The Effects of Culture Constructs Learning, Power, Identity and Conflict on Individual and Team Performance in a Fortune 500 Company

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Abstract

The quest to improve organizational performance and build effective organizational culture is prevalent today. This effort can be complex. This dissertation explores the question: Does culture change enable performance? If so, how? This dissertation focuses on the measurement of the four culture constructs: learning, power, identity, and conflict management and its relationship to performance. The article "Changing the Way We Change," whose assertions I test in my research, provides a present-day view using all four constructs. Unique to this study, there is no known combination of the four constructs directly linked to organizational performance in research and additional empirical evidence to support enhancing organizational performance. Data from a Fortune 500 organization was analyzed and tested to see whether positive associations exist between these four constructs that enable performance change at various organization levels. The author utilized mixed-level and multilevel linear regression procedures of data analysis, and found that team empowerment and individual organizational identity significantly enabled performance change. Conversely, there was a negative relationship between employee empowerment and individual performance. Conflict management and performance also had a negative association. The paradox of organizational culture change and performance with suggestions for future research for scholars and implications for practitioners is discussed.

Dedication

Glory to God for allowing me to complete this dissertation.

To my sweetheart, for loving me through it all. Destiny!

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To my family & closest friends:

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Table of Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

Chapter 1: Introduction

A continuing need exists to understand how organizations can improve performance (Burke & Litwin, 1992). Employees, companies, and supporting businesses can all benefit from a change in performance. What does this change require? Strategically, a change in performance may mean a change in an organization's culture (Pascale, Millemann, & Gioja, 1997). Change, culture, and performance are the main areas of this study. My research focused on transformational, sustained performance change in an organization. Specifically, I examined the factors that make performance change possible across multiple levels in a public-sector Fortune 500 "logistics" company. The identity of the company is confidential. I focused on four cultural constructs: learning, power, identity, and conflict management. I identified these constructs as the primary drivers of performance change.

The distinction of this study is that it builds on the article "Changing the Way We Change," whose ideas I expand upon in my research, by providing a field-study view using all four constructs with empirical data. There is no known combination of the four constructs directly linked to organizational performance in research and additional empirical evidence to support enhancing organizational performance.

Organization change has been a topic of research for several decades (Nadler, 1982; Kotter, 1995; Weick & Quinn, 1999; Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Woodman, Pettigrew, & Cameron, 2001; By, 2005; Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015; Schumacher,

Schreurs, Van Emmerik, & De Witte, 2016). Why has change remained such an important research topic? One answer centers on the methods of handling change (Eisenbach, Watson, & Pillai, 1999). A change must have a significant impact for it to be worth the effort regardless of what it is formally called. The implication for the workplace today is improved performance. Scholars and practitioners struggle to sustain change and improve performance over time (Porras & Silvers, 1991; Davis & Thibedeau Boyd, 2016; Gathoni & Gachunga, 2016).

Change and managing change well are essential tools in organizations and can cost businesses millions of dollars to implement. For most organizations, the efforts invested to create change do not pay off. This is sadly true even when an organization researches the latest theories, hires top leaders and change "experts" as consultants, and implements allegedly proven methods to drive improved performance (Porras & Silvers, 1991; Szabla, Stefanchin, & Warner, 2014).

Change efforts are not one-size-fits-all (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015). Harvard Business School researchers found that change initiatives among only 30 percent of Fortune 100 companies "produced an improvement in bottom-line results that exceeded the company's cost of capital, and only 50 percent led to an improvement in market share price" (Pascale et al., 1997).

Change is an inherent part of the real world of organizations. Yet successfully navigating change dynamics is challenging. Deeper insight is needed to extrapolate the influences "below the surface" that drive improved performance (Claiborne, Auerbach, Lawrence, & Zeitlin Schudrich, 2013). Schein describes "below the

surface" power as the "power of culture . . . derived from the fact that it operates as a set of assumptions that are unconscious and taken for granted" (Bennis, Mason, & Mitroff, 1985). In my research, I intend to encourage academics and practitioners to not assume solutions are explicit, but rather to treat a culture's relationship to improved performance as something of an enigma. Culture as a power below the surface profoundly shapes several areas of the organization (Ouchi & Wilkins, 1985; Pascale et al., 1997; Schein, 2010). Relationships, activity, and norms that are passed along and learned may positively or negatively impact the organization. Organization culture that "has been viewed as holistic, historically determined, and socially constructed" (Rashid, Sambasivan, & Rahman, 2004) remains a powerful force in workplaces today. Furthermore, the combined area of change and culture is known to impact organization performance (Kilmann, Saxton, & Serpa, 1986; Chaudhary, 2016).

Culture—like change—includes numerous definitions, varieties, and subsets (Mustafa, Ilyas, & Rehman, 2016). Moreover, organization leaders, human resources executives (Ulrich, 2016), stockholders, shareholders, and researchers all argue that driving and maintaining change is essential. Many if not most agree that such change can transform and positively impact organizations. What have we proven with the separate and multiple practitioner methods and academic theories on how to drive improved performance? Have the theories and practices helped us more effectively manage change in organizations?

Unfortunately, the theories and practices have not led to optimal performance proficiencies as much as many have hoped. The combination of culture knowledge, organizational learning, change research, and organization change methods in businesses provides limited, and dated, empirical evidence. These factors, if used appropriately and within the right context, could drive sustained performance change (Tsang, 1997; Akinyi & Okumu, 2016).

My distinct approach, outlined in this paper, combines two longstanding topics of social sciences research—change and culture—and analyzes potential causality among four factors that are believed to uniquely influence organization performance. (The term "factors" may be interchanged with "constructs" or "variables.") These four factors are: conflict, identity, learning, and power (Pascale et al., 1997). (See Figure 1.) The research took as a starting point the propositions posed in a *Harvard Business Review* article by Richard Pascale, Mark Millemann, and Linda Gioja. In their essay "Changing the Way We Change," the authors posit that culture change requires looking at an organization's "vital signs." They contend that this "diagnostic" approach to the "sick patient" is needed to improve an organization's effectiveness. They use the four factors referenced above as diagnostic or culture "ideals." Within this dissertation, I seek to determine whether these ideals can be validly applied in workplaces today. To my knowledge, no other doctoral study has connected these four culture constructs with the complementary goal of enabling business performance in a U.S. organization.

Figure 1: Pictorial view of the overall research question

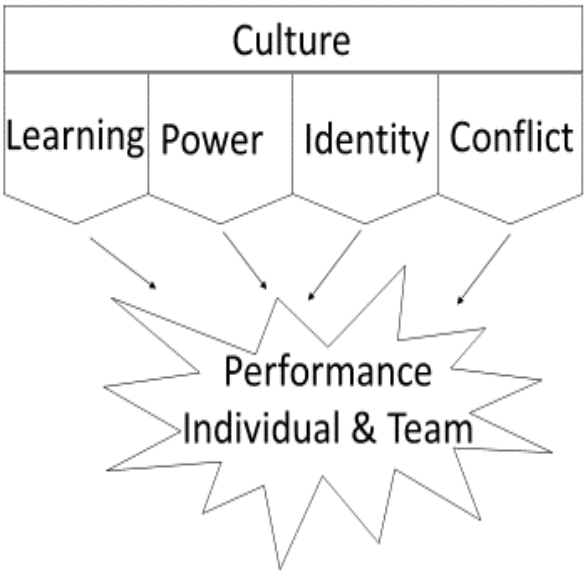

Figure 1 represents the research question: how do the culture constructs of learning, power, identity, and conflict enable performance change?

The dynamic change referred to for this context would be transformational change. Transformational change targets culture. The article by Pascale et al. suggests that the health of the organization is important when implementing transformational change. Transformational change represents a radical change that shifts the paradigm of an organization (Chapman, 2002; Cummings & Worley, 2014) and requires employees at multiple levels to unlearn and relearn (Schein, 2009). The change will impact overall culture through its four unique constructs to enable performance change. Transformational change is profoundly more complex than managing a linear organization change, as it impacts behavior and intersects with more elements of the

organization. It's also more complex in that it seeks to reconstruct employees' beliefs, values, attitudes, and ultimately the culture of the whole organization (Chapman, 2002; Cummings & Worley, 2014; Garvey & Coleman, 2015). Disruptions from the external business environment or internal company dynamics could activate transformational change (Cummings & Worley, 2014). Transformational change differs from elementary performance change. The straightforward approach of performance change seeks to improve or alter company-identified metrics, or goals, for employees. Transformational change and performance change share some characteristics, such as a desire to move from one "change state" to another—meaning a state of organization improvement. Transformational change affects the entire system of the organization (Lukas et al., 2007; Cummings & Worley, 2014) and could be the impetus to drive organizational health. If we return to the vital signs analogy, understanding the health of the patient requires examining vital organs. The health of the patient is not discarded as irrelevant, but as a snapshot of the body's health, the practitioner of organization change will want to look first at transformational change health within the corporate body. It cannot be divorced from the organization's entirety and still be considered *transformational*. Performance change, on the other hand, has been studied in isolation in the change effort. Yet to be determined for this study is, if we manage the organization health by looking at the four culture constructs, what impact will it make?

"Transformational performance change" is defined as the type of organizational change that impacts multiple levels (i.e., individual, team, and business

unit), the culture, and its organizational beliefs with impact on performance outcomes. Theories such as the contingency theory (Tosi & Slocum, 1984) that promote situational and flexible approaches within the unique context, and the multilevel theory (Klein, Tosi, & Cannella, Jr., 1999) that attempt to understand influences at the individual and organization level or macro and micro levels concurrently, give rise to frameworks that may fit such a transformational performance change situation. The results of this study contribute to a theoretical framework that scholars can use to investigate the factors that make transformational performance change possible, and to find out whether these factors at multiple levels might make transformational performance change sustainable.

Purpose of this Study

I wanted to study culture change as it relates to performance because the 21st-century field of research is rather fragmented. Only a few proven and academically sound approaches to improving organizational performance are relevant today. Especially needed are approaches that include below-the-surface culture constructs that enhance change and are more likely to sustain change.

The purpose of this examination is to quantitatively test the relationships of the following independent variables that I rename for operational purposes: learning practices, empowerment (a form of power), organizational identification, and conflict management to dependent variable organizational performance at two levels, individual and team, using participants from a Fortune 500 logistics company (which shall remain anonymous). Cross-functional performance review and culture survey

data will be used from the years 2012, 2013, and 2014. The performance data is used from 2012 to 2014, and the culture survey data is used from 2013 to 2014, with data from two surveys in 2013. The conceptual and anecdotal ideas from Pascale et al.—that is, that the four culture constructs (the term "cultural practices" or "cultural constructs" is also used interchangeably in data analysis) drive transformational culture and performance change—will be empirically established.

Research Questions

Specifically, my research question is the following:

> How do the cultural constructs of learning, power, identity, and conflict enable performance change at various levels (individual and team) to drive sustained performance change in the organization?

I also examined five related questions and posed the following hypotheses:

- **Question 1:** What impact do learning practices in the organization have on the performance outcomes for a company, both cross-sectionally and longitudinally?
- *Hypothesis 1a:* There will be a positive association between learning practices and performance outcomes at the individual level, both cross-sectionally and longitudinally?
- .*Hypothesis 1b:* There will be a positive association between learning practices and performance outcomes at the team level, both cross-sectionally and longitudinally?

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- **Question 2:** What impact does empowering employees in the organization have on the performance outcomes for a company, both cross-sectionally and longitudinally?
- *Hypothesis 2a:* There will be a positive association between empowering employees and performance outcomes at the individual level, both cross-sectionally and longitudinally?
- *Hypothesis 2b:* There will be a positive association between empowering employees and performance outcomes at the team level, both cross-sectionally and longitudinally?
- **Question 3:** What impact does organizational identification of the employees in the organization have on the performance outcomes for a company, both cross-sectionally and longitudinally?
- *Hypothesis 3a:* There will be a positive association between organization identification and performance outcomes at the individual level, both cross-sectionally and longitudinally?
- *Hypothesis 3b:* There will be a positive association between organization identification and performance outcomes at the team level, both cross-sectionally and longitudinally?
- **Question 4:** What impact does managing conflict among employees in the organization have on the performance outcomes for a company, both cross-sectionally and longitudinally?

- *Hypothesis 4a:* There will be a positive association between management of conflict and performance outcomes at the individual level, both cross-sectionally and longitudinally?
- *Hypothesis 4b:* There will be a positive association between management of conflict and performance outcomes at the team level, both cross-sectionally and longitudinally?
- **Question 5:** What impact do the moderating effects of learning, power, identity, and conflict have on performance outcomes for a company, both cross-sectionally and longitudinally?
- *Hypothesis 5a:* There will be an interaction effect between learning practices, empowerment, organization identification, and management of conflict to positively influence performance outcomes at the individual level, both cross-sectionally and longitudinally?
- *Hypothesis 5b:* There will be an interaction effect between learning practices, empowerment, organization identification, and management of conflict to positively influence performance outcomes at the team level, both cross-sectionally and longitudinally?

Definition of Terms

Learning practices: Exchange of ideas, concepts, and knowledge obtained between employees that are shared and enhance the organization. The learning is seen as a "collective phenomenon, one in which organizations put in place new approaches . . .

that enable them to perform more effectively and improve performance over time" (Mohrman, Galbraith, & Lawler III, 1998, p. 332).

Empowerment: State in which employees have a sense of self-efficacy, and agency given to them by authority leaders in the organization.

Organization identity: Identification of an individual in relation to an organization or groups in the organization; the identity has shared understandings of membership with cognitive and emotional connections to the organization (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008; Schultz, Maguire, Langley, & Tsoukas, 2012).

Conflict management: defined as "the behavior oriented toward the intensification, reduction, and resolution of the conflict" (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003, p. 155).

This dissertation investigated real-life data to empirically test the validity of the relationship in a U.S.-based organization. The results can help managers and leaders face practical aspects of organizational change in order to improve performance.

The remaining chapters are organized as follows. Chapter 2 presents a literature review, with background and research details on the areas of change, organization culture, and performance. It also provides details on the relevant literature that relates to the four constructs of culture. Linkages and relevant research studies on change, performance, and the four constructs are also explored. Chapter 3 discusses the research methodology and describes the quantitative approach, participants, and instrumentation. This is followed by an overview of the approach to data analysis. The data analysis findings, charts, and results are extrapolated in

Chapter 4. A summary of the results, thorough interpretation and implications of theory and practice, along with limitations, are delineated in Chapter 5. Chapter 6 presents conclusions, implications for future research, contributions to the field of organization development, and personal reflections.

In summary, it was found that the relationship between learning practices and performance was negative. Similar, the relationship between employee empowerment and individual performance was negative. On the other hand, the relationship between employee empowerment and team performance was positive. The relationship between conflict management and performance was negative. Last, the relationship between the overall cultural practices and performance was partially substantiated.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The study of culture and its relationships goes back to the beginning of the organization development (OD) profession in the 1960s (Schein, 1980). Just as psychology and physiological exams indicate a person's mental and physical health, so practitioners in organizations tested for organizational health indicators (Schein, 1980) and responded with specific interventions. Bennis (1962) identified four criteria for organizational health:

- Adaptability: Ability to adjust to changing environments and solve problems.
- Capacity to test reality: Ability to search and interpret environmental factors that impact how the organization functions.
- Integration: Ability to use all the parts above and cross-sectionally apply knowledge for both the individual and organization.
- Sense of identity: Awareness of the organization's goals and purpose.

The four criteria are related to an organization's culture. Each of the criteria interfaces with the manner in which employees operate in the organization, due to the environment and learned behaviors from the organization. The four criteria—adaptability, capacity to test reality, integration, and sense of identity—reverberate in an organization implicitly and explicitly at periodic intervals. For example, if the organization headquarters moved locations from the rural part of the state to the urban part of the state as part of the external influences to attract talent, the employees who remain with the organization must adapt. The employee adjust to a new work location

and office environment. This adjustment may include a revised commute to work, altering of work hours, or change in lunch options. Each of these new areas are managed explicitly and implicitly by the employee. I define culture more completely later, with a simple definition now: Culture in organizations is “the way we do things around here” (Schein, 1999, p. 15) or “the sum total of all the shared, taken-for-granted assumptions that a group has learned throughout its history” (Schein, 1999, p. 29). For instance, Schein (2010) affirms that as a person identifies in a new group, the self-identification process eventually socializes the person to adapt and behave in a certain way. This is closely associated to “learning” and “organization identity.” The altered behavior indicates identity with the organization in that the behavior does not conflict with a cultural norm. Conflict with norms often results in various subcultures or no longer being identified as a member of the culture. The behavior aspect is notable but not all-encompassing in organization culture. A proper understanding of culture will include assumptions and beliefs that don’t manifest in behavior. When considering all the visible behaviors, or processes, expressed in daily activity, to the invisible exchanges of attitudes, feelings, or beliefs, a constant transfer occurs of adapting cultural norms and integrating them into daily decisions, behaviors, and interactions that shape organization culture. Therefore, to best make sense of such a complex concept as culture, many early OD practitioners assessed the health of the organization early on before proceeding with interventions.

Organization Health

According to Pascale et al. (1997), a metaphor can be used when measuring organization health and its relationship to performance. The preferred metaphor is that of a doctor examining a patient. As with a patient, the vital signs of the organization can reveal to the "change physician" various vitals, such as blood pressure, temperature, and weight. These preliminary results can on occasion indicate the ailment. Similarly, organization learning, empowerment, conflict management, and organization identity can indicate errors that affect optimal performance. Therefore, we recognize many organizations are not healthy, which could contribute to the demise of change and performance initiatives.

The topic of organization health has caught on in many consultant arenas. Consultants from McKinsey & Company agree that measuring organizational health is an asset, but they also believe there is a view "beyond performance" (Keller & Price, 2011). They attest that the health of the organization is paramount, that leaders can't simply evaluate performance but must also invest in the organization. They offer a five-step approach (aspire, assess, architect, act, and advance) that help to transform by looking at organization health and performance (Keller & Price, 2011). Hence, some level of organizational health is needed to sustain change as well as transform or improve performance.

Culture Constructs Connection

From an academic viewpoint, the four vital culture constructs from Pascale corroborate earlier research.

Learning: Schein describes culture as a "social learning process" in which organizational learning must exist to understand the phenomenon of culture (Schein, 1986, 1993, 1996). According to Denison (1990), individuals' and groups' ability to adapt internally to change owing to environmental factors is another form of learning associated with culture change.

Power: Fear of losing power, which would limit the empowerment of others, can occur when culture change is coming (Schein, 2010). Managers often empower others as an intentional method of culture change once managers understand the process in which subordinates learn (Denison, 1990). According to O'Reilly (1989), power also means using "social control" to adjust or prevent culture deviations in which employees respond when they believe that authorities are monitoring activity (and their actions really matter).

Identity: Accepting the values and beliefs of a group, then identifying with the group, culminates in behaviors that align with group patterns. Internalizing identity and adjusting subsequent behavior is an "artifact" of culture (Schein, 2010). Sharing a "set of cognitions" in a culture (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988) or prescribing a shared way of thinking is another form of identity that suggests an affinity to culture.

Conflict: This is closely connected to culture exploration as many organizations have subcultures within a broad organization culture as a result of conflict or fragmentation of group ideals or values (Schein, 2010).

In his analysis of management cultures, Schein (1996) describes three levels of management: executive, engineering, and operations. He includes the illustration

of engineering management in conflict with operations management. Engineers set a goal to streamline a manufacturing process, but operations management may resist or reject their approach, believing it will cause a reduction in personnel, or increase labor intensiveness. Despite the conflict due to differing management culture, the desirable outcome would be that the organization can mitigate and satisfy the tensions that lead to effective performance.

The culture and effectiveness model created by Denison (1990) has a built-in conflict between variables, despite the fact that Denison believes all organization variables should be effective. Denison's (1990) culture and effectiveness variables of adaptability, involvement, mission, and consistency may conflict or be incongruous as a framework when exploring culture. This is in line with the overall paradox of researching and managing culture. For example, the adaptability variable requires change and flexibility in behavior, yet it must comply with a mission, which also implies a level of stability in a stated direction (Denison, 1990). The continual behavior adjustment and alignment to a static mission is a difficult tension to maintain. Nevertheless, Denison found a statistically significant positive: the relationship between the four variables he described and organization effectiveness. When exploring culture and its relationships with performance as part of organization change, scholars share complementary concepts that establish as significant the culture constructs of learning, empowerment, identity, and conflict.

Change and Organizational Change

The topic of change is the cornerstone of organization development (OD). Almost all the work of an OD professional centers on change. Organization development is intended to drive improvement and change through various interventions. The best OD interventions include senior leadership, who can provide resources, access, and influence and can communicate expectations. When navigating change, partnering with top executives or leaders provides a higher likelihood of success than working independently (Nystrom & Starbuck, 1981; Cummings & Worley, 2014). The benefits of change handled properly and done with the support of OD professionals is partially due to its systemwide, interdependent, and context-specific interventions (Burke, 2014).

Organization change raises questions. What type of change improves performance? Under what conditions? With which internal or external connections or ties (Tenkasi & Chesmore, 2003)? How does change relate to organizations? How has change been handled? What enables change (Mohrman, Tenkasi, & Mohrman, 2003)? These areas of inquiry are teased out in the following review of the literature.

Change Types and Models

Change can be categorized as planned or unplanned, and further categorized according to time and space parameters. These parameters are radical, continuous, episodic, evolutionary, and transformational (Eisenbach et al., 1999; Tenkasi & Chesmore, 2003). Several reports on continuous change stress the ongoing,

concurrent, and interdependent shift in an organization due to leadership as well as internal or external factors (Burke, 1994; Weick & Quinn, 1999; Pasmore, 2015).

Reviewing several change themes shows that most change efforts consider the content of the organization's issues, the context of external or internal factors, and process actions that are needed to enable the change (Wilkins & Ouchi, 1983; Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999). For example, Mohrman, Tenkasi, and Mohrman (2003) report on fundamental organization change described as "a learning process mediated by purposefully designed and emergent social networks" (p. 302). They found that this type of change is best enabled through internal and external social networks. The literature further divides change types into established models and processes to support the impact of multiple levels: individual, group, or system. The most relevant type of change for the purposes of this dissertation is transformational change, defined as an "alteration [that] is likely caused by interaction with environmental forces . . . and will require entirely new behaviors sets from organizational members" (Burke & Litwin, 1992, p. 529). Additional distinctions of transformational change are referred to later.

The supporting models and processes in change include several stages to both understand and implement a change (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Schumacher et al., 2016). Kurt Lewin's "freeze phases" is a change model that entails unfreezing, moving, and refreezing basic steps for practitioners (Cummings & Worley, 2014). Unfreezing is the step in which leaders engage employees rationally about a revision or new way, then limit the current way. Moving is the step in which leaders introduce

new behaviors or values in the structures and processes. Refreezing is a stabilizing step in which leaders support and reinforce the new way, or state, of the organization. Although this change model includes foundational themes, some have criticized the paradigm for not involving more levels—or a systemwide perspective at deeper levels. In response, many academics and practitioners are considering an action-research model approach. This approach incorporates simultaneous activity and a variety of settings with eight cyclical stages. (The stages are: problem identification, consultation, data gathering and preliminary diagnosis, feedback, joint diagnosis, joint action planning, action, and post-action data gathering.) This robust model, however, does not incorporate the area of culture. Another favored model is the multivariable Burke-Litwin model, rooted in climate studies. This is much different from a culture model. Organizational climate is viewed at the team or group level and highlights perceptions of daily work. Denison (1990) describes climate as the "common perceptions" of a group about the work "set of conditions" (p. 24). The model has more than 12 variables, with the external environment serving as an input and individual and organizational performance serving as an output. This is only a small sample of the plethora of models and processes in use today.

Organization Change

Action researcher and early-20th-century OD pioneer Kurt Lewin set the stage for managing change. Many practitioners since have built on his combination of field theory, group dynamics knowledge, and three-step planned change model of

unfreezing, moving, and refreezing (Batras, Duff, & Smith, 2014; Schein, 2010; Burnes, 2004). Schein's expanded model integrates the culture aspect of identity in the unfreezing step or breaking away from the current state. This stage is difficult, because "unlearning" conflicts with a comfortable group identity or personal characteristic. Many of Lewin's principles are used in organizations today (Burke, 1994; Schein, 2010) to build more theories and approaches to change. Likewise, my doctoral research builds on the work of previous researchers for an enhanced approach to the relationship between change, culture, and performance.

Pasmore (2015) has created four "actions"—discovering, deciding, doing, and discerning—needed to lead continuous change. These actions show the evolution from a static step-by-step model to a more dynamic model and can be explored to prioritize actions and to ensure change (Pasmore, 2015). In the book *Becoming Agile*, Christopher Worley challenges traditional organization change methods, and uses a socioeconomic approach aligned with agile methods to bring about sustained change in organizations. This approach has an organization looking constantly to external factors while making meaningful internal adjustments (Worley, Zardet, Bonnet, & Savall, 2015). The intriguing socioeconomic approach also directs a leader to look for hidden costs at all levels during the change. This approach is unique among change methods (Savall, 2003; Zardet & Voyant, 2003). New books are being published that address change complexity, with updated approaches and an influx of newly refined consultant specialty areas.

The complex topic of organization change continues to thrive in research and daily business (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Eisenbach et al., 1999; Batras et al., 2014). The manner of change has evolved from linear to complex transformational change as a result of technology, business environment shifts, and planned and unplanned leadership changes (By, 2005; Chiaburu, 2006; Teerikangas & Irrmann, 2016). Mergers, takeovers, and acquisitions also impact how change is handled today. The term "organization change" is used today mostly for business and is vital to understanding change as a process for business success (Batras et al., 2014). Needed change or changes can move like a pendulum, depending on the business situation (Akinyi & Okumu, 2016). Most organizations find this flexible, broad, and often unpredictable situation to be challenging.

Organization change should impact all employees and improve performance (Claiborne et al., 2013; Akinyi & Okumu, 2016). Scholars and business leaders continue to study, explore, and implement organizational change, yet there are "relatively sparse and often contestable series of empirical studies on the determinants of organizational performance" (Woodman et al., 2001, p. 701). In addition, nearly three decades ago, Denison (1990) conducted a thorough study on culture change and its impact on performance. The effort is worth replicating today. Although aligned in some ways to Denison's study—in that performance outcomes are emphasized—my study seeks to clarify relationship channels of current culture, organization change, and performance and to build on the chasm of enablers to performance.

Approaches that support effective change are noteworthy, especially for practitioners. But they do not capture the dynamics “below the surface” (Burke, 1994; Schein, 2010) to ensure accurate interpretation of the culture and hence effective implementation. The change must be connected to other areas such as culture and performance. To summarize, further study of organizational change and its relationship to other key variables is needed. My research on how culture constructs enable change at various levels to drive transformational change is part of this needed exploration.

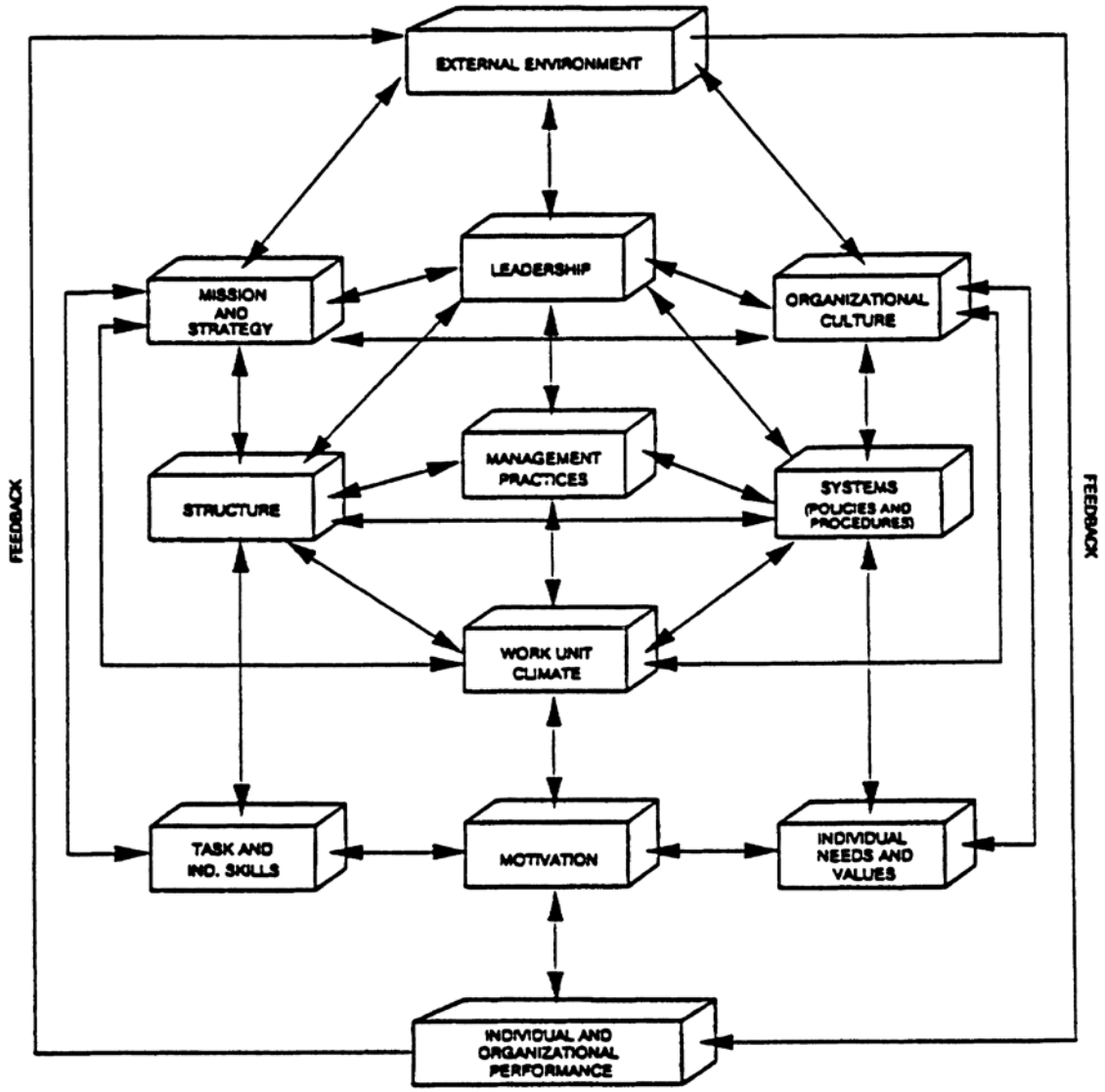
Transformational Change

Not all change is alike. One type of change related to bottom-line performance is transformational change (Schein, 1999; French, Bell, & Zawacki, 2000; Mdletye, Coetzee, & Ukpere, 2014). Transformational change is the complex macrolevel change aimed at producing a new vision, learning, leadership, and improved performance (Porras & Silvers, 1991; Burke & Litwin, 1992; Schein, 1999; French et al., 2000). Most change today is transformational in that it is interrelated at various levels (Burke & Litwin, 1992; Burnes, 2004; Fischer & Pollock, 2004). It’s transformational in that it aims to fundamentally alter the way people think, how they complete tasks, and how success is measured (Eisenbach et al., 1999; Schein, 2009; Akinyi & Okumu, 2016). As mentioned, transformational change requires unlearning and relearning for success (Schein, 1990). Conners and Smith (2011) specify transformational change as their “level 3” multilevel type change that goes beyond

informing, transactional, and temporary changes toward a momentous shift in the organization. This type of change clearly goes beyond the status quo (Argyis, 1976; Cummings & Worley, 2010; Davis & Thibedeau-Boyd, 2016) and reaches below the surface of organization knowledge.

Burke and Litwin's organizational performance model (1992) (see Figure 2) shows how different variables are linked and how they impact organization performance. A view of the model appears convulated or complicated at first. The point is that when approaching transformation, it may involve a great deal of variables to consider, especially if multiple levels are considered. The model shows that organization environments have a critical impact on outcomes. It includes several interactive factors, such as: leadership, strategy, structure, management practices, motivation, systems, and organizational culture. The complex model suggests that the variables are the most important systematic factors in an organization. Organization culture and organizational performance are analogous variables in the Burke-Litwin model. I refer to these as culture constructs throughout. In accord with my research approach—to select the most vital areas—this model attempts to highlight the most important factors for an organization at a systemic level. Much work remains, however, in obtaining current or ample empirical research that helps us understand whether performance is enabled and what variables matter most.

Figure 2: The Burke-Litwin Model of Organizational Performance & Change



Transformational Change and Culture

Changing an organization's structure, process, and culture are part of organization transformation. Some researchers also describe it as fundamental

organization transformation (Tenkasi & Mohrman, 1998; French et al., 2000; Mohrman, Tenkasi, & Mohrman, 2003; Tenkasi & Chesmore, 2003).

In order to influence the highest levels of intervention, transformational change in performance requires adjusting specifics areas of culture such as the four constructs (learning, power, identity, and conflict) and needs (Pascale et al., 1997; Cummings & Worley, 2010). OD professionals often carry out this work. Pioneer Kurt Lewin considered the leadership and culture of the individual and group to bring about change and improve social situations (Burnes, 2004; Schein, 1992) that may considerably impact the workplace. Another pioneer, Frederick Taylor, used a scientific management approach while partnering with managers and leaders to make an organization efficient and profitable (Ullrich & Wieland, 1980; Cummings & Worley, 2010). Culture in relationship to organization changes must involve leadership and must focus on what *part* of culture change is needed (Schein, 2010, 2009; Kotter & Heskett, 1992). A review of the culture, therefore, is a necessary part of the change process (Kotter & Heskett, 1992). This critical point leads to a need to incorporate the topic of culture.

Culture

Culture could easily be the topic of an entire dissertation. In my research, I will provide a few definitions to ensure clarity. The term "culture" refers to values, beliefs, and assumptions (Schein, 1992; Kim, 2003) to support a definition within that specific organizational context. Artifacts refer to observable behavior or visible structures and processes (Schein, 1992). Values, beliefs, and assumptions are not

considered *as* visible and instead are "below the surface." These attributes include internal aspirations, standards, ideas, thoughts, and perceptions (Schein, 2010). Culture can also be defined as "a pattern of shared basic assumptions learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, which 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, 2009, p. 18). Cooke et al. define culture as "the ways of thinking, behaving, and believing that all members of a social unit have in common" (p. 248). O'Reilly (1989) describes culture as a "social control system" (p.12) that can be adjusted, most often by those in power.

Rashid et al., in a 2004 study of organizational culture, found that attitudes on organization change significantly impacted the organization change process. The transformational change in the study linked attitudes and values to cause behavior in the needed direction. Culture is a complex concept but necessary for transformational change. Schein (1992) wrote that "culture is a *deep* phenomenon, that culture is *complex* and difficult to understand, but the effort to understand it is worthwhile because much of the mysterious and the irrational in the organizations suddenly becomes clear when we do understand it" (p. 5). Indeed, in a later publication, Schein argued that for change to be embedded in an organization, leaders must connect to culture (2009).

Organizational Culture

The culture of an organization—whether private, public, or government—touches every area of an organization's common life (Alvesson, 2002; Silverhorne, 2005). Many disciplines—sociology, anthropology, and psychology—have contributed to the multifaceted topic of organization culture (Schein, 2010) and contribute to the difficulty of understanding it (Ouchi & Wilkins, 1985; Emmanuel, 2017). Definitions of organizational culture vary. Markovic (2008) calls it the "specific collection of values and norms that are shared by people and groups in an organization and that control the way they interact with each other and with stakeholders outside the organization." Others define organizational culture as a socially constructed "pattern of basic assumptions, learned, discovered, or developed by a given group or community . . . that is transmitted to new members" (Girneata & Potcovaru, 2015).

Organizational culture drives employee actions and behavior (Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, & Sanders, 1990; Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010; Lewis, 2014). For example, in some banking industries the culture is considered formal. Male employees typically wear suits and women typically wear dresses. Employees may address customers using formal salutations such as "Sir" or "Madam." As another example of how culture affects employee behavior, in an organization that upholds a value hierarchy and avoids conflict, employees may be discouraged from speaking up or disagreeing with a supervisor.

Beginning in the 1990s, Geert Hofstede and others took an approach to culture centered on the nationality of individuals and how it impacted them on a team (Lewis, 2014). Hofstede conducted cross-cultural studies akin to organization culture research but specific to national culture relationships (Hofstede et al., 1990; Silverhorne, 2005; Chaudhary, 2016) that link to sociology, demographics, and nationality. The widely referenced Hofstede model of culture uses six dimensions with roots from national culture on values, goals, and beliefs that are measured quantitatively with a survey (Hofstede et al., 1990) and qualitatively with follow-up interviews or questionnaires. Generally, the organization culture research that uses company survey data leads to no right or wrong approach, but focuses on what outcomes the organization wants.

Many researchers enhance the study of organizational culture into other dimensions (Chaudhary, 2016). The organizational culture research in this dissertation looks at a slightly enhanced dimension that serves as a functional instrument working within the organization. The culture aspect does not directly consider nationality or national origin traits, but targets the collective corporate organization culture dynamics (Winston & Dadzie, 2007), particularly the various assortments of leadership, systems, patterns, processes, and routines involved in the culture distinct from national culture.

Organizational culture "has been viewed as holistic, historically determined, and socially constructed" (Rashid et al., 2004). It is a powerful force in the workplace. Furthermore, the combined area of change and culture is known to have an impact on organization performance (Chaudhary, 2016). The connection of

organization change and culture are vital parts of transformational change that drive action. Therefore, we determine that transformational change also targets the culture. Essential areas of organization culture such as “values, norms, deeply held beliefs and attitudes, [and] longstanding historical precedence” (Burke, 1994) are less easily changed.

Culture Types

Categorizing aspects of the culture is common in organizational culture literature. Much of the literature agrees that culture is a juggernaut greatly affecting organizations (Ernst, 1985; Martin, 1992; Gordon & DiTomaso, 1992; Denison & Mishra, 1995; Cameron & Quinn, 2011). But does the type of culture matter? The prominent Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI) assessment uses three culture types: constructive, passive/defensive, and aggressive/defensive with accompanying styles that link to behavioral norms (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988). The OCI is a notable quantitative approach that plots scores on a “circumplex” to reflect norms in percentiles (Cooke & Szumal, 2000). These percentiles indicate impact on organization performance (Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson, 2000). In a manufacturing study, Rashid et al. (2004) ascertained that knowledge of different types of organization culture can impact organization change on multiple levels of acceptance. From a leadership personality perspective, Kets, DeVries, and Miller (1986) created five culture “constellations” of avoidant, paranoid, charismatic, bureaucratic, and politicized. They found that, depending on the constellation or type of culture identified, the five leadership traits directly correlated to strategy, change

resistance, and organization failure. Barney (1986) suggested that three main attributes of culture add the most value to an organization and provide superb performance if they are “valuable, rare, and imperfectly imitable” (p. 663). In other words, the more difficult to imitate by other organizations, the better performing the organization will be. Martin (1992) has three perspectives of culture. He calls them integration, differentiation, and fragmentation. Culture integration is when an organization group has consensus. In this scenario, the group shares the same workplace-ethic mindset. These shared cognitions are often mentioned in culture definitions and used as building blocks for organization identity and empowerment. Cultural differentiation is when action or behavior is conflicting, such as when a leader makes a point in a presentation, then acts contrary to what he or she said. Cultural fragmentation is when themes, approaches, and perspectives are unclear and ambiguity exists. Martin says these categorizations provide ways to diagnose and study the culture of an organization.

Cameron, Rohrbaugh, and Quinn (2011) offer a competing values framework with four culture types that connects to a culture assessment that allows organizations to assess the dominant types of culture and its varying levels to support organization effectiveness. It is often used as a framework to assess culture in relation to other variables (Dastmalchian, Lee, & Ng, 2000). Cameron et al. describe the importance of their view as follows:

> Our own research indicates that matches between the dominant culture of the organization and its leadership styles, management roles, human resource management, quality management, and effectiveness criteria contribute to higher levels of performance than mismatches do. (p. 71)

In his study of a company in Romania, Criveanu (2016) used the four culture types—clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy—that influence management practices and culture change. Criveanu found that organizational effectiveness potential with the alignment of a type of culture matched best when the management and employees agreed. Identifying an organization's culture type appears to be relevant in many studies, yet the link to enabling change that drives performance is still empirically limited. The conglomerate of culture types illustrates that addressing culture in organizations is complex.

Other Culture Studies

Several studies in the field of culture focus on commitment. Organizational commitment is described as "the willingness of participants to give energy and loyalty to an organization, to be effectively attached to its goals and values and thereby to the organization for its own sake" (Pettigrew, 1979). For example, in a study of culture constructs in a textile environment, consistency and involvement had strengthened affective commitment. The researchers noted that looking at job satisfaction and commitment level in the culture could help leaders better understand organization effectiveness (Mustafa, Ilyas, & Rehman, 2016). Studies of the culture

of midlevel management and university students showed positive relationships between socialization and individual commitment (Caldwell, Chatman, & O'Reilly, 1990). In 2016, Criveanu used structured questionnaires and regression analysis to study the relationships between organization culture, affective commitment, and job satisfaction in a textile industry. He found that culture traits of consistency and involvement strengthened affective commitment.

Hospitals have addressed culture and managing change as a result of tremendous changes in the health-care industry. One study of change in hospitals concluded that "organizational culture shapes the performance of institutions in important ways; nevertheless, little is known about how to create and sustain organization culture" (Curry et al., 2015). Indeed, Lorsch and McTague (2016) warned that "culture may not be the main reason for business deficiency," and urged that care "is taken in knowing [the] particular industry and analyzing the environment of [that] business for future success." Another study of a manufacturing organization in Turkey showed that mission was the most important cultural trait to impact sales and market growth, market share, and profitability (Yilmaz & Ergun, 2008). The employee's agreement with the mission of an organization may indicate his or her identification with an organization. If the employee is in agreement with the mission and has passion or energy around it, this can be integrated into the culture. Mission then provides a sense of meaning, connection, and purpose that an employee can identify with. The researchers noted that the cultural traits of relationship to performance is most effective if the traits are *not* in balance and occasionally vary.

This may imply that the traits should have varying levels of strength or acceptance by employees over time for optimal effectiveness.

Other studies have shown a mediating relationship between leadership and culture. For example, Pettigrew (1979) studied how culture is created through a leader, and Schein (2010) argued that entrepreneurial leadership must be connected to a culture shift. Schein writes that "culture and leadership are two sides of the same coin" (2010, p. 22). Leadership is not a focal point of this dissertation, but throughout it is assumed that any change in culture naturally involves leadership.

Culture Change and Performance Change

The link between culture and performance, often referred to in literature as the "culture-performance link," is not without controversy. Although most studies show a positive link between culture and performance (Denison, 1990), some researchers challenge the link. An examination of culture and performance (Lim, 1995) states that there is little evidence that culture and performance are positively linked. Yet there is evidence of a correlation between "adaptive" cultures and long-term performance. Early organizational research such as the Hawthorne study (Franke & Kaul, 1978) found a link between culture and performance. It found that observations of the culture in a factory led the employee behavior to improve performance. (See also the work of Ashkanasy, Wilderom, and Peterson (2000) and Winston and Dadzie (2007).) Several other studies identified this link as positive (Denison, 1984, 1990; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Denison & Mishra, 1995; Lee & Yu, 2004; Xiaoming & Junchen,

2012; Neagu & Nicula, 2012; Chatman, Caldwell, O'Reilly, & Doerr, 2014; Girneata & Potcovaru, 2015; Latif & Ullah, 2016; Emmanuel, 2017). As an extension of the framework for studying culture and organization effectiveness, Denison investigated the impact of organization culture on performance and found that participative and organized cultures had better performance track records (Denison, 1984).

Other practical studies have linked organizational culture to performance after seeing the success of Japanese companies that emphasize humanistic values and approaches for employees (Peters & Waterman, 1982; Ouchi & Wilkins, 1985; Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson, 2000; Collins, 2001). Xenikou & Simosi (2006) found in a study in Greece that looking at culture dimensions of adaptive and achievement orientations had a direct effect on performance. In more dynamic situations, adaptive orientation is one in which employees respond to customer and environmental demands. Achievement orientation is a focus on goal-setting, providing feedback to employees, and maintaining a high standard of excellence that also indirectly impacts performance (Xenikou & Simosi, 2006).

Barney (1986) posited that culture provides a primary competitive advantage, implying a boost to performance. Some disagree, however, noting that the link of organization culture to performance is subjective and ambiguous. Indeed, Siehl and Martin (1990) believe the theory development of culture will take steps backward by using performance as a variable. Skeptics argue that measuring performance purely based on financial growth does not best reflect the relationship to culture (Ashkanasy et al., 2000). In the context of collaboration, the practitioner and the researcher will

still need to study the combination of culture and performance to prove advantageous organization impact. According to Schein as cited by Gallos (2006), “The culture has an impact on how the organization performs, and the focus should initially be on where performance needs to be improved.” When leaders desire a specific outcome, Schein (2010) warns, they must be aware of the culture to understand what questions to ask that better relate to the desired outcome.

Interventions

Interventions by an OD practitioner interrupt the old and offer a new way in supporting organizational issues. This dissertation may serve as a means to evaluate or modify interventions that use culture information to impact organization performance. Alvesson (2002) offered three approaches for managers to use organizational culture: (1) organization design, (2) symbolic actions that show behaviors from managers that should be shared, and (3) as a diagnostic instrument. The diagnostic instrument approach aids the organization in choosing better approaches, avoiding typical pitfalls, and learning how to adapt (Alvesson, 2002). The preferred approach is to use organizational culture as a diagnostic instrument. This approach supports the research that unique culture constructs impact performance (Burke & Litwin, 1992; Gambi, Boer, Geralamo, Jorgensen, & Carpinetti, 2015). Therefore, some sort of analysis and diagnosis is a precursor to interventions for the greatest results.

Others have drawn a connection that culture impacts performance using interventions (Curry et al., 2015; Girneata & Potcovaru, 2015) such as measuring the

strength of the culture (Gordon & DiTomaso, 1992; Burt, Gabbay, Holt, & Moran, 1994; Lee & Yu, 2004; Girneata & Potcovaru, 2015), examining adaptability (Costanza, Blacksmith, Coats, Severt, & DeCostanza, 2016), using values frameworks (Cameron & Quinn, 2011), measuring employee commitment (Caldwell, Chatman, & O'Reilly, 1990; Xiaoming & Junchen, 2012), employing strategy and human resource management tactics (Ralevic, Dragojlovic, Dobrodolac, Denic, & Nesic, 2015), and surveys and assessments (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Lee & Yu, 2004; Cameron & Quinn, 2011). In empirical research, a common culture and shared meaning are believed to positively affect performance as a result of intense employee belonging and feelings of responsibility for the organization (Alvesson, 2002; Girneata & Potcovaru, 2015).

Key to achieving high performance in organizations is effectively assimilating new hires into the organization (Carmeli, Gilat, & Waldman, 2007). This is commonly known as "onboarding", and helps to establish a homogeneity mindset that requires high performance. These approaches can have negative consequences if overused. For example, a homogeneity culture can become rigid or legalistic over time if not managed properly (Alvesson, 2002). The use of social networks to enable and intervene was found to increase the organization's capability when implementing fundamental organization change (Mohrman, Tenkasi, & Mohrman, 2003). The patterns of culture interventions show a range of general and unique applications that attempt to show performance impact.

Adaptability

Considerable research suggests that adaptability is an organization culture trait that improves performance. For example, one study of organization culture in an auto company explored relationships between culture and innovation. The researchers found that adaptability and involvement were the most influential traits to create an innovative culture (Ataei, 2012). Another study of 95 organizations rated nine specific cultural adaptive characteristics to determine organizational survival (Costanza, Blacksmith, Coats, Severt, & DeCostanza, 2016). The findings suggested that an adaptive culture significantly increased the organization's chances of surviving for the long term.

Empirical research shows that adaptive organizations are best equipped to shift and change as the environment requires to bring about positive performance impacts (Alvesson, 2002). In a sample of large high-technology firms, one study found that culture was positively associated with performance when a consensus was reached about the culture (included norms) and high adaptability (Chatman et al., 2014). Research in Brazil and Denmark similarly showed a positive relationship of a developmental culture that is flexible and adaptive to the external environment and uses continual improvement to impact performance (Gambi et al., 2015).

Learning Organization and Culture

All change requires learning (Argyris, 1993; Kumpikaite, 2010; Chadwick & Raver, 2015) at multiple levels (Marsick & Watkins, 1999; Chadwick & Raver, 2015;

Adrienn, 2016) for enhanced organizational success. Organizations have always needed to embrace learning as a part of the change and encourage diversity of thought in order to conduct business and remain sustainable (Daniels, 2016). An added challenge in our fast-paced, technologically dependent, multigenerational work era has been to equip and foster leaders to address the daily change in people, values, goals, cultures, issues, business challenges, and financial forces that require expedited learning for success (Schein 2004; Garvin, Edmondson, & Gino, 2008; Senge 2006). Learning is a pervasive need at all levels of the organization.

Learning may occur at various levels: individual, team, and organizational (Watkins & Marsick, 1999; Yang, Watkins, & Marsick, 2004). Watkins and Marsick define "learning organization" as "an organization that has an enhanced capacity to learn, adapt, and change. It's an organization in which learning processes are analyzed, monitored, developed, managed, and aligned with improvement and innovation goals" (1993). Garvin (1993) noted that "without accompanying changes in the way that work gets done, only the potential for improvement exists" (p. 80). Garvin defined the learning organization as "an organization skilled at creating, acquiring, and transferring knowledge, and at modifying its behavior to reflect new knowledge and insights" (p. 80). This contention ultimately supports the argument that learning, as with transformational culture change, can be complex, dynamic, and nonlinear. Nevertheless, much literature features learning as a key concept in relation to change and performance interventions.

Although the premise for “organizational learning” and “the learning organization” has tacitly existed in the business vernacular for many years, the concept of “learning organization” was popularized in the book *The Fifth Discipline* (Senge, 2006). Senge delineated five principles that enable people to learn: personal mastery, mental models, building a shared vision, systems thinking, and team learning. These five principles are not steps or areas to arrive at but function as an “ensemble” (Senge, 2006, p. 11) of “must-haves” that are integrated and infused into a company’s culture. Similarly, becoming a learning organization has been called “a journey, not a destination” (Gephart et al., 1996, p. 45). Yang, Watkins, and Marsick (2004) attribute the commingled involvement of people and culture as necessary constituents to create a learning organization.

Yang et al. (2004) wrote that a learning organization has multiple dimensions that can be measured and impact organizational results. Marsick and Watkins (1999) used a “dimensions of the learning organization questionnaire” (DLOQ). Researchers have used other methods to assess and build a learning organization, such as a strategy-focused approach in management action, concentrated training and development, centers of excellence, revised learning process (Garvin et al., 2008; Rudawska, 2013), self-development, and capacity scales (Bess, Perkins, & McCown, 2010; Popova-Nowak & Cseh, 2015).

The interaction between culture and organizational learning is complex. Learning organizations have gained much attention in the academy (Watkins, Marsick and Golembiewski, 1995; Yang et al., 2004), but they are also viewed as

contextually intertwined with the organization's culture (Schein 1996; Yang et al., 2004).

Many times the concepts of organizational learning and "the learning organization" have been used interchangeably, but there is a difference. Organizational learning is the notion that activities and experiences have happened in an organization that brought about learning (Tsang, 1997). The learning organization describes the environment or culture required for that type of organization. Usually the learning organization does well at organizational learning (Tsang, 1997) and generates additional knowledge that is embedded into the culture that improves performance (Marsick & Watkins, 1993; 1999). The learning organization facilitates the "below the surface" exchanges that may bring about sustainable change.

Most important, certain cultural conditions are required for the learning organization to evolve (Schein, 1996; Yang et al., 2004). Culture change can lead to learning that improves an organization's performance (Watkins and Marsick, 2004; Bhatnager, 2006; Garvin, Edmondson, & Gino, 2008; Zhou, Hu and Shi, 2015).

Culture plays a major role in the learning organization in that assumptions, perceptions, feelings, and behavior associated with various occupational groups drive outcome behavior (Schein, 1996). It's difficult to change the mental models entrenched in various groups. The key to driving change and learning is finding integrative solutions that benefit the various groups, crossing boundaries, and reflecting the knowledge learned from each other (Schein, 1996; Chadwick & Raver, 2015). The tacit knowledge and dialogue required to work through this critical

transformation should result in shared meanings and interpretations that lead to learning.

Some consider learning in an organization without affecting performance a short-term goal. Many researchers see a link between learning and improving performance using a range of contexts and methods (Marsick & Watkins, 1993, 2003; Dimovski & Skerlavaj, 2005; Schein, 2010). For example, in a Slovenian company of top management teams, empirical evidence showed that higher learning benefited business performance (Dimovski & Skerlavaj, 2005). At a Taiwan tech company, in combination with human resources management, learning was found to improve performance. The learning organization is a premier approach because of the knowledge being learned and applied accurately (Tsang, 1997). Furthermore, Marsick et al. created a multilevel learning assessment (DLOQ) that identifies the appropriate knowledge, learning, and collective vision needed to exchange among members to bring about the needed behavioral and cognitive change, ultimately improving performance.

Much research data shows a link between learning and performance; most researchers agree that the relationship is positive (Tsang, 1997; Dayaram & Fung, 2014; Chadwick & Raver, 2015). A study of Slovenian top management teams used empirical evidence to show that the link between organizational learning and financial performance is statistically significant (Dimovski & Skerlavaj, 2005). However, a 2010–2014 empirical study of publicly traded companies compared "mature" learning cultures to performance and found no significance to the learning

culture (Coats, 2015). But, when the empirical data zeroed in on companies with fewer than 1,000 employees, one-third of the companies showed a positive relationship between learning and performance (Coats, 2015). Overall, there is not a universal agreement, model, method, or process for handling the evolving relationship between learning and performance.

Another subset in the arena of learning is an increase in joint ventures and mergers that attribute their successful integration to learning organization traits (Tsang, 1997; Leclerc, 2016). Many leaders hoping to gain organizational effectiveness have found learning practices useful and imperative. Empirically assessing the organizational culture and context will lead researchers to better understand the learning organization.

Power and Empowerment

Power can be described as a force or relationship between actors in which one would not do or act in a manner without the force of the other (Pfeffer, 1981). Power functions in most interdependent organizations (Hickson, Hinings, Schneck, & Pennings, 1971; Pfeffer, 1981). The distribution and use of power in an organization can impact organization processes (Deutsh, Coleman, & Marcus, 2006).

A fundamental role of building an organization is employee empowerment (Kumpikaite, 2010). A related topic to research in control and power (Menon, 2001; Pratto, 2016) is empowerment. Empowerment is a robust term that connects to social and organizational dynamics where the subordinate has a strong element of self-

efficacy due to what the leader enables (Harrison, 2005). Empowerment has varying definitions (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). The Merriam-Webster Dictionary (2016) defines it as such: "(1) to give official authority or legal power, (2) to enable, (3) to promote the self-actualization or influence of." The definition I use is the interaction in an organization in which employees have a sense of self-efficacy and a feeling of power given to them from authority figures (Menon, 2001).

Central to defining empowerment is recognizing that its meaning and portrayal in the organization in a group setting or collective approach require one important feature: that employees "perceive themselves as able and entitled to occupy that space" (Rowlands, 1995, p. 102). In other words, a declaration without the practice that includes the link is not real work-related empowerment. Leaders ought to examine that correlation when offering empowerment.

Empowerment is often referred to as a national phenomenon associated with women in third-world countries or communication action projects (Rowlands, 1995; Alsop, Bertelsen, & Holland, 2006). Most popular in the literature is the use of employee empowerment as a management practice (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Blanchard, Carlos, & Randolph, 2001; Voegtlin, Boehm, & Bruch, 2015; Gustin, 2016). Management practices that align with empowerment date back to Douglas McGregor (Theory Y) and Peter Drucker (influx of knowledge management workers). Recently, the term has been associated with new phrases such as a "deliberately developmental organization" (DDO) (Kegan & Laskow Lahey, 2016).

A DDO requires employee empowerment to function properly. It is an organization in which inclusive culture creation is at the heart and is intended to build and develop employees at all levels. An inclusive culture is created consistently through developmental practices (e.g., sharing mistakes with others so employees can avoid repeating the mistakes), building community within a group, and encouraging growth as a person and not just as an employee (Kegan & Laskow Lahey, 2016).

Key empowerment factors in action or process may include sharing accurate information with employees (e.g., business results, goals achievement, feedback), creating autonomy with boundaries, replacing hierarchal thinking with self-management teams (Blanchard et al., 2001), and inculcating competence and a sense of community (Menon, 2001). Some writers address empowerment in relation to work areas such as training (Voegtlin et al., 2015), management steps (Blanchard et al., 2001), job satisfaction (Thorlakson & Murray, 1996: Choi, Goh, Adam, & Tan, 2016), intrinsic motivation (Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004; Hechanova, Alampay, & Franco, 2006), and leadership, delegation, job design, and reward systems (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). All of these factors affect the creation of the organizational culture and could affect performance.

Multilevel Empowerment

Multilevel studies of empowerment do exist, but few are combined with empirical evidence that link to organizational performance. Seibert et al. (2004), for example, found psychological empowerment-mediated relationships between job satisfaction, individual performance, and an “empowerment climate.” Such a climate

is marked by perceptions of members on policies, practices, and practices associated with empowerment such as information, boundaries, and team accountability. Similarly, when researching team performance with government workers, employee empowerment variables of autonomy, responsibility, information, and creativity were found to have a significant positive impact on team performance (Yang & Choi, 2009). Most interesting was research that looked at 62 teams within a Fortune 500 company. The study provided empirical evidence of a multilevel model of leadership, empowerment, and performance (Chen, Kanfer, Kirkman, & Allen, 2007) and found that leadership and the member exchange had a significant impact on empowerment. In addition, individual performance was shown to positively relate to team performance. The study's authors recommended focus on the individual and team in analyzing empowerment programs.

One empirical workplace study done with Canadian Life Insurance found little difference between empowered versus non-empowered employees in measuring workgroup productivity (Thorlakson & Murray, 1996). Moreover, a study of a textile plant seeking to create an empowered culture examined relationships between organizational culture, utilizing Hofstede's power dimensions and performance outcomes (Sigler & Pearson, 2000). The authors found that perceptions of empowerment did influence performance outcomes, but national culture had the most impact on organization culture.

The topic of power looms large over the research; therefore, for this study a form of power, empowerment, will be operationalized. Many organizations today

practice empowerment, yet a gap remains in connecting empowerment with performance outcomes that link to transformational culture change.

Organizational Identification

Social identity theory posits that an individual's self-concept is based on abilities and interest that the person occupies in a social group (Lee, 1971; Carmeli et al., 2007; Jones & Volpe, 2011). The term "organizational identification" has an associated meaning (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Organizational identification is a cognitive construct whereby individuals identify and define themselves in relation to groups in the organization (Lee, 1971; Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Kim, 2003; Riketta, 2005; Sartore-Baldwin & Walker, 2011). This interpretation closely connects to individual values and beliefs (Schein, 1980; Chreim, 2002). Mael and Ashforth (1992) define organizational identification "as the perception of oneness with or belongingness to an organization, where the individual defines him or herself in terms of the organization(s) in which he or she is a member" (p. 7). Although the individual is emphasized, the concept must include shared understandings and collective beliefs about the institution within an organizational group (Chreim, 2002; Brown, Manning, & Ludema, 2016).

Organizational identification is vital to the organization. It plays a crucial part in determining how people behave in organizations and providing the rationale for their behaviors (Chelliah, D'Netto, & Georges, 2015; Xu, Martinez, Van Hoof, Eljuri, & Arciniegas, 2016). An employee's organizational identity can be strengthened by

the external perception of the organization (Carmeli et al., 2007) and social networks (Jones & Volpe, 2011), so that employees care about organization performance results. Researchers have found correlations between organization identification and its impact on transformational leadership, employee attitudes (Lee et al., 2015), job satisfaction (Lee et al., 2015), turnover (Cho & Ryu, 2009), employee engagement (Ackerman, 2010), external business environment (Schultz et al., 2012), and commitment (Riketta, 2005; Carmeli et al., 2007; Gibney, Zagenczyk, Fuller, & Hester, 2011; Lee et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2016).

Identity & Performance

One study in China found that four types of cultural identity—cognitive, affective, behavioral, and socialized—positively predicted job performance (Zhang, 2016). Ackerman (2010) found that the stronger the organizational identification, the higher the employee engagement, which improved business performance. On the other hand, empirical studies using questionnaires showed organizational identification strongly related to job involvement and voluntary behavior that benefits the organization, but direct job performance relationship was moderate (Riketta, 2005). Similarly, in a study of an electronics and media industry, researchers found that organizational identification enhanced job performance only if "employees integrate well with the organizational system" (Carmeli et al., 2007, p. 988; Chen et al., 2013). In a study of a nonprofit organization, it was found that leaders who are conflicted in the agreement of the organization identity decrease organization performance (Voss, Cable, & Voss, 2006). Lee (1971), who conducted empirical

research on scientists, contends that organization identification studies need to accompany other job variables (i.e., sense of accomplishment, job satisfaction, identification with profession, and work group morale). His study found that scientists with high individual identity were more productive. Studies show that identity connects to culture and impacts performance. Identity has shown connections to increase the capacity to change, increase a sense of oneness with the organization, and improve employee satisfaction. In sum, identity bears a meaningful connection to culture; my research continues to explore its relationship to performance.

Constructive Conflict Management

Conflict is a necessary evil present in every society (Wong, 1997; Sheridan, 2012). One definition of conflict is being in opposition to or disagreement with another (Slabbert, 2004; Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2016). Lewin took dynamic approaches to social conflict and group dynamics in his action research (Lewin, 1947). Psychologists gave greater attention to the topic of conflict (Brunner, 2002) as a struggle between the conscious and unconscious and the ego and identity (Spielman, 2002; Sardana & Thatchenkery, 2017). Conflict is juxtaposed with reality (e.g., legitimization, coercion) and often with social and epistemological experiences, and its strength varies over time (Wong, 1997).

Studies suggest that conflict is linear, unpredictable, and negative (Sardana & Thatchenkery, 2017). In today's complex environments, however, alongside unique business-changing conditions, conflict and managing it no longer appears to be linear. Rather, conflict is seen more clearly as interpersonal (Barki & Hartwick, 2001;

Thomas & Bliese, 2005), group- or team-oriented (Behfar, Friedman, & Brett, 2016), international (Ullrich & Wieland, 1980; Deutsh, Coleman, & Marcus, 2006; Kim et al., 2016), and cross-organizational (Silverhorne, 2005; Deutsh, Coleman, & Marcus, 2006). As the types of conflict evolve, most researchers identify the main conflict categories as task- or relationship-based (De Dreu & Beersma, 2005).

There are many approaches and models of conflict in organizations (Blake & Mouton, 1975; Munduate, Ganaza, Peiro, & Euwema, 1999; Barki & Hartwick, 2001; Kusztal, 2002; Slabbert, 2004; Brinkert, 2006; Liu, Fu, & Liu, 2009). The study of conflict has produced research subsets such as conflict resolution, alternative dispute resolution (Li, Zhu, & Gerard, 2012), labor relations, mediation, and coaching for ways to resolve issues.

Some studies show that conflict negatively impacts performance (Slabbert, 2004; Zhu, Yang, & Bai, 2016) such as in the health-care industry, where conflict has impacted stakeholders (e.g., patients, nurses, vendors) (Kim et al., 2016). Other studies conclude that conflict can be constructive and beneficial (Alper, Tjosvold, & Law, 2000; Caudron, 2000; De Dreu, 2008; Bradley, Anderson, Baur, & Klotz, 2015), especially in task-related group conflict (Thompson, 2000; Lee, Lin, Huan, Huang, & Teng, 2015; Bradley et al., 2015). Scholars debate the impact of task conflict on a group; groups that have developed conflict strategies and increased trust successfully limit the likelihood that task conflict will have a negative influence (Loughry, 2014). A related study looking at social networks found that conflict was not detrimental when networks were used as part of the process (Jungst & Blumberg,

2016). Lee et al. (2012) argued that left unattended, conflict can be destructive, but if managed can be constructive (Li et al., 2012; Sheridan, 2012). Pascale et al. (1997) similarly claimed that conflict should be managed to contribute to organizational performance.

Other approaches on conflict include that of De Dreu and Weingart (2003), who noted that conflict resolution in organizations might not be optimal for organization performance. Nevertheless, not all conflict has to be resolved; it can be handled, managed, or reconstructed in a manner that opposing sides come together for the good of the organization. This perspective is in line with De Dreu's subsequent analysis that overall conflict can do harm, but that with constructive conflict management, the harm can be lessened or mitigated (De Dreu, 2008). Managing conflict does not mean that conflict can be eliminated from the organization (however unlikely an effort). Rather, attempts to manage conflict indicate an awareness of issues and management decisions (Pascale et al., 1997) on the individual, team, and organizational level that is productive (Caudron, 2000; Alper et al., 2000) and addresses the whole system (Munduate et al., 1999). From an organizational development perspective, addressing the whole system with an intervention that includes conflict leads to a better outcome (Deutsch et al., 2006). At the team level, low levels of conflict in combination with trust and respect were found to lead to higher team performance (Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Bradley, Anderson, Baur, & Klotz, 2015). I concur that the management of conflict is the best approach.

Conflict is relevant in that properly identifying it affirms a critical dimension of the culture change in organizations. The quandary is that conflict management types, approaches, and styles vary considerably depending on the context of the conflict and nature of the organization undergoing conflict. For example, a study by Jehn & Mannix (2001) compared three types of conflict: process, relationship, and task over the early, middle, and late phases in a group. They found that higher-performing teams had a pattern of low relationship conflict, except at the end of a project. An increase in levels of process conflict, and moderate levels of task conflict at the middle phase, were favorable. The team consisted of a predetermined set of values, open discussion norms, and high levels of trust and respect. Another study by Jehn (1997) also agreed that relationship conflict was harmful to teams and satisfaction. The teams that had norms to reduce negative emotions and resolution mechanisms performed better (Jehn, 1997). Looking at top management teams, Simons & Peterson (2000) found that intragroup trust moderates task conflict and relationship conflict. Trust was a key factor that aided the task conflict to avoid detriments in relationship conflict (Simons & Peterson, 2000). The recommended approach to conflict management, then, is knowing that conflict affects persons and entities differently and that successful conflict management must be assessed carefully, given its unique relationship to the context, environment, and situation (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003) at hand.

Performance

From a psychology perspective, employee performance is typically measured using a formula of ability and motivation (Nystrom & Starbuck, 1981). In the workplace today, most often the performance review captures the employee's annual accomplishments compared with predetermined goals and is aligned with the organization performance (Sheridan, 2012). This dissertation will use employee performance ratings as one performance measure. The significance of the performance rating in research (Borman & Dunnette, 1991; Viswesvaran, Ones, & Schmidt, 1996; Bhatia & Jain, 2012) is described in literature along with the need to use it in various manners to test and correlate relationships (Cleveland, Murphy, & Williams, 1989; Ikamullah, Van Prooijen, Zahidiqbal, & Ul-Hassan, 2016). Performance ratings have shown meaningful connections to organizational performance (Guerra-Lopez, 2008; Iyswarya & Rajaram, 2017).

Corporate performance itself can be measured in many ways depending on the stakeholder, preferred direction, or desired outcome. Common variables align with accounting measurements, such as long-term growth, sales rates, and return on investment (Xiaoming & Junchen, 2012). Nonfinancial variables include quality (Latif & Ullah, 2016), turnover, and customer and employee satisfaction (Xiaoming & Junchen, 2012). Most organization performance measures cited in the literature include multiple measurements, suggesting that there is no one best indicator of organization performance. This dissertation will explore quantitative approaches to corporate performance in performance review data over time.

Organization performance is often defined as the effective and efficient achievement of goals and objectives (Emmanuel, 2017). This is not to be confused with productivity, which correlates with volumes of work over a specified timeframe (Emmanuel, 2017). Research in Korea showed that knowledge creation, in the form of process changes, is required to verify financial performance improvement (Song & Kolb, 2012; Zhou, Hu, & Shi, 2015).

Amid the many approaches and theories on performance improvement, my stance is that significant relationships matter. Culture change and learning processes can lead to improved organization performance (Yang, Watkins, & Marsick, 2004; Bhatnagar, 2006; Zhou, Hu, & Shi, 2015). The methods of measurement include surveys and questionnaires (Church & Waclawski, 1998). Research has also shown that moderators and mediators to performance are learning (Marsick & Watkins, 1993; Song & Kolb, 2012), knowledge management (Song & Kolb, 2012), organizational health (Pascale et al., 1997; Keller & Price, 2011), adaptation (Adrienn, 2016), performance management, behavior and cognitive changes (Dimovski, 1994), and information technology (Tippins & Sohi, 2003). The concept of improving organization performance is vast. For this study, survey data and aggregated performance ratings data will be analyzed as key indicators of organizational performance. My research considers a close link to culture and its relationships that enable maximum performance.

Summary

This comprehensive literature review provides an understanding of the current environment regarding complexities in organizations and lays the foundation for this dissertation research. Additional research is needed to provide insights into the combination of constructs. A review of literature trends shows that, although the four combined culture constructs do not appear in a comprehensive study, the connections of the four culture constructs of learning, empowerment, organization identification, and conflict management are unparalleled in the literature. Researchers have a multitude of approaches and findings. Despite the assortment of concepts and methodology, the four constructs materialize directly and indirectly in culture research. This study attempts to show the impact of the cultural practices that derive from Pascale et al. that enable positive performance change in organizations today.

A need continues for approaches to drive performance change. The literature indicates that cookie-cutter approaches do not lead to success. Therefore, my perspective for this research aligns with the contingency theorist that suggests there is no one way to approach decisions and approaches for the organization (Tosi & Slocum, 1984). Leaders, OD experts, HR employees, and consultants must drive increased performance change that is unique to an organization in order to be sustained.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

The research methods used for this dissertation are quantitative, employing statistics, survey, and company data (Creswell, 2003). The statistical approach is preferred to best express the relationships between the identified variables to determine support, or not, of the hypothesis (Rudestam & Newton, 2007). Because my data had employee information at various levels (i.e., individual, team, manager) nested within a large data set, a mixed-level regression procedure was used. Due to the four culture constructs as multiple variables to test impact on performance, a multivariate linear regression was conducted.

Quantitative Approach

Quantitative approaches in researching or explaining culture are found in other studies. My research resembles the goal of examining relationships in assessments like the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP), which focuses on individual values in relationship to an organization's value system, and the Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI), which scores and plots behavioral norms percentiles to compare against an ideal state (Cooke & Szumal, 2000). This study is unique because there are no other studies that use empirical data to test the four culture constructs' link to performance, providing insights on what truly has organizational impact. I used approved secondary data directly from a "logistics" company that requested anonymity. I also examined survey and performance data of

the employees. Using a deductive method (Ketchen, Thomas, & Snow, 1993; Booth, Colomb, & Williams, 2008), I investigated how the culture constructs of learning practices, employee empowerment, organization identity, and conflict management enable performance change at various levels—individual and team. I examined the independent variables of learning practices, empowerment, organization identity, and conflict management in relation to organization performance both cross-sectionally and longitudinally. For the cross-sectional study, I looked at various employee levels at discrete points in time. For the longitudinal study, I considered data over three years—2012, 2013, and 2014. I measured the employee/individual level through the ratings given by the manager. I measured the team level by the group's average performance rating. Performance data was available for years 2012, 2013, and 2014. Culture survey data was available for years 2013 and 2014, with two surveys completed in year 2013, one early in the year and the other later in the year.

The literature review provided a comprehensive survey of scholarship related to the constructs included in this research. The dilemma raised by this review is deciding *which* part of the culture matters most and impacts performance the most. Other researchers have used various types and traits of culture to align with performance. For example, Denison used a model of four attributes for the expansive Singapore study that looked at 72 companies comparing 54 culture values. His research corroborates findings that learning and adaptability are key predictors to enable organization performance (Denison & Mishra, 1995; Lee & Yu, 2004). Hall argues that of the four areas of culture (communication, leadership, education, and

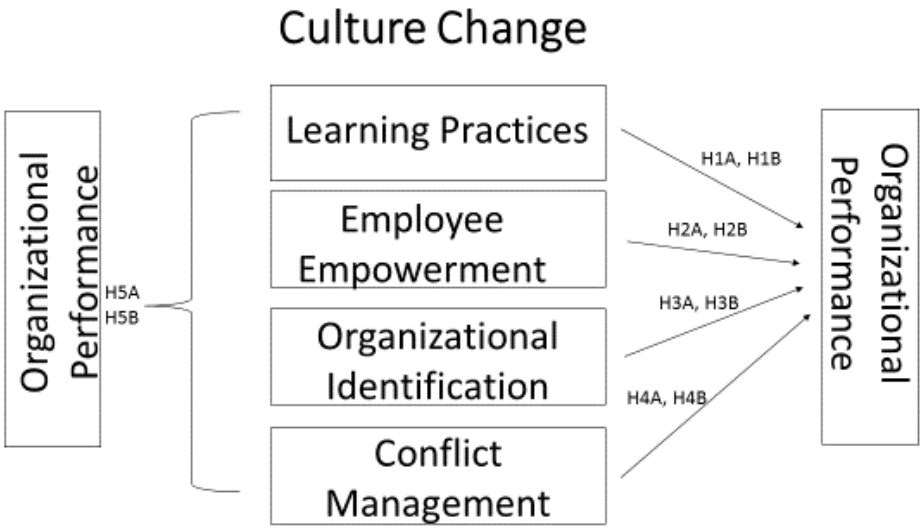
reinforcement), leadership most palpably shapes the culture for best performance (Hall, 2016). Hence, the many examples in the study of culture's direct relationship to performance are explored in research but fragmented with little agreement. This suggests that organization change in the context of examining culture is worthy of continued academic study.

Research Questions

My research questions include:

1. What impact do learning practices in the organization have on the performance outcomes for a company, both cross-sectionally and longitudinally?
2. What impact does employee empowerment in the organization have on the performance outcomes for a company, both cross-sectionally and longitudinally?
3. What impact does organizational identification of the employees in the organization have on the performance outcomes for a company, both cross-sectionally and longitudinally?
4. What impact does conflict management among employees in the organization have on the performance outcomes for a company, both cross-sectionally and longitudinally?
5. What impact do the moderating effects of learning, power, identity, and conflict have on performance outcomes for a company?

Figure 2: Research model overview



Methods for testing the research questions

Multivariate linear regression procedures were conducted to answer the research questions measuring the impact of the four cultural constructs on performance at the cross-sectional level (i.e., during the years 2013 and 2014). There were two sets of regressions to address the multilevel nested data of individual and team performance.

For the longitudinal impact, the research questions were measured by the four culture constructs on performance (across time) using mixed-level regression procedures (Bickel, 2007). There were two levels assessed, first the within-individual or within-team effects across time; second, the effects of the predictors on mean performance and mean performance across time.

To test the impact of cultural constructs on individual performance across time, unstructured and diagonal covariance structures were specified. The auto-regressive covariance structures yielded poor model fit. An unstructured covariance structure was specified to test the impact of cultural constructs on team performance across time. Finally, a factor analysis was conducted testing the culture constructs to measurement model, which loaded successfully.

The article "Changing the Way We Change," whose ideas I develop in my research, provided a field-study view from practitioners using all four constructs. Unique to this study, there is no known combination of the four constructs directly linked to organizational performance in research and additional empirical evidence to support enhancing organizational performance. This dissertation aims to determine whether the conceptual and anecdotal ideas from the article on culture change hold true in the workplace today.

Definition of Terms

Learning practices: Exchange of ideas, concepts, and knowledge obtained between employees that are shared and that enhance the organization. The learning is seen as a "collective phenomenon, one in which organizations put in place new approaches . . . that enable them to perform more effectively and improve performance over time" (Mohrman, Galbraith, & Lawler III, 1998, p. 332).

Empowerment: State in which employees have a sense of self-efficacy and feeling of power given to them from authority leaders in the organization.

Organization identity: Identification of an individual in relation to an organization or groups in the organization. This identity has shared understandings of membership with cognitive and emotional connections to the organization (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008; Schultz, Maguire, Langley, & Tsoukas, 2012).

Conflict management: Manner in which conflict is handled, defined as "the behavior oriented toward the intensification, reduction, and resolution of the conflict" (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003, p. 155).

Variables

The dependent variable—performance—was measured at two levels: individual and team. Performance was measured via the employee performance rating. Individual employee performance was assigned a score based on rating given by the manager. The performance ratings were analyzed at three levels: below expectations, achieved expectations, and exceeds expectations. Team performance was calculated by the average of the individuals in a group

Research Context

The data used in this dissertation comes from a company that requested confidentiality. "Company ABC" is a Fortune 500 "logistics" company based in the United States. More than 10,000 employees work globally in the United States, Canada, and Puerto Rico. The company was founded in the 1900s and by the 1980s had expanded considerably after strategic mergers. The early 2000s saw Company ABC engage in a handful of additional mergers and spinoffs. At its peak, the

company employed more than 25,000 people. Then, in 2010, a separation occurred, which led to two large logistics companies instead of one logistics behemoth.

The newer standalone company was a smaller but still large enterprise, with more than 22,000 employees. Approximately 2,000 of those worked outside of the United States. The 2013 net revenue of more than $17 billion was a decrease from the previous year. The company's former headquarters were in the Midwest, with more than 36 manufacturing facilities worldwide. Several distribution centers leased space to Company ABC, comprising 20 product categories, in the United States. Company ABC's customer base comprises grocery store chains, supermarkets, drug stores, and retail food outlets. The new company's leadership initiated a series of culture assessment surveys led by a third-party vendor that went to 10,000 salaried employees. Three surveys were launched over a 24-month period. The company had undergone tremendous change and was striving to transform the organization.

Survey Design

The surveys were intended to elicit employees' perceptions that might adhere to a thought-driven ideal encapsulating the new company culture, one that would include these employee-derived attributes:

- Simple and efficient
- Metric- and performance-driven
- Drive toward ownership with differentiated rewards
- Engaged employees and increased communications

Three identical surveys were administered in spring 2013, fall 2013, and spring 2014. The survey was administered electronically to all salaried employees.

The survey design involved 12 items with two open-ended questions. The 12 items had an option to respond on a five-point Likert scale, permitting a respondent to select “agree,” “tend to agree,” “neutral/question mark,” “tend to disagree,” and “disagree.” The results of the survey were determined by “favorability” and looked at the sum of the “agree” and “tend to agree” responses. Therefore, the survey answers to the question were considered favorable or positive if the combined responses fell into the “agree” or “tend to agree” response. Responses were considered unfavorable or negative is answered on the scale by “tend to disagree” or “disagree.” The third-party survey administrator also made available three benchmark groups against which to compare Company ABC. These were (1) U.S.-only fast-moving companies with more than 35,000 employee responses, (2) U.S. transitional companies with more than 55,000 employee responses, and (3) U.S.-based innovative companies with more than 135,000 employee responses. The benchmark groups were confidential organizations that had responded to a similar culture survey. Fast-moving companies were companies that conducted business in an aggressive market that included dynamics such as frequent mergers and/or acquisitions or moving into new markets. Transitional companies have multiple locations across the multiple countries with business shifting in complementary products and development. Innovative companies were companies that had industries in innovative business, such as technology, new product development, and sciences that link to logistics business.

The following 12 items assessed aspects of the current organizational culture:

1. “I have a clear understanding of the goals and objectives of Company ABC.”
2. “I understand how my work impacts Company ABC’s results.”
3. “I have the equipment/tools/resources I need to do my job effectively.”
4. “Company ABC does an excellent job of keeping employees informed about matters affecting us.”
5. “Leadership acts in a way that is consistent with Company ABC’s values.”
6. “I trust the decisions made by our leaders.”
7. “My manager gives me regular feedback on my performance.”
8. “I believe I have the opportunity for personal development and growth at Company ABC.”
9. “My manager recognizes and appreciates good work.”
10. “Company ABC continually works to ensure our processes are as simple as possible.”
11. “I am empowered to make the decisions needed to do my job well.”
12. “I would recommend a family member or friend to come work at Company ABC.”

For the year 2014 culture survey, two statements were added:

13. “I believe my unique differences are valued at Company ABC.”

14. “Company ABC leadership supports diversity and inclusion in the workplace.”

These 12 questions were used to measure the variables in my study.

The company also had a performance management system that allowed managers and employees to track goals, feedback, and development information online. All employees received mid-year and year-end evaluations. Mid-year evaluations used an “on-track” or “off-track” indicator in relation to goals obtained. The year-end evaluation had a three-tier ranking:

1) Below expectations
2) Meets expectations
3) Exceeds expectations

Performance Data

Performance data also included the employee ranking, organization unit, group/team, region, salary level, function, and manager and goal count (number of goals for the year). This data was used to support analysis of testing for a rationale of the analysis outcomes.

The annual performance review data was extracted from the company’s electronic and online performance management system. The data was password-protected and transferred into coded identification numbers that replaced employee names. Exempt employees were required to participate in an annual performance-review process of establishing goals, obtaining feedback, and collaborating with

upper management to secure a year-end final review grade. Employees on leave of absence or terminated from the company, as well as executive leaders, were exempt from the data process.

Survey and performance data participants were salaried employees of Company ABC at various levels and locations in the organization. Survey participation was encouraged to support the organization change but voluntary. The spring 2013 survey had a participation rate of 82 percent. The fall 2013 survey had a participation rate of 79 percent, and the spring 2014 survey had a participation rate of 74 percent. No monetary or other incentives for employee participation were used.

The performance and survey data was imported into the software program Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for analysis. The longitudinal data covering three instances of employee survey and performance data was best used with repeated measures/random effects/general linear model techniques (Laird, Lange, & Stram, 1987; Laird & Ware, 1982) to run the SPSS data. The data was uneven in some years due to turnover and adjustments to the original survey instrument as the organization grew more curious about employee perspectives. The random effects approach is beneficial when handling data that has an uneven distribution over time, as it allows for more independence of each variable response and its complexities quantitatively, which best align to what was observed or unobserved (Waclawiw & Liang, 1993; Hedeker & Gibbons, 1997).

Chapter 4: Analysis & Findings

This chapter will explain the results of the five research questions. The main research question—how do the cultural constructs of learning, power, identity, and conflict enable performance change at various levels (individual and team) to drive sustained performance change in the organization?—was found to have mixed results.

Data was analyzed in a multilevel method to obtain correlations with multiple-year performance at the individual and team level both cross-sectionally and longitudinally. The research questions testing the impact of independent variables on the dependent variable, performance at the cross-sectional level was conducted using multivariate linear regression. The research questions testing the impact of independent variables on performance across time was conducted using mixed-level regression procedures. The first section provides results for cross-sectional outcomes for individual and then team performance. The second section provides results for the longitudinal outcomes. The first set shows the individual, and the second set shows the team results. This set also includes findings based on model testing that justifies the best model fit. In addition, results of level one and level-two predictor tables are shown. The third set of longitudinal results show team performance outcomes that include results of level one and level two predictor tables. The third section gives an evaluation of the research questions and hypotheses. Last, the fourth section provides overall summary of the hypotheses 1-5 results. The term “cultural practices” is used in the data analysis to represent the combined culture construct variables (learning,

power, identity, conflict) in that order; therefore, if three cultural constructs are used, it refers to learning, power, and identity only.

Cross-Sectional Results for Individual Performance

The cross-sectional results for individual performance are summarized in Table 1. Note that there was a problem of multi-collinearity in 2012; tolerance values fell below the acceptable criterion of .20 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Nevertheless, organization identification negatively predicted individual performance, $\beta = -.29$, $p < .001$. But learning practices positively predicted individual performance, $\beta = .23$, $p = .013$. In 2013, none of the cultural constructs significantly predicted individual performance. In 2014, learning practices positively predicted individual performance, $\beta = .07$, $p = .045$.

Table 1

Multiple Linear Regression Results for the Individual Performance Models

Variables	*B*	*SE*	β	TOL
2012 (*N* = 1552)				
Learning	.60	.24	.23 *	.07
Empowering employees	.00	.13	.00	.14
Organizational identification	-.40	.11	-.29 ***	.09
Model $F(3, 1548) = 5.30$, $p = .001$, $R^2 = .010$				
2013 (*N* = 1667)				
Learning	.11	.14	.04	.26
Empowering employees	-.02	.08	-.01	.21
Organizational identification	-.06	.06	-.04	.38
Model $F(3, 1663) = .46$, $p = .712$, $R^2 = .001$				
2014 (*N* = 3522)				
Learning	.01	.00	.07 *	.22
Empowering employees	-.00	.01	-.02	.20
Organizational identification	-.01	.01	-.07	.23
Conflict management	.00	.00	.00	.27
Model $F(4, 3517) = 3.15$, $p = .013$, $R^2 = .004$				

Note. TOL = tolerance.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Cross-Sectional Results for Team Performance

The cross-sectional results for team performance are summarized in Table 2. Because the regressions for years 2012, 2013, and 2014 yielded standardized coefficients above 1, the regression results are not reported. Instead, Pearson correlations between each of the practices and team performance are presented. As shown in Table 2, learning ($r = -.91$, $p < .001$), empowering employees ($r = -.78$, $p <$

.001), and organizational identity (r = -.83, p < .001) were all negatively associated with team performance in 2012. Similarly, all cultural practices were negatively correlated with team performance in 2013. Likewise, in 2014, all cultural practices, including conflict, were negatively correlated with team performance.

Table 2

Pearson Correlations between Cultural Constructs and Team Performance in 2012 and 2013

Variables	*N*	1	2	3	4
2012	1917				
1 Team performance					
2 Learning		-.91***			
3 Empowering employees		-.78***	.93***		
4 Organizational identity		-.83***	.95***	.91***	
2013	1917				
1 Team performance					
2 Learning		-.22***			
3 Empowering employees		-.10***	.87***		
4 Organizational identity		-.65***	.75***	.81***	
2014	3522				
1 Team performance					
2 Learning		-.24***			
3 Empowering employees		-.35***	.69***		
4 Organizational identity		-.17***	.74***	.86***	
5 Conflict management		-.24***	.84***	.55***	.67***

* p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.

Longitudinal Results for Individual Performance (Three Cultural Practices)

Four individual performance models were tested. The first model was the unconditional model; it did not include any predictors. The second model included the first-level predictor of time (i.e., years). The third model included the first-level predictor of time as well as the cultural constructs and team performance. The fourth model included all the third-model predictors as well as cross-interaction terms. As shown in Table 3, model fit improved significantly by adding time into the model, *Deviance (5)* = 256.65, $p < .001$ (Bickel, 2007). Model fit also improved significantly by adding four predictors into the model, *Deviance (4)* = 22.57, $p < .001$. But model fit did not improve significantly by adding the three cross-interaction terms into the model, *Deviance (3)* = 1.02, $p < .975$.

Table 3

Information Criteria for the Four Individual Performance Models

Information Criteria	First Model	Second Model	Third Model	Fourth Model
-2 Restricted Log Likelihood	9891.92	9635.27	9612.70	9611.68
Akaike's Information Criterion	9895.92	9647.27	9424.70	9623.68
Hurvich and Tsai's Criterion	9895.92	9647.29	9624.71	9623.69
Bozdogan's Criterion	9911.54	9694.14	9671.56	9670.54
Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion	9909.54	9688.14	9665.56	9664.54

Note. First model = unconditional model. Second model = model with first-level predictor of time (i.e., years). Third model = model with second-level predictors. Fourth model = model with second-level predictors and cross-interaction terms.

Results for the Unconditional Model

The unconditional intraclass correlation (i.e., between-individual variability/ between-individual + within-individual variability) for individual performance scores, as shown in Table 4, was small, $r = .14$. Thus, about 14 percent of the variability in individual performance ratings occurred between individuals, and about 86 percent occurred within individuals. This finding suggests that including a first-level predictor (i.e., time) would be more useful than including second-level predictors (i.e., the cultural constructs) in the model.

Table 4
Estimates of Variance Parameters for the Unconditional Individual Performance Model

Parameter	Estimate	*SE*	*Wald Z*	*r*
Variability within individuals	.22	.00	44.07 ***	
Variability between individuals	.04	.00	8.83 ***	.14

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Results for the Model with a Level-One Predictor

The findings in Table 5 indicate that individual performance ratings dropped significantly across time, $B = -.11$, $p < .001$. Performance ratings decreased, on average, by .11 points.

Table 5

Fixed-Effects Results for the Single-Level Model of Mean Individual Performance

Parameter	Estimate	*SE*	*Df*	*t*
Time	-.11	.01	2175	-14.19 ***

Note. Pseudo $R^2 = 14\%$. $N_1 = 6702$. $N_2 = 2234$.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

The findings in Table 6 reveal that the variances of individual performance within each year appeared to differ slightly from each other. Mean individual performance scores differed across individuals (*Wald Z* = 9.08, $p < .001$), and the individual performance slope differed significantly across individuals (*Wald Z* = 3.59, $p < .001$).

Table 6

Estimates of Variance Parameters for the Individual Performance Level-One Model

Parameter	Estimate	*SE*	*Wald Z*
Variability within individuals			
2012	.19	.02	12.08 ***
2013	.21	.01	24.32 ***
2014	.18	.01	14.11 ***
Variability between individuals			
Mean individual performance	.04	.00	9.08 ***
Time slope	.03	.01	3.59 ***
Mean performance x time slope	-.01	.00	-1.18

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Results for the Model with Second-Level Predictors

The findings in Table 7 reveal learning practices ($B = .04$, $p = .013$), organizational identity ($B = .07$, $p = .005$), and team performance ($B = .05$, $p = .014$) positively predicted mean individual performance. But empowering employees negatively predicted mean individual performance, $B = -.16$, $p < .001$.

Table 7

Fixed-Effects Results for the Two-Level Model of Mean Individual Performance

Parameter	Estimate	*SE*	*df*	*t*
Time	-.17	.02	4707	-10.67 ***
Learning	.04	.02	4140	2.49 *
Employee empowerment	-.16	.03	4348	-6.09 ***
Organization identity	.07	.03	4573	2.84 **
Team performance	.05	.02	5229	2.46 *

Note. Pseudo $R^2 = 14\%$. $N_1 = 6702$. $N_2 = 2234$.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

The findings in Table 8 show that only the variance within 2013 appeared to differ from the other years. Mean performance scores differed across individuals (*Wald Z* = 9.08, $p < .001$), and the performance slope differed significantly across individuals (*Wald Z* = 3.59, $p < .001$).

Table 8

Estimates of Variance Parameters for the Two-Level Model of Mean Individual Performance

Parameter	Estimate	*SE*	*Wald Z*
Variability within individuals			
2012	.18	.02	11.96 ***
2013	.21	.01	24.29 ***
2014	.18	.01	13.97 ***
Variability between individuals			
Mean individual performance	.05	.00	9.53 ***
Time slope	.03	.01	4.17 ***
Mean performance x time slope	-.00	.00	-1.07

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. $N_1 = 6702$. $N_2 = 2234$.

Results for the Model with Cross-Interaction Terms

The findings in Table 9 reveal that none of the cultural constructs significantly predicted mean individual performance ratings. Interestingly, employee empowerment had an effect on individual performance across time, $B = -.15$, $p = .004$. The lower the employee empowerment score, the steeper the improvement in individual performance; the higher the employee empowerment score, the less steep

the improvement in individual performance. Organization identity also had an effect on individual performance across time, $B = .17$, $p = .002$; the higher the organization identity score, the steeper the improvement in Individual Performance; the lower the employee empowerment score, the less steep the improvement in Individual Performance.

Table 9

Fixed-Effects Results for the Two-Level Model of Mean Individual Performance and Individual Performance Slope

Parameter	Estimate	*SE*	*df*	*T*
Mean individual performance				
Year	-.09	.03	3021	-2.74 **
Learning	.10	.07	3053	1.33
Employee empowerment	-.09	.05	2760	-1.88
Organization identity	-.00	.04	4518	-.11
Team performance	.04	.02	5512	1.89
Individual performance slope				
Learning	-.06	.09	3335	-.61
Employee empowerment	-.15	.05	2834	-2.92 **
Organization identity	.17	.05	3968	3.08 **

Note. Pseudo $R^2 = 15\%$. $N_1 = 6702$. $N_2 = 2234$.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

The findings in Table 10 reveal that mean performance scores differed across individuals (*Wald Z* = 9.08, $p < .001$), and the performance slope differed significantly across individuals (*Wald Z* = 3.59, $p < .001$).

Table 10

Estimates of Variance Parameters for the Two-Level Model of Mean Individual Performance and Individual Performance Slope

Parameter	Estimate	*SE*	*Wald Z*
Variability within individuals			
2012	.18	.02	11.99 ***
2013	.20	.01	24.33 ***
2014	.18	.01	13.95 ***
Variability between individuals			
Mean individual performance	.05	.00	9.52 ***
Time slope	.03	.01	4.18 ***
Mean performance x time slope	-.00	.00	-.95

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Longitudinal Results for Individual Performance (Single Cultural Predictor)

Four individual performance models were tested. The first model was the unconditional model; it did not include any predictors (see Table 4). The second model included the first-level predictor of time (see Tables 5 and 6). The third model included the first-level predictor of time, the mean composite of the three cultural constructs, and team performance. The fourth model included all the third-model predictors as well as a cross-interaction term. As shown in Table 3, model fit improved significantly by adding time into the model, *Deviance (4)* = 256.65, $p < .001$ (Bickel, 2007). But model fit also improved significantly by adding two predictors into the model, *Deviance (2)* = 3.22, $p < .10$. Similarly, model fit did not

improve significantly by adding the cross-interaction term into the model, *Deviance (1)* = -5.63, p = .995.

Table 11

Information Criteria for the Two Individual Performance Models with a Single Cultural Construct

Information Criteria	First Model	Second Model	Third Model	Fourth Model
-2 Restricted Log Likelihood	9891.92	9635.27	9632.05	9637.68
Akaike's Information Criterion	9895.92	9647.27	9644.05	9649.68
Hurvich and Tsai's Criterion	9895.92	9647.29	9644.06	9649.70
Bozdogan's Criterion	9911.54	9694.14	9690.91	9696.55
Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion	9909.54	9688.14	9684.91	9690.55

Note. First model = unconditional model. Second model = model with first-level predictor of time (i.e., years). Third model = model with second-level predictors. Fourth model = model with second-level predictors and cross-interaction terms.

Results for the Model with Second-Level Predictors

The findings in Table 12 reveal that cultural practices negatively predicted mean individual performance, B = -.06, p = .002.

Table 12

Fixed-Effects Results for the Two-Level Model of Mean Individual Performance (with a Single Cultural Construct)

Parameter	Estimate	*SE*	*df*	*t*
Time	-.12	.01	5611.56	-9.07 ***
Culture	-.06	.02	5061.56	-3.05 **
Team performance	.03	.02	5327.23	1.27

Note. Pseudo R^2 = 14%. N_1 = 6702. N_2 = 2234.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

The findings in Table 13 show that only the variance within 2013 appeared to differ from the other years. Mean performance scores differed across individuals (*Wald Z* = 9.09, $p < .001$), and the performance slope differed significantly across individuals (*Wald Z* = 3.63, $p < .001$).

Table 13

Estimates of Variance Parameters for the Two-Level Model of Mean Individual Performance (with a Single Cultural Construct)

Parameter	Estimate	*SE*	*Wald Z*
Variability within individuals			
2012	.18	.02	12.04 ***
2013	.21	.01	24.26 ***
2014	.18	.01	14.29 ***
Variability between individuals			
Mean individual performance	.04	.00	9.09 ***
Time slope	.03	.01	3.63 ***
Mean performance x time slope	-.01	.00	-1.28

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Results for the Model with a Cross-Interaction Term

The findings in Table 14 reveal that, even after including a cross-interaction term, cultural practice still negatively predicted individual performance, $B = -.06$, $p = .012$. But cultural practice did not significantly predict the individual performance slope.

Table 14

Fixed-Effects Results for the Two-Level Model of Mean Individual Performance and Individual Performance Slope (with a Single Cultural Construct)

Parameter	Estimate	*SE*	*df*	*t*
Mean individual performance				
Year	-.12	.02	5380	-8.02 ***
Culture	-.06	.02	4180	-2.52 *
Team performance	.03	.02	5245	1.28
Individual performance slope				
Culture	-.00	.02	2448	-.10

Note. Pseudo $R^2 = 15\%$. $N_1 = 6702$. $N_2 = 2234$.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

The findings in Table 15 reveal that mean scores differed across individuals (*Wald Z* = 9.09, $p < .001$), and the performance slope differed across individuals (*Wald Z* = 3.64, $p < .001$).

Table 15

Estimates of Variance Parameters for the Two-Level Model of Mean Individual Performance and Individual Performance Slope

Parameter	Estimate	*SE*	*Wald Z*
Variability within individuals			
2012	.19	.02	12.04 ***
2013	.20	.01	24.24 ***
2014	.18	.01	14.29 ***
Variability between individuals			
Mean individual performance	.04	.00	9.09 ***
Time slope	.03	.01	3.64 ***
Mean performance x time slope	-.01	.00	-1.28

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Longitudinal Results for Team Performance

Four team performance models were tested. The first model was the unconditional model; it did not include any predictors. The second model included the first-level predictor of time (i.e., years). The third model included time, the cultural constructs, and individual performance. The fourth model was a variation of the third model; it included time, a single cultural construct (i.e., the mean composite of the three cultural constructs), and individual performance. As shown in Table 16, model fit improved significantly by adding time into the model; *Deviance (4)* = 16701.32, $p < .001$. Model fit (in comparison to the second model) also improved by adding the cultural predictors and individual performance into the model, *Deviance (4)* = 211.45, $p < .001$. Model fit for the fourth model (in comparison to the second

model) improved by adding the single cultural mean composite and individual performance into the model, *Deviance (2)* = 1115.94, $p < .001$.

Table 16

Information Criteria for the Three Team Performance Models

Information Criteria	First Model	Second Model	Third Model	Fourth Model
-2 Restricted Log Likelihood	3755.37	-12945.95	-13157.40	-11830.01
Akaike's Information Criterion	3759.37	-12937.95	-13149.40	-11822.01
Hurvich and Tsai's Criterion	3759.38	-12937.95	-13149.39	-11822.01
Bozdogan's Criterion	3775.18	-12906.34	-13118.16	-11790.77
Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion	3773.18	-12910.34	-13122.16	-11794.77

Note. First model = unconditional model. Second model = model with first-level predictor of time (i.e., years). Third model = model with second-level predictors (three cultural predictors and individual performance). Fourth model = model with second-level predictors (mean composite cultural predictor and individual performance).

Results for the Unconditional Model

The unconditional intraclass correlation (i.e., between-team variability / between-team + within-team variability) for team performance scores, as shown in Table 17, was large, $r = .52$. Thus, about 52 percent of the variability in team performance ratings occurred between teams, and about 48 percent occurred within teams. This finding suggests that including a first-level predictor (i.e., time) and second-level predictors (i.e., the cultural constructs) would be useful.

Table 17

Estimates of Variance Parameters for the Unconditional Team Performance Model

Parameter	Estimate	*SE*	*Wald Z*	*r*
Variability within teams	.10	.00	60.58 ***	
Variability between teams	.11	.04	2.81 **	.52

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Results for the Model with a Level-One Predictor

The findings in Table 18 indicate that team performance ratings dropped significantly across time, $B = -.43$, $p = .001$. Performance ratings decreased, on average, by .43 points.

Table 18

Fixed-Effects Results for the Single-Level Model of Mean Team Performance

Parameter	Estimate	*SE*	*df*	*t*
Time	-.43	.05	4	-9.19 **

Note. Pseudo $R^2 = 90\%$. $N_1 = 51$. $N_2 = 17$.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

The findings in Table 19 reveal that there was a lot of variability within teams (*Wald Z* = 60.56, $p < .001$). Further, mean team performance scores differed across teams (*Wald Z* = 1.97, $p = .049$).

Table 19

Estimates of Variance Parameters for the Team Performance Level-One Model

Parameter	Estimate	*SE*	*Wald Z*
Variability within teams	.01	.00	60.56 ***
Variability between teams			
Mean team performance	.16	.08	1.97 *
Time slope	.01	.01	1.23
Mean performance x time slope	-.02	.04	-.47

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Results for the Model with Second-Level Predictors (Three Cultural Predictors)

The findings in Table 20 reveal that learning practices ($B = -.53$, $p < .001$) and organizational identity ($B = -.24$, $p < .001$) negatively predicted mean team performance. But empowering employees positively predicted mean team performance, $B = .37$, $p < .001$.

Table 20

Fixed-Effects Results for the Two-Level Model of Mean Team Performance

Parameter	Estimate	*SE*	*Df*	*T*
Time	-.34	.07	10	-4.89 **
Learning	-.53	.03	430	-16.43 ***
Employee empowerment	.37	.13	1078	26.61 ***
Organization identity	-.24	.05	369	-5.16 ***
Individual performance	.00	.00	6682	.69

Note. Pseudo $R^2 = 91.7\%$. $N_1 = 51$. $N_2 = 17$.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

The findings in Table 21 indicate that there was a lot of variability within teams (*Wald Z* = 57.80, $p < .001$). Mean team performance scores also differed across teams (*Wald Z* = 2.33, $p = .020$). Team Performance slopes differed significantly across teams (*Wald Z* = 2.33, $p = .020$). Finally, the covariance between mean team performance and the team performance slope differed significantly across teams (*Wald Z* = 2.38, $p = .017$).

Table 21

Estimates of Variance Parameters for the Two-Level Model of Mean Team Performance

Parameter	Estimate	*SE*	*Wald Z*
Variability within teams	.01	.00	57.80 ***
Variability between teams			
Mean team performance	.08	.04	2.33 *
Time slope	.06	.03	2.02 *
Mean performance x time slope	.06	.03	2.38 *

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Results for the Model with Second-Level Predictors (Single Cultural Predictor)

The findings in Table 22 reveal that cultural practices positively predicted mean team performance, $B = .05$, $p < .001$. But individual performance did not significantly predict team performance.

Table 22

Fixed-Effects Results for the Two-Level Model of Mean Team Performance (Single Cultural Predictor)

Parameter	Estimate	*SE*	*df*	*t*
Time	-.42	.05	4	-8.62 **
Culture	.05	.01	6674	3.60 ***
Individual performance	.00	.00	6683	.68

Note. Pseudo R^2 = 91.7%. N_1 = 51. N_2 = 17.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

The findings in Table 23 indicate that mean team performance scores differed across teams (*Wald Z* = 1.96, $p = .050$).

Table 23

Estimates of Variance Parameters for the Two-Level Model of Mean Team Performance (Single Culture Predictors)

Parameter	Estimate	*SE*	*Wald Z*
Variability within teams	.01	.00	57.81 ***
Variability between teams			
Mean team performance	.16	.08	1.96 *
Time slope	.01	.01	1.12
Mean performance x time slope	-.03	.04	-.58

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Evaluation of Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Question One

The first research question sought to determine what impact learning practices in the organization would have on the performance outcomes for a company within time and across time. Two sets of hypotheses were proposed to answer this research question.

It was hypothesized that there would be a positive association between learning practices and individual performance within time and across time (Hypothesis 1A). As shown in Table 1, learning practices positively predicted individual performance in 2012, but did not positively predict individual performance in 2013 and 2014. As shown in Table 9, learning practices did not have an effect on the individual performance slope. Altogether, these findings do not support Hypothesis 1A.

It was hypothesized that there would be a positive association between learning practices and team performance within time and across time (Hypothesis 1B). As shown in Table 2, learning practices were negatively associated with team performance in 2012, 2013, and 2014. The findings in Table 20 further reveal that learning practices were negatively associated with mean team performance. Because there were only 17 teams, the effect of learning on the team performance slope could not be assessed. The findings, however, indicated a negative trend. Therefore, Hypothesis 1B was not supported.

Research Question Two

The second research question sought to determine what impact empowering employees in the organization would have on the performance outcomes for a company within time and across time. Two sets of hypotheses were proposed to answer this research question.

It was hypothesized that there would be a positive association between empowering employees and individual performance within time and across time (Hypothesis 2A). As shown in Table 1, empowering employees did not have a significant impact on individual performance in 2012, 2013, and 2014. But as shown in Table 6, employee empowerment had a negative effect on mean individual performance (i.e., the average of individual performance across time). Further, as shown in Table 8, employee empowerment had a negative effect on the performance slope; the lower the employee empowerment score, the steeper the improvement in individual performance, and the higher the employee empowerment score, the less steep the improvement in individual performance. As such, these findings do not support Hypothesis 2A.

It was hypothesized that there would be a positive association between employee empowerment and team performance within time and across time (Hypothesis 2B). As shown in Table 2, empowering employees was negatively associated with team performance in 2012, 2013, and 2014. But, as shown in Table 20, empowering employees positively predicted mean team performance (i.e., the average of team performance across time). Because there were only 17 teams, the

effect of employee empowerment on the team performance slope could not be assessed. The cross-sectional findings, however, indicated a positive trend. Therefore, Hypothesis 2B was partly supported.

Research Question Three

The third research question sought to determine what impact organizational identification would have on the performance outcomes for a company within time and across time. Two sets of hypotheses were proposed to answer this research question.

It was hypothesized that there would be a positive association between organizational identification and individual performance within time and across time (Hypothesis 3A). As shown in Table 1, organizational identification negatively predicted individual performance in 2012 and 2014. But as shown in Table 7, organizational identification had a positive effect on mean individual performance (i.e., the average of individual performance across time). Further, as shown in Table 9, organization identification had a positive effect on the performance slope; the higher the organization identity score, the steeper the improvement in individual performance, and the lower the employee empowerment score, the less steep the improvement in individual performance. Therefore, these findings provide support for Hypothesis 3A.

It was hypothesized that there would be a positive association between organizational identification and team performance within time and across time (Hypothesis 3B). As shown in Table 2, organizational identification was negatively

associated with team performance in 2012, 2013, and 2014. Further, as shown in Table 16, organizational identification negatively predicted mean team performance (i.e., the average of team performance across time). Because there were only 17 teams, the effect of empowering employees on the team performance slope could not be assessed. The cross-sectional findings, however, indicated a negative trend. As such, Hypothesis 3B was not supported.

Research Question Four

The fourth research question sought to determine what impact conflict management would have on the performance outcomes for a company within time. Two hypotheses were proposed to answer this research question.

It was hypothesized that there would be a positive association between conflict management and individual performance within time (Hypothesis 4A). As shown in Table 1, conflict management did not significantly predict individual performance in 2014. Thus, Hypothesis 4A was not supported.

It was hypothesized that there would be a positive association between conflict management and team performance within time (Hypothesis 4B). As shown in Table 2, conflict management was negatively associated with team performance in 2014. Accordingly, Hypothesis 4B was not supported.

Research Question Five

The fifth research question sought to determine what impact cultural practices (learning, power, identity, and conflict) in the organization would have on the

performance outcomes for a company within time and across time. Two sets of hypotheses were proposed to answer this research question.

It was hypothesized that there would be a positive association between cultural practices and individual performance within time (Hypothesis 5A). Cultural practices were not significantly associated with individual performance in 2012 and 2014. But it was negatively associated with individual performance in 2013, r = -.06, p = .022. As shown in Table 14, cultural practices negatively predicted individual performance. But cultural practices did not significantly predict the individual performance slope (see Table 16). Altogether, these findings do not support Hypothesis 5A.

It was hypothesized that there would be a positive association between cultural practices and team performance within and across time (Hypothesis 5B). Cultural practices were negatively associated with team performance in 2012 (r = -.37, p < .022), 2013 (r = -.85, p < .022), and 2014 (r = -.27, p < .022). But the findings in Table 22 reveal that cultural practices positively predicted mean team performance. Because there were only 17 teams, the effect of cultural practices on the team performance slope could not be assessed. The findings were mixed. Therefore, Hypothesis 5B was partly supported.

Summary of Results

It was hypothesized that there would be a positive association between learning practices and individual performance within time and across time

(Hypothesis 1A). As summarized in Table 24, this hypothesis was not supported. It was further hypothesized that there would be a positive association between learning practices and team performance within time and across time (Hypothesis 1B). This hypothesis was also not supported as the relationship between learning practices and team performance was negative.

It was hypothesized that there would be a positive association between empowering employees and individual performance within time and across time (Hypothesis 2A). Although there was a significant relationship between empowering employees and individual performance as well as the individual performance slope, the relationship was negative. Thus, this hypothesis was not supported. In addition, it was hypothesized that there would be a positive association between employee empowerment and team performance within time and across time (Hypothesis 2B). This hypothesis was supported.

It was hypothesized that there would be a positive association between organizational identification and individual performance within time and across time (Hypothesis 3A). This hypothesis was supported. It was also hypothesized that there would be a positive association between organizational identification and team performance within time and across time (Hypothesis 3B). Although there was a significant relationship between organizational identification and team performance, the relationship was negative. As such, this hypothesis was not supported.

It was hypothesized that there would be a positive association between conflict management and individual performance within time (Hypothesis 4A). This

hypothesis was not supported. It was further hypothesized that there would be a positive association between conflict management and team performance within time (Hypothesis 5B). This hypothesis was also not supported as the relationship between conflict management and team performance was negative.

It was hypothesized that there would be a positive association between cultural practices and individual performance within time and across time (Hypothesis 5A). This hypothesis was not supported. It was further hypothesized that there would be a positive association between cultural practices and team performance within time and across time (Hypothesis 5B). This hypothesis was partly supported as the relationship between cultural practices and team performance in the correlations was negative, while the relationship in the mixed regression was positive.

Table 24

Summary of Results

Hypothesis Number	Relationship	Result
1A	Learning practices and individual performance	Not supported
1B	Learning practices and team performance	Not supported
2A	Empowerment and individual performance	Not supported
2B	Empowerment and team performance	Supported
3A	Organization identity and individual performance	Supported
3B	Organization identity and team performance	Not supported
4A	Conflict management and individual performance	Not supported
4B	Conflict management and team performance	Not supported
5A	Cultural practices and individual performance	Not supported
5B	Cultural practices and team performance	Partly supported

Testing the Cultural Constructs Measurement Model

The fit of the measurement model was assessed via the chi-square statistic and the fit indices shown in Table 25. The measurement model fit the data well, per the CFI and the SRMR (see Table 26). But the RMSEA was above the acceptable criterion of .06. Nevertheless, as shown in Table 27, all indicators loaded on significantly to cultural constructs.

Table 25

Fit Indices and Their Threshold Values

Index	Threshold	Reference
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	> .95	Hu & Bentler, 1999
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	< .06	Brown & Cudeck, 1993
Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	< .08	Hu & Bentler, 1999

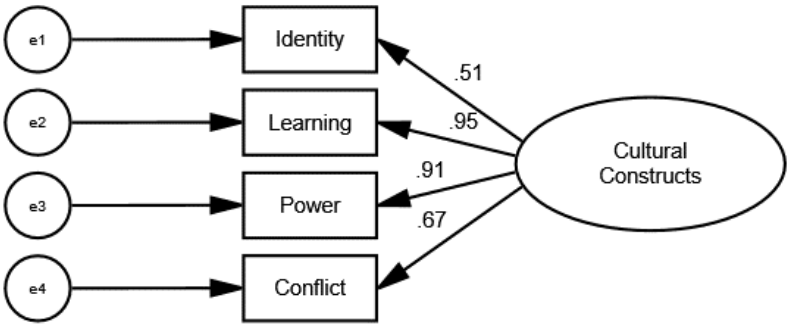


Figure 3. Standardized coefficients for the practices measurement model at the third time point.

Table 26

Fit Indices for the Cultural Constructs Measurement Model

Index	Value
Chi-square	832.20
Degrees of freedom	2
Probability level	.00
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	.95
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	.24
Lower bound 90% confidence interval	.22
Upper bound 90% confidence interval	.25
P-close	.00
Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	.05

Table 27

Unstandardized and Standardized Factor Loadings for the Items in the Cultural Constructs Measurement Model

Indicator Variable	*B*	*SE*	β
Identity	1.68	.04	.51 ***
Learning	6.52	.06	.65 ***
Power	5.74	.06	.91 ***
Conflict	3.17	.05	.67 ***

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Results for the Unconditional Model

The unconditional intraclass correlation (i.e., between-individual variability/(between-individual + within-individual variability) for individual

performance scores (with team as the subject variable), as shown in Table 28, was small, $r = .02$. Thus, 2% of the variability in individual performance ratings occurred between teams and 98% occurred between individuals.

Table 28

Estimates of Variance Parameters for the Unconditional Individual Performance Model (with Team as the Subject Variable)

Parameter	Estimate	*SE*	*Wald Z*	*r*
Variability between individuals	.26	.00	57.83 ***	
Variability between teams	.01	.00	2.05 *	.02

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Chapter 5: Discussion

This chapter will review the data analysis results and comparisons to the literature review, draw conclusions and implications, and discuss the study's limitations.

Summary of results - Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine how the culture constructs of learning, power, employee identification, and managing conflict enable performance change at the individual and team level to serve as a primary driver of transformational performance change in an organization. The examination of this link between culture constructs and performance showed mixed results. Is it therefore still relevant to say that culture change enables performance change in organizations? My conclusion is that it is. What we learned is that culture change is complex and varies in direction, impact, and context, which makes generalizing difficult. Yet my research shows some positive indications of the culture and performance link. The combination of factors that enable change such as the holistic view, system thinking, continuous learning, creating and maintaining connections to change receivers, attitudes, and clear outcomes link to the fundamental knowledge and management of culture. The paradox unique to each organization depending on the situation and desired outcomes will become the norm in today's dynamic business environments.

The logistics company studied was facing organizational change (new leaders, reorganization of businesses, adjustments in budgets, etc.) before, during, and after the culture surveys. This tumultuous state may have impacted employee responses compared to an organization in a more static state. Another factor unique to the company is the type of business it conducted, which was more progressive and started to show signs of volatility and unpredictable responses with customers.

The hypotheses results yielded two substantiated areas worth future exploration: team empowerment and individual organization identity. Empowerment was associated with lower individual performance, but team empowerment positively predicted mean team performance. This may be owing to a manager who was biased against employees who did not follow the status quo. This bias would mean that if the employee was unconventional or challenged the status quo in obtaining goals, his or her ratings were lower. Another possible cause of the result may have been that the empowered employee obtained too much power or was not trained properly or sufficiently, which created havoc or negative results that resulted in a lower performance review. A final possible reason for the lower individual performance could be the bureaucracy in the organization, limiting the impact or ability for the individual to obtain desired results.

The one partially substantiated hypothesis showed that cultural practices were negatively associated with team performance within and across time, but positively predicted mean team performance. This may indicate a need for a longer study or additional comparisons of the constructs to understand causality. The mixed results

also highlight that team cultural practices are still commendable for further exploration.

The cross-sectional results from 2012 showed multi-collinearity but some significance in the relationship between learning and performance. The reason for the multi-collinearity could have been due to employees not understanding some of the questions, leading them to give more neutral responses, as this was the first time the organization had done a large culture survey. The short burst of increase in learning for 2012 may be due to high initial engagement by employees, or a sort of honeymoon period of change with hopes to move the organization further, which declined over the years as more change or adversity occurred. Individual organization identity and its positive link to performance may be a result of the organization's ability to capture mutual or shared cognitions that connected to employees personally. For example, if employees had trust-worthy and genuine relationships with their managers, as many employees had long tenure, it may connect them more with their work and the organization favorably. The strong cognitive connection could drive commitment, engagement and increase in higher performance. Next, I elaborate on the findings of each culture construct.

Learning and Performance

Theory abounds (Marsick et al., 1999; Ellinger, Yang, & Howton, 2002; Dimovski & Skerlavaj, 2005; Davis & Daley, 2008,;Ellinger, Abbasi & Zamani-Miandashti, 2013) that there is a positive relationship between organization learning practices and organizational performance. Abbasi et al. (2013) defined learning practices as the

creation, acquisition, sharing, and application of knowledge. Dimovski et al. (2005) considered organization learning indicators as not only acquiring and understanding knowledge but, most important, changing behavior and cognition, which suggest a positive impact to performance change as well. Nevertheless, my results do not concur.

Some researchers believe individual-level organizational learning contributed more to individual (innovative) organizational performance than to overall organizational performance (Wang & Ellinger, 2011). The premise is that individual performance had changing factors and possible disconnects that could not be directly translated to show impact to overall organization performance. Although studies have shown that individual learning mediates team learning that contributes to organizational learning (Dayaram & Fung, 2014), my findings did not substantiate the same results. It is possible that the learning that individuals obtained was not linked or impactful to the individual and team results. As we see, this complex learning topic has diverse approaches (Mohrman, Galbraith, & Lawler III, 1998) with unique contents, which lead to myriad research responses.

There was some concern with the results that showed a negative association between learning practices and performance both individually and at the team level, given the substantial literature stating otherwise. We did find that in year one, the learning had some positive effects; the subsequent years were in decline. The cause for why all three years did not increase are unclear, but a future test of other factors may provide insight. Change efforts involving learning practices should be minimized

if increases in performance were desired for this organization. Practically, this does not imply that learning should be stopped or avoided; rather, it should not serve as the focus at the time of change. A company-wide training program, for example, on change management to all employees may not yield the impact needed. Something more relevant for their situation, such as on-the-job training and peer support for those changing roles, may have greater impact. According to these results, the focus then should be on building capacity of team empowerment.

Empowerment

We found that empowerment has a mixed impact on performance. Only at the team level was there a positive association between performance outcomes. The result was team empowerment positively predicted team performance, which would imply that empowerment is another enabler and enhancer of organization performance. The impact of empowering employees in the organization was also shown longitudinally in my study. The result was consistent with other studies (Yang & Choi, 2009; Sigler & Pearson, 2000; Chen, Kanfer, Kirkman, & Allen, 2007). The Kirkman and Rosen (1999) empirical study on teams found that more empowered teams had higher levels of productivity. Studies from Sigler and Pearson (2000) and Chen et al. (2007) agree that empowerment has a significant positive impact on performance. Although each has a shared result, the participants, methods, and industries vary significantly. On the other hand, not all scholars agree; for example, Thorlakson et al. (1996) found no significant relationship between performance and empowerment in their Canadian study.

Organization Identity

The results of the impact on employees' organizational identification on the individual- and team-level performance outcomes was partially substantiated at the individual level only. Organization identification, one of the most cognitive constructs, was aligned with studies from Ackerman (2010) and Zhang (2016). On the other hand, many studies had identification as a moderating or mediating factor shown in such studies as Riketta (2005). Giving rise to the significance of shared meanings and cognitions of employees as it relates to their organization, the results of individual identity within and across time has a positive effect on mean individual performance. The individual identity score also had a positive effect on the performance slope, which implies that individual identity is a key driver enabling performance change.

Conflict

The topic of conflict was inconclusive, due to insufficient data and a small sample of questions. The elusive findings on the relationship between conflict and performance was similar to studies that show a mix of findings with conflict. Some situations suggest that conflict is favorable, while others suggest it's harmful. The context and complexities of methods to handle conflict would make this finding clearer. Specifically, the research shows that some believe conflict has an overall negative impact to performance (Slabbert, 2004; Zhu, Yang, & Bai, 2016), while others see conflict as beneficial to the bottom line (Alper, Tjosvold, & Law, 2000; Caudron, 2000; De Dreu, 2008; Bradley, Anderson, Baur, & Klotz, 2015), especially

in task-related group conflict and in innovative work cutures (Thompson, 2000; Lee, Lin, Huan, Huang, & Teng, 2015; Bradley et al., 2015).

The combined moderating effects of learning, power, identity, and conflict had different impact on performance outcomes. Aside from the *Harvard Business Review* article "Changing the Way We Change," no other empirical study considered all four constructs in a combined relationship to organizational performance. The research results would imply that the correlations of learning, empowerment, organization identification, and conflict matter in the organization.

The debate over what drives transformational change and which parts of culture impact performance continues. The differences of view in how to measure or approach culture change (via strength, trait, assessments, etc.) also continue. This leads me to conclude that we have not found enough answers for our organizations yet. The literature provides no one right or wrong approach, but various approaches that are unique to their context. It is further displayed that the contingency theory is aligned with this study. The contingency theory holds that organizations are open systems that allow for a unique approach depending on the environment or task context; therefore, there is no one answer or approach. The paradox of culture and organizational change has to go beyond standard methods or old processes to dynamic examinations of each situation. Another theoretical approach that aligns with this study is the multilevel theory. Research like this furthers the development of multilevel approaches that impact organizational performance (Klein, Tosi, & Cannella, Jr., 1999). Additionally, this dissertation approach provides some unique

insights into specific culture constructs of identity and empowerment with quantitative evidence on which area of culture propels organization performance.

Some scholars found in empirical research that a common culture and shared meaning positively affected performance as a result of intense employee belonging and feelings of responsibility for the organization (Alvesson, 2002; Girneata & Potcovaru, 2015). As the results described, empowerment and identity were the only culture constructs that showed some impact on change and performance. The literature showed that shared meaning, employee belonging, and feelings of responsibility are aligned somewhat with the definition of empowerment and identity used in this research. Empowerment is a state in which the employee has a feeling of power to complete a task that was given to him or her. This may imply a shared meaning between the employee and the authority leader to complete the task, leading to responsibility and increased belonging. The essence of the definition of organizational identity has shared meanings of membership and emotional connections. Therefore, identity could drive stronger employee belonging and a sense of responsibility.

To summarize the five hypotheses, more were unsubstantiated than substantiated. Thus, performance was not as linked and driving the hypothesized direction I may have originally anticipated. This may indicate that other unknown variables contribute to improved performance at multiple levels to drive transformational change. This could also be due to the context of the culture at the time. Employees at the logistics company had gone through three major company mergers, spinoffs, and

acquisition in less than a decade. The cross-sectional analysis did not yield anticipated results. Perhaps the same group had survey fatigue or blind groupthink in their responses. The across-time results were mixed (as well) to address if the culture constructs which enable performance for this publicly traded logistics organization improved over time. The strongest construct over time was organization identity, which increased while the organization continued in vast business and organizational change. The finding with this result is that the organization was exceptional at driving capacity around identity.

In comparing the many definitions of culture and connections to my results, it is clear that measuring culture below the surface is complex. A deep knowledge of the organization must be obtained to know which questions to ask that link to the measures (Schein, 2010). Then, both the internal and external environment should be considered for a more complete assessment of how to move forward with a change and why. Conducting actual interventions appears to be more impactful if conducted through the contingency and multilevel theories frameworks, which consider all the variables but prioritize and link them more effectively. Furthermore, a frequent component of culture change includes alignment to a purpose or mission (Yilmaz & Ergun, 2008). The process of connecting people to the desired purpose or mission can be arduous, especially in dynamic environments without knowledge of how culture operates, therefore creating a barrier to driving transformational performance change. Finally, as a result of this quantitative empirical test, I concur with the literature that culture does impact organization performance—there is no avoiding it.

Advantages of the study

The benefit of this study is that it provides another perspective on culture, change, and performance. Real data was used with formal quantitative measurements. The culture and performance were measured in close proximity timeframes, compared with other studies that attempt to measure culture against performance measures that cover a long period of time. This study also clearly operationalized culture constructs that could be measured over and over with a simple framework on where to focus (the four constructs). Some research has fueled the controversy over how to operationalize culture constructs (Lee & Yu, 2004). Nevertheless, this approach yielded intriguing results. Finally, with the understanding that culture is complex and can be formed at multiple levels, this study was conducted in light of that premise. The view of multiple levels provided a robust quantitative approach while attempting to use the best of the data.

Limitations

As with all research, my research had limitations. One organization in the United States was researched with a limited number of teams. Additional organizations, global industries, or multiple industries may show different or diverse results at various levels. The use of secondary data poses some risk as the original survey was not intended for this research. The conflict data was only studied for one of the three years, thus limiting reportable results. Therefore, the interpretation and perception of some responses were limited.

The chosen definition of performance was based on employee performance data, from the ratings given by the managers and not multiple sources or stakeholders. Performance ratings may be viewed as a passive driver of performance (Ayers, 2015). Performance measures from multiple sources and/or external data may be viewed as more valid or reliable data.

The final limitation is there was no qualitative data to accompany the survey results. In my quest to explore more below-the-surface content, additional qualitative information could provide more insight and understanding into contributions to organizational performance. Using qualitative information such as interviews or observations could reveal underlying assumptions and a clearer meaning of responses (Schein, 2009).

Chapter 6: Conclusions & Implications

This chapter discusses the implications to theory, practice, and contributions to the field of OD. Finally, future research suggestions and a brief reflection is conferred.

Implications

Most important, we learned that culture does drive behavior and behavioral norms as the research stated both positively and negatively. The implications of the research to managers and leaders is that culture does matter; therefore, they must integrate culture knowledge into management practices. Driving culture change is complex and requires a critical review of organization elements. A one-size-fits-all approach will dilute impact. Leaders need to be cautious of popular or mainstream approaches to drive performance.

It was found that employee identity and empowerment were positive drivers for performance. Thus, attention to hiring and onboarding should be recognized and acted upon. As a part of the onboarding process learn about the employee values, professional and personal cares, concerns and affiliations. Then, link them to the mission or vision of the organization to connect them early in their tenure and identify stronger with the organization. Establishing messages early on in the employee's career encouraging autonomy, authority and power enable performance. Leaders

should consider building capacity in organizations and teaching managers how to improve current empowerment and identity levels.

Consideration for the application of the contingency and multilevel theory approach to better understand organizational behavior that impacts results is suggested theoretically.

As previously mentioned, the heart of organizational development is change. The diagnosis and analysis of projects may need to take new approaches and frameworks as it relates to driving performance change. Working with teams to increase empowerment capability may provide new challenges and new tools. This research has detailed one empirical test of culture constructs linked to performance change in a real-life organization, contributing a unique result that can benefit other professionals and academics.

Future research

To extend this work, conducting a multi-company and/or country study with the blend of learning, culture, and performance over time with multiple levels analyzed in combination with qualitative approaches such as interviews would be a robust study. Sampling more than one organization with a mixed methods model (i.e., quantitative instruments and qualitative methods) could be an opportunity to expand on the validity of the instruments and a deeper understanding of the complex culture phenomenon. The creation of a new survey instrument or assessment that measures the four culture constructs may enhance the learning and testing of this

approach. Conducting a culture change study analyzing positions instead of employee participants as the key source may yield alternative results. Further, it may be beneficial to examine the construct of power from two perspectives, the top leadership and lower levels, intentionally avoiding middle managers, to see how it relates to organization performance.

Reflection

"Performance more often comes down to a cultural challenge, rather than simply a technical one."

- ***Lara Hogan, Etsy***

This research project has been both arduous and rewarding. I may have learned more about myself than the topic at hand. As a scholar-practitioner moving forward, I will view culture in a more serious manner as it appears vital to understand in any organization. For this project, the learning obtained about this logistics organization was surprising and informative for leadership. I wish this knowledge were available in real time during the company's change process. Therefore, my hope for those who read, review, or just pick out the highlights of this dissertation is that they will be curious about culture, change, and performance then, with boldness try new approaches and embrace the journey.

- Genice Daniels

Appendix A: Culture Survey & Construct Alignment

List of survey questions and how they were aligned with the culture constructs.

Culture Survey Questions	Construct match
I am empowered to make the decisions needed to do my job well.	Power
I believe I have the opportunity for personal development and growth at X company.	Learning
I believe my unique differences are valued at X company.	Identity
I have a clear understanding of goals and objectives of X company.	Learning
I have the equipment/tools/resources I need to do my job effectively.	Omitted
I trust the decisions made by our leaders.	Power
I understand how my work impacts X company results.	Power
I would recommend a family member or friend to come work at X company.	Identity
Leadership acts in way that is consistent with X company values.	Power
My manager gives me regular feedback on my performance.	Learning
My manager recognizes and appreciates good work.	Learning
X company continually works to ensure our processes are as simple as possible.	Learning
X company does an excellent job of keeping employees informed about matters affecting us.	Conflict
X company leadership supports diversity and inclusion in the workplace.	Identity

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