# SYSTEMATIC MEASUREMENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE FOR COLLEGE FOOD SERVICES

by

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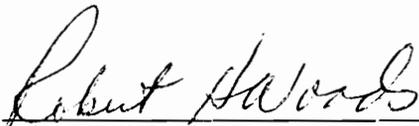
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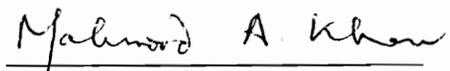
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Key words: organizational culture, hospitality industry, college food services, qualitative research, measurement of organizational culture

# ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE FOR COLLEGE FOOD SERVICES

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(ABSTRACT)

The food service industry consistently hires more people than any other industry in the world. In the United States, a transformed service-oriented economy, the food service industry will continue to increase in size and service. The food service, an extremely competitive industry, has one of the highest rates of failure as compared to other businesses. Because of this high rate of failure, the industry must continue attempting to devise methods of establishing a competitive advantage. One of the most efficient means of staying competitive would be to reduce the amount of turnover and to motivate employees. To reduce employee turnover and to increase employee job satisfaction it is important to ensure that the organizational culture is congruent between managers and workers at all levels.

The goal of this study was to extend existing theory concerning the measurability of organizational culture. The sample adopted for this study was institutional food service,

specifically in college settings. The four steps used in this study were as follows: (1) A review of the literature described those activities that were closely related to the norms and values of organizational culture. (2) A questionnaire for interviews was developed and perceptions of organizational culture activities were collected. (3) Four hypotheses were stated and the qualitative data was compiled. (4) The hypotheses were tested to determine the relationship between variables.

It was determined that there was a relationship between the perceived organizational culture of upper management and the actual overall performance of operating units. The results of the study supported the contention that organizational culture is measurable, in both commercial and institutional food service operations. When there is congruency between the ideals of upper management and operating units, the organization is apt to have greater employee satisfaction.

Consequently, the high rate of failure for food service businesses justifies having a very effective way of implementing training activities. Those activities should ensure that the ideals of organizational culture are understood and applied by all levels of the organization. In addition, follow up training should systematically ensure that the expected culture is actively providing a competitive advantage.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS AND DEDICATION

Throughout our lives, we develop many mentors, and friends. This "terminal degree" is the effect and the product of many happenings. Therefore, I have to dedicate this document to all of you, that in one way or another have touched my life.

## My Beginning

For me, everything started in a small Caribbean island, Puerto Rico. I was mainly surrounded by my close family. Thus, I have to dedicate this document to all of them. First, to my mother; my debt to her is forever. As your oldest daughter, you developed me into a hard working citizen and woman, a dedicated student and professional, and a loving daughter and wife. To you, Gudelia Lugo-Faría because you never lost hope and you believed in me more than I trusted in myself. Thank you for your untiring support, for your prayers and tears, and for your kind love and patience. To the rest of my inmediate family: to my sisters and father thank you for your love.

To my late brother, Hermes E. Natali-Lugo, Jr., that passed away in 1989, I know that God and you gave me inspiration from Heaven. Even though I was only "our family's intelectual", I loved you.. I am awaiting, as a Christian to face you and to demonstrate you my love to you. I dedicate this document to you and to your memory.

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## My Educational Development

So many educators have influenced my life that it will take volumes to list and describe all my mentors. To my early teachers; thank you for showing me the value of education, I owe you a lot. You provided me with the necessary tools to endure hard times and to continue ahead until succeeding.

To late Dr. Gloria Smith, my friend, my black-American mentor, and my educational psychologist. God should have you resting in Heaven because you spend all your energy on Earth, listening to all of us, and sharing your love and every minute of your life with us. Thank you for your love, concern, and guidance.

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## My DEEPEST BELIEF

Last, but first in priority. To my Highest Mentor: Our Dear God. We forget to stop, to smell the roses, and to thank you for all your blessings. Thank you for our energy, health, and for letting us enjoy all this world!

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# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

The food service industry hires more employees than any other type of industry (Kotschevar & Escoffier, 1994; National Restaurant Association, 1993) and this is extremely important to our economy. The economy has moved its orientation from manufacturing to service. This large segment of the economy is vital. As food service managers, educators and researchers, we must find some means of keeping these businesses successful. Unfortunately, the food service industry is known for a vast amount of business failures (Vankataraman, Van de Ven, Buckeye, & Hudson, 1992) and a high percentage of employee turnover.

The competitive nature of the food service industry makes the search for a competitive advantage (Chaganti, Chaganti, & Mahajan, 1989) a pressing matter. Such a competitive advantage may be obtained through identifying and developing ways by which people

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make sense of what they do at work (Fiol, 1991). An organization's competency includes skills and resources, and the way those assets are utilized in a superior way to produce action outcomes (Reed & DeFillippi, 1990).

To evaluate action outcomes in organizations one must turn to the field of organizational behavior and evaluate the culture of an organization. The field of organizational behavior has helped unravel some complexities of organizations and the people in them (Dubrin, 1984). This interdisciplinary field of study dates back to the early 1960s, but the two direct roots; social psychology and human relations, extend back to the early 1930s. The foundations of this field are in several behavioral sciences, including psychology, sociology, and anthropology.

Within organizational behavior, the topic of organizational culture has been a significant one since the 1980's. However, a consistent and concrete definition of organizational culture has not yet appeared in the research literature. In a broad sense, it has been defined as shared values, beliefs, assumptions, and norms that unite the members of an organization (Bartol & Martin, 1994). Lack of research on developing a reliable and systematic way of

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measuring and assessing organizational culture has been a major impediment to the establishment of a consistent definition.

The topic of organizational culture has caught the attention of academicians as well as practitioners in the last decade; hence, it is not a new idea within the business world. Jaques worked on the culture of a factory as early as 1951, and Whyte (1948) researched human relations in the restaurant industry by a "field" study method, participant observations and interviews. It was not, however, until the 1970's that the notion of organizations having a specific culture was developed. Most of these ideas originated in the early 80's ("Corporate Culture", 1980; Uttal, 1983), and they have been further developed since the appearance of the book In Search of Excellence (Peters & Waterman, 1982).

Organizational culture has become somewhat of a "faddish" topic with the emergence of such books as Corporate Cultures (Deal & Kennedy, 1982), In Search of Excellence (Peters & Waterman, 1982), Theory Z (Ouchi, 1981), and The Art of Japanese Management (Pascale & Athos, 1981). Nonetheless, many practitioners have chosen to simplify the topic and emphasize the "ideal" attribute

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of culture. Peters and Waterman (1982) compared characteristics of excellent companies to those of other companies. One positive characteristic of these excellent companies is a "tight net" or "strong culture." However, organizational culture is not the only positive attribute possessed by excellent companies (Peters & Waterman, 1982). Further, an ideal culture is not generalizable to every company. Scholars studying organizational culture have attempted to increase the level of sophistication applied to research studies and discussions. The concept has been intensively investigated for the last 20 years and the discipline is facing the same problems which have troubled anthropologists when studying culture. It appears that the definitional problems were inherited from the anthropological discipline.

As the level of sophistication of organizational culture research increases scholars can no longer think of organizational culture as simply a tangible or observable activity. Lundberg (1988) calls the simplistic ways that we can think about organizational culture "fictions that impede". Furthermore, Woods (1988) refers to tangible and observable activities as "only the manifest, or easiest to see, level of culture"(p. 8). Other authors (Edwards & Kleiner, 1988; Scholz, 1987) simplistically

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describing organizational culture as "chauvinistic", "macho", "entrepreneurial", activities and perspectives. However, organizational cultures are unique to each institution and to each unit, and therefore, to associate effectiveness with strength or type of culture is an inadequate way of defining an organization's culture.

## THE PROBLEM

As indicated previously, numerous books and research projects have investigated the importance of organizational culture, but most practitioners and academicians have not been specific in presenting a clear definition of organizational culture. Additionally, previous research has not provided any method of measuring the extent of organizational culture within an organization. The effects of a strong organizational culture as opposed to a weak organizational culture have been discussed (Robbins, 1994), but the ability to measure the difference has not been specified. There is limited knowledge concerning the specifics of organizational culture and how to identify this culture within an organization. Several researchers have described culture as a multi-level component of an organization

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(Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Pettigrew, 1979; Reynolds, 1986; Shani & Basuray, 1987; Smircich, 1983). The actual parameters of culture have also eluded agreement among many researchers (Woods, 1989). In the literature review section of this research project, several different parameters are defined and are discussed as being important components of organizational culture.

From the practitioners' perspective, organizational culture is an important attribute that has been regarded as the reason for company success. Nevertheless, this is easier said than verified. Woods (1989) suggested that culture could have "a significant impact on organizational outcomes such as expectations and performance" (p. 24). He also pointed out that most of the variables which could be affected by culture are not easily measured. In the service and hospitality industry it is worth noting that Tidball (1987) and Normann (1984) demonstrated that organizational culture affects the bottom line or profitability of an organization, a measurable variable. In addition, authors like Barney (1983) and Deal & Kennedy (1982) have shown that culture affects profitability of business organizations.

Other measurable variables that culture could affect are productivity of the company, financial success in banks, level of job stress, and the ability of a company to bring new products to the market before its competitors (Woods, 1989). For the hospitality industry, the normative premise that a company's success will be affected by the organizational culture needs to be demonstrated cognitively (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982). Tidball (1988) and Woods (1989) are the only authors who have attempted to systematically measure the organizational culture of restaurants. Specifically, they investigated the potential difference and the organizational culture's congruency at three levels of the organization: top management, middle management, and employees. Organizational congruency exists when the organizational culture is espoused within all levels in the organization and is described in the same way.

The congruency between employees and top management is important when studying hospitality industry companies. This organizational culture's congruency binds individuals into collectivities (Smircich, 1983). This pragmatic view of organizations assumes that culture is a mean of access to unlocking organizational commitment, productivity and

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profitability (Fiol, 1991). The perspective of this dissertation's study is that by describing the shared values, beliefs and systems of meaning in organizations, and by keeping or managing a "tight net" between structural levels in an organizational, a sustainable competitive advantage could be postulated.

In general, organizational culture is a term that needs to be conceptually clarified and investigated for the hospitality industry. There is likewise a need to substantially demonstrate the potential of organizational congruency for a company to be successful.   If organizational culture is an important aspect of an organizational survival then it would act as a competitive advantage for those operations that implement their cultural activities.    It is also important to be able to measure the culture in order to evaluate the strength of the culture.   As stated by Morris (1992), some organizational cultures may place roadblocks in the way of the actions or thought processes of the employees and therefore the challenge for an organization is to identify the specific culture that exists (not what management, employees, customers, or the stockholders think exists) within an organization.

## PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The main purpose of this research is to define and measure organizational culture within a segment of the hospitality industry. The study examined organizational culture in the non-commercial (institutional) setting of a college food service contractor. A systematic way of measuring and assessing organizational culture was developed. The main components of organizational culture as related to the study were also defined.

Woods (1989) and Lundberg (1988) developed a content valid method within the private restaurant industry to measure organizational culture. When measuring and researching organizational cultures the use of qualitative and qualitative methods is imperative for validating purposes. Woods (1989), Lundberg (1988), and others organizational researchers, (Reynolds, 1986; Tidball, 1987; 1988) have utilized a combination of methods. The need exists however to validate Woods (1989) research in other segments of the hospitality industry, and specifically in the food service industry. Therefore, the first fundamental issue upon

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which this research has been designed is the lack of empirical studies examining organizational culture within the hospitality industry. The purpose of this study then is twofold:

1. based on the research in the literature, to develop a survey instrument for the purpose of measuring organizational culture; and

2. to conduct an investigation of the ideals of organizational culture of management as opposed to those of unit employees.

The premise of this study is that there was not a definitive method of measuring organizational culture of businesses in an unstable highly competitive market such as the food service industry. Specifically, the dependent variable is the level of agreement that employees and management have with statements that described the organizational culture of the units under study. The independent variable is the structural level of the respondent; the congruency between management and employees was evaluated.

A comprehensive search of the literature was completed to assess the need for this study, and to help determine the types of shared values, assumptions, beliefs, and norms that unite the members of an organization. Furthermore, it was expected that the

process of measuring organizational culture in the manner employed in this study could reveal common important attributes of organizational culture. The method of measure resulting from this study is intended to form the basis for measuring organizational culture in food service operations, and may serve as a guide for other types of businesses.

## SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

A search of the professional literature revealed that a need exists for determining a means of measuring organizational culture and, therefore, appropriate procedures could be developed for organizations to evaluate the strength of their organizational culture. A non-commercial (institutional) food service operation was chosen as the subject for this study because of the size of these operations and because food service contracting has become a major component of the food service industry. In service oriented operations it is important to find some type of competitive advantage because the number of business failures is high. According to Dun and Bradstreet (1995), during 1993 approximately 95 per 10,000 eating and drinking places were the victims of

business failure.    Muller and Woods (1991) reported that between

1979-1989

> "somewhere between 50 to 80 percent of all
> new restaurants which opened this year will
> fail the first 12 months of opening their
> doors.   This same conventional wisdom also
> suggests that about 50 percent of the remaining
> restaurants will  fail in their second year of
> operation and another 33 percent in their third
> year."   p.60-61.

Because of the number of people employed by the food service

industry, the food service industry is vital to the success of our

economy.    The Bureau of Labor Statistics projects that there will

be an increase of 21 million new jobs between 1986 and the year

2,000, and that the service sector will account for most of this

growth.

Since a vast number of the managers in food service

operations do not receive sufficient amount of cultural training,

(Lewis, 1994; Miller, 1994; Wright & Brauchle, 1994) these

managers cannot be successful in developing congruency between

expected ideals and "the way things are done" in the organization.

Gaedeke and Tootelian (1991) stated that, while the primary reason

for small business failures is the result of economic factors,

approximately 40 percent is due to weak management.    In many cases

weak managerial techniques are a result of incongruence among workers and managerial personnel between the ways things should be done and the way things are getting done.

Due to the competitiveness and growth rate of the food service industry, a sound organizational culture that is practiced by all levels of the operation can provide a competitive advantage (Fiol, 1991; Forrest, 1990). A deep rooted ( or strong) organizational culture which could assist managers in making decisions in this industry (Woods, 1989) could prove to be an invaluable aid to maintain a competitive advantage (Fiol, 1991).

The research question addressed by this dissertation is: **"Can organizational culture be systematically measured within the hospitality industry?"** This question is an extension of the work of Woods (1989), since his study addressed commercial food service operations and did not addressed non-commercial (institutional) food service operations which usually have different levels of management and a large number of employees. The culture of non-commercial (institutional) food service operations may also differ since they are not as profit driven as commercial operations. The customers: students, faculty, and university's staff of college

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food services are very demanding and hard to please. Even though they are budget minded, they are at the same time very demanding with the quality of food and services that they expect.

In the hospitality industry specifically, organizational culture can differ from the top to the bottom of the organization. This is of particular concern in food service operations since units and employees are usually not under the constant observation of upper management. In many cases, top management make different plans and decisions without consulting or communicating them to employees. Consequently, organizational culture descriptions and employees' perceptions collide at the different levels. In this research project; beliefs, values and meanings of organizational culture were described by top management and unit level employees. The beliefs and values were measured at these two levels, and the congruency between them was assessed. The congruency level demonstrates how the two levels described and perceived their culture and what were the bases for decision making and behavior within their organization.

This research project is of value to those food service operations that are looking for a competitive advantage and is one

of the few empirical studies conducted in business organizations--
and specifically in the hospitality industry-- which attempts to
study organizational culture in detail. Systematic and well
developed research for this topic has been mainly exploratory and
a definitive means of measuring organizational culture was needed.
Since this study was an extension of the study performed by Woods
(1989), it was appropriate to compare the results of this study
with his past results.

## SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter introduced the research topic by briefly
describing the problems of business failures associated with the
food service industry. It was then documented that the
measurement and congruence of organizational culture can be
associated with managerial process. The primary objective is to
developing a systematic way of measuring organizational culture.
The literature review and the primary research question provided
direction for the focus of the study. The results of this study
will be of importance to those operations looking for a cost
effective means of developing a competitive advantage.

## CHAPTER TWO

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

### <u>CULTURE AS A CONCEPT</u>

One of the major problems confronting top management is the inability to define a working definition of organizational culture. Culture, as a general term, defined by Webster's New World Dictionary (Guralnik, 1982) is "the integrated pattern of human behavior that includes thought, speech, action, and artifacts and depends on man's capacity for learning and transmitting knowledge to succeeding generations". Throughout time theorists have had numerous definitions for the word "cultures." As far back as the 1950s culture had been defined in at least 164 ways (Kroeber & Kluckhohn, 1952). This is but one reason why organizational culture has not been clearly and systematically defined.

Scholz (1987) stated that "corporate culture is the implicit, invisible, intrinsic, and informal consciousness of the organization which guides the behavior of the individuals and which shapes itself out of their behavior" (p. 80). This

definition implies that culture is partly intangible. Shani and Basuray (1987) attribute this intangibility to a current gap in knowledge. Organizational scholars have missed `useful knowledge' about organizational culture. To fill the current gap, they should study anthropological and sociological knowledge and its relationship to organizational life. This avoidance is a result of several factors: non-specific definition; varying viewpoints from sociologists, anthropologists, business educators, etc.; and a gap in knowledge about organizational culture itself.

To investigate how the worlds of organizational theory and practice interact: Barley, Meyer and Gash (1988) cognitively analyzed articles (as a linguistic phenomenon). They assessed whether members of two subcultures, academics and practitioners, have influenced each other's interpretations of culture. They identified a universe of articles, all of which (192 articles published between June 1975 and December 1984) were on organizational culture, symbolism, or myth. Their theoretical framework is based on ethosemantics, a discipline that has long argued that culture is primarily cognitive, and consequently, a linguistic phenomenon (Barley et al., 1988). They analyzed

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acculturation through pragmatics, a linguistic area which takes as its subject matter an utterance connotation.

Twenty-two conceptual indicators were used after their reliability was tested. The dependent variable was an acculturation measure; conceptual and symbolic influence were considered special instances of acculturation. It was substantively concluded that academicians and practitioners eventually come to view the importance of organizational culture similarly. The data suggested that conceptual and symbolic influence flows from practitioners to academics. Thus, in many cases researchers end up investigating mainly the topics for which practitioners need knowledge and understanding.

This method of analysis is limited to the implications of the words instead of the real meaning and/or the structural parts of the components. As a very specific method of analysis, its value is limited to studying only the communication process of organizations. When studying organizational culture, the meaning of words is an important feature. This will be explained in more depth later in this project.

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Barley, Meyer, and Gash (1988) used cluster analysis to classify the researched articles. Each article was coded by three researchers and interrater reliabilities were calculated. Cronbach's alphas were calculated yielding alpha coefficients greater than 0.80 for all of 22 indicators used. Each paper was assigned a final score, by averaging the three researchers' individual ratings. Finally, correlations were calculated among all indicators. In general, the study defined some of the variables, but not very specifically. The conceptual hypothesis was indirectly stated and the operationalization of the concept was specified by describing the clustering procedure. The sampling of articles was purposely chosen according to specified criteria. The level of analysis was the article, a product of practitioners or academics, and the task involved value judgment, but general guidelines were provided. This research had flaws, but in general it was well designed. Nevertheless, its usefulness as a tool to study organizational culture is limited.

In summary, each researcher or manager has a different definition for organizational culture. Nevertheless, many authors have emphasized its importance for corporate success. How can they assign attributes to a concept that has not been clearly

defined?    Which  specific  attribute  will  influence  which

organizational component?   The key point about culture is that it

keeps an organization together, gives meaning, and can be referred

to as "the way we do things around here."   In a more holistic

sense, Shani and Basuray (1987) defined organizational culture as

> process for the information of dynamic value system
> of learned elements, with assumptions, conventions,
> beliefs and rules permitting members of an organization
> to relate/communicate with each other, to the world and
> to develop their creative potentials. (p. 316)

The specific components of an organizational culture are

described more precisely in the next section.


## BASIC COMPONENTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE


For the purpose of this study the concept of organizational

culture will refer to a system of shared values, assumptions,

beliefs, and norms that unite the members of an organization and

also  a  system  of  shared  meaning  within  an  organization  that

determines, in large degree, how employees act (Au & Chong, 1993;

Bartol & Martin 1994; Robbins, 1994).


Based   on   the   discipline   of   cultural   anthropology,

organizations started being conceived of small societies.   This

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conception commenced the interest in the cultures of organizations. Several companies have found that anthropologists' expertise as cultural scientists is useful in gaining insight about human behavior within their corporation (Laabs, 1992). In the early 1970's, organizations were described as social systems equipped with socialization processes, social norms, and structures. Nevertheless, these studies focused mainly on society's culture and its impact on organizations.

In the early 1980s the outlook changed to the perspective that organizations have cultures of their own. Organizational cultures breed meanings, values and beliefs; nurture legends, myths and stories; and are festooned with rites, rituals and ceremonies (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984). Deal and Kennedy (1982) described the following core elements of organizational culture: business environment, values, heroes, rites and rituals, and cultural network.

**Business environment** is the single greatest external factor that will influence the shaping of an organization's culture. Depending on the reality in the company's marketplace and based on environmental scanning, a decision must be made about which

activities the company must carry out very well in order to succeed. Based on the decision, the company tends to develop a culture to support those crucial activities. This is probably the element that can be best related to strategy making. With environmental research and theory now including or interfacing with size, technology, strategy, and culture, most contemporary organizational theory includes a significant environmental component (Bluedorn, 1993).

Company **values,** beliefs, and ideologies are rich and complex in strong culture companies (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982). Arogyaswamy and Byles (1987) regard values and ideologies as the twin descriptors of a culture. Moreover, they clarify that cohesion, not strength, is a measure of company values. Cohesion is the consensus about the importance of particular values and ideologies. Everyone in the organization should agree on its importance, in other words all structural levels: line employees, supervisors, and top managers (Keeton & Mengistu, 1992) . The next important aspect of values is internal consistency, which refers to the agreement between values and ideology. Specifically, Arogyaswamy and Byles (1987) urge that the degree of compatibility among individuals and groups in regard

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to values and ideologies should be consistent for a strong culture.

Davis (1984), who has worked on cultural change programs in six of the top twelve banks in the US, investigated only senior levels when he was searching for guiding beliefs of an organization. He stated, "the guiding beliefs are invariably set at the top and transmitted down through the ranks. Also any effort to change them must be led by the chief executive officer" (p. 345).

**Heroes** are the leaders of the organization who are viewed as symbols; they personify and perpetuate the company's shared values (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Nixon, 1987). These people make a difference in the way the rest of the employees behave and perform. Heroes provide tangible role models, symbolize the company to the outside world, set standards of performance, and motivate employees. In some institutions the heroes are the entrepreneurs. Pettigrew (1979) described entrepreneurs as the individual(s) who take primary responsibility for mobilizing people and resources to initiate, manage, build, and give purpose to a new organization.

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**Rites and rituals** "provide the fabric in which heroes can be showcased" (Deal & Kennedy, 1982, p. 57). Rites are formal acts or procedures in accordance with prescribed rule or custom (Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary, 1982).

Symbolic actions are an effective method of communicating rituals, values, and ideologies. In other words, "acts speak louder than words." Managers need to communicate their expectations by "doing." The development of the organizational culture can be compared to raising children. Parents teach values by symbolic interaction. They are engaged in symbolic interaction when they teach children about family relations by monitoring doll games, about sympathy by reacting to the death of the child's pet, and about obeying driving laws by example. Similarly, in the organizational life, rituals are dramatizations (symbolic representations) of the company's basic cultural values and will guide behavior.

In summary, rites and rituals give direction to **"the way things should be done"** in an organization. The cultural message can be very clearly communicated throughout the organization by

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these "acts." Organizational rituals include social, work, management, recognition, and corporate rituals.

The **cultural network** is a crucial factor for culture development. After implementation takes place; values, heroic mythology, rites, and rituals are carried within this network. Using effective communication procedures is the only competent way to develop a cultural network. Means of communication tie together all parts of the company.

Deal and Kennedy (1982) include a simple and straightforward cultural networking and procedure. They make suggestions to effective managers and culture networkers. In short, managers should want to know what people in their organizations are really thinking, and to influence their day-to-day behavior to develop the desired culture.

Woods (1989) states that "one of the problems that has long plagued scholars who study cultures has been the lack of agreement on a common language and vocabulary" (p.14). Different meanings, even if they are only a matter of "wordsmithing," add to the uncertainty in communication. To develop meanings, understanding

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of communications, and of the **"way things are really done"** in an organization, from employees' perpectives, Lundberg (1988b) suggested three levels for the cultural phenomena. His framework is known as the "Levels of Meaning Approach" (Figure 2.1). The three levels to understanding organizational culture are the manifest level, the strategic level, and the deep meaning level. As shown in Figure 2.1, the most visible and audible artifacts of the organization are included in the manifest level, e.g. the constructed environment--color schemes, trademarks, uniforms. constructed environment--color schemes, trademarks, uniforms. Stories, rituals, and norms are part of this level. The public documents and some organizational activities will include some of those components. All of these artifacts, however, are not what the totality of culture is about because they represent what management wants the organization to be, not necessarily what it is. These are espoused manifestations. In other words, a common psychology is shared by an organization when some of these manifestations are "in-use" and are understood as organizational "know-how" (Argyris, 1982; Lundberg, 1989; Lundberg & Woods, 1990).

The strategic level represents the manner in which an organizational culture matches its internal competencies by

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**The Manifest Level**

    Symbolic Artifacts
    Language (jargon, saying, slogans)
    Stories (myths, sagas, legends)
    Ritualistic Activities (rites, rituals, ceremonies)
    Patterned Conduct (norms, conventions, customs)

**The Strategic Level**

    Strategic Beliefs about:
        Strategic Vision
        Capital-Market Expectations
        Product-Market Expectations
        Internal Approaches to Management

**Deep Meaning**

    Values
    Assumptions

Figure 2.1:   The Levels of Meaning Framework for Understanding Organizational Culture

utilizing its resources. The organization should utilize this match for its competitive advantage. It is well known, for example that the Ritz-Carlton hotels has a distinctive culture of a comapny caring for its employees. Many prospective employees value this and develop genuine interest in working for this company. The key point about this level is that the strategic beliefs are "what the organization has learned about itself over time" (Woods, 1989, p.17). These are the **"oughts"**. The components of this second level are more implicit than manifest. These strategic beliefs cover a range of topics: financial goals; marketing and risk decisions; planning, control. and coordination devices; ideal internal structures; the best set of employee inducements; acceptable competitor(s); appropriate public and community support; and union-management relationships, among others (Lundberg & Woods, 1990).

The deep meaning level is even more invisible. The components include values, ideologies and assumptions. However, the two key points about these components are that they actually determine how members perceive, think, and learn, and provide the building blocks for the first two levels (Woods, 1989). The deep meaning level includes "unconscious and invisible taken-for-

granted premises and precepts" (Lundberg & Woods, 1990, p.6). At this level organizations determine actions; therefore, it is not enough to study the first two levels without finding the deep meaning of all other artifacts. This third level is crucial.

Comparing Lundberg's (1988) framework and Deal and Kennedy's basic components, it can be concluded that both describe the same artifacts of culture: symbolic interactions, stories, values, rituals, and business environment (strategic vision). The difference is in the way that each artifact is referred to and the level of meaning that is given to each artifact. According to Deal and Kennedy (1982) values are a basic component while for Lundberg (1988) they are part of the third level, where deep meaning is developed.

## THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Smircich (1983) investigated the intersection of culture theory and organizational theory. She described five current research themes: comparative management, corporate culture, organizational symbolism, organizational cognition, and

unconscious processes and organization (Figure 2.2). Borrowing ideas from the anthropology discipline and researchers, Smircich (1983) recounted concepts of "culture" from each of the five research themes. The **comparative management** theme is concerned with managerial and employee practices across national boundaries. Smircich (1983) described culture for this type of management as an independent variable, a background factor, an explanatory variable or a broad framework influencing organizational beliefs. The best confirmation of the utility of this perspective is demonstrated by the popularity of Theory Z (Ouchi, 1981) and The Art of Japanese Management (Pascale & Athos, 1981). Much literature is available about the utility of Japanese (or other) styles of management on multinational organizations. Allaire and Firsirotu (1984) described this view as functionalist and synchronic (Figure 2.3).

**Corporate culture** is described in the previous section. Organizations are themselves culture-producing phenomena and culture is an internal variable (Smircich, 1983). This internal variable holds an organization together and it symbolizes the values, or social ideals, or beliefs that the organizational members want to share. The values are manifested by symbolic

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CONCEPTS OF "CULTURE"      THEMES IN ORGANIZATION AND     CONCEPTS OF
FROM ANTHROPOLOGY         MANAGEMENT RESEARCH        "ORGANIZATION"
                                                                      FROM ORGANIZATION
                                                                       THEORY

Culture is an Instrument serving human
biologincal and psychological needs,
  e.g. Malinowski's functionalism

Organizations are social instruments
for task accomplishment.
  e.g.., classical management theory

**Cross-Culture or Comparative Management**

Culture fuctions as an adaptive regulatory
mechanism. It unites individuals into social
structures.
  e.g., Radcliffe-Brown structural-
fuctionalism

Organizations are adaptive organisms
existing by process of exchange with
the environment.
  e.g., contingency theory

**Corporate Culture**

Culture is a system of shared cognitions
The human mind generates culture by
means of a finite number of rules.
  e.g., Goodenough's ethnoscience

Organizations are systems of knowl-
edge. "Organization" rests in the net-
work of subjective meanings that or-
ganization members share to varying
degrees, ans appear to fuction in a
rule-like manner.
  e.g., cognitive organization theory

**Organizational Cognition**

Culture is a system of shared symbols
and meanings. Symbolic action needs to
be interpreted, read or deciphered in
order to be understood.
  e.g., Geertz's symbolic anthropology

Organizations are patterns of symbolic
discourse. "Organization" is maintained
through symbolic modes such as lan-
guage that facilitate shared meanings
and shared realities.
  e.g., symbolic organization theory

**Organizational Symbolism**

Culture is a projection of mind's
universal unconscious infrastructure.
  e.g., Levi-Strauss' structuralism

Organizational forms and practices are
the manifestations of unconscious
processes.
  e.g., transformational organization
theory

**Unconscious Processes and Organization**

Figure 2.2: Intersections of Culture Theory and Organization Theory
From: Smircich, L. (1983). Concepts of culture and organizational analysis. Administrative Science Quarterly,
    28, 339-358.

CULTURE

As an *ideational system*: cultural and social realms are distinct but interrelated. Culture is located in :

As a *sociocultural system*: culture is a component of the social system, manifested in behaviour (ways of life) and products of behaviour. The study of sociolcultural systems may be:

The Minds of Culture-bearers

The products of minds(shared meanings and symbols)

Synchronic

Diachronic

Cognitive

Structural

Mutual equivalence

Symbolic

Functionalist

Functionalist structuralist

Historical - diffusionist

Ecological - adaptationist

SCHOOLS:

MAJOR THEORISTS

Goodenough

Lévi-Strauss

Wallace

Geertz, Schneider

Malinowski

Radcliffe-Brown

Boas, Benedict Kluckhohn, Kroeber

White, Service, Rappoport, Vayden Harris

Figure 2.3: A Typology of the Concept of Culture
From: Allaire, Y. &Firsirotu, M. (1984). Theories of organizational culture, Organizational Studies, 5, 193-226

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devices like myths, rituals, stories, legends, and specified language (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Smircich, 1983).

**Cognitive anthropology** is a system of ethnoscience; culture is described as a system of shared knowledge and beliefs (Smircich, 1983). The key is to determine what the organization's rules are and to find out how the members of a culture see and describe their world. In the communication studies field, the way of understanding social interactions is referred to as the "rules theory." Understanding organizations as structures of knowledge is very similar to the notion of paradigm as it is applied to scientific communities (Smircich, 1983). This notion has been useful to theorists to explain the processes of strategic management and organizational change.

The **symbolic perspective** treats cultures as systems of shared symbols and meanings. In this view, interpreting, reading, and deciphering must take place to define the culture. The researchers need to evaluate the way experience becomes meaningful for the organization (Smircich, 1983). Alvesson (1987) emphasizes the importance of the ideology when studying corporate culture.

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He portrays ideology as a reflection of organizational politics, conflicts, and domains.

Lastly, based on Lévi-Strauss' (1958) views of structural anthropology, culture is a **structural and psychodynamic** concept. This idea has had little development in organization theory (Smircich, 1983). The main underlying idea is that organizational forms and practices are analyzed in reference to the dynamics of structural (out-of-awareness) processes and their conscious manifestation. The organization's behavior is explained, rationalized, and legitimized in terms of the formal structure, which Smircich (1983) refers to as a myth.

The cognitive, symbolic, and structural/psychodynamic perspectives attempt to study interactional dynamics. By contrast, the corporate culture outlook attempts to delineate the cultural dimensions and then determine how they influence critical organizational processes and outcomes (Smircich, 1983). Finally, the comparative management view argues that the overall culture (environmental) charts patterns of beliefs and attitudes within the organization.

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To show how many authors and researchers have studied organizations from the different anthropology schools' perspectives, Table 1 in Appendix A depicts definitions of culture and linkages to organization and management literature (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984). When we try to conceptualize organizational culture it is impossible to study an organization from all the concepts' perspectives. The key point to remember is that organizational culture focuses attention on the expressive, nonrational qualities of an organizational experience. It is then required to decipher or uncover (Woods, 1991) those qualities of the organization which are not obviously manifested.

## CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT

The preceding sections presented different ways to describe or evaluate organizational culture. Reynolds (1986) conceptualized organizational culture in terms of three interrelated ideologies: a sociocultural system, a cultural system, and individual actors (Figure 2.4). He developed a pilot study to identify how and to what extent organizational culture differences can be measured and how to measure differences related to performance. The author evaluated the writings of Ansoff (1979), Deal and Kennedy (1982),

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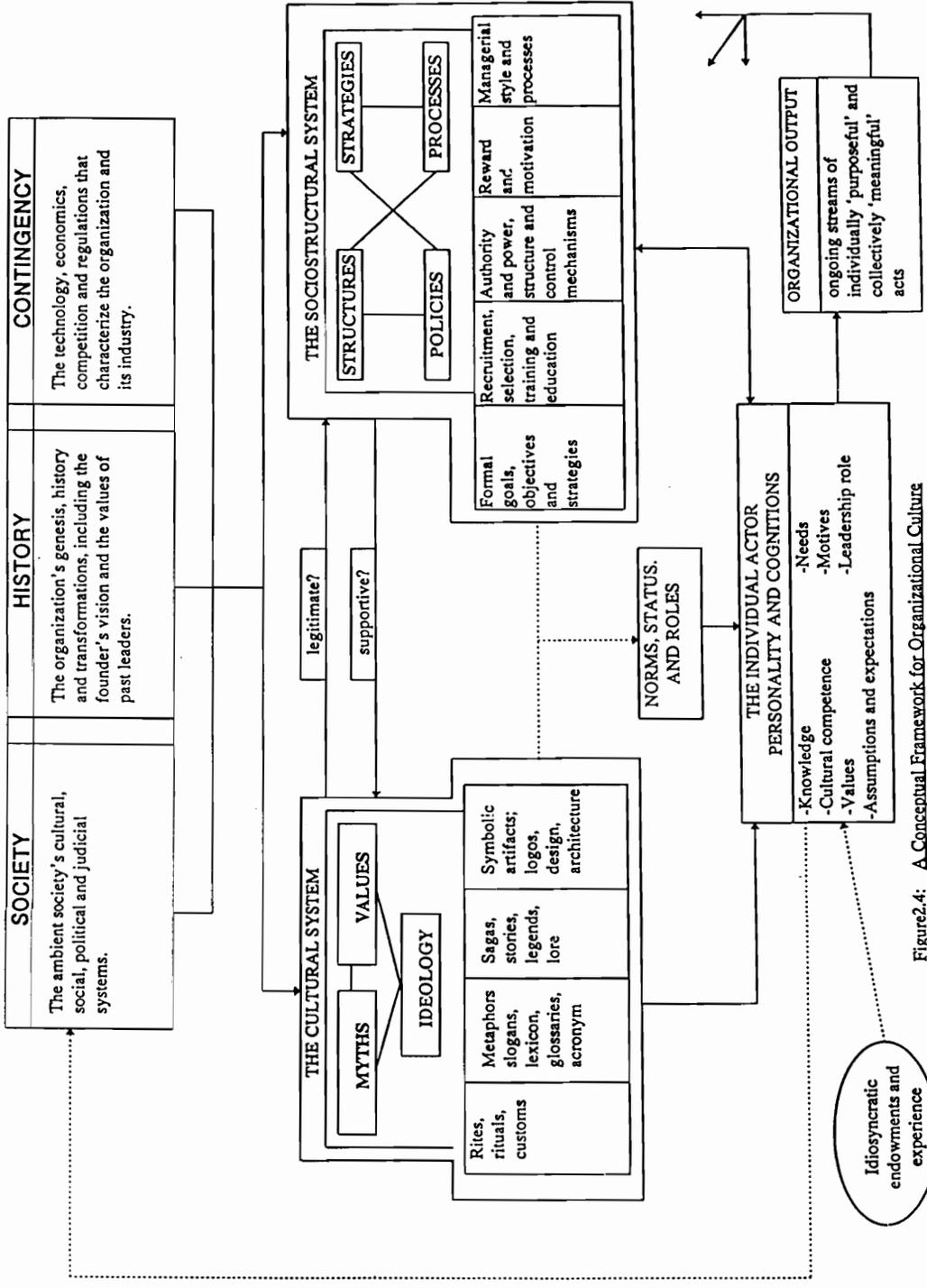
Figure2.4: A Conceptual Framework for Organizational Culture
From: Allaire, Y. & Firsirotu, M. (1984). Theories of organizational culture,
Organization Studies, 5, 193-226

**SOCIETY**
The ambient society's cultural, social, political and judicial systems.

**HISTORY**
The organization's genesis, history and transformations, including the founder's vision and the values of past leaders.

**CONTINGENCY**
The technology, economics, competition and regulations that characterize the organization and its industry.

**THE SOCIOSTRUCTURAL SYSTEM**

STRATEGIES
PROCESSES
STRUCTURES
POLICIES

Formal goals, objectives and strategies | Recruitment, selection, training and education | Authority and power, structure and control mechanisms | Reward and motivation | Managerial style and processes

legitimate?
supportive?

**THE CULTURAL SYSTEM**

MYTHS
VALUES
IDEOLOGY

Rites, rituals, customs | Metaphors slogans, lexicon, glossaries, acronym | Sagas, stories, legends, lore | Symbolic artifacts; logos, design, architecture

NORMS, STATUS. AND ROLES

**THE INDIVIDUAL ACTOR PERSONALITY AND COGNITIONS**
-Knowledge
-Cultural competence
-Values
-Assumptions and expectations
-Needs
-Motives
-Leadership role

**ORGANIZATIONAL OUTPUT**
ongoing streams of individually 'purposeful' and collectively 'meaningful' acts

Idiosyncratic endowments and experience

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Harrison (1972;1978), Hoefstede (1980), and Peters and Waterman (1982). Reynolds (1986) also considered Allaire and Firsirotu's (1984) conceptual framework (Figure 2.3).

Figure 2.4 displays the interconnection between the cultural system, the sociocultural system, and the individual actors. The organizational outputs are purposeful actions and collectively meaningful acts (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984). The **cultural system** interrelates the myths, values, and ideologies of the organization. All these myths, values and ideologies could be similar at the different levels of the organization, or they could be very different for employees and management. The **sociocultural system** connects the structures, strategies, policies and processes of an organization. Management is responsible, in most cases to establish and implement this system. Ultimately, the **individual actors** contribute to the organizational culture with their personalities and cognitions. The individual actors are the employees and their uniqueness. In short, the organizational culture integrates the basic components, described in the basic components section, with interrelations between the sociocultural components (rewards, recruitment, authority, etc.), and the individual actors' personalities and cognitions.

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## HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY STUDIES

The editorial coverage of hospitality research focusing on corporate culture is very limited. Tidball (1988) assessed the impact of cultural congruency on the organization's success. The level of congruency can be determined by three forms of ideology: formal, espoused, and operating. The formal ideology is the beliefs of top management and/or the founder(s). The espoused ideology is the values supported by members of the organization. The operating ideology is a body of beliefs that organizational members use to guide and coordinate their behavior. These beliefs serve as the basis for the development of norms and rules that determine the ongoing behavior within the organization (Tidball, 1988).

In Tidball's study, 15 privately-owned restaurants from a food service corporation were evaluated. This corporation owns 40 restaurants. She developed the formal ideology of the restaurants by conducting interviews, observing interactions, and reviewing corporate documents. Interviews and observations are two of the most effective methods of data collection for any kind of

anthropological study (Ott, 1994; Rousseau, 1990; Van Donk & Sanders, 1993).

The formal ideology was then validated by two owners and seven top executives. The operating ideology was developed by observation at five of the restaurants. Afterwards, she interviewed 40 unit employees to discover rules and to test the unspoken meaning of these rules. Two forms were developed, one to assess the degree of consensus on the operating ideology, and the other to assess the degree of consensus on the espoused ideology. A total of 40 espoused and 38 operating statements were generated.

This study by Tidball (1988) only evaluated one component of the cultural system in Figure 2.3. Tidball (1988) measured the relationship of congruent values to profitability, employee turnover, job satisfaction, and individual perceptions of the company. She suggested that a positive relationship exists between commitment of employees and the following situations: when formal ideology is operating, espoused ideology is operating, and formal ideology is espoused. Overall, she concluded that congruency in the company's culture can improve its wealth. To make statements about the wealth of a company, longitudinal

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studies are appropriate. The generalizability of this study is almost nil because of the limited sample and because the methodology applied is not valid for "cultural" research.

Glover (1988) has also studied organizational culture for the hospitality industry. His anthropologistical views guided him to evaluate hospitality industry companies by observations. Again, other authors has also stressed the importance of using qualitative methods: observations and interviews for anthropological research (Ott, 1994; Rosseau, 1990; Van Donk & Sanders, 1993). Glover (1988) criticized reactive management styles by indicating that these styles are perhaps the primary underlying cause of quality and financial problems in the hospitality industry today.

Conversely, Glover (1988) states that a proactive culture is the type of culture that works effectively. He did not define proactive or reactive styles of management, instead a table of the characteristics of those corporate cultures (reactive and proactive) was developed. The descriptors on this table are not validated yet. Glover (1988) concluded that in the hospitality

industry, proactive firms have consistent product quality, steady profitability, and effective management.

Glover (1988) as well as Tidball (1988) oversimplified the organizational culture concept. As shown by Allaire & Firsirotu (1984) and Reynolds (1986) the organizational culture construct has many components and each one should be considered. Therefore, the evaluation of organizational cultures in the hospitality industry needs study.

Better quality cultural studies for the hospitality industry has been performed by Woods (1989) and Lundberg and Woods (1990). Those studies will be described in the research agenda section since its methodological strenght will be emphasized and described.

## METHODOLOGICAL EVALUATION OF EMPIRICAL STUDIES

As demonstrated in the theoretical framework of this paper, the methodological outlook of researching organizational culture is vast. Reliable procedures are necessary to test the ideas presented in popular and scholarly literature (Reynolds, 1986). Therefore, the importance of organizational culture and some of

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the critical aspects that can determine a company's success or failure have been only speculative. The purpose of the sections that follow is to critique the methodology of a few empirical papers and to briefly discuss some possibilities of how organizational culture should be studied.

There have been very few attempts at systematic empirical research. Amsa (1986) investigated textile mills in India. The study was developed to measure the organizational culture in order to explain their differences in one aspect of organizational functioning: loitering among loomshed workers. Loitering was defined as "the unauthorized absence of the employees from their assigned place of work" (Amsa, 1986,p. 361).

Workers responded to yes-no scale, providing assessment of what the majority of these co-workers believed, valued or experienced. This type of scale is not very reliable because it forces an answer; it does not measure true opinion. At least 5 Likert scale levels should be given to the respondents. The items in the interview were independently evaluated by eight judges for their face validity.

It was concluded that this loitering problem is a discipline problem in these organizations and is viewed from a narrow individualistic micro-perspective. The contribution of this study is limited to relating the subculture of a department and a specific work-group behavior. Amsa (1986) concluded that a cultural perspective may provide the necessary linkage between the traditional macro- and micro-analysis of organizations.

The limitations of the study are that the operationalization of the concept of culture does not capture its total complexity. Organizational culture was treated as a single variable, and then its relationship to one aspect of the organization's functioning, loitering, was examined. The quantitative description of the results was also limited to t-tests for each sub-cultural dimension.

Reynolds (1986) attempted to identify how and to what extent organizational culture differences can be measured and how measured differences relate to performance. He conceptualized organizational culture as the relationship of three components: a sociocultural system, a cultural system, and the individual actors (Figure 2.4). The cultural system includes the relationship

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between myths, values and ideology. The sociocultural system interrelates structures, strategies, policies and processes. The individual actors include the personality or cognition of employees (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984; Reynolds, 1986).

In this study (Reynolds, 1986) work context was correlated to the type of industry (computer/services software, franchised restaurants, and general-advanced technology industrial; the organizational position (operatives-clerical, professional line or tech staff, and managers); and the type of corporation. Reynolds (1986) identified 14 dimensions used for the work content construct.

The research procedure involved a questionnaire designed to measure the employees' perceptions of work context (organizational culture), the selection of the sample of organizations, and the procedure used to obtain the responses of individual employees. A random sample of individuals working for three different international advanced technology industrial firms was selected. They answered the first version of the questionnaire by mail; response rate was 65 percent. The revised questionnaire was used in a survey of employees working for one of 14 restaurants in an

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international chain of franchise (fast foods) restaurants; response rate was about 28 percent. A general evaluation was done with 50 percent of all employees of a new computer service/custom software firm. The researcher stated that the questionnaire was checked for reliability with students of two business courses. However, reliability should be researched with the same type of sample. Thus, his reliability measure was not adequate.

It was concluded that a questionnaire and an administration procedure were developed that provide useful, reliable measures of a major aspect of organizational culture, the perceived work context of the individual. It was substantively concluded that computer and service employees are the most loyal of the three samples compared. The perceived work context is not a reliable measure of organizational culture because of the way the research was performed. To measure culture it is necessary to study much more than perceptions, i.e. values, symbolic artifacts, rites, etc. (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Lundberg, 1988; Woods, 1989). Also, Reynolds (1986) assumed from the results that different organizational positions have different perceived work contexts and these organizational cultures are different in different industries.

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The differences in work values among positions were related to working conditions, employment security, collegial cooperation, prestige of the organization, clarity of job requirements, and nature of preferred management styles. The final conclusion was that excellent companies, even though excellence was not described or defined, did not provide distinctly better working conditions.

A revised version of the questionnaire was used in 1988 by Reynolds, Knoke, Miller, and Kaufman (1988) for a pilot study intended to determine if it is feasible to develop a census of organizations in a major urban area, to gather data from a representative sample, and to develop guidelines for gathering reliable data about organizations. In each organization at least five informants responded to a 10 page questionnaire. Culture was measured by questions related to perceived opinions about oligarchy, change, tradition, ceremonies, and cooperation. The reliability of each item for each organizational measure was assessed for each informant by estimating the extent to which the responses to a given item corresponded to the responses to all other items. The informants were rank ordered by number of years that the individual had been associated with the organization. A

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preliminary analysis of the data reported low reliability of measures of organizational culture. The authors recommended using substantially larger samples of informants, controls for different organizational units, or different data gathering techniques.

Even though the revised questionnaire (Reynolds et al., 1988) measured almost the same constructs as the original study (Reynolds, 1986), the methodology of the 1988 study and sample were different. By personal contact with the main the preliminary report was provided. Nevertheless, further evaluation of the study was not possible because the methodology dimensions and analysis are not clear.

In Tidball's study (1988) randomization was not indicated. She developed the formal ideology of the restaurants after conducting interviews, observing interactions, and reviewing corporate documents. This ideology was then validated by two owners and seven top executives. The operating ideology was developed by observation at five of the restaurants. Afterwards, she interviewed 40 unit employees to discover rules and then to test the unspoken meaning of these rules. Two forms were developed, one to assess the degree of consensus on the operating

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ideology, and the other to assess the degree of consensus on the espoused ideology.  A total of 40 espoused and 38 operating statements were generated (Table 2.1).

This study only evaluated the interaction within the cultural system.  The relationship of congruent values to performance measure was evaluated.  Overall, it was concluded that congruency in the company's culture can improve its wealth.  Nevertheless, the methodology of the research was not specifically described. The duplication of this study will be difficult and even several attempts to contact the researcher have not been successful.  The generalizability of this study is almost nil.

In summary, the topic of organizational culture has been conceptually studied but systematic empirical results are needed. The concept has been conceptually analyzed as a variable and as a metaphor (Deshpande & Webster, 1989; Smircich, 1983).  There have also been more recent attempts to measure organizational culture.

Webster (1992), addressed the issue of measuring a purified marketing culture scale which consisted of 34 items measuring the 6 dimensions of construct:  service quality, selling task,

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# Table 2.1 - Overview of Empirical Studies

| Author (Year) | Design | Method of Data Collection | Level of Analysis | Sampling | Indepependent Variable | Dependent Variable | Results |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Amsa (1986) | Survey | Structured and unstructured interviews, Observations | Employees | Non-random: nine mills, then four, 40 workers | Beliefs Values Norms Traditions | Loitering | Loitering is a discipline problem (T-test done) |
| Reynolds (1986) | Survey | Questionnaire | Employees | Random | Type of industry Position Corporation | Work Context | Excellent corporation did not have a distinctly better working context. Highest task focus was demonstrated by franchised restaurants. The cause of differences in work values were listed. |
| Reynolds 1988 | Survey | Questionnaire | Employees | Unspecified | Unclear | Unclear | Low reliability of measures of organizational culture |
| Tidball (1988) | Experimental | Interviews Observations | Organization, Employees | Purposively Unspecified | Congruency | Profit Turnover Competency of mgmt. Affective reaction | A positive relationship between commitment, and ideologies operating; formal, spoused and formal spoused ; by regression analysis. |
| Woods (1989) | Experimental | Interviews Observations Archival | Organization Employees | Purposively | Managers Employees | Congruency | Quantitative findings validated the qualitative data; by ANOVA |

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interpersonal relationships, innovativeness, organizations, and internal communications. The rationale of the study was that an appropriate culture is one of the most important ingredients for successfully marketing services.

Davey and Shepherd (1992) used a simple planning model known as Shepherd's Wheel, to facilitate its development of results-oriented organizational culture. The Shepherd's Wheel provides a framework for defining specific results and measures that will indicate success. Van Donk and Sanders (1993) discussed a method of measurement using in-depth open interviews and a paper-and-pencil survey of organizational members. They attempted to demonstrate that it was possible to improve quality management and its implementation through the study of organizational culture. In the section that follows the concept will be evaluated from these two perspectives and suggestions for research will be developed.

## RESEARCH AGENDA

A way to advance knowledge is through interdisciplinary work. When studying organizational culture, methodology is not straight forward. The concept is most closely associated with anthropology

(Morey & Luthans, 1985). Smircich (1983) proposed three perspectives that describe culture as a root metaphor for the organization itself, it is something the organization "is." Culture is perceived as a metaphor for organizational knowledge systems (organizational cognition paradigm), or as a metaphor for shared symbols and meanings (organizational symbolism paradigm), or as a metaphor for the unconscious mind (structural/ psychodynamic perspective). Table 2.2 presents a summary table. In the organizational cognition perspective the main task of research is to understand the "rules" of the company. The limitation of viewing the organization as a cognitive system is that it ignores the sociocultural processes and the individual personalities of the "actors" or employees.

When organizational culture is treated as a metaphor or a system of shared meanings and symbols, the purpose of research is to examine ways in which organizations socialize new members to achieve coordinated action, identity and commitment (Deshpande & Webster, 1989). The limitation of this outlook is that it leaves out components of the sociostructural system: structures, strategies, policies and processes, and the individual actor (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984).

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**Table 2.2: <u>Prescriptions for Researching Organizational</u>**
**<u>Culture</u>**

| CULTURE IS VIEWED AS: | GENERAL PERSPECTIVE | WHAT TO STUDY? |
|---|---|---|
| ROOT METAPHOR ("IS") | Organizational Cognition | 1. "Rules" of the company<br>2. Shared cognitions, values and beliefs (Weick, 1979)<br>3. Manager's mind (Deshpande & Webster, 1989) |
| METAPHOR | System of shared meanings and symbols | 1. Corporate ethos, organizational slogans, rituals, symbolic processes (Deshpande & Webster, 1989) |
| METAPHOR | Structural/Psychodynamic, unconscious mind | 1. Human expressions (Deshpande & Webster, 1989) |
| EXOGENOUS VARIABLE | Comparative Management | 1. Cross-cultural (Deshpande & Webster, 1989) |
| ENDOGENOUS VARIABLE (INDEPENDENT VARIABLE) | Contingent Management | 1. Cultural artifacts (Smircich, 1983)<br>2. Shared values, beliefs, and identities (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982)<br>3. Members' commitment (Deshpande & Webster, 1989) |

From a structural/psychodynamic perspective the research goal is to determine patterns that link the unconscious mind with evident manifestations in social arrangements. Even though this perspective attempts to study interactional dynamics, it is limited because it does not focus on the sociostructural system.

The two perspectives grounded on sociology, comparative and contingency management, view culture as an exogenous or endogenous variable, respectively. Pascale and Athos (1981), using the comparative management approach, concluded that Japanese and American management are different because of differences in culture. When researching organizations from this perspective culture is perceived as a variable developed by and within the organization (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Deshpande & Webster, 1989; Peters & Waterman, 1982). Hence, the culture (environmental or external, i.e. Japanese, Korean, Northern American, Spanish American, etc.) influences and reinforces core beliefs and values within the organization.

In studies with the contingency management perspective, culture is considered an independent variable that is developed within the organization (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peters & Waterman,

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1982). This is the cultural system component of the conceptual framework proposed by Allaire and Firsirotu (1984). Most of the literature in the last 15 years reviewed this component. It is claimed that the corporate performance is influenced by shared values, beliefs, identities, and commitment of organizational members (Deshpande & Webster, 1989). In turn, Smircich (1983) stated that cultural artifacts "can be used to build organizational commitment, convey a philosophy of management, rationalize and legitimate activity, motivate personnel, and facilitate socialization" (p. 345).

However, to research organizational culture from this perspective is myopic. Empirical evidence is not available for relationships between commitment of organizational members, and corporate performance, cultural artifacts, or motivation of personnel. There are more components that will influence the company's performance. There is also interaction between components (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984).

Furthermore, Woods (1989) analyzed the organizational culture of restaurants in the framework of Lundberg (1988) and Tidball (1988) researchers. His dissertation reported the organizational

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culture at three levels: top management, middle management, and employees. He used ethnographic observations, in-depth interviews, and archival studies to discover and confirm as many artifacts and as much of the culture as possible. The observations and interviews, two of the most valuable methods of data collection (Ott, 1991; Rousseau, 1990; Van Donk & Sanders, 1993) were recorded in field note form and then content analyzed to determining items that reflected espoused and operating ideologies. By the archival research, the company documents were also content analyzed. The researcher looked for specific statements about what top management considered important and those that described behaviors or attitudes. Repetition of similar items in interviews and documents, and/or observations were identified as representatives of the organization's formal ideology.

Ethnographic data were collected by Woods (1989) who developed pilot study surveys which were validated by some of the employees within each restaurant. He researched five restaurant companies and for each unit he developed a "consensus survey" based on validated statements. The purpose of these consensus surveys was to determine to what extent these views were shared at

different levels within the organizational culture. Each statement in the survey was rated by the participants four times, by a five-point Likert scale. Each time the participants rated each statement for the following criteria:

1. How much each statement reflects how things "should be".
2. Indicate whether the statement reflects how things "really are" in the organization.
3. "How likely" is top management to make each statement.
4. How likely is management to "live out" the statement.

After 352 members of these five chain-restaurant replied to the surveys, correlations were performed to examine the statistical congruence between group's (top management, middle management and employees) means. It was concluded that the quantitative findings were consistent with the qualitative data. The congruence survey developed was a good method of confirming the qualitative assessment of the five organizations (Woods, 1989).

Woods (1989) measured cultural reality versus cultural ideals from the perspective of both managers and employees. Using these data Woods (1989) measured the degree to which the members of each organizational culture agreed on important cultural issues. The agreement was described as cultural congruence. The congruence both among and between groups (managers and employees) seems to be

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a good indicator of whether or not organizational cultures are widely shared.

Organizations with stronger congruence display higher correlation between the way things are really done and should be done in the surveys developed. The statistical correlations agreed, therefore Woods (1989) concluded that congruence surveys, developed after qualitative data is collected and analyzed, are appropriate methodologies of confirming and measuring organizational culture.

## CONCLUSIONS

Organizational culture is a concept difficult to define because of its interdisciplinary nature in anthropology, sociology, and business research. In turn, each researcher or practitioner has a different definition. The key components of organizational culture were described by Deal and Kennedy (1982) as the following: business environment, values, heroes, rites and rituals, and cultural network.

These components have been explored by several researchers (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984; Arogyaswamy & Byles, 1987; Davis,

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1984; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Pettigrew, 1979). Other researchers have developed a more holistic view of organizational culture (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984; Lundberg, 1988; Reynolds, 1986; Shani & Basuray, 1987; Smircich, 1983; Woods, 1989). For example, Smircich (1983) investigated the intersection of culture theory and organizational theory. She described five current research themes: comparative management, corporate culture, organizational symbolism, organizational cognition, and unconscious processes and organization (Figure 2.1). Reynolds (1986) conceptualized organizational culture in terms of three interrelated ideologies: a sociocultural system, a cultural system, and individual actors (Figure 2.3). Further, Lundberg (1988) and Woods (1989) studied culture as a meaning framework that includes manifest, strategic and deep meaning levels.

## SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

Findings from the review of literature suggest that there is a need for quality empirical research related to organizational culture. In studying organizational culture, the most important factor is that the constructs or variables to be manipulated or

measured are many. Each one of the components includes many parts. In the process of determining a problem statement and a research question, there are many alternatives. For well-developed research all of these constructs cannot be measured in only one attempt unless the constructs are specifically defined. The proposed research will search for the constructs prior to developing the survey instrument.

However, it is important to clarify that quantitative measures alone are not adequate for this ethnographic research. The organizational culture needs to go through the descriptive stage of research first. The correlational, causal, and interactive research will have to be developed later. Therefore, observations, interviews (Ott, 1991; Rousseau, 1991; Van Donk & Sanders, 1993) and archival studies are the research methods to use prior to quantitative methods.

# CHAPTER THREE

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### RESEARCH DESIGN

The basic research question "Can organizational culture be systematically measured within the hospitality industry?" and the four hypotheses are formulated to guide the objectives of this study.

### Hypotheses

Being able to measure organizational culture is not enough as it is important to know if the organizational culture ideals are actually being practiced. Employees may be aware of rules and policies but may not actually practice these activities (Morris, 1992). In addition, the individual culture of employees could be quite different for each one of them because we have such a diverse work force. Therefore, it is essential to observe units in actual operation in order to determine if the ideals are actually being practiced. As a result of the literature review and of

Wood's evaluation procedures (1989), the following is hypothesized:

Ho 1: The perceptions of organizational culture held by management are not the same as the perceptions of organizational culture held by employees.

HA 1: The perceptions of the organizational culture held by management are the same as the perceptions of organizational culture held by employees.


It is often the assumption of management that their ideals and perceptions are understood by employees. Because people are motivated intrinsically as well as extrinsically the reason for employment and the willingness to perform certain task can be totally different. Before management can utilize organizational culture as a competitive advantage it is important for management to ensure that the ideals of the organization are understood by all employees. It is important to gather the opinions and perceptions of workers in order to determine if ideals are understood. Measuring organizational culture depends to a large degree on the ability to capture and record the opinions of the work force (Wilkerson and Kellogg, 1993).

Accordingly, it is hypothesized:

Ho 2: There is no significant difference between the way that managers and employees perceive the way things are done in their company.
HA 2: There is a significant difference between the way that managers and employees perceive the way things are done in their company.

When the values and norms of management are practiced by employees the organization may be able to obtain a competitive advantage if these activities are positive and customer oriented. The entire theme of total quality management (TQM) is centered around increasing performance and service. As stated by Covy and Gulledge (1992) organizational culture is the collective behavior of its people, and it is collective human behavior that creates or implements every element of quality. Delivering the best type of quality and service is vital to the success of a food service operation. Management must ensure that if such attributes as quality of service is one of the ideals of the organization's culture, that these activities are practiced by employees.

Therefore, it is hypothesized:

Ho 3: There is no significant difference between the way that managers and employees perceive the way things should be done in their company.

HA 3: There is a significant difference between the way that managers and employees perceive the way things should be done in their company.

Culture itself can be deep rooted and historic; it can be very difficult to manage (Critchley, 1993). It is often difficult to change employees, and when they are aware of the norms and values of an organization, they may not practice these activities at all. Because of this there can be a loss in the area of quality

or other service activities that may be a perceived part of the organizational culture that is promoted by management (Bright & Cooper, 1993). For this reason, it is hypothesized:

Ho 4: The perceptions of organizational culture of management are understood by employees but these perceptions are not practiced by employees.

HA 4: The perceptions of organizational culture of management are understood by employees and these perceptions are practiced by employees.

This research study was an extension of the research project accomplished by Woods (1989). Woods sample covered commercial establishments. Conversely, this study investigated six independent food service units, part of three college food service operations and of the same parent company. The organizational culture ideals, problems, and findings for commercial and for non-commercial (institutional) food service operations can be quite different. Commercial food service organizations have the primary driving factor of increasing sales, non-commercial (institutional) food service has that concern, but other concern(s) could be as important or more important. This thrust to generate sales can cause a complete different mission statement and organizational culture for an operation.

Organizational culture has been vastly discussed, but the empirical findings are limited. It was previously indicated, that findings in the hospitality industry are scarce. The need for empirical data, the newness of this topic, and the close relationship between organizational culture and ethnographic research, require the use of a combined methodology: qualitative and quantitative methods. Qualitative methods were used to research and describe the organizational culture of college food service units. A quantitative analysis was employed to evaluate the congruency level between two organizational levels: management and unit employees.

Woods (1989) used a "hybrid" methodology to measure organizational culture within restaurants. A modified version of his method was used for this research. He reported the hybrid method as a reliable way of measuring organizational culture for the hospitality industry, but a potential difference between the culture of commercial and non-commercial (institutional) food service operations was researched in this study. By evaluating Woods (1989) methodology based on anthropological research it is concluded that it is valid for this type of research. The combination of methods: qualitative and then quantitative, which

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are appropriate for this type of research proves consensus in data collection.

The section which follows describes the procedures to be applied to the study of organizational culture in college food services.

## DEFINITION OF CULTURE

For the purpose of this study organizational culture referred to a system of shared values, assumptions, beliefs, and norms that unite the members of an organization and also a system of shared meaning within an organization that determines, in large degree, how employees act (Au & Chong, 1993; Bartol & Martin 1994; Robbins, 1994).

## DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

### Population

The population for this study was a sample of large non-commercial (institutional) college food services in the Mid-Southwest region. For inclusion in the study, operations had to be willing to be involved with the project. This company was willing to provide me access to all the information, and all employees were accesible and willing to work with me. I chose a contractor

that had been in business for five years or more and having at least 20 employees. The literature shows that many businesses fail before a five year period. In addition, businesses that have been able to exist for this length of time have an effective organizational culture (Bracker, Keats, & Pearson, 1988). An important researcher qualification in carrying out "cultural" research is that the researcher understands the cultural language of respondents. The researcher's professional experience has been mainly in non-commercial (institutional) food service, and she specifically worked and supervised students and employees in different university food services. This was an additional factor in choosing non-commercial (institutional) food services as sites for the study. The sample for this research project resulted in the selection of 24 managers and 153 employees.

## Methodology

Social anthropologists have developed ethnographic methods to study social behavior. Spradley (1979) emphasized the importance and depth of ethnographic methods as the way to deeply discover cultures. Different levels of meanings within organizations need to be studied also (Lundberg, 1988b; Woods, 1989). In this study, some of these qualitative methods were applied as a part of this

study.  Structured and unstructured interviews, archival studies, and participant observation brought to surface the qualitative factors of each organization.  Specifically, the qualitative methods were used to answer the primary research question.  The importance of those methods for improving organizational culture was discussed (Ott, 1991; Rousseau, 1990; Van Donk & Sanders, 1993).

## Structured Interviews

Structured interviews were carried out principally with management officials.  An outline of the in-depth interview used follows.  This outline was developed using the Levels of Meaning (Figure 2.1) and information provided by Woods (1991) in his work on surfacing organizational culture.

Plan for Formal Interview

Level: Management

Procedure: In-depth interview

Introduction: Good [morning].  My name is I.N.L.S.  I am meeting with you today to discuss the culture of this organization.  I am performing a research project in this institution and I would appreciate your insight and truthfulness. Please feel free to ask if you need clarification or explanation of any of the questions. I will be glad to explain them as much as you need.  The main purpose of this interview is for you to give me your opinion as a top management representative (not your personal one).  All this

information will be confidential. No one other than you and I will know your comments. I will not report names at all!

1. When we say organizational culture....What are we talking about? Can you define this term in your own words?...[If he/she is not clear about the term I will define it. The working definition is "what is taught and reinforced to members as a proper way to perceive, think, feel and act via-à-vis crises and tasks...the basis for direction as well as order and coherence-the meanings of where we are going and how we are related." (Lundberg, 1988b, p.39). It is a way of looking at (studying) organizations, a description of how things get done in an organization and what motivates the "doings".]

2. Can you describe obvious manifestations of this organization's culture?
Consider
physical buildings and layouts,
color schemes and decor,
uniforms,
trademarks,
rituals,
rites,
ceremonies,
symbolic artifacts,
norms or patterned conduct,
conventions,
and customs.

Can you list unwritten rules of getting things done within this organization?

Can you think of stories operational procedure stories which are unique to this organization?
Can you explain if they have any specific meaning?

Can you describe unique language for this organization? [argot--words and phrases used by a particular group and not intended to be understood by others, a type of slang.] Its meaning?

3. Now, we are going to talk about what this company can be (strategic vision).
Please identify the most important objective of this organization. Long-term aspirations for this company? (What can it do and become, and what wouldn't attempt?)

What is the distinctive competence of this firm? What does it do better than any other company in this business?

What factors influence your company's ability to reach the strategic vision? [will be categorized as internally or externally controlled]

What does it take to attain the top organizational demands of this organization (financial or capital-market expectations)?
From your point of view, what are some attainable financial goals?
How should the company plan and devote resources?
What are acceptable risks for this company?


What does it take to compete in your market (product-market expectations)? What are the competitors of this company?
How is marketing done? How are decisions made for place? For product(s)? For promotion(s)? For price?
What is the role of the customer for this company? Describe the customer-employee relationship.

Do you think that your company's menu has tried to portrait any specific image? If so, what is the image or the underlying message?


[Now we will be referring to internal approaches to management]
What planning devices would work best for the organization? What coordination devices [activities which promote interaction or group actions]? What control devices [activities which promote order, regulations or rules, management restriction or standards of comparison]?
How do top managers relate to employees? How do you think that every other management level of the company relates to employees?
How would you describe the managers of this organization?
How would you describe the employees of this organization?

What does managing really encompass in this company?

Should members evaluate one another? If so, how?

What are the ideal internal structures? What are the preferred technologies?

What set of employees' inducements are used here? Are those the ideal inducements for this company? Why are they different from the ideals?
Can you describe an appropriate public service and/or community support program (from the top officials perspective) for this company?
Is this the type of program being implemented at this time?
How was this program designed? Who made the decisions and how was it implemented?
Is it different from the ideal program for this company? Why?


4. Can you give me some values of this organization?
What are the ideals of the organization [what are the organizational "should be" or "do's", and the real "don'ts" or "sins" of the organization]?

As an underlying value, what is most important in this organization: objects, actions, or situations?

What is the key value in this company, (service, food quality, etc.)?

How is work defined (being, doing, observing) in this organization?

How do you define truth (at the unit level, corporate level, individually) for the different levels?

What perks or special privileges do middle and top management have [universalism vs. particularism]?


Does the company plans organizational events which are used to develop some meaning for the organization as a whole? What is the purpose of those events? What meaning do they portrait?

Are social events developed for the same purpose? What is their meaning?
Are political events developed for the same purpose? Meaning?


Thank you for your valuable input. I will report my research findings. I hope that your organization can benefit from them.

## Archival Studies

Procedural and training manuals, mission and philosophy statements, promotional materials for customers or employees, some newsletters, and general financial information were reviewed for cultural data. Documents, considered important by management for their organization, were content analyzed. In other words, the archival review of documents was analyzed "for the formally stated beliefs, values, and rules for behavior in the organization" (Woods, 1989, p.63). The purpose of this step was to discover important artifacts of the culture and how management tries to spread organizational culture.

Once the perceptions of the organization and the organizational culture at the management level were evaluated, the next step was to examine employee artifacts. However, before the researcher was introduced to employees, an entire serving period was observed from the viewpoint of being a customer. The purpose of this observation period was to interact with the employees and to note some of the obvious manifestations of the ambiance of the unit (decor, physical layout, color schemes, uniforms, posted messages, displays, promotional materials, etc.).

Proceeding to the next phase of addressing the employees, personnel were formally interviewed and observed. The importance of interviewis and observations in improving and defining organizational culture was discussed in previous studies (Ott, 1991; Rosseau, 1990; Van Donk & Sanders, 1994). The criteria for the observations were as follows:

1. "Routine doings"--Needed to know about the routine jobs, when they are performed, and how.

2. Human relations--Observed treatment of employees and feedback from them, rewarding mechanism and/or items used (if applicable), motivation devices, and ways in which communication was implemented (Is management perceived as "the authority", or as "coworkers"? Were questions encouraged? Was open-communications encouraged?)

3. Managerial style and processes

4. Training--How was training implemented? By whom? When?

5. Customer relations--How were customers treated by managers?

The purpose of these observations were to discover artifacts which are important for employees. These artifacts could be different than the ones described by managers.

The researcher asked questions of the employees similar to the ones in the Plan for Formal Interview, but in a much simplified and informal way. The operations were interested in

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the study and allowed employees to be interviewed during their work schedule.

## Participant Observation

Participant observation is considered a critical qualitative method for researching this area. Qualitative methods of research were interpretative, which "[produce] findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p.17). When studying organizational cultures, ethnographic fieldwork methods are appropriate because they are "the hallmark of cultural anthropology," (Spradley, 1980, p.3) and because ethnography is the qualitative research work done by anthropologists for describing a culture. Many researchers (Goodenough, 1971; Spradley, 1979) have emphasized the importance of these ethnographic and deep involvement methods when uncovering cultures and when researching cognitive anthropology topics. This "doing ethnography" includes:

> participating in activities, asking questions, eating strange
> foods, learning a strange language, watching ceremonies,
> taking fieldnotes, observing play, interviewing informants,
> and hundreds of other things. (Spradley, 1980, p.3)

A participant observer does many things the same way that everyone does in newly encountered social situations. Participant

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observation is a research methodology which "aims to generate
practical and theoretical truths about human life grounded in the
realities of daily existence" (Jorgensen, 1989, p.14).  Jorgensen
defined participant observation in terms of seven basic features:

> 1. a special interest in human **meaning** and **interaction** as
> viewed from the perspective of people who are **insiders** or
> **members** of particular situations and settings;
> 2. **location** in the here and **now** of everyday life situations
> and **settings** as the foundation of inquiry and method;
> 3. a form of **theory and theorizing** stressing **interpretation**
> **and understanding** of human existence;
> 4. a logic and process of inquiry that is **open-ended,**
> flexible, opportunistic, **and requires constant redefinition**
> of what is problematic, based on facts gathered in **concrete**
> **settings** of human existence;
> 5. an **in-depth, qualitative, case study** approach and design;
> 6. the performance of a participant role or roles that
> involves establishing and maintaining relationships with
> 7. the use of **direct observation along with other methods** of
> gathering information. (Jorgensen, 1989, p.13)

As a research tool, Hader and Linderman (1933) defined and
provided a rationale for the use of participant observations as
follows:

> Participant observation is based on the theory that
> an interpretation of an event can only be approximately
> correct when it is a composite of two points of view,
> the outside and the inside.  Thus the view of the person
> who was a participant in the event, whose wishes and
> interests were in some way involved, and the view of
> the person who was not a participant but only an
> observer, or analyst, coalesce in one full synthesis.
> (p. 148)

Participant observations were recorded in field notes form.
Spradley (1979) recommends four types of field notes: the

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condensed (verbatim) account; an expanded record developed as soon as possible after the field session; a "field work journal" containing experiences, ideas, fears, mistakes, confusions, breakthroughs, and problems; and a provisional record of analysis and interpretation. These notes are only one part of the ethnographic data collection procedures. Kirk and Miller (1986) specified the four steps as follows: invention, discovery, interpretation, and explanation. The invention is the research design stage; discovery is the observation or measurement stage; interpretation is when evaluation and analysis take place; and explanation is when a final message is produced. During the interpretation stage the researcher "reads the field" within the context of his/her data. He/she needs to check the notes for validity and reliability.

Reliability refers to the extent to which a procedure, especially measurement, yields the same result with repeated usage (Jorgensen, 1989). In principle, participant observation procedures can usually be expected to result in the same findings. In practice, however, it is exceptionally difficult because these methods are adapted to specific settings and questions, as the researcher deems appropriate. Conversely, participant observation

methods should be dependable and produce trustworthy findings.

This methodological view presents an interrelation between reliability and validity. To check the validity and reliability of participant observations Wiseman (1970) and Jorgensen (1989) recommended:

> 1. using multiple procedures for evidence, such as direct experience and observation, different forms of interviews, and different informants, artifacts, and documents;
> 2. asking whether, and the extent to which, the researcher's procedures have provided direct access to the insider's world;
> 3. describing fully and discussing the procedures used to collect information;
> 4. subjecting the research procedures to debate and testing in the experience and judgment of everyone reading the final report.

For this research project multiple procedures were used, the procedures are further described in the next chapter, and the final report was made available for those units that participated in the study.

As a participant observer, observations were made of all processes, informal interviews, and participation with employees. The means and level of participation depended upon how much the organization allowed the researcher to become involved and on the "welcoming" to the organization. Welcoming refers to the level of cooperation provided by all employees. The researcher tried to

enhance the welcoming by performing informal interviews before
formal ones, and by keeping an interest in employees' jobs.   The
main purpose for participating was to learn what it was like to be
a member of that organization.   At least 32 research (contact)
hours were spent with employees at each unit.   When questions were
asked to employees, the language was simplified.   The key items to
procure from employees were the questions under sections one, two,
and four of the <u>Plan for Formal Interview</u>.

## Qualitative Data Collection

The qualitative data collected was descriptive information
that emphasized the subjective cultural system shared by
organizational members.   Although the process may have been
subjective, the combined methods are valuable because they were
able to identify characteristic forms and influences of
organizational culture.   Woods (1989) stated that:

> other scholars have attempted to use only
> quantitative methods to assess organizational
> cultures...these methods are generalizable,
> there are also problems...tend to only treat
> culture as an objective phenomenon by forcing
> organizations to fit into prescribed categories
> that often reflect little more than perceptions
> that the researcher held prior to beginning a
> study...have typically drawn generalizations
> first, and then forced organizations to define
> their own variety of culture in accordance with
> externally generated measures. (p. 53)

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Based on the data, and in consultation and approval of Dr. Woods and Dr. Murrmann, a questionnaire was developed with statements that should describe the organizational culture. This questionnaire was a modification of his questionnaire and incorporated statments from the qualitative data collected. Last, the quantitative method was used to substantiate the qualitative data collected in this research. The use of multiple methods for data collection improved the content validity of the procedure.

## CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

It was proposed that organizational culture within an organization could be measured. Additionally, observations and a questionnaire were completed to determine the perceived existing organizational culture from the perception of management and employees. The data obtained from the observations and the questionnaire was analyzed to investigate the perceptions and usage of organizational culture in order to address research question and the four hypotheses.

### Operational Definitions for Quantitative Testing
The premise of this study is that there was not a definitive method of measuring organizational culture of businesses in an

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unstable highly competitive market such as the food service industry. The quantitative testing examined the level of agreement of organizational culture. This was one of the most important aspects of the study. The dependent and independent variables are discussed in the following two sections.

## Level of agreement

Level of agreement is the dependent variable of the study. A Likert Scale was developed with statements describing the organizational culture. The respondents rated statements on the scale between "strongly agree" and "strongly disagree". These statements were recollections of qualitative data. The response represents the employee or management description of the organizational culture. (The complete process is explained in detail in the quantitative methods section).

## Level in the organization

Level in the organization was the independent variable of this study. The congruency between the two levels: management and employees, were evaluated by comparing the means of the "really done" and "should be done" by analysis of variance technique. The purpose of this procedure is to evaluate whether the two

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organizational levels perceive the organizational culture the same way (Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, & Sanders, 1990; Woods, 1989).

## Quantitative Methods

In addition, quantitative methods were used to provide a means for comparison and generalizations. A survey was developed from the qualitative measures. In other words, statements included in the survey were unique for these organizations and this survey was designed after all the qualitative data was analyzed in detail.

Schwarz and Hippler (1987) reported that the construction of precoded questions should be based on the responses to open-ended questions obtained during pilot studies. The qualitative data collection process was viewed as a pre-test study from which the survey was developed.

The survey developed for this organization was pretested further by administering it to corporate administrators and managers. The "customized questionnaire" was pretested to verify the information collected qualitatively and to confirm what the researcher believed that she heard from the informants. The

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questionnaire was pretested until agreement was attained in terms of the descriptors of the specific organizational culture. The purpose of the final survey was to test the reliability of the qualitative findings and measure the congruency between the beliefs and the actions. This survey was also given to few employees to make certain that they understood the instructions and the statements. This pre-testing was done by me, reading each statement and asking if they understood the question. The final survey is included in Appendix B.

Each employee and manager in the sample rated each survey statement two times, once for each criterion. They assigned a score of 1-5 (1-strongly agree, to 5-strongly disagree) to each statement. The first response (column) represented their perception of how much each statement reflects the way things are "really done" in the company. The second response was a rating of how much each statement reflects how things "should be done" in the company.

The quantitative test used to determine statistical congruence was the analysis of variance (ANOVA). The comparison between the means of the "really done" and "should be done"

demonstrated the extent to which all employees think the organization is achieving what it could. The difference between the employees' and managers' responses revealed the extent to which there was a "shared" view of the culture artifacts (descriptors).

## THE QUESTIONNAIRE

After evaluating observations and ethnographic collected data, nineteen statements were developed. They are as follows:

**1. The main purpose of my job is to make the students happy.**
All managers interviewed reported this underlying message, therefore this statement is part of the questionnaire to test the employees beliefs.

**2. We provide as many alternatives of foods to the students to keep them coming back.**
This is part of the philosophy of the parent company. The "branded" concepts are a manifestation of this philosophy.

**3. When you need help, you go to a manager or a supervisor to get some help from a fellow worker.**
About 4 managers stated that new employees are "afraid" of asking for help from fellow workers. This statement was included to see if most employees felt that they cannot ask for help by themselves.

**4. A server must always be nice to the customer.**
Many of the employees observed and interviewed, stressed the importance of the customer and the policy that the "customer is always right". This statement is a modification of that policy.

**5. We like to think of ourselves as a "family".**

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The purpose of this statement is to study commitment and interaction between employees and managers. In general, to test human relations within the unit and with the parent company.

**6. Customer complaints are handled promptly and efficiently.**
All managers interviewed ensured that complaints are handled in that manner. They also said that "management by walking around" was a manifestation of that belief.

**7. As an employee, I am encouraged to come up with new ways of doing my job better.**
Some managers, about 3, stated that employees are encouraged to be creative.

**8. "Truth" is a key value in this company. It is very important that we tell each other the "truth".**
Four of the managers complained about employees lying.

**9. To come to work on time is very important.**
This is a policy of most companies. In this company employees are punished for tardiness and they are not allowed to "make-up" the tardy; i.e. "I stay this afternoon fifteen extra minutes, since I was late this morning". Production schedules are not very flexible and the company cannot benefit of the fifteen minutes at the end of the day.

**10. I feel that I can talk to any of the managers about my personal problems and they are willing to listen and give me advice.**
The purpose of this statement is to test the level of trust of managers. A positive response will also demonstrate good relationships between employees and managers.

**11. High quality food is expected to taste good.**
This question tries to test the understanding of "good food" by employees and managers.

**12. High quality food is expected to be served at the correct and safe temperature.**
Temperature control is part of training manuals. This statement should reveal how much the policy is enforced.

**13. The main purpose of my job is to help the company to make money. This way employees can get wages increased.**

In most companies, there is a gap between the parent company business philosophy of "making money" and how employees understand it. In most business the first priority is to make money, but employees do not <u>clearly</u> understand the meaning of this philosophy.

### 14. The most important factor for promotion is years of service.

Most employees valued the opinion of "tenured" employees, however they are not very committed to the parent company. The purpose of this statement was to see how they valued years of experience.

### 15. The way to get my salary increased is to do a better job and get a good evaluation.

This was a very clear message given to me by managers. The purpose of this statement was to review the employee understanding and level of agreement.

### 16. Our dining room and kitchen must be clean and orderly at all times.

Managers were always "inspecting" the condition of the kitchen and of the dining rooms. The purpose of this statement was to see the level of agreement between employees and managers.

### 17. I am encouraged to have fun at work.

Most of the managers interviewed, valued the importance of employees having fun at work. The purpose of this statement was to test how much this message was conveyed and believed by employees.

### 18. The quality of food served is very important for management.

This statement was part of the policies of the company. By responding to this statement employees demonstrated whether management has disseminated this policy to most employees.

### 19. I feel that my work environment is of caring. Management and workers care about me.

The purpose of this statement was to test if employees had an intrinsic motivation to go to work every day.

These statements were further classified into policy making and values statements. The reason to classify statements into this dichotomy was because the policies are in many cases developed by management and values evolve from the work environment and by how employees respond to that environment. The statements classified as policy making were: 2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 12, 16 and 18. The statements classified as values statements were: 1, 4, 6, 8, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17 and 19. Data were analyzed separately for each unit. Management responses were compared to those of employees for each set of statements, which allowed for the measurement of the organizational culture.

## SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This research project applied both qualitative: formal interviews, participant observations, informal interviews, and archival studies; and quantitative methods. A comprehensive search of the literature was completed to assess the need for this study, and to help determine the types of shared values, assumptions, beliefs, and norms that unite the members of an organization. The "consensus questionnaire" developed uncovered what the employees, managers, and the researcher (acting as a participant observant) described as the organizational culture.

Furthermore, it was expected that the process of measuring organizational culture in the manner employed in this study could reveal common important attributes of organizational culture. The method or measure resulting from this study is intended to form the basis for measuring organizational culture in food service operations, and may serve as a guide for other types of businesses to measure their organizational culture.

# CHAPTER FOUR

## RESEARCH FINDINGS

The previous chapter introduced the research question and hypotheses used to guide the research, as well as the concept of organizational culture. This chapter presents the data extracted from the interviews, observations, and the survey instrument. The results of qualitative and statistical analysis described in the preceding chapter are presented. The first part of the chapter deals with the preliminary analysis relating to the qualitative evaluation of interviews. The second part of the chapter addresses the archival studies. The third section address the observations. The fourth section discusses a more effective means of systematically measuring organizational culture and the final section discusses the research hypotheses and testing.

## PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS

### Survey Response:

The three operations chosen were differentiated by sales volume: one was a small account (A), the second was a large

account, which included B1, B2, B3, and B4, and the third one was medium size (C). The parent company has a large market share of the non-commercial (institutional) food service market.

**Table 4.1** displays the information concerning the response of

**Table 4.1:** <u>**Survey of Participants**</u>

|  | Managers | | Employees | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **UNIT** | **N** | **%** | **N** | **%** |
| **A1** | 3 | 100 | 15 | 88 |
| **B1** | 3 | 80 | 21 | 84 |
| **B2** | 5 | 83 | 36 | 95 |
| **B3** | 6 | 86 | 36 | 92 |
| **B4** | 3 | 100 | 18 | 90 |
| **C1** | 4 | 100 | 27 | 93 |
| **MEAN** | | 89 | | 91 |

the study. Six independent units under three major non-commercial (institutional) food service organizations were involved in this study. There were 24 managers and 153 employees interviewed. These samples represented 89% of the management and 91% of the employees. The reason why these samples are not higher is because employees were off, on leave, or inaccessible at the time of data

collection for the survey. To collect the quantitative data with this survey, the researcher visited the units in two different days to collect the survey responses. In most cases, this time was above the 32 contact hours that were spent with employees earlier.

## Respondent Characteristics

Table 4.2 displays the characteristics of the respondents of management and the study in terms of tenureship. For both groups, management and employees, tenure was the years with the specific unit and/or that particular food service facility, instead of defining tenure with the parent company.

Table 4.2: **Employees Tenure-Years in Organization**

| | MANAGEMENT | | | | LINE EMPLOYEES | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Unit | 0-1 | 1-2 | 2-5 | +5 | 0-1 | 1-2 | 2-5 | +5 |
| A1 | 2 | 1 | | | 2 | 3 | 5 | 5 |
| B1 | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 9 | 7 |
| B2 | | | 2 | 3 | 1 | 5 | 11 | 19 |
| B3 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 4 | 2 | 21 | 9 |
| B4 | 1 | | 1 | 1 | 7 | 9 | 2 | |
| C1 | 2 | 2 | | | 3 | 3 | 4 | 17 |
| N | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 19 | 25 | 52 | 51 |

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Tenure was defined in that way because of the potential relationship with the organizational culture.

<center>STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS</center>

Structured in-depth interviews with management and employees of the three food services contracting operations, including 6 different units, discussed in chapter three were conducted using a modified version of the Level of Meaning outline for interviewing developed by Woods (1991). A total of 24 managers were interviewed and the results were very informative. A summary of the interviews is as follows:

**1. Organizational Culture**

Definition of organizational culture - 14 of the 24 managers that were interviewed had no immediate idea of what the term organizational culture really means. Once the term was defined, they were very comfortable with discussing their perceptions. It was observed that only the top managers and managers that have received company training knew the definition of the term.

**2. Manifestations of Organizational Culture**

Obvious manifestations of the organization - The managers reported manifestations similar to any type of food service

operation. The physical layouts have changed from years ago. This company is going towards branded concepts, and they are trying the "mall" layout, whenever it is possible. In many instances, especially in older units, they have to work within the limits of the equipment and facilities provided which at times could be inappropriate because of unstructured layouts and designs. However, all managers agreed that they could function within the immediate physical environment.

There was a shared concern for the expectations of producing quality products and services, but it was agreed by most managers this concern was limited by budget and by an insufficient number of employees. Therefore, while quality and service were expected, budgetary constraints could present a problem for meeting organizational expectations in such areas. A symbolic artifact for all of the units is the commitment to product and service excellence. In most cases, four out of the six units, the guarantee to customer and the creed of the company is displayed.

When managers were asked to respond concerning unwritten rules, 22 of them, 92%, responded very early in their answer concerning some quantitative commitment such as they were expected to stay within their budget. Even though they had mentioned

quality and service as being two of the most important elements of their concern early on in the interviews, job survival and controlling cost appeared to be the most important.

An unwritten rule in terms of management style observed in all units was "management by walking around". All managers walked through the service areas, kitchens, and dining rooms for the purpose of interacting with employees and customers. It is a way to demonstrate that they are proud of what they do and serve.

When managers were asked whether they could think of a story that was unique to the organization, it was very interesting to see that 14 of the 24 respondents, 58%, provided a past history of something that was negative. Once they were asked to explain their response it was usually centered around rumor rather than fact. However, some managers, n=10; 42%, did respond with a positive story concerning some type of reward or incident that they were proud of or had a part in implementing it.

In one particular unit, there was a minority member manager, dealing with a group of young employees (below 25 years of age) that had a "silly" and "I do not care attitude". This manager was trying to develop a "right attitude" group by requiring employees

(25%). Managers felt that a multi-unit budget did not take unit specific activities into account.

## Public Service

Public service - not many activities were in place. There was mention of food baskets for Thanksgiving, but employees brought most of the food for it. Also they provide some food for blood drives. None of the units surveyed appear to have any specific plans for public service or social responsibility. The best can be said is that the organizations were willing to cater menus for cookouts, but the main purpose was for marketing purposes. It was stated that any activities requiring expenditures had to be approved by corporate officers. The purpose of this approval was for record keeping. The corporate office likes to promote those activities.

## 4.    Values of the Organization

Values of the organization - there was a consensus by all of the managers interviewed that service was one of the values of the organization. The manifestation of service was stated as "making students happy" and "handling complaints promptly and

efficiently". Twelve (50%) of the managers also mentioned courtesy. The manifestation was stated as "being nice to the customer". All 24 managers mentioned quality, manifested by "tasting good", and "served at the correct and safe temperature". Refer to the quantitative questionnaire, described in this same chapter, that includes the statements developed to measured congruency between managers and employees.

Should be done - activities were limited. All but four (17%) of the managers stated that while service and quality were activities that "should be done", staying within their budgets was still an overriding factor (must be done).

Activities not to be done - being discourteous to customers or some activity that may cause the corporation to have a contract violation were mentioned as "no", "noes". There was a promotion for safety activities, so they were trying to have short training sessions and posters in Spanish and English with things not to do. There was a "competition" within the region to have the least number of accidents.

The most important responsibilities - staying within the operating budget and not having any type of contract violation

with the institution. These two activities were also stated as the key values of the different corporations and although quality and service may be two of the organizational values; these were overriding factors. Employees said that cleaning as you go and keeping the kitchen orderly and clean at all times were very important activities.

Definition of work - For managers, it was defined as not being wasteful, doing the best job possible with limited resources. For employees, it was staying busy, instead of idle.

Truth - was defined in the same general terms by all of the managers, to be honest with the parent company. For employees it meant honesty with your fellow workers and to your supervisors. Managers knew that job survival depended upon satisfying the customers, staying within the budget, and not violating any of the terms of the contract. They agreed in general that the truth for the organization was staying within their budgets and two of them said even if it meant really "cutting corners". The reality is that some of the manager did cut corners, but were not willing to reveal it.

Perks or special privileges - were basically found at the upper management level. Those privileges were: renting cars, bonuses, and job security not related to cost control. Middle management: unit and general managers had to deal directly with controlling cost and contract violations in the operating units.

Organizational events - were not really in existence. Managers attended some seminars for training purposes but this was usually at the district management level.

Social events - three (13%) of the managers said that they had Christmas parties and company picnics but they were not impressed with these activities. Many employees are reluctant to attend.

Political events - their were no political events that could be thought of by any of the managers.

## SUMMARY OF THE INTERVIEWS

The evaluation of these interviews clearly revealed that top managers have specific perceptions of organizational

values, but the preexistent and primordial thought is that
their job survival is more dependent upon working within
their prescribed budgets and upon evasion of any contract
violation.   The activities of service and quality must be
maintained within the budgetary constraints.   In addition,
all of the managers felt that employee turnover was a major
problem.   These were the overall concerns and evaluation of
the interviews; an evaluation of the artifacts follows.


## EXAMINATION OF ARTIFACTS


An examination of the artifacts supported some of the
statements made by the managers.   An evaluation of organizational
artifacts is extremely important because an organization's
paradigm and cultural artifacts can explain how different ways of
thinking and different cultural elements can lead to different
points of view (Johnson, 1992).   In all six of the facilities the
layout and design of the facility was not constructed to maximize
time and motion.   In the majority of the facilities the
contractors had no control over physical layout since they had
taken over existing facilities.   Therefore, the culture of the
organizational would have had no influence over the implementation

of these factors. With the help of the non-commercial (institutional) facilities, all units; except unit A1, the smallest account, and B2, one of the oldest units within the largest account, are changing color schemes. The "branding" of concepts is also changing the layouts of the units.

Even though all food service personnel wore some type of uniform, less than half (45%) of the employees had any type of company logo or name of their organization on their uniforms. Uniforms have a tendency to develop a feel of belongingness and esprit de corps.

The written materials that were reviewed did not indicate a great deal of concern for employees. The main concern was for safety, since it could represent saving of capital for the parent company. However, training materials and mission statements did reflect concern for customers and quality production. Most of the training materials are not very well utilized, because of a "lack of time." In many of the managers offices there were company-produced video-tapes and manuals, but the general attitude is that "There is no time for training."

## OBSERVATIONS

When observing routine operations employees were busy ("doing some type of task") the majority of the time and because of this in some cases sanitation practices were not being implemented as efficient as they should have been. Overall the employees were doing an excellent job with the resources available. The quality of food was definitely lacking during weekend operations.

Human relations practices did not appear to be a problem in that the majority of employees worked as a team. However, human relations were lacking in a few instances when addressing the dinners at one of the facilities. One manager displayed a "take it or leave it" attitude toward service and toward customers. This was not in keeping with the expected norms or values of the corporation. Also, because management was usually assisting workers during the meal period it may have been difficult for managers to communicate as well with employees and customers. The majority of the managers displayed total control of the operations but there were six managers (25%) who appeared to be somewhat overwhelmed during meal times.

One negative aspect observed in operations was a tendency on the part of management to assume that informal on-the-job-training was an appropriate substitute for formal training. With the exception of management training programs, most employees did not receive formal training but were trained by informal on-the-job training. There was no prescribed schedule for training, an employee was usually given basic instruction and then his/her supervisor would perform the rest of the task. The company policies stated that employees should be trained for the first six months, but the only spelled out schedule was the orientation period. I only observed two employees "in-training", but conversations with managers indicated that the main, and almost the only possible way to train his/her employees was by informal on-the-job-training. Most manager, n=18, stated that they "did not have time" for training. The main problem is that when the employee is hired he/she is badly needed for production, therefore, his/her training is rushed.

The parent company does have several video tapes for training and on one of the day's visits, they brought a visiting pastissier to work in one of the bakeries with employees. I did get the impression that managers, at all levels, did not value training as much as they should.

One exception, where there was formal training, was for safety at work: appropriate ways to lift, move, etc., and correct ways to handle, store, and use different chemicals. The rationale or motive for this subject of training could be financial; safety training does saves dollars in labor-hours, compensation, and chemical's expenses. The positive financial effect of this type of training could be measured specifically.

## QUESTIONNAIRE DATA

Using all this analyzed data, a questionnaire with 19 statements was developed. The complete questionnaire is included in Appendix B, and a detailed list of the statement was specified in Chapter 3. Each employee and manager in the sample rated each survey statement two times, once for each criterion: "really done" and "should be done". The first response (column) represented their perception of how much each statement reflects the way things are "really done" in the company. The second response was a rating of how much each statement reflects how things "should be done" in the company. They assigned a score of 1-5 (1-strongly agree, to 5-strongly disagree) to each statement.

Responses from managers were compared to employees responses
by an analysis of variance (ANOVA). The statements were further
classified into policy making and values statements. The
statements classified as policy making were: 2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 12,
16 and 18. The statements classified as values statements were:
1, 4, 6, 8, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17 and 19. Data were analyzed
separately for each unit. Management responses were compared to
those of employees for each set of statements.

## Research Question:

The research project was guided by the research question: " Can
organizational culture be systematically measured within the
hospitality industry?" This question was an extension of the work
by Woods (1989).

## Hypotheses Testing:

It was proposed that organizational culture within an
organization could be measured. Data obtained through observation
and the questionnaire were collected to establish the perceived

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existing organizational culture from the viewpoint of management and employees. The data was further analyzed to investigate the perceptions and usage of organizational culture in order to address the following research hypotheses:

## The Hypotheses:

Based upon a review of the literature and existing theory, four hypotheses were developed to guide the research objectives of this study. The first hypothesis was evaluated through the use of qualitative data.

> Ho 1: The **perceptions** of the organizational culture held by **management** are not same as the perceptions of organizational culture held by **employees.**

**Table 4.3** displays and summarizes the different answers provided by managers and employees on the qualitative investigation of the study. Neither management nor employees were able to provide a formal, operational definition of culture. Management indicated that the main underlying motive of the organization was to control the budget. This differed from the underlying motive as viewed by employees in the organization. Employees indicated that the main motive was good food and service.

Table 4.3: <u>Summary of Qualitative Data</u>

| Question: | Managers | Employees |
|---|---|---|
| Definition of **Organizational Culture** | None given | None given |
| Underlying Motives of the Organization, **Routine Doings** | Budget control | Good food and service |
| Sociostructural System of **Motivation** | Partially by financial rewards ewards | Almost non-existent |
| Sociostructural Process of **Communication** | Viewed as Good | Fair to Poor |
| Sociostructural Policies of **Training** | Excellent | Poor |
| Process of **Evaluation** | Good | Fair to Poor |
| Policy of **inducements,** incentives and **wage increase(s)** | Fairly Good | Poor |
| Definition of **Work** | Productive | Busy |
| Organizational Output of **Customer Service** | Good | Good |

When asked about motivational devices, management, in general responded that they are partially motivated by financial rewards, while employees believed that the motivational devices for their group were almost non-existent. Management reported that the communication process throughout their units, in general, was overall good; but employees disagreed describing it as being fair

to poor. As discussed earlier, the training policies and enforcement was self-reported by managers, as excellent, but employees received fair to poor training.

Related to the process of evaluation of employees, managers considered it to be good but employees disagreed. Employees described it as fair to poor. Employees' assessment was based on the premise that evaluation should be linked to compensation and promotion. Their beliefs were "Why get an evaluation twice a year and get increases only every two years or so? And even every two years, What will five cents an hour do for me? Most employees questioned the value of evaluations. Related to that answer is the policy of inducements, incentives and wage increase(s): management reported that it is fairly good for them, however, employees evaluated as fair to poor. About half of the managers considered this company policy to be inadequate; they expressed frustration when dealing with "good" employees, and with being unable to give them wage increases more often. Employees reported the overall message that "this industry does not pay."

When employees and managers were interviewed about a definition of work, it was defined by employees as being busy and by managers as being productive. This demonstrates a gap of

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underlying values.    Lastly,   in   terms   of   customer   service,
management as well as employees agreed that it is good.


Since there was agreement only in one answer it is concluded
that the first null hypothesis was supported by qualitative data.
A   difference   was   found   between   organizational   culture's
perceptions between manager and employees.


Management may have perceived that certain activities were
occurring while in fact it appeared that the actions and attitudes
of managers were one of just getting by from day-to-day.  Since in
most cases this was occurring both in attitudes and action, it was
closer to demonstrating the culture of an organization than all of
the other attributes that were mentioned.   Employees definitely
appeared and admitted that they operated in a mode of trying to
make it from one meal to another as best they could because of the
limited amount of resources in the areas of time and personnel.
Therefore, the null hypothesis could not be rejected based on an
evaluation   of   the   quantitative   data.    The   perceptions   of
organizational culture of management was not the same as that of
employees.    As stated by Webster (1992), there can be a gap
between what employees consider to be the ideal culture and what
they perceive to be the organizational culture.

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Table 4.4 portrays how null hypothesis two was

partially supported using qualitative and quantitative data

collected in the study.

Ho 2: There is no significant difference between the way that
managers and employees perceive the **way things are done** in
their company.

Table 4.4: <u>**Results of Analysis of Variance:**</u>
<u>**Managers and Employees Actions:**</u>
<u>**"Way Things Are Done" in the**</u>
<u>**Organization**</u>

| Unit | D$f$ | Means | F-values |
|------|------|-------|----------|
| A1 | 1 | E 1.495<br>M 2.000 | 2.95 |
| B1 | 1 | E 1.308<br>M 2.158 | 17.72* |
| B2 | 1 | E 1.567<br>M 2.232 | 10.41* |
| B3 | 1 | E 1.883<br>M 2.897 | 15.60* |
| B4 | 1 | E 1.927<br>M 2.211 | 1.84 |
| C1 | 1 | E 2.025<br>M 2.004 | 0.01 |

* $p \leq 0.01$

Three of the four units within the largest organization of the

study demonstrated significant differences between the means

scores for managers and employees on the way that managers and

employees perceive the way things are done in their company. Two

of these three units are also the oldest units for that account.

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In general, those three units have most of the employees and had less effective communication between employees and managers. Different levels of management-top or middle-may have different perceptions of organizational culture, management and employees can have different perceptions of organizational culture (Keeton & Mengistu, 1992). Units A1 and C1 are small and medium-size accounts, respectively, and there was agreement on the way things are done in their units, i.e. mean scores for managers and employees on the way things are done in those units were not statistically significant. Based on the above data the null hypothesis was rejected.

Null hypothesis three is as follows:

> Ho 3: There is no significant difference between the way that managers and employees perceive the way things should be done in their company.

An analysis of the mean composite scores for managers and employees on items related to beliefs concerning "the way things should be done in the organization" showed no significant difference for all but one unit (Table 4.5).

The null hypothesis was not rejected even though the literature has supported a tendency to report a difference between what is expected at the different levels within an organization

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(Keeton & Mengistu, 1992). Additionally, the literature supports the premise that regardless of how strong the organizational culture may be, there will be some forces that stray away from what should be done (Golden, 1992). The findings demonstrated that in this study the alternate hypothesis was not supported.

Table 4.5: **Results of Analysis of Variance Managers and Employees Beliefs: "The Way Things Should Be Done" in the Organization**

| UNITS | D$f$ | Means | F-value |
|-------|------|-------|---------|
| A1 | 1 | E 1.505<br>M 1.579 | 0.07 |
| B1 | 1 | E 1.377<br>M 1.719 | 3.07 |
| B2 | 1 | E 2.056<br>M 1.664 | 0.44 |
| B3 | 1 | E 2.332<br>M 1.432 | 19.18* |
| B4 | 1 | E 1.161<br>M 1.561 | 4.11 |
| C1 | 1 | E 1.690<br>M 1.386 | 1.77 |

* $p \leq 0.01$

The results of the evaluation of hypothesis four are presented in **Table 4.6.** The perceptions of organizational culture may be understood but employees may perform differently. This last null hypothesis was stated as follows:

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HO 4: The perceptions of organizational culture of **management are understood by employees** and these perceptions are **not practiced by employees.**

**Table 4 - 6:** **Results of Analysis of Variance; Managers and Employees Values ("should be done") Versus Managers and Employees Practices (policies, "really done")**

| | Values, SBD | | | Policies, RD | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Unit | Df | Means | F-values | Df | Means | F-values |
| A1 | 1 | E 1.636<br>M 1.727 | 0.04 | 1 | E 1.283<br>M 2.375 | 25.39* |
| B1 | 1 | E 1.344<br>M 1.909 | 3.88 | 1 | E 1.143<br>M 1.958 | 8.42* |
| B2 | 1 | E 2.566<br>M 1.929 | 0.42 | 1 | E 1.344<br>M 1.950 | 8.34* |
| B3 | 1 | E 2.520<br>M 1.473 | 13.43* | 1 | E 1.604<br>M 2.104 | 9.64* |
| B4 | 1 | E 1.273<br>M 1.788 | 3.14 | 1 | E 1.604<br>M 1.959 | 1.20 |
| C1 | 1 | E 1.808<br>M 1.667 | 0.15 | 1 | E 2.051<br>M 2.469 | 1.36 |

$* \ p \leq 0.01$

Hypothesis four was supported by the data. It was clear that employees understood the organizational perceptions. The evaluation of values in the way things should be done (perceptions) between management and employees demonstrated that in all units except in one, B3, the answers were not significantly different. On the other side, the practice of those perceptions,

was significantly difference between employees and management, in four of the units (A1, B1, B2, B3). The practice of perceptions was measured by the responses to policy statements on the "way things were really done."

Upper management may fail to communicate and motivate employees (Healey, 1993). Because of a lack of communication, the perceptions of organizational culture of management may not be performed by employees. It was observed that in some cases employees may have understood the values of the organizational culture of management but failed to see the feasibility of engaging in associated activities. In general, employees understand the organizational culture but have difficulty with the manifestations of the culture. Stated differently, employees understand the culture but disagree with management on the way things are really done.

## SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

The main focus of this chapter was to present an analysis of the qualitative and quantitative data. The first section of the chapter discussed the results of the structured interviews with

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management personnel to evaluate the type of culture, values, or norms of the organization. The second section addressed the observations of artifacts that may display the overall attitude and values of management and employees. The third section discussed the observations of the actual performance of the operating units to evaluate if activities were being performed as discussed and evaluated through the interviews and artifacts. The fourth section tested the hypotheses and their relationships. The study was successful as the study revealed that you can systematically measure organizational culture. In the next chapter a more efficient manner for measuring organizational culture will be discussed.

# CHAPTER FIVE

## DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The focus of this study was to extend the body of knowledge as it pertains to measuring organizational culture. The premise of this study is that there was not a definitive method of measuring organizational culture of businesses in an unstable highly competitive market such as the food service industry. The study examined organizational culture in six non-commercial (institutional) settings of a college food service contractor. The results of the study demonstrated that there is a systematic mechanism of measuring and assessing organizational culture. The main components of organizational culture as related to the study were also defined.

The purpose of this study was twofold, (1) to develop a survey instrument for the purpose of measuring organizational culture and (2) to conduct an investigation of the ideals of organizational culture of management and unit employees. It was

hypothesized that the dependent variable, level of agreement among statements that describe the organizational culture within an non-commercial (institutional) food service operations, was influenced by the level in the organization.

This research project was successful because of the cooperation provided by the hospitality industry and in the industry's understanding of how important it is to try and develop a competitive advantage. Integrating the different theoretical models and being allowed to extend the research by Woods (1989) was invaluable to the completion of the project. Woods used a commercial food service organization for his study and this study used the non-commercial (institutional) setting of college food service contractors. According to Standard & Poors, March 17, 1994, while the expected revenue for the commercial sector may account for 244.1 billion in sales in 1994, the non-commercial (institutional) food service industry will account for 29.9 billion in sales with the military accounting for 1.1 billion in sales. The amount of sales in the commercial sector makes it valid for researchers to be concerned about the difference between commercial and non-commercial (institutional) food service since both are vital for employment and for our economy.

Additionally, the organizational culture of commercial operations and non-commercial (institutional) operations can be quite different since commercial operations rely heavily on sales. While an organizational culture of providing outstanding service may be an asset to commercial and non-commercial (institutional) facilities, suggestively selling of those products with a higher contribution margin would be more common for commercial establishments. Therefore, the types of attributes can cause a major difference in the values and culture shared by management and employees. When operations are driven by sales the values, norms, and in some cases ethical practices of these operations can be quite different. An utilitarian view of ethics can be applied by unit managers that are subject to the measurement of quantitative data as a mean of survival on the job. This can have an effect on the organizational culture of the operating unit and is why the investigation of non-commercial (institutional) operations was important to this study.

## SYSTEMATIC METHOD FOR MEASURING ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

As a result of the evaluation of quantitative data and qualitative analysis a systematic five step method of measuring organizational culture can be completed more expeditiously by

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eliminating and consolidating the measuring technique presented by
Woods (1989). By eliminating ambiguous questions and those
questions that did not provide significant data more organizations
would make use of the measuring method. A more feasible and
expeditious method that has evolved as a result of this study is
as follows:

## Step 1.

Interview upper management to determine their organizational
values using the following questions:

a. What values or norms would you like to see as a part
of the operational procedures of this organization and
do you think that they are realistic?

b. What activities have you implemented to ensure that
these norms or values can exist?

c. What is the most important objective of the
organization and are those objectives compatible to
your stated norms and values that you have tried to
implement?

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d. Are these activities clearly stated or alluded to in your mission statement?

e. Do you not think those values and norms are being practiced in unit operations? If not, what have you done to change the situation and why do you think they are different from what you wanted to be implemented?

These five questions are the only questions I would ask of management. While it is clear that you must have the input from management as to what is expected, from the answers given to my interviews, the additional information that was asked in the outline developed by the Levels of Meaning and by Woods were not as significant.

The questionnaire was too time consuming and it was hard to have the managers' full cooperation. However, these four questions are important because even in highly ordered organizations, individuals can depart from the expected organizational culture (Golden, 1992). It is also important to ask these same questions of managers at different levels as

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managers at different level may have a different perception of organizational culture (Keeton & Mengistu, 1992).

## Step 2.

The evaluation of artifacts is very important in trying to surface the culture of an organization (Johnson, 1992). This would include an examination of the mission statement, policy manuals, training materials, memos, company reports, and any other type of materials that would be organizational specific. These archival studies provide objective data.

## Step 3.

Observations are of the utmost importance because regardless as to how tasks are suppose to be accomplished and in spite of the best training program, poor work habits can still exist. It is important to observe and talk with employees so that you can capture and record the opinions of the work force (Wilkerson & Kellogg, 1993).

## Step 4.

Questionnaires can reveal a lot of information about the leadership within an organization and its effects found within the

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culture (Bass & Avolio, 1993). The questionnaire that was part of this systematic method of measurement for this study is found in Appendix B. It was a modified version of the questionnaire used by Woods (1989) but only those statements that prove to be significant for the organization under study remained. First, an important factor for our service industry is that the researcher needs to pay particular attention to manifestations, rules, and procedures for the "service" area. For this research the statements were developed after qualitative data was collected and those used for such areas were:

1. The main purpose of my job is to make the students happy.
2. We provide as many alternatives of foods to the students to keep them coming back.
4. A server must always be nice to the customer.
6. Customer complaints are handled promptly and efficiently.
11. High quality food is expected to taste good.
12. High quality food is expected to be served at the correct and safe temperature.
16. Our dining room and kitchen must be clean and orderly at all times.
18. The quality of food served is very important for management.

The next important area is the area of human resources, in general: How are the relationships between managers and employees, and How are decision related to the employees made? The statements which related to this area were:

3. When you need help, you go to a manager or a supervisor to get some help from a fellow worker.
5. We like to think of ourselves as a "family".

7. As an employee, I am encouraged to come up with new ways of doing my job better.
8. "Truth" is a key value in this company.  It is very important that we tell each other the "truth".
9.  To come to work on time is very important.
10.  I feel that I can talk to any of the managers about my personal problems and they are willing to listen and give me advice.
13. The main purpose of my job is to help the company to make money.  This way employees can get wages increased.
14. The most important factor for promotion is years of service.
15. The way to get my salary increased is to do a better job and get a good evaluation.
17. I am encouraged to have fun at work.
19. I feel that my work environment is of caring.  Management and workers care about me.


Last, is to find out the unwritten rules, the policies, and the

general climate of the organization.  The most important part is

to uncover the underlying factors for the rules and how employees

get "cultured" into the organization.  During this study the

following statements described those factors:

5. We like to think of ourselves as a "family".
7. As an employee, I am encouraged to come up with new ways of doing my job better.
8. "Truth" is a key value in this company.  It is very important that we tell each other the "truth".
9.  To come to work on time is very important.
13. The main purpose of my job is to help the company to make money.  This way employees can get wages increased.
14. The most important factor for promotion is years of service.
15. The way to get my salary increased is to do a better job and get a good evaluation.
17. I am encouraged to have fun at work.

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<u>Step 5.</u>

The last step would be to evaluate the data of the above activities and analyze the strength(s) of organizational culture within an organization. This is extremely important since a stronger organizational culture is associated with better performance (Gordon & Di Tomaso, 1992).

<u>DISCUSSION</u>

This study used both qualitative and quantitative methods for data analysis. A review of the literature revealed that qualitative analysis is of utmost importance and needed before proceeding with developing a survey instrument to extract the quantitative data (Mawhinney, 1992; Morris, 1992; Ott, 1992). Organizational culture is a concept that is difficult to define because of its interdisciplinary (anthropology, sociology, and business research) nature. However, the key components of organizational culture such as the business environment, values, heroes, norms, rites, rituals, and cultural network, were basically the same for all previous major studies. Therefore,

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this study was directed by these same basic concepts and variables.

Neither academics nor practitioners have succeeded in designing a model to measure organizational culture. A comprehensive literature review was conducted of different theoretical models that had been used to measure organization culture. An empirically-driven conceptual model to measure organizational culture was developed. The model developed to measure organizational culture is intended to help focus future theory testing efforts and to accelerate the advancement of measuring organizational culture.

Additionally, the findings support the need for employee training in the area of organizational culture in operating units that are distant from the main campus office and from corporate offices. Operations may not be performing as expected because of either unawareness of the organizational culture or because the culture is not deep rooted (strong) enough to be effective in the absence of direct supervision. These findings can be extended to include not only employees but also management. If the organizational culture is not very deeply rooted (or not strong)

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management also appear to deviate from what is expected. Without reinforcement training the strength of organizational culture may only be a factor in the short run (Gordon & Di Tomaso, 1992).

The results of the literature review and the investigation of the study has resulted in a viable method of measuring organizational culture. This method of measurement was used to assist in testing the hypotheses that are discussed below.

## THE HYPOTHESES

Based upon a review of the literature and existing theory, four hypotheses were developed to guide the research objectives of this study. The first hypothesis was evaluated through qualitative data and that hypothesis was as follows:

Ho 1: The **perceptions** of the organizational culture held by **management are** not the same as the perceptions of organizational culture held by **employees.**

Hypothesis one was not totally supported through the evaluation of the qualitative data. In many cases it appeared that employees may have been aware of the organizational culture of management but the employees had different perceptions of what

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was actually taking place. Therefore, while management may have a perceived culture the employees may differ because of their perceptions of management or because of their own sociocultural backgrounds. There can be a gap between what employees consider to be the ideal culture and what they perceive to be the organizational culture (Webster, 1992). This indifference is what causes this first hypothesis to be so difficult to evaluate. The explanation of the findings of this hypothesis is more aptly clarified in the subsequent analysis of the other hypotheses.

> Ho 2: There is no significant difference between the way that managers and employees perceive the **way things are done** in their company.

Hypothesis two was significantly supported by the findings. In hypothesis one there was not a great deal of agreement as to whether management and employees did or did not perceive the same organizational artifacts as important. However, in hypothesis two it was evident that while the perceptions may have been the same what was actually done in day-to-day operations were totally different. The danger of this is that this perceived difference in itself can develop a new organizational culture that may be totally different from what is expected by management.

The climate of an organization can be perceptually linked to organizational culture (Moran & Volkwein, 1992). There could have been several reasons for this difference in the way that activities were actually done and actual perceptions of requirements. In many cases inexperienced managers or managers that were not properly trained may have been the basis for some of this difference. To make this type of determination would take additional research in the area of training, leadership, and in some cases managerial ethics. This discrepancy in the way that things are done and the way that things should be done leads to the following hypothesis:

> Ho 3: There is no significant difference between the way that managers and employees perceive the way **things should be done** in their company.

Hypothesis three was supported. Management and employees had the same basic perceptions of how things should be done. The major problem seem to have occurred in hypothesis number two. Management and employees were in agreement with the way things should be done but not on the way things were done. During interviews it was discussed that in some cases management felt that they were overwhelmed with too many things to accomplish and not enough workers. Some workers felt that there were not enough

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workers and that they were not being paid enough for what was expected of them. In some of these circumstances had the culture of the organization been more people oriented, there may have been less incongruent between workers and management.

Since different units of the same organization were visited, there was consonance within some units and dissonance in others. When units are separated and different management styles and leadership styles are involved, operational activities and the perceptions within units can be quite different from those perceptions held by the corporate office. In some of these distant units the organizational culture can be consonant and in other units the organizational culture can be dissonant (Fleeger, 1993).

In the service-driven restaurant industry some operators are using effective motivational techniques to try and increase the performance of servers (Brooks, 1993). Some organizations are interested in strengthening the link between employees' pay and organizational performance with the purpose of increasing their enthusiasm (Guthrie & Cunninghan, 1992). Whether an organization is willing to apply severe means or use incentives, it is the

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perception of a vast majority of managerial personnel from many different firms and industries that employees are working at only about 65 percent of capacity (Snow & Alexander, 1992). This figure suggests that it is even more important that management make an all out effort to provide sufficient training for the purposes of understanding and developing the culture of the organization. If there is incongruency between management and employees a competitive edge is lost.

> Ho 4: The **perceptions** of organizational culture of management are **understood by employees** and these **perceptions are not practice by employees.**

Hypothesis four was supported by the data. It was clear that employees fully understood the organizational perceptions of management. Outstanding service is one of the most important attributes of the hospitality industry and is often a part of the organizational culture and mission statement. However, many operations in the hospitality industry do not have a commitment to customers with upper management failing to communicate and motivate employees towards its achievement (Healey, 1993).

The management perceptions of organizational culture may not be understood by employees because of this lack of communication.

Through out this research it was observed that in some cases employees may have understood the perceptions of the organizational culture of management but did not see how it was feasible to practice these activities. Some managers had perceptions about operations' management but in actuality they managed their units very differently. This provides an unclear message to employees and they get a double message of what is expected. Employees feel that the culture is not very strong or defined.

The data from the study indicates that it would be extremely difficult to measure organizational culture without using qualitative and quantitative methods. There are some aspects or differences of culture that can only be researched through observation and interviews. While some managers may perceive themselves as performing according to operational procedures, a result of the hypotheses testing illustrated that in many cases the employees did not perceive this as being true. Woods (1989) is correct in his theory that there must be some qualitative analysis especially through the use of observations and interviews.

Additionally, quantitative analysis also appears to provide a medium for employees and managers to freely give their perceptions of operations in a somewhat unbiased manner. The results of the hypotheses testing show that for a clear understanding of an organization both qualitative and quantitative analysis must be performed (Ott, 1991).

## LIMITATIONS

The first important limitation of this study is that organizational culture as a dissertation topic has post time limitations. Organizational culture is a topic that lends itself to longitudinal analysis. The method proposed for the study, however, was cross sectional or time specific. The research design that was used for this study was a slightly modified version of the study reported by Woods (1989).

The second limitation is an inability to generalize to the hospitality industry. The findings of this research are specific to each operation studied. Woods (1989) attempted to describe organizational culture for the restaurant industry. However, the newness of the topic as a research endeavor (for the hospitality industry) limits such generalizability.

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The third limitation is that although managers would like "solutions" for managing organizational culture, these solutions are not yet workable. This research does not provide quick solutions. The research topic is too new and it needs to be studied much more before causality and prescriptions can be developed. In addition, Woods (1989) refers to culture as "neither exclusive cause nor effect" (p. 309).

## IMPLICATIONS

The results of this research have several implications for the utilization of organizational culture as a competitive advantage in food service operations. First, it would be cost effective for managers to measure the strength of organizational culture within their operations. Food service operations will find that there is the potential for increasing employee satisfaction through the development of a strong organizational culture.

The current investigation, as well as earlier ones, has revealed that the organizational culture perceived by management

may not always be the activities that are being implemented in operating units. Due to this incongruence, when there is 6 or more full time employees in a food service operation, training programs that includes the expectations of organizational culture should be implemented. It is important that management support the training programs in order for the expected culture to become an active part of unit operations. Recently, at the Second Annual Diversity Symposium for the Hospitality Industry, Mr. Paul Rowson (1995) discussed how "opening the financial books" to employees could and did have a totally positive effect on the bottom line. Within the factors that he changed in his operation was to stress training and to teach his employees "English as a second language". He trained his employees about the business and what does it takes to make it in this industry. His organizational culture was very strong and employees' commitment was also strengthen. He further discussed with me that "When employees understand how much it cost to produce a meal and how many factors could jeopardize the revenue, they begin to avoid mistakes." He developed a very strong culture and it was also very profitable.

If an organization is going to utilize organizational culture as a competitive advantage then reinforcement training must be a

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required part of organizational practices. Because organizational culture can be different within operating units, due to differences among managers, it would be cost effective for organizations to have periodic reinforcement training to ensure that all employees and especially unit managers remain aware of and continue to practice the expected organizational culture.

Being able to measure organizational culture will become even more significant as industry moves more toward the use of total quality management (TQM). With the present trend toward TQM, the implementation of organizational culture as a competitive advantage will be increasingly used in all aspects of industry and especially the service industry. The very basis for this approach in creating a competitive advantage is through organizational culture. The literature overwhelmingly shows the link between organizational culture and TQM (Bright & Cooper, 1993; Brown, 1993; Whittle, Smith, Tranfield & Foster, 1992). If the implementation of TQM is going to be an active managerial approach for some years to come then it will be important for managers to be able to monitor and measure their organizational culture on a consistent basis to insure that the practices of increase services etc., are maintained.

Finally, this study recommends that since organizational culture can be used as a competitive advantage it would be beneficial to all organizations to attempt to measure the strength and type of organizational culture within their operating units. Organizational culture can be one of the key factors in reducing some of the hidden costs that are associated with employee disability, losses in productivity, and worker replacement costs (Chelius, Galvin, & Owens, 1992). In the long run, training employees in the expectations of the organization's culture would certainly reduce costs. However, the benefits of this may not be measurable in the short run because in most food service operations turnover rates are high or extremely high.

## FUTURE RESEARCH

The findings of this study point out that there is still a lack of research in the area of organizational culture in the hospitality industry. The majority of such studies have dealt mainly with other types of industry.

First, there is a need for studies similar to the present one but focused on other types of operations in the food service industry. There are still far too many business failures in the food service industry and many of these failures are due to employee turnover. Additional studies should address some of the concerns related to turnover.

Second, a research project could be undertaken to learn more about the socio-economic culture of customers and employees located within the area of a food service facility. A study for congruency between quality and type of service delivered and quality and service expected by the operation will enhance the knowledge of managers and will be advantageous for the hospitality industry.

Third, the results of this study demonstrates a need to investigate the strength of organizational culture of managerial personnel in food service operations. Because of the leadership influence that a manager has, it would be important to investigate managers alone to see if managers actually lead by example.

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Fourth, the study should be repeated by investigating organizational culture in small food service establishments that have 6 or more full time employees. Small food service establishments are a vital part of the industry and the survival of these operations are important to our economy.

Fifth, investigation should be undertaken in the area of group dynamics and the importance of a negative informal group leader on the organizational culture of the work group. Because individuals desire acceptance by the group in which they are working, they are susceptible to conformity pressure. If an informal group leader has a negative attitude toward the organization, he/she can cause coworkers to differ from organizational practices or culture. This possible situation demands the attention of future research.

Finally, further research should be accomplish to see how organizational training programs deliver the message of their organizational culture. There is a possibility that due to high turnover rates some employees have never been trained about the values of the organization. Some employees might not have been in the organization long enough to be aware of some of the most

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important norms and values of the organization. A study of this aspect of organizational culture will contribute greatly to the development of a more comprehensive theory of the utilization of organizational culture as a competitive advantage in food service operations.

## CONCLUSIONS

The research method used in this study reviewed pertinent literature for the purpose of investigating research projects that have been accomplished in the area of organizational culture. This information was reviewed to investigate the different techniques that have been used to evaluate organizational culture in order to develop a means of measuring organizational culture. An empirical analysis of the data collected was conducted to investigate the use of the different evaluation and measuring techniques as they would apply to a food service organization.

An evaluation of the data showed that it is possible to systematically measure organizational culture and that by assessing the most important attributes it is possible to develop a method that is not time consuming and can be used effectively to enhance the competitive advantage of operating units. A summary

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of the null hypotheses tested illustrated that while employees may be aware of the mission statement and the perceptions of management, these activities may not always be in practice in operating units. The results also illustrated that in those cases where there was congruence between management and employees, they describe the activities of each other in a positive manner and demonstrated a greater degree of job satisfaction.

As a result of this study it is recommended that all food service operations that have 6 or more full time employees in an operating unit attempt to measure their organizational culture. Operations that are able to develop congruence in their organizational culture between management and employees will be able to provide them a competitive advantage.

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# APPENDICES

Table 1
Definitions of Culture and Linkages to Organization and Management Literature

| SCHOOLS | DEFINITIONS OF CULTURE | LINKS WITH ORGANIZATION/ MANAGEMENT LITERATURE | MAIN THEORISTS AND RESEARCHERS IN ORGANIZATION/ MANAGEMENT THEORY |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | *A. Organizations as Sociocultural Systems* | |
| FUNCTIONALIST (Malinowski) | Culture is an instrumental apparatus by which a person is put in a better position to cope with the concrete specific problems faced in the course of need satisfaction. Main manifestations of culture (institutions, myths, etc.) are to be explained by reference to the basic needs of human beings. | The sociocultural system of organizations will, or ought to, reflect man's quest for need satisfaction through work and organizational participation. Organizations are theatres for the playing out of man's needs. To some extent, organizations are social enactments of participants' quest for need satisfaction. | — Human Relations School (Mayo, Roethlisberger et al.) <br>— Social Man School (Homans; Zaleznik) <br>— Self-actualizing Man (Maslow; McGregor; Likert; Argyris) <br>— McClelland on entrepreneurial and managerial motivations <br>— The Business Policy field (Andrews, Guth, Learned, Christensen, Henderson) |
| STRUCTURAL-FUNCTIONALIST (Radcliffe-Brown) | Culture is made up of those mechanisms by which an individual acquires mental characteristics (values, beliefs) and habits that fit him for participation in social life; it is a component of a social system which also includes social structures, to maintain an orderly social life, and adaptation mechanisms, to maintain society's equilibrium with its physical environment. | An organization is a purposive social system with a 'value' subsystem which implies acceptance of the generalized values of the superordinate system and which thus legitimizes the place and role of the organization in the larger social system. Organizations are functional enactments of society's legitimating values and myths. | — The Structural–Functionalist School (Parsons; Barnard; Crozier) <br>— Complex Man (Schein; Bennis) |
| | | *A. Organizations as Sociocultural Systems* | |
| ECOLOGICAL-ADAPTATIONIST (White, Service, Rappaport, Vayda, Harris) | Culture is a system of socially transmitted behaviour patterns that serve to relate human communities to their ecological settings. Sociocultural systems and their environments are involved in dialectic interplay, in a process of feedback or reciprocal causality. | Organizations are social enactments of ideational designs-for-action in particular environments. They take on varied forms through a continuous process of adaptation to, or selection by, critical environment factors (*which include the society's culture*). Disparities in these broadly defined environments (perceived or real, present or future) result in different organization forms and strategies in a never ending, and sometimes unsuccessful, quest for fit and equilibrium between the organization and its environment. | — Open system theory (Katz and Kahn) <br>— Contingency theorists (Thompson; Perrow; Lawrence and Lorsch; Burns and Stalker; Blau and Scott) <br>— Cross-cultural studies of organizations (Dore; Tracy and Azumi; Pascale; Hickson, Hennings et al.; Tannenbaum et al.; etc.) <br>— The Socio-technical system perspectives (Emery and Trist; Miller and Rice) <br>— The Aston Group (Pugh; Hickson; et al.) <br>— The Population Ecology school (Hannan and Freeman; Aldrich) <br>— The new school of organization–environment relations (Pfeffer and Salancik; Meyer and Associates) |

Table 1 (cont'd)
Definitions of Culture and Linkages to Organization and Management Literature

| SCHOOLS | DEFINITIONS OF CULTURE | LINKS WITH ORGANIZATION/ MANAGEMENT LITERATURE | MAIN THEORISTS AND RESEARCHERS IN ORGANIZATION/ MANAGEMENT THEORY |
|---|---|---|---|
| HISTORICAL-DIFFUSIONIST (Boas, Benedict, Kluckhohn, Kroeber) | Culture consists of temporal, interactive, superorganic and autonomous configurations or forms which have been produced by historical circumstances and processes. | Organizational forms arise and vanish in the ebb and flow of historical circumstances. Specific patterns of organizational structures and strategies are characteristic of historical phases of the organization. Organizations are social actualizations of their genesis and historical transformations. | — Chandler<br>— Stinchcombe<br>— Scott<br>— Filley and House |

*B. Culture as an Ideational System*

| SCHOOLS | DEFINITIONS OF CULTURE | LINKS WITH ORGANIZATION/ MANAGEMENT LITERATURE | MAIN THEORISTS AND RESEARCHERS IN ORGANIZATION/ MANAGEMENT THEORY |
|---|---|---|---|
| COGNITIVE (Goodenough) | A system of knowledge, of standards for perceiving, believing, evaluating and acting. Culture is the form of things that people have in mind, their model for perceiving, relating and otherwise interpreting them. It consists of whatever it is one has to know or believe in order to operate in a manner acceptable to the members of one's society. As a product of human learning, culture consists of the ways in which people have organized their experience of the real world so as to give it structure as a phenomenal world of forms, that is their percepts and concepts. | 1. Organizational climate is defined as an enduring and widely shared perception of the essential attributes and character of an organizational system. Its primary function is to cue and shape individual behaviour toward the modes of behaviour dictated by organizational demands.<br><br>2. Organizations are social artefacts of members' shared cognitive maps. Organizations develop world views (Hedberg), codes (Arrow), or public maps (Argyris and Schön) that provide the framework for organizational actions. | — Organizational climate (Tagiuri; Evan; Campbell et al.; James and Jones; De Cotiis and Koys; Schneider; Payne and Pugh, etc.)<br><br>— Organizational learning (Argyris and Schön; Hedberg; Arrow; Heirs and Pehrson) |
| STRUCTURALIST (Lévi-Strauss) | Shared symbolic systems that are cumulative creations of mind; universal but unconscious principles of mind generate cultural elaborations and artefacts, the diversity of which results from the permutations and transformations of *formally* similar processes and latent structures. Since all cultures are the product of the human brain, there must be features that are common to all cultures. | Are organizations, in spite of their manifold character, structure and processes, social manifestations, at a deeper, structural, level, of universal and unconscious processes of mind? March and Simon do claim that organizational structures and processes reflect the characteristics and limitations of human cognitive processes. Do managers share similar structures of mind, similar cognitive styles and processes? The management literature on cognitive styles, on the hemispheres of the brain and their relationships to management, come close to this issue without ever tackling it explicitly. | — March and Simon's cognitive assumptions<br>— Cognitive style research (McKenney and Keen; Kolb)<br>— Left and right hemisphere of the brain (Mintzberg)<br>— The Managerial Mind (Sumner, O'Connel and Perry; Ewing) |

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Table 1 (cont'd)
Definitions of Culture and Linkages to Organization and Management Literature

| SCHOOLS | DEFINITIONS OF CULTURE | LINKS WITH ORGANIZATION/ MANAGEMENT LITERATURE | MAIN THEORISTS AND RESEARCHERS IN ORGANIZATION/ MANAGEMENT THEORY |
|---|---|---|---|
| MUTUAL-EQUIVALENCE STRUCTURE (Wallace) | Culture is a set of standardized cognitive processes which create the general framework that enables a capacity for mutual prediction and interlocked behaviour among individuals. It is an implicit contract that makes possible the maximal organization of motivational and cognitive diversity with only partial inclusion and minimal sharing of beliefs and values on the part of 'culture-bearers'. | Organizations are the locus of intersection and synchronization of individual utility functions, the somewhat fortuitous site where actors' micro-motives coalesce into organizational macrobehaviour. Coordination of behaviour occurs not through a sharing of goals but through the elaboration of mutually predictive cognitive structures. Members' decision to partially participate reflects their calculus of relative costs and inducements | — The concepts of 'causal maps' and mutual equivalence found in Weick et al.<br>— The 'calculus of participation' elements in Barnard; March and Simon; Etzioni; Silverman; Selznick.<br>— Ouchi and Jaeger's Type A organization. etc. |

*B. Culture as an Ideational System*

| SYMBOLIC (Geertz, Schneider) | Culture is the fabric of meaning in terms of which human beings interpret their experience and guide their action. It is an ordered system of shared and public symbols and meanings which give shape, direction and particularity to human experience. Culture should not be looked for in people's heads but in the 'meanings' shared by interacting social actors. The analysis of culture therefore is not an experimental science in search of laws but an interpretative one in search of meaning. | 1. Organizations as a result of their particular history and past or present leadership create and sustain systems of symbols which serve to interpret and give meaning to members' subjective experience and individual actions, and to elicit, or rationalize, their commitment to the organization. Such collective meaning-structures are manifested in ideologies, myths, values, sagas, 'character', 'emotional' structures', etc.<br><br>2. Organizations are figments of participants' ascription of meaning to, and interpretation of, their organizational experience. They have no external reality as they are social creations and constructions emerging from actors' sense-making out of ongoing streams of actions and interactions. The actor's own actions are first order determinants of the sense that situations have. | 1.— Interpretive, actionalist sociology of organizations. (Weber; Silverman)<br><br>— Institutional school. (Selznick; Clark; Rhenman; Pettigrew; Eldridge and Crombie; Wilkins; Harrison; Berg; Stymne; Handy)<br><br>2.— Phenomenology, Symbolic Interactionism and Ethenomethodology (Goffman; Turner; Brown; Garfinkel; Cicourel; Bittner; Burrell and Morgan; Smircich) |

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## Appendix B: Research Questionnaire

The statements which follows were some observations made during several visits to your unit. Some of those statements are created and not a real representation of the observations.

I ask you to choose a number to identify each statement from the scale below. A number 1 means you strongly agree with the statement—while a number 5 means that you strongly disagree.

```
Sample scale:
▬▬▬▬▬▬▬▬
 1   2   3   4   5
Strongly        Strongly
 agree          disagree
```
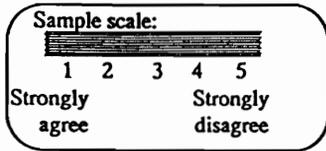
Please respond to this statement one time on each column. Rate the statement in terms of the way things are really done in your organization.

On the second column, indicate how much each statement reflects how things should be done in your unit.

For example, if you strongly disagree that the following statement reflects the way things are really done in your company, the answer will look as follows:

SAMPLE STATEMENT
We sometimes overdo the "never say no" attitude.
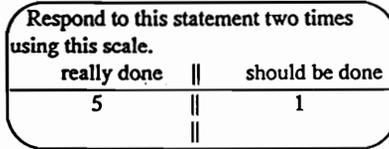
```
Respond to this statement two times
using this scale.
 really done    ||    should be done
      5         ||          1
                ||
```

| | really done | should be done |
|---|---|---|
| 1. The main purpose of my job is to make the students happy. | | |
| 2. We provide as many alternatives of foods to the students to keep them coming back. | | |
| 3. When you need help, you go to a manager or a supervisor to get some help from a fellow worker. | | |
| 4. A server must always be nice to the customer. | | |

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| | |
|---|---|
| 5. We like to think of ourselves as "family". 5. | |
| 6. Customer complaints are handled promptly and efficiently. 6. | |
| 7. As an employee, I am encouraged to come up with new ways of doing my job better. 7. | |
| 8. "Truth" is a key value in this company. It is very important that we tell each other the "truth". 8. | |
| 9. To come to work on time is very important. 9. | |
| 10. I feel that I can talk to any of the managers about my personal problems and they are willing to listen and give me advice. 10. | |
| 11. High quality food is expected to taste good. 11. | |
| 12. High quality food is expected to be served at the correct and safe temperature. 12. | |
| 13. The main purpose of my job is to help the company to make money. This way emplyees can get wages increased. 13. | |
| 14. The most important factor for promotion is years of service. 14. | |
| 15. The way to get my salary increased is to do a better job and get a good evaluation 15. | |
| 16. Our dining room and kitchen must be clean and orderly at all times 16. | |
| 17. I am encouraged to have fun at work. 17. | |
| 18. The quality of food served is very important for management. 18. | |
| 19. I feel that my work environment is of caring. Management and workers care about me. 19. | |

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**CAREER GOAL:**
To continue having a teaching position which enables me to apply my general management, and hospitality management knowledge. Main areas of interest are: organizational culture, human resource development, foodservice management, and food preparation.

**EDUCATION:**

<u>Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University,</u> Blacksburg, VA-Pursuing a **Ph. D. degree** in
  **Hospitality and Tourism Management.** Minor in Human Resources Management. Dissertation
  Topic: Organizational Culture for College Food Services. **Completion Date: June, 1995** .

<u>University of North Carolina at Greensboro,</u> Greensboro, NC - **M.S. Nutrition**; Minor: Research.
  Thesis: A Comparison of Vegetarian and Non-Vegetarian Food Consumption Patterns of Vitamin
  B-6 Status of Males, August, 1983 (OCLC#-10529976; OCLC  Microfilm#-10530001).

<u>University of Puerto Rico, Medical Campus,</u> San Juan, PR - **ADA Approved Dietetic Internship,**
  **1979. R.D. #526283**

<u>University of Puerto Rico, Rio Piedras Campus,</u> PR - **B.S. Home Economics.** Major:
  Nutrition and Dietetics, 1978.

**Additional Training and Certifications:**
ServSave (**Sanitation Certification**), National Restaurant Association, the Educational Foundation,
  Washington, D.C., May, 1995.-current for two years
 **Certified Hospitality Educator,** American Hotel and Motel Association Educational Institute, East Lansing,
  MI, April, 1995-April 2000.
U.S. Army and NC National Guard, Food Service Specialist, Fort Lee, VA, August, 1982
Basic Military Training - U.S. Army, Fort Mc Clellan, AL, August, 1981.

**SELECTED EMPLOYMENT EXPERIENCES:**
**Assistant Professor,** <u>University of Houston,</u> Main Campus, Conrad N. Hilton College of Hotel and
  Restaurant Management. My major responsibility is teaching classes in foods and food
  service management. I supervise the planning, preparation, and service of international
  meals in Barron's International Dinner Series. Additional responsibilities for recruitment of
  minorities, scholarships, and supervision of graduate teaching assistants. Co-advisor of
  PASO (Pan-American Student Organization). Member of the institutional effectiveness and
  scholarship committee at the college level and part of the Mentor Program at the university level.

**Assistant Professor,** University of Southwestern Louisiana, College of Applied Life Sciences, Department of Hospitality and Restaurant Management. January 1991-May 1994. Taught many classes and laboratory experiences for the Hospitality Management program, ex. Quantity Purchasing, Equipment and Layout, Introduction to Quantity Food Production, Food Service Systems Management, Quantity Food Preparation, Senior Seminar, Internship for Hospitality Management. Improved curriculum and teaching methods. Member of committees, ex. recruitment, graduation, faculty recruitment. Advisor for the International Food Service Executives Association (I.F.S.E.A.) club and for approximately 40 individual students. Co-chairman, first and chairman , later for the Hospitality Management Advisory Committee.

**Graduate Assistant,** Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, University Libraries, Newman Library Reference Department, August 1989-December 1990. Trained as a reference librarian. Helped patrons with general questions, i.e. business, government data, history, psychology, sociology, and general statistics. Used university on-line catalog (VTLS) and several CD-ROM softwares to assist patrons.

**Graduate Assistant,** Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Extension Home Economics, College of Human Resources, August 1988-August 1989. Wrote and edited bimonthly newsletter for extension personnel, The Communicator. Researched various topics for the Assistant Dean. Compiled annual reports into summaries.

**Graduate Assistant,** Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, College of Human Resources, August-December 1987. Academic advisor for Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Management undergraduate students. Guided students planning their program of study and deciding area of specialization.

**Instructor,** Appalachian State University, Department of Home Economics, January-May 1987. Taught food preparation, meal management, and advanced food classes. Guided students in planning, preparation, and service of international menus, and a faculty banquet.

**Catering Specialist,** Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Squires Student Center, August-December 1986. Responsible for ordering, preparing, and directing catering activities. Supervised salad preparation, and baking. Trained and supervised students' workers. Completely responsible for foods served in catering functions.

**Data Entry Operator,** Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Food Services, January-August 1986. Responsible for developing and revising standardized recipes for Hillcrest Dining Hall. The patrons were mainly international graduate students and faculty. I developed and tested many international recipes. Used IBM-PC to produce production reports (Menu Management Software). Advised students in terms of quality control. Helped in the development of cycle menus.

**Graduate Assistant,** Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Department of Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Management, Hillcrest Dining Hall, August 1984-December 1985. Dual role of laboratory (cafeteria) instructor and food service supervisor. Supervised student-employees and student-managers during preparation, service, and sanitation of food and equipment.

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**Teaching Assistant,** University of North Carolina at Greensboro, Department of Food, Nutrition
and Food Service Management, August 1983-July 1984. Taught quantity cooking course.
Coordinated students' laboratory (cafeteria) experiences. The main campus cafeteria served
approximately 3000-3500 meals per day.

## PUBLICATIONS AND PRESENTATIONS:

**Adiestramiento de empleados de servicios para promociones,** Universidad de las Américas,
Puebla, Méjico, 2do. Congreso Internacional de Turismo, April 1994. (Invited Presentation)

**Organizational Culture for College Food Services,** Refereed Paper Session, International Council
on Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Management (CHRIE), Annual Conference, Orlando,
Florida, July 30, 1992.

**The Hospitality Industry Culture: Common Driven Assumptions,** Roundtable discussion, Council on
Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Management, Annual Conference, Orlando, Florida,
July 30, 1992.

**A Multivariate Analysis of the Relationship Between Lodging Industry Sales and Selected
Economic Indicators,** Council on Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Management, Annual
Conference and Hospitality Research Journal (Proceedings), 1990.

## HONORS AND SCHOLARSHIPS:

**-Associate Editor** for International CHRIE (for convention papers and proceedings), 1992 and 1993.
**-National Hispanic Scholarship Fund,** 1990 Scholar.
-Department of Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Management, **Graduate Student Scholarship,**
Spring, 1989.
**-Statler Foundation, Spring and Fall 1988.**

## PROFESSIONAL MEMBERSHIPS:

**-International CHRIE,** 1990-present
**-American Dietetic Association,** Registered Dietitian status only, 1984-present
**-I.F.S.E.A.** Senior member, 1990-present
**-Phi Upsilon Omicron,** Honor Society, Fall 1989-present.
**-Louisiana Restaurant Association-**Acadiana Chapter-Member of the Board of directors from May 1991 to
May 1994.

## LEADERSHIP POSITIONS:
**-President** of Graduates in Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Management Organization, Virginia
Polytechnic and State University, 1987-88.
**-Crew** (kitchen) **leader,** North Carolina National Guard, 1983-85.
**-Squad leader,** United States Army, 1982,
**-Student Government Representative,** University of Puerto Rico, Medical Campus, 1978-79.

## SPECIAL SKILLS AND EXPERIENCES:

-Fluent and proficient in speaking and writing Spanish.
-Travel throughout the United States, Canada, and South America.

**Personal Data:**
Date of Birth: November 11, 1956.              Place: Mayagüez, Puerto Rico
Marital Status: Married


## REFERENCES:

Letters of recommendation by request.

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