiles for the MSAI. The first sixty questions on the survey query the respondents' own management behaviour based on the five-point scale from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree.' Instructions for plotting an MSAI profile provided for an average numerical score for each of the 60 questions grouped into 12 competency clusters. Three of these average score groups are plotted into each of the four quadrants of competencies: Clan, Adhocracy, Market and Hierarchy. The plot is flanked by two opposite dimensions, namely, internal versus external and flexibility versus control. These average numerical calculations are used to establish points to form a four-sided figure as depicted in Figure 6. This creates a visual plot of organizational culture showing the relative strength of each of the four culture quadrants (i.e., Clan, Adhocracy, Market and Hierarchy, and 12 management competencies).

An additional 12 managerial effectiveness questions query the respondents' own effectiveness in performing management skills based on a five-point scale, from 'poor' to 'outstanding.' Finally, 12 more questions query importance of the 12 competency skills based on a five-point scale from 'of little importance' to 'critically important.' Average effectiveness and importance responses for the 12 competencies were analyzed using SPSS software to compare the results by combined colleges and each individual college.

This analysis provided the framework for a discussion about the combined and each of the four college management skills profiles of college administrators from Ontario colleges with an above average student satisfaction KPI score, and affords a comparison of the similarities and differences as contrasted with the OCAI data and profiles.

MSAI Correlation to the CVF

Like the OCAI, the MSAI has been widely used by public and private sector organizations and is considered an important supplement to the OCAI for managing change and leadership behaviour. Collett and Mora (1996) analyzed the psychometric properties of the MSAI through a statistical technique called a Within-Person Deviation Score or D-Score (Cameron & Quinn, 2006, p. 163).

Management Skills Profile
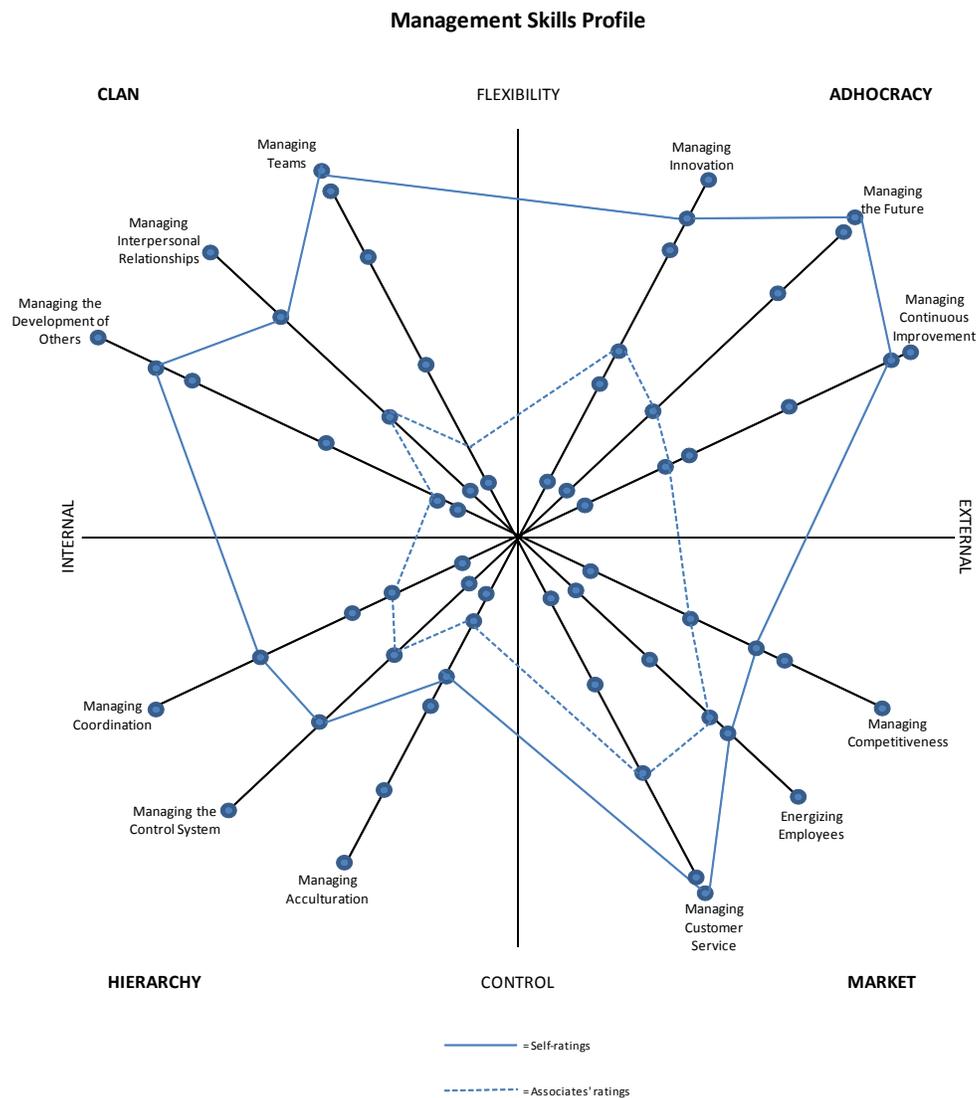
Figure 6. Critical Management Competencies. Source: From K.S. Cameron & R. Quinn (2006), *Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture: Based on the Competing Values Framework.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, p. 129.

This method was used to determine potential inter-quadrant factors to answer the following questions: are Adhocracy quadrant skills negatively correlated with Hierarchy quadrant skills, as predicted by the framework; are Clan and Market quadrants negatively correlated; are the competency dimensions within each quadrant positively correlated; and do intra-dimension

item correlations show adequate reliability? Results show, consistent with the Competing Values Framework, the correlation between the Clan and Market quadrants is -.43, and the correlation between Adhocracy and Hierarchy quadrants is -.68. The correlations between adjacent quadrants are negative, but the coefficients are much smaller than between diagonal quadrants (Adhocracy to Market, -.10; Market to Hierarchy, -.18; Clan to Hierarchy, -.34; Clan to Adhocracy, -.23) (p. 167). This could be interpreted to mean that inter-quadrant relationships within cultures within colleges will be subject to cultural values and, further, organizational culture will be affected by adherences by groups aligned to these quadrants. Cameron and Quinn (2006), suggest there is strong support for using the MSAI as an instrument that can assist the culture change process due to the utility of mapping relations among quadrants (p. 170).

Limitations of the Study

The following is intended to introduce the limitations of this study. A more comprehensive discussion on limitations occurs in Chapter 5.

1. The findings from this study should not be generalized to colleges outside of the Ontario college system since the study involved four colleges who were selected based on their performance on Ontario government mandated Student Satisfaction KPIs.

2. The applicability of the findings to other jurisdictions, if any, will require additional research to determine if any of the findings or recommendations is relevant to their particular situation.

3. Data for this study involved four colleges with a numerical score above the system average for Student Satisfaction KPIs and there is a possibility of different results being obtained if all of the colleges with a numerical score above the system average for Student Satisfaction KPIs had participated in the study.

4. This study does not constitute a comprehensive assessment of organizational culture by all stakeholders at any of the colleges participating in the study. The sample is limited to the perceptions of senior college administrators and does not reflect the views of students, faculty or support staff.

5. The study does not address the overall performance of the colleges participating in the study and is limited to only one, albeit important, performance measure, student satisfaction with the learning experience.

Ethical Considerations

Approval was granted by Dr. Kim S. Cameron and Dr. Robert E. Quinn to use the OCAI and MSAI for the purpose of this research study (Appendix E). Review and compliance with the University Research Ethics Board, University of Toronto was completed and approved (Appendix F). No possible risks were identified for participants or community members. Participants were informed about the nature of the study and their participation, including the assurance that they could withdraw at any time or not answer any questions they were not comfortable responding to. At no time were participants judged or evaluated. No value judgements were placed on individual responses and all information was retained in a secure location and kept confidential, ensuring anonymity of participants. Fair treatment, confidentiality, privacy, and informed consent are accepted rights of study participants (Fain, 1999; Polit & Hungler, 1999).

Summary

In summary, this study considered the organizational culture and management competencies of four Ontario colleges with a numerical score above the system average for Student Satisfaction KPI during the period from 2004/05-2008/09. It is concerned with documenting the perceptions of college administrators about their own current and preferred

organizational culture. This study also captures a self-assessment by administrators of their own management skills.

SPSS software was used to analyze the data collected. An organizational culture profile was created and the OCAI data were analyzed to examine dominant culture type, strength of culture, congruence of culture, and discrepancy between the current and preferred culture. In turn, this understanding of the organizational culture was used to look at similarities and differences found within each of the four colleges in the study and the combined college results from all participants. Similarities and differences of the subject college's profile were also compared with the average OCAI profile for public administration employees as described by Cameron and Quinn (p. 78). SPSS software was also used to analyze the data collected to create a management skills profile, a self-assessment of management effectiveness for 12 competencies associated with culture change, and an assessment of the importance of these same 12 competencies for each of the four colleges in the study and the combined college results. Cronbach's Alpha was used to demonstrate the values in this research study are in agreement with other similar studies. Similarly, strong support from other studies was found in favour of using the MSAI as an instrument to assist the culture change process.

The methodology of this study was designed to achieve the primary purpose to describe the organizational culture type and management competency type and consider commonalities of four Ontario colleges. It is the hope that this study will facilitate increased awareness of organizational culture as a means to respond to trends forcing change in higher education, increase effectiveness and performance measurement, and manage change. The examination of culture and management competencies is designed in order to validate and generate knowledge, which may be of importance and some assistance to college stakeholders and higher education.

Chapter 4: Presentation and Analysis of the Results

Presentation and Analysis of Data

The main purpose of this study is to examine the perceptions held by participating college administrators about their institution's current and preferred organizational culture and their own management competencies. A descriptive research method was employed based on the theory of the Competing Values Framework (CVF) (Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983). Participants completed a modified version of Cameron and Quinn's (2006) Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) and Management Skills Assessment Instrument (MSAI) which directed respondents to react to both current and preferred culture types. Data gathered include responses reflecting the perceptions of 44 college administrators at four Ontario colleges.

Chapter 4 presents the reader with the results of the data analysis organized to describe the OCAI and MSAI profile for all four colleges in the study combined (referred to as combined colleges). In addition, data are used to describe the OCAI and MSAI for the individual four colleges separately (referred to as each college).

A summary of findings is provided as a background for Chapter 5, where the results are discussed in the context of the literature review in order to draw overall conclusions, recommendations and implications within the parameters of this study.

For the benefit of the reader, the research questions posed by this study are:

Part 1: Organizational Culture Assessment

Primary Research Questions

1.1   What are the current and preferred organizational culture type profiles of the combined
         four colleges in the study with a numerical score above the system average for Student
         Satisfaction KPI?

1.2   What are the current and preferred organizational culture type profiles of each college in the study with a numerical score above the system average for Student Satisfaction KPI?

Secondary Research Questions

1.3   To what degree do the "now", herein referred to as "current", responses on the OCAI, made by all college administrators at the combined Ontario colleges surveyed, correspond to their combined "preferred" responses?

1.4   To what degree do the "now", herein referred to as "current", responses on the OCAI, made by college administrators at each of the four Ontario colleges surveyed, correspond to their "preferred" responses?

1.5   What are the current and preferred highest cultural content dimensions of the combined colleges in the study?

1.6   What are the current and preferred highest cultural content dimensions of each college in the study?

1.7   To what degree do the responses on the OCAI by college administrators at the combined Ontario colleges correspond with the average OCAI culture profile described by Cameron and Quinn (2006) for public administration employees (p. 78)?

1.8   To what degree do the responses on the OCAI, by college administrators at each of the four Ontario colleges correspond with the average OCAI culture profile described by Cameron and Quinn (2006) for public administration employees (p. 78)?

1.9   Do the perceived current and preferred organizational culture profiles differ between male and female administrators and, if so, how?

1.10   Do the perceived current and preferred organizational culture profiles differ according to administrators' years of experience in their current position and, if so, how?

<u>Part 2 – Management Skills Assessment</u>

Primary Research Questions

2.1   What is the management skills profile of college administrators at the combined four

Ontario colleges surveyed with a numerical score above the system average for Student

Satisfaction KPI?

2.2   What is the management skills profile of college administrators at each of the Ontario

colleges surveyed with a numerical score above the system average for Student

Satisfaction KPI?

<div align="center">

Research Findings

</div>

The following results are based on the responses to the survey instruments which included

the OCAI, MSAI and additional demographic questions. Part 1 addresses the findings using

responses to the OCAI and demographic questions regarding the gender and current job

experience of respondents. Part 2 addresses the findings derived from responses to the MSAI.

Results are reported in a form that follows the order of the research questions as listed in this

thesis. A summary of the results can be found in Appendix G.

Research Findings – Part 1

Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI). For the benefit of the reader,

the following is repeated from Chapter 2 to provide a contextual perspective prior to reviewing

the survey data collected for this study.

According to Cameron and Quinn (2006) the Competing Values Framework provides a

theoretical rationale for the OCAI and the MSAI. Developed over the past 35 years, the

Competing Values Framework focuses on a theory of how stable or flexible the organization is

and how externally or internally focused it is. Figure 7 provides an illustration of the profile

framework used for the OCAI.

The Clan Culture

An organization that focuses on internal maintenance with flexibility, concern for people, and sensitivity to customers.

The Adhocracy Culture

An organization that focuses on external positioning with a high degree of flexibility and individuality.

Flexibility and Discretion

CLAN (A)   ADHOCRACY (B)

50
40
30
20
10

Internal Focus and Integration

External Focus and Differentiation

10
20
30
40
50

HIERARCHY (D)   MARKET (C)

Stability and Control

The Hierarchy Culture

An organization that focuses on internal maintenance with a need for stability and control.

The Market Culture

An organization that focuses on external positioning with a need for stability and control.

Figure 7. Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument. *Source:* Cameron & Quinn (2006), *Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture: Based on the Competing Values Framework.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, p. 67.

The OCAI, an assessment tool completed by employees, is designed to review different

attributes and dimensions of organizational culture. Cameron and Quinn describe the tool to be

practical, timely, both qualitative and quantitative, manageable, and valid (p. 20). OCAI

produces two independent ratings of the respondents' organizational culture: one that describes

the "now" state as it exists, which is referred to as "current" in this study, and one that describes

how the respondent would wish the organization's culture to be in five years, which is referred to

as "preferred." Values relating to leadership, effectiveness and organizational theory are assessed by the OCAI. The following defines the four culture types that are identified in the OCAI.

An internally focused, flexible organization is described to have a Clan type culture. In comparison, an internally focused, stable organization is a Hierarchy. An externally focused, flexible organization is described as an Adhocracy, and an externally focused, stable organization is thought of as Market type culture. This framework enables organizations to engage in dialogue and interpret elements of their organizational culture to assess its current state, determine how they would like their organization to be in the future, and consider management competencies and strategies to improve performance and enact change.

The Clan culture is described to have a collaborative orientation with value drivers that include commitment, communication and development. Human development and participation are used to produce effectiveness. Leaders in a Clan culture typically are said to be facilitators, mentors and team builders. In general terms, the Clan culture is depicted as an organization that focuses on internal maintenance with flexibility, concern for people, and sensitivity to customers.

The Adhocracy culture is described to have a creative orientation with value drivers that include innovative outputs, transformation and agility. Innovation, vision and new resources are used to produce effectiveness. Leaders in an Adhocracy culture are said to be innovators, entrepreneurial and visionary. In general terms, the Adhocracy culture is depicted as an organization that focuses on external positioning with a high degree of flexibility and individuality.

The Market culture is described to have a competing orientation with value drivers that include market share, goal achievement and profitability. Aggressive competition and customer

focus are used to produce effectiveness. Leaders in a Market culture are said to be hard drivers, competitors and producers. In general terms, a Market culture is depicted as an organization that focuses on external positioning with a need for stability and control.

The Hierarchy culture is described to have a controlling orientation with value drivers that include efficiency, timeliness, consistency and uniformity. Control and efficiency are used to produce effectiveness, through capable processes. Leaders in a Hierarchy culture typically coordinate, monitor and organize. In general terms, a Hierarchy culture is depicted as an organization that focuses on internal maintenance with a need for stability and control (Cameron and Quinn, 2006). Figure 8 (repeated from page 20) summarizes the culture type characteristics.
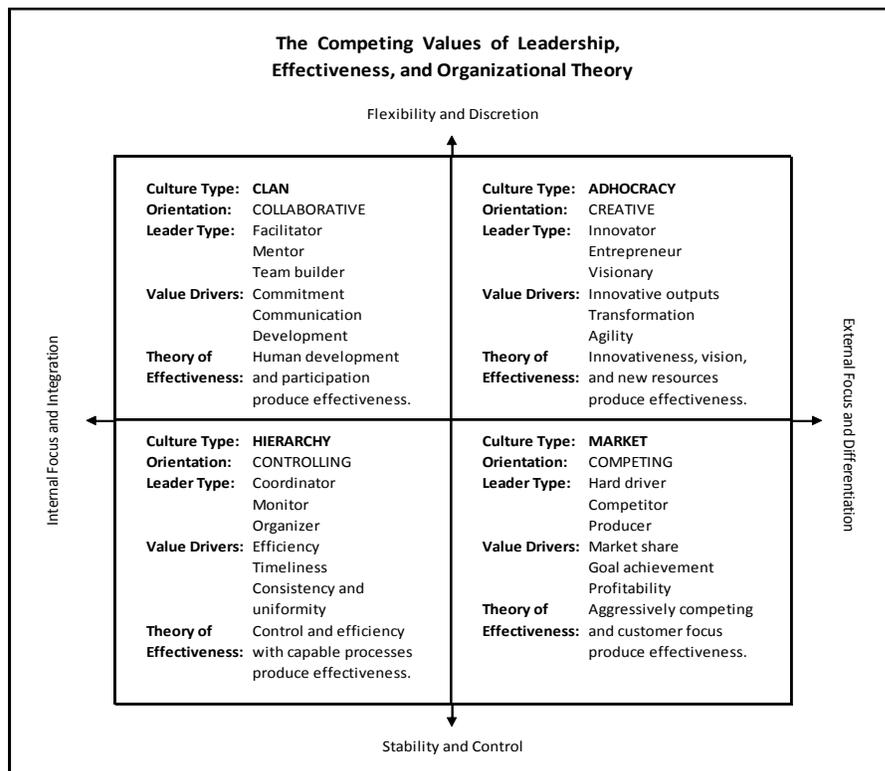

Figure 8. Competing Values of Leadership, Effectiveness, and Organizational Theory. *Source:* Cameron & Quinn (2006), *Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture: Based on the Competing Values Framework.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, p. 46.

According to Cameron and Quinn (2006), at least five comparisons are possible when interpreting culture profiles: (1) the type of culture that dominates an organization, (2) the strength of the culture that dominates an organization, (3) discrepancies between the current and preferred culture, (4) the congruence of the culture profiles generated on different attributes and by different individuals in an organization, (5) a comparison of an organization's profile with the average culture profile of other similar organizations.

Cameron and Quinn (2006) operationalized the five comparisons used to discuss organizational culture profiles in the following way:

1. The dominant culture type: defined by the quadrant with the highest mean score and representing the culture that tends to be most emphasized within the organization;

2. Strength of the culture that dominates an organization (to be referred to as uniquely strong): Cameron & Quinn suggest a quadrant with a mean 10 points or higher than those of other quadrants defines a uniquely strong culture;

3. Prevalence of the two CVF main culture dimensions: achieved by (1) a comparison of the higher indication of flexibility and discretion (determined by adding the scores from Clan and Adhocracy) over stability and control (determined by adding the scores from Hierarchy and Market) and, (2) comparison of the higher indication of internal focus and integration (determined by adding the scores from Clan and Hierarchy) over external focus and differentiation (determined by adding the scores from Adhocracy and Market);

4. Discrepancies between the described current and preferred culture of 10 points or more; and,

5. Congruence of the culture profiles generated regarding six cultural content dimensions

(i.e., strategy, leadership style, reward system, approach to managing employees, dominant characteristics, and organizational glue), as perceived by different individuals in an organization.

As previously mentioned, average score calculations for subject colleges, combined colleges, males, females, less than three years of experience, between three and five years' experience, and between six and 20 years' experience are available in Appendix G. The following discusses these findings by each category as previously listed.

Culture type and strength and dimension prevalence.

Part 1 – Primary Research Questions

1.1 What are the current and preferred organizational culture type profiles of the combined four colleges in the study with a numerical score above the system average for Student Satisfaction KPI?

1.2 What are the current and preferred organizational culture type profiles of each college in the study with a numerical score above the system average for Student Satisfaction KPI?

This section describes the current and preferred organizational culture profiles for the combined four colleges and for each college. Figures 9, 10, 11, 12, and 13 represent the average current and preferred culture types reported by administrators for the combined four colleges and each college in the study. A summary of the data is listed beside each of the profiles.

The type of culture that dominates an organization, the strength of that culture and the dimension prevalence of culture constitute three of the comparisons available when interpreting culture. In this section, interpretations of culture type are based on these three factors.

First, the dominant culture type is determined by the quadrant with the highest mean score and points to the basic assumptions, styles and values that tend to be shared most in an

organization (Cameron and Quinn, 2006, p. 71). Cameron and Quinn affirm the relevance for organizations to know their culture type and the need for culture type compatibility with the demands of the environment. For the most part, the dominant culture type provides an excellent "high level" descriptor of the organization's overall cultural outlook. However, as will be seen in the following results, there is often more than one quadrant with similar scores, which reinforces the 'competing value' proposition of the OCAI tool based on the Competing Values Framework. In this study, when one quadrant is 1 point less than the dominant quadrant, that quadrant will be described as having a 'considerable' value proposition.

The second comparison available, strength of culture, is determined by the absolute value awarded to a specific culture type on a scale of 0-100. Cameron and Quinn further suggest that differences in the strength of quadrants are considered meaningful if the difference between the mean score for each quadrant is greater than 10 points. This is then referred to as a uniquely strong culture type.

Finally, the dimension prevalence of culture is used to describe the culture alignment on the two major dimensions of the OCAI, (i.e., flexibility and discretion versus stability and control, and external focus and differentiation versus internal focus and integration).
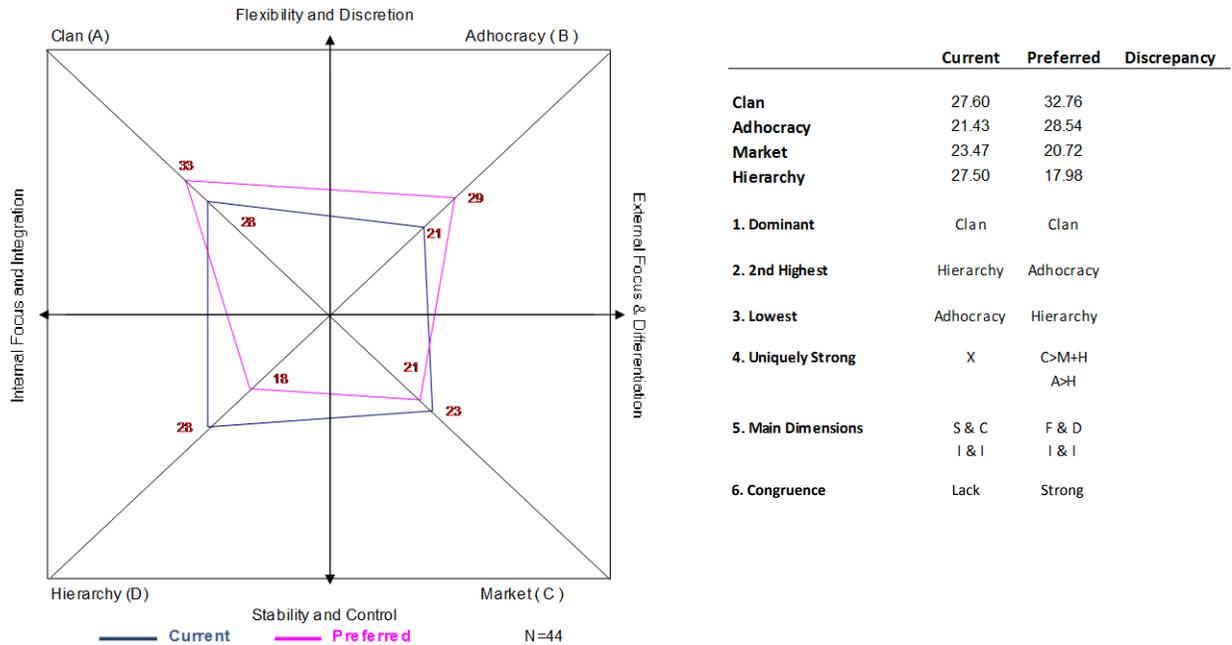
Figure 9. Organizational Profile for Combined Colleges.

Current Culture – Combined Colleges: The dominant culture for the current combined four

colleges in the study was Clan (Mean = 27.60). However, it is important to note the considerable

presence of the second highest current score for Hierarchy (Mean = 27.50), which is .10 different

to that of the Clan score. The lowest current culture quadrant score was found to be Adhocracy

(Mean = 21.43). No uniquely strong current culture was demonstrated. This is due to the almost

equally strong current perceptions of Clan and Hierarchy balanced with the similar mean scores

for Adhocracy (Mean = 21.43) and Market (Mean = 23.47) culture types.

Interpretation of the results is enhanced by considering the responses to each quadrant and

how the score effect alignment on each of the two main dimensions in the plot: internal focus and

integration versus external focus and differentiation profile; and flexibility and discretion versus

stability and control. The current combined four college profile demonstrates prevalence of

stability and control as well as internal focus and integration. The almost equal affinity between

Clan and Hierarchy generates a dynamic tension between flexibility and discretion and stability and control.

The results signal administrators from the four colleges in this study, on average, consider themselves balanced between focus on internal maintenance and flexibility, concern for people, and sensitivity to customers; and, focus on internal maintenance with a need for stability and control. In general terms, the current orientation of values and attributes for the combined four colleges is found to be collaborative with an almost equal controlling culture orientation.

Preferred – Combined Colleges: The dominant preferred culture for the combined four colleges in the study was Clan (Mean = 32.76). The second highest preferred score was Adhocracy (Mean = 28.54). The lowest preferred culture quadrant score was found to be Hierarchy (Mean = 17.98). Uniquely strong preferred culture was found in Clan over Market (Mean = 20.72) and Hierarchy culture types. The preferred Hierarchy (Mean = 17.98) was considerably lower than the current Hierarchy, and the preferred Adhocracy was higher than the current score. This will be discussed in detail in the section entitled Culture Discrepancies later in this chapter. The preferred combined college profile demonstrates prevalence of flexibility and discretion as well as internal focus and integration.

In summary, the results signal that administrators from the combined colleges in this study, on average, consider the current culture as: collaborative with considerable controlling; focused on internal maintenance with a tension between flexibility versus stability and control; and concern for people and sensitivity to customers. In general terms, the preferred future orientation of the combined four colleges was for more collaboration, creativity, focus on internal maintenance with flexibility and external positioning, concern for people, sensitivity to customers and individuality.
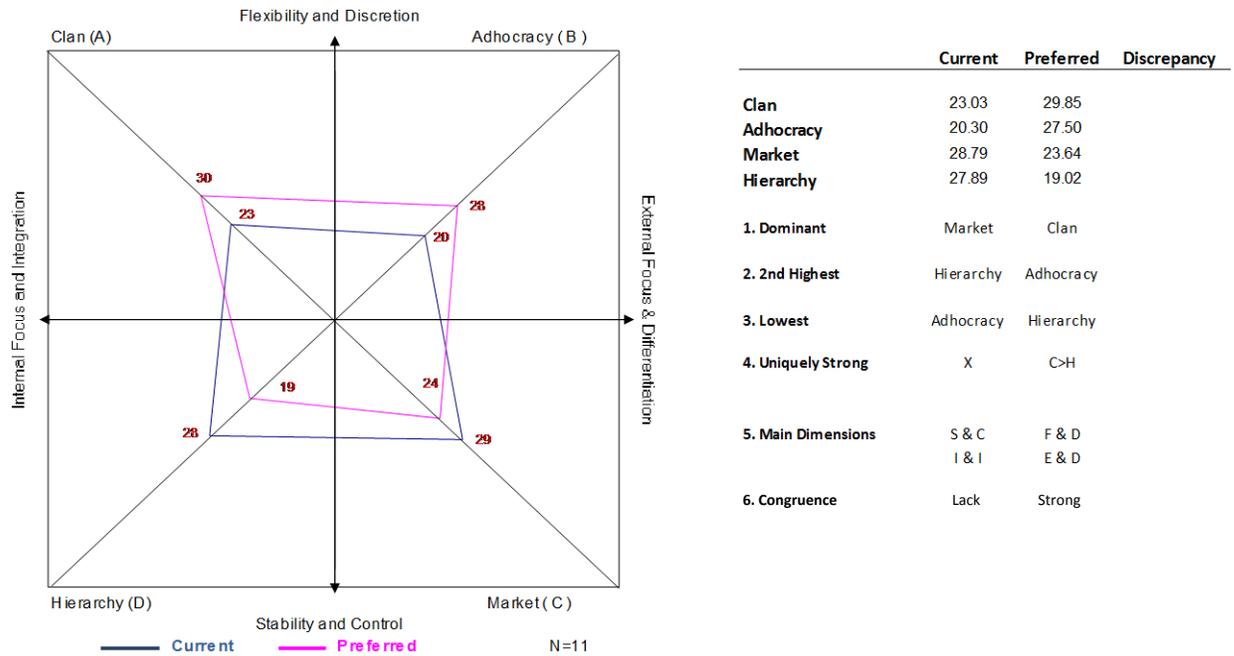
Figure 10. Organizational Profile for College A.

Current Culture – College A: The dominant culture for the current state for College A was Market (Mean = 28.79). However, it is important to note the considerable second highest current score for Hierarchy (Mean = 27.89) which is .90 less than the Market score. The lowest current culture quadrant score was found to be Adhocracy (Mean = 20.30). No strong current culture was demonstrated. The current College A profile demonstrates prevalence of stability and control, as well as internal focus and integration. The almost equal affinity between Market and Hierarchy creates a considerable leaning to stability and control.

The current state results signal administrators from College A consider their organization to be focused on external positioning with a need for stability and control, and focused on maintenance and flexibility with a similar need for stability and control. In general terms, the current orientation of College A is competitive with an almost equal controlling orientation.

Preferred Culture – College A: The dominant culture preferred by College A was Clan (Mean =

29.85). The second highest preferred score was Adhocracy (Mean = 27.50). The lowest

preferred culture quadrant score was found to be Hierarchy (Mean = 19.02).   Uniquely strong

preferred culture was found for Clan over Hierarchy culture types. The preferred College A

profile demonstrates prevalence of flexibility and discretion as well as external focus and

differentiation.

In contrast to the perceived current state, the preferred state findings suggest

administrators from College A, on average, primarily desire a culture that focuses on internal

maintenance and flexibility, concern for people, and sensitivity to customers; with a secondary

focus on external positioning with a high degree of flexibility and individuality. In general terms,

the preferred culture orientation of College A is collaborative, with a desire to have a more

creative orientation.

|	Current	Preferred	Discrepancy
Clan	32.04	33.96	
Adhocracy	26.55	29.28	
Market	21.46	19.47	
Hierarchy	19.95	17.28	
1. Dominant	Clan	Clan	
2. 2nd Highest	Adhocracy	Adhocracy	
3. Lowest	Hierarchy	Hierarchy	
4. Uniquely Strong	C> M+H	C>M+H	
		A>H	
5. Main Dimensions	F & D	F & D	
	I & I	I & I	
6. Congruence	Total	Strong	
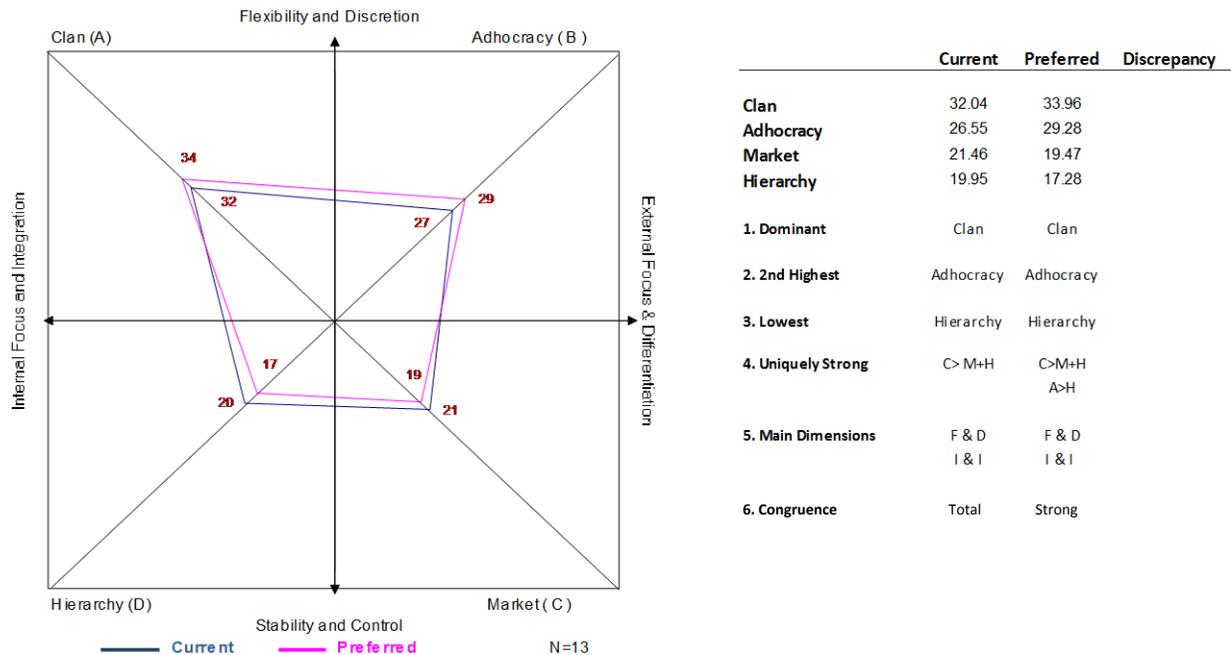
Figure 11. Organizational Profile for College B.

Current Culture – College B: The dominant culture for the current state of College B was Clan (Mean = 32.04).   The second highest current score was Adhocracy (Mean = 26.55). The lowest current culture quadrant score was found to be Hierarchy (Mean = 19.95). Uniquely strong current culture was found for Clan over Market (Mean = 21.46) and Hierarchy. The current College B profile demonstrates the prevalence of flexibility and discretion as well as internal focus and integration.

Preferred Culture – College B: The dominant culture preferred by College B was Clan (Mean = 33.96). The second highest preferred score was Adhocracy (Mean = 29.28). The lowest preferred culture quadrant score was found to be Hierarchy (Mean = 17.28).   Uniquely strong preferred culture was found for Clan over Market and Hierarchy culture types and Adhocracy over Hierarchy. The College B preferred profile demonstrates a desire for prevalence of flexibility and discretion as well as internal focus and integration.

Both the current and preferred state results signal that administrators from College B, on average, consider themselves primarily to have a focus on internal maintenance and flexibility, concern for people, and sensitivity to customers; with a secondary focus on external positioning with a high degree of flexibility and individuality. In general terms, the current and preferred orientation of College B is collaborative, with a secondary creative orientation. Two small differences were found when comparing the current and preferred profiles. A slight leaning toward flexibility and discretion and a second uniquely strong culture was exhibited in the preference for Adhocracy (Mean = 29.28) over Hierarchy (Mean = 17.28).
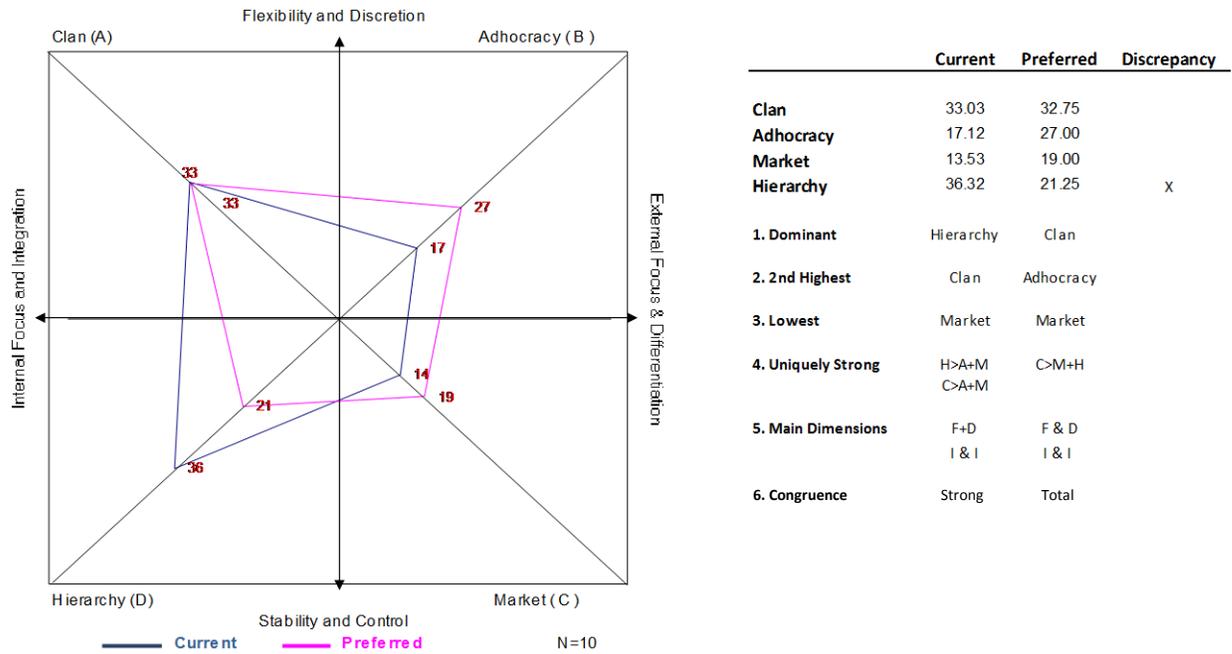
Figure 12. Organizational Profile for College C.

Current Culture – College C: The dominant culture for the current state for College C was definitively Hierarchy (Mean = 36.32). That score represents the highest culture type score for all quadrants and for all four colleges examined in the entire study. The second highest current score was for Clan (Mean = 33.03). The lowest current culture quadrant score was found to be Market (Mean = 13.53). Uniquely strong current culture was found for Hierarchy over Adhocracy (Mean = 17.12) and Market. Uniquely strong current culture was also found for Clan over Adhocracy and Market. The current state College C profile demonstrates the prevalence of flexibility and discretion, as well as internal focus and integration.

Preferred Culture – College C: The dominant culture for the preferred state College C was Clan (Mean = 32.75). The second highest preferred score was Adhocracy (Mean = 27.00). The lowest preferred culture quadrant score was found to be Market (Mean = 19.00). Uniquely strong preferred culture was found for Clan over Market and Hierarchy (Mean = 21.25) culture types.

The College C preferred profile demonstrates a desire for the prevalence of flexibility and discretion, as well as internal focus and integration.

Both the current and preferred results signal administrators from College C consider themselves primarily to have a focus on internal maintenance and flexibility, concern for people, and sensitivity to customers; with a secondary focus on external positioning with a high degree of flexibility and individuality. A quick review of the profiles from Colleges A, B and D, compared with Figure 12, demonstrates clearly that College C respondents consider themselves to be the college with the lowest external focus of all four colleges in the study. In other words, College C respondents say that their college currently regards least the values and attributes of creativity and competition among all four colleges. However, a more balanced plot type is found in the preferred culture type, with an increase toward flexibility and discretion over stability and control. In addition, there is an increase toward an external focus and differentiation, although internal focus and integration still maintain greater prevalence. In general terms, College C prefers a collaborative, creative orientation which is much more similar to their peers in the study.
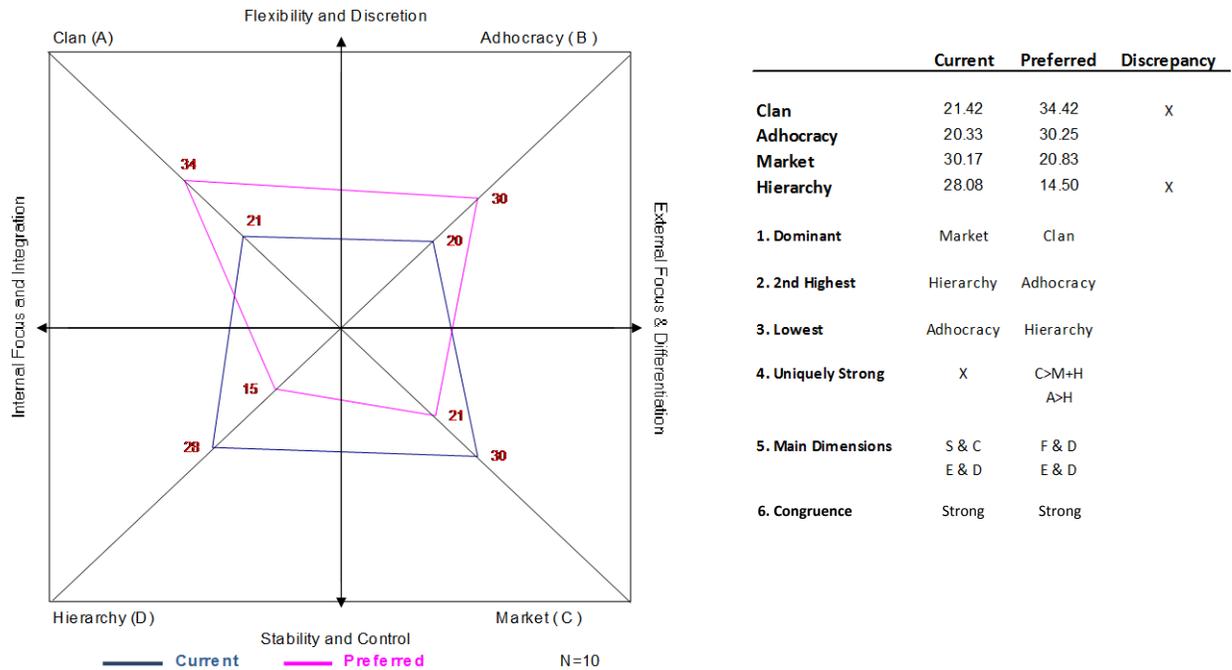
Figure 13. Organizational Profile for College D.

Current Culture – College D: The dominant culture for the current state for College D was Market (Mean = 30.17). The second highest current score was for Hierarchy (Mean 28.08). The lowest current culture quadrant score was found to be Adhocracy (Mean = 20.33). No uniquely strong current culture was demonstrated, although the spread between Adhocracy and Market represents a 9.84 difference. Also, Market and Hierarchy scores are notably higher than Clan (Mean = 21.42) and Adhocracy scores. The current College D profile demonstrates the prevalence of stability and control as well as external focus and discretion.

The results signal administrators from College D in the current state consider their organization to be primarily an organization focused on external positioning with a need for stability and control; and internal maintenance with a need for stability and control. In the current state, orientation of College D is competitive with controlling orientation.

Preferred Culture – College D: The dominant culture for the preferred state College D was Clan (Mean = 34.42). The second highest preferred score was Adhocracy (Mean = 30.25). The lowest preferred culture quadrant score was found to be Hierarchy (Mean = 14.50).   Uniquely strong preferred culture was found for Clan over Market (Mean = 20.83) and Hierarchy culture types, and Adhocracy over Hierarchy. The College D preferred profile demonstrates a desire for the prevalence of flexibility and discretion, as well as external focus and differentiation.

The results signal administrators from College D consider themselves to prefer primarily a focus on internal maintenance and flexibility, concern for people, and sensitivity to customers; with a secondary focus on external positioning with a high degree of flexibility and individuality. In general terms, College D prefers a collaborative, creative orientation.

In summary, considering all five of the profiles constructed from the data collected through this study, it is interesting to note that dominant Clan culture was found currently to exist at only one college, (College B), even though the combined colleges profile reflected a current dominant culture type of Clan. Two other colleges were seen by survey respondents to have Market type culture (Colleges A and D), and one college (College C), was seen by their administrators to have Hierarchy type culture. Therefore, three of the four colleges perceived a different current dominant culture than the combined responses. Conversely, respondents from all four colleges in the study indicated a clear preference for the Clan type culture in the future. This underscores a desired shift by respondents at three of the four colleges and affirms a preference for Clan type culture. That is to say that overall respondents expressed a preference for an organization with collaborative values and focused on internal maintenance with flexibility, concern for people, and sensitivity to customers, even though their current culture did not reflect this at three of the four colleges.

In the current state, the second highest affinity for a culture type reflected in the quadrant scores was found to be: Hierarchy for combined colleges, College A and College D; Adhocracy for College B; and Clan for College C. As a preferred state, the second highest quadrant score was Adhocracy for combined colleges and all four individual colleges, reflecting an overall shift in values towards an increased desire for creativity with more external focus. The lowest quadrant score currently was: Adhocracy for combined colleges, College A and College D; Hierarchy for College B; and Market for College C. As a preferred state preference, the lowest quadrant score was Hierarchy for combined colleges, except for College C, which was Market. It is important to underscore the overwhelming representation of a desire in the future state for the Clan and Adhocracy culture types among all four colleges.

The combined colleges currently demonstrated the prevalence of stability and control along with College A and College D, when College B and College C demonstrated the prevalence of flexibility and discretion. As a preference, all colleges exhibited a predisposition for flexibility and discretion. Also, currently, the combined colleges, along with Colleges A, B, and C all indicated the prevalence of internal focus and integration, with College D being the outlier demonstrating the prevalence of external focus and differentiation. In the preferred state, College A shifted, resulting in combined colleges, College B and College C exhibiting a preference for internal focus and integration, and College A and College D demonstrating a preference for external focus and differentiation.

Uniquely strong culture type, defined as a mean score difference of greater than 10 points between quadrants, was found in two of the colleges when respondents characterized their current culture: namely, College B exhibited a strong Clan culture over Market and Hierarchy; and College C exhibited a uniquely strong Hierarchy culture over Adhocracy and Market, as well as

Clan over Adhocracy and Market. As a preferred state, a uniquely strong culture type was found once in all four of the colleges and twice in two of the colleges as follows: College A – Clan over Hierarchy; College B – Clan over Market and Hierarchy, Adhocracy over Hierarchy; College C – Clan over Market and Hierarchy, Adhocracy over Hierarchy; and College D – Clan over Market and Hierarchy, Adhocracy over Hierarchy. College B and College D had similar uniquely strong preferred cultures.

In defining their current state the highest quadrant score was Hierarchy (Mean = 36.25) found in College C, and the lowest score was Market (Mean = 13.53), a difference of 22.72, also found in College C. These two scores represented the highest and lowest scores in the entire study, suggesting a clear prevalence of the characteristic of the Hierarchy culture and demonstrating a lack of characteristics relevant to Market culture. When articulating preferences, the highest quadrant score was Clan (Mean = 34.42) found in College D and the lowest score was Hierarchy (Mean = 14.50) also found in College D, a difference of 19.92, suggesting a clear preference for the characteristics of the Clan culture and the absence of desire for a Hierarchy culture.

A final observation: when the world is so focused on innovative thinking and research and development, this researcher found it somewhat surprising that the Adhocracy culture type was not identified as the current or preferred dominant culture type by administrators at any college in the study, although it was often a close second as a preferred culture type. Respondents from one college scored Adhocracy as their second highest current culture type. It appears that this study shows that respondents did not perceive their organizations to be currently focused on external positioning with a high degree of flexibility and individuality and did not value creativeness as highly as they value Hierarchy, Clan and Market.

Culture discrepancies.

<u>Secondary Research Questions</u>

1.3   To what degree do the "now", herein referred to as "current", responses on the OCAI,

made by all college administrators at the combined Ontario colleges surveyed, correspond

to their combined "preferred" responses?

1.4   To what degree do the "now", herein referred to as "current", responses on the OCAI,

made by college administrators at each of the four Ontario colleges surveyed, correspond

to their "preferred" responses?

To this point in the analysis of culture type profiles, the type of culture, the strength of

culture, and culture in terms of current or desired prevalence on the two main dimensions of the

CVF have been addressed. This section will describe the degree to which the data expressing

current culture states correspond or do not correspond to the preferred culture state in order to

consider the degree of discrepancy between the two states. Discrepancy information, as described

by Cameron and Quinn (2006), is important for organizations to develop change management

plans: "Ultimately, discrepancy data may be the most powerful of all the data provided by your

culture profile if your agenda is to initiate change" (p. 72). Table 7 provides the average data for

each of the four quadrants and identifies culture type (dominant culture), strength (uniquely

strong), and discrepancy. The following discussion will focus on discrepancy.

One could suggest that assessing discrepancy is as easy as comparing the similarities and

differences of the culture plots. This researcher would agree that a quick glance at Figures 9, 10,

11, 12 and 13 illustrate the combined colleges prefer to move closer to a stronger Clan type

culture from their current Clan culture type; College B demonstrates a strong similarity between

their current and preferred culture; Colleges A and D indicate a desire to move towards more

flexibility and discretion, and College C indicates a desire to move towards a greater external focus and differentiation.

The visual profiles provide a preliminary understanding of organizational culture in the current and preferred states. Further analysis of data illustrated in Table 7, which details the degree of discrepancy between all current and preferred culture quadrants for existing and preferred perceptions, allows for a more in-depth analysis. This allows a greater appreciation of the current and preferred environments, which is critical in change management. Cameron and Quinn (2006) advise to be especially sensitive to differences of more than 10 points (p. 72).

Following the advice of Cameron and Quinn, discrepancies of over 10 points are considered to be meaningful in this study. Other discrepancies are identified, when they are considered noteworthy to the interpretation of the culture profiles and may help institutions identify strategies, as appropriate and relevant to performance and change management.

Table 7

Culture Type by: Dominant Culture, Strength (Uniquely Strong) & Discrepancy

Sample	N	Culture Type	Current State		Discrepancy	Preferred State	
			Mean	Uniquely Strong		Mean	Uniquely Strong
Combined Colleges	44	Clan	**27.60**		5.16	**32.76**	X
		Adhocracy	21.43		7.11	28.54	
		Market	23.47		-2.75	20.72	
		Hierarchy	27.50		-9.52	17.98	
College A	11	Clan	23.03		6.82	**29.85**	X
		Adhocracy	20.30		7.20	27.50	
		Market	**28.79**		-5.15	23.64	
		Hierarchy	27.89		-8.87	19.02	
College B	13	Clan	**32.04**	X	1.92	**33.96**	X
		Adhocracy	26.55		2.73	29.28	X
		Market	21.46		-1.99	19.47	
		Hierarchy	19.95		-2.67	17.28	
College C	10	Clan	33.03	X	-0.28	**32.75**	X
		Adhocracy	17.12		9.88	27.00	
		Market	13.53		5.47	19.00	
		Hierarchy	**36.32**	X	**-15.07**	21.25	
College D	10	Clan	21.42		**13.00**	**34.42**	X
		Adhocracy	20.33		9.92	30.25	X
		Market	**30.17**		-9.34	20.83	
		Hierarchy	28.08		**-13.58**	14.50	

Notes.
1. **Bold Items** – represent dominant culture
2. Uniquely strong culture strength occurs when the difference of > 10 points exists between one type of culture in the profile compared to another type of culture in the same culture profile
3. Discrepancy occurs when the difference of > 10 points exists *between* the current versus preferred culture scores

Combined Four Colleges: There are no meaningful discrepancies equal or greater than 10 points

between the current and preferred culture types in the data for combined colleges. However, the

discrepancy of -9.52 points between the current Hierarchy (Mean = 27.50) and the preferred

Hierarchy type (Mean = 17.98) is the largest difference and clearly indicates respondents' desire

to diminish adherence to the Hierarchy type culture. Further, the discrepancy between the current

Adhocracy (Mean = 21.43) and the preferred Adhocracy (28.54), a difference of 7.11 points,

indicates a distinct preference for increased creativity. Considering the axes of the framework,

the results emphasize a preference for increased flexibility and discretion and decreased stability

and control, as well as a preference for more external focus and differentiation. Finally, the

discrepancy between the current Clan (Mean = 27.60) and the preferred Clan type (Mean =

32.76), a difference of 5.16 points, demonstrates a preference to strengthen adherence to a Clan

type culture.

Responses from the individual four colleges demonstrate discrepancies as follows:

College A: There are no discrepancies over 10 points between the current and preferred culture

types in the data for College A. However, College A demonstrates a desire to move away from

Hierarchy (Mean = 27.89) in the current state to less Hierarchy (Mean = 19.02) by -8.87 points in

the preferred state, representing the greatest aspiration for change reported by respondents from

College A. The smallest change in College A was a desire to move away from Market (Mean =

28.79) by -5.15 points in the preferred state. These desired decreases suggest a want for less

focus on stability and control, and internal focus and integration, and more focus on flexibility

and discretion, and external focus and differentiation.

College B: There are no discrepancies over 10 points between the current and preferred culture

types in the data for College B. Furthermore, College B respondents demonstrate some

satisfaction with their current position, and little desire for change, as all discrepancies are within three points, with a uniquely strong Clan type in both the preferred and current profiles. College B moved from an equal balance between flexibility and discretion versus stability and control to a desire for slightly stronger flexibility and discretion as a preferred state. An internal focus and integration are reflected in both the current and preferred states.

College C: College C exhibits a meaningful discrepancy between the current Hierarchy (Mean = 36.32) culture type to a much less preferred Hierarchy (Mean = 21.25) culture type, a discrepancy of -15.07 points. There is also desire to intensify the current Adhocracy type culture (Mean = 17.12) toward a more preferred Adhocracy type culture (Mean = 27.00), given a discrepancy of 9.88 points. The Clan type culture preference remains dominant in terms of both current (Mean = 33.03) and preferred (Mean = 32.75) responses. College C is also unique from the other college profiles in that their view of Clan is dominant both in the current state and as a preferred state. The meaningful decrease between the current and preferred Hierarchy culture constitutes the largest change between the current and preferred profiles in this study. College C moved from an equal balance between flexibility and discretion versus stability and control, to a desire for slightly stronger flexibility and discretion as a preferred state. An internal focus and integration are reflected for both the current state and as a preferred state.

College D: College D exhibits a discrepancy between the current Hierarchy type culture (Mean = 28.08) and a much less preferred Hierarchy type culture (Mean = 14.50), a -13.58 point discrepancy, clearly again indicating a desire for change. In addition, there is a discrepancy found between respondents' adherence in the current state to the Clan type culture (Mean = 21.42) and their clear preference to move towards a stronger Clan type culture (Mean = 34.42), a 13.00 point difference. Respondents also wish to decrease their adherence to the Market type

culture by -9.34 points, from (Mean = 30.17) to (Mean = 20.83). In addition, respondents wish to enhance their adherence to the Adhocracy type culture by 9.92 points, from (Mean = 20.33) to (Mean = 30.25). College D clearly wants to move from stability and control to flexibility and discretion, maintaining an external focus and differentiation.

In summary, the data demonstrate there are no meaningful discrepancies of 10 points or over between the views administrators have in the current and preferred dominant Clan culture-type for combined colleges, with the most meaningful change reflecting a desire to move towards a Clan and Adhocracy culture type and away from a Hierarchy culture type. Similarly, College A and College B demonstrated no discrepancies of more than 10 points, though the desire for change towards Clan and Adhocracy culture types and away from the Hierarchy culture type are stronger at College A than College B, where respondents indicate a desire for slight change. However, meaningful discrepancies were demonstrated by respondents at College C to diminish adherence to the Hierarchy type culture, and at College D to enhance Clan and diminish Hierarchy type culture. It is also interesting to note that a preference for the Adhocracy culture type was reflected in the greatest increase at three of the four colleges and represented the greatest discrepancy (7.11) found in the combined colleges. Overall, a predilection for the Clan culture or a mixed Clan/Adhocracy culture is consistent in the research completed by Smart and St. John (1996), where the Clan culture was similarly popular with Clan/Adhocracy culture representing high performing academic institutions.

Culture congruence: content dimensions of organizational culture.

Secondary Research Questions, Continued

1.5   What are the current and preferred highest cultural content dimensions of the combined colleges in the study?

1.6   What are the current and preferred highest cultural content dimensions of each college in

the study?

The fifth comparison of culture type used in this study is to consider the degree colleges

are aligned on various culture values. In the following section, Cameron and Quinn's (2006) six

cultural content dimensions are assessed. These cultural content dimensions describe aspects of

the organization that reflect key values and assumptions in the organization and give individuals

an opportunity to respond, using an underlying archetypal framework. Congruence of culture is

determined by considering the extent to which various cultural content dimensions in an

organization are aligned. The six cultural content dimensions are:

1) Dominant Characteristics: the characteristics of the organization or what the overall

organization is like;

2) Organizational Leader: the leadership style and approach that permeates the

organization;

3) Management of Employees: the style that characterizes how employees are treated and

what the working environment is like;

4) Organizational Glue: bonding mechanisms that hold the organization together;

5) Strategic Emphases: that define what areas of emphasis drive the organization's

strategy; and

6) Criteria of Success: that determine how victory is defined and what gets rewarded and

celebrated (p. 73).

A congruent organization is an organization that tends to emphasize the same set of

cultural values in each of the cultural content dimensions, and where each of the profiles

completed by an individual looks similar. "Congruent cultures, although not a prerequisite for

success, are more typical of high-performing organizations than incongruent cultures" (Cameron and Quinn, p. 73).

It is important to link the six cultural content dimensions to the four culture types. There are specific questions in the survey whereby the responses align cultural content dimensions to culture type. For example, in terms of Organizational Leadership, the Clan culture question values leaders as mentors, the Adhocracy culture values leaders as entrepreneurs, the Market culture values leaders as results-oriented, and the Hierarchy culture values leaders who exemplify efficiency. Similarly, in terms of Organizational Glue, the Clan culture values loyalty and trust, while the Adhocracy culture values commitment to innovation, the Market culture values emphasis on achievement, and the Hierarchy culture values formal rules and policies.

For the purpose of this study, total congruence of culture is deemed to exist if all six content dimensions are aligned by dominant culture type, and strong congruence is deemed to exist if four or more of the six content dimensions are aligned by dominant culture type. All other assessments are deemed to demonstrate a lack of congruence.

To assess the degree of congruence, the highest mean scores for each of the content dimensions (dominant culture) was analyzed linking the cultural content dimensions and culture types. Tables 8, 9, 10, 11 and 12 document the combined college and each college culture content dimensions by culture type responses. Average Profiles for each of the six dimensions on the OCAI are provided in Appendix H.

Table 8 documents the highest mean score for colleges combined for the dominant cultural content dimensions in both current and preferred states. The highest mean score in the current state, all colleges combined, was Organizational Glue (Mean = 32.77). The lowest score recorded was Strategic Emphases (Mean = 27.57). In the preferred state for all colleges

combined, the highest mean score was for Management of Employees (Mean = 37.73) with the lowest score for Organizational Leadership (Mean = 30.23).

In the current state, three dimensional profiles link to the Hierarchy type culture, and three to the Clan type culture, indicating a lack of congruence. As a preferred state, a strong congruence was demonstrated as respondents clearly indicated a preference overall for a move to a Clan type culture in terms of the cultural dimensions and values, with the exception of Dominant Characteristics which moved away from Clan type culture toward the Adhocracy type culture. These findings indicate that the level of cultural dimension congruence is stronger as a preferred state, given the cultural content dimensions responses and values that align to the Clan type culture, than in the current state where it is split between Hierarchy and Clan. This suggests that there is a desire for the overall character of the combined colleges to be more creative, with a Leadership Style and approach that is more collaborative and less controlling, Strategic Emphases that define what areas that drive the organization's strategy to be more collaborative and less controlling, and criteria for determining and rewarding success to be more collaborative and less controlling. These content dimension scores demonstrate consistency with the previous discussion about respondents' scores for current and preferred culture types.

Table 8

Culture Content Dimensions for Combined Colleges by Culture Type

Dimension	Current State		Preferred State	
	Mean	Culture Type	Mean	Culture Type
Dominant Characteristics	30.27	Clan	31.30	Adhocracy
Organizational Leadership	29.59	Hierarchy	30.23	Clan
Management of Employees	31.02	Clan	37.73	Clan
Organizational Glue	32.77	Clan	35.27	Clan
Strategic Emphases	27.57	Hierarchy	32.27	Clan
Criteria for Success	32.16	Hierarchy	31.70	Clan

Note. Mean scores could range from 0 to 100 representing a percentage out of 100.

Table 9

Culture Content Dimensions for College A by Culture Type

Dimension	Current State		Preferred State	
	Mean	Culture Type	Mean	Culture Type
Dominant Characteristics	30.00	Hierarchy	30.00	Adhocracy
Organizational Leadership	35.91	Market	26.82	Clan
Management of Employees	29.55	Market	33.64	Clan
Organizational Glue	27.27	Clan	33.18	Clan
Strategic Emphases	28.18	Market	28.64	Clan
Criteria for Success	32.73	Hierarchy	30.00	Clan

Note. Mean scores could range from 0 to 100 representing a percentage out of 100.

The level of congruence is assessed for College A and documented in Table 9 for both current and preferred states. The highest mean score in the current state, College A, was Organizational Leadership (Mean = 35.91). The lowest score recorded was Organizational Glue (Mean = 27.27). As a preferred state for College A, the highest mean score was for Management of Employees (Mean = 33.64) with the lowest score for Organizational Leadership (Mean = 26.82).

In the current state, three content dimensions link to the Market type culture, two to Hierarchy, with one content dimension linked to the Clan type culture, representing a lack of congruence. However, respondents clearly indicated a preference overall for a move to a Clan type culture in terms of the cultural content dimensions and values, with the exception of Dominant Characteristics which moves away from Hierarchy type culture toward the Adhocracy type culture, representing strong congruence. This suggests that there is a desire for the Dominant Characteristics of College A to be more creative and less controlling, the leadership style and management approach to be more collaborative and less competitive, the Organizational Glue to be more collaborative, the Strategic Emphases that define what areas that drive the organization's strategy to be more collaborative and less competitive, and the criteria for determining and rewarding success to be more collaborative and less controlling. And, the overall preference for College A is consistent with the overall result for the combined colleges.

Table 10

Culture Content Dimensions for College B by Culture Type

Dimension	Current State		Preferred State	
	Mean	Culture Type	Mean	Culture Type
Dominant Characteristics	29.38	Clan	31.69	Adhocracy
Organizational Leadership	31.54	Clan	33.46	Clan
Management of Employees	41.54	Clan	43.08	Clan
Organizational Glue	32.46	Clan	34.38	Clan
Strategic Emphases	30.38	Clan	33.46	Clan
Criteria for Success	26.92	Clan	30.77	Clan

Note. Mean scores could range from 0 to 100 representing a percentage out of 100.

College B represents the only college in this study that demonstrated total content dimension congruence in the current state. Table 10 illustrates the highest mean score in the current state, College B, was Management of Employees (Mean = 41.54). The lowest score recorded was Criteria for Success (Mean = 26.92). In the preferred state for College B, the highest mean score remained Management of Employees (Mean = 43.08) and the lowest score remained for Criteria for Success (Mean = 30.77).

As stated, in the current state all content dimensions link to the Clan type culture, representing congruence. However, strong congruence was found as a preferred state, where one content dimension changed in the Dominant Characteristics, which moved from Clan to Adhocracy. This suggests that there is a desire for the Dominant Characteristics of College B to

be more creative and less collaborative. The overall preference for College B is consistent with the overall result for the combined colleges.

Table 11

Culture Content Dimensions for College C by Culture Type

Dimension	Current State		Preferred State	
	Mean	Culture Type	Mean	Culture Type
Dominant Characteristics	42.50	Clan	31.69	Clan
Organizational Leadership	42.70	Hierarchy	30.00	Clan
Management of Employees	39.50	Hierarchy	37.00	Clan
Organizational Glue	38.50	Clan	30.00	Clan
Strategic Emphases	42.50	Hierarchy	33.00	Clan
Criteria for Success	41.00	Hierarchy	35.00	Clan

Note. Mean scores could range from 0 to 100 representing a percentage out of 100.

College C exhibits strong congruence in the current state. It also represents the one college with total content dimension congruence as a preferred state which is documented in Table 11. The highest mean score in the current state, College C, was Organizational Leadership (Mean = 42.70). The lowest score recorded was Organizational Glue (Mean = 38.50). As a preferred state for College A, the highest mean score was for Management of Employees (Mean = 37.00) with a tie for the lowest score for Organizational Leadership and Organizational Glue (Mean = 30.00).

More specifically, in the current state, four content dimensions link to the Hierarchy type culture and two to the Clan type culture, representing strong Hierarchy congruence. Respondents clearly indicated a preference overall for a move to a Clan type culture as a preferred state,

resulting in total congruence. This suggests that there is a desire for the Organizational Leadership, Management of Employees, Strategic Emphases and Criteria for Success to be more collaborative and less controlling. The desire for the Dominant Characteristics to reflect the Clan rather than the Adhocracy culture type is inconsistent with the combined colleges results, however, when you consider the overall culture type preference for either Clan or Clan/Adhocracy, the results are consistent in that regard.

Table 12 illustrates strong congruence for College D for both the current and as a preferred state. The highest mean score in the current state, College D, was Management of Employees (Mean = 34.50). The lowest score recorded was Criteria for Success (Mean = 30.50). As a preferred state for College D, the highest mean score was for Organizational Glue (Mean = 44.00) with the lowest score for Criteria for Success (Mean = 31.50).

Table 12

Culture Content Dimensions for College D by Culture Type

Dimension	Current State		Preferred State	
	Mean	Culture Type	Mean	Culture Type
Dominant Characteristics	31.00	Hierarchy	32.50	Adhocracy
Organizational Leadership	33.50	Market	33.50	Adhocracy
Management of Employees	34.50	Market	36.00	Clan
Organizational Glue	33.50	Clan	44.00	Clan
Strategic Emphases	31.50	Market	34.00	Clan
Criteria for Success	30.50	Market	31.50	Clan

Note. Mean scores could range from 0 to 100 representing a percentage out of 100.

In the current state, four content dimensions link to the Market type culture and one each to Hierarchy and Clan type culture, representing strong congruence. Respondents indicated a preference overall for a move to a Clan type culture as a preferred state in terms of the cultural content dimensions and values, with the exception of the movement to Adhocracy from both Dominant Characteristics, which moves away from Hierarchy type culture, and Organizational Leadership, which moves away from Market. There appears to be a desire for the Dominant Characteristics of College D to be more creative and less controlling; the Organizational Leadership style and Management of Employees approach to be more collaborative and less competitive; the Organizational Glue to be more collaborative; the Strategic Emphases that define what areas that drive the organization's strategy to be more collaborative and less competitive; and the criteria for determining and rewarding success to be more collaborative and less controlling. And, except for the preference for Adhocracy with regards to Organizational Leadership, the results are basically consistent with all the combined college results.

In summary, total congruence in the current state was only found at College B. The combined colleges and College A both demonstrated lack of congruence and Colleges C and D demonstrated strong congruence in the current state. As a preferred state, total congruence was only found at College C. The combined colleges, Colleges A, B and D all demonstrated strong congruence in terms of their preferred state. The following offers a more detailed analysis for 24 characteristics included in the six content dimensions and describes discrepancies of the key values and assumptions in the organizations for both the current and preferred states. For organizations interested in closely examining what they value and what attributes are important to the institution, this analysis provides more detailed and specific information to consider in designing a change management strategy.

A more in-depth analysis of the cultural content dimensions includes an analysis of each of the four questions in each of the six dimensions including dominant culture for each dimension and the highest cultural dimension out of all six dimensions. Table 13 provides a complete list of all of the mean scores for the cultural content dimensions for combined colleges and each college in the study. The dominant culture is identified for each dimension by a bold number and the highest cultural dimension is underlined. It is very important to note the question key, whereby the survey questions are aligned with Cameron and Quinn's quadrant definitions (i.e., A with the Clan; B with Adhocracy; C with Market; and D with Hierarchy type cultures).

Table 13

24 Cultural Dimensions X Mean Scores: Highest Dimension, Dominant Culture Type, Congruency Level, & Discrepancy

Mean Responses to Questions	COMBINED		COLLEGE A		COLLEGE B		COLLEGE C		COLLEGE D	
	Current	Prefer	Current	Prefer	Current	Prefer	Current	Prefer	Current	Prefer
1. Dominant Characteristic										
A Personal place	**30.27**	29.36	26.36	26.82	**29.38**	28.62	**42.50**	**31.50**	23.50	31.00
B Dynamic/entrepreneurial	19.93	**31.30**	15.00	**30.00**	27.85	**31.69**	18.00	31.00	17.00	**32.50**
C Results oriented	24.70	24.48	28.64	25.91	24.38	24.00	17.00	24.00	28.50	24.00
D Controlled/structured	25.09	14.86	**30.00**	17.27	18.38	15.69	22.50	13.50	**31.00**	12.50
2. Organizational Leadership										
A Leaders as mentors	24.25	**30.23**	20.45	**26.82**	31.54	33.46	26.70	**30.00**	16.50	30.00
B Leaders as entrepreneurs	21.07	28.52	20.00	26.82	26.15	26.92	17.20	27.50	19.50	**33.50**
C Leaders results oriented	25.09	19.09	<u>35.91</u>	24.09	18.46	17.31	13.40	16.00	**33.50**	19.00
D Leaders exemplify efficiency	**29.59**	22.16	23.64	22.27	23.85	22.31	<u>42.70</u>	26.50	30.50	17.50
3. Management of Employees										
A Teamwork, consensus	**31.02**	<u>37.73</u>	25.00	<u>33.64</u>	<u>41.54</u>	<u>43.08</u>	31.50	<u>37.00</u>	23.50	**36.00**
B Risk taking, innovation	20.57	29.09	16.36	26.82	26.54	30.00	20.00	29.50	18.00	30.00
C Competitiveness, achievement	22.16	17.61	**29.55**	22.73	16.54	14.62	9.00	13.50	<u>34.50</u>	20.00
D Conformity, stability	26.25	15.57	29.09	16.82	15.38	12.31	**39.50**	20.00	24.00	14.00
4. Organizational Glue										
A Loyalty and trust	<u>32.77</u>	35.27	**27.27**	33.18	32.46	34.38	38.50	30.00	33.50	<u>44.00</u>
B Commitment to innovation	20.27	28.00	21.36	28.18	24.38	30.54	16.00	27.00	18.00	25.50
C Emphasis on achievement	22.61	20.84	24.55	21.36	26.31	21.69	15.80	22.00	22.50	18.00
D Formal rules and policies	24.34	15.89	26.82	17.27	16.85	13.38	29.70	21.00	26.00	12.50
5. Strategic Emphases										
A Emphasizes human development	24.32	**32.27**	19.09	**28.64**	30.38	33.46	29.50	**33.00**	17.00	**34.00**
B Emphasizes new resources/challenges	24.59	28.64	27.73	28.18	29.77	31.54	15.00	24.00	24.00	30.00
C Emphasizes competition/achievement	23.52	21.02	**28.18**	25.00	21.54	18.08	13.00	20.00	**31.50**	21.50
D Emphasizes stability/efficiency	**27.57**	18.07	25.00	18.18	18.31	16.92	**42.50**	23.00	27.50	14.50
6. Criteria of Success										
A Success is human development	22.95	**31.70**	20.00	**30.00**	26.92	30.77	29.50	**35.00**	14.50	**31.50**
B Success is product leader	22.16	25.68	21.36	25.00	24.62	25.00	16.50	23.00	25.50	30.00
C Success is Market leadership	22.73	21.25	25.91	22.73	21.54	21.15	13.00	18.50	**30.50**	22.50
D Success is efficiency/dependability	**32.16**	21.36	**32.73**	22.27	26.92	23.08	**41.00**	23.50	29.50	16.00
Congruency Level	**X**	**S**	**X**	**S**	**T**	**S**	**S**	**T**	**S**	**S**

Notes: 1. Survey questions were numbered by culture quadrant with A – Clan; B – Adhocracy; C – Market; and D – Hierarchy.

        2. Highest cultural dimensions per sample are <u>underlined</u> & dominant culture type dimensions are **bolded**.

        3. Meaningful discrepancy between current and preferred culture types of > 10 points is shaded.

        4. Congruency Level Key: X= Lack of Congruency (3 or less similar culture dimensions are the same); S – Strong Congruence (4 or more culture dimensions are the same); and T – Total Congruence (all 6 culture dimensions are the same).

Colleges Combined: Dominant Characteristics: Survey respondents demonstrated a desire to move from a dominant culture type of Hierarchy to Clan with regards to this content dimension. Respondents from the four colleges combined demonstrated they believe their culture must embrace greater Dynamism/entrepreneurial and must utilize less of a Controlled/structured approach. This is based on the meaningful discrepancy of 11.37 points between the current Dynamic/entrepreneurial culture dimension (Mean = 19.93) and the preferred Dynamic/entrepreneurial culture dimension (Mean = 31.30). They also believe they must demonstrate less of a Controlled/structured approach (Mean = 25.09) given the meaningful discrepancy of 10.23 to much less emphasis on Controlled/structured (Mean = 14.86) as a preferred state. The most important preferred values are Dynamic/entrepreneurial (Mean = 31.30) and Personal place (Mean = 29.36). It should be noted that Controlled/structured was the least preferred of the 24 content dimensions with a value at (Mean = 14.86). As well, in terms of current assessment, the lowest ranked value within this dimension was the Dynamic/ entrepreneurial at (Mean = 19.93), suggesting this is an area where meaningful change is desired. Controlled/structured (Mean = 14.86) for preferred was the lowest content dimension score for colleges combined representing a diminished mean that again underscores the desire for change.

Organizational Leadership – Survey respondents demonstrated a desire to move from a dominant Hierarchy culture type to the Clan culture type with regards to this content dimension. In terms of current versus preferred values, respondents from colleges combined demonstrated that they believe their culture must embrace more both Leaders as mentors (from Mean = 24.25 to Mean = 30.23) and Leaders as entrepreneurs (from Mean = 21.07 to Mean = 28.52). Further, the data indicates a desire to experience less Leaders who are results oriented (from Mean = 25.09 to

Mean = 19.09) and Leaders who exemplify efficiency (from Mean = 29.59 to Mean = 22.16).

The most important preferred values are clearly Leaders as mentors and Leaders as entrepreneurs.

Management of Employees – Survey respondents demonstrated a current prevalence of and a future preference for the Clan culture type with regards to this content dimension. In terms of current versus preferred values, respondents from colleges combined demonstrate that they believe their culture should emphasize Teamwork, consensus as well as Risk taking, innovation, and lessened emphasis on Competitiveness, achievement as well as Conformity, stability. The most important value, both current and preferred, is Teamwork, consensus (Mean = 31.02; Mean = 37.73). It should be noted that among all of the preferred content dimensions, Teamwork, consensus ranked the highest overall for colleges combined at (Mean = 37.73). Conformity, stability (Mean = 15.57) as preferred ranked as the second lowest content dimension score for colleges combined, after the Controlled/structured of Dominant Characteristics.

Organizational Glue – Survey respondents demonstrated a current prevalence of and future preference for the Clan culture type with regards to this content dimension.   Respondents from colleges combined demonstrate that they believe their culture should continue to emphasize Loyalty and trust, which was the dimension valued the greatest for all of the six content dimensions (Mean = 32.77) and in the future at (Mean = 35.27). Formal rules and policies (Mean = 15.89) for preferred ranked as the third lowest score overall for colleges combined. Respondents also demonstrated a meaningful desire for greater emphasis on the Commitment to innovation (from a current Mean = 20.27 to a preferred Mean = 28.00).

Strategic Emphases – Survey respondents demonstrated a preference for a move from a dominant culture type of Hierarchy to the Clan culture type with regards to this content dimension.

Respondents from colleges combined demonstrate that they believe their culture should value more Emphasizes human development (from Mean = 24.32 to Mean = 32.27) as well as value more Emphasizes new resources/challenges (from Mean = 24.59 to Mean = 28.64). Conversely, according to the data, there should be less Emphasizes stability/efficiency (from Mean = 27.57 to Mean = 18.07).

Criteria of Success – Survey respondents again demonstrated a preference for a move from a dominant Hierarchy culture type to the Clan culture type with regards to this content dimension. Meaningful discrepancy was demonstrated in the combined colleges who indicated a preference to focus less on Success is efficiency/dependability (from Mean = 32.16 to Mean = 21.36). Success defined as human development (Mean = 22.95 to Mean = 31.70) also represents a considerable desire for change.

Finally, it should be noted that of all the cultural context dimensions, Organizational Glue (Loyalty and trust) was the only dimension that maintained an approximately same response for the colleges combined and each college in terms of the current and preferred priority.

An examination of the results for each college follows:

College A: Respondents from College A indicated that the content dimension most highly valued in the current state is Organizational Leadership (Leader results oriented, Mean = 35.91), and the highest dimension preferred is Management of Employees (Teamwork, consensus: Mean = 33.64). Respondents from College A demonstrate a meaningful discrepancy between the current and preferred in Dominant Characteristics for Dynamic/entrepreneurial, which they want more emphasized (from Mean = 15.00 to Mean = 30.00) and Controlled/structured, which they want less emphasized (from Mean = 30.00 to Mean = 17.27). Organizational Leadership results demonstrate a meaningful discrepancy, reflecting a desire to decrease Leaders results oriented

(from Mean = 35.91 to Mean = 24.09). In terms of Management of Employees, responses demonstrated a desire to move towards greater Risk taking, innovation (from Mean = 16.36 to Mean = 26.82) and, conversely, for less Conformity, stability (from Mean = 29.09 to Mean = 16.82). The Strategic Emphases data did not reflect meaningful discrepancy, although the results indicated a considerable level of desire for change toward greater Emphasis human development (from Mean = 19.09 to Mean = 28.64). Criteria of Success data reflected meaningful discrepancy toward an increase in Success is human development (from Mean = 20.00 to Mean = 30.00) and, conversely, a desire to decrease Success is efficiency/dependability (from Mean = 32.73 to Mean = 22.27). In sum, it could be interpreted that College A is signalling a desire for more entrepreneurship and innovation, along with a greater focus on human development and less control and structure, efficiency and dependability, results oriented leadership, and formal rules and policies.

College B: Respondents from College B indicated that the cultural context dimension valued as the highest in the current state was Management of Employees (Mean = 41.54), with a desire to strengthen this slightly (Mean = 43.08) as a preferred state. These high scores were balanced with meaningfully low scores on Competitiveness, achievement and Conformity, stability both in the current and as a preferred state. The only cultural dimension with a greater than three point spread between current and preferred, that may represent a desire for change, was found in Dominant Characteristics where there was a slight desire for an increase in a Dynamic/entrepreneurial approach (from Mean = 27.85 to Mean = 31.69). All the other values maintained very close scores between current and preferred, suggesting that College B is comfortable with its current cultural dimensions.

College C: Respondents from College C indicated that the current highest dimension valued was

Organizational Leadership (Leaders exemplify efficiency) at (Mean = 42.70). The highest

dimension preferred is Management of Employees (Teamwork, consensus) at (Mean = 37.00).

Respondents from College C demonstrated meaningful discrepancy between the current and

preferred cultural dimensions in terms of Dominant Characteristics, with a desire for less focus on

Personal/place (from Mean = 42.50 to Mean = 31.50) and greater focus on

Dynamic/entrepreneurial (from Mean = 18.00 to Mean = 31.00). Organizational Leadership

results demonstrate a meaningful desire to increase Leaders as entrepreneurs (from Mean = 17.20

to Mean = 27.50) and to decrease Leaders exemplify efficiency (from Mean = 42.70 to Mean =

26.50). Management of Employees results indicated a meaningful desire to have less

Conformity, stability (from Mean = 39.50 to Mean = 20.00) and a considerable desire to increase

Risk taking, innovation (from Mean = 20.00 to Mean = 29.50). In terms of Organizational Glue,

respondents indicated a desire to increase Commitment to innovation (from Mean = 16.00 to

Mean = 27.00), as well as a desire to lessen emphasis on Loyalty and trust (from Mean = 38.50 to

Mean = 30.00) and Formal rules and policies (from Mean = 29.70 to Mean = 21.00). The

Strategic Emphases content dimension data reflected meaningful desire to lessen Emphasizes

stability/efficiency (from Mean = 42.50 to Mean = 23.00) and a desire to increase Emphasizes

new resources/challenges (from Mean = 15.00 to Mean = 24.00). Data demonstrate also a desire

related to the content dimension Criteria of Success, reducing the definition of Success is

efficiency/dependability (from Mean = 41.00 to Mean = 23.50).

In sum, a closer look at the content dimensions could be interpreted to mean that College

C is looking to less of a focus on Personal place; Leaders exemplify efficiency; Conformity,

stability; Loyalty and trust; Formal rules and policies; Emphasizes stability/efficiency; and,

Success is efficiency/dependability. Further, it could be said College C is looking to more of a

focus on Leaders as entrepreneurs; Risk taking, innovation; Commitment to innovation; and, Emphasizes new resources/challenges.

College D: Respondents from College D indicated that the dimension valued the highest in their current state is Management of Employees, (Competiveness, achievement: Mean = 34.50), and the highest dimension preferred is Organizational Glue (Loyalty and trust: Mean = 44.00). Respondents from College D demonstrate a meaningful discrepancy in five of the six content dimensions: Dominant Characteristics, Organizational Leadership, Management of Employees, Strategic Emphases and Criteria of Success. In Dominant Characteristics, the data demonstrate a desire for more of a Dynamic/entrepreneurial approach (from Mean = 17.00 to Mean = 32.50) and less of a Controlled/structured approach (from Mean = 31.00 to Mean = 12.50). In terms of Organizational Leadership, meaningful discrepancy was found in all four dimensions indicating a desire to move towards Leaders as mentors (from Mean = 16.50 to Mean = 30.00) and Leaders as entrepreneurs (from Mean = 19.50 to Mean = 33.50); and move away from Leaders results oriented (from Mean = 33.50 to Mean = 19.00) and Leaders exemplify efficiency (Mean = 30.50 to Mean = 17.50). With regards to Management of Employees, meaningful discrepancy was also found for all four of the content dimensions: a desire for more Teamwork, consensus (from Mean = 23.50 to Mean = 36.00) and Risk taking, innovation (from Mean = 18.00 to Mean = 30.00), and a desire for less Competiveness, achievement (from Mean = 34.50 to Mean = 20.00) and less Conformity, stability (from Mean = 24.00 to Mean = 14.00). In terms of Organizational Glue there was meaningful discrepancy for an increase in Loyalty and trust (from Mean = 33.50 to Mean = 44.00) and a decrease in Formal rules and policies (from Mean = 26.00 to Mean = 12.50). With regards to Strategic Emphases there was meaningful discrepancy to focus more on Emphasizes human development (from Mean = 17.00 to Mean = 34.00), and less on Emphasizes

competition/achievement (from Mean = 31.50 to Mean = 21.50) and Emphasizes

stability/efficiency (from Mean = 27.50 to Mean = 14.50). Finally, in terms of Criteria for

Success, there was meaningful discrepancy suggesting a desire to move towards more Success is

human development (from Mean = 14.50 to Mean = 31.50), with less emphasis on Success is

efficiency/dependability (from Mean = 29.50 to Mean = 16.00).   As previously noted, College D

responses represented the most discrepancy between the current and preferred twenty-four

content dimensions, suggesting it to be the college most desirous of change.

Comparison with public administration cultures.

Secondary Research Questions, Continued

1.7   To what degree do the responses on the OCAI by college administrators at the combined

         Ontario colleges correspond with the average OCAI culture profile described by Cameron

         and Quinn (2006) for public administration employees (p. 78)?

1.8   To what degree do the responses on the OCAI, by college administrators at each of the

         four Ontario colleges correspond with the average OCAI culture profile described by

         Cameron and Quinn (2006) for public administration employees (p. 78)?

         Cameron and Quinn (2006) offer 10 different sector specific organizational profiles for

comparison purposes: retail, transportation, manufacturing, finance, mining, construction,

agriculture, public administration, services and non-classifiable (p. 78). Public Administration

has been chosen from the 10 profiles for this study as it appears to be closest to the Ontario

colleges and the postsecondary industry. The degree of correspondence between the Public

Administration profile presented by Cameron and Quinn compared to data from this study data

are analyzed through comparison of the similarities and differences in: dominant culture;

uniquely strong culture; and main dimensions of the OCAI, (i.e., stability and control versus

flexibility and discretion, and external focus and differentiation versus internal focus).

The comparison will begin by examining the culture profiles of Public Administration with combined four colleges. Figure 14 illustrates the average culture profile for the Public Administration industry group (N=43) as described by Cameron and Quinn, accompanied by the current profile of the study colleges combined for comparison purposes.


	Combined Colleges Current	PA	Discrepancy
Clan	27.60	21.00	
Adhocracy	21.43	13.00	
Market	23.47	23.00	
Hierarchy	27.50	32.00	
1. Dominant	Clan	Hierarchy	
2. 2nd Highest	Hierarchy	Market	
3. Lowest	Adhocracy	Adhocracy	
4. Uniquely Strong	x	H>C&A M>A	
5. Main Dimensions	S & C I & I	S & C I & I	
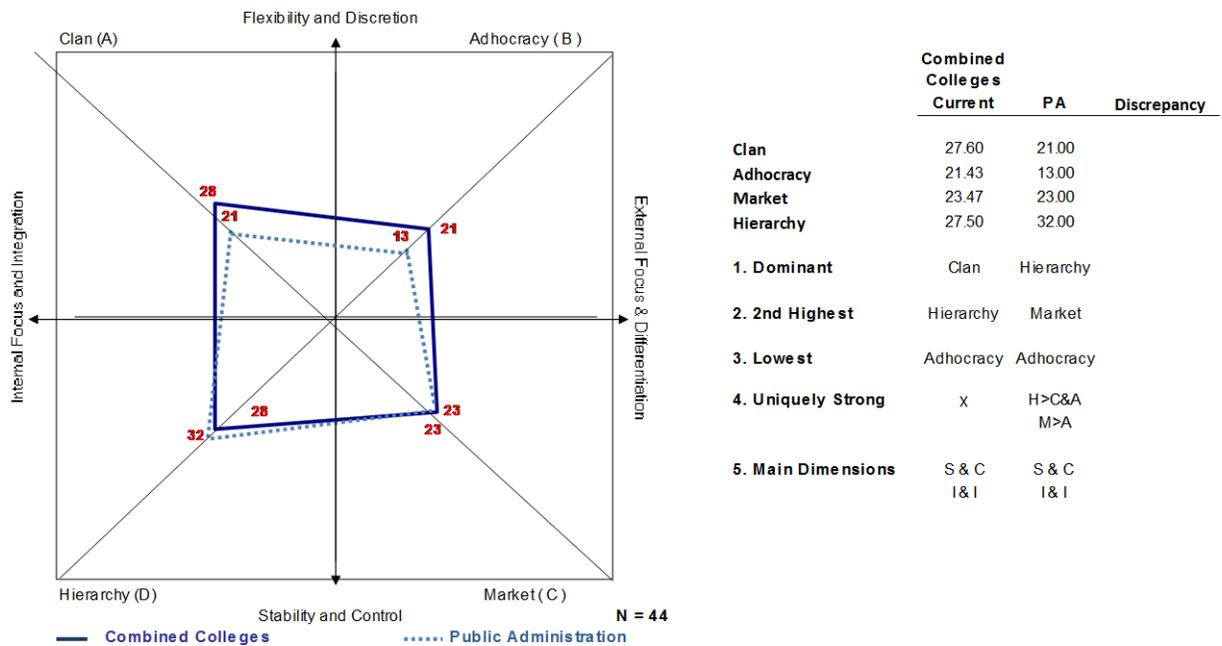
Figure 14. Average Current State Profile – Public Administration vs. Combined Colleges.

The dominant and second highest scores for the current combined colleges are Clan (Mean = 27.60) and Hierarchy (Mean = 27.50) compared with the Public Administration (PA) scores of Clan (Mean = 21.00) and Hierarchy (Mean = 32.00). The lowest quadrant was Adhocracy for combined colleges (Mean = 21.43) and PA (Mean = 13.00). Uniquely strong culture was found in PA for Hierarchy over Clan and Adhocracy (Mean = 13.00). Uniquely strong culture was found in Adhocracy over Hierarchy. In general terms the results in the current state suggest a greater focus on internal maintenance with flexibility, concern for people and

sensitivity to customers in the combined colleges sampled in this study compared to the Public

Administration culture profile of Cameron and Quinn. A similar analysis finds that the combined

colleges report a slightly greater internal focus and integration (i.e., the combined college results

have a greater focus on internal maintenance with a need for stability and control than the PA

culture profile).

Comparison of dominant culture and strength is revealed in Table 14 which lists the data

from the average combined colleges current and preferred survey responses and the Public

Administration data from Cameron and Quinn (2006, p. 78). The data show Public

Administration respondents scored the four culture types, from the highest to lowest, as Hierarchy

(Mean = 32.00), Market (Mean = 23.00), Clan (Mean = 21.00), and Adhocracy (Mean = 13.00).

In comparison, data from the combined colleges reflect Clan (Mean = 27.60), Hierarchy (Mean =

27.50), Market (23.47), and Adhocracy (21.43).

Table 14

Comparison of Combined and Each College Mean Score with the Public Administration Mean

Organization	N	Hierarchy	Clan	Adhocracy	Market
Public Administration*	43	<u>32.00</u>	21.00	13.00	23.00
Combined	44	27.50	<u>27.60</u>	21.43	23.47
College A	11	27.88	23.03	20.30	<u>28.79</u>
College B	13	19.95	<u>32.04</u>	26.55	21.46
College C	10	<u>36.32</u>	33.03	17.12	13.53
College D	10	28.08	21.42	20.33	30.17

Note. 1) *Average Culture Profile Data - Collected by Cameron and Quinn from 43 *Public
Administration Organizations* (2006, p. 78)   2) Dominant Culture type is <u>underlined</u>.

In sum, combined colleges compared to Public Administration (PA) present: a dominant Clan (Mean = 27.60) for the colleges versus Hierarchy (Mean = 32.00) for PA; a current prevalence of stability and control that was weaker than PA; and a prevalence of internal focus and integration stronger for colleges than PA. Referring back to the original plots for each college presented earlier in this thesis, readers will note:

College A: Responses from College A compared to PA present: dominant Market (Mean = 28.79) versus Hierarchy (Mean = 32.00) for PA; prevalence of stability and control stronger than PA; and prevalence of internal focus and integration less for College A than PA.

College B: Responses from College B compared to PA reported: dominant Clan (Mean = 32.04) versus Hierarchy (Mean = 32.00) for PA; prevalence of flexibility and discretion over prevalence of stability and control for PA; and prevalence of internal focus and integration less for College B than PA.

College C: Responses from College C compared to PA reported: dominant Hierarchy (Mean = 36.32) similar to Hierarchy (Mean = 32.00) for PA; somewhat equal pull between flexibility and discretion, and stability and control versus prevalence of stability and control for PA; and prevalence of internal focus and integration much stronger for College C than PA.

College D: Responses from College D compared to PA reported: dominant Market (Mean = 30.17) versus Hierarchy (Mean = 32.00) for PA; prevalence of stability and control was less than PA; and prevalence of external focus and differentiation for College D versus internal focus and integration for PA.

Comparisons of male and female culture profiles.

Secondary Research Questions, Continued

1.9   Do the perceived current and preferred organizational culture profiles differ between male

and female administrators and, if so, how?

Questions regarding similarities and differences of men and women in the workforce are not new to the leadership discussion. The personal experience of this researcher is that women and men in leadership, for the most part, have been treated equitably in Ontario colleges. However, this researcher has often observed men and women leaders focusing on different priorities and identifying different solutions to the same problems and/or opportunities. Although the gender influence of culture is not a primary reason for this study, the OCAI assessment survey used in this study provides an opportunity to examine similarities and differences with regards to values and the attributes of women and men at the same institution.

Wellington, Kropf and Gerkovich, (2003) reported on a survey of 1000 corporate executives and revealed that inhospitable organizational cultures contribute to the opportunity gap between men and women in corporate America. Another example of the relationship between gender and culture can be found in the work of Jandeska and Kraimer (2005). Quoting Schein's (1992) definition that organizational culture is the values, norms and beliefs internalized by organizational members that shape the behaviours and attitudes that are rewarded, Jandeska and Kraimer investigated women's perceptions of organizational culture, work attitudes and role-modeling behaviours. Based on the theory that an "inhospitable" culture is linked to the lack of role models and mentoring available to women indirectly through women's career satisfaction and organizational commitment, they found differences in the degree to which the organization equally values men and women in ways that the authors affirm have implications for employers.

Waclawski, Church, and Burke (1995), Burke (2002) and Jandeska and Kraimer (2005) found differences in managerial and professional women's and men's perceptions of the relationship between their organization's values, including support for work-personal life balance

and individual job experiences, as well as work and non-work satisfaction and psychological well-being. Managerial women in organizations supportive of work-personal life balance reported greater job and career satisfaction, less work stress, less intention to quit, greater family satisfaction, fewer psychosomatic symptoms and more positive emotional well-being. Managerial men reported working fewer extra hours, less job stress, greater joy in work, lower intentions to quit, and greater job, career and life satisfaction, as well as fewer psychosomatic symptoms and more positive emotional and physical well-being. Multiple regression analyses indicated more independent and meaningful correlation between organizational values supporting work-personal life balance among men than among women. Suffice to say, institutions considering culture change may find it insightful to examine the similarities between women and men's perspectives about organizational culture.

The correspondence between the male and female culture type profiles, based on responses to the survey completed for this study, are analyzed through comparison of the similarities and differences of: dominant culture; uniquely strong culture (i.e. culture strength or differential of greater than 10 points); discrepancy between current and preferred; and main dimensions of the OCAI, i.e. stability and control versus flexibility and discretion, and external focus and differentiation versus internal focus.

Males (25) represent 56.8 % and females (19) represent 43.2% of the total survey population for all four colleges combined. Females represent 31.6% [(19-25)/19x100/1] less than males in the study group. Analysis of data from the OCAI was used to construct Figure 15 and Figure 16 to illustrate the current and preferred, combined colleges, profiles for males and females, respectively. Table 15 provides a listing of the dominant culture types based on the data from male and female respondents.

Figure 15. Average Culture Profile - Combined Colleges Male.

Figure 16. Average Culture Profile - Combined Colleges Female.

The culture type profiles show that for the combined colleges, the male administrators' view of the current state is that of a dominant Hierarchy (Mean = 27.36) culture type, contrasted with the current female administrators' view of the current state of Clan (Mean = 30.39), with a robust secondary culture type of Hierarchy. Males also indicate the Market (Mean = 25.85) culture type to be the second highest quadrant, with Clan (Mean = 25.48) close behind. Again, females indicate the Hierarchy (Mean = 27.68) culture type as the second highest quadrant. Clan culture type was found to be preferred for both males (Mean = 33.57) and females (Mean = 31.70), with the Adhocracy culture type the second most preferred for both males (Mean = 28.03) and females (Mean = 29.20). Uniquely strong culture was found in the current female culture type with Clan (Mean = 30.39) over Market (Mean = 20.34). Uniquely strong culture was also found in the preferred state for males for Clan (Mean = 33.57) over Market (Mean = 21.33) and Hierarchy (Mean = 17.07), and Adhocracy (Mean = 28.03) over Hierarchy (Mean = 17.07). In addition, as a preferred state, the same uniquely strong culture was embraced by females with Clan (Mean= 31.70) over Market (Mean = 19.90) and Hierarchy (Mean = 19.19), and Adhocracy (Mean = 29.20) over Hierarchy (Mean = 19.19). A meaningful discrepancy was found between the current male Hierarchy culture type (Mean = 27.36) and preferred Hierarchy culture type (Mean = 17.07). No other discrepancies were found, as documented in Table 15.

Table 15

Culture Type by Male and Female

Population	N	Current State		Discrepancy	Preferred State	
		Mean	Dominant	Mean	Dominant	Dominant Culture
Combined	44					
Clan		27.60	Clan	5.16	32.76	Clan
Adhocracy		21.43		7.11	28.54	
Market		23.47		2.75	20.72	
Hierarchy		27.50		9.52	17.98	
Male	25					
Clan		25.48		8.09	33.57	Clan
Adhocracy		21.31		6.72	28.03	
Market		25.85		4.52	21.33	
Hierarchy		27.36	Hierarchy	10.29*	17.07	
Female	19					
Clan		30.39	Clan	1.31	31.70	Clan
Adhocracy		21.59		7.61	29.20	
Market		20.34		0.44	19.90	
Hierarchy		27.68		8.49	19.19	

Note. *Meaningful Discrepancy = 10 point difference between current and preferred

A reference to Figure 9, which illustrates the organizational profile for the combined

colleges, reinforces the influence of the women's dominant Clan culture in the current state. The

meaningful discrepancy found between the current and preferred male Hierarchy culture type

suggests a greater influence by males than females in terms of the desire to change to a stronger

Clan type profile in the preferred combined colleges, although the female influence was also clearly evident. The appeal of Adhocracy was highlighted equally by male and female responses.

Comparison of the main dimensions of the OCAI (i.e., stability and control versus flexibility and discretion, and external focus and differentiation versus internal focus) demonstrate similar perceptions between males and females in both the current and preferred states with regards to flexibility and discretion and internal focus and integration. The shifts in main dimensions as the preferred state were created, for the most part, by both females and males reporting a desire for stronger Adhocracy culture type and weaker of Hierarchy culture type.

Although the sample size is not large enough for a statistically sound analysis of the gender influence from each college, the culture type plots may be of interest to the individual colleges who were involved in the study. In this sensitive discussion, it is important to stress the different gender balance of respondents for each college. Further investigation is required to determine how much of the difference is due to gender and/or gender mix.

In summary, when considering the question of whether the perceived current and preferred organizational culture profiles differ between male and female administrators, for the most part, it is fair to conclude that there are more similarities than differences between female and male respondents. However, generally speaking there is stronger similarity between males and females with regards to the preferred state than for the current state, and the differences in the current state are remarkable enough that they add value to a discussion at a college interested in changing their organizational culture.

Comparisons based on years of experience in the current position.

Secondary Research Questions, Continued

1.10   Do the perceived current and preferred organizational culture profiles differ according to

administrators' years of experience in their current position and, if so, how?

The length of experience in the workforce and, specifically, length of experience in one's current job, is another variable that one could expect would bear influence on organizational culture and the desire for change. The personal experience of this researcher is that individuals new to an administration job often bring fresh ideas, generate enthusiasm and look at problems with less negative emotion. That is not to say a more experienced individual does not demonstrate these same qualities, rather to say a level of initial exuberance is replaced by a level of confidence as the administrator inhabits their role. The influence of other, more experienced administrators on new administrators' perceptions about organizational culture would be interesting to examine at another time. Also, it would be interesting to study how long it takes for new administrators to become inculcated into the same organizational culture as a more experienced manager.

Consideration of OCAI data and interpreting experience is another mechanism by which to understand one's own culture and leverage the values and attributes perceived by leaders based on their years of experience in managing change.

According to Mech (1997) the influence of "age" on managers' executive behaviour is not necessarily a strong one, though common sense would lead one to believe that older executives, who enjoy the interpersonal aspects of their job, may not leave their office as readily for the challenges found in more affluent, perhaps larger or more impersonal institutions compared to the younger ones, who may be more willing to leave their job in order to advance their career. "Number of years in a position," as well as "the number of years of management experience" can influence directly which competencies administrators/managers consider to be important. Wiedman (1978) posited in this respect that the managerial experience directly affects the

managerial role of administrators, supporting the claim that personal characteristics and circumstances can play an important role in determining a manager's executive behaviour.

The correspondence between respondents with less than three years (N=14), between three and five years (N=18), and six or more years' experience (N=12), is analyzed through comparison of the similarities and differences of: dominant culture; uniquely strong culture (i.e., a difference of greater than 10 points); discrepancy between current and preferred; and main dimensions of the OCAI (i.e., stability and control versus flexibility and discretion, and external focus and differentiation versus internal focus). Figures 17, 18, 19 illustrate the average combined college culture type profile for employees with less than three years in the job, three to five years in the job and greater than six years' experience in the job.


|	Current	Preferred	Discrepancy
Clan	26.79	34.70	
Adhocracy	20.18	29.70	
Market	23.51	17.98	
Hierarchy	29.52	17.62	X
1. Dominant	Hierarchy	Clan	
2. 2nd Highest	Clan	Adhocracy	
3. Lowest	Market	Hierarchy	
4. Uniquely Strong	X	C>M+H	
		A>M+H	
5. Main Dimensions	S & D	F & D	
	I & I	I & I	
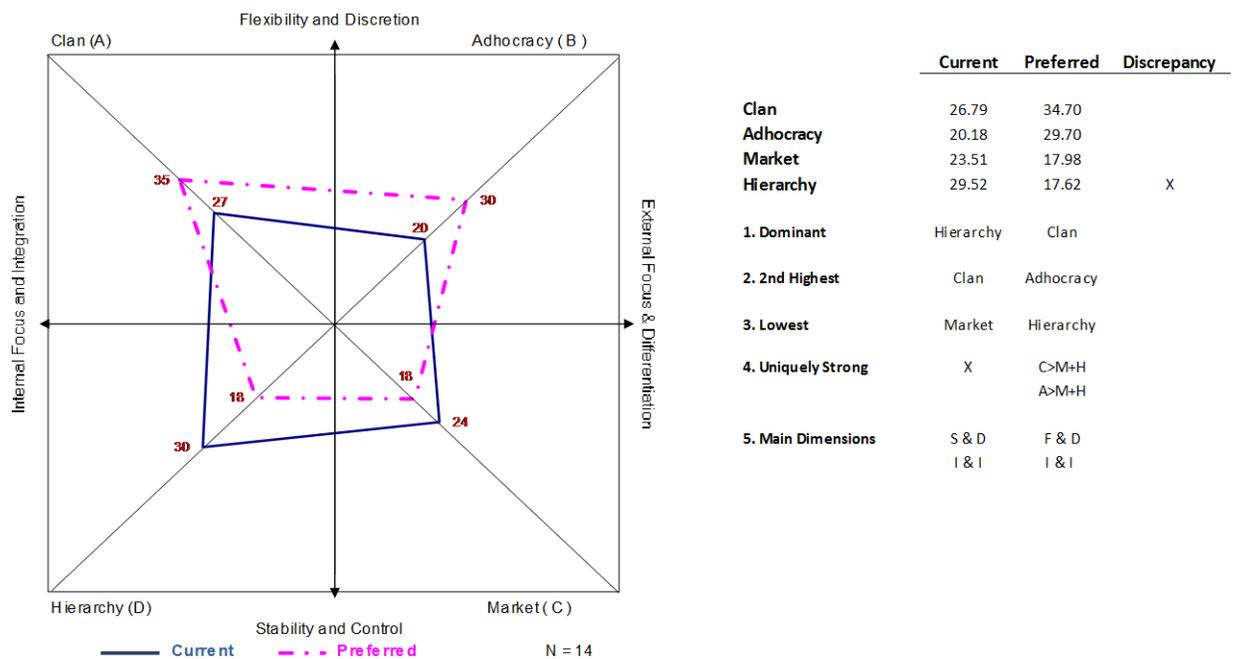
Figure 17. Average Culture Profile - Combined Colleges - Less Than 3 Years in Job.
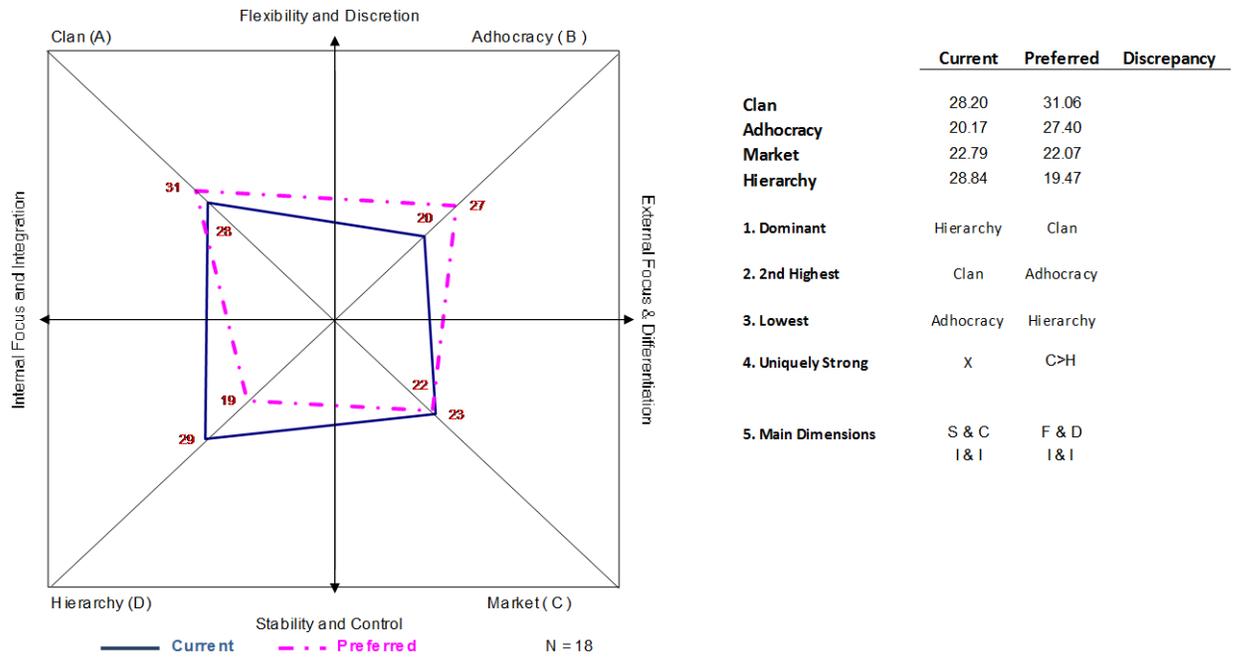
Figure 18. Average Culture Profile - Combined Colleges - 3 to 5 Years in Job.

	Current	Preferred	Discrepancy
Clan	28.20	31.06	
Adhocracy	20.17	27.40	
Market	22.79	22.07	
Hierarchy	28.84	19.47	
1. Dominant	Hierarchy	Clan	
2. 2nd Highest	Clan	Adhocracy	
3. Lowest	Adhocracy	Hierarchy	
4. Uniquely Strong	X	C>H	
5. Main Dimensions	S & C I & I	F & D I & I	
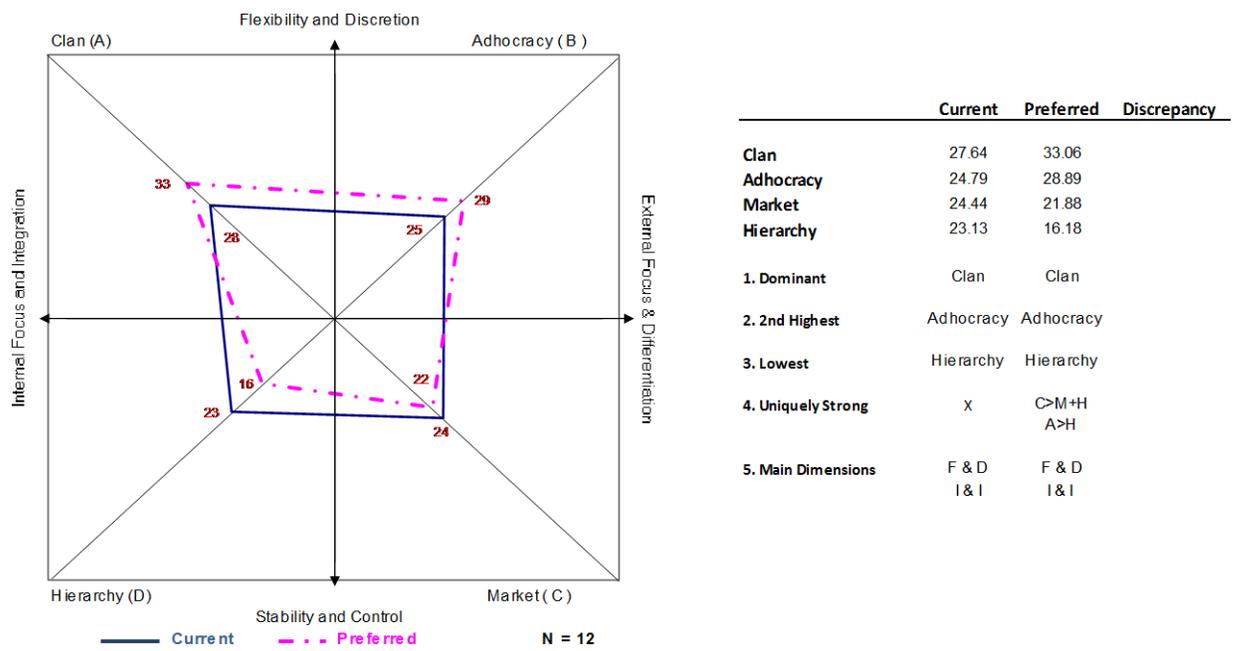
Figure 19. Average Culture Profile - Combined Colleges - 6 to 20 Years in Job.

	Current	Preferred	Discrepancy
Clan	27.64	33.06	
Adhocracy	24.79	28.89	
Market	24.44	21.88	
Hierarchy	23.13	16.18	
1. Dominant	Clan	Clan	
2. 2nd Highest	Adhocracy	Adhocracy	
3. Lowest	Hierarchy	Hierarchy	
4. Uniquely Strong	X	C>M+H A>H	
5. Main Dimensions	F & D I & I	F & D I & I	

The average dominant culture scores for current and preferred states by less than three years in the job, between three and five years in the job, and more than six years on the job, respectively, among the 44 respondents who participated in this research are detailed in Table 16.

Table 16
Culture Type by Years of Experience

Population	N	Current State		Discrepancy	Preferred State	
		Mean	Dominant		Mean	Dominant
Combined	**44**					
Clan		27.60	Clan	5.16	32.76	Clan
Adhocracy		21.43		7.11	28.54	
Market		23.47		2.75	20.72	
Hierarchy		27.50		9.52	17.98	
< 3 years	**14**					
Clan		26.79		7.91	34.70	Clan
Adhocracy		20.18		9.52	29.70	
Market		23.51		5.53	17.98	
Hierarchy		29.52	Hierarchy	11.9*	17.62	
3-5 years	**18**					
Clan		28.20		2.86	31.06	Clan
Adhocracy		20.17		7.23	27.40	
Market		22.79		0.72	22.07	
Hierarchy		28.84	Hierarchy	9.37	19.47	
6-20 years	**12**					
Clan		27.64	Clan	5.42	33.06	Clan
Adhocracy		24.79		4.10	28.89	
Market		24.44		2.56	21.88	
Hierarchy		23.13		6.95	16.18	

Note. *Meaningful Discrepancy = 10 point difference between current and preferred.

Consideration of the perceptions of employees with less than three years' experience, three to five years, and more than six years' experience demonstrates the following: the current culture type was found to be Hierarchy (Mean = 29.52), Hierarchy (Mean = 28.84) and Clan (Mean = 27.64), respectively; with the preferred culture type to be Clan for all three categories - (Mean = 34.70), (Mean = 31.06) and (Mean = 33.06), respectively.

Respondents provided a variety of culture types in terms of their second scores for the current state, including Clan (Mean = 26.79), Clan (Mean = 28.20) and Adhocracy (Mean = 24.79), respectively. Second scores in the preferred state demonstrated a clear preference for Adhocracy for all three categories, including (Mean = 29.70), (Mean = 27.40) and (Mean = 28.89), respectively.

Lowest scores in the current state reflected Adhocracy (Mean = 26.79), Adhocracy (Mean = 28.20) and Hierarchy (Mean = 24.79), respectively. Lowest scores in the preferred state reflected a distinct lack of preference for Hierarchy for all three categories - (Mean = 17.62), (Mean = 19.47) and (Mean = 16.18), respectively.

No uniquely strong culture type was observed in the current state culture profiles. In the preferred state, uniquely strong was found in all culture type profiles; Clan type culture over Market and Hierarchy, as well as Adhocracy over Market and Hierarchy was found in less than three years; Clan type culture over Hierarchy was found for respondents who reported three to five years' experience; and Clan type culture over Market and Hierarchy, as well as Adhocracy over Hierarchy was expressed by those with more than six years' experience.

In the current state, employees with less than three years and between three and five years' experience reported a current state prevalence of stability and control, whereas six years to twenty year employees reported a prevalence of flexibility and discretion. All employee groups

reported a desire for flexibility and discretion as a preferred state. Internal focus and integration was found to be the prevalent main dimension for all employee groups in both the current and preferred states. In this, it is important to stress the different balance of experience in the current job of respondents for each college. Further investigation is required to determine how much of the difference is due to the balance of years of experience and/or experience mix.

In summary, culture type was found to be more similar in the preferred state between employees with less than three years' experience and those with three to five years' experience. In the current state there was similarity between all employee groups.

Finally, Tables 17 and 18 show the number of cases, measures of central tendency and dispersion and *F* values for each category of analysis conducted for perceptions of the "current" and "preferred" situations. An examination of standard deviations indicates greater variability for analyses associated with the "current" as compared to the "preferred" situation, suggesting there was less agreement among respondents regarding their "current" culture. College C, in particular, was found to have the greatest variability for their "current" culture type.

Table 17

Dominant Culture by College, Gender, & Years of Experience: Current Situation

Category	N	*M*	*S.D.*	Dominant Culture	*df*	*F*	*p*
All Colleges	44	27.60	10.88	Clan	3	3.949	.015
College A	11	28.79	9.77	Market			
College B	13	32.04	10.27	Clan			
College C	10	36.32	12.92	Hierarchy			
College D	10	30.17	9.08	Market			
Gender							
All Colleges	44	27.60	10.88	Clan	1	2.259	.140
Male	25	27.36	11.16	Hierarchy			
Female	19	30.39	12.39	Clan			
Years in Current Job							
All Colleges	44	27.60	10.88	Clan	2	.064	.938
>3 years	14	29.52	16.27	Hierarchy			
3-5 years	18	28.84	10.35	Hierarchy			
6-20 years	12	27.64	11.42	Clan			

Note. Mean scores can range from 0 to 100, representing a percentage out of 100.

Table 18

Dominant Culture by College, Gender, & Years of Experience: Preferred Situation

Category	N	*M*	*S.D.*	Dominant Culture	*df*	*F*	*P*
All Colleges	44	32.76	8.60	Clan	3	.612	.611
College A	11	29.85	6.60	Clan			
College B	13	33.96	9.18	Clan			
College C	10	32.75	9.39	Clan			
College D	10	34.42	9.42	Clan			
Gender							
All Colleges	44	32.76	8.60	Clan	1	.502	.482
Male	25	33.57	8.12	Clan			
Female	19	31.70	9.31	Clan			
Years in Current Job							
All Colleges	44	32.76	8.60	Clan	2	.709	.498
>3 years	14	34.70	8.73	Clan			
3-5 years	18	31.06	7.37	Clan			
6-20 years	12	33.06	10.26	Clan			

Note.   Mean scores can range from 0 to 100, representing a percentage out of 100.

Research Findings - Part 2

Management Skills Assessment Instrument (MSAI). For the benefit of the reader, the following is repeated from Chapter 2 to provide a contextual perspective prior to reviewing the survey data collected for this study.

The OCAI developed by Cameron and Quinn is accompanied by the MSAI; the latter

designed to help individuals interested in managing change. Items on the questionnaire have been

derived from extensive research found in the literature on managerial behaviour. Whetten and

Cameron (2005) summarized 15 of those studies and found a substantial overlap in the lists of

skills produced (cited in Cameron and Quinn, 2006, p. 119). The skills and competencies that

emerged from these studies were grouped into a set of competency categories applicable to

mainly mid-level and upper-level managers – which they define as skills appropriate for

'managers managing managers.' Cameron and Quinn (2006) believe "these competency

categories summarize many of the critically important managerial leadership competencies

typical of effective mid-and upper-level managers" (p. 120). The motivation behind the MSAI is

based on the premise that a thorough understanding of one's own individual behaviour, and the

organization's collective culture and leadership behaviour, leads to insight into the change

management process. Cameron and Quinn affirm that culture depends on the implementation of

values-driven behaviour by individuals in the organization. They stress that it is possible to

identify a desired culture, and to specify strategies and actions to enact change. Further, for

fundamental change to occur, the process ought to become personalized, with individuals willing

to engage in new behaviours, and there must be an alteration in the managerial competencies

demonstrated in the organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2006, p. 117).

Figure 20 follows to illustrate how the 12 critical competency categories have been

organized within the CVF by culture type. Readers can also refer back to Figure 6 to see an

example of how three of these 12 competencies are plotted into each of the four quadrants

respective to the four culture types of Clan, Adhocracy, Market and Hierarchy.

Flexibility and Discretion

Internal Focus and Integration

External Focus and Differentiation

Stability and Control

Culture Type: CLAN

Managing teams

Managing interpersonal relationships

Managing the development of others

Culture Type: ADHOCRACY

Managing innovation

Managing the future

Managing continuous improvement

Culture Type: HIERARCHY

Managing acculturation

Managing the control system

Managing coordination

Culture Type: MARKET

Managing competitiveness

Energizing employees

Managing customer service

Figure 20. Management Skills Profile Competency by Culture Typ**e.** *Source:* From K.S. Cameron & R. Quinn (2006), *Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture: Based on the Competing Values Framework.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, p. 120.

Cameron and Quinn provide the following description of the competency terminology:

Clan Skills:

1. Managing teams – facilitating effective, cohesive, smooth-functioning, high performance teamwork

2. Managing interpersonal relationships – facilitating effective interpersonal relationships, including supportive feedback, listening, and resolution of interpersonal problems

3. Managing the development of others – helping individuals improve their performance, expand their competencies, and obtain personal development opportunities

Adhocracy Skills:

4. Managing innovation – encouraging individuals to innovate, expand alternatives, become more creative, and facilitate new idea generation

5. Managing the future – communicating a clear vision of the future and facilitating its accomplishment

6. Managing the continuous improvement – fostering an orientation toward continuous improvement, flexibility, and productive change among individuals in their work life

Market Skills:

7. Managing competitiveness – fostering competitive capabilities and an aggressive orientation toward exceeding competitors' performance

8. Energizing employees – motivating and inspiring individuals to be proactive, to put forth extra effort, and to work vigorously

9. Managing customer service – fostering an orientation toward serving customers, involving them, and exceeding their expectations

Hierarchy Skills:

10. Managing acculturation – helping individuals become clear about what is expected of them, what the culture and standards of the organization are, and how they can best fit into the work setting

11. Managing the control system – ensuring that procedures, measurements, and monitoring systems are in place to keep processes and performance under control

12. Managing coordination – fostering coordination within the organization as well as with external units and managers and sharing information across boundaries (p. 121).

To complete the MSAI, respondents were asked to answer 93 questions. Respondents were directed to describe their behaviour as a manager and to respond to the items as they actually behave most of the time, not as they might like to behave. The first 60 questions on the survey query the respondents about their own management behaviour based on a five-point scale, from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree.' To analyze the results, the responses to the questions in the survey can be grouped into 12 management competency cluster measures with five questions each. The scoring key (which is not in the public domain), was provided to this researcher by Dr. Cameron, places the responses according to culture type (i.e., Clan, Adhocracy, Market and Hierarchy type cultures). As previously stated, when the data are analyzed according to the process provided by Dr. Cameron, the responses fit into a similar culture profile diagram as that for the OCAI. This is an important aspect of the MSAI design as it allows individuals to compare their management skills with their current and preferred OCAI or organizational culture profiles.

The second group of questions on the survey asks respondents to reflect on their own effectiveness with regards to performing management skills using a five-point scale from 'poor' to 'outstanding.' Finally, the third group of questions asks respondents to consider the importance of management skills on a five-point scale from 'little importance' to 'critically important.' Data from these two remaining questions are presented graphically to allow an assessment of the relationship between perceived effectiveness and importance.

Part 2 – Primary Research Questions

2.1   What is the management skills profile of college administrators at the combined four Ontario colleges surveyed with a numerical score above the system average for Student Satisfaction KPI?

2.2   What is the management skills profile of college administrators at each of the Ontario colleges surveyed with a numerical score above the system average for Student Satisfaction KPI?

This section will describe the management skills culture profiles of the combined colleges and each college in the study. The MSAI profiles are presented in the same fashion on a grid as the OCAI profiles to determine Clan, Adhocracy, Market and Hierarchy culture types.

To interpret the MSAI data collected for this study, dominant culture type, strength and discrepancies are discussed based on the average responses for the 12 competency areas. The average management competency score has the utility of determining the collective perception held by an organization about their management skill in each competency. In this study, the competency areas provide specific information regarding two important aspects of leading an organization. First, the MSAI can be interpreted to determine the level of consistency between management competencies within the leadership group and culture assessment as determined by

the OCAI results. Discussion that links relevant research regarding strong culture, alignment of culture and leading culture related to performance will follow in Chapter 5. Second, the MSAI provides a mechanism to identify the gaps or differences in leadership competencies respective to the current priorities and future goals of the organization. According to Cameron and Quinn (2006), differences in quadrants that are larger than 1.0 are usually statistically significant (p. 126). In the following analysis dominant culture, strength of culture and similarities and differences between combined colleges and each college will be examined.

Figure 21 illustrates the Management Skills profiles of the combined and each college in this study.
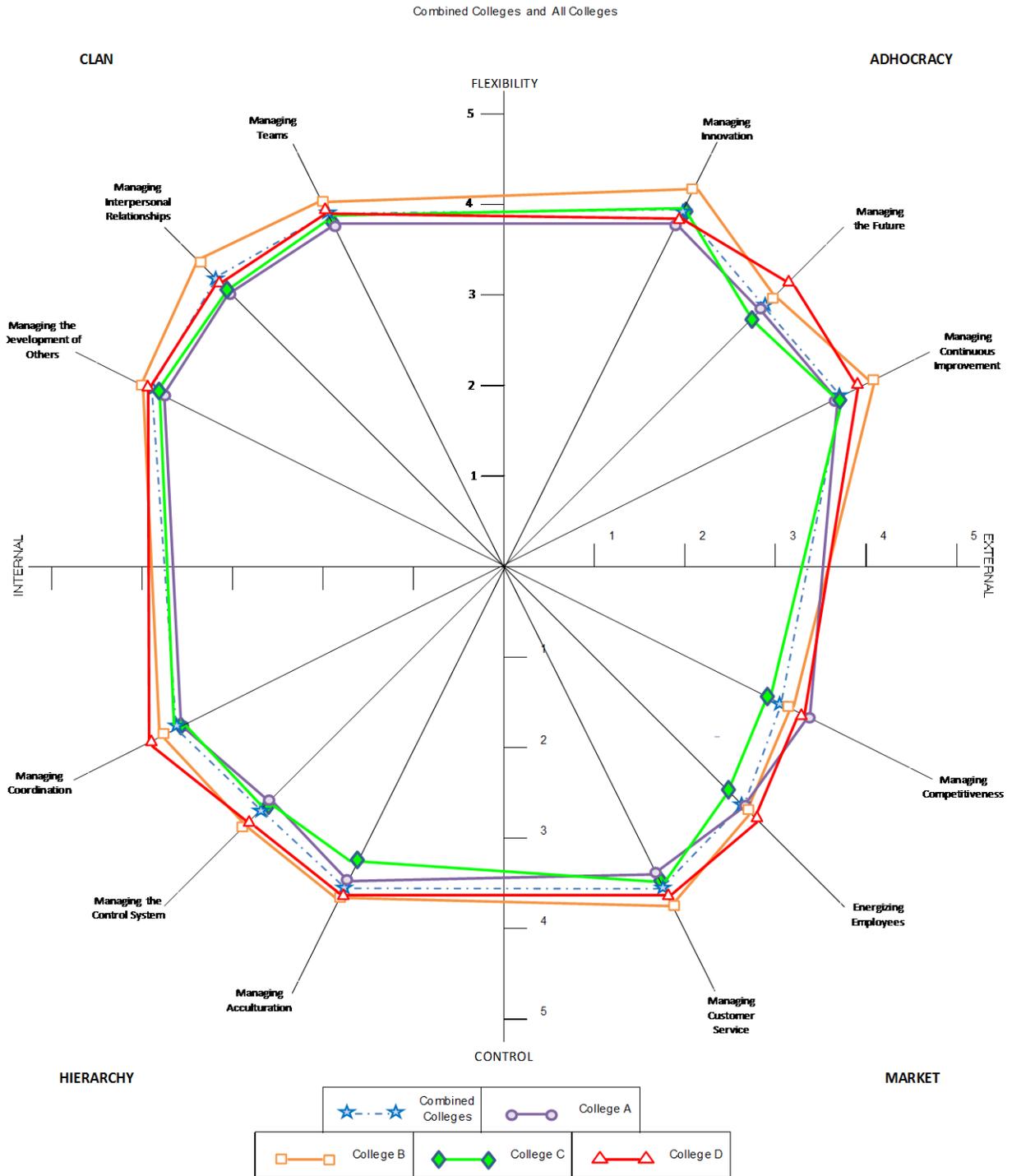
Figure 21. Management Skills Profile for Combined and Each College.

At a quick glance, it is evident that the scores from the combined colleges and each college appear, for the most part, to be very similar when plotted on the MSAI culture profile. Due to the commonality of these plots, Figure 22 has been constructed to provide the reader with another visual view of the data available for analysis. This approach simplifies the visual interpretation of results by competency in order to compare institutions by identifying the higher and lower competency scores on the grid. Administrators at each college can see how their colleges' leadership skills compare with the other colleges in the study to ascertain how their behaviours compare with their peers by competency. This researcher cautions that this approach should not replace the MSAI profile as it will not provide the same visual comparison capability when the results from the OCAI and the MSAI are analyzed at the same time. However, as indicated above, it is helpful in the interpretation of each individual college and the combined data gathered from the MSAI.
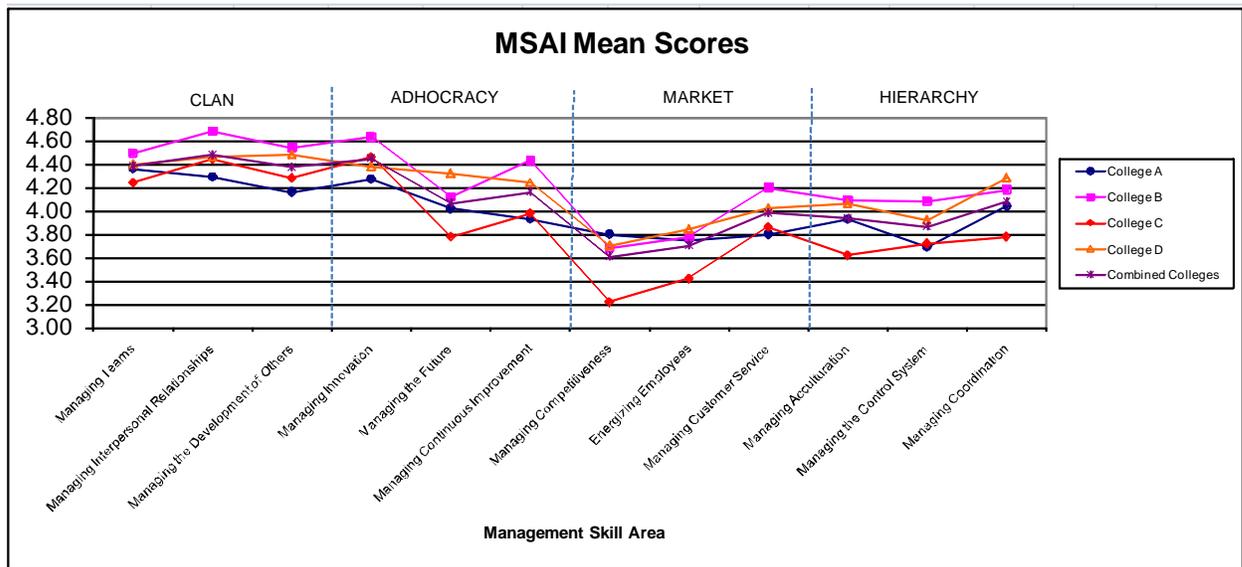
Figure 22. Competency Mean Scores.

This horizontal visual presentation shows that College B self-assessed their management skills to be the highest. For the most part, College C self-assessed their management skills to be the lowest. The first three skills (i.e., the three Clan competencies are rated higher), suggesting these are the most frequently used behaviours by managers. It is clear that the Market competencies are lowest overall, indicating these are the least used behaviours by managers participating in this study. In order to conduct a more comprehensive analysis of the data, Table 19 lists the mean scores by combined colleges and each college.

Table 19

Management Competency Mean

Competency	Combined Colleges	College A	College B	College C	College D
Clan	**4.41**	**4.27**	**4.57**	**4.32**	**4.45**
Managing Teams	4.38	4.36	4.49	4.24	4.40
Managing Interpersonal Relationships	4.48	4.29	4.68	4.44	4.46
Managing the Development of Others	4.37	4.16	4.54	4.28	4.48
Adhocracy	**4.22**	**4.07**	**4.39**	**4.07**	**4.31**
Managing Innovation	4.45	4.27	4.63	4.46	4.38
Managing the Future	4.06	4.02	4.12	3.78	4.32
Managing Continuous Improvement	4.16	3.93	4.43	3.98	4.24
Market	**3.77**	**3.78**	**3.88**	**3.50**	**3.85**
Managing Competitiveness	3.61	3.80	3.68	3.22	3.70
Energizing Employees	3.70	3.75	3.78	3.42	3.84
Managing Customer Service	3.98	3.80	4.20	3.86	4.02
Hierarchy	**3.96**	**3.89**	**4.08**	**3.71**	**4.09**
Managing Acculturation	3.94	3.93	4.09	3.62	4.06
Managing the Control System	3.86	3.69	4.08	3.72	3.92
Managing Coordination	4.08	4.04	4.18	3.78	4.28

———— Indicates highest

———— Indicates lowest

Colleges Combined: Using MSAI data, survey respondents perceive the highest scoring culture type for the combined colleges to be Clan culture type (Mean = 4.41). This management competency culture type result is not surprising as it is consistent with the culture type derived from the OCAI assessment for all colleges combined. Leadership competencies in this quadrant include: facilitators and mentors with a focus on managing teams, interpersonal relationships, and the development of others. The highest single management competency was found to be managing interpersonal relationships (Mean = 4.48), followed by managing innovation (Mean = 4.45), which is one of the Adhocracy culture type competencies. The Adhocracy culture management competency (Mean = 4.22) was the second highest culture type quadrant for the combined college competencies which includes: managing innovation, managing the future, and managing continuous improvement. Administrators chose the Market culture type management competencies (Mean = 3.77) least for combined colleges. Given that the OCAI findings showed administrators wished to increase the Market culture type, the perception of administrators that they have lower management competency in Market type skills may be interpreted as an opportunity to develop enhanced management skills in managing competitiveness, energizing employees, and managing customer service. The OCAI data also indicated a preference to increase the Adhocracy culture type, however, this was the second highest management skill ranked in the MSAI with administrators perceiving a high degree of skill in competencies that would enable an increase in the related values and attributes specific to: innovation, managing the future, and managing continuous improvement.

Colleges A, B, C & D: A high level of consistency was found comparing management competency among each college in the study. Respondents, at all four colleges, reported that their management competencies reflected the Clan culture type and competencies. This indicates a

perception by administrators of management competency with regards to managing teams, managing interpersonal relationships, and managing the development of others. Similarly, for each college, respondents reported that their management competencies reflected least the Market culture type competencies, suggesting they believe they have lower leadership abilities with regards to managing competiveness, energizing employees, and managing customer service. With regards to Hierarchy culture type management competencies (i.e., managing acculturation, managing the control system, and managing coordination) respondents ranked them third.

The highest discrete management competency reported by respondents for combined colleges was Clan type – managing interpersonal relationships (Mean = 4.48). Three of the colleges indicated Clan type competencies as their highest: College A was managing teams (Mean = 4.36); College B was managing interpersonal relationships (Mean = 4.68); and College D was managing the development of others (Mean = 4.48). Conversely, College C indicated managing innovations (Mean = 4.46) was their highest ranked competency.

The lowest discrete management competency reported by respondents for combined colleges was Market type – managing competitiveness (Mean = 3.61). Three of the colleges indicated Market type as their lowest competencies: College B indicated managing competitiveness (Mean = 3.68); College C indicated managing competiveness (Mean = 3.22); and College D indicated managing competitiveness (Mean = 3.70). College A indicated Hierarchy type – managing the control system (Mean = 3.69) as their lowest competency. Although College A was the only college where administrators did not rank managing competiveness as the lowest ranking competency, they did perceive it to be their third lowest competency.

Looking at the discrepancies between the colleges, College B demonstrated a 1.0 difference between Clan type – managing interpersonal relationships (Mean = 4.68) and Market

type – managing competitiveness (Mean = 3.68). College C also demonstrated a greater than 1.0

difference between Adhocracy type – managing innovation (Mean = 4.46) and Market types –

managing competitiveness (Mean = 3.22) and energizing employees at (Mean = 3.42).

The lowest competency indicated in the study was at College C, managing

competitiveness (Mean = 3.22) and the highest competency was managing interpersonal

relationships by College B (Mean = 4.68).   These discrepancies suggest areas where each college

may wish to emphasize management training in the future if there is a need for more or less of

these behaviours to meet the vision and plans for the institution.

Effectiveness and importance. In addition to ranking their own perceptions of their own

management behaviours, respondents were asked to rank their effectiveness in performing the 12

skills as well as the perceived importance of each skill. Figure 23 illustrates the range of average

competency skill for all administrators from a low (Mean = 3.70) to high (Mean = 4.17) average

competency ranking. This represents a .47 difference between the four colleges in the study of

perceived management competency. The average range of importance of these same skills

exhibited a range from low (Mean = 4.02) to high (Mean = 4.28), representing a .26 difference.

College	Managerial Effectiveness Self-Rating	Importance Information
College A	3.87	4.22
College B	3.90	4.16
College C	4.17	4.28
College D	3.70	4.02
Combined Colleges	3.91	4.17
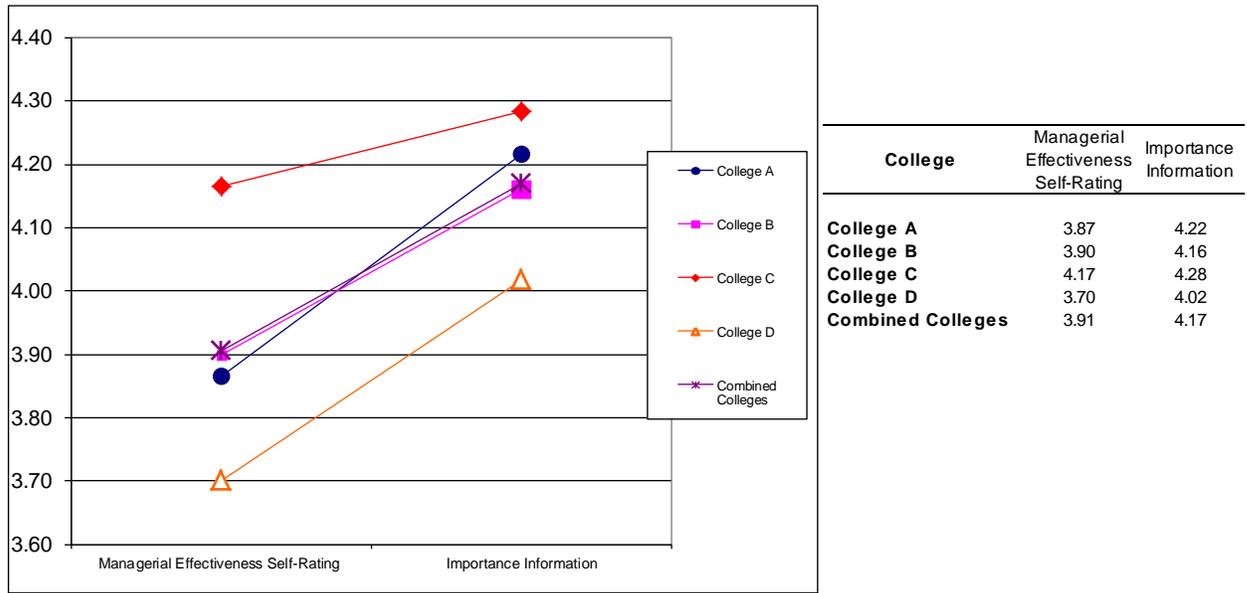
Figure 23. Perceptions of Effectiveness and Importance of Competency Skills.

This researcher was unable to find other examples where effectiveness and importance data have been used in other related studies. In subsequent professional contact with Dr. Cameron, he advised:

Self-ratings of effectiveness and ratings of importance of the management skills were designed primarily for teaching purposes. That is, these items have not previously been utilized in research studies but have been included in the instrument in order to provide participants some comparison feedback. If, for example, someone rates a management skill as being very important but scores low in competency, it provides a target for potential personal improvement. The trouble is, virtually all of the skills are rated as important most of the time, so the importance ratings have become much less central in our teaching. The self-ratings of personal effectiveness merely provide a benchmark against which to compare the actual competency scores. If someone rates himself or

herself as very effective, but the actual behavioural rating scales do not confirm this, it provides another area for potential development. The first 60 items are the ones that matter the most (Personal Communication, May, 2, 2011).

In summary, this chapter focused on reporting the data from the survey of four colleges in order to examine the perceptions held by college administrators about their institution's current and preferred organizational culture and their own individual and collective management competencies. Data was presented and analyzed for current and preferred views of administrators collected from the OCAI and MSAI to describe the culture profiles and management skills profiles of colleges combined and each of the four colleges in the study. Culture type, strength, main dimensions, congruence, and discrepancy of culture profiles were analyzed. In addition, the profiles from this study were compared with the Public Administration profile of over 1000 companies. Culture profiles were created based on gender and years of experience to assess the impact of these two variables on administrator responses.   Descriptions of the organizational culture at the combined colleges and each of the four colleges were created.

The results for combined college data support a clear view that the administrators currently perceive a "collaborative" Clan type culture with a considerable Hierarchy "controlling" influence. The study also shows administrators looking to the future with a desire for much less control and for more creativity, given their expressed affinity for both the Clan and Adhocracy culture types. The largest discrepancy between current and preferred scores was found to favour the Adhocracy culture type. In the current state, differences in culture type were found in the individual colleges. One of the colleges in this study had a similar culture type profile to the combined colleges. However, two colleges had a dominant Market culture type and one college had a dominant Hierarchy culture type. Some difference was found by gender and years of

experience of administrators, with female respondents favouring a Clan approach and younger respondents favouring less Hierarchy. Finally, management skill profiles and a self-assessment of the effectiveness and importance of 12 key management competencies provided insight into the behaviours most frequently used, their effect and the perceived importance of these competencies by administrators participating in this study.

In concluding the data analysis, this researcher had anticipated more consistency of culture types at the four colleges participating in the study. On the other hand, the results collectively indicate a desire for a different culture looking forward to the future, which will require considerable change at three of the four colleges. These findings are not surprising considering the solid support found in the literature about higher education institutions and their need to respond to the influences of globalization, and to such related factors as the emergence of the knowledge society, aging professoriate, and financial constraints (Skolnik, 2003; Hargreaves, 2003; Duderstadt, 2005; Roueche, et al., 2008; Fullan and Scott, 2009; Clark, et al., 2009). What is of some surprise is a slight decrease in preference for a Market type culture considering the rise of accountability frameworks in Ontario colleges over the last 15 years.

The results presented in this chapter will be discussed further in Chapter 5 concluding with a discussion about the linkage between the organizational culture results derived from the OCAI, and management competency results from the MSAI, with a focus on implications for change.

Chapter 5: Discussion

Introduction

The main purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions held by college administrators about their institution's organizational culture and their own management skills. The goal is to better understand Ontario college organizational culture and how leadership can affect change given the increased complexity of global and demographic forces and demands for accountability. This study is based on self-assessment of organizational culture and management skills by 44 administrators at four Ontario colleges which achieved a numerical score above the system average for Student Satisfaction KPI during the period of 2004/05-2008/09.

A descriptive research method was employed based on the Competing Values Framework (Cameron & Ettington, 1988), widely recognized as the dominant model in quantitative research about organizational culture (Kwan & Walker, 2004). Data were gathered from a survey with modified versions of Cameron and Quinn's (2006) Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) and Management Skills Assessment Instrument (MSAI) which are based on the Competing Values Framework (CVF).

The study contributed to the knowledge about current organizational cultures at Ontario colleges as perceived by administrators. The study also contributed to the knowledge about how the same administrators would like their organization's culture to look in the future. Information about administrators' self-assessed management competencies was also found and contributed to the knowledge about what management behaviours were dominant in the four institutions. Finally, the study examined the applicability of Cameron and Quinn's OCAI and MSAI for assessing organizational culture in Ontario colleges, and identified implications for leading institutional change.

Although this study is primarily descriptive, by examining college culture and management competencies at Ontario institutions with a high level of student satisfaction, this researcher sought to provide comparators for colleges that have aspirations to improve their own performance and explore the potential link between organizational culture assessment, change management and improved performance. It is my personal belief that this may be the most consequential outcome of the study, as these results may help guide college leaders who seek to improve performance by highlighting the importance of understanding organizational culture and management abilities through formal assessment. Recommendations in this chapter are made based on the perceptions of the respondent college administrators about their current organizational culture, the culture they would prefer to see in the future, and their self-assessment of management skills, in order to:

- encourage organizations to conduct an organizational culture assessment;

- encourage organizations to conduct a management skills inventory; and,

- encourage organizations to embrace their individual potential for change and their collective potential for managerial improvement.

Chapter 5 is organized to briefly reintroduce the reader to the background context of this study followed by a summary of findings, a discussion of the results, and the potential implications organized by two main research questions: 1) What are the current and preferred organizational culture type profiles of each of the colleges and the combined colleges in the study with an above average score for Student Satisfaction KPI; and 2) What are the current management skills of administrators for each of the colleges and the combined colleges in the study? The chapter ends with conclusions and implications for practice based on the findings, limitations of the study, and suggestions for future research.

Discussion

Inter-connecting Themes Advancing the Need for Culture Assessment

Three inter-connecting themes were put forward in the first chapter of this thesis as key to advancing the need for culture assessment. These three themes are: 1) the key trends or forces that impact higher education today and how they influence culture; 2) the current focus on college performance measures and accountability initiated by governments and the implications of same for culture and management; and 3) the need for culture assessment tools that senior college leaders can use to understand and describe the culture of their organization and, where necessary, develop strategies for change. Findings from the literature review discussed in Chapter 2 demonstrated strong support for the existence of three inter-connecting themes and their influence on higher education today. These three themes, along with other scholarly work examined in the literature review, will be re-introduced in this chapter based on relevance to the findings of this study.

Summary of the Findings

The following is a brief summary of the findings presented in Chapter 4. These will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

Part 1: Organizational Culture Assessment

Culture Type. Combined Colleges in the current state demonstrated: a dominant Clan/Hierarchy culture profile reflecting a prevalence of stability and control along with internal focus and integration; no meaningful discrepancy (i.e., differences of greater than 10 points) between the current and preferred culture types, although the difference between the current Hierarchy and preferred Hierarchy is noteworthy; Clan type –

Organizational Glue as the highest cultural dimension; and Lack of Congruence (alignment of three or less cultural content dimensions).

Combined colleges in the future state favoured: a stronger dominant Clan culture with much less Hierarchy, reflecting a preference for flexibility and discretion along with a similar internal focus and integration; uniquely strong culture (discrepancy of more than 10 points) for Clan over Market and Hierarchy culture types; no meaningful discrepancy between the current and preferred culture types; Clan type - Management of Employees as the highest cultural dimension; and Strong Congruence (alignment of four or more cultural content dimensions).

College A in the current state demonstrated: a dominant Market/Hierarchy culture profile, reflecting a prevalence of stability and control, along with internal focus and integration; no meaningful discrepancy between the current and preferred culture types; Market type – Organizational Leadership as the highest cultural dimension; and Lack of Congruence.

College A in the preferred state favoured: a dominant Clan culture with external focus and differentiation, along with flexibility and discretion; uniquely strong Clan over Hierarchy culture types; no meaningful discrepancy between the current and preferred culture types; Clan type – Management of Employees as the highest cultural dimension; and Strong Congruence.

College B in the current state demonstrated: a dominant Clan culture, reflecting a prevalence of flexibility and discretion, along with internal focus and integration; uniquely strong Clan over Market and Hierarchy culture types; no meaningful discrepancy between the current and preferred culture types; Clan type – Management of Employees as the

highest cultural dimension; and Total Congruence (i.e., all six cultural dimensions are the same).

College B in the preferred state favoured: a dominant Clan culture, with flexibility and discretion, along with internal focus and integration; uniquely strong Clan over Market and Hierarchy, as well as Adhocracy over Hierarchy culture types; no meaningful discrepancy between the current and preferred culture types; Clan type – Management of Employees as the highest cultural dimension; and Strong Congruence.

College C in the current state demonstrated: a dominant Hierarchy culture, reflecting a prevalence of flexibility and discretion, along with internal focus and integration; uniquely strong culture was found for Hierarchy over Adhocracy and Market, as well as Clan over Adhocracy and Market culture types; meaningful discrepancy between the current state Hierarchy and preferred state Hierarchy culture types, although the difference between the current state Adhocracy and preferred state Hierarchy is noteworthy; Hierarchy type – Organizational Leadership was the highest cultural dimension; and Strong Congruence.

College C in the preferred state favoured: a dominant Clan culture, with flexibility and discretion, along with internal focus and integration; uniquely strong Clan over Market and Hierarchy culture types; meaningful discrepancy between the current Hierarchy and preferred Hierarchy culture types; Clan type – Management of Employees as the highest cultural dimension; and Strong Congruence.

College D in the current state demonstrated: a dominant Market culture, reflecting prevalence of stability and control, along with external focus and discretion; meaningful discrepancy between the current and preferred Clan and Hierarchy culture types; Market

type – Management of Employees was the highest cultural dimension; and Strong Congruence.

College D in the preferred state favoured: a dominant Clan culture with flexibility and discretion, along with external focus and differentiation; uniquely strong Clan over Market and Hierarchy, as well as Adhocracy over Hierarchy culture types; meaningful discrepancy between the current and preferred Hierarchy and Clan culture types as well; the difference between the current and preferred Adhocracy, as well as Market, are both noteworthy; Clan type – Organizational Glue as the highest cultural dimension; and Strong Congruence.

Culture Comparisons. The Public Administration (PA) organizational culture profile, as described by Cameron and Quinn (2006, p. 78), demonstrated a dominant Hierarchy culture type with a controlling orientation. College C was the only college in the study with a similar current dominant Hierarchy culture profile, reflecting a more controlling, collaborating and less competitive orientation than PA. Uniquely strong Hierarchy culture was found in both PA and College C. Similarity was also found in prevalence of stability and control between PA, Colleges A and D, whereas Colleges B and C demonstrated flexibility and discretion. Also, PA, Colleges A, B, and C all demonstrated an internal focus and integration, whereas College D demonstrated an external focus and differentiation.

Males demonstrated a current state dominant Hierarchy culture with stability and control, along with internal focus and integration; whereas, females demonstrated a dominant Clan culture with flexibility and discretion, along with internal focus and

integration. Uniquely strong culture was found in the female culture profile for Clan over Market.

In the future, both males and females favoured a dominant Clan culture with flexibility and discretion, along with internal focus and integration. Uniquely strong culture was found in the female culture profile for Clan over Market and Hierarchy, as well as Adhocracy over Hierarchy culture types.

Administrators with less than six years' experience demonstrated a dominant Hierarchy culture type, whereas administrators with six to twenty years' experience demonstrated a dominant Clan culture type in the current state. All three categories of years of experience favoured a dominant Clan culture type in the future.

Part 2 – Management Skills Inventory

Combined colleges' management skills profile demonstrated Clan type skills as the behaviours used most frequently by administrators. This was followed (in order of second highest to lowest frequency) by Adhocracy, Hierarchy, and Market type competencies. Managing Interpersonal Relations was ranked as the most frequently used competency cluster and Managing Competitiveness was found to be the least used competency cluster overall.

The results demonstrated a high level of consistency between the management skills profile of college administrators at Colleges A, B, C, and D who all ranked Clan type competencies as the most frequently used behaviours, followed by Adhocracy, Hierarchy and Market type competencies. Of all 12 competency clusters, the highest ranked competency was: Managing Teams for College A; Managing Interpersonal Relationships for College B; Managing Innovation for College C; and Managing the

Development of Others for College D. The lowest management competency for Colleges

B, C and D was Managing Competitiveness, whereas College A ranked Managing the

Control System as the lowest.

Organizational Culture and Management Skills

This study shows administrators from the four colleges combined revealed a dominant

Clan type culture with considerable Hierarchy type culture influence in the current state. The

profile reflects a collaborative and controlling organization that focuses more on internal

activities and integration versus external activities and differentiation, and focuses more on

stability and control than flexibility and discretion. The study also shows that two colleges in the

study have similar, yet differing, dominant Market type cultures; one college has a dominant

Hierarchy type culture and the other has a dominant Clan type culture.

Interestingly, although differences in culture were found in terms of the colleges' current

states, this study has also shown that administrators at each of the four colleges in the study

uniformly prefer a Clan type culture and have very similar preferences about what they wish their

organizational culture to be in the future.

Prior to discussing the implications of this study in further detail, it is important to

underscore the considerable debate found within the literature about whether there is a 'right' or

'wrong' organizational culture. A wide variety of organizational culture values and attributes

have been explored by researchers such as Cameron and Ettington (1988), Martin (1992), Trice

and Beyer (1993), Cameron (1997, 2006), Sathe (1993), Kotter and Heskett (1992), Deal (1993),

Deal and Kennedy (1993), and others over the past decades. Cameron and Quinn (2006) also

weigh into the debate regarding the number of dimensions and what dimensions should be

considered in assessing organizational culture. They suggest this issue is related to the very broad

and inclusive nature of organizational culture and that dimensions of assessment must be considered within a context that examines the extent to which culture matches the demands of the competitive environment. This researcher supports the position that culture type must be considered with the context of each individual organization's environment. Thus, the research findings from this study are intended to provide examples of organizational culture at four Ontario colleges so one can build on the knowledge and understanding about organizational culture at Ontario colleges. In essence, this research has purposely been designed to enable a discussion about how assessment can assist organizations through the complex, interrelated, comprehensive, and ambiguous set of factors behind the values and attributes that shape their organizational culture. Functionally, through culture assessment, a greater understanding of an institution's organizational culture, in the current and preferred states, can help administrators manage more effectively in these increasingly complex times of globalization and changing postsecondary priorities.

Current culture type and management skills. The following section of this discussion combines the results from the OCAI and MSAI to describe the characteristics of organizational culture and management skills of the combined colleges and each of the four colleges participating in the study. By linking the two diagnostic assessment results and interpreting the data in terms of commonly used leadership and organizational development language, a more applied description of the results is used to address the two primary questions of culture type and management skills. The intent is to begin to demystify some of the complexities around organizational culture.

Dominant culture type overview. Organizational culture type was found to differ in the current state among the four colleges participating in this study. This outcome is somewhat the

reverse of what this researcher had expected to discover. Given the criteria to participate in the study required all of the colleges to have a numerical score above the system average for Student Satisfaction KPI, a more consistent result had been anticipated. Intuitively, the sense was that there would be more commonality of organizational culture among the participating institutions given their ability to meet the needs of their students was demonstrably higher, based on the KPIs, than the average of peer institutions. It is important to note Student Satisfaction is only one of the KPIs measured at Ontario colleges addressed in this study. Further research, comparing performance of all five KPIs and organizational culture at all Ontario colleges, would be beneficial to developing a more comprehensive assessment of performance and help us to understand more about individual college culture. This design may allow us to isolate whether students can be satisfied in different organizational cultures, which may be the case.

The findings show College A to have a dominant Market culture type with considerable Hierarchy influence. College D revealed a dominant Market culture type. Dominant Clan type culture was found at College B and dominant Hierarchy type culture was found at College C. A closer look at the profiles revealed both College A and College D were more focused on the CVF dimension of stability and control, whereas College B and College C were more focused on flexibility and discretion. Only College D was more focused on external and differentiation, whereas all three other colleges were more focused on internal and integration. Finally, College B and College C demonstrated uniquely strong cultures.

Clearly, the four colleges in this study do indeed have their own unique organizational culture in the current state. However, the similarity of dominant Clan type management skills found at each of the four institutions raises questions in light of the varied organizational culture types.

Management skill type overview. Management skills were examined in this study to complement an examination of college organizational cultures. As previously discussed, the MSAI profiles for all four colleges in the study were found to be very similar based on: the most frequently used facilitator/mentor behaviours and actions of Clan culture type competencies; the second most frequently used innovator/visionary behaviours and actions of Adhocracy culture type competencies; the third most frequently used monitor/coordinator behaviours and actions of Hierarchy culture type competencies; and the least frequently used competitor and producer behaviours and actions of Market culture type management competencies.

Comparison of the 12 MSAI discrete management competencies revealed three of the colleges rated Clan type management competencies as their most used competencies: College A – Managing Teams; College B – Managing Interpersonal Relationships; and College D – Managing the Development of Others. In comparison, College C scored Adhocracy type – Managing Innovations as their most used discrete management competency out of the 12 competencies measured. Differences were also found when comparing the least used discrete management competency with Colleges B, C and D, rating Market type – Managing Competiveness as their least used competency. College A rated Hierarchy type – Managing the Control System as their least used competency. The least used competency indicated in the study was at College C, Managing Competitiveness, and the most used competency was Managing Interpersonal Relationships by College B.

These results suggest some merit in focusing on increasing the skill of Managing Competiveness at all four colleges. This is based on the findings that college administrators at each of the participating colleges identified this as their lowest competency. Development of such competencies would depend on whether or not the institution felt they wanted to become

more competitive. Based on population projections for the next 10 years, signals have come from the Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities that there will be a downturn in postsecondary enrolment in the future which may cause increased competition for students.

Self-assessment of effectiveness and importance. The self-assessment of effectiveness results revealed little difference regarding management competencies for combined colleges participating in the study. The rating of the importance of these management competencies also revealed very little difference between the four colleges. In addition, the results demonstrated very little difference between the average effectiveness and the average importance scores. Overall, these findings are consistent with the observations of Dr. Cameron (Personal Communication, May 2, 2011), who advised this researcher that he used self-assessment of effectiveness and importance analysis for teaching and coaching purposes for individuals interested in improving their own management competencies.

The following provides a more detailed discussion of the findings for the combined colleges and each college in the study, addressing overall characteristics of organizational culture, roles for managing human resources, leadership types, and self-assessed management skills, based on the work of Cameron and Quinn (2006).

Combined colleges culture type and management skill type. The study results show combined colleges have a dominant Clan/Hierarchy culture. Primarily, Clan organizations are characterized as having a collaborative orientation (Cameron & Quinn, 2006, p. 46). They are friendly places to work, people think of the organization as an extended family, and leaders are often thought of as mentors or even parent figures. Commitment, based on loyalty or tradition, is high and the long-term benefit of human resource development is often aligned with morale and cohesion. Customer satisfaction and concern for people defines success through valued

teamwork, participation and consensus (p. 66). In contrast, Hierarchy organizations are characterized as having a controlling orientation (p. 46). They represent formal and structured places to work with procedures directing what people do. Leaders take pride in their coordination and organization skills valuing efficiency and focusing on a smooth-running organization as critical. The long-term concern is on stability and performance through efficient smooth operations. Dependable delivery, smooth-scheduling and low cost defines success, through management of employees with secure employment and predictability (p. 66).

The visibility of an almost equal Clan/Hierarchy culture profile for the combined colleges reflects strength of internal focus and integration as opposed to an external focus and differentiation dimension. The combined colleges' focus on internal maintenance with flexibility reflects concern for people, and sensitivity to customers, balanced between a need for stability and control and implies less concern for external positioning (p. 67). This strength of internal focus and integration creates a common ground for the pull between the Clan and Hierarchy values revealed in the survey.

Due to the influence of the different characteristics of Clan/Hierarchy organizational types, the described roles for managing human resources suggest leaders would play both the role of employee champion (commonly found in a Clan) and administrative specialist (commonly found in a Hierarchy) type organizations (p. 52). The outcome, in a Clan type organization, is cohesion and commitment through responding to employee needs, whereas the outcome in a Hierarchy type organization is efficient infrastructure through reengineering processes (p. 52). Leaders' responsiveness to employees through structured processes might result in a pull between both individuality and flexibility, and the need for predictability and common solutions.

Further consideration of the evidence of a strong pull between stability and control, and

flexibility and discretion reinforces the importance of looking at the four colleges combined in this study even though this scenario does not represent a real institution. It is this researcher's belief that the combined result from these colleges manifests the overall pressures where academic institutions are caught between respecting the traditional values of academia and the need to strengthen accountability and performance. This challenge is often discussed among academics today and causes conflict in direction and scope of practice at academic institutions (Fisher and Rubenson, 1998). This conflict is compounded in light of the results from the Clan type management skills reported by administrators in self-assessment, contrasting with the Clan/Hierarchy organizational culture. This juxtaposition will be discussed further as it relates to each of the individual colleges; however, in analyzing the combined college results it is relevant to point out that Cameron and Quinn (2006) describe the theory of effectiveness for a Clan type organization to be "human development and participation produce effectiveness," which differs from a Hierarchy type organization where "control and efficiency with capable processes produce effectiveness" (p. 46). Leadership in Clan type organizations is described as "facilitator, mentor and team builder," whereas leadership is "coordinator, monitor and organizer" in a Hierarchy type organization (p. 46).

As previously mentioned in the results from the self-assessed management skills, administrator perceptions for the combined colleges revealed dominant use of Clan type management competencies, ranking their behaviour and actions as facilitators and mentors between 'very good' and 'outstanding' with Hierarchy type as the third most frequently used competency, ranking their actions and behaviours as monitors and coordinators as just below 'very good.'

Clan management skills are characterized as having a focus on managing teams, interpersonal relationships, and development of others. The profile of a facilitator is someone who is oriented towards people and process, manages conflict and seeks consensus, uses influence to get people involved in decision making and problem solving, and actively pursues participation and openness. The profile of a mentor is someone who is caring and empathetic, aware of others and cares for their needs, uses influence based on respect and trust, and actively pursues morale and commitment (p. 128).

Hierarchy type competencies are characterized as having a focus on managing coordination, managing the control system and managing acculturation. The profile of a monitor is someone who is technically experienced and well informed. A monitor is known to be detail focused and to contribute expertise, use their influence based on information control, and actively pursue documentation and information management. The profile of a coordinator is someone who is dependable and reliable, maintains structure and workflow, uses influence based on situational engineering, managing schedules, giving assignments, physical layout, etc., and actively pursues stability and control (p. 128).

The result of a dominant Clan/Hierarchy current organizational culture type is discussed further in the section on preferred organizational culture.   The preferred results demonstrate a shift to meaningfully strong Clan and Adhocracy, with a considerable decrease of Hierarchy culture type in the future. One might question whether administrators are overestimating their ability to change in the future or the reality of the self-assessment respective to the contradictory current organizational cultures revealed at three of the colleges.

Adhocracy type management competencies were assessed to be the second most frequently used competencies by combined college administrators, ranking their behaviours and

actions as innovators and visionaries as above 'very good' and below 'outstanding.' These competencies focus on managing innovation, managing the future, and managing continuous improvement. The profile of an innovator is someone who is clever and creative, envisions change, uses influence based on anticipation of a better future and hope, and actively pursues innovation and adaptation. The profile of a visionary is someone who is future-orientated in their thinking, focuses on where the organization is going, emphasizes possibilities and probabilities, and is known for a style that embraces strategic direction and continual improvement of current activities (p. 128). It is noteworthy that in the organizational culture profile for combined colleges, Adhocracy type organizational culture was the lowest ranked quadrant. This reinforces further the discrepancy between the perception of organizational culture and management skills by administrators.

The lowest frequently used management competencies for combined colleges were Market type, with administrators ranking their behaviours and actions as competitors and producers as 'above average' and just below 'very good.' Market competencies are characterized as having a focus on managing competitiveness, energizing employees, and managing customer service. The profile of a competitor is someone who is aggressive and decisive, actively pursuing goals and targets, energized by competitive actions, dominated by winning, and focused on competitors and marketplace position. The profile of a Market culture producer is someone who is task-orientated, work focused, gets things done through hard work, uses influence based on intensity and rational arguments around accomplishing things, and actively pursues productivity (p. 128).

The lowest management competency out of the 12 discrete skills was also Market type – Managing Competitiveness, for combined colleges. The reflection that competitiveness is not

valued as highly in the preferred state by combined administrators in this study could be grounded

in a number of speculative reasons that would require further investigation. A simple explanation

may be that administrators do not use the behaviour that values competitiveness enough. Another

reason could be that colleges don't really compete thanks to government funding and a primary

dependence on local markets for registration. As competition mounts in the future, combined

with strong messages from the Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities requesting

colleges to identify their specialization/distinction, colleges may be forced to become more

competitive.

  College A culture type and management skill type. College A revealed a dominant

Market type culture with considerable Hierarchy type influence. According to Cameron and

Quinn (2006), Market type organizations are characterized to have a competitive orientation (p.

46). College A can be described as results-orientated with competitive and goal-orientated

people, whose major concern is getting the job done. In this culture type, leaders are considered

to be tough and demanding hard drivers, producers and competitors. The organization sticks

together through an emphasis on winning, along with reputation and success as common

concerns. Goals and targets are measured to achieve a long-term focus on competitive actions.

Market share and penetration are measures of success and competitive pricing and market

leadership are considered important. Overall the style is best described as hard-driving

competitiveness (p. 66).

  College A also revealed an almost equally strong influence of Hierarchy and Market types

in their organizational culture profile. As described above, the orientation of a Hierarchy culture

is controlling, with leaders who coordinate, monitor and organize (p. 46). The values of

efficiency, timeliness, consistency and uniformity could complement the value drivers of the

Market type culture values of market share, goal achievement and profitability. The theory of effectiveness in a Market type culture is that aggressive competitive and customer focus produces effectiveness, whereas control and efficiency with capable process are the theory behind effectiveness in a Hierarchy culture type (p. 46).

Both Market and Hierarchy type cultures reflect prevalence to stability and control, resulting in College A scoring the highest value indicated for stability and control of the four colleges in the study, as well as the second lowest score for flexibility and discretion. College A can be described as having a focus on internal maintenance with a need for stability and control (p. 67).

The values for managing human resources at College A indicate the human resource roles are both strategic business partner and administrative specialist, as found in a Market type organization, and administrative specialist, as found in a Hierarchy type organization. Human resource strategies are based on aligning human resource with business strategy and reengineering processes to achieve outcomes of bottom-line impacts and efficient infrastructure (p. 52). The characteristics found in the combination of Market type and Hierarchy type human resources management is more aligned than that found in the combined colleges, as Market and Hierarchy are both grounded in the stability and control with respective outcomes of efficient infrastructure and bottom line impacts.

However, an examination of the reported management skills at College A were found to be inconsistent with the Market/Hierarchy organization culture type found in their current state. Administrators ranked Clan management type competencies (depicting their facilitator/mentor behaviours and actions) as most frequently used, followed by Adhocracy type competencies (depicting their innovator/visionary behaviours and actions), Hierarchy type competencies

(depicting their monitor/coordinator behaviours and actions), and finally, Market type

competencies (depicting their competitor and produce behaviours and actions) as least used (p.

128). Out of the 12 MSAI discrete competencies considered, College A indicated Clan type –

Managing Teams was the most frequently used and Hierarchy type – Managing the Control

System as the least frequently used. Given the strength of Market and Hierarchy in the

organizational profile, it would be valuable for College A to consider their self-assessment of

management skills as facilitator and mentor over competitor and producer to determine whether

the self-assessment accurately represents their current skills or is a better indication of what they

might prefer their skills to be in an altruistic world without the external environmental pressures

that are impacting their institution. Otherwise, there is a need to determine how the

organizational culture and the management skills can come into alignment in the current state.

These comments apply to College D and College C, who also have reported different dominant

organizational cultures and management skills. However, as indicated, the preferred dominant

cultures, which will be discussed later, are Clan type also.

   College D culture type and management skill type. College D demonstrated a dominant

Market type culture suggesting a similar organization to College A, although with less Hierarchy

type culture influence. College D's organizational culture is characterized as having a competing

orientation (p. 46). College D can be described as more results-orientated with competitive and

goal-orientated people, whose major concern is getting the job done. Leaders are predominantly

tough and demanding hard drivers, producers and competitors. The organization sticks together

through an emphasis on winning, along with reputation and success as common concerns. Goals

and targets are measured to achieve a long-term focus on competitive actions. Market share and

penetration are measures of success, and competitive pricing and market leadership are

considered important. Overall, the style is best described as hard-driving competitiveness (p. 66).

College D, like College A, also demonstrated a high value on stability and control, although their focus is primarily on external and differentiation. In the current state, College D is the only college with this focus, characterized as an organization that focuses on external positioning with a need for stability and control (p. 67). College D demonstrated the highest value of competitiveness in the study and had the lowest value of flexibility and discretion. This is consistent with the theory of effectiveness for a Market type organizational culture, which is embedded in the belief that aggressively competing and customer focus produce effectiveness (p. 46).

The values for managing human resources at College D suggest the human resource role as one of strategic business partner. Human resource means are based on aligning human resource with business strategy to achieve outcomes of bottom-line impacts (p. 52).

Management skills at College D were found inconsistent with the Market organization culture type found in their current state, even though this result is consistent with the Clan type management skill profile found at the other three colleges. Administrators ranked Clan management type competencies (depicting their facilitator/mentor behaviours and actions) as most frequently used, followed by Adhocracy type competencies (depicting their innovator/visionary behaviours and actions), Hierarchy type competencies (depicting their monitor/coordinator behaviours and actions) and, finally, Market type competencies (depicting their competitor and producer behaviours and actions) as least used (p. 128). Out of the 12 MSAI discrete competencies considered, College D indicated Clan type – Managing the Development of Others was the most frequently used and Market type – Managing the Competiveness was their least frequently used. Like College A, the ranking of these self-assessed

management skills does not align with the same administrators' perception of their current organizational culture.

It is interesting to note that College A and College D had the highest Student Satisfaction KPI of the four institutions participating. Considering the strong Market type culture at both these institutions, one might consider their orientation is best suited to their current environmental situations. This may also suggest their commitment to customers, which is a principle value of a Market-type organization, is more pronounced in their leadership behaviours than what administrators reported in the management skills self-assessment and is worthy of further discussion at College D.

College B culture type and management skill type. College B demonstrated a dominant Clan type organization which can be characterized as having a collaborative orientation (p. 46). College B can be described as a friendly, sharing organization where leaders are facilitators, mentors and team builders. The organization sticks together through commitment, communication and development of human resources. There is a great deal of importance on cohesion and morale, with success measured in terms of sensitivity to customers and concern for people (p. 66). The theory of effectiveness is based on human development and participation produce effectiveness (p. 46). The Clan type culture was found to be uniquely strong over both Market and Hierarchy culture types, with Adhocracy culture type as the second strongest quadrant revealing a creative orientation. Unlike College A and College D, College B has a strong organizational focus on internal maintenance with flexibility, concern for people and sensitivity to customers (p. 67). However, they also have the lowest value of stability and control.

The values for managing human resources at College B suggest the human resource role

as one of employee champion. Human resource means are based on responding to employee needs to achieve cohesion, commitment and capability (p. 52).

Although College B revealed similar management skills as the other colleges, College B was the only college with a consistent Clan type organizational culture and management skills. Administrators ranked the Clan management type competencies (depicting their facilitator/mentor behaviours and actions) as most frequently used, followed by Adhocracy type competencies (depicting their innovator/visionary behaviours and actions), Hierarchy type competencies (depicting their monitor/coordinator behaviours and actions), and finally, Market type competencies (depicting their competitor and produce behaviours and actions) as least used (p. 128). Out of the 12 MSAI discrete competencies considered, College B indicated Clan type – Managing Interpersonal Relations was the most frequently used and Market type – Managing the Competiveness was their least frequently used. These management skills are strongly aligned with their perception of their current organizational culture.

The strong affiliation between the type of management skills and organizational culture found at College B is an indication of alignment, which is supported by scholars such as Cameron and Quinn (2006), Smart and St. John (1996), as an indication of effectiveness. Others, such as Trice and Beyer (1993), caution that in a dynamic environment, such alignment could create complacency. Homogeneity of effort will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

College C culture type and management skill type. College C demonstrated a dominant Hierarchy type organization, which can be characterized as a controlling orientation (p. 46). This college can be described as a very formal and structured place to work. Processes direct the work that is done and leaders take pride in being good coordinators, monitors and organizers. The theory of effectiveness in a Hierarchy type culture is that control and efficiency with capable

processes produce effectiveness (p. 66). Uniquely strong Hierarchy over Adhocracy and Market, as well as uniquely strong Clan over Adhocracy and Market culture types are indications that College C placed the highest value found in the study on the internal and integration dimension. This reflects an organization that focuses on internal maintenance along with flexibility, concern for people, and sensitivity to customers (p. 67). College C also had the lowest value of Market and Adhocracy, which represents less emphasis on competing and creating attributes.

The values found for managing human resources at College C suggest the human resource role as one of administrative specialist and employee champion. Human resource strategies are based on reengineering processes and responding to employee needs to achieve efficient infrastructure and cohesion, commitment and capability (p. 52).

Management skills at College C were found inconsistent with the Hierarchy organization culture type found in their current state. Administrators ranked Clan management type competencies (depicting their facilitator/mentor behaviours and actions) as most frequently used, followed by Adhocracy type competencies (depicting their innovator/visionary behaviours and actions), Hierarchy type competencies (depicting their monitor/coordinator behaviours and actions), and finally, Market type competencies (depicting their competitor and produce behaviours and actions) as least used (p. 128). Out of the 12 MSAI discrete competencies, College C indicated Adhocracy type – Managing Innovations was the most frequently used and Market type – Managing the Competiveness was their least frequently used. These management skills do not align with the theory of effectiveness of Hierarchy type organizations which are embedded in the thinking that control and efficiency with capable processes produce effectiveness. Further, College C's indication of having stronger Adhocracy skills than what is found in their organizational culture, as well as the very low ranking for value of competitiveness

in this increasingly competitive environment, suggests both of these results are worthy of further discussion at College C.

Relevance to research. A comparison of the similarities and differences between 'like' types of organizations, such as the four colleges in this study, allows for the expansion of the interpretative capacity of culture types generally. This provides an opportunity for organizations, such as other Ontario and Canadian colleges, to examine how their organizational values and attributes compare to other similar organizations based on culture type, strength, congruence and discrepancy. The results from this thesis were consistent with a study conducted by Berrio (2003). Through use of the OCAI by 227 Continuing Education Ohio State University faculty, support staff and administrators, who provided service to students, Berrio found the department to have a dominant Clan type organizational culture. The Berrio study was conducted at one institution and the sample included the full range of employees. In contrast, this study surveyed 44 administrators at four different colleges in Ontario. Overall, the results for the combined colleges and College B in this study were found to be consistent with Ohio State University. The culture types found at Colleges A, C and D were different.

As only one of the four colleges ranked Clan as the dominant culture type currently, the dominant Clan type culture of the combined colleges indicates the consistent influence of Clan type culture at all four colleges. A comparison of dominant culture types from this study indicated combined colleges and College B had dominant Clan culture types, whereas results found in an American nationwide study conducted by Smart and St. John (1996), concluded that two-thirds of the 332 American four-year colleges and universities had a dominant Clan type culture. The fact that one-quarter of the colleges in this study demonstrated dominant Clan type culture, compared to the two-thirds found by Smart and St. John in 1996, might be explained in

two ways. First, the 15 year time span between the two studies, given the external and internal

forces influencing change in higher education, could be an important consideration in any further

investigation as to why the current responses were different in this study. A replication of the

Smart and St. John (1996) study at this time could provide insight into the impacts of the

environment and how these change forces may have affected organizational culture over the past

15 years. Would the same proportion of American four-year colleges and universities have

maintained a dominant Clan type culture? Second, Smart and St. John (1996) studied four-year

universities, institutions that are dramatically different from Ontario colleges and likely to have

equally divergent cultures.

Further comparisons between this study and the study conducted by Smart and St. John

are drawn later in the section of this chapter addressing culture strength. At this juncture, it is

relevant to point out that in addition to the finding that Clan type culture was the prevalent current

type of organizational culture, Smart and St. John concluded that Clan type culture was perceived

to be the most effective based on nine scales of ability identified by Krakower and Niwa (1985).

Further, Hierarchy cultures were perceived as consistently ineffective.

From an assessment perspective, the current combined college dominant Clan type culture

results represents the average perceptions of the four colleges. As mentioned earlier, it is clear

that the administrators from these four Ontario colleges, as a group, value dominant Clan type

culture and share the perceptions held by the administrators at the effective colleges in the Smart

and St. John study. It is also clear that the combined administrators in this study currently value a

considerable level of Hierarchy, which, as previously stated, was found to represent ineffective

institutions. Specifically, a considerable influence of Hierarchy type culture was found,

representing the second highest quadrant for Colleges A, C and D. The focus on internal

maintenance, with a need for stability and control in these organizations, may illustrate potential performance implications in meeting student needs. It would seem that administrators participating in this study, seeking to improve performance, would be well advised to consider what constitutes an appropriate level of Hierarchy within their environmental context. This recommendation is further emphasized in light of the findings by Quinn and Spreitzer (1991), who found organizations with a hierarchical profile to be, "rather unpleasant and unsatisfying environment in which to work" (p. 138).

   Strength of culture. Proponents of culture type forming the strongest link to effective performance, such as Ouchi (1981) and Wilkins and Ouchi (1983), view dominant culture types as the cultures that underscore the mechanisms of control or governance modes. However, the literature review in Chapter 2 also showed a link between effective performance and strong cultures, affirming the importance of alignment between espoused cultural values and the management practices in an organization (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Denison, 1990; Denison, Hooijberg & Quinn, 1995; Smart & St. John, 1996; Cameron & Quinn, 1999, 2006). Culture strength has been analyzed in this thesis by applying the gauge that strong culture (herein referred to as uniquely strong culture) exists when "one culture quadrant is 10 points or greater than others" (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).   Uniquely strong culture indicates there is homogeneity of effort, clear focus, and higher performance in environments where unity and common vision are required (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

   Homogeneity of effort, clear focus and unity, and common vision appear to exist currently at College B and College C. Uniquely strong Clan culture was found currently in College B over Market and Hierarchy type culture, and uniquely strong culture was found twice at College C, with Hierarchy type over Adhocracy and Market type cultures, and Clan type culture over

Adhocracy and Market type cultures.   According to Deal and Kennedy (1982) strong culture is the 'driving force' behind effectiveness.   Applying this theory, one could consider the driving force behind College B and College C's success is their uniquely strong culture of Clan and Hierarchy, respectively, and that these two institutions have homogeneity of effort, clear focus and higher performance in situations where unity and common vision are required.

It is important to also note the considerable strengths of Market culture type at College A (found to be 8.49 points higher than Hierarchy culture type) and Market culture type at College D (found to be 9.84 points over Adhocracy culture type). This researcher believes these results should not be discounted in this analysis, especially in view of Smart and St. John's (1996) study, where a broader range of culture strength than the range introduced by Cameron and Quinn (2006), was applied to examine weak, moderate and strong culture strength.

Conclusions from the Smart and St. John (1996) study further inform the analysis of culture strength found in this research.   These scholars associated college effectiveness results with strong organizational Clan, Adhocracy, Market and Hierarchy culture types. Effectiveness was determined based on nine performance scales identified by Krakower and Niwa (1985) including: organizational health; student personal development; faculty and administrator employment satisfaction; student academic development; student educational satisfaction; system openness and community interaction; student career development; resources for professional development; and quality of the faculty.

Smart and St. John found colleges with strong Clan type culture to be meaningfully more effective on organizational health, student personal development, and faculty and administrator employment satisfaction scales. This is relevant to the uniquely strong Clan type culture found for the current state for College B and College C. Further investigation would be required to

determine whether or not there is evidence that indicates a higher level of effectiveness at these two colleges in these three effectiveness criteria. If these colleges have such evidence, it would further be reasonable for them to consider what actions are required to maintain this effective level of performance. For Colleges A and D, which did not demonstrate a strong Clan type culture, an examination of the impact of their current organizational culture on the assessment criteria of organizational health, student personal development, and faculty and administrator employment satisfaction may lead them to strategies that would improve college performance.

Smart and St. John (1996) further determined either Clan or Adhocracy cultures were found to be meaningfully more effective on student academic development, student educational satisfaction, and system openness and community interaction scales of ability. These scales, particularly student education satisfaction, represent the performance measures from the Smart and St. John study that match closest with the Student Satisfaction KPI in Ontario. College B and College C were found to have uniquely strong Clan type behaviour, and each of the four colleges indicated a clear preference for a uniquely strong culture in the future.   No strong Adhocracy culture type was found among the colleges, while College B and College D demonstrated a preference for a uniquely strong Adhocracy type culture in the future. The relationship between these three criteria that indicates an association with effective student satisfaction is not surprising as both the Clan and Adhocracy cultures have a high level of flexibility and discretion. Although the Clan culture focuses on internal maintenance and the Adhocracy culture focuses on external position, the similarity lies in a high degree of concern for people, sensitivity and individuality within both of these two culture types.

Smart and St. John further concluded that colleges with strong Clan, Market or Adhocracy cultures were found to be more effective on the two scales of ability to acquire resources for

professional development and the quality of the faculty. These would be most like the findings at College B and College C for the current state. As Adhocracy increased in the preferred state, this Smart and St. John conclusion would apply to all four colleges in this study.

As for weak cultures, Smart and St. John found weak Clan cultures had meaningfully higher scores on student personal development, and weak Market type cultures had meaningfully higher scores on ability to acquire resources than the three other culture types. No weak Clan type cultures were found in this study for the current state, however, weak Market type culture was found at College B and College C. Again, as previously stated, these institutions may wish to examine the impact of these weak culture types on their performance.

Although there were differences observed in this study regarding strength of the culture types among the four institutions, the study also showed each of the colleges had some level of culture strength based on scholarly research that links culture strength and effective performance. Equally noteworthy was the observed limited presence of Adhocracy type culture for the current state. Adhocracy was found to be the lowest culture type for combined colleges, College A and College D, and second lowest quadrant for College C. College B stood out with Adhocracy culture type as the second highest quadrant at a moderate level of strength. These results are consistent with observations of more than 1,000 organizations from which Cameron and Quinn (2006) noted a trend that Adhocracy scores are generally rated the lowest (p. 80). The implications of this finding suggests that college administrators may wish to analyze whether they are meeting the flexibility, individuality and spontaneity/creativity required to meet the needs of students today. Given that the trends on changing demographics presented in the literature review describing more, highly diverse, technologically competent, demanding, and financially challenged students continue, meeting the needs of students today and in the future may require

greater flexibility and discretion than ever before.

This discussion on culture strength as a measure of success would not be complete without highlighting a contradictory interpretation by a number of scholars including Sathe (1985), Starbuck, Greve, and Hedberg (1978) and Miller (1990), Trice and Beyer (1993) who all challenge Deal and Kennedy's (1982) theory of strong culture being key to success. In contrast, these researchers suggest that a strong culture could, by its very nature, inhibit the change required or discourage needed change for success (p. 22). This finding could serve as a caution to College B and College C where administrators report a current state with strong Clan and Hierarchy culture types respectively.

Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) conducted research with 796 executives from 86 public utility firms in the United States, using the Competing Values Framework, and discovered culture profiles that were most balanced across the four culture types, with near equal representation in all four quadrants, were the highest performers. Conversely, they also noted that those that were most imbalanced with regards to the presence of the four culture types in the four quadrants were the 'worst performers,' which is also consistent with the research of Smart and St. John (1996). Applying the 'balanced' organizational culture theory to the results from this study, it would appear that College A and College D had a more balanced current organizational culture than the other two colleges in this study. However, one must caution that this study represents a very small sample of colleges to compare balance of culture.

Congruence of culture. While it is clear that dominant culture type and strength of culture are important applications in organizational culture assessment, this study also examined congruence of culture. According to Cameron and Freeman (1991) and Cameron and Quinn (2006), a congruent organization (i.e., one that tends to emphasize the same set of cultural aspects

in each of the six cultural content dimensions), is more typical of high-performing organizations than incongruent cultures. This research study demonstrates that the investigation of culture congruence revealed substantially more detailed information about the specific aspects of organizational culture. The data collected provided explicit assessment of six cultural dimensions in each of the Clan, Adhocracy, Market and Hierarchy culture types, totalling 24 organizational values and attributes.

The six cultural content dimensions examined in this study, repeated to aid the reader, include: 1) Dominant Characteristics, described as the characteristics of the organization or what the overall organization is like; 2) Organizational Leader, described as the leadership style and approach that permeates the organization; 3) Management of Employees, described as the style that characterizes how employees are treated and what the working environment is like; 4) Organizational Glue, described as bonding mechanisms that hold the organization together; 5) Strategic Emphases, described to define what areas of emphasis drive the organization's strategy; and 6) Criteria of Success, described to determine how victory is defined and what gets rewarded and celebrated. As stated previously, each of these cultural content dimensions include four items totalling 24 organizational values and attributes.

'Total' Congruence was determined when similar culture type was represented in all six cultural content dimensions; 'strong' congruence was determined when similar culture type was represented in four or five cultural content dimensions; and, 'lack' of congruence was determined if similar culture type was represented in three or less cultural content dimensions.

Lack of Congruence was found among the combined colleges in their current state. This is not surprising given the variety of culture types being represented when the six cultural dimensions are collectively examined at each college. However, lack of congruence was found at

College A, where three Market, two Hierarchy and one Clan type culture were exhibited in the six cultural dimensions examined. (Readers may wish to refer to Table 13 to review the mean scores for the six overarching and 24 content cultural dimensions.)

College B demonstrated total congruence, with all six cultural dimensions reflecting the Clan culture. College C demonstrated strong congruence with four cultural dimensions reflecting the Hierarchy culture type and two cultural dimensions reflecting the Clan culture type. College D also demonstrated Strong congruence with four cultural dimensions reflecting the Market type culture, with one dimension as Hierarchy and one as Clan type cultures.

A comparison of the highest scoring current cultural content of the 24 dimensions found more differences than similarities for the current state: Clan type, Organizational Glue – Loyalty and trust, was found for combined colleges; Market type, Organizational Leadership – Leaders as results oriented, was found for College A; Hierarchy type, Organizational Leadership – Leaders exemplify efficiency, was found for College C; Clan type, Management of Employees – Teamwork and consensus, was found for College B; and Market type, Management of Employees – Competitiveness and achievement, was found for College D.

Although the highest cultural dimension was different at each of the four colleges, it is apparent there is a common strong alignment to either organizational leadership or management of employees, signalling a strong organizational appreciation for the value of management or skills. Further, it is worth noting that the Strategic Emphases, exhibited at all four institutions, was found to be consistent with their perceived dominant culture type suggesting, as one might expect, that strategy and dominant culture are aligned.

According to Cameron and Quinn (2006), the presence of cultural incongruence should prompt institutions to question whether there is a need for change. These scholars determined

employees at incongruent organizations frequently complain about ambiguity, lack of integration, absence of fit to their experience, and/or observe hypocrisy when organizational behaviours seem to be inconsistent with what they perceive to be the organization's espoused values (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Three of the four institutions in this study should review their cultural alignment to determine if alignment is impacting their current performance.

One of the unique assets of the OCAI design is that it allows institutions to analyze data about 24 value dimensions. The data from this study reinforces this asset and provides specific information for the three colleges lacking alignment to determine where alignment is absent, whether or not the organization is valuing what is important to their institution at this time, and how they would like the organization to look in the future to develop the appropriate action for change.

Preferred culture assessment. Clan type organizational culture was consistently found to be preferred at all four colleges participating in this study, a result that was expected. As detailed in the summary of the results described earlier in this chapter, Colleges A, B, C and D were all focused on flexibility and discretion when reporting their preferences. Differences were found with College B and College D, who were focused on external and differentiation (revealing an organization that focuses more on external positioning) compared with College A and College C, who were focused on internal and integration (revealing an organization that focuses more on internal maintenance).

These results were found to be consistent with the dominant Clan culture types earlier referred to from the studies conducted by Berrio (2003) and Smart and St. John (1996). In addition, Hierarchy cultures, perceived as consistently ineffective by Smart and St. John, ranked lowest in preferred culture types for Colleges A, B and D, and second lowest for College C. It is

relevant to note that College C had the greatest variance in terms of a decrease in preference for Hierarchy culture type compared to their current state. The implications are that administrators understand the need for collaboration through a Clan type culture and the need for limited control reflective of a Hierarchy type culture in effective institutions in order to meet the pressures of the 21st century.

Uniquely strong Clan culture was found in the preferred state over Hierarchy at all four colleges. This consistent move in the future towards more collaboration, flexibility and discretion enables an inference that all four colleges have a clear perception of their preference, and a desire to value homogeneity of effort, clear focus, unity, and common vision. This is important for an organization that focuses on internal maintenance with flexibility, concern for people and sensitivity to customers. In addition, uniquely strong Clan culture was preferred in the future over Market in Colleges B, C, and D and uniquely strong Adhocracy culture was preferred over Hierarchy in College B and College D. Strong Clan and Adhocracy culture, as previously mentioned, were found by Smart and St. John (1996) to be significantly more effective on the nine scales of ability, namely: organizational health, student personal development, faculty and administrator employment satisfaction, student academic development, student educational satisfaction, system openness, community interaction, acquiring resources for professional development and quality of the faculty, and student career development. It appears the administrators participating in this study desire a type of culture that Smart and St. John have found to be effective in their research. This bodes well for the four colleges in the study should they choose to work towards achieving the organizational culture they prefer for the future, as the strength of culture suggests that the administrators in this study have a solid understanding about the type of organization that can achieve high performance on these nine performance indicators.

In order for a college to make this kind of change to organizational culture, a well-designed change management strategy that addresses removing barriers to change, would need to be implemented.

The preference for increased Adhocracy suggests these institutions also realize the need for more creativity and innovation. Although Cameron and Quinn note that over 1,000 companies consistently ranked Adhocracy as the lowest culture type, the focus on a need for more innovation in Canada, identified by the Conference Board of Canada (Conference Board of Canada, 2011), and the current public dialogue about how colleges and universities can assist our country on the innovation agenda, creates a need for colleges to be more innovative. Given the implication of the preference for innovation, it would be appropriate for administrators at the four colleges, and even more so for Colleges A, B and C, to analyze what they need to do to meet the flexibility, individuality and spontaneity/creativity requirements they say they desire.

Congruence across cultural dimensions was also found overall to be much stronger in the preferred state than for the current state. Specifically, strong congruence was found when aligning cultural dimensions and culture types for the combined colleges and Colleges A, B, and D, while Total Congruence was found in College C. Clan type, Management of Employees - Teamwork and Consensus was found to be the highest cultural dimension for the combined colleges and Colleges A, B, and C. This represented a change for College A and College C who had perceived the Leadership dimension as the highest dimension for the current state. Only College B maintained the same high Clan type cultural dimension.

Discrepancy between current and preferred culture. The final organizational culture type analysis applied in this study was to measure the discrepancy between the current perceived culture and preferences about what the culture should be in the future. Meaningful discrepancy

(i.e. greater than 10 point difference) was found to exist in College C, who indicated a desire to decrease Hierarchy 15.07 points in the preferred state. The desired increase towards an Adhocracy culture type, reflected in the variance of 9.88 points from the current to preferred state, is also noteworthy at College C and indicates a desire for more creativity and less control. Meaningful discrepancy was also found at College D in terms of their preference to increase adherence to a Clan culture type and to decrease adherence to a Hierarchy culture type.

Further analysis of discrepancy conducted on each of the six cultural content dimensions, including 24 values and attributes, demonstrated a desire for change at all four colleges, and points administrators clearly to the specific areas they might wish to consider changing in the future. Although the changes are more relevant for each college to discuss specifically, for the purpose of this thesis it is noteworthy that College D clearly indicated the greatest desire for change with meaningful discrepancy in 17 out of the 24 cultural content dimensions. In contrast, College B did not indicate any discrepancy, College A had discrepancy in seven dimensions and College C indicated discrepancy in eight cultural content dimensions, respectively.

It is clear that Colleges A, C and D desire meaningful change and a move away from their current organizational culture, while only College B wishes to maintain a similar current culture in the future. Further, it is worth noting that at College B each of the culture types ranked in the same order for both the current and preferred results. However, in addition to maintaining the Clan dominant culture type, College B desires to slightly increase both Adhocracy and Hierarchy type cultures.

These results are not surprising considering the solid support found in current literature that encourages higher education institutions to respond to globalization, emergence of the knowledge society, an aging professoriate and financial constraints (Skolnik, 2003; Hargreaves,

2003; Duderstadt, 2005; Roueche, Richardson, Neal & Roueche, 2008; Fullan & Scott, 2009; Clark, et al., 2009). What is of some surprise is the slight decrease in the Market type culture considering the rise of competition for growing student enrolment targets and government mandated accountability frameworks. The largest decrease from current to preferred culture types, as reflected in the quadrants, was found to be 15.07 points away from the Hierarchy culture type at College C, reflecting their desire to move from control to a more collaborative culture. The largest increase from the current to preferred culture types, as reflected in the quadrants, was 13.00 points towards the Clan culture type at College D.

The real challenge for the four colleges, however, is embracing the process of turning desire for change into institutional values and attributes that guide behaviours and actions. Whether or not each college determines change is required upon reviewing their individual culture assessment and how they apply this data towards making the change will, of course, be up to them. It is clear, however, that the perceptions of administrators collected in this study conclude change is required and desired in the future at three of the four institutions in order to achieve their preferred organizational culture. The fourth college in the study will require adjustments to their organizational culture to optimize their desired state.

Culture Comparisons

A secondary objective of this thesis was to compare the current state culture type profiles, created through this study, with the Public Administration (PA) culture type profile presented from the observations of Cameron and Quinn (2006, p. 78). In addition, comparisons of culture profiles were made based on gender and years of experience by administrators in their current job.

Comparison of the PA dominant Hierarchy culture type with the results from this study

revealed both similarities and differences. The PA dominant Hierarchy culture type profile and controlling orientation appears similar to the culture profile for College C. Both College A and College D had a differing dominant Market culture type and were found to report a more competing, with an almost equal, controlling orientation. College B was found to be more collaborative with a dominant Clan type culture and less controlling than PA. These results, considered in conjunction with research conducted by Berrio (2003) and Smart and St. John (1996), lead to the conclusion that the organizational culture at the four Ontario colleges in this study are more like the American college organizational culture types described by the aforementioned studies than they are to the Public Administration organizations studied by Cameron and Quinn (2006).

The similarities and differences between men and women's workplace experience has been investigated by scholars such as: Wellington, Kropf and Gerkovich (2003), who revealed that inhospitable organizational cultures contribute to the opportunity gap between men and women in corporate America; Jandeska and Kramer (2005) who found differences in the degree to which the organizations equally value men and women; and Burke (2002) who found gaps in opportunity between men and women in their managerial and professional perceptions of the relationships between their organization's values, including support for work-personal life balance and individual job experiences, as well as work and non-work satisfaction and psychological well-being.

Knowing whether or not there are different perceptions held by employee groups is an important consideration in creating an aligned culture and designing a change management strategy. Although gender influence on culture is not a primary reason for this study, this researcher felt the OCAI assessment provided an opportunity to look at the perceptions about

values and attributes held by women and men employed in administrative positions in Ontario colleges.

Analysis of the data by the gender of administrators participating in this study revealed different perceptions about organizational culture for the current combined colleges and much more similarity in terms of their preferred state. Males perceived a dominant Hierarchy culture type, whereas females perceived a dominant Clan culture type. The male culture profile reflected prevalence for stability and control, whereas the females' profile reflected flexibility and discretion. Both male and female results reflected a focus on internal and integration. In sum, males reported the current state to favour much more competitive and much less collaborative values than their female peers. In contrast, the preferred cultural perceptions were similar for male and female administrators who both expressed a desire for a dominant Clan culture type, with the same focus on flexibility and discretion, as well as internal focus and integration.

Meaningful discrepancy was found between the current and preferred male organizational profiles based on their preferences for a reduced emphasis on the Hierarchy culture type of over 10 points, reflecting a strong desire to decrease their controlling type values. Males also desire a slight decrease of the Market culture type, whereas females expressed a desire for a moderate decrease of the Hierarchy culture type and a very slight decrease of Market culture type in the future. Discrepancy between the current and preferred results indicate males desire a moderate increase towards Clan and Adhocracy culture types, while females want a slight increase towards the Clan culture type and a moderate increase towards the Adhocracy culture type.

The results suggest males in this study currently possess: a leadership style that is coordinator, monitor, and organizer; value drivers of efficiency, timeliness, and consistency and uniformity; and a theory of effectiveness that is about control and efficiency with capable

processes that produce effectiveness (Cameron & Quinn, 2006, p. 46). In turn, females in this study currently possess: a leadership style that is facilitator, mentor and team builder; value drivers of commitment, communication and development; and a theory of effectiveness that embraces human development and participation to produce effectiveness (p. 46).

The impact of the differing values by gender type must be explored within the context of the ratio of males and females employed in administrative roles. In addition, a discussion about gender impact on organizational culture must take into account the internal and external environments. In this study, the sample sizes at each college were too small to permit further analysis. However, based on the results from the combined colleges, college administrators would be advised to consider the diverse perceptions held by different genders, especially in situations when there may not be an equal balance in the number of female and male administrators and/or employees.

The influence of the number of years of experience administrators have in their current job on organizational culture profiles was also examined in this study. According to Mech (1997), the influence of "age" on managers' executive behaviour is not necessarily a strong one, although Wiedman (1978) suggests that managerial experience directly affects the managerial role of administrators, supporting the claim that personal characteristics and circumstances can play an important role in determining a manager's executive behaviour. Similar to the Wiedman study, administrators in this study with six to twenty years' experience (found to perceive a dominant Clan type organizational culture), had a different outlook than those in the two other groups in the study with less experience (found to perceive a dominant Hierarchy type culture). In contrast, all administrators, regardless of years of experience, preferred a dominant Clan culture in the future.

The reasons why administrators with six to twenty years' experience indicated their organization was collaborative versus those with less experience, who found their organization controlling, is worthy of further investigation. Logically, change would be required by all administrators in order to achieve alignment between administrators regardless of their experience on the job. Regardless, there is merit in creating a dynamic between new, energized administrators and those with more experience and confidence in their job. This researcher believes a mix of experience creates a healthy situation within an administrative group, as long as the organization understands this dynamic exists and manages accordingly so that the influence of the age dynamic can contribute positively toward effective performance of an institution. At a minimum, based on the results from this study, colleges planning change strategy should take into consideration the number of administrators new to their position compared with those who have six to twenty years of experience in their job. Further, colleges who desire organizational culture change would be well advised to work towards greater value alignment among administrators, regardless of experience.

Performance Management, Organizational Culture and Organizational Change

The literature review demonstrated strong linkages between the three inter-connecting themes of performance management, organizational culture and organizational change. The connectivity between performance management and organizational culture has been addressed by scholars such as: Peters and Waterman (1982) who hail the importance of culture and advance eight characteristics that distinguish excellence with a view that some types of organizational culture can provide a formula for success; Pfeiffer (1984), Carroll (1983) and Johnson, Natarajan, and Rappaport (1985) who disputed Peters and Waterman's excellence theory, arguing they ignored the impact of differing environments and circumstances of organizations in their

assumptions; and Wilkins and Ouchi (1983) who advanced the theory that cultures are more efficient in certain environmental conditions, particularly when there is shared employee orientation, risk is low and the organization is aligned.

The literature strongly supports the use of culture assessment to enable organizations to examine their own organizational culture type with a view to managing organizational change (Goffee & Jones, 1998; Schein, 1999; Desjardins, 2001; Cameron & Quinn, 2006). However, other scholars have continued to debate issues such as: what creates the most effective organizational cultures to achieve high performance; what impact internal and external environments contribute with regards to achieving high performance; and how managers can impact change in their organization to improve performance. Cameron and Ettington (1988) affirm that the type of culture is more important than the congruence or strength of culture. Deal and Kennedy (1982) argue that "strong cultures" lead to success. Sathe (1985), Starbuck, Greve and Hedberg (1978), and Miller (1990) all promoted the opposite position – suggesting a strong culture could, by its very nature, inhibit the change required or discourage needed change for success. Kets de Vries and Miller (1984) suggest that "cultures may derive unhealthy modes of functioning from the psychopathological problems of their chief executives" making some cultures sick – neurotic. Trice and Beyer (1993), who challenge this theory, state they could not support the thinking that the neurotic firms [described by Kets de Vries and Miller] are financially successful for very long. Kotter and Heskett (1992) found the difference between higher performing and lower performing companies was strength and congruence (culture aligned with strategy) and type of culture (firms that value equally customers, stockholders and employees). Barney (1986) affirms culture is a viable source of competitive advantage and identified financial value, cultural distinction and limited ability to imitate as three conditions for a company to

sustain superior financial performance. This long list of scholars only begins to capture the meaningful evidence linking performance and organizational culture assessment. Other scholars, already identified in this chapter, have contributed to the scholarly research that links culture type, strength and congruence with organizational performance. Implicit in this debate is the third inter-connecting theme that change management can be assisted by culture assessment to ultimately improve organizational performance.

The addition of the organizational change into this discussion about organizational cultural assessment adds a complexity recognized by Schein (1985) who acknowledged the abstract concept of culture and its practical applications by leaders interested in understanding the dynamics of organizations and change. Motivation for change has been reinforced by scholars such as Denison (1984), who found that companies with a participative culture reap a Return on Investment (ROI) that averages nearly twice as high as those in firms with less efficient cultures; and Cameron (1980), who identified the need for organizations to consider multiple outcomes as they pursue value creation strategies.

This researcher agrees with Truskie (2002), who asserts that the most critical breakthrough in understanding organizational culture and performance began when management scholars and academics started studying both culture within organizations and management's impact on culture. Examples of effective change management are found in the work of Kotter (2002), Augustine (1998) and Fullan (2002, 2003, 2009). Research by Petrides (2004) suggests an important link between the use of data and change management. A leader's impact on an organization's culture is emphasized by scholars, such as Gordon (1997); Goffee and Jones (1998); Baker (1992); McPhail (2002); Nixon (2003); George (2003); Hagberg and Heifetz (2000); and Argyris (2010).

The results from this study describe the organizational culture at four colleges which have performed better than the average of their peers in student satisfaction. The description of the organizational culture at these four colleges individually and collectively, combined with the management skills profile, provide the data required for a change management process designed to improve college performance related to specific effectiveness criteria. The application of these tools combined will be discussed in the following sections.

Relevance of the Competing Values Framework

This study benefited from the Competing Values Framework (CVF) advanced by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983), Quinn and Cameron (1983), and Cameron and Ettington (1988). Cameron (1986) added to our knowledge through the finding that some organizations could be effective if they demonstrated flexibility and adaptability, while other organizations were effective if they demonstrated stability and control. Similarly, Cameron also found some organizations were effective if they maintained efficient internal processes, whereas others were deemed to be effective if they maintained competitive external positioning relative to customers and clients. Other scholars mentioned throughout this study have also found effectiveness and type of culture to be aligned.

The design of this study focused on two main questions examining the perceptions held by administrators about organizational culture and management skills at four Ontario colleges. Critical to the design of this study was that each of the participating colleges demonstrated higher student satisfaction than the average of their peers in order to create a common context for culture assessment and discussion. The CVF has value in the study of culture at Ontario colleges as it provided a model to present the various similarities and differences for the current state culture types, strengths, dimensions and congruencies of culture among participants. This is evident in

the results found for the preferred organizational culture state, revealing much more commonality among the four colleges. Commonality was found as all four colleges indicated a desire for a dominant Clan culture type and increased Adhocracy culture type. Commonality was also found in terms of the preferences articulated by each college, revealing a desire for flexibility and discretion. The CVF also was able to reveal the differences of two colleges who favoured internal focus and integration from the two colleges that favoured external focus and differentiation. This finding leads one to the obvious question as to why the four colleges in the study desire a similar Clan culture type for the future when their current culture types are perceived to be so different. One plausible explanation is found by probing the results of the OCAI and MSAI together.

The relationship between organizational culture and the management skills assessment instruments is evident when examining the profiles created using the data from the two survey instruments. The similar plots used to describe the results provide a visual of the type of current and preferred organizational culture profiles and management skills profiles based on the same four quadrants of Clan, Adhocracy, Market and Hierarchy culture types. Colleges can assess dominant culture type, strength of culture, congruency of cultures and which of the main dimensions are prominent. In addition, colleges can examine the types of management behaviours that are most frequently used by individuals who make decisions and implement policy. The information from both of these two tools combined affords an expanded information base that can enable institutions to consider how they may broaden their capacity for change by isolating specific and deliberate change management actions with intent to move from a current organizational culture type to a preferred culture type. Further, the data from these two assessment instruments combined describes the prominent values individual organizations use to

make and implement decisions, as well as what behaviours could be developed or enhanced to facilitate the type of organizational culture desired.

The utility of completing both the OCAI and MSAI together is illustrated in this thesis when one considers the contradiction between the current organizational culture assessment data and the self-assessment of management skills. The results of the MSAI show Clan type skills that are more like the Clan type skills desired in the preferred state organizational culture profile than the current state organizational culture profiles revealing Clan, Hierarchy and Market types. This contradiction is advanced through the CVF.

One could speculate that the administrators in this study are working in a way to create the type of culture they desire rather than support the type of culture they perceive exists currently. Another explanation is that colleges have selected and/or promoted administrators who have the skills they believe will move toward the institutional culture they desire. The knowledge that managerial behaviour is aligned to the preferred future organizational culture is very important and promising in terms of each college's ability to effect true transformation. However, these results give rise to questions about what needs to be done to create the desired type of culture. The CVF allows for such a discussion by culture type and can help identify the types of barriers that exist to prevent change from the current culture to the preferred culture. A discussion at each of the four institutions, based on the individual data for their respective college, could be an important first step in forming a change management plan to ensure they meet their desired perspective.

As this study did not gather information about the reasons behind the reported difference between current and preferred culture, it is important to note there could be different perspectives held by other stakeholders such as support staff, faculty and the Board of Governors. This would

also explain why college administrators revealed their management behaviours do not reflect the current organizational culture.

A third reason for the difference between the assessment of current culture and the assessment of management skills is that manager's perceptions of their behaviours do not match their actual behaviours. This also reinforces the need for additional culture assessment that involves a full range of stakeholders in an institution. If that is not possible, administrators would be well advised to investigate further why their behaviours are not a reflection of the current organizational profile as they have assessed it. They may perceive themselves to be 'ahead of the change curve,' so to speak, and needing to bring along their staff colleagues over time to achieve the preferred culture type. Or, they may be acting in a way that doesn't resonate with the shared values of other stakeholders in the organization. Nevertheless, the CVF provides a mechanism to identify and address this type of lack of conformity of focus which has been identified as the cause for ineffective change management (Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Augustine, 1998; Fullan, 2002).

A unique component of this study is that the CVF is used to describe both the organizational culture and the management skills at four Ontario colleges. The application of these two tools combined provide meaningful information about current and preferred perceptions about the organization's shared basic assumptions as well as the perceived leadership skills that currently exist in the organization. These shared perceptions may empower a college to solve problems. These perceptions may also be taught as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. As well, the self-assessment of the behaviours used by managers that either reinforce or negate the type of culture an organization desires may empower administrators to embrace change in a useful and productive manner.

Cameron and Quinn (2006) assert the CVF conveniently 'orders' culture values, forms of organizing and attributes of organizations (p. 43). These scholars further affirm the design of the frameworks for OCAI and MSAI and their ability to assess organizational culture and management skills are relevant to effectiveness criteria, leadership roles and management theories. The six advantages put forth by these scholars about the OCAI and MSAI are weighed as they relate to the experiences from this study.

OCAI and MSAI were found in this study to have practicality of application, which Cameron and Quinn pose as one of the advantages of the design. These instruments were selected as they were promoted as easy to use, could be used at numerous institutions with varying sample sizes, and featured surveys that could be easily distributed and completed through the Internet. Analysis of the results, using data collected electronically in this study, not only ensured confidentiality, it prevented data errors caused by data entry. Further, the data captured dimensions of culture that this researcher believes provides a more robust level of information so institutions can be more specific about what needs to be done to improve effectiveness.

A second advantage posited by Cameron and Quinn about the OCAI and MSAI, which was also found to be the case in this study, is that the process was timely in terms of the stages for collecting data and developing culture and management skills profiles. This researcher cannot comment on the time required to design a change management strategy based on the experiences from this study. However, based on previous experience, this researcher believes such a change management strategy could be developed using the data analysis that could be available in two to three working days, depending on the level of engagement and individual administrators' working styles. Evidence, described in the literature review, indicating that the survey instruments are valid is reinforced by Yu and Wu (2009) who confirm validity and support the earlier advantages

of the practicality of two dimensions and succinctness of the OCAI tool. The design of this study does not allow for commentary on the other three advantages put forth by Cameron and Quinn suggesting the OCAI and MSAI tools are involving, manageable and both quantitative and qualitative in scope. Although the quantitative component is evident by the data available, qualitative data was not gathered.

A management skills assessment component was not originally intended as part of this study. However, the unique compatibility and the increased knowledge created using the OCAI and MSAI tools together has expanded the outcome of this study by providing a perception of the way things are or can be done in the organization, and the behaviours most commonly used and preferred by managers. Of striking significance is the result that the current assessment of the way things are being done does not match the assessment of behaviours most commonly used by managers; however, again, this underscores the opportunities administrators face in developing change management objectives.

<div align="center">**Conclusions and Implications for Practice**</div>

Conclusions

The following section will address the conclusions and implications for practice. This study found different organizational culture types in the current state at each of the four colleges participating in the study. Two of the colleges demonstrated dominant Market type organizational culture, which represents a competing type orientation. One of the colleges demonstrated a dominant Hierarchy type culture, which represents a controlling type orientation, and one of the colleges demonstrated a dominant Clan type culture, which represents a collaborative orientation. Three of the four colleges were focused on internal maintenance and integration, and one of the Market type colleges was focused on external positioning and

differentiation. Both colleges with Market type cultures were focused on stability and control, whereas the other two were focused on flexibility and discretion. Uniquely strong culture, which connotes a meaningful culture type over another culture type, was found at two of the colleges. When the results from all colleges were combined, a dominant Clan type culture, with almost equal Hierarchy type culture, was found suggesting a strong influence of collaborative and controlling orientations among the four colleges.

As previously stated, this researcher had anticipated more similarity among the four colleges in the current organizational culture types considering they all had higher than average student satisfaction scores. It was observed, however, that different dominant culture types were exhibited by the four colleges. This first conclusion has implications for practice that reinforce the importance of considering organizational culture within an environmental context (Goffee & Jones, 1998; Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Cameron and Quinn illustrate this using an example of an organization with a strong Clan culture type, operating in a fiercely competitive environment. They deduce that such an organization may find it difficult to survive. Therefore, Ontario colleges would be wise to consider their organizational culture within both the provincial and local environmental contexts.

Different dominant culture types at the four colleges with high student satisfaction scores suggests that different types of organizational culture can produce high levels of student satisfaction. Relevant to this observation, customer service is highly valued in both Clan and Market culture types. Three of the four colleges in this study had either Clan or Market dominant cultures and the fourth had a strong Clan presence. Colleges, intent on increased student satisfaction scores, may benefit from increased Clan or Market values and attributes.

Dominant culture type also has implications for the type of leadership attributes preferred to address quality strategies, human resource management and strategic visioning. Cameron and Quinn offer suggestions for administrators about their management skills to strengthen desired culture types. For example, colleges intent on increasing quality strategies in a desired Clan type culture could consider increasing empowerment, team building, employee involvement, human resource development and open communication (Cameron and Quinn, 2006, p. 50).

Another conclusion from the findings is that administrators at all four of the colleges used Clan type management skills most frequently. This was followed by Adhocracy, Hierarchy and Market type skills. Administrators ranked Managing Interpersonal Relations as their highest skill and Managing Competitiveness as their lowest skill. The results from the management skills assessment do not reflect the same dominant organizational culture type at three of the colleges in their current state. Only one college, with dominant Clan type organizational culture, also ranked Clan type management skills as most frequently used. However, the findings do match the preferred culture type at all four colleges.

Results from this study build on the theory that leadership impacts organizational culture. Differences found between current dominant culture types at the four colleges, combined with alignment of preferred culture type and dominant management skill type, may be a signal that administrators are working to change the values at three of the four colleges in this study. Leadership impact on organizational culture has been emphasized by scholars such as Truskie (2002), Kotter (2002), Augustine (1998), Fullan (2002, 2003, 2009), Petrides (2004), Gordon (1997), Goffee and Jones (1998), Baker (1992), McPhail (2002), Nixon (2003), George (2003), Hagberg and Heifetz (2000), and Argyris (2010). In addition to specific management skills to enhance specific culture types, Cameron and Quinn (2006) offer a number of trends to assist

managers in understanding their organizational culture including top managers tend to have higher Clan scores; Adhocracy is generally the lowest rated culture type; over time, companies gravitate to Hierarchy and Market types; and paradoxes in organizational culture profiles often exist. Organizations wishing to change their culture would benefit from reflection on the type of management skills that are dominant at their college. Further they should consider development strategies for skill gaps.

The third conclusion, that colleges indicated a desire to have a dominant Clan type culture in the future, emphasizes that all four colleges wish to increase their collaborative orientation. In addition, all four colleges were focused on flexibility and discretion. Two colleges demonstrated internal focus and two colleges demonstrated external focus. Uniquely strong culture was found at all four colleges in the preferred state. This finding also has implications for practice. Cameron and Quinn (2006) point out that congruence, or having the same values and sharing the same assumptions, simply eliminates many of the complications, disconnects, and obstacles that can get in the way of effective performance (p. 73). Further, lack of congruence is an indication of a need for change as the organization is not in alignment. Cameron and Quinn also affirm that strong cultures are associated with homogeneity of effort, clearer focus and higher performance in environments where unity and common vision are required (p. 72). According to Smart and St. John (1996), strong Clan or Adhocracy cultures were found to be significantly more effective in promoting student satisfaction.

These results build on existing evidence supporting the fourth conclusion that dominant culture type, strength, and congruence of organizational culture type are linked with performance. Colleges would be wise to carefully monitor their dominant culture type, the strength of their culture and the congruence of their culture as a means to improve performance.

The fifth conclusion in the study is that discrepancy exists between the current and preferred state. According to Cameron and Quinn, discrepancy may be the most powerful aspect of organizational culture assessment in that it has the greatest potential to identify and implement the change that is required. It is important to recognize that current organizational culture is a product of the attributes and values; whereas, the preferred reflects the "ideal" or what is "expected." Recognizing that discrepancy can provide a roadmap for change, it is also important that institutions do a full evaluation of the viability of the change, as they may discover they wish to prevent the preferred cultural aspirations. Further study is required to determine whether or not this alignment toward the future has impacted the above average Student Satisfaction (KPI) results at these same colleges.

The final conclusion from this study is that both the OCAI and MSAI tools were found to be useful in ordering culture values; practical; timely; quantitative; and manageable. The data from the surveys enables a clearer understanding of current culture profiles, helps assess the need for change, assists in planning for the change, is useful in building consensus on change management plans, and can help to assist in developing the desired skills required to implement change.   This has implications for individual college change management practices and performance outcomes. It also has implications for Ontario colleges in their system advocacy and design. Finally, the usefulness of the OCAI and MSAI has implications for the Government of Ontario in drafting public policy, system design, establishing targets and monitoring effectiveness.

Recommendations Regarding use of Culture Assessment in Ontario Colleges

The results from this study have implications for organizational culture in colleges that span three levels. The first results, on a more general level, are related to how colleges are managed and the possible role mid- and upper-level administrators might play in developing their

institution's organizational culture as a means to improving effectiveness and enhance performance. The second result, on a more detailed level, and more specific to individual colleges, is associated with the use of organizational culture assessment as a tool to manage change with the goal of enhancing performance. Finally, the third result, on an implied level related to the government's requirements of quality overall and specifically to the Ontario government Multi-Year Accountability Agreements as they relate to Student Satisfaction KPIs.

The following recommendations are put forward by this researcher with a high level of respect for the complexity of colleges and those interested in making improvements. Based on the findings of this study and the scholarly information gained through related organizational culture assessment it is recommended that:

1. Colleges conduct a culture assessment annually around the time when they gather Student Satisfaction KPI data. It is further suggested that the data collection include a sample of all stakeholder groups including support staff, faculty, administrators and governors. At a point when college culture assessments represent the type of organization desired for optimum service to students, the culture assessment could be completed every two years.

   This researcher cautions colleges who currently conduct climate surveys should not interpret those instruments as organizational culture assessments until a close review of the information being collected is conducted. As stated earlier, a climate survey gathers perceptions about the current state of affairs and is important information to collect. In contrast, a culture assessment gathers perceptions about the organization's shared basic assumptions that the group has learned to use to solve its problems and is taught as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems (Schein, 2004, p. 17). Culture assessment will assist organizations to understand the way problems are currently

being solved and acted upon. This is fundamentally more enabling than information about what people think about the organization.

2.   Colleges conduct a management skills assessment annually around the time when they gather Student Satisfaction KPI data. It is suggested that data be collected from managers/leaders that influence decision making as well as from those who guide interpretation and implementation of institutional policy. Other respondents may also be included in the data collection to identify the current and preferred organizational culture of stakeholder groups such as Boards of Governors, Academic Councils and Union leadership.

3.   Colleges conduct a leadership competency analysis, based on the management skills profile, and provide training for managers to strengthen and improve appropriate leadership/management behaviours associated with the type of culture the institution has deemed suitable and the kinds of change emanating from comparisons between current and preferred cultures. This analysis may include an analysis by gender and years of experience.

4.   Colleges conduct an analysis of their individual institution's KPI performance in light of their self-assessed organizational culture profile to identify actions about their own behaviours and actions that are intended to improve performance. This introspective approach is supported by numerous researchers as a means to create greater understanding and alignment about what is occurring in an organization, thus enabling individuals and groups to change the outcome based on data versus unfounded assumptions or opinions. The differing results of alignment, especially in the current state versus the preferred state, expose a risk that lack of alignment may be inhibiting performance enhancement in other

KPIs.

5. Colleges develop a position statement about the type of culture they would like their college to have, a position statement that considers culture type, cultural dimensions, strength and congruency. This position statement should also take into consideration the current culture and environment, preferred future opportunities and the internal and external trends influencing the future of their institution. As stated a number of times in this thesis, there is no 'right' culture; rather, there is a right culture for an institution based on their environment, resources, vision and values.

6. Colleges develop a change management plan to achieve the organizational culture they desire, applying the model of "plan, implement and evaluate." Use of data to create the plan would include a performance assessment, measured implementation, implementing an evaluation strategy that measures outcomes. Repeating this cycle is highly recommended based on the information gathered in this study.

7. The Government of Ontario promote and facilitate organizational culture assessment by asking HEQCO to conduct further research on the implications of organizational culture assessment on improving KPIs, and by providing financial and/or research resources to enable all colleges, and perhaps universities, to invest in this transformative exercise.

8. The Government of Ontario promote and facilitate the use of organizational culture assessment by colleges as part of their annual Multi-Year Accountability Agreements with colleges.

These are exciting times in higher education. Globalization has forced a renewed focus on Ontario and Canada's ability to compete on the world stage in an increasingly aggressive environment. The Ontario government has invested significantly to increase participation in

secondary education, improve transfer between colleges and universities, as well as provide capital infrastructure funding. Over the same time period, there have been examples of world-wide transformational change such as reduced funding in Great Britain, the Bologna Accord, and the recent targets set to double the number of international students studying in China.

In Ontario there is a renewed focus on higher education public policy. The Honourable Glen Murray, Minister of Training, Colleges and Universities, in a speech at the Canadian Club, March 9, 2012 called for "transformational change," delivering a forceful message that change must be an integral part of any successful college or university. Questions about the role of academia, length of degrees, program delivery models, and use of ITC to enable and increase access to programs were introduced, along with a clear message about the need for increased effectiveness. These themes represent some of the issues to be explored by the Ontario Government [yet again]. In addition, there has been much debate about the need, mission and design of three new universities reiterated in the Ontario Government Throne Speech, November 22, 2011. This rise in attention and debate about issues affecting colleges drives a greater need to manage change effectively.

For Ontario colleges, there has never been a more opportune time to turn attention to organizational culture in order to manage this change and improve effectiveness.

Leadership is required to seize this opportunity. The four colleges in this study have already demonstrated a strong affinity for self-examination. This researcher believes there is a compelling case that the data gathered provides a wealth of information to guide the future at these four institutions. The following illustrates a few of the possible implications of this study when the findings are considered in the context of the current external environment.

As previously reported, Colleges A and D both revealed current state dominant Market type profiles. These two institutions hold the highest Student Satisfaction KPI scores in this study. Anecdotally, they are above average in size and are located in more densely populated areas of the province. The location of these two institutions offers more choice for students, creating a more competitive environment.   Even though the Clan and Adhocracy culture type is cited to be more effective by some researchers, Cameron and Quinn caution that culture must match the environment. Given their culture profiles, the fundamental question for Colleges A and D is whether they should abandon their current external focus on recruiting new customers to become more collegial and creative or do they continue to strive for market share, goal achievement and profitability? The preferred profile indicates administrators desire a move toward the Clan and Adhocracy culture types. This researcher cautions that both of these institutions question such a move prior to making any changes, consider why they feel such a change is warranted, and measure carefully any action toward increasing the values of internal maintenance with flexibility, concern for people and sensitivity to customers. Although a renewed focus could improve concern for people and build sensitivity to customers, these actions could minimize the current level of effectiveness of these two institutions in a competitive environment as a result of turning attention from their external positioning to a more internal maintenance focus.

It is interesting to note that both Colleges A and D are led by Presidents with more than 10 years of service and a change in leadership is inevitable in the foreseeable future. Any leadership change at these two colleges must be carefully managed. A fresh, enthusiastic new leader may wish to move aggressively toward values of collaboration, collegiality and innovation – all indicated as preferred values by their administrators. Without a sound recognition of what this researcher believes to be an entrenched commitment to Market values, such a move could cause

conflict and a lack of acceptance of new initiatives and change management strategies, if not made tactically. For College D, which demonstrated congruence of values, this caution is even stronger than for College A, which lacks congruence of values. In College D, there is greater need to recognize and embrace, college-wide, the desire for increased collegiality and creativity. In College A, the lack of congruence indicates varying values and alignment of direction. Building congruence will be as important as the future direction itself, indicating a sage and steady culture change may result in more alignment in the current state and, ultimately, enable a more aggressive approach to the preferred organizational culture, maintaining ongoing effectiveness.

College B has also benefited from a long-serving President, although transition to new leadership is likely in the foreseeable future.   The strength and dominant Clan type organizational culture, total congruency, and almost no discrepancy between the current and preferred culture types, found at College B, are all signs of a very confident organization. Even though College B holds the fourth ranked Student Satisfaction KPI scores in this study, it is obvious that this college has worked diligently for a high level of Student Satisfaction KPI. Unfortunately, this institution is struggling to compete for students due to a more remote geographic location in an economically depressed community. The current values, focused on internal maintenance and integration, has served College B well. With changes looming, the question becomes, "How will College B continue to compete as the environment becomes more competitive and volatile?"   This researcher firmly suggests College B must review their competing leadership behaviours. There may be a need to place a stronger value of external focus and differentiation at this time if they are going to minimize their geographic limitations and recruit students into the area. It is promising that College B has indicated a desire to increase

Adhocracy. This connotes a potential to increase competitiveness by increasing focus on external positioning with a high degree of flexibility and individuality. However, this does not minimize the fact that the current environment of high competitiveness will require a strong understanding of market-type behaviours to prevent a need for College B to downsize in order to maintain their financial viability. It will take strong leadership to help College B see this challenge and engage the institution in tactical market-valued discussions and behaviours to strengthen the institution's competitive approach.

College C's Hierarchy type culture profile also has implications when the data are considered within the context of the current external environment. As stated earlier, College C represents the institution that placed the highest value on internal maintenance with a need for stability and control. College C is also challenged by size and is located in a geographic setting that struggles economically. The President at College C, who has also held office for an extended period of time, has the opportunity to use the data from this organizational culture study to help the institution address the strong discrepancy between their current dominant Hierarchy culture type and their preferred dominant Clan culture.

Cameron and Quinn (2006) note that, over time, companies tend to gravitate to Hierarchy and Market types and that paradoxes often exist in effective organizations that allow them to be flexible and contradictory in different situations. As explained, three of the four institutions in this study have Market or Hierarchy culture type profiles. Cameron and Quinn also caution that it is difficult to move organizations focused on stability and control toward flexibility and discretion. However, the current message from the province that more change is coming provides a resolute impetus for these institutions.

This researcher believes it would be worthwhile for College C to take a considered look at their current culture and determine whether a move to their desired culture is appropriate. If so, what actions, changes of behaviours, and resources are required to assist such a transition? Of all four colleges, this may be the greatest challenge, although it also has the potential to reap considerable rewards.

The discussion about critical management skills is not always an easy discussion to have with administrators. Cameron and Quinn (2006) recognize a need for both the management and the leadership required in successful organizations by blending these two labels to create the term 'managerial leadership.' This researcher believes this term provides a healthy recognition of the complexity of providing guidance in multifaceted and complicated organizations, especially during changing times.

Determining the most effective managerial leadership required for organizations has captured the interest and passion of researchers and practitioners in all types of business and education. As each college must determine the managerial leadership required for their own institution based on their environment, so does Ontario need to determine the best managerial leadership required for public policy in higher education. Without a solid understanding of the current academic culture, change is courageous. However, it is unrealistic to believe that any change will occur without considerable resistance and turbulence, and, based on previous research, likely to be abandoned before the outcome is reached. We risk an ultimate diminished return on investment through decreased effectiveness and loss of recognition for global excellence if some of the changes being addressed are not respectful of the organizational cultures found in the system.

Recognizing the concept that organizational culture is important to each individual institution and their success, it is logical that organizational culture contributes to the province's higher education effectiveness – or lack of effectiveness. Policymakers, who understand organizational culture at each of the current post-secondary institutions, will become stronger change agents. It is too simple to look at the whole system without a comprehensive picture of the parts. For the Government of Ontario, an in-depth understanding and healthy recognition of unique organizational cultures in colleges and universities is essential to increase greater focus, differentiation and effectiveness.

Cameron and Quinn (2006) clearly state "changing an organization's culture is a very difficult endeavour, of course" (p. 142). These authors identify that the administrative team must be committed and dedicated for culture change to occur. Further, Cameron and Quinn affirm the challenge to change one's culture is complicated as most institutions desiring change are experiencing a 'mismatch' between customer expectations and performance. In addition, the leaders often hold a vision that requires a shift in direction. They advise organizations to plan on a multi-year effort and list a twenty step process that is organized into three phases (diagnosis, interpretation and implementation) to assist change management (p. 139). They also recommend returning to the OCAI and MSAI to initiate and facilitate cultural change regularly.

Scholars such as Pfeffer (1996, 1998), Senn and Childress (2002), Augustine (1998), Argryis (2010) and Cameron and Quinn (2006) provide stories of companies (both fictitious and real, such as Bell Atlantic, AT&T, Compaq Computers, Intel, Nordstrom, and Lockheed Martin) identifying organizational culture change as the key to their success or failure. Fullan and Scott (2009), Tierney (2008), and Toma (2010) address organizational culture change in academies. Although, the difficult nature of managing change is strongly argued, all of the above researchers

provide frameworks and detailed strategies to manage organizational culture change and enhance performance. Personal experience of this researcher supports the belief that organizational culture can change. Further, my own involvement in a number of institutions has afforded me with an understanding that through strong commitment, over prolonged periods of time, change to organizational culture can enhance performance.

Limitations of the Study

The findings from this study should not be generalized to colleges outside of the Ontario college system since the study involved four colleges who were selected based on their performance on Ontario government mandated Student Satisfaction KPIs. It is hoped that broader understanding of organizational culture and management skills, based on the four colleges in this study, will enhance an appreciation of the merit in assessing culture generally. The applicability of the findings to other jurisdictions, if any, will require additional research to determine if any of the findings or recommendations is relevant to their particular situation.

Data for this study involved four colleges with a numerical score above the system average for Student Satisfaction KPIs and there is a possibility of different results being obtained if all of the colleges with a numerical score above the system average for Student Satisfaction KPIs had participated in the survey. Analysis of similar results for colleges with a score below the system average for Student Satisfaction KPIs might have generated very interesting but different results as well. In addition, some may argue the sample at each of the four institutions was small, suggesting the results from the data have limited generalization to other colleges. This researcher believes that the data from the four colleges constitutes a valid demonstration of the OCAI and MSAI tools and how they can be applied to an analysis of college culture and management skills.

This study does not constitute a comprehensive assessment of organizational culture by all stakeholders at any of the colleges participating in the study. The sample is limited to the perceptions of senior college administrators and does not reflect the views of students, faculty or support staff.

The study does not address the overall performance of the colleges participating in the study and is limited to only one, albeit important, performance measure, student satisfaction with the learning experience. The discussion about how to measure performance of Ontario colleges is very complex and controversial and this should be recognized when considering the outcomes of this study.

Suggestions for Future Research

In addition to the aforementioned, a number of additional possibilities for further research arise from this study. One very obvious option is to conduct an organizational culture assessment at all colleges in Ontario with a view to analyzing individual and collective results. Research in this regard would expand the organizational culture comparison between colleges and allow for an examination of culture based on above average, average and below average KPIs. Possible linkages between organizational effectiveness and organizational culture could be then examined in more detail to include additional components of Student Satisfaction KPIs. Other dimensions such as size of institution, geographic location, gender and years of experience would vary in a study of this magnitude, providing additional breadth to the description of organizational culture at Ontario colleges. Using both the OCAI and MSAI instruments, there would also be implications for the administrators who provide leadership to the colleges. A college system analysis would allow consideration of the generalizability of the results of this study.

This study also gives rise to the idea that a replication of the Smart and St. John (1996)

study at this time would provide added knowledge about the impact of the environment and change forces on organizational culture over the past 15 years and determine if the same proportion of American four-year colleges and universities have maintained a dominant Clan type culture.

Although this research study was descriptive using a quantitative and non-experimental design, a more comprehensive understanding of the topic may result by using a design that includes both quantitative and qualitative assessments. Guba and Lincoln (1989) proposed credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability as four criteria for judging the soundness of qualitative research. They felt that their four criteria better reflected the underlying assumptions involved in much qualitative research. Engaging in the process of researching an organization as part of the change management process and including culture assessment to combine qualitative and quantitative data would be informative. This could be designed as a longitudinal study over two years or more, and use a number of randomly selected colleges with varying KPI performance as participants. An organizational culture assessment and management skills assessment could be followed by measures for changes to management design and related applications strategy. The application strategy would consist of providing assistance to participating colleges to develop a statement about their desired culture and an action plan to achieve this culture. Performance data from these colleges over the period of the study years would be gathered and compared with data from other colleges that were not involved in organizational culture assessment.

Finally, given the current different mandates of Ontario colleges and universities, a study comparing the organizational cultures of these two higher education options may provide

information to assist government with system design, policy development, institutional design, establishment of performance measures, and increase pathways between the two systems.

In conclusion, this study, the first of its kind in Canadian higher education, examined the perceptions held by college administrators at four Ontario colleges with above average Student Satisfaction (KPI) about their institution's current and preferred organizational culture and their management competencies. The study provides data and analysis that demonstrate differences and similarities in current and preferred culture types and management skills. This study links organizational culture and change management to performance enhancement.

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Appendix A
The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument

Informed Consent and Protection of Personal Privacy
<u>Participation in this survey is strictly voluntary</u>. You are under no obligation to participate and, in addition to all information being collected anonymously, any personal information you provide will be kept STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL. No personal information will be released to anyone but yourself. Please respond to all questions, you may skip any you are not comfortable answering. In addition, you may withdraw from this survey at any point prior to clicking the "Submit" button at the end of the questionnaire and any information you have provided will be deleted.

Clicking the "Submit" button will confirm your willingness to participate.

Terms of Participation

By clicking on "I Agree" below you are accepting the following terms:

1.   You are going to answer the questionnaire items in an honest and genuine manner.

2.   You agree to allow the Principal Investigator to access the data from this questionnaire for the

purposes of analysis and reporting.

3.   You are to complete ONLY ONE questionnaire.

4.   You have read the description of this project and understand its goals and methods.

5.   You understand that there are no known risks for those who participate in this study.

The purpose of the following instrument is to assess six key dimensions of organizational culture. There are no right or wrong answers.

Your responses will produce two independent ratings of your organization's culture – one as it currently exists and one as you wish it to be in five years.

FIRST – Complete the **Now Columns** by dividing 100 points among the four alternatives, depending on the extent to which each alternative is **<u>similar to your organization currently.</u> Give a higher number of points to the alternative that is most similar to your organization.**

SECOND – **Go back to the beginning of the questions in the columns by hitting the back arrow –** complete the **Preferred Columns** by dividing 100 points among the four alternatives. Think of your organization as **<u>you think it should be in five years</u>** in order to be spectacularly successful. **Give a higher number of points to the alternative that you think is most important to your organization in the future.**

You will complete the questions for this section twice (Now and Preferred).

1. Dominant Characteristics	Now	Preferred
A. The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.		
B. The organization is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.		
C. The organization is very results-oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement-oriented.		
D. The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.		
Total	100	100

2. Organizational Leadership	Now	Preferred
A. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.		
B. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovation, or risk-taking.		
C. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-orientated focus.		
D. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency.		
Total	100	100

3. Management of Employees	Now	Preferred
A. The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.		
B. The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.		
C. The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands and achievement.		
D. The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability and stability in relationships.		
Total	100	100

4. Organizational Glue	Now	Preferred
A. The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.		
B. The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.		
C. The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment.		
D. The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important.		
Total	100	100

5. Strategic Emphasis	Now	Preferred
A. The organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.		
B. The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.		
C. The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.		
D. The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control, and smooth operations are important.		
Total	100	100

	Now	Preferred
6. Criteria of Success	Now	Preferred
A. The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.		
B. The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.		
C. The organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.		
D. The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low-cost production are critical.		
Total	100	100

Worksheet for Scoring the OCAI

Now	Preferred
_____1A	_____1A
_____2A	_____2A
_____3A	_____3A
_____4A	_____4A
_____5A	_____5A
_____6A	_____6A
_____Sum (Total of A Responses)	_____Sum (Total of A Responses)

Now	Preferred
_____1B	_____1B
_____2B	_____2B
_____3B	_____3B
_____4B	_____4B
_____5B	_____5B
_____6B	_____6B
_____Sum (Total of B Responses)	_____Sum (Total of B Responses)

Now	Preferred
_____1C	_____1C
_____2C	_____2C
_____3C	_____3C
_____4C	_____4C
_____5C	_____5C
_____6C	_____6C
_____Sum (Total of C Responses)	_____Sum (Total of C Responses)

Now	Preferred
_____1D	_____1D
_____2D	_____2D
_____3D	_____3D
_____4D	_____4D
_____5D	_____5D
_____6D	_____6D
_____Sum (Total of D Responses)	_____Sum (Total of D Responses)

Appendix B
Management Skills Survey Self-Rating Form

Informed Consent and Protection of Personal Privacy

<u>Participation in this survey is strictly voluntary</u>. You are under no obligation to participate and, in addition to all information being collected anonymously, any personal information you provide will be kept STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL. No personal information will be released to anyone but yourself. Please respond to all questions, you may skip any you are not comfortable answering. In addition, you may withdraw from this survey at any point prior to clicking the "Submit" button at the end of the questionnaire and any information you have provided will be deleted.

Clicking the "Submit" button will confirm your willingness to participate.

Terms of Participation

By clicking on "I Agree" below you are accepting the following terms:

1.   You are going to answer the questionnaire items in an honest and genuine manner.

2.   You agree to allow the Principal Investigator to access the data from this questionnaire

for the purposes of analysis and reporting.

3.   You are to complete ONLY ONE questionnaire.

4.   You have read the description of this project and understand its goals and methods.

5.   You understand that there are no known risks for those who participate in this study.

The purpose of the following instrument is to your own management skills. There are no right or wrong answers.

Describe your behaviour as a manager. Respond to the items as you actually behave most of the time, not as you would like to behave. If you are unsure of an answer, make your best guess. Please mark your answers on the answer sheet using the following scale in your ratings:

5 – Strongly Agree
4 – Moderately Agree
3 – Slightly Agree and/or Slightly
    Disagree
2 – Moderately Disagree
1 – Strongly Disagree

1. I communicate in a supportive way when people in my unit share their problems with me.	5 4 3 2 1
2. I encourage others in my unit to generate new ideas and methods.	5 4 3 2 1
3. I motivate and energize others to do a better job.	5 4 3 2 1
4. I keep close track of how my unit is performing.	5 4 3 2 1
5. I regularly coach subordinates to improve their management skills so they can achieve higher levels of performance.	5 4 3 2 1
6. I insist on intense hard work and high productivity from my subordinates.	5 4 3 2 1
7. I establish ambitious goals that challenge subordinates to achieve performance levels above the standard.	5 4 3 2 1
8. I generate, or help others obtain, the resources necessary to implement their innovative ideas.	5 4 3 2 1
9. When someone comes up with a new idea, I help sponsor them to follow through on it.	5 4 3 2 1
10. I make certain that all employees are clear about our policies, values, and objectives.	5 4 3 2 1
11. I make certain that others have a clear picture of how their job fits with others in the organization.	5 4 3 2 1
12. I build cohesive, committed teams of people.	5 4 3 2 1
13. I give my subordinates regular feedback about how I think they're doing.	5 4 3 2 1
14. I articulate a clear vision of what can be accomplished in the future.	5 4 3 2 1
15. I foster a sense of comprehensiveness that helps members of my work group perform at higher levels than members of their unit.	5 4 3 2 1
16. I assure that regular reports and assessments occur in my unit.	5 4 3 2 1
17. I interpret and simplify complex information so that it makes sense to others and can be shared throughout the organization.	5 4 3 2 1
18. I facilitate effective information sharing and problem solving in my group.	5 4 3 2 1

5 – Strongly Agree
4 – Moderately Agree
3 – Slightly Agree and/or Slightly
    Disagree
2 – Moderately Disagree
1 – Strongly Disagree

19. I foster rational, systematic decision analysis in my unit (e.g., logically analyzing component parts of problems) to reduce the complexity of important issues.	5 4 3 2 1
20. I make sure that others in my unit are provided with opportunities for personal growth and development.	5 4 3 2 1
21. I create an environment where involvement and participation in decisions are encouraged and rewarded.	5 4 3 2 1
22. In groups I lead, I make sure that sufficient attention is given to both task accomplishment and interpersonal relationships.	5 4 3 2 1
23. When giving negative feedback to others, I foster their self-improvement rather than defensiveness or anger.	5 4 3 2 1
24. I give others assignments and responsibilities that provide opportunities for their personal growth and development.	5 4 3 2 1
25. I actively help prepare others to move up in the organization.	5 4 3 2 1
26. I regularly come up with new, creative ideas regarding processes, products, or procedures for my organization.	5 4 3 2 1
27. I constantly restate and reinforce my vision of the future to members of my unit.	5 4 3 2 1
28. I help others visualize a new kind of future that includes possibilities as well as probabilities.	5 4 3 2 1
29. I am always working to improve the processes we use to achieve our desired output.	5 4 3 2 1
30. I push my unit to achieve world-class competitiveness performance in service and/or products.	5 4 3 2 1
31. By empowering others in my unit, I foster a motivational climate that energizes everyone involved.	5 4 3 2 1
32. I have consistent and frequent personal contact with my internal and my external customers.	5 4 3 2 1
33. I make sure that we assess how well we are meeting our customers' expectations.	5 4 3 2 1
34. I provide experiences for employees that help them become socialized and integrated into the culture of our organization.	5 4 3 2 1
35. I increase the competitiveness of my unit by encouraging others to provide services and/or products that surprise and delight customers by exceeding their expectations.	5 4 3 2 1
36. I have established a control system that assures consistency in quality, service, cost, and productivity in my unit.	5 4 3 2 1
37. I coordinate regularly with managers in other units in my organization.	5 4 3 2 1
38. I routinely share information across functional boundaries in my organization to facilitate coordination.	5 4 3 2 1
39. I use a measurement system that consistently monitors both work processes and outcomes.	5 4 3 2 1
40. I clarify for members of my unit exactly what is expected of them.	5 4 3 2 1

5 – Strongly Agree
4 – Moderately Agree
3 – Slightly Agree and/or Slightly
      Disagree
2 – Moderately Disagree
1 – Strongly Disagree

41. I assure that everything we do is focused on better serving our customers	5 4 3 2 1
42. I facilitate a climate of aggressiveness and intensity in my unit.	5 4 3 2 1
43. I constantly monitor the strengths and weaknesses of our best competition and provide my unit with information on how we measure up.	5 4 3 2 1
44. I facilitate a climate of continuous improvement in my unit.	5 4 3 2 1
45. I have developed a clear strategy for helping my unit successfully accomplish my vision of the future.	5 4 3 2 1
46. I capture the imagination and emotional commitment of others when I talk about my vision of the future.	5 4 3 2 1
47. I facilitate a work environment where peers as well as subordinates learn from and help develop one another.	5 4 3 2 1
48. I listen openly and attentively to others who give me their ideas, even when I disagree.	5 4 3 2 1
49. When leading a group, I ensure collaboration and positive conflict resolution among group members.	5 4 3 2 1
50. I foster trust and openness by showing understanding for the point of view of individuals who come to me with problems or concerns.	5 4 3 2 1
51. I create an environment where experimentation and creativity are rewarded and recognized.	5 4 3 2 1
52. I encourage everyone in my unit to constantly improve and update everything they do.	5 4 3 2 1
53. I encourage all employees to make small improvements continuously in the way they do their jobs.	5 4 3 2 1
54. I make sure that my unit continuously gathers information on our customers' needs and preferences.	5 4 3 2 1
55. I involve customers in my unit's planning and evaluations.	5 4 3 2 1
56. I establish ceremonies and rewards in my unit that reinforce the values and culture of our organization.	5 4 3 2 1
57. I maintain a formal system for gathering and responding to information that originates in other units outside my own.	5 4 3 2 1
58. I initiate cross-functional teams or task forces that focus on important organizational issues.	5 4 3 2 1
59. I help my employees strive for improvement in all aspects of their lives.	5 4 3 2 1
60. I create a climate where individuals in my unit want to achieve higher levels of performance than the competition.	5 4 3 2 1

For questions 61 – 73, please rate your effectiveness in performing these skills.
Use the following scale in your rating:

5 – Outstanding
4 – Very Good
3 – Average
2 – Marginal
1 – Poor

61. Managing teams (building effective, cohesive, smooth-functioning teams)	5 4 3 2 1
62. Managing interpersonal relationships (listening to and providing supportive feedback to others)	5 4 3 2 1
63. Managing the development of others (helping others improve their performance and obtain personal development opportunities)	5 4 3 2 1
64. Fostering innovation (encouraging others to innovate and generate new ideas)	5 4 3 2 1
65. Managing the future (communicating a clear vision of the future and facilitating its accomplishment)	5 4 3 2 1
66. Managing continuous improvement (fostering an orientation toward continuous improvement among employees in everything they do)	5 4 3 2 1
67. Managing competitiveness (fostering an aggressive orientation toward exceeding competitors' performance)	5 4 3 2 1
68. Energizing employees (motivating others to put forth extra effort and to work aggressively)	5 4 3 2 1
69. Managing customer service (fostering a focus on service and involvement with customers)	5 4 3 2 1
70. Managing acculturation (helping others become clear about what is expected of them and about organizational culture and standards)	5 4 3 2 1
71. Managing the control system (having measurement and monitoring systems in place to keep close track of processes and performance)	5 4 3 2 1
72. Managing coordination (sharing information across functional boundaries and fostering coordination with other units)	5 4 3 2 1
73. Overall management competency (general level of managerial ability)	5 4 3 2 1

74. On the basis of your level of management competency, how high in the organization do you expect to go in your career? (CHECK ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE)

       5 – To the very top of the organization
       4 – Near the top—just below the CEO
       3 – To a senior position—perhaps members of the executive committee
       2 – One level above where you are now
       1 – No higher than the current position

75. Compared to all other managers you've known, how would you rate your own competency as a manager of managers?

       5 – Top 5%
       4 – Top 10%
       3 – Top 25%
       2 – Top 50%
       1 – in the bottom half

Note: The scale changes for questions 76 – 87. Please read carefully.

In order to succeed in your current position, how important is each of the following skills? Use the following scale in your rating:

5 – Critically Important
4 – Very Important
3 – Moderately
       Important
2 – Of Some Importance
1– Of Little Importance

76. Managing teams (building effective, cohesive, smooth-functioning teams)	5 4 3 2 1
77. Managing interpersonal relationships (listening to and providing supportive feedback to others)	5 4 3 2 1
78. Managing the development of others (helping others improve their performance and obtain personal development opportunities)	5 4 3 2 1
79. Fostering innovation (encouraging others to innovate and generate new ideas)	5 4 3 2 1
80. Managing the future (communicating a clear vision of the future and facilitating its accomplishment)	5 4 3 2 1
81. Managing continuous improvement (fostering an orientation toward continuous improvement among employees in everything they do)	5 4 3 2 1
82. Managing competitiveness (fostering aggressive orientation toward exceeding competitors' performance)	5 4 3 2 1
83. Energizing employees (motivating others to put forth extra effort and to work aggressively)	5 4 3 2 1
84. Managing customer service (fostering a focus on service and involvement with customers)	5 4 3 2 1
85. Managing acculturation (helping others become clear about what is expected of them and about organizational culture and standards)	5 4 3 2 1
86. Managing the control system (having measurement and monitoring systems in place to keep close track of processes and performance)	5 4 3 2 1
87. Managing coordination (sharing information across functional boundaries and fostering coordination with other units)	5 4 3 2 1

Demographic Information

In order to provide comparative feedback, please provide the following information about yourself.

1. Sex
   - i. _____ Male
   - ii. _____ Female

2. _____ Number of years experience in college settings

3. _____ Number of years at this institution

4. _____ Number of years in your current job

5. _____ Compared to last year at this same time, how would you rate the overall performance of your organizational unit?

   - i. _____ Much Lower
   - ii. _____ Lower
   - iii. _____ Slightly Lower
   - iv. _____ About the Same
   - v. _____ Slightly Higher
   - vi. _____ Higher
   - vii. _____ Much Higher

6. _____ Compared to your best competition, how has your unit performed this past year?

   - i. _____ Substantially Worse
   - ii. _____ Somewhat Worse
   - iii. _____ About the Same
   - iv. _____ Somewhat Better
   - v. _____ Substantially Better

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**Appendix C
Letter Requesting College Consent**

Date xx, 2010

To the President of an Ontario College

Attention: Mr. John Smith, President

Re: Participation in a research study designed to gain insights into perceptions of college administrators regarding their institution's organizational culture and their own management competencies.

I am a doctoral candidate at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education at the University of Toronto and am completing a research study designed to gain insights into perceptions of college administrators regarding their institution's organizational culture and their own management competencies. This study is being conducted under the supervision of Dr. Peter Dietsche, with Dr. Michael Skolnik and Dr. Glen Jones as committee members. In order to begin the research study, I require your written consent to involve administrators from your college.

Clearly the forces of change permeate Ontario colleges today, as they do all other sectors. If one accepts the concept that globalization and trends in higher education are driving change in academia, and that there is an increased emphasis on effectiveness and performance measures, the question becomes what do we know about the organizational culture at effective institutions that score high on performance measures? In addition, how a college can formally understand its own culture to inform a change process and ultimately improve performance remains unclear. The impact of organizational culture during these dynamic times is increasingly important as institutions of higher learning respond and change themselves.

The purpose of this study is to examine the assumptions held by college administrators about their own institution's organizational culture at three Ontario College of Applied Arts and Technology with an above average level of student satisfaction. The relationship between culture and performance will be explored within the context that student satisfaction is just one of many performance indicators currently being used in the Ontario college system. The study will also assess the applicability of Cameron and Quinn's Competing Values Framework for assessing organizational culture in Ontario colleges and will identify implications for leading institutional change. Further, the results will help guide college leaders who seek to improve performance by profiling both the culture and leadership skills of a high-performing institution and by highlighting the importance of understanding organizational culture through formal assessment.

Your college was selected as one of four in the study sample of Ontario Colleges with above average student satisfaction.   All members of your administrative team with responsibility to develop policy and manage others who can influence institutional performance will be asked to complete two surveys. Attached you will find a letter to your administrators, from you, indicating support of their voluntary participation in this research project.

The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) is a questionnaire for individuals to respond to six items that have been found to be equally predictive of an organization's culture. These six items include dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, organization glue, strategic emphasis, and criteria of success. Each item has four alternatives. Respondents are instructed to divide 100 points among these four alternatives depending on the extent to which each alternative is similar to their own organization, giving the highest ranking to the alternative most similar to their organization. The instrument asks respondents to respond to the six items considering the current organizational culture (now) and, when finished, to go back and respond to the same six items while thinking about the future demands of the environment and the opportunity to be faced by the organization (future).

The second survey, The Management Skills Assessment Instrument (MSAI), is a self-assessment tool designed to obtain descriptions of management behaviour on the job. Items on the questionnaire have been derived from research on managerial behaviour and the intent is to provide a profile of managerial competencies.

It is anticipated the surveys will take approximately 25 minutes to complete. Subjects will be well informed about the nature of the study and their participation, including the assurance that they may withdraw at any time. In addition, they may request that their information may be withdrawn from the project at any time. Participants will at no time be judged or evaluated, and will at no time be at risk of harm.

The information gathered from both surveys will be collected electronically in a confidential manner to protect the anonymity of participants. To achieve this, I am asking you to provide your Human Resources Director with a list of college administrators in formal leadership roles with the responsibility to manage others and influence institutional performance. To protect each administrator's anonymity, the Human Resources Director will assign each of the college administrators with a unique respondent number, starting with your college's distinct alphabetic code, which will be conveyed to each individual college administrator. The survey questionnaire will be posted at a URL which will be communicated to all eligible participants via the Human Resources Director. Those eligible to participate in the survey will respond using their unique number for tracking purposes.

All data collected will be used for the purposes of this PhD research thesis and, perhaps, academic publications and public presentations to those interested in furthering scholarly information about organizational culture, performance and colleges. All information will be reported in such a way that individual persons and colleges cannot be identified. The raw data collected will be kept in a locked file in the researcher's home for five years after the completion of the study.

Upon completion of the research, a copy of your college's research findings will be provided to you. Individuals are invited to request a copy of their own data profile and their college's profile.   I would also make myself available to your organization, at your request, to discuss the findings once the research project and thesis have been completed.

If you agree, please sign the letter below and return it to me in the envelope provided. If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at 905-721-8668 ext. 3135 or at marylynn.west-moynes@uoit.ca. You may also contact my supervisor, Dr. Peter Dietsche at 416- 978-1217 or pdietsche@oise.utoronto.ca . Finally, you may also contact the U of T Office of Research Ethics for questions about your rights as a research participant at ethics.review@utoronto.ca or 416-946-3273.

Your willingness for your institution to participate would be very much appreciated.

MaryLynn West-Moynes   Dr. Peter Dietsche
Ph.D. Candidate. Theory and Policy Studies in Education   William Davis Chair, Professor,
OISE/University of Toronto   Theory and Policy Studies in Education
Telephone: 905-721-8668 Ext. 3135   OISE/University of Toronto

Email: marylynn.west-moynes@uoit.ca   Telephone: 416- 978-1217
                                                             Email: pdietsche@oise.utoronto.ca .

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Indication of Consent:

*Name of College....*has considered the letter of invitation from MaryLynn West-Moynes, a doctoral candidate at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education at the University of Toronto, to participate in a research project being completed under the supervision of Dr. Peter Dietsche, William Davis Chair, Professor, Theory and Policy Studies in Education, OISE/University of Toronto, and wishes to confirm its willingness to participate.

The college understands the identity of the college will be kept confidential and that individual participants are free to make their individual decision with regard to participation. Administrators, if they agree to participation in the study, are free to withdraw at any time. The President will provide the Director of Human Resources a list of administrators to invite to participate in the study. The Director of Human Resources is free to assist with providing respondents with discrete codes and direct them to the URL to complete the study in a confidential manner.

_____

President of the College

Date_____

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Appendix D
Letter from Researcher inviting Participation and Individual Consent

Informed Consent Letter

September 2010

To the Administrators

Re: Participation in a research study designed to gain insights into perceptions of college administrators regarding their institution's organizational culture and their own management competencies.

By now, you will have received earlier correspondence from your college President, insert president's name, who has indicated that your college has agreed to participate in this important research study. As President, insert president's name has explained, I am a doctoral candidate at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education at the University of Toronto and am completing a research study designed to gain insights into perceptions of college administrators regarding their institution's organizational culture and their own management competencies. This study is being conducted under the supervision of Dr. Peter Dietsche, with Dr. Michael Skolnik and Dr. Glen Jones as committee members. In order to begin the research study, I require your written consent to be involved in the study.

Clearly the forces of change permeate Ontario colleges today, as they do all other sectors. If one accepts the concept that globalization and trends in higher education are driving change in academia, and that there is an increased emphasis on effectiveness and performance measures, the question becomes what do we know about the organizational culture at effective institutions that score high on performance measures? In addition, how a college can formally understand its own culture to inform a change process and ultimately improve performance remains unclear. The impact of organizational culture during these dynamic times is increasingly important as institutions of higher learning respond and change themselves.

The purpose of this study is to examine the assumptions held by college administrators about their own institution's organizational culture at three Ontario College of Applied Arts and Technology with an above average level of student satisfaction. The relationship between culture and performance will be explored within the context that student satisfaction is just one of many performance indicators currently being used in the Ontario college system. The study will also assess the applicability of Cameron and Quinn's Competing Values Framework for assessing organizational culture in Ontario colleges and will identify implications for leading institutional change. Further, the results will help guide college leaders who seek to improve performance by profiling both the culture and leadership skills of a high-performing institution and by highlighting the importance of understanding organizational culture through formal assessment.

Your college was selected as one of three in the study sample of Ontario Colleges with above average student satisfaction. Members of your administrative team with responsibility to develop policy and manage others who can influence institutional performance will be asked to complete two surveys.

The first survey you will be asked to complete is the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) which is a questionnaire asking individuals to respond to six items that have been found to be equally predictive of an organization's culture.

The second survey, The Management Skills Assessment Instrument (MSAI), is a self-assessment tool designed to obtain descriptions of management behaviour on the job. Items on the questionnaire have been

derived from research on managerial behaviour and the intent is to provide a profile of managerial competencies.

It is anticipated the surveys will take approximately 25 minutes to complete. Participation in the study is voluntary and you may withdraw at any time. In addition, you may request that your information may be withdrawn from the project at any time. Be assured that at no time will you be judged or evaluated, and at no time will you be at risk of harm.

The information gathered from both surveys will be collected electronically in a confidential manner to protect the anonymity of participants. Your Research Contact, insert name here, to protect your anonymity, will assign you a unique respondent number, starting with your college's distinct alphabetic code. The survey questionnaire will be posted at a URL which will be communicated to all eligible participants via the Research Contact. Those who have given consent to participate in the survey will respond using their unique number for tracking purposes.

All data collected will be used for the purposes of this PhD research thesis and, perhaps, academic publications and public presentations to those interested in furthering scholarly information about organizational culture, performance and colleges. All information will be reported in such a way that individual persons and colleges cannot be identified. The raw data collected will be kept in a locked file in the researcher's home for five years after the completion of the study.

Upon completion of the research, a copy of your college's research findings will be provided to your president. You are invited to request a copy of your own data profile and your college's profile.

If you agree, please sign the letter below and return it to (Research Contact's name). If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at 905-721-8668 ext. 3135 or at marylynn.west-moynes@uoit.ca. You may also contact my supervisor, Dr. Peter Dietsche at 416- 978-1217 or pdietsche@oise.utoronto.ca . Finally, you may also contact the U of T Office of Research Ethics for questions about your rights as a research participant at ethics.review@utoronto.ca or 416-946-3273.

Your willingness to participate would be very much appreciated.

MaryLynn West-Moynes   Dr. Peter Dietsche
Ph.D. Candidate. Theory and Policy Studies in Education   William Davis Chair, Professor,
OISE/University of Toronto   Theory and Policy Studies in Education
Telephone: 905-721-8668 Ext. 3135   OISE/University of Toronto

Email: marylynn.west-moynes@uoit.ca   Telephone: 416- 978-1217
Email: pdietsche@oise.utoronto.ca .

Appendix E

Approval to Use Surveys from Drs. Cameron and Quinn

Request From: MaryLynn West-Moynes [MaryLynn.West-Moynes@uoit.ca]
Sent: Wednesday, November 18, 2009 8:55 AM
To: requinn@umich.edu; cameronk@umich.edu
Cc: Peter Dietsche (pdietsche@oise.utoronto.ca)
Subject: PhD Candidate - Request for Permission to use OCAI and MSAI in PhD Case Study Research

Dear Dr. Cameron and Dr. Quinn

I am a PhD student at the University of Toronto in the Department of Theory and Policy Studies. My PhD supervisor is Dr. Peter Dietsche, The William Davis Chair in Community College Leadership and Dr. Michael Skolnik, past William Davis Chair and Dr. Glen Jones, Associate Dean Academic and Ontario Research Chair on Postsecondary Education Policy and Measurement are both on my committee.

I am writing to seek your permission to use the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) and the Management Assessment Instrument (MSAI) to collect data for my PhD thesis. As a mature learner and a retired college president, I have found these two assessment tools and your work using the competing values framework for organizational cultural assessment and guiding change management strategies through leadership self-assessment the most concrete and instructional vehicle available. My own experience and observations as a leader in higher education is that too often organizational culture is assumed through perception rather than informed through data.

The following is the Problem Statement from my Thesis Proposal:

Problem Statement
Clearly the forces of change permeate Ontario colleges today, as they do all other sectors. If one accepts the concept that globalization and trends in higher education are driving change in academia, and that there is an increased emphasis on effectiveness and performance measures, the question becomes what do we know about the organizational culture at effective institutions that demonstrate high performance measures?
It remains unclear how a college formally understands its own culture to inform its change process and ultimately improve performance. The impact of organizational culture during these dynamic times is increasingly important as institutions of higher learning respond and change themselves.
Given the complexity of this issue, a more focused question is in order. What can we learn from a college with high student satisfaction about college culture and are there implications for other institutions wanting to inform their change management process and ultimately improve their performance?
The purpose of this study is to examine the organizational culture of an Ontario Community College with high student satisfaction. Through this case study of an Ontario college which has persistently demonstrated high student satisfaction, the impact of culture on college performance and leading change in colleges will be explored. Further, this study is intended to provide insight for other leaders of institutions of higher learning, who seek improved performance by promoting an awareness of the importance of understanding ones' own organizational culture through formal assessment in order to manage change.

If I receive your permission, I will use the OCAI and the MSAI to gather data to inform a case study of an Ontario Community College with high student satisfaction.

I am asking you to provide me with written permission to use the OCAI and MSAI. If there is further information or another process I need to follow to obtain permission, please let me know. Dr. Dietshe has agreed to answer any questions you may have of him on this matter and I have copied him on this emal.

Thank you in advance for considering my request.
Regards
MaryLynn West-Moynes

Approval Granted

Dr. Kim Cameron
Received – 11-18-209

Dear Ms. West-Moynes:

Thank you for your inquiry about using the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) and Management Assessment Instrument (MSAI).

The OCAI instrument (Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument) was copyrighted by Professor Kim Cameron in the 1980s, but because it is published in the Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture book, it is also copyrighted by Jossey Bass.

The instruments may be used free of charge for research or student purposes, but a licensing fee is charged when the instrument is used by a company or by consulting firms to generate revenues. Because you fall into the first category, Dr. Cameron grants you permission to use both instruments free of charge. He would appreciate it if you would share your results with him when you finish your study.

Please let me know if you have other questions.

Best regards,

Meredith Mecham Smith
Assistant to Kim Cameron
Kim Cameron
William Russell Kelly Professor
Ross School of Business
and Professor of Higher Education
School of Education
University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48109
734-615-5247
Kim_Cameron@umich.edu
Dr. Robert Quinn
Received 04/11/2009
From: Quinn, Robert [mailto:requinn@bus.umich.edu]
Sent: Wednesday, November 18, 2009 9:40 AM
To: MaryLynn West-Moynes; requinn@umich.edu; cameronk@umich.edu
Cc: Peter Dietsche (pdietsche@oise.utoronto.ca)
Subject: RE: PhD Candidate - Request for Permission to use OCAI and MSAI in PhD Case Study Research

Permission granted.
Best of luck on this impressive study.

Appendix F
U of T Ethics Approval Appendix C – U of T Ethics Approval

UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO

OFFICE OF THE VICE PRESIDENT, RESEARCH

PROTOCOL REFERENCE # 25360

July 5, 2010

Dr. Peter Dietsche
Department of Theory and Policy Studies
OISE/University of Toronto
252 Bloor St. West
Toronto, ON M5S 1V6

Ms. MaryLynn West-Moynes
Department of Theory and Policy Studies
OISE/University of Toronto
252 Bloor St. West
Toronto, ON M5S 1V6

Dear Dr. Dietsche and Ms. West-Moynes:

Re: Your research protocol entitled, "Perceptions of College Administrators Regarding their
        Institution's Organizational Culture and their Own Management Competencies"

ETHICS APPROVAL	**Original Approval Date: July 5, 2010**
	Expiry Date: July 4, 2011
	Continuing Review Level: 1

We are writing to advise you that a member of the Social Sciences, Humanities and Education
Research Ethics Board has granted approval to the above-named research study, for a period of **one
year**. Ongoing projects must be renewed prior to the expiry date.

All your most recently submitted documents have been approved for use in this study.

**Any changes to the approved protocol or consent materials must be reviewed and
approved through the amendment process prior to its implementation. Any adverse or
unanticipated events should be reported to the Office of Research Ethics as soon as
possible.**

**Please ensure that you submit an Annual Renewal Form or a Study Completion Report 15
to 30 days prior to the expiry date of your study. Note that annual renewals for studies cannot
be accepted more than 30 days prior to the date of expiry, as per federal and international
policies.**

If your research has funding attached, please contact the relevant Research Funding Officer in
Research Services to ensure that your funds are released.

Best wishes for the successful completion of your project.

Yours sincerely,

S. Lanthier
Research Ethics Coordinator

Appendix G
Summary of Data
Comparison Data - Demographic (Current)

	Combined Colleges	College A	College B	College C	College D
Total Sample	44	11	13	10	10
Clan	27.60	23.03	32.04	33.03	21.42
Adhocracy	21.43	20.30	26.55	17.12	20.33
Market	23.47	28.79	21.46	13.53	30.17
Hierarchy	27.50	27.89	19.95	36.32	28.08
Male	25	8	5	6	6
Clan	25.48	22.81	30.00	28.81	21.94
Adhocracy	21.31	20.73	25.17	18.81	21.39
Market	25.85	29.58	23.33	16.03	32.78
Hierarchy	27.36	26.88	21.50	36.36	23.89
Female	19	3	8	4	4
Clan	30.39	23.61	33.31	39.38	20.63
Adhocracy	21.59	19.17	27.42	14.58	18.75
Market	20.34	26.67	20.29	9.79	26.25
Hierarchy	27.68	30.56	18.98	36.25	34.38
< 3 years	14	5	4	2	3
Clan	26.79	27.17	30.00	37.08	15.00
Adhocracy	20.18	20.50	24.79	22.08	12.22
Market	23.51	24.17	24.58	13.75	27.50
Hierarchy	29.52	28.17	20.63	27.08	45.28
3-5 years	18	4	5	7	2
Clan	28.20	17.50	33.63	32.79	20.00
Adhocracy	20.17	17.50	27.53	16.83	18.75
Market	22.79	35.42	18.97	13.98	37.92
Hierarchy	28.84	29.58	19.87	36.40	23.33
6-20 years	12	2	4	1	5
Clan	27.64	23.75	32.08	26.67	25.83
Adhocracy	24.79	25.42	27.08	9.17	25.83
Market	24.44	27.08	21.46	10.00	28.67
Hierarchy	23.13	23.75	19.38	54.17	19.67

Comparison Data - Demographic (Preferred)

	Combined Colleges	College A	College B	College C	College D
Total Sample	44	11	13	10	10
Clan	32.76	29.85	33.96	32.75	34.42
Adhocracy	28.54	27.50	29.28	27.00	30.25
Market	20.72	23.64	19.47	19.00	20.83
Hierarchy	17.98	19.02	17.28	21.25	14.50
Male	25	8	5	6	6
Clan	33.57	31.77	34.00	30.42	38.75
Adhocracy	28.03	27.81	29.67	25.42	29.58
Market	21.33	22.81	19.67	22.78	19.31
Hierarchy	17.07	17.60	16.67	21.39	12.36
Female	19	3	8	4	4
Clan	31.70	24.72	33.94	36.25	27.92
Adhocracy	29.20	26.67	29.04	29.38	31.25
Market	19.90	25.83	19.35	13.33	23.13
Hierarchy	19.19	22.78	17.67	21.04	17.71
< 3 years	14	5	4	2	3
Clan	34.70	31.00	33.13	38.33	40.56
Adhocracy	29.70	29.17	30.63	25.42	32.22
Market	17.98	21.83	19.58	13.33	12.50
Hierarchy	17.62	18.00	16.67	22.92	14.72
3-5 years	18	4	5	7	2
Clan	31.06	26.25	34.63	32.50	26.67
Adhocracy	27.40	24.58	28.47	27.62	29.58
Market	22.07	26.88	18.63	19.76	29.17
Hierarchy	19.47	22.29	18.27	20.12	14.58
6-20 years	12	2	4	1	5
Clan	33.06	34.17	33.96	23.33	33.83
Adhocracy	28.89	29.17	28.96	25.83	29.33
Market	21.88	21.67	20.42	25.00	22.50
Hierarchy	16.18	15.00	16.67	25.83	14.33

OCAI Current Situation

Current Culture Type	Combined Colleges (N=44)	College A (N=11)	College B (N=13)	College C (N=10)	College D (N=10)
Dominant(Highest) Quadrant	**Clan** (Mean= 27.60)	**Market** (Mean = 28.79)	**Clan** (Mean = 32.04)	**Hierarchy** (Mean = 36.32)	**Market** (Mean = 30.17)
Second (Highest) Quadrant	**Hierarchy **** (Mean = 27.50)	**Hierarchy **** (Mean =27.89)	**Adhocracy** (Mean = 26.55)	**Clan** (Mean = 33.03)	**Hierarchy** (Mean = 28.08)
Third(Highest) Quadrant	**Market** (Mean = 23.47)	**Clan** (Mean = 23.03)	**Market** (Mean = 21.46)	**Adhocracy** (Mean =17.12)	**Clan** (Mean = 21.42)
Fourth (Lowest) Quadrant	**Adhocracy** (Mean = 21.43)	**Adhocracy** (Mean = 20.30)	**Hierarchy** (Mean = 19.95)	**Market** (Mean = 13.53)	**Adhocracy** (Mean = 20.33)
Uniquely Strong	X	X	C > M & H	-H > A & M - C >A & M	X
Flexibility &Discretion (F. & D.) vs. Stability&Control (S. & C.)	**S. &C. = 50.97** F.& D. = 49.03	**S. & C. = 56.68** F. & D. = 43.33	**F. & D. = 58.59** S. & C. = 41.41	**F. & D. = 50.15** S. & C. = 49.85	**S. & C. =58.25** F. & D. = 41.75
Internal&Integration(I. & I.) vs. External& Differentiation (E. & D.)	**I.& I.= 55.10** E.& D. = 44.90	**I.& I.= 50.92** E.& D. = 49.09	**I.& I.= 51.99** E.& D. = 48.01	**I.& I.= 69.35** E.& D. = 30.65	I.& I.= 49.50 **E.& D. = 50.50**
Discrepancy	X	X	X	Hierarchy	Clan Hierarchy
Cultural Dimensions& Congruence	**Lack of Congruence**	**Lack of Congruence**	**Total Congruence for Clan Culture**	**Strong Congruence forHierarchy Culture**	**Strong Congruence for Market Culture**
Dominant Characteristic	**C**– Personal place (Mean = 30.27)	H – Controlled/ structured (Mean = 30.00)	**C**–Personal place (Mean = 29.38)	**C**– Personal place (Mean = 42.50)	**H**– Controlled/ structured (Mean = 31.00)
Organizational Leadership	**H** –Leaders exemplify efficiency (Mean = 29.59)	**M** –Leaders resultsoriented (Mean = 35.91)	**C**–Leaders asmentors (Mean =31.54)	**H**–Leaders exemplifyefficiency (Mean = 42.70)	**M**–Leaders results oriented (Mean = 33.50)
Management of Employees	**C**– Teamwork, consensus (Mean = 31.02)	**M**– Competitiveness,achievement (Mean = 29.55)	**C**– Teamwork, consensus (Mean =41.54)	**H**– Conformity, stability (Mean = 39.50)	**M**-Competitiveness, achievement (Mean = 34.50)
Organizational Glue	**C**– Loyalty &trust (Mean = 32.77)	**C**– Loyalty &trust (Mean = 27.27)	**C**– Loyalty & trust (Mean =32.46)	**C**– Loyalty & trust (Mean = 38.50)	**C** - Loyalty & trust (Mean = 33.50)
Strategic Emphases	**H**–Emphasizes stability/efficiency (Mean = 27.57)	**M** –Emphasizes competition/ achievement (Mean = 28.18)	**C**– Emphasizes human development (Mean =30.38)	**H**–Emphasizes stability/efficiency (Mean = 42.50)	**M**– Emphasizes competition/ achievement (Mean = 31.50)
Criteria For Success	**H**– Success is efficiency/ dependability (Mean = 32.16)	**H**– Success is efficiency/ dependability (Mean = 32.73)	**C**– Success is human development (Mean = 26.92)	**H**– Success is efficiency/ dependability (Mean = 41.00)	**M** - Success is market leadership (Mean = 30.50)

C – Clan: Collaborative; A – Adhocracy: Creative ; M – Market: Competing; H – Hierarchy: Controlling; ** - Indicates < 1 point difference with dominant quadrant; ____ – Highest Characteristic

MSAI

Current Management Skills	Combined Colleges (N=44)	College A (N=11)	College B (N=13)	College C (N=10)	College D (N=10)
Dominant (Highest) Characteristic in the Quadrant	**Clan** **(Mean = 4.41)** -Managing Interpersonal Relationships (Mean = 4.48)	**Clan** **(Mean = 4.27)** - Managing Teams (Mean = 4.36)	**Clan** **(Mean = 4.57)** - Managing Interpersonal Relationships (Mean =4.68)	**Clan** **(Mean = 4.32)** -Managing Interpersonal Relationships (Mean = 4.44)	**Clan** **(Mean = 4.45)** -Managing the Development of Others (Mean = 4.48)
Second (Highest) Characteristic in the Quadrant	**Adhocracy** **(Mean = 4.22)** -Managing Innovation (Mean = 4.45)	**Adhocracy** **(Mean = 4.07)** - Managing Innovation (Mean = 4.27)	**Adhocracy** **(Mean = 4.39)** - Managing Innovation (Mean = 4.63)	**Adhocracy** **(Mean = 4.07)** -Managing Innovation (Mean = 4.46)	**Adhocracy** **(Mean = 4.31)** -Managing Innovation (Mean = 4.38)
Third (Highest) Characteristic in the Quadrant	**Hierarchy** **(Mean = 3.96)** - Managing Coordination (Mean = 4.08)	**Hierarchy** **(Mean = 3.89)** -Managing Coordination (Mean = 4.04)	**Hierarchy** **(Mean = 4.08)** -Managing Coordination (Mean = 4.18)	**Hierarchy** **(Mean = 3.71)** -Managing Coordination (Mean = 3.78)	**Hierarchy** **(Mean = 4.09)** -Managing Coordination (Mean = 4.28)
Fourth (Lowest) Characteristic in Quadrant	**Market** **(Mean = 3.77)** -Managing Customer Service (Mean=3.98)	**Market** **(Mean = 3.78)** -Managing Competitiveness & Managing Customer Service (Mean = 3.80)	**Market** **(Mean = 3.88)** -Managing Competitiveness (Mean =3.68)	**Market** **(Mean = 3.50)** -Managing Customer Service (Mean =3.86)	**Market** **(Mean = 3.85)** -Managing Customer Service (Mean = 4.02)
Lowest Characteristic Overall	**Market** -Managing Competitiveness (Mean = 3.61)	**Hierarchy** - Managing the Control System (Mean = 3.69)	**Market** -Managing Competitiveness (Mean =3.68)	**Market** -Managing Competitiveness (Mean = 3.22)	**Market** -Managing Competitiveness (Mean = 3.70)
Uniquely Strong	X	X	Managing Interpersonal Relations over Managing Competitiveness	Managing Innovation over Managing Competitiveness	X

C – Clan: Collaborative   A – Adhocracy: Creative   M – Market: Competing   H – Hierarchy: Controlling   ____ – Highest Characteristic (Underlined)

OCAI Preferred Situation

Preferred Culture Type	Combined Colleges (N=44)	College A (N=11)	College B (N=13)	College C (N=10)	College D (N=10)
Dominant (Highest)	**Clan** (Mean = 32.76)	**Clan** (Mean = 29.85)	**Clan** (Mean =33.96)	**Clan** (Mean = 32.75)	**Clan** (Mean = 34.42)
Second (Highest)	**Adhocracy** (Mean = 28.54)	**Adhocracy** (Mean = 27.50)	**Adhocracy** (Mean = 29.28)	**Adhocracy** (Mean = 27.00)	**Adhocracy** (Mean = 30.25)
Third (Highest)	**Market** (Mean = 20.72)	**Market** (Mean = 23.64)	**Market** (Mean = 19.47)	**Hierarchy** (Mean = 21.25)	**Market** (Mean = 20.83)
Fourth (Lowest)	**Hierarchy** (Mean = 17.98)	**Hierarchy** (Mean = 19.02)	**Hierarchy** (Mean = 17.98)	**Market** (Mean = 19.00)	**Hierarchy** (Mean = 14.50)
Uniquely Strong	**-C > M & H** **-A> H**	**-C >H**	**-C > M & H** **-A> H**	**- C > M& H**	**-C > M & H** **-A> H**
Flexibility & Discretion (F. & D.) vs. Stability & Control	**F. & D. = 61.30** S. & C. = 38.70	**F. & D. = 57.35** S. & C. = 42.66	**F. & D. = 63.24** S. & C. = 36.75	**F. & D. = 59.75** S. & C. = 40.25	**F. & D. = 64.67** S. & C. = 35.33
Internal& Integration versus External & Differentiation	**I. & I. = 50.74** E.& D. = 49.26	I.& I= 48.87 **E.& D. = 51.14**	**I. & I. = 51.24** E.& D. = 48.75	**I. & I. = 54.00** E.& D.= 46.00	I.& I.= 48.92 **E.& D. = 51.08**
Discrepancy	X	X	X	Hierarchy	Clan Hierarchy
Cultural Dimensions& Congruence	**Strong Congruence for Clan Culture**	**Strong Congruence for Clan Culture**	**Strong Congruence for Clan Culture**	**Total Congruence for Clan Culture**	**Strong Congruence for Clan Culture**
Dominant Characteristic	**A** -Dynamic/ entrepreneurial (Mean = 31.30)	**A** -Dynamic/ entrepreneurial (Mean = 30.00)	**A** -Dynamic/ entrepreneurial (Mean =31.69)	**C**- Personal place (Mean = 31.50)	**A** – Dynamic/ entrepreneurial (Mean = 32.50)
Organizational Leadership	**C** - Leaders as mentors (Mean = 30.23)	**C** - Leaders as mentors (Mean =26.82)	**C** - Leaders as mentors (Mean = 33.46)	**C** - Leaders as mentors (Mean = 30.00)	**A** – Leaders as entrepreneurs (Mean = 33.50)
Management of Employees	**C** - Teamwork, consensus (Mean = 37.73)	**C** - Teamwork, consensus (Mean = 33.64)	**C** - Teamwork, consensus (Mean = 43.08)	**C** - Teamwork, consensus (Mean = 37.00)	**C** - Teamwork, consensus (Mean = 36.00)
Organizational Glue	**C** - Loyalty & trust (Mean = 35.27)	**C** - Loyalty &trust (Mean = 33.18)	**C** - Loyalty &trust (Mean = 34.38)	**C**- Loyalty &trust (Mean = 30.00)	**C** - Loyalty &trust (Mean = 44.00)
Strategic Emphases	**C**– Emphasizes human development (Mean = 32.27)	**C**– Emphasizes human development (Mean = 28.64)	**C** - Emphasizes human development (Mean 33.46)	**C** - Emphasizes human development (Mean = 33.00)	**C** - Emphasizes human development (Mean = 34.00)
Criteria For Success	**C** - Success is human development (Mean = 31.70)	**C** - Success is human development (Mean = 30.00)	**C** - Success is human development (Mean 30.77)	**C** - Success is human development (Mean = 35.00)	**C** - Success is human development (Mean = 31.50)

C – Clan: Collaborative   **A** – Adhocracy: Creative   **M** – Market: Competing   **H** – Hierarchy: Controlling   ____– Highest Characteristic (Underlined)

Note: Shading represents differing cultural dimensions from other three colleges

Public Administration, Gender & Experience in Current Job– Current and Preferred States

Current Culture Type	Combined Colleges (N=44)	*Public Administration	Males (N=25)	Female (N=14)	>3 Years (N=14)	3 – 5 Years (N=12)	6 – 20 Years (N=18)
Dominant	Clan (Mean= 27.60)	Hierarchy (Mean = 32.00)	Hierarchy (Mean = 27.36)	Clan (Mean = 30.39)	Hierarchy (Mean = 29.52)	Hierarchy (Mean = 28.84)	Clan (Mean = 27.64)
Second Highest Quadrant	Hierarchy (Mean = 27.50)	Market (Mean = 23.00)	Market (Mean = 25.85)	Hierarchy (Mean = 27.68)	Clan (Mean = 26.79)	Clan (Mean = 28.20)	Adhocracy (Mean = 24.79)
Third Highest Quadrant	Market (Mean = 23.47)	Clan (Mean = 21.00)	Clan (Mean = 25.48)	Adhocracy (Mean = 21.59)	Market (Mean = 23.51)	Market (Mean = 22.79)	Market (Mean = 24.44)
Fourth (Lowest) Quadrant	Adhocracy (Mean = 21.43)	Adhocracy (Mean =13.00)	Adhocracy (Mean = 21.31)	Market (Mean = 20.34)	Adhocracy (Mean = 20.18)	Adhocracy (Mean = 20.17)	Hierarchy (Mean = 23.13)
Uniquely Strong	X	H>C&A M>A	X	C > M	X	X	X
Flexibility & Discretion (F. & D.) vs. Stability & Control (S. & C.)	S. & C. = 50.97 F. & D. = 49.03	S. & C. = 55.00 F. & D. = 34.00	S. & C. = 53.21 F. & D. = 46.79	F. & D. = 51.98 S. & C. = 48.02	S. & C. = 53.03 F. & D. = 46.97	S. & C. = 51.63 F. & D. = 48.37	F. & D. = 52.43 S. & C. = 47.57
Internal & Integration(I. & I.) vs. External & Differentiation (E. & D.)	I. & I.= 55.10 E.& D. = 44.90	I. & I.= 53.00 E. & D. = 36.00	I. & I.= 52.84 E. & D. = 47.16	I. & I.= 58.07 E. & D. = 41.93	I. & I.= 56.31 E. & D. = 43.69	I. & I.= 57.04 E. & D. = 42.96	I. & I. = 50.77 E. & D. = 49.23
Discrepancy	X	N/A	X	X	Hierarchy	X	X
Preferred Culture Type							
Dominant (Highest)	Clan (Mean = 32.76)	N/A	Clan (Mean = 33.57)	Clan (Mean = 31.70)	Clan (Mean = 34.70)	Clan (Mean = 31.06)	Clan (Mean = 33.06)
Second (Highest)	Adhocracy (Mean = 28.54)	N/A	Adhocracy (Mean = 28.03)	Adhocracy (Mean = 29.20)	Adhocracy (Mean = 29.70)	Adhocracy (Mean = 27.40)	Adhocracy (Mean = 28.09)
Third (Highest)	Market (Mean = 20.72)	N/A	Market (Mean = 21.33)	Market (Mean = 19.90)	Market (Mean =17.98)	Market (Mean = 22.07)	Market (Mean = 21.88)
Fourth (Lowest)	Hierarchy (Mean = 17.98)	N/A	Hierarchy (Mean = 17.07)	Hierarchy (Mean = 19.19)	Hierarchy (Mean = 17.62)	Hierarchy (Mean = 19.47)	Hierarchy (Mean = 16.18)
Uniquely Strong	-C > M & H -A> H	N/A	- C > M & H - A > H	- C > M & H - A > H	- C > M & H - A > M & H	- C > H	- C > M & H - A > H
Flexibility & Discretion (F. & D.) vs. Stability & Control	F. & D. = 61.30 S. & C. = 38.70	N/A	F. & D. = 61.30 S. & C. = 38.40	F. & D. = 60.90 S. & C. = 39.09	F. & D. = 64.40 S. & C. = 35.60	F. & D. = 58.46 S. & C. = 41.54	F. & D. = 61.95 S. & C. = 38.06
Internal & Integration versus External & Differentiation	I. & I. = 50.74 E. & D. = 49.26	N/A	I. & I.= 50.64 E. & D. = 49.36	I. & I.= 50.89 E. & D. = 49.10	I. & I.= 52.32 E. & D. = 47.68	I. & I.= 50.53 E. & D. = 49.47	I. & I. = 52.25 E. & D. = 50.77

C – Clan: Collaborative   A – Adhocracy: Creative   M – Market: Competing   H – Hierarchy: Controlling   * From Cameron & Quinn (2006)

Appendix H
Average Dimensions Profiles for Combined and Each College

Average Culture Profile for Individual Items on the OCAI - All
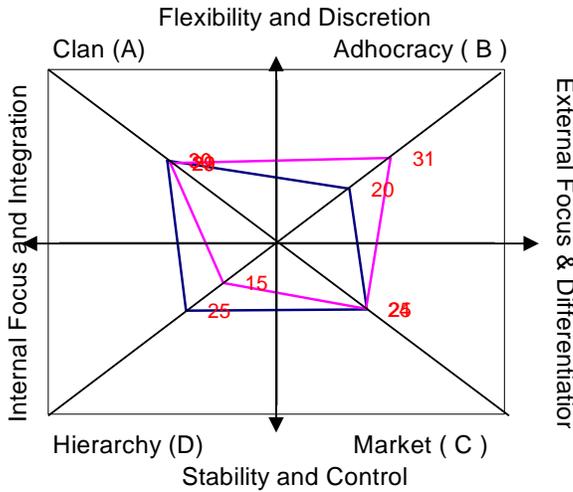
1 Organizational Characteristics: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**
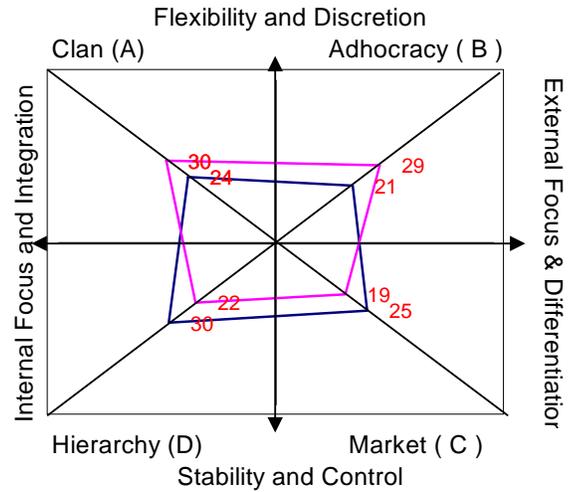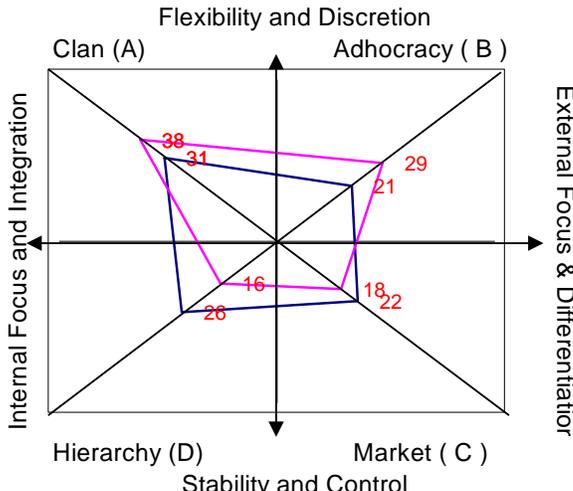

2 Organizational Leader: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**

3 Management of Employees: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**
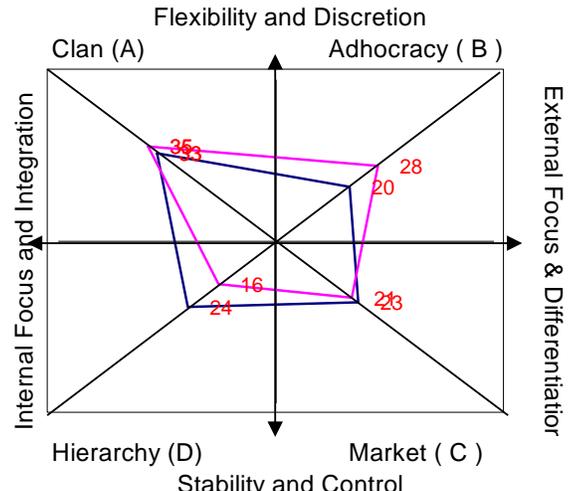
4 Organizational Glue: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**
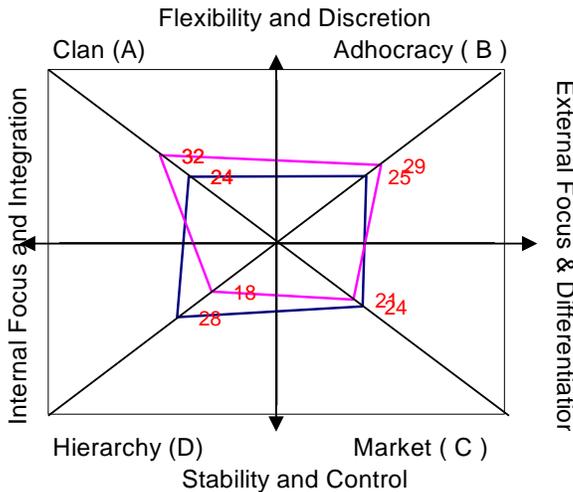

5 Strategic Emphasis: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**
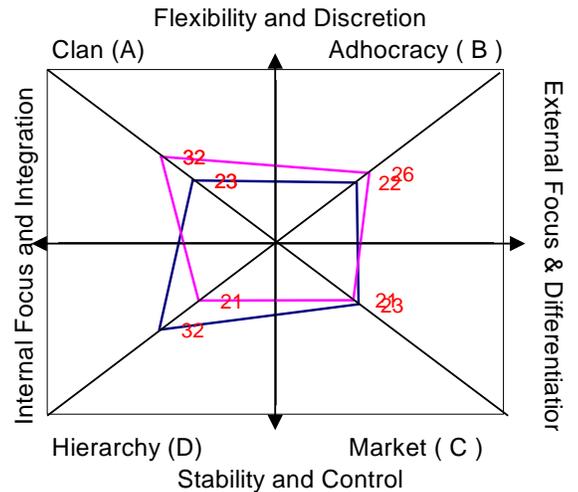

6 Criteria of Success: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**

**Average Culture Profile for Individual Items on the OCAI - College A**
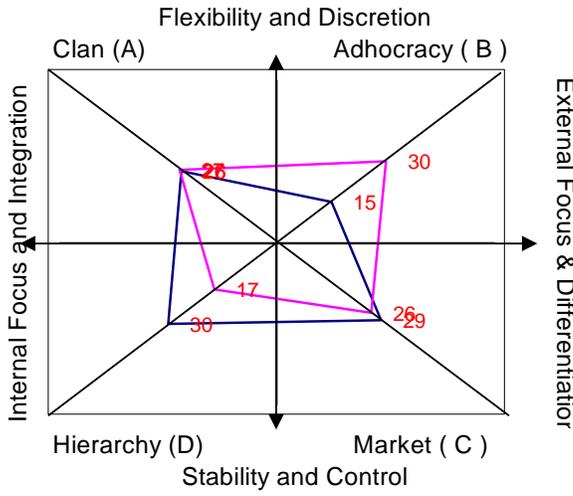
1 Organizational Characteristics: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**
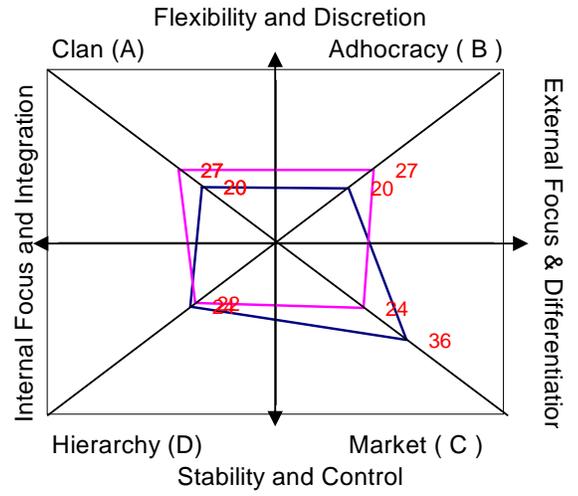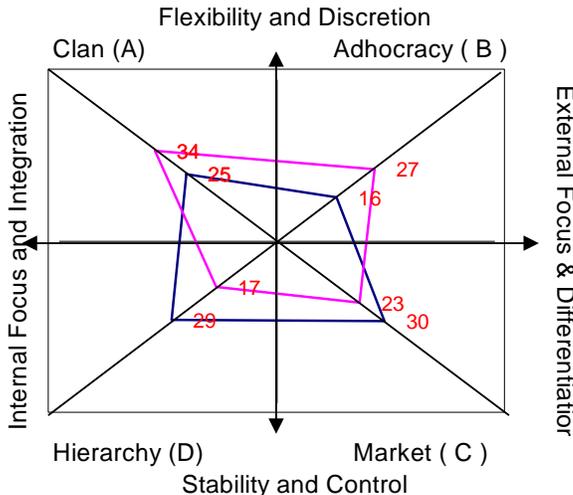
2 Organizational Leader: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**

3 Management of Employees: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**
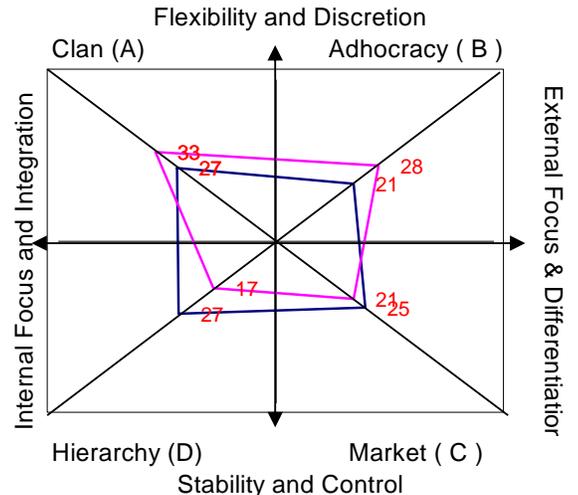
4 Organizational Glue: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**
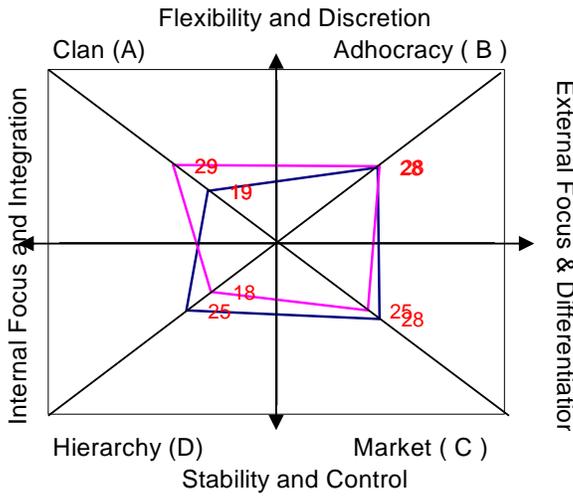
5 Strategic Emphasis: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**
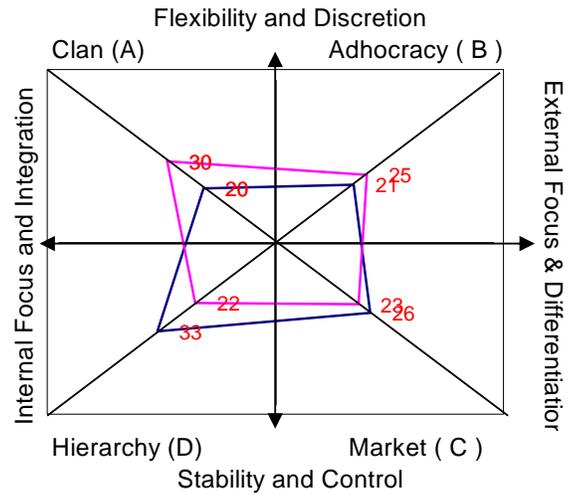
6 Criteria of Success: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**

Average Culture Profile for for Individual Items on the OCAI - College B
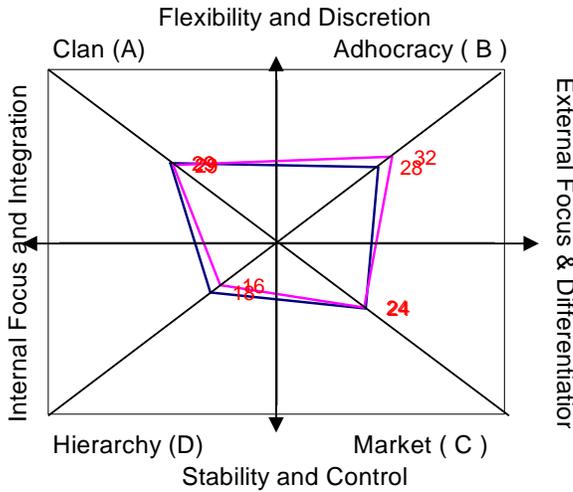
1 Organizational Characteristics: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**
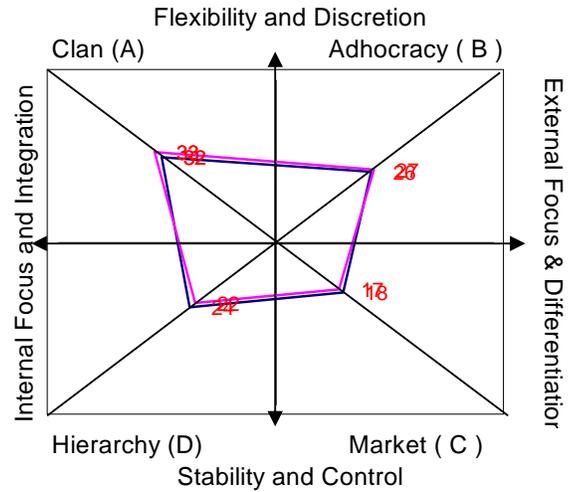
2 Organizational Leader: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**
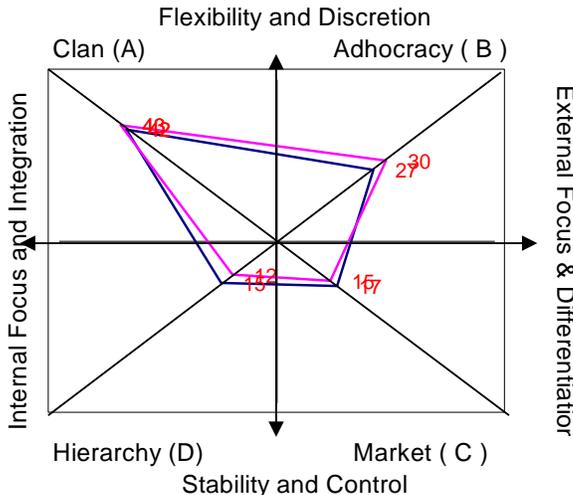
3 Management of Employees: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**
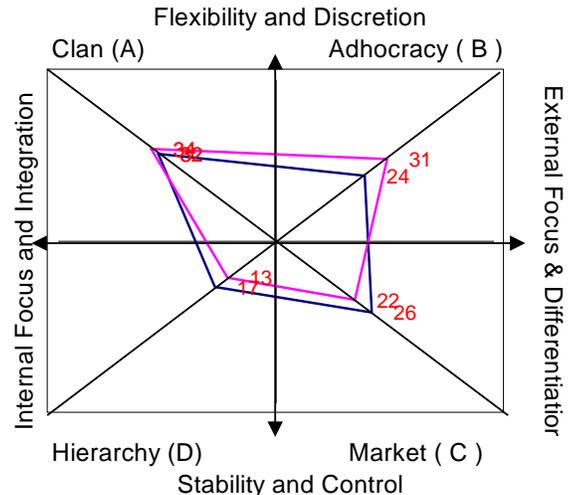
4 Organizational Glue: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**
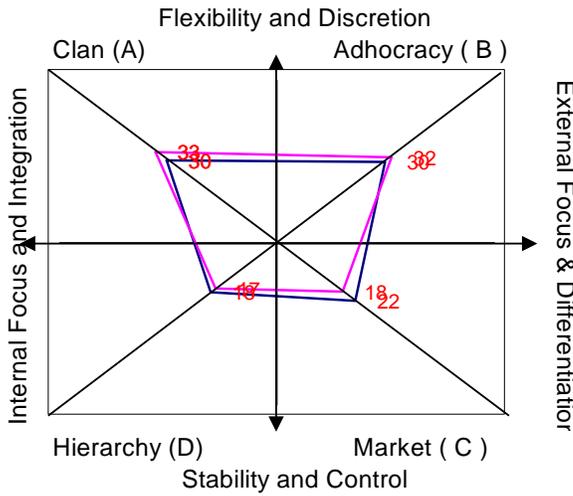
5 Strategic Emphasis: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**
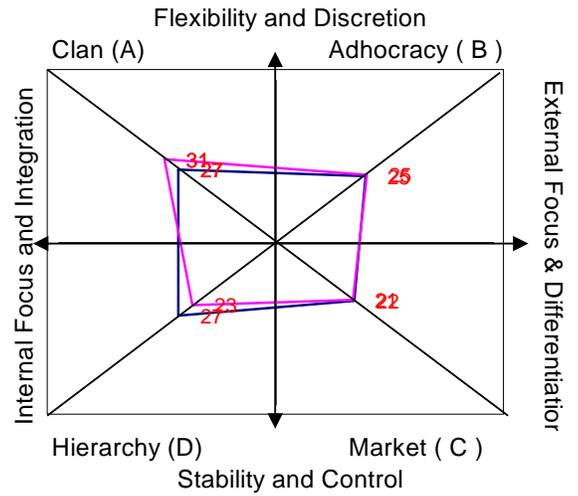
6 Criteria of Success: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**

Average Culture Profile for Individual Items on the OCAI - College C
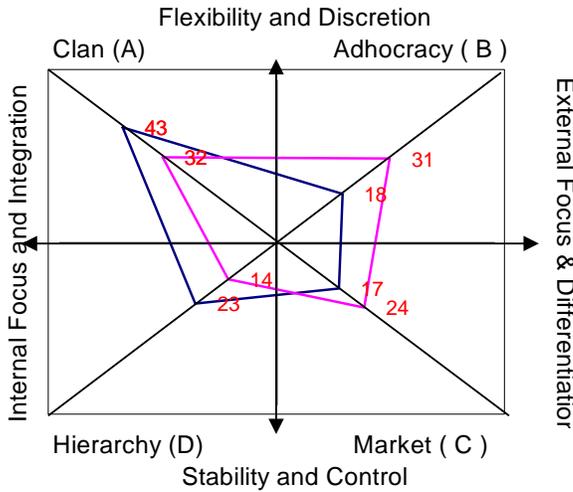
1 Organizational Characteristics: ----Now ---Preferred
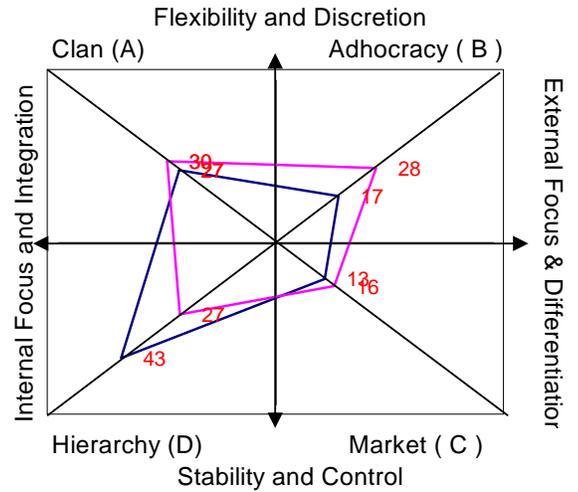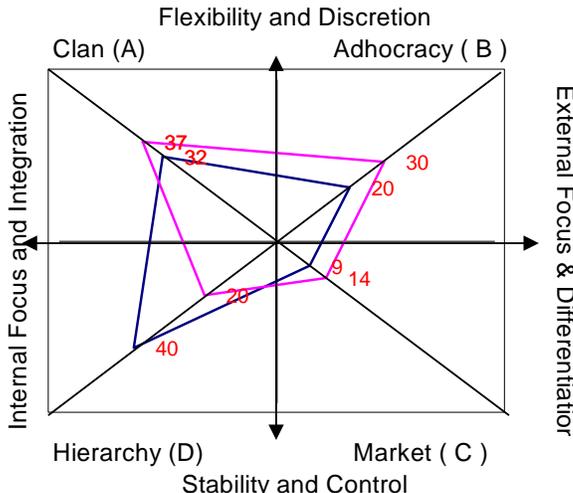
2 Organizational Leader: ----Now ---Preferred

3 Management of Employees: ----Now ---Preferred
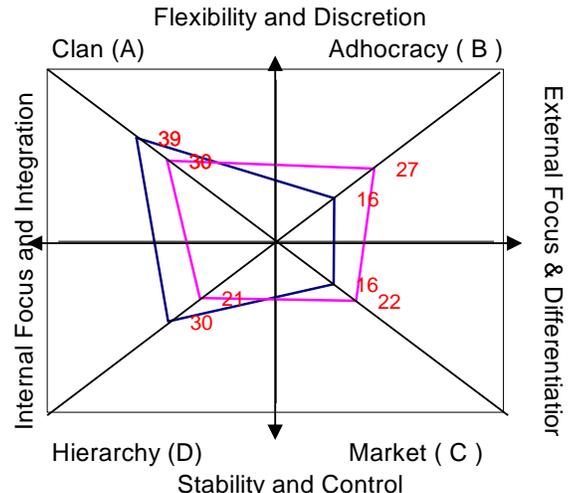
4 Organizational Glue: ----Now ---Preferred
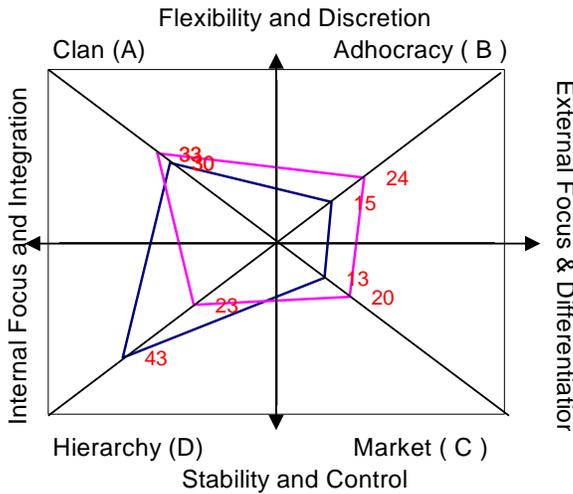
5 Strategic Emphasis: ----Now ---Preferred
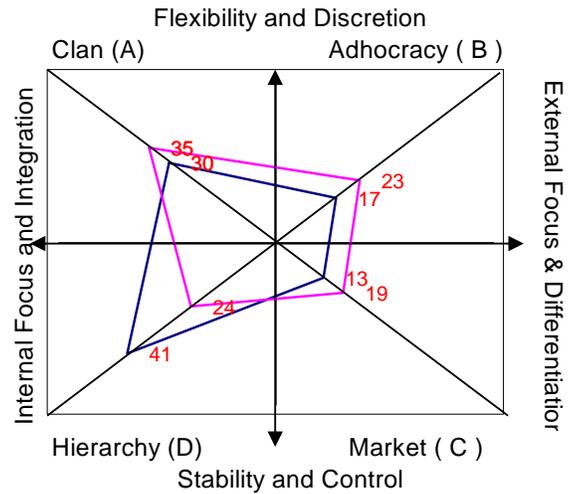
6 Criteria of Success: ----Now ---Preferred

Average Culture Profile for Individual Items on the OCAI - College D
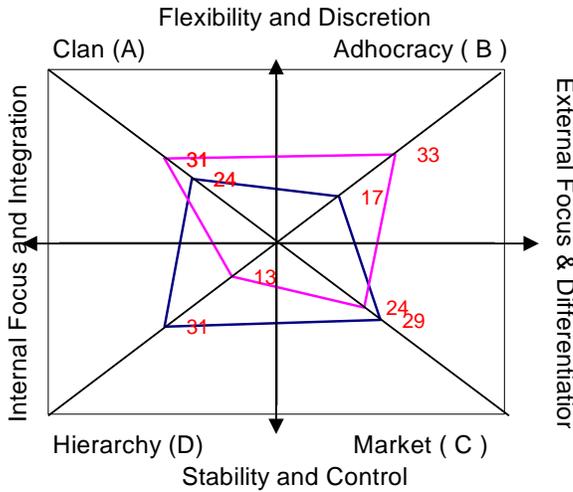
1 Organizational Characteristics: **----Now ---Preferred**
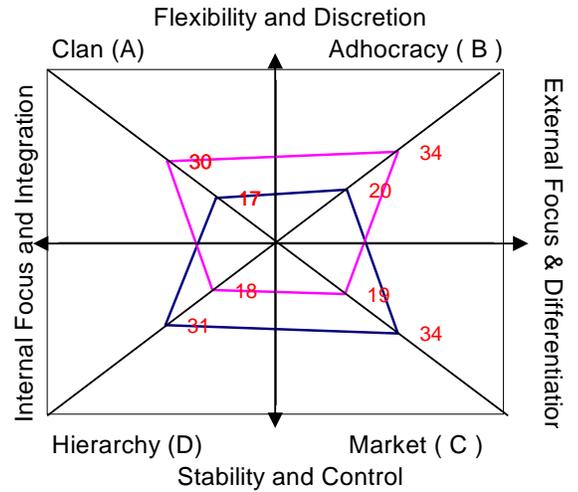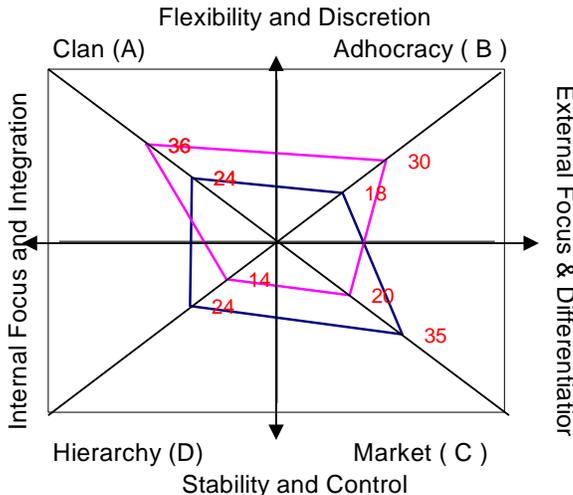
2 Organizational Leader: **----Now ---Preferred**

3 Management of Employees: **----Now ---Preferred**
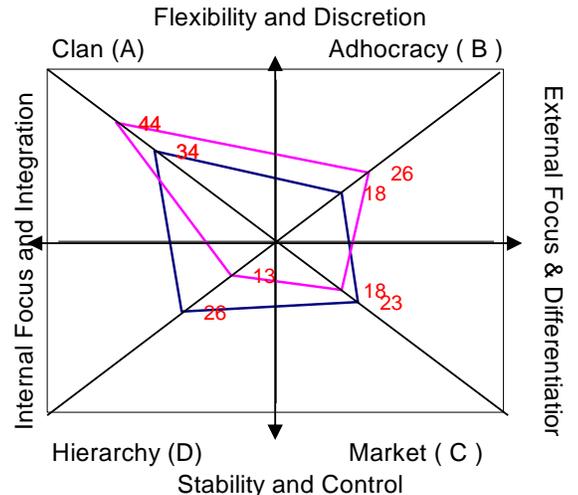
4 Organizational Glue: **----Now ---Preferred**
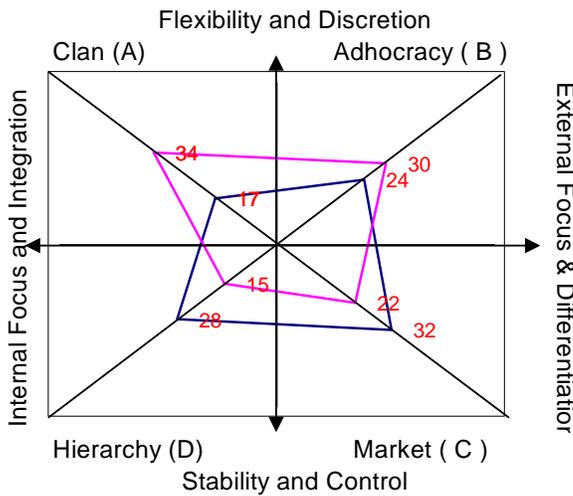
5 Strategic Emphasis: **----Now ---Preferred**
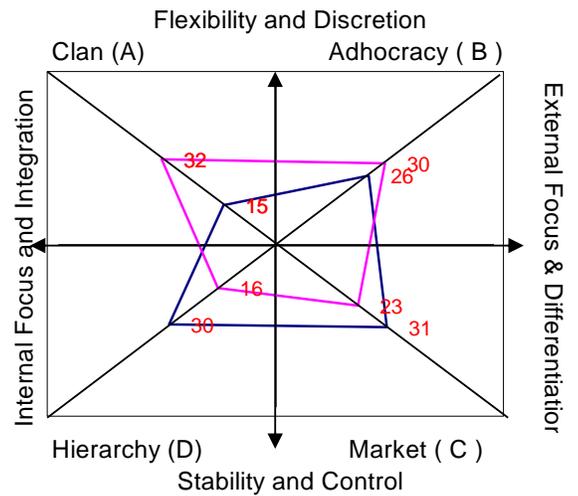
6 Criteria of Success: **----Now ---Preferred**

Average Culture Profile for Individual Items on the OCAI - Male
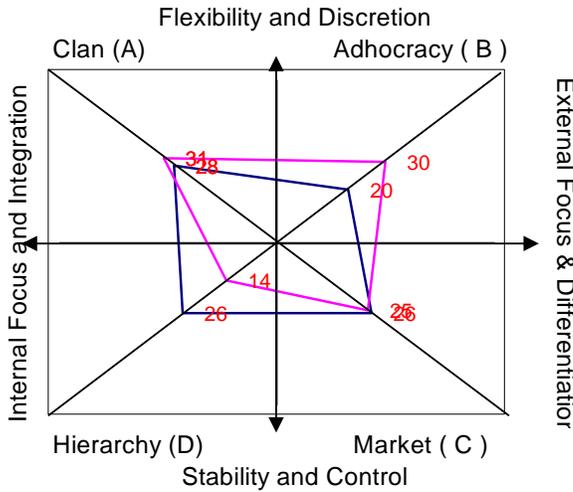
1 Organizational Characteristics: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**
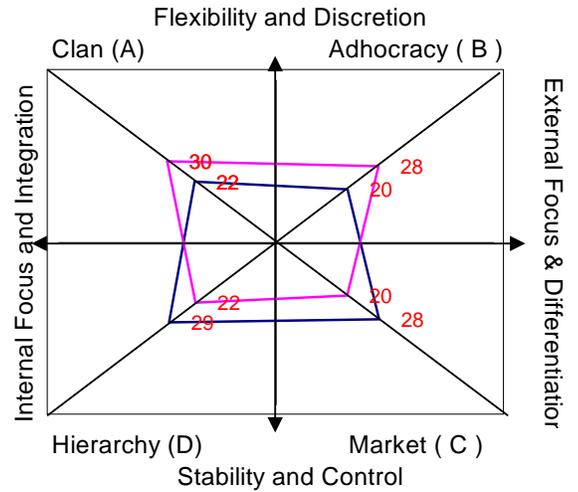
2 Organizational Leader: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**
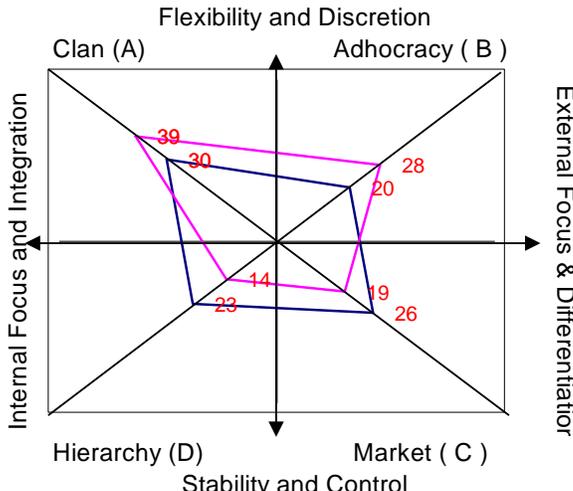
3 Management of Employees: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**
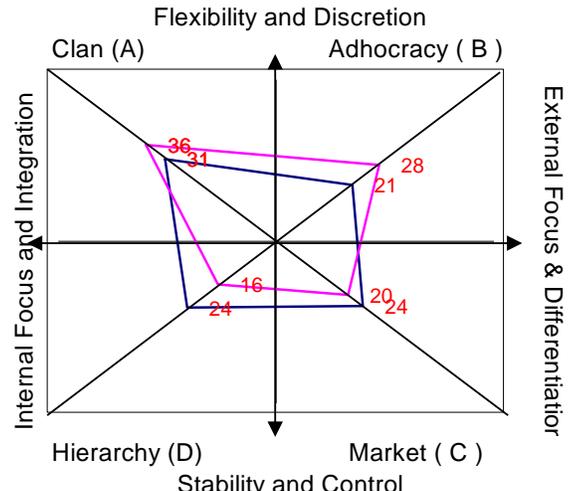
4 Organizational Glue: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**
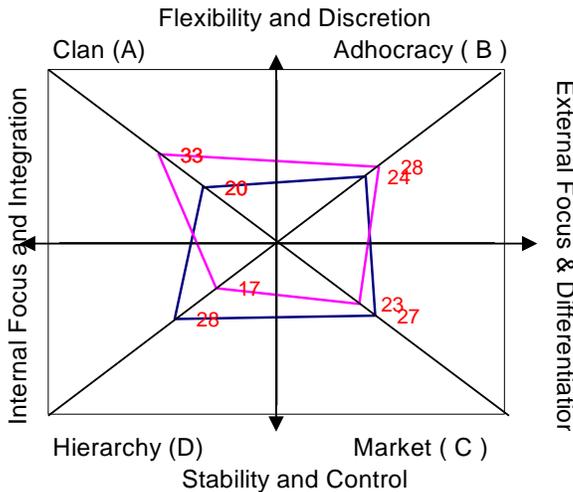
5 Strategic Emphasis: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**
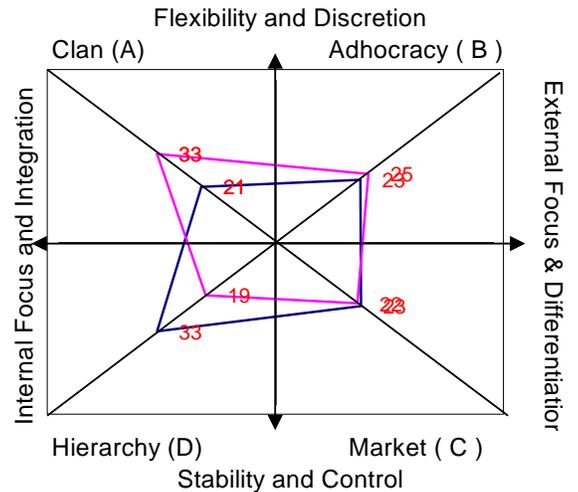
6 Criteria of Success: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**

Average Culture Profile for Individual Items on the OCAI - Female
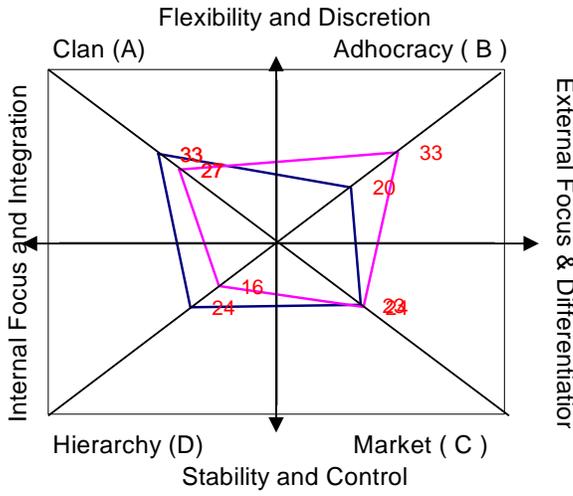
1 Organizational Characteristics: ----Now ---Preferred
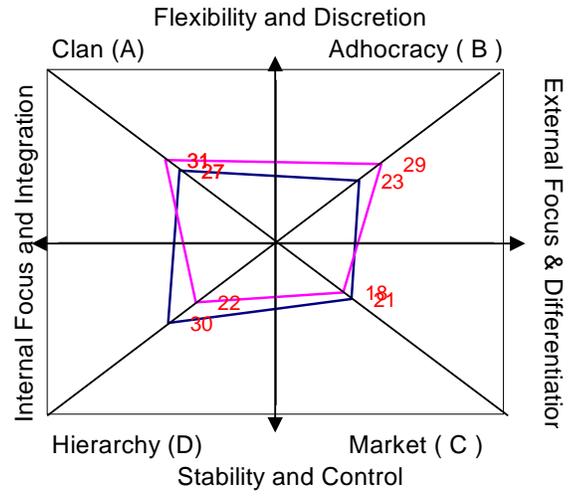

2 Organizational Leader: ----Now ---Preferred
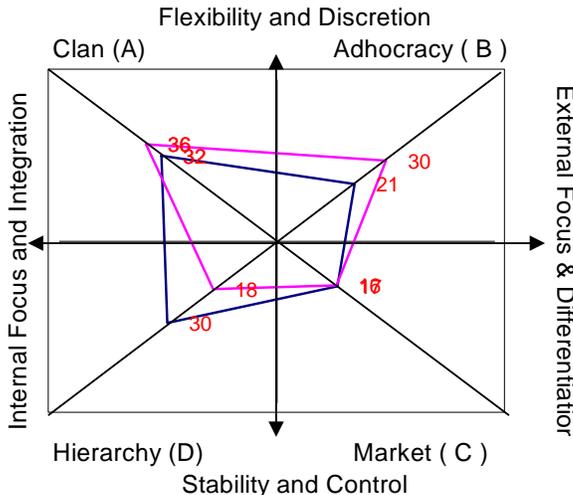
3 Management of Employees: ----Now ---Preferred
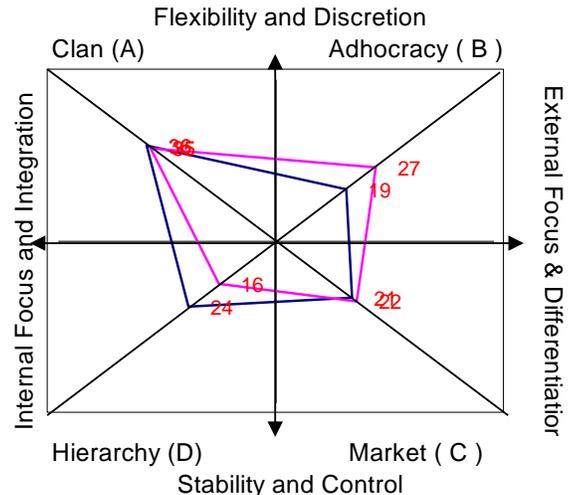

4 Organizational Glue: ----Now ---Preferred
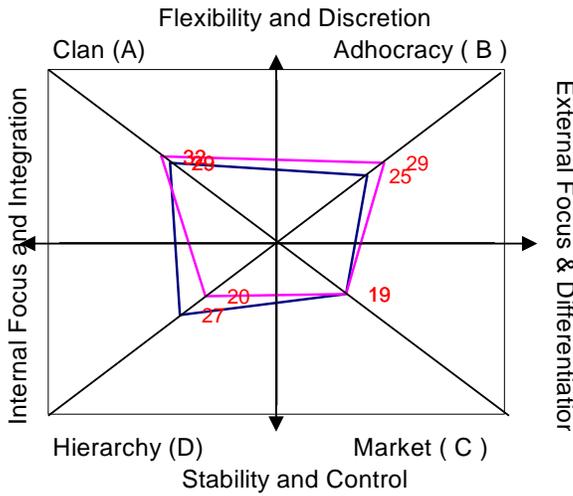

5 Strategic Emphasis: ----Now ---Preferred
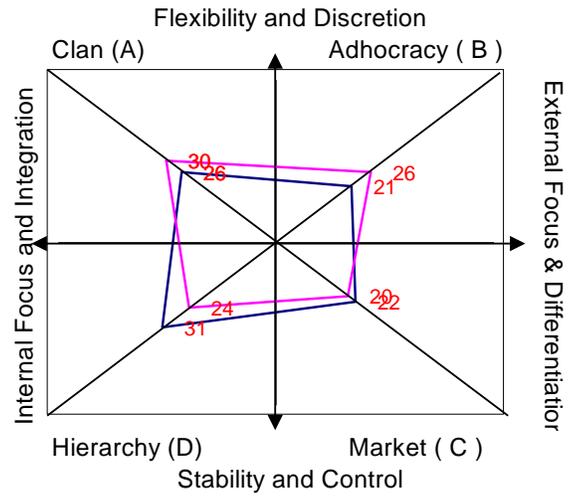
6 Criteria of Success: ----Now ---Preferred

Average Culture Profile for Individual Items on the OCAI - Less Than 3 Years in Job
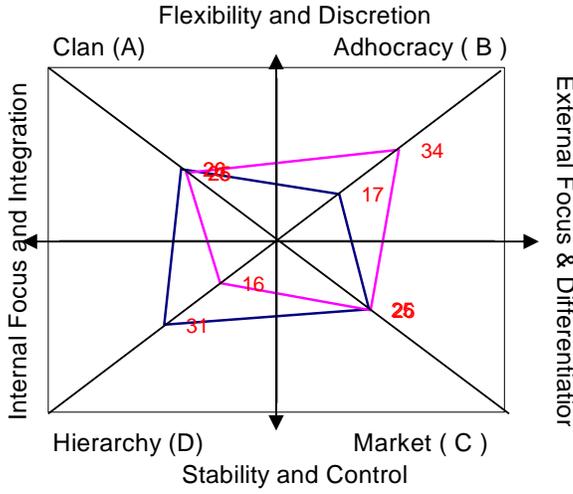
1 Organizational Characteristics: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**
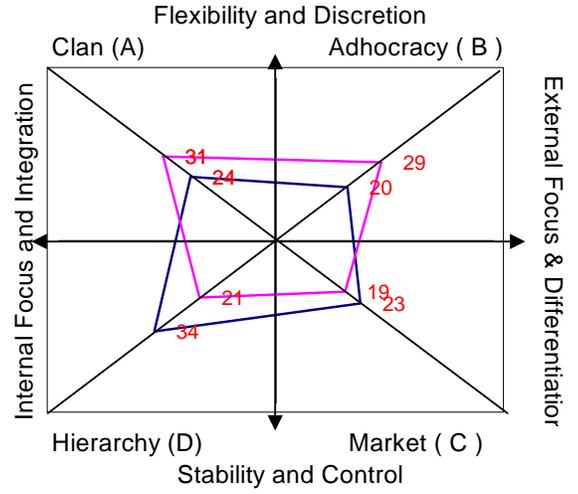
2 Organizational Leader: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**

3 Management of Employees: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**

4 Organizational Glue: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**

5 Strategic Emphasis: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**

6 Criteria of Success: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**

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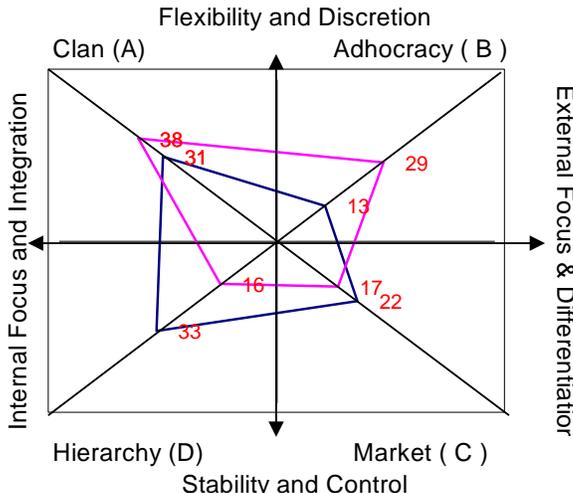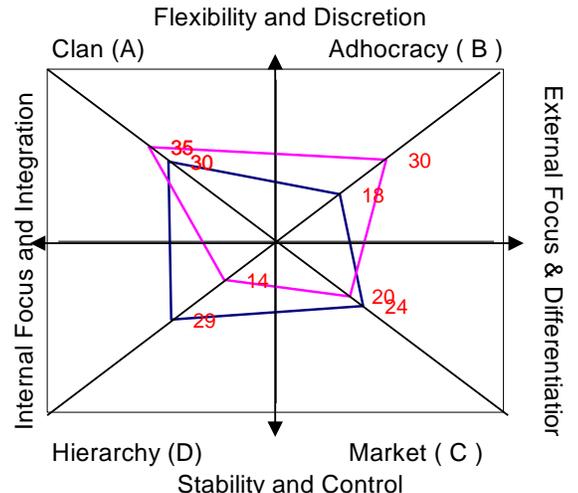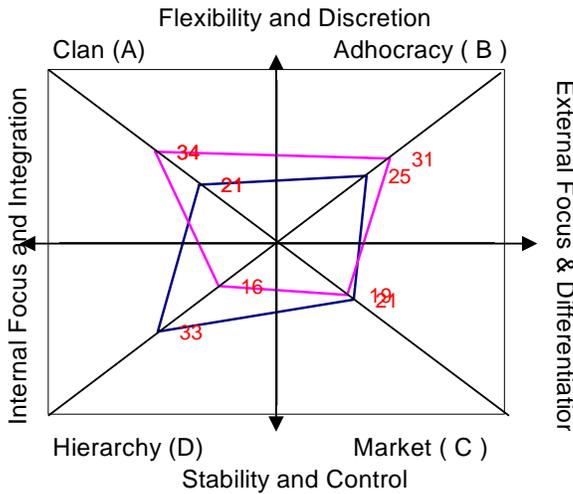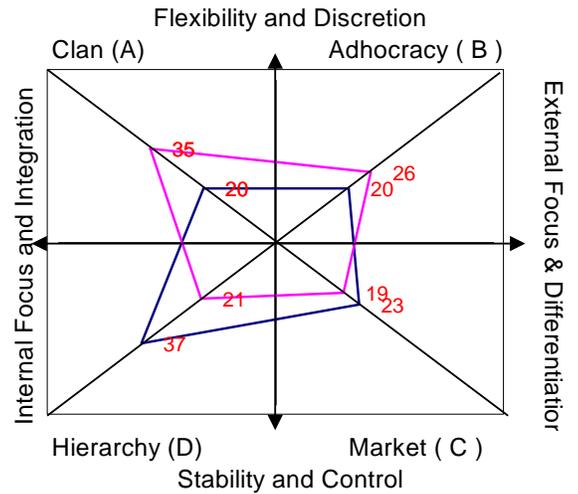
Average Culture Profile for Individual Items on the OCAI - 3 to 5 Years in Job
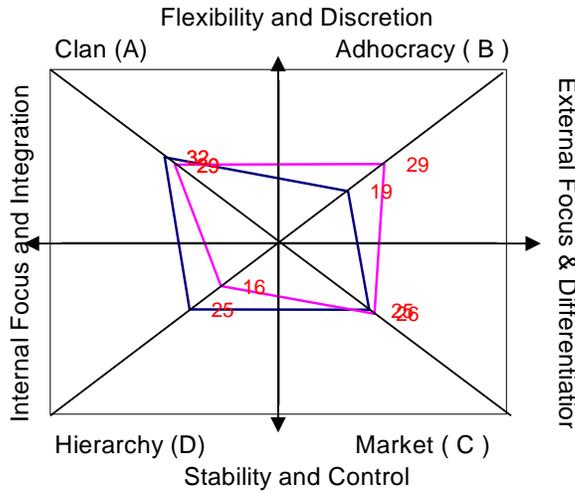

1 Organizational Characteristics: ----Now ---Preferred
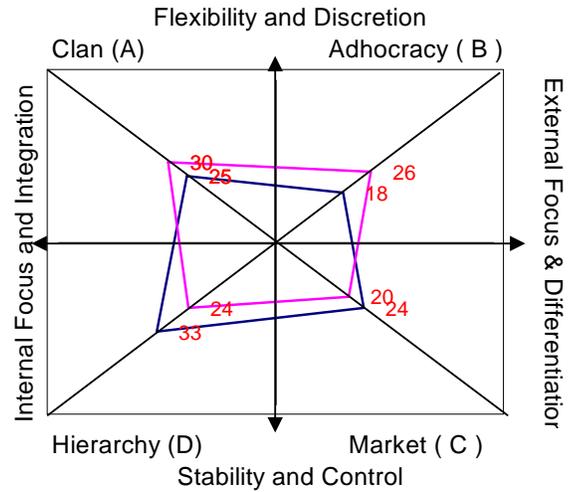
2 Organizational Leader: ----Now ---Preferred
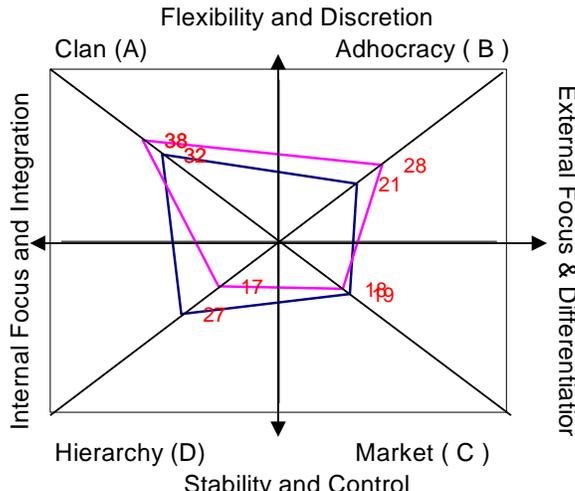
3 Management of Employees: ----Now ---Preferred
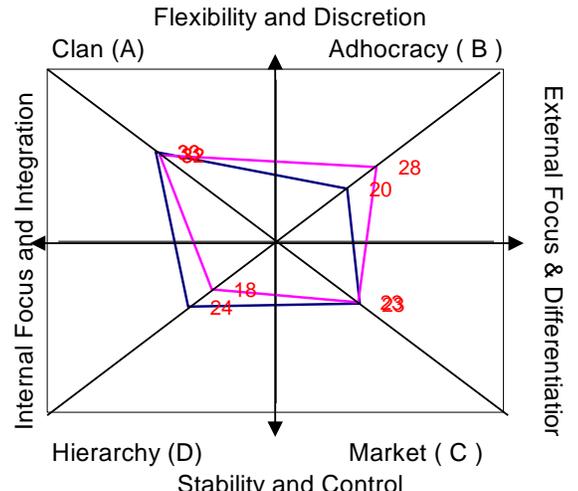
4 Organizational Glue: ----Now ---Preferred
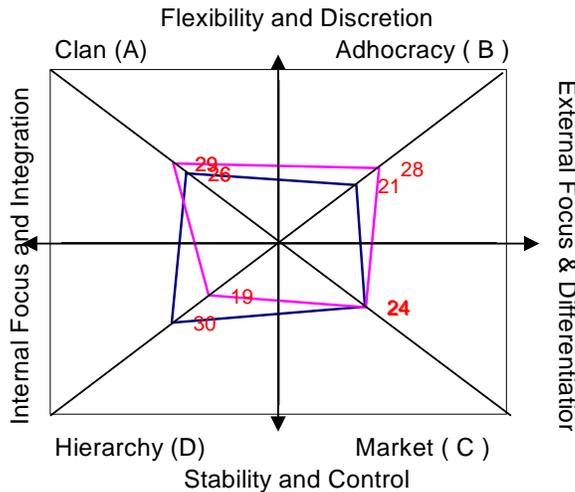
5 Strategic Emphasis: ----Now ---Preferred
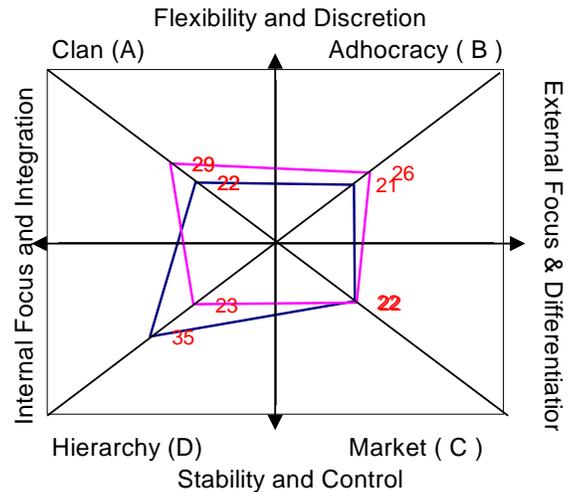
6 Criteria of Success: ----Now ---Preferred

Average Culture Profile for Individual Items on the OCAI - 6 to 20 Years in Job

1 Organizational Characteristics: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**

2 Organizational Leader: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**

3 Management of Employees: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**

4 Organizational Glue: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**

5 Strategic Emphasis: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**

6 Criteria of Success: ----**Now** ---**Preferred**