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# Organizational Climate and Commitment: A Case Study of an Urban Nonprofit Organization

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# ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND COMMITMENT:

# A CASE STUDY OF AN URBAN NONPROFIT ORGANIZATION

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# ABSTRACT

## ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND COMMITMENT: A CASE STUDY OF AN URBAN NONPROFIT ORGANIZATION

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Old Dominion University, 2002
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This qualitative study investigates the relationship between the two constructs: Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment.

Litwin and Stringer (1968) suggested that a molar model is needed to explain employee behavior and motivation. Climate was proposed as this molar construct. Research concerning Organizational Climate resulted in multiple definitions and little consensus concerning the number and use of multiple dimensions of this construct. The almost exclusive use of survey methods coupled with methodological confusion with Organizational Culture created difficulty with the use of this important construct.

Organizational Commitment research resulted in a number of competing definitions. Research by Meyer and Allen (1997) eventually led to continuance, normative, and affective commitment as a three-component model of Organizational Commitment. Despite suggestions in the literature, little research has been conducted explaining how Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment constructs relate.

The study is composed of a pencil and paper survey. Indexes of the nine components of Organizational Climate based on McNabb and Sepic's (1995) definitions were correlated with the three components of Organizational Commitment based on Meyer and Allen's (1997) definitions. Focus group meetings and individual interviews

were held to investigate worker understandings of both constructs. Open coding was used to identify themes from the interviews. This methodological triangulation within an instrumental case study resulted in findings of relationship between the two constructs by the application of each of the three methodologies. Survey results showed correlations between seven of the nine Organizational Climate dimensions and two of the components of Organizational Commitment. However, continuous commitment showed no correlations with any Organizational Climate dimension. Focus group and individual interviews indicated that workers perceive that a relationship between the two constructs definitely exists.

Findings from this study suggest a more extensive molar model than proposed by Litwin and Stringer (1968). Recommendations for nonprofit policy and practice are suggested. Future research in six areas is identified to expand this case study of an urban private nonprofit organization.

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IN MEMORY OF

WOLFGANG PINDUR


SEPTEMBER 18, 1944

JUNE 11, 2001


We will always feel a part of our life has been lost without you.

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My family, and especially my wife, Lena, deserves special recognition. Thank you not only for "putting up with me" during this long and challenging period of our lives, but also for your encouragement and understanding during this research and for all of those years of classes leading up to this study.

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# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

Organizations have sought to improve performance since the cottage weaving guilds in England were incorporated into spinning loom factories. Classic structural or mechanistic theorists generalized that man is lazy, untrustworthy, and worked only for money; therefore the key to employee behavior was interpreted solely and rationally in economic terms. These theoretical perspectives led to performance improvement efforts based on bureaucratic organizations, setting rates of production, and pay linked to increased factory output. In the 21st century as the United States urban economy evolves from a factory to a service based activity, modern researchers such as Leavitt and Johnson (1998) suggest that other factors such as clarity of mission, vision and values rather than clarity of job tasks are essential to post-bureaucratic organizations.

Despite the continued evolution of computers and automation activities of modern enterprises, all activities are initiated and determined by the persons who make up the institution (Likert, 1967). In fact every activity is determined by the motivation, perceptions and competency of the human organization. Downsizing, right sizing, and radical organizational change of an enterprise have not proven to be as productive as the academic community or management practitioners hoped it could be. Introducing new methods of operating into the organization, such as TQM, often results in dissatisfied or distressed employees who refuse to buy into the new programs.

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The format of this dissertation follows current style requirements of the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 5th edition, Washington, D.C., 2001.

What is needed is a model or method to identify trends concerning worker motivation and behavior to assist management. Litwin and Stringer (1968) called for a molar model, incorporating the mass of the subject as opposed to all the infinite detail, to understand worker motivation and behavior. Their argument for the need for this model was based on the problem of measurement. They contended that it would take an inordinately large number of measurements to determine the motives associated with any individual's behavior. This implied an almost impossible task for understanding a group of individuals. The more micro the model to measure motivation and behavior the more distortion would result because of the number of factors that needed to be measured and because of the changeability of these factors over time. In the mid to late sixties they suggested that Organizational Climate was a step toward that conceptual molar model.

While climate research was being conducted Meyer and Allen (1984, 1997), Morrow (1993), Buchanan (1974), and Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) explored workers' relationships with their work organization. Their interest was in how relationships are established, how they influence employee behavior, well-being, and why employees would break a relationship by leaving the organization. Employee turnover was seen as a process that robs the organization of its human assets that represent an investment by the organization. This research expanded the concept of Organizational Commitment which is described as a construct whose intention is to help management understand when and how employees develop commitments and how these commitments help shape behaviors (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972).

Why did these two important constructs develop independently? Organizational Climate enjoyed a long research history in the disciplines of sociology and organizational anthropology (James & Jones, 1974) while Organizational Commitment research can be found in industrial organizational psychology (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). These two discipline's independent research resulted in a gap in the body of research concerning the potential relationship between Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment constructs. Scant research can be found that demonstrates relationships between Organizational Climate Theory and Organizational Commitment Theory.

## BACKGROUND

A lack of agreement exists concerning the definition, dimensions and applications of Organizational Climate (Denison, 1996). This same level of disagreement exists for Organizational Commitment (Morrow, 1993; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Buchanan,1974). The rich research heritage of each construct has broadened rather than focused the definitions of each. An introduction to each using a description and historical evolution is offered. First, Organizational Climate is traced to McNabb and Sepic's (1995) nine dimensions of Organizational Climate. Second, Organizational Commitment is traced to Meyer and Allen's (1997) three-component model of Organizational Commitment. An overview of the study is then presented.

### Organizational Climate

Organizational Climate appeared in organizational theory literature following Systems Theory and after the Human Resources School (Ott, 1989). The concept of

environment preceded the climate construct. Environment referred to the setting (Tagiuri, 1968) an individual found him or herself in as they carried out various organizational tasks. While the concept of environment was helpful, it never evolved into a well-accepted definition and there were difficulties with the construct. This set the stage for the development of the climate construct.

McGregor (1957), writing in organizational literature about Theory X and Theory Y, suggested that management creates a managerial climate. He made it clear that while workers may perceive climate it was management who created climate. Litwin and Stringer (1968), building on Lewin's theory of atmosphere or climate as an essential link between the worker and his environment, conducted field research that addressed the concept of climate. Their nine dimensional model of climate influenced McNabb and Sepic's (1995) dimensional model of Organizational Climate.

The climate construct as it continued to evolve was not without its controversies. James and Jones (1974), responding to suggestions that a construct measured on an individual level could not be used as an organizational concept (Guion, 1973), resolved the controversy by suggesting that a new construct, Psychological Climate, exists. When the climate construct is measured at the individual level it is called Psychological Climate and Organizational Climate when the construct is measured beyond the individual.

An analysis of 31 Organizational Climate studies by Hellriegel and Slocum (1974) revealed that the majority of the research utilized survey instruments addressing from 20 to 80 items. Although much of the sociology and organizational anthropology research addressing climate resulted in a broadening number of Organizational Climate

dimensions there were researchers seeking to focus the research. Cambell, Dunnett, Lawler and Weick (1970) identified only four major dimensions of Organizational Climate that appeared most often in the literature. These most common four dimensions overlapped the original dimensions proposed by Litwin and Stringer (1968). McNabb and Sepic (1995), after spending 10 years developing and refining instruments to survey Organizational Climate, finalized a set of dimensions based on Litwin and Stringer's dimensions with the addition of an ethical practices dimension. These dimensions (structure, responsibility, risk, rewards, warmth and support, conflict, organizational identity, approved practices, and ethical practices) form the working definition of Organizational Climate utilized in this research.

## Organizational Commitment

Grusky (1966) suggests that Organizational Commitment is a single construct based on Social Exchange Theory. This theory describes employees as bargaining or exchanging time and effort with the organization for benefits and rewards. This theory suggests that Organizational Commitment results from a process of the employee developing a favorable or unfavorable perception of the exchange of benefits and costs and employee commitment to the organization varying accordingly. Employees are seen as constantly balancing the exchange of time and effort with the rewards received. The most significant measure of this process is employee turnover.

The Side Bet Theory (Becker, 1960) suggests that individuals accumulate things of value in an organization such as seniority, skills, vesting in retirement plans, position, or status. These things of value, or "Side Bets," are seen as factors influencing a

workers' commitment to the organization. Employee turnover was also used as a measure of this theory.

Organizational Commitment enjoyed an expanding research resulting in a broadening rather than a focusing of the definitions of Organizational Commitment. Morrow (1993) identified over 25 commitment related definitions. This broadening of views concerning Organizational Commitment resulted in often conflicting and one-dimensional views in the literature.

Meyer and Allen (1984) identified three distinct themes in the definitions of Organizational Commitment: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. The identification of these themes resulted in their formulation of a three-component model of Organizational Commitment. According to their model, employees can experience varying degrees of all three forms of commitment simultaneously.

Research concerning the antecedents of Organizational Commitment is difficult to correlate due to the multitude of commitment definitions and to changing definitions over time. Nine common antecedents have been identified: (1) management receptiveness and participatory management, (2) peer cohesion and group attitudes, (3) organizational dependability, (4) personal importance and perceived personal competence, (5) supervisory feedback, (6) participatory commitment, (7) skill variety and education, (8) task identity, and (9) age (Reichers, 1986; Allen & Meyer, 1990; Dunham, Grube & Castaneda, 1994; Steers, 1977; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Several of these suggest that some Organizational Climate dimensions (structure, warmth and support, conflict, organizational identity) are antecedents to Organizational Commitment.

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

This study is organized in three parts: (1) development of a literature-based framework for Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment, (2) application of the framework to investigate workers' perceptions of Organizational Climate and Commitment, and (3) the production of a case study of Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment to expand the sparse research concerning the relationship between the two constructs. The study is presented in five chapters: Introduction, Literature Review, Methodology, Data Analysis, and Conclusions and Recommendations.

Research Question

The research is guided by a primary research problem: *How do the nine dimensions of Organizational Climate* (McNabb & Sepic, 1995) *relate to the three components of Organizational Commitment* (Meyer & Allen, 1997)? The research question then asks: Is there a significant relationship between the dimensions of Organizational Climate (structure, responsibility, risk, rewards, warmth and support, conflict, organizational identity, approval practices, ethical practices) and the three components of Organizational Commitment (affective, continuance, and normative)?

Methodology

A case study design (Yin, 1994) is used to investigate a nonprofit organization in an urban setting. However, knowledge about this particular organization is secondary to understanding the relationship between Organizational Climate and Organizational

Commitment. Stake (1995) describes the nature of this type of inquiry as an *instrumental case study*. The case study type chosen is instrumental in order to accomplish more than understanding the functioning of this specific organization. In this particular research the issues are more important than the case.

The strength of this instrumental case study comes from the utilization of multiple quantitative and qualitative research measures as part of methodological triangulation. When two or more distinct methods are found to achieve congruence and yield comparable data, it is called methodological triangulation. For organizational researchers, this involves the use of multiple methods to examine the same dimension of a research problem. The use of multiple research measures (methodological triangulation) uncovers unique variances which otherwise may have been neglected by the use of a single method. This qualitative research method plays an especially prominent role by eliciting data and suggesting conclusions to which other methods would be blind (Jick, 1979).

The research was conducted during the fall of 2000. The researcher had access to 226 full-time employees of an urban non-profit organization. This organization's mission is to provide responsive person-centered services to improve the quality of life of individuals with disabilities. It was formed in 1980 to provide supported employee opportunities to adults with mental and physical disabilities who could not find and maintain employment. In addition to the full time staff that participated in this research, the organization employs over 300 persons with disabilities through various work programs in a variety of field environments.

# IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

The research was significant in four important aspects. First, there is a gap in the body of research concerning the relationship between the constructs of Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment. In this respect, the research will add to the body of literature and help to fill in the gap between these two important constructs. The specific area this research will contribute to is private nonprofit management.

Second, the research relies on both quantitative research methods and qualitative research methods to examine the relationship between Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment. Utilizing qualitative methods will result in a richer understanding of the relationships between these two constructs. The use of this combined design will advance understanding in combining quantitative and qualitative research methods in addressing organizational and management issues. The research has identified several areas that are appropriate for further development, exploration, and investigation in future research.

Third, better understanding of Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment has been suggested as an aid in understanding the management of organizational change (McNabb & Sepic, 1995). This research will contribute to management knowledge. Further, it will contribute to methods of urban services practice in nonprofit organizational setting.

Fourth, researching the relationship between the constructs of Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment will shed more light on the underlying theoretical relationships of Organizational Commitment, principally the Social Exchange Theory, which suggests that employees bargained or exchanged time and effort with the

organization for benefits and rewards (Grusky, 1966); and the Side Bet Theory which suggested that individuals accumulate things of value in an organization such as seniority, skills, vesting in retirement plans, position, or status which influences their commitment to the organization (Becker, 1960). This research may also have implications for the underlying theoretical relationships of Organizational Climate by expanding Lewin's (1951) Life Space Theory that describes climate as an essential functional link between the person (P) and the environment (E). McClelland's Arousal Motivation Theory (Arousal Motivation $=$ M x E x I) describes arousal motivation (to strive for a particular kind of satisfaction or goal) as a joint multiplicative function of (a) the strength of the basic motive (M), (b) the expectancy of attaining the goal (E), and (c) the perceived incentative value of the particular goal (I; Litwin & Stringer, 1968, p.12).

## Credibility

Good research, irrespective of qualitative or quantitative methods used, should adhere to scientific canons. From a positivist's perspective the canons of science translate into the constructs of internal validity, external validity, reliability, and objectivity (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Four alternative constructs, from a non-traditional qualitative perspective, are used in this research addressing the canons of science:

> *Credibility* as opposed to *internal validity*, or assurance that the research has accurately identified and described the subject of the research effort,
> *Transferability*, as opposed to external validity, or the confidence in the applicability of the research findings to other contexts "similar" to those bounding the research initiative,
> *Dependability*, as opposed to *reliability*, or the accountability for dynamic conditions changing the nature

> of the research based on shifts in understanding of
> phenomena being researched, and
> *Confirmability*, as opposed to *objectivity*, or the provision
> that the findings of the study could be reached by another
> researcher. Therefore, both the quantitative and qualitative
> research traditions attempt to adhere to the canons of
> science. However, they differ with respect to the
> interpretation of the canons and the particular strategies to
> aspire to the canons (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.83).

Multiple sources of evidence including survey, focus groups and open-ended interviews were used to strengthen credibility. Transferability was strengthened by the use of opposing explanations and by mapping interview responses to theory from the literature. Yin's (1994) case study protocol was used and an instrumental case study database was kept to strengthen the dependability and conformability of the study findings. The instrumental case study database includes data and documentation from sources of evidence including literature review, survey, and interview narratives. Research notes and the final dissertation paper are included. Database items were organized and categorized to be complete and available for later access.

## DEFINITION OF TERMS

The definition of Organizational Climate suggested by McNabb and Sepic (1995, p.373) and their working definitions of the nine dimensions of Organizational Climate are:

Organizational Climate: is a concept that reflects the content and strength of the prevalent values, norms, attitudes, behaviors and feelings of the people in an organization. The nine dimensions of Organizational Climate are as follows:

Structure: The feelings that employees have about structural constraints in the organization. How many rules, regulations and procedures, whether "red tape" hinders the functioning of the organization; must employees go through channels for decisions or does a free-flowing informality exist?

Responsibility: The feeling of being "your own boss," of not being forced to double-check all decisions with higher authority. The feeling that when, given a job to do, you know that it is your job; you are not told how to do it.

Risk: The sense of risks and challenge encountered in the organization. Is there an emphasis on taking calculated risks, or is "playing it safe" best?

Rewards: The feeling that you are being rewarded for a job well done. An emphasis exists in the organization on positive rewards for personnel, rather than punishments. The perceived fairness of pay and promotion policies.

Warmth and Support: The feeling of good fellowship that prevails in the work group atmosphere; emphasis is on being well-liked; prevalence of friendly and informal social groups; perceived helpfulness of managers and other group employees; emphasis on mutual support from above and below.

Conflict: The feeling that managers and other workers want to hear different opinions; emphasis on getting problems out in the open, rather than smoothing them over or ignoring them.

Organizational Identity: The extent to which members of the group identify with the organization, their fellow workers, and with the underlying mission and philosophy of the 1) individual workgroups, 2) larger units within the organization and 3) the organization as a whole.

Approved Practices: The perceived importance of implicit and explicit goals and performance standards; emphasis on doing a good job; the challenge represented in personal and group goals.

Ethical Practices: The extent to which members of the organization believe that ethical practices are important to them personally, believe that the organization's core values and codes of conduct can and should be upheld in all circumstances; endorsement of ethical courses of action.

Meyer and Allen (1997, p.11) suggest that a common theme exists in the many definitions of Organizational Commitment. This theme is that "commitment is a psychological state that (a) characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization, and (b) has implications for the decision to continue membership in the organization." Research by Meyer and Allen (1997, p.12) resulted in the working definitions of the three components of Organizational Commitment:

Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they *want* to do so.

Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they *need* to do so.

Normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they *ought* to remain with the organization.

important research and findings are presented. Meyer and Allen's (1997) research is traced to the development of the three components of Organizational Commitment. The research identifying both the antecedents of Organizational Commitment and the effects of Organizational Climate are presented. Literature and research suggesting links between Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment are examined.

Chapter III examines the reasoning for the selection of the qualitative research paradigm that guided this research and documents the methodology used. This chapter traces all aspects of the instrumental case study design and the use of methodological triangulation. The survey instrument and application are described. Both the survey group and individual interview protocols are reviewed. Ethical considerations are discussed as they apply to the potential for identification of those who participated in the focus groups and interviews. Finally, survey indexing and interview data coding are depicted.

Chapter IV, the analysis of data chapter, presents research findings from the three research methods employed. Patterns of results that are relevant to the statistical significance of the nine dimensions of Organizational Climate and the three components of Organizational Commitment are presented. Themes of findings from both the focus groups and individual interviews are presented. These address the perceived relationship between Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment. Reflective findings from both focus groups and interviews are summarized.

The study concludes with the development of conclusions and implications for both theory and practice in Chapter V. This chapter relates patterns of findings, working conclusions, and recommendations from the research addressing the research question: Does there exist a significant relationship between the dimensions of Organizational

Climate (structure, responsibility, risk, rewards, warmth and support, conflict, organizational identity, approval practices, ethical practices) and the three components of Organizational Commitment (affective, continuance, and normative)? Recommendations are made for future research and working hypotheses offered to guide the research recommendations. The document closes with supporting references and appendices.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter evaluates and organizes theoretical perspectives and the previous relevant research findings in the literature addressing the constructs of Organizational Climate, Organizational Commitment and related theories. This is done within the context of the research problem: *How do the nine dimensions of Organizational Climate* (McNabb & Sepic, 1995) *relate to the three components of Organizational Commitment* (Meyer & Allen, 1997)? The six major parts of this chapter are presented in Figure One: Organizational Culture, Organizational Climate, Organizational Commitment, Organizational Climate Effects, Antecedents of Organizational Commitment, and Summary.

Because of the lack of agreement concerning the definition of either construct (Denison, 1996), both Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment Theory are traced to McNabb and Sepic's (1995) working definition of Organizational Climate dimensions and Meyer and Allen's (1997) working definition of the components of Organizational Commitment. Literature addressing the multiple parts of each working definition is also compared and contrasted.

General trends in research findings concerning the antecedents of organizational commitment and anticipated effects of Organizational Climate are described. Works linking Organizational Climate and organizational commitment are examined unearthing useful questions that need further research. A summary of what is known about the relationship between these two constructs is presented as a synthesis of the literature.

*Figure One.* Logical Outline and Organization of the Literature Review Chapter: Organizational Culture, Organizational Climate, Organizational Commitment, Effects of Organizational Climate and Antecedents of Organizational Commitment, Summary.
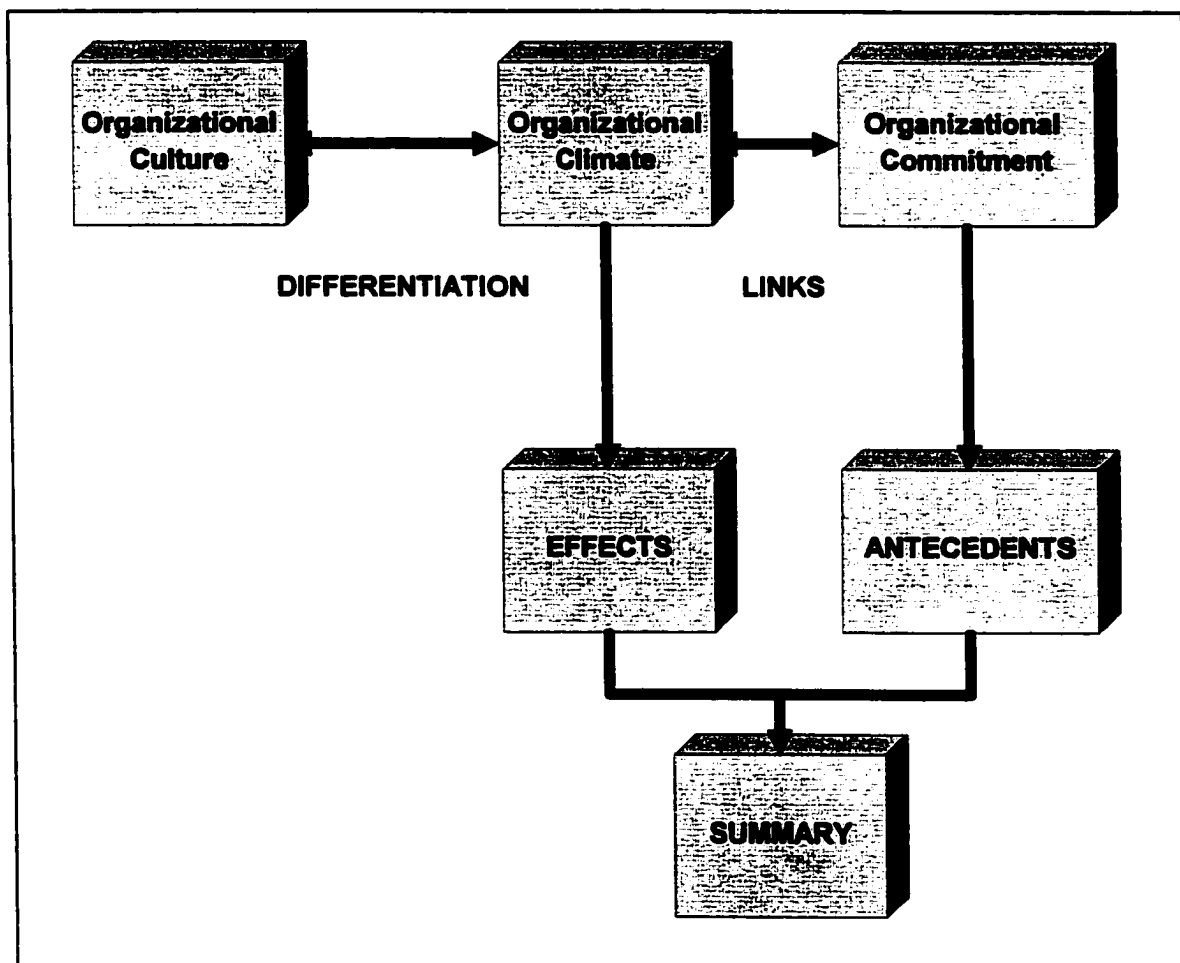
Before proceeding with a review of the literature concerning Organizational Commitment and Organizational Climate it is important to note the confusion in the literature concerning the concepts of Organizational Climate and Organizational Culture. Recent quantitative research in Organizational Culture appears to overlap research based on Organizational Climate (Harrison & Shirom, 1999, p.264; Moran & Volkwein, 1992, p.41). The differences between Organizational Culture and Organizational Climate need to be analyzed in order to resolve the confusion between these two constructs. The epistemological and methodological approaches and their theoretical foundations are compared and contrasted in an effort to untangle the confounding of Organizational Culture from the construct of Organizational Climate.

In this section of the literature review the evolution of Organizational Culture Theory is traced. Definitions and a model of Organizational Culture are presented. Factors influencing the intertwining of Organizational Culture Theory with Organizational Climate Theory are discussed. Differentiation of Organizational Climate from Organizational Culture is made.

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE THEORY

In 1952 Elliott Jaques introduced "culture of a factory" (Ott, 1989, p.6) as a concept in the literature. Later in 1957 Philip Selznick applied the term "Organizational Culture" in the literature. Organizational Culture continued in both academic and practitioner literature over the next 50 years. The early 1980s witnessed the dawn of the Organizational Culture literature as a "hot" topic in books and journals. Table One lists a

variety of academic and practitioner books. This list is meant to be illustrative but not exhaustive.

The structural and systems perspective of organizations dominated organizational theory in the 1960s and 1970s. Organizations were assumed to be institutions whose major purposes are to accomplish established goals (Ott, 1989). The primary question addressed by the structural and systems perspective was how to design and manage to accomplish an organization's purpose effectively and efficiently.

It was the resistance of school systems to the structural and systems interpretation that opened the door for the Organizational Culture School. According to Ouchi and Wilkins (1985) researchers such as Cohen, March and Olsen, Dornbush and Scott, Weich, and Meyer and Rowan all studied school districts and experienced similar befuddling experiences. Additionally, Lincoln, et al. (1978) compared structures in Japanese and Japanese-American organizations owned by Japanese firms but could not explain the differences in atmosphere.

Karl Weick (1979) argued that four basic organizational conditions must exist in order for the structuralism and systems school analysis to be valid:

1. A self-correcting system of interdependent people.

2. Consensus on objects and methods.

3. Coordination is achieved through sharing information.

4. Organizational problems and solutions must be predictable.

He further concluded that these conditions seldom existed in modern organizations. The ground was prepared for a new approach to the study of organizations.

Organizational Culture Theory draws on three disciplines (anthropology, psychology and sociology; Ouchi & Wilkins, 1985; Ott 1989; Martin & Frost, 1996) rather than from a single disciplinary family. Of the three, anthropology provides the primary intellectual foundation (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984; Ouchi & Wilkins, 1985). Cultural anthropologists have proposed varying and complex theories of culture. These can be characterized by assumptions, slants and emphasis (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984).

Two schools emerge based on theorists' views of culture as either meshed in the social system or separate from it. The Sociocultural System School reflects the integrated view. This view postulates harmony between culture and the social system. The second school poses culture as an ideational system. The Ideational System School reflects a view of culture as conceptually separate from the social system. This distinction between social systems, which focus on the interaction of individuals, and collectives which focused on patterns of meanings such as values, norms and beliefs (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984) mark the differences between these two schools.

The Sociocultural System School is further divided into four schools based on the concept of time. The functional and functional-structuralist schools focus on the study of culture at particular points of time and space. The works of Organizational Culture Theory scholars and practitioners (Ouchi, 1981; Pascale & Athos, 1981; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Schein, 1983) are based on the philosophies reflected in the functionalist and functionalist-structuralists schools (Ouchi & Wilkins, 1985).

Anthropology's diverse influence on Organizational Culture is reflected in three areas. Anthropology, whose emphasis on describing culture rather than treating it as a predictor of performance, influenced the focus of early Organizational Culture studies.

Secondly, anthropology's use of deep analysis influenced the qualitative methodological approach to Organizational Culture analysis. Third, anthropology's integrative view of culture and social systems influenced the view of organizations being a culture rather than Organizational Culture seen as an organizational attribute, i.e., an organization having a culture.

Several frameworks have been offered to review and analyze the Organizational Culture literature in an effort to understand the intellectual differences of opinion about epistemology, methodology, political ideology and theory found in the literature. Smircich and Calas (1987) presented three thematic frames (themes, paradigms, and interests) embedded in the organizational symbolism literature. Reichers and Schneider (1990) offered a three-stage model of the development of a theoretical perspective (introduction and elaboration, evaluation and argument, and consolidation and accommodation), which they applied to the Organizational Culture literature. Martin (1992) presented three competitive perspectives that researchers use to understand cultures in organizations. These perspectives are integration perspective, differentiation perspective, and fragmentation perspective. Denison (1996) criticized Martin's three perspectives accusing them of being presented as three different phenomena and thus contributing to extreme versus integrative view of Organizational Culture. Harrison and Shirom (1999) view these three perspectives as partially complementary and suggested that each perspective could make a meaningful contribution to diagnosis.

Table One

*A Chronology of Organizational Culture Books.*

| Date | Title | Author(s) |
|------|-------|-----------|
| 1981 | Theory Z | Ouchi |
| 1981 | The Art of Japanese Management | Pascal and Athos |
| 1982 | Corporate Cultures | Deal and Kennedy |
| 1982 | In Search of Excellence | Peters and Waterman |
| 1985 | Organizational Culture and Leadership | Schein |
| 1985 | Organizational Culture | Frost, Moore, Louis, Lundberg, and Martin |
| 1989 | The Organizational Culture Perspective | Ott |
| 1990 | Organizational Climate and Culture | Schneider |
| 1992 | Cultures in Organizations | Martin |
| 1992 | Corporate Culture and Performance | Kotter and Heskett |
| 1993 | The Cultures of Work Organizations | Trice and Beyer |
| 1997 | Images of Organization | Morgan |
| 1999 | The Corporate Culture Survival Guide | Schein |
| 2000 | Handbook of Culture and Climate | Ashkanasy, Wilderom, and Peterson |

Martin (1992, p.12) describes the three perspectives as follows:

> Studies conducted from an Integration perspective have three defining characteristics: all cultural manifestations mentioned are interpreted as consistently reinforcing the same themes, all members of the organization are said to share in an organization-wide consensus, and the culture is described as a realm where all is clear. Ambiguity is excluded.
>
> In contrast, research conducted from a Differentiation perspective describes cultural manifestations as sometimes inconsistent (for example, when managers say one thing and do another). Consensus occurs only within the boundaries of subcultures, which often conflict with each other. Ambiguity is channeled, so that it does not intrude on the clarity, which exists within these sub cultural boundaries.
>
> Studies conducted from a Fragmentation perspective focus on ambiguity as the essence of Organizational Culture. Consensus and dis-census are issue-specific and constantly fluctuating. No stable organization-wide or sub cultural consensus exists. Clear consistencies and clear inconsistencies are rare.

The evolution of Organizational Culture literature has been described as chaotic, without consensus, and with little cumulative building of knowledge (Martin & Frost, 1996).

Organizational Culture is marked by multiple definitions. A search in the Social Sciences Citation Index for the period 1960-93 of the collected articles and books for the presence of descriptions and definitions of the concept Organizational Culture yielded 54 definitions (Verbeke, Volgering & Hessels, 1998). Martin (1992) in identifying Organizational Culture definitions from an integrative perspective listed 8 different definitions and from a differentiation perspective listed an additional 13 definitions. This lack of a uniform definition of Organizational Culture is one of several factors causing the intertwining of Organizational Culture with Organizational Climate.

Edgar Schein developed the most widely recognized model of Organizational Culture by conceptualizing three levels of Organizational Culture (Schein, 1981, 1983,):

Level 1 – artifacts.

Level 2 – values and beliefs.

Level 3 – basic underlying assumptions.

The top layer, "artifacts" is described as "what you observe when you go into an organization" (Schein, 1999, p. 15). Various categories of artifacts have been suggested: technology, art, and visible and audible behavior. Level two, the "espoused values," are reflected by strategies, goals, and philosophies. These can be tested in both the physical environment and through social consensus. The third and bottom level, "basic underlying assumptions," are described as unconscious, taken for granted beliefs, perceptions, thoughts, and feelings that Schein (1999) describes as the ultimate source of values and action. This popular layering model has been reflected in several ways with various numbers of layers: as a set of concentric circles by Rousseau (1990, p. 158), as a set of stacked blocks by the Bath Consultancy Group (Hawkins, 1997, p. 429) and as a layered line (Harrison and Shirom, 1999, p. 260).

The confusion generated by multiple definitions of Organizational Climate has fueled the intertwining of Organizational Culture with Organizational Climate. The multilayer model has provided a mechanism to relate Organizational Climate to Organizational Culture by suggesting that it folds into the top level of artifacts in the model.

Table Two

*Representative Studies of Culture (Siehl & Martin 1990).*

*Note.* This table illustrates the representative studies that reflect the three Organizational Culture perspectives.

| Integration | Differentiation | Fragmentation (Ambiguity) |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Barley (1983) | Gregory (1983) | Brunsson (1985) |
| Clark (1970, 1972) | Louis (1983) | Calas & Smircich (1987) |
| Martin, Feldman, Hatch & Sitkin (1983) | Lukas (1987) | March & Olsen (1976) |
| Ouchi (1981) | Martin & Siehl (1983) | Starbuck (1983) |
| Pascale & Athos (1981) | Riley (1983) | Weick 1979) |
| Peters and Waterman (1982) | Van Maaen & Barley (1984) | |
| Schein (1981, 1983, 1985) Selznick (1957) | | |
| Wilkins (1984) | | |

Four factors contribute to the intertwining or confusing of Organizational Culture with Organizational Climate. The first factor is conceptual confusion in the literature (Trice & Beyer, 1993). Glick (1985) points out that cultural researchers now discuss many issues discussed originally in the context of Organizational Climate. This may be explained by the tendency of some writers to use Organizational Culture as a very general and all encompassing concept (Trice & Beyer, 1993) thereby rolling up Organizational Climate within Organizational Culture.

The second factor is methodology creep on the part of Organizational Culture researchers from qualitative methods to quantitative methods. Several applied and academic studies of culture have used standardized questionnaires and cultural inventories (Hofstede, 1980; Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Hofstede, et al., 1990; Rousseau, 1990; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). These instruments rely on members' perceptions concerning cultural "dimensions," and thus closely resemble the instruments originally developed for climate studies (Harrison & Shirom, 1999).

The third factor is confusion of definitions (Moran & Volkwein, 1992). Verbeke, Volgering and Hessels' (1998) search in the Social Sciences Citation Index for the period 1960-93 of the collected articles and books for the presence of descriptions and definitions yielded 54 definitions for Organizational Culture and 32 definitions for Organizational Climate. This substantiates Ott's (1989, p.47) statement that, "There appears to be as little agreement in the literature about the nature of Organizational Climate as there is about the nature of Organizational Culture."

The final and perhaps most important factor in the literature is the failure to recognize that Organizational Culture and Organizational Climate evolved from different

academic disciplines (Moran & Volkweln, 1992). The most significant difference between the culture and climate literatures lies in the theoretical traditions that have been borrowed from other branches of the social sciences (Denison, 1996). Organizational Climate has its roots in the field theory of Kurt Lewin (1951) and the work of other social psychologists, whereas Organizational Culture is grounded in anthropology (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984; Ouichi & Wilkins, 1985; Smircich & Calas, 1987).

Disentangling Organizational Climate from Organizational Culture requires addressing their conceptual origins and epistemology as well as their differing methodologies. Organizational Climate has distinctly different origins than Organizational Culture. This contributes to its different meaning. As originally conceptualized, Organizational Climate referred to psychological environments in which the behaviors of individuals occurred. Research studies focused on individually perceived and immediate experiences of organization members (Campbell, et al., 1970; Hellriegel & Slocum, 1974). It focused on measuring the perceptions of individuals about their organizations, rather than beliefs, values, or norms shared by groups of people. Social psychology stresses the process by which the shared values are attended to.

The origin of Organizational Culture is anthropology that examines culture through its various forms: artifacts, myths, legends, symbols, and rituals. These reveal shared values and ideologies. These origins contribute to two very different epistemologies. Organizational Climate is grounded in an epistemology of inter-psychic phenomena while Organizational Culture is grounded in intra-psychic phenomena (Moran & Volkwein, 1992).

Another basic difference between Organizational Climate and Organizational Culture is that the methods used to measure climate were developed to measure attitudes. They are techniques that impose a downside risk of imposing researchers' views of the world on those being studied. It is far from clear that what is asked about is cultural, either in the sense of emerging from shared experiences, or in the sense of reflecting people's core understandings of their organizations. It is clear that if attitudes reflect culture at all, it is at only the most superficial level. Methodologies of cultural research are based on intensive data collection. This is primarily a method applied over a substantial period of time (Trice & Beyer, 1993).

There are similarities between Organizational Climate and Organizational Culture that contribute to the entanglement of their concepts and confusion concerning their separate meanings. Each is historical, enduring to various degrees and resistant to change (James & Sells, 1981; Louis, 1983). Consensus is required to identify a unit as having a climate or a culture (Payne, et al., 1976; Joyce & Slocum, 1984; Louis, 1983). Climate, like culture, is a broad class of organizational and psychological variables that reflect individuals' interaction in an organizational setting (Glick, 1985). Individual cognitions and interpretations as well as beliefs are primary elements in each (Schneider, 1975; James & Sells, 1981). Each identifies levels of differentiation of members in different units of a larger organization demonstrating distinctive sets of beliefs (James & Sells, 1981; Louis, 1983).

Despite these similarities Organizational Climate is separate and distinct from Organizational Culture. Various scholars have acknowledged that important differences between culture and climate exist (Denison, 1996; Harrison & Shirom, 1999; Moran &

Volkwein, 1992; Rousseau, 1990; Ott, 1989). It is clear that Organizational Climate with its positivist approach to studying group dynamics based on its social psychologist roots is based on a viewpoint that people work within an Organizational Climate. However, they do not create it. Instead, top managers create the Organizational Climate (McGregor, 1957). Organizational Climate researchers use questionnaires to assess participants' thoughts, feelings, and reported behavior-features and that these methods may or may not reflect deep organizational cultural phenomena (Harrison & Shirom, 1999). A deeper look at Organizational Climate is now necessary.

ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE THEORY

Organizational Climate Theory has been described as "one of the most important but least understood concepts in management" (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1974, p.255). Part of these conceptual misunderstanding results from the highly diverse and even contradictory conceptual and operational definitions, measurement techniques and research findings (James & Jones, 1974) associated with Organizational Climate Theory. In order to examine this theory various aspects of climate are examined in this section of the literature review chapter.

The conceptual foundations of Organizational Climate, principally environment and climate are examined. The theoretical background of Organizational Climate is examined. Measurement approaches to Organizational Climate are reviewed.

Environment

Why did the concept of environment take so long to appear in organizational theory writings? As early as the 1930s it was suggested that in order to understand rat behavior it is necessary to consider the environments. It seemed logical to pay more attention to the environments if one is trying to understand human subjects, whose environments are so much more complex and variable (Tagiuri, 1968). With the early work of Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) the concept of climate was introduced into the vocabulary of social psychology (Schneider, Bowen, Ehrhart, & Holcombe, 2000). The use of the terms social climate and social atmosphere were interchangeably used as an indicator of the psychological conditions created by leaders of boys' groups in Lewin's research. The research focused on the consequences of leader behavior on the observed behavior displayed by the boys in the same group but subject to different leadership styles.

After instructing different leaders to behave in democratic, authoritarian, and laissez-faire leadership styles, the researchers then observed the effects of these leadership styles on the boys. While boys subject to democratic leadership showed no more productivity than boys subjected to authoritarian leadership, the boys subject to democratic leadership displayed higher levels of cooperation, higher levels of participation in class work, and more openness toward the leader and each other than did boys in the other groups. Lewin, et al. (1939), concluded the atmosphere that emerged in the democratic clubs was characterized by a broader range of positive experiences for the boys (including having fun) than was true in either of the other conditions.

In reviewing this research, Schneider, Bowen, Ehrhart, and Holcombe (2000) noted there are several important points. First, the role of the leader was paramount in this effort. Second, the climate or atmosphere of interest was not measured through the boys' perceptions but documented in the behavioral and attitudinal differences displayed by them under the three leadership conditions. Third, other issues beyond the immediately social or interpersonal issues emerged related to leadership style. For example, fun was also a difference that was identified across the groups. Fourth, the research was conducted as a field experiment on an important social issue (leadership style).

The research was designed not to test a complete theory, but rather to gather information as well as test some general hypotheses. Climate is an abstraction defined by a set of behaviors and attitudes, but existing as an abstraction of those behaviors and attitudes would have far reaching influence on Organizational Climate Theory development (Schneider, Bowen, Ehrhart, & Holcombe, 2000).

Even with this pioneering work in the 1930s it was not until the 1950s and 1960s that the concept of environment was identified which later led to climate and eventually Organizational Climate. Why did this take so long? Two factors appear influential in answering this question. First, popular organizational theorists of the time were focused on mechanistic views of organizations or as Shafritz and Ott (1996) would classify them: classical and neoclassical organizational theorists. Secondly, there are difficulties with the environmental concept (Tagiuri, 1968).

Organizational theorists of the classical and neoclassical period appeared to be more interested in descriptive rather than normative explanations of human behavior in

organizations. Their theoretical models did not directly address concepts of environment or climate. Classical organization theories are reflected in the writings of Henri Fayol (1916), Frederick W. Taylor (1916), Max Weber (1922), and Luther Gulick (1937). These theories assume that man is a logical and economically motivated being. The theorists of this group were mainly concerned with the subdivision of activities into clearly definable units, the formal structure of the organization, and work process definitions that were based in large part on time and motion studies, work flow definitions and production planning and control charting (Litwin & Stringer, 1968). This thinking seemed to prohibit the informal and subjective consideration of environment and climate.

The neoclassic theories are reflected by the writings of Chester Barnard (1938), Herbert Simon (1946), and Philip Selznick (1948). These theories viewed organizations as cognitive and economically based and were interested in how decisions were made They also postulated a model of man in organizations as rational, logical, and reasonable. These theorists emphasized resolution of conflict, uncertainty avoidance, problematic search, and organizational learning and adaptation (Litwin & Stringer, 1968). Again the concepts of environment and climate were not directly addressed.

Although it was recognized that, "the way an Individual carries out a given task depends upon what kind of person he is, on the one hand, and the setting in which he acts" (Tagiuri, 1968, p. 11), the effect of the environment with which organizations surround the individual for much of his working days have very important consequences for him personally, as well as for the manner in which he carries out the tasks for the

organization itself. The concept of environment as initially addressed in the literature had

difficulties as noted in Table Three. While a growing number of theorists recognize the

Table Three

*Difficulties with the Environmental Concept*

| Difficulty | Explanation |
|---|---|
| Distinguishing between the objective and subjective environment | Distinguishing between actual and conceptual situations is difficult. |
| Distinguishing between the person and the situation | It is difficult distinguishing between the person and environment. Where does the person end and the environment begin? |
| Determining what aspects of the environment need to be specified | What should be included in the concept of environment? What should be focused on? |
| Identifying the structures and dynamics of the environment | Certain dimensions may be chosen to be studied based on theory, the experimenter's interest or convenience. Lewin's study is an example. |

*Note.* Difficulties with the environmental concept summarized by Tagiuri (1968, p.11).

Importance of the environment in understanding human motivation, especially in

organizations, there were no useful definitions of environment to guide them nor had

existing terms been used consistently (Tagiuri, 1968). This then becomes the argument

for the climate concept.

## Climate

The term climate as meant by Tagiuri (1968, p.11) is a covenant analytic and

descriptive concept, which has a role to play among cognate terms. It is a synthetic

concept that can be very useful for theory and practice. For theory it has the obvious

advantage of a middle ground summary term that is somewhat free of the component details and permits generalizations of the kind that are especially scarce in the behavioral sciences.

Litwin and Stringer, addressing climate, reverted back to Lewin's theory of motivation: the concept of "atmosphere" or "climate is an essential functional link between the person (P) and the environment (E). Lewin was convinced that climates were "scientifically describable facts" and "empirical realities" (Tagiuri, 1968, p.10).

Tagiuri (1968, p.11) describes the attributes of climate as follows:

Climate is molar, synthetic concept (like personality)
Climate is a particular configuration of situational variables
Its component elements may vary, however, while the climate may remain the same
It is the meaning of an enduring situational configuration
Climate has a connotation of continuity, but may not as lasting as culture
Climate is determined importantly by characteristics, conduct, attitudes, expectations of other persons, by sociological and cultural realities
Climate is phenomenologically external to the actor, who may, however, feel that he contributes to its nature.
Climate is phenomenologically distinct from the task for both observer and actor
It is the actor or observer's head, though not necessarily in a conscious form, but it is based on characteristics of external reality
It is capable of being shared (as consensus) by several persons in the situation, and is interpreted in terms of shared meanings (with some individual variations around a consensus)
It cannot be common delusion, since it must be veridically based on external reality
It may or may not be capable of description in words, although it may be capable of specification in terms of response
It has potential behavioral consequences
It is an indirect determinant of behavior in that it acts upon attitudes, expectations, and states of arousal, which are direct determinants of behavior

Tagiuri's (1968, p.25) "crude definition" of climate is that it, "has the relatively enduring quality of the total environment that (a) is experienced by the occupants, (b) influences their behavior, and (c) can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics (or attitudes) of the environment."

Research and thinking on climate since Lewin's work focused on the role of the leader. McGregor (1957) emphasized the role of the manager in creating a managerial climate. He implied a relationship between leaders and subordinates that is trusting, participative, and supportive. McGregor suggested that many subtle behavioral manifestations of managerial attitude create what is often referred to as the psychological climate of the relationship. He went on to elaborate that Theory X or Theory Y managers implement through their behavior their beliefs in people, and it is this behavior that (a) reflects their attitudes toward people and (b) creates the climate of the relationship (Schneider, Bowen, Ehrhart, & Holcombe, 2000, p.23).

The climate concept was not without controversy. Throughout the 1960s and into the 1970s issues surfaced in research on climate. The first was that the focus on individual levels of analysis for an organizational construct was conceptually inappropriate. The argument was made that if climate as conceptualized and measured as an individual variable, it was merely old (job satisfaction) wine in new (climate) bottles (James & Jones, 1974).

Guion (1973) addressed the relationship between climate and satisfaction by arguing that unless there is essentially 100% agreement among the respondents in an organization, all that is measured is individual job satisfaction. The response to climate as

satisfaction resulted in several papers focusing on climate data and satisfaction data showing that they are not at all necessarily correlated, even at the individual level of analysis (LaFollette & Sims, 1975; Schneider & Snyder, 1975).

The next issue involved the construct when it was treated as an organizational level variable. Little was known about the reliability of the data being aggregated to produce that organizational variable. James and Jones (1974, p.1110) resolved this, proposing that when climate is conceptualized and measured at the individual level of analysis it constitutes "psychological climate and when the construct is conceptualized and studied as an organizational (or at least beyond individual) variable it is 'Organizational Climate.'" This differentiation led researchers to the current concept of environment or climate as Organizational Climate.

## Organizational Climate

Organizational Climate has been used as an intermediate or intervening concept in trying to link theories of human motivation with the behavior of individuals in organizations. The concept "provides a way of describing the effects of organizations and organizational life on the motivation of the individuals who work in these organizations..." (Fox, 1968, p.v). Early work on climate by Litwin and Stringer (1968, p.12) was based on Adkinson and McCelland's model of motivation. This model is based on three intrinsic and nonmaterial motivators: the need for achievement, the need for power, and the need for affiliation. This model suggested that arousal motivation (to strive for a particular kind of satisfaction or goal) is a joint function of, " (a) the strength of the basic motive (M), (b) the expectancy of attaining the goal (E), and (c) the

perceived incentative value of the particular goal (I)." This model can be summarized as follows:

$$\text{Arousal Motivation} = M \times E \times I$$

This theory is closely related to the Field Theory of behavior proposed by Kurt Lewin (1938). The Field Theory states that, "the tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of the expectancy of belief that the act will lead to a particular outcome or goal and on the value of that outcome or goal to the person" (Litwin & Stringer, 1968, p. 12). The strength of these motives is assessed by the Thematic Appreciation Test developed by Murray (1938).

McClelland (1961, 1962) went on to expand the three intrinsic motivators into the Learned Needs Theory in which he contends that individuals acquire needs from the culture of society by learning from events that they experience, particularly in early life. Four of the learned needs are achievement, power, affiliation and autonomy. Despite criticisms of McClelland's research and theory, the concept of learned or acquired needs is an important one and has clear applicability to organizational and work settings.

Denison (1996, p.621) notes that:

> The concept of Organizational Climate has its beginnings in Lewin's studies of experimentally created social climates (Lewin, 1951; Lewin, Lippit, & White, 1939). Initial books on climate as a topic of study appeared in 1968. The first (Tagiuri & Litwin, 1968) was a collection of essays that reflected approaches to climate ranging from climate as an "objective" set of organizational conditions to climate as the "subjective interpretation" of Individual and organizational characteristics. The second book (Litwin & Stringer, 1968) addressed the consequences of Organizational Climate for individual motivation. Thus

supporting the general idea that climate encompasses both organizational conditions and individual reactions.

Despite the ongoing evolution of the Organizational Climate construct it has proven to be prominent in organizational research (Rousseau, 1988). Several definitions have been offered by various authors as illustrated in Table Four. Since the mid-1960 at least, 11 reviews of climate literature have been published (Campbell, Dunnett, Lawler, & Weick, 1970; Hellriegel & Slocum, 1974; James & Jones, 1974; Jones & James, 1979; Joyce & Slocom, 1979; Payne & Pugh, 1976; Powell & Butterfield, 1978; Schneider & Reichers, 1983; Rousseau, 1988; Woodman & King, 1978), making Organizational Climate a mature concept in organizational science.

Cambell, Dunnette, Lawler, and Weick (1970) described four major dimensions of Organizational Climate: (1) individual autonomy, (2) degree of structure imposed on the position, (3) reward orientation, and (4) consideration, warmth, and support. Individual autonomy describes "the freedom of the individual to be his own boss and reserve considerable decision-making power for himself. The degree of structure refers to "the degree to which the objectives of, and methods for, the job are established and communicated to the individual by superiors." Reward orientation "convey(s) a reward overtone" for performance. The fourth category, consideration, warmth, and support, refers to "the support and stimulation received from one's superior" (Campbell et al., 1970, p. 393). Litwin and Stringer (1968) defined their climate index in terms of nine climate scales including the dimensions of: (1) structure to work, (2) responsibility-willingness to take, (3) reward-degree of positive, (4) risk-willingness to take, (5) warmth, (6) support-trust, (7) standards of performance, (8) conflict-openness to, and (9) identity-loyalty. McNabb and Sepic (1995) in their study of TQM implementation in a

federal agency utilized a ninety seven question survey based on Litwin and Stringer's nine dimensions of climate with the addition of an ethical practices dimension. This instrument was pre-tested and revised based on input from Reichers and Schneider (1990). In an analysis of 31 studies Hellriegel and Slocum (1974) found that the bulk of the survey instruments consisted of 20 to 80 items. Response scales of virtually all the instruments utilized nominal scales. They agreed with Campbell et al. (1970) that there was a core of four dimensions but found there was more diversity of dimensions than the four identified by Campbell.

## ANTICIPATED EFFECTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

In this section, modern research addressing the anticipated effects of positive and negative Organizational Climate perspectives is examined. Organizational Climate as an antecedent of TQM, organizational success, job satisfaction, customer satisfaction, and organizational performance are reviewed. Anticipated effects of Organizational Climate are summarized.

Several studies provide examples of the relationship between Organizational Climate and several other factors such as TQM implementation and program success. McNabb and Sepic (1995) examined readiness to accept TQM as a measurement of readiness for acceptance for change in five federal agencies. 265 staff and supervisory personnel participated in a 97-question survey. The study attempted to relate the concept of operating climate and the moderating principle of organizational policies and practices with measures of a multiunit federal agency's readiness to adopt a major change in its operating environment. The study results were interpreted as indicating the agency would

experience difficulty in achieving acceptance of a TQM program.

McNabb and Sepic concluded that Organizational Climate must be measured before a change initiative is begun. They further concluded that if it were necessary, Organizational Climate should be adjusted to improve the acceptance of change (McNabb & Sepic, 1995). McNabb and Sepic suggested that if a climate is unfavorable, an equally powerful but opposite force is exerted on members' behavior.

Emery, Summers and Surak's (1996) research found that conductive Organizational Climate might be a fundamental determinant to initializing TQM. Their literature review revealed that none of the studies they found had empirically examined the effects of preimplementation climate factors on TQM implementation. The change literature suggests that successful implementation of TQM depends on a work climate conducive to innovation (Smith, et al., 1993; Zammuto & O'Connor, 1992) and learning (Senge, 1990; Townsend & Gebhardt, 1990). Emery, Summers and Surak (1996) suggested that some authors have speculated about these climate factors, most notably Smith, Discenza, and Piland (1993), who argued that cultivating a climate for innovation is a useful TQM implementation strategy.

Based on their review of the literature Emery, Summers and Surak (1996) proposed that a positive climate is a necessary precondition to successful TQM implementation. This was the hypothesis tested in their research. Their methodology consisted of a secondary analysis of data. A preliminary and secondary survey of employees in thirteen defense contractors' organizations over eight months after initial TQM implementation was conducted. 15,722 respondents participated in the surveys. Sustainability of a TQM program was compared to the Organizational Climate measures.

Their conclusions from analysis of the survey results were that Organizational Climate plays a significant role in sustainability of TQM implementations. These results also provide support for the findings of Harber, et al. (1993) and Counte, et al. (1992), who found that climate improved following TQM implementation. Emery, Summers and Surak's (1996) final conclusion was that the use of employee climate survey is a wise reconnaissance tool for assessing pre-implementation perceptions for a TQM program.

## Job Satisfaction

In McNabb and Sepic's (1995, p.374) research in five federal agencies, it was noted that job satisfaction might be defined as "a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the perception of one's job as fulfilling or allowing the fulfillment of one's important job values." This definition resulted from research conducted by Brown and Corless (1990). McNabb and Sepic's study findings imply that Organizational Climate is an antecedent of job satisfaction and job performance. They state, "Employees and managers who are comfortable in their jobs (who have high job satisfaction) and are highly rated in job performance will most likely have positive attitudes toward change." (McNabb and Sepic, 1995, p.374)

The study showed that more than 30% of the survey sample reported low job satisfaction. These respondents also were least positive toward the agencies' training and rewards dimensions of climate. The research findings seem consistent with Harber, Burgess, and Barclay's (1993) assertion that TQM programs would be more successful if climate is modified and managed to elicit employee commitment and satisfaction consistent with the values of TQM.

Table Four

*A Chronology of Organizational Climate Definitions*

| Author(s) | Definition |
| --- | --- |
| Forehand and Gilmer (1964) | Characteristics that (1) distinguish one organization from another, (2) endure over time, and (3) influence the behavior of people in organizations. The personality of the organization. |
| Fredlander and Margulies (1969) | Perceived organizational properties intervening between organizational characteristics and behavior. |
| Campbell, et al. (1970) | A set of attitudes and expectations describing the organization's static characteristics, and behavior-outcome and outcome-outcome contingencies. |
| Schneider and Hall (1972) | Individual perceptions of their organization affected by characteristics of the organization and the individual. |
| James and Jones (1974) | Psychologically meaningful cognitive representations of the situation; perceptions |
| Schneider (1975) | Perceptions or interpretations of meaning which help individuals make sense of the world and know how to behave. |
| Payne, Fineman and Wall (1976) | Consensus of individual's descriptions about the organization. |
| Litwin and Stringer (1978) | A psychological process intervening between organizational characteristics and behavior. |
| James and Sells (1981) | Individuals' cognitive representations of proximal environments... expressed in terms of psychological meaning and significance to the individual... an attribute of the individual, which is learned, historical and resistant to change. |
| Schneider and Reichers (1983) | An assessed molar perception or an inference researchers make based on more particular perceptions. |
| Glick (1985) | ('Organizational Climate') A generic term from a broad class of organizational, rather than psychological, variables that describe the context for individual's actions. |
| McNabb and Sepic (1995) | Organizational Climate is a concept reflecting the content and strength of the prevalent values, norms, attitudes, behaviors and feelings of the people in an organization. |

Customer Satisfaction and Organizational Performance

Research was conducted by Wiley and Brooks (2000) to examine the relationship between Organizational Climate dimensions and customer satisfaction and other measures of organizational performance. Their research approach examined high-performance and Organizational Climate as linking research (Wiley, 1996). The purpose of linking research is to identify those elements of the work environment--as described by the employees--that correlate, or link, to critically important organizational outcomes such as customer satisfaction and business performance.

Implications of the case study analysis conducted by Wiley and Brooks (2000) was that properly designed employee-based measures of the work environment and Organizational Climate are key tools for the diagnosis of bottom-line organizational success. Such tools can be, as Schneider, White, and Paul (1998) explained, measures of more than just opinions. The results of such diagnoses can identify a clear road map for organizational development and needed improvements. These authors stated that "the few studies that have included business performance measures have all found significant relationships with at least some climate dimensions--in patterns consistent with the customer and client dimension relationships (Wiley & Brooks, 2000, p.182)." Table Five highlights findings in this area.

In further research Schneider, White, and Paul (1998) tested, among other factors, the premise that climate for service causes customer perceptions. Data was collected at multiple points in time from employees and customers of 134 branches of a bank. Support for individual climate-for-service, scales of customer feedback and measures of

global service climate were positively and significantly related to overall customer perceptions.

Additionally Johnson (1996) and Morrison (1997) both found significant and positive relationships between how favorably members of an organization describe their work environment and how satisfied customers were with product and/or service obtained from the organizational unit. Thompson (1996) suggested that significant relationships also exist between how favorably employees describe their work units and various outcome measures such as profit margins, lower rates of grievance, absenteeism, and safety incident rates.

The four effects of Organizational Climate have been identified in the literature: TQM and organizational success, job satisfaction, and customer satisfaction and organizational performance. The most important of these with implications for this research is job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is highly correlated with Organizational Commitment. Mathieu and Zajac's (1990, p.183) meta-analysis finding indicate, "The correlations between job satisfaction and Organizational Commitment in the research literature were uniformly positive." McNabb and Sepic's (1995) study findings that imply Organizational Climate is an antecedent of job satisfaction provide support for further research investigating a relationship between the constructs of Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment.

Table Five

*Summary of Recent Literature on Employee Work Climate Dimensions Showing Positive Relationship to Customer Satisfaction and Business Performance*

| Work Climate Dimensions | Business Performance outcome measures | Overall customer Satisfaction |
|---|---|---|
| Improvement/empowerment | Ryan, et al. (1996) | |
| Teamwork/cooperation | Ryan, et al. (1996) | Ryan, et al. (1996) Johnson (1996) |
| Overall satisfaction/job satisfaction | Morrison (1997) Ryan, et al. (1996) McNabb & Sepic (1995) | Rucci, et al., (1998) Ryan, et al. (1996) |
| Company satisfaction | Ryan, et al. (1996) | Rucci, et al. (1998) Ryan, et al. (1996) |

## ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT THEORY

Organizational Commitment as a construct traces its theoretical roots to social exchange theory. This theory is further expanded upon in the background to this section on Organizational Commitment Theory. Because of the lack of agreement concerning the definition of this construct (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), Organizational Commitment Theory is traced over time to Meyer and Allen's (1997) working definitions of Organizational Commitment components. Literature addressing the multiple parts of the working definition are also compared and contrasted.

## Social Exchange Theory

Social Exchange Theory provides a conceptual perspective for the commitment construct (Whitener & Walz, 1993). Organizational Commitment can be described as a bargaining or exchange relationship between individuals employed by the organization and the organization itself (Homans, 1958). The employee agrees to provide time and effort in the organization in return for any benefits and other rewards (Grusky, 1966). The more favorable the employee's perception of the exchange of benefits and costs then the greater their commitment to the organization will become. Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) suggested that commitment by individuals was based on their perception of the balance of exchange between the organization and themselves. The more favorable the exchange from their point of view the greater their commitment to the organization.

## Side Bet Theory

Expanding on Social Exchange Theory, Becker in 1960 proposed the Side Bet Theory. Becker (1960, p.33) described commitment in a general way as a disposition to engage in "consistent lines of activity" as a result of an accumulation of "side bets" that would be lost if the activity was discontinued. This Side Bet Theory ascribed an investment quality to organizational participation.

Side Bets have been described as anything of value the individual has invested such as time, effort or skills that would be lost or considered worthless in some other venue. The more an employee invested into the organization in terms of time, retirement vesting, position, or status, the more they would potentially lose in leaving the

organization because of the real or perceived lack of alternatives to replace or make up for the lost investments.

This purported to explain and predict greater personal commitment by some employees to the organization. This expansion of exchange theory is based on the notions that as investments or "side bets" accumulate, the attractiveness of other career options or other organizations decline in comparison (Meyer & Allen, 1984). Continuance commitment can be also labeled in a similar manner. Continuance commitment is based on an economic rationale (Stevens, et al., 1978). Economic rationale is argued by Meyer and Allen (1997) as justification for their three-part model of Organizational Commitment.

## Multiple Definitions

Morrow (1993) identified over 25 commitment-related measures and constructs. Buchanan (1974) noting that little consensus existed concerning the definition of the Organizational Commitment, cited definitions by four different authors. Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) described two trends in Commitment Theory, attitude and behaviors.

The distinction between attitudinal and behavioral approaches to commitment is described by Brown (1996). In the behavior approach, a person is described who attains a position of commitment as a result of engaging in commitment behavior. Salancik (1977, p.4) describes this phenomenon by stating "to act is to commit oneself." Mowday, et al., (1979, p.225) offers another example of this type of commitment by suggesting we talk about a people being "bound by his actions" or "behaviors that exceed formal and/or normative expectations." In both Mowday's and Brown's explanations a similarity to the

Side Bet Theory, where sunk costs and behaviors that make it costly to subsequently reverse a position, are used to further describe behavioral commitment.

Attitude commitment (Mowday, et al., 1979) or attitudinal commitment (Brown, 1996) exist when "the identity of the person (is linked) to the organization (Sheldon, 1971, p.143)." "Attitudinal commitment represents a state in which an individual identifies with a particular organization and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in order to facilitate these goals (Mowday et al., 1979, p.225)." Brown (1996) suggests that affective and continuance commitment has been linked.

## Three Component Model of Organizational Commitment

Meyer and Allen (1997, p.11) suggest that, "Organizational Commitment can be defined generally as a psychological link between the employee and his or her organization that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organization." Organizational Commitment has evolved through an historical period of often conflicting and unidimensional views. Many researchers agree with Meyer and Allen that Organizational Commitment is in fact a multidimensional concept (Becker, 1992; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mayer & Schoolman, 1992; Morrow, 1993; O'Reilly, et al., 1991). In Meyer and Allen's (1991) review of the commitment literature they identified three distinct themes in the definition of commitment: commitment as an affective attachment to the organization, commitment as a perceived cost associated with leaving the organization (Side Bet Theory), and commitment as an obligation to remain in the organization. They developed a three-component model of Organizational

Commitment. According to this model, employees can experience varying degrees of all three forms of commitment.

## Affective Commitment Theory

Affective Commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they *want* to do so (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Other authors have offered similar definitions of Organizational Commitment that describe affective commitment in slightly different terms as described in Table Six.

## Continuance Commitment Theory

Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they *need* to do so (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Other authors have offered similar definitions of Organizational Commitment that describe continuance commitment in slightly different terms as described in Table Seven.

Table Six

*Definitions of Affective Commitment*

| Description | Author |
|---|---|
| The attachment of an individual's fund of affectivity and emotion to the group | Kanter, 1968, p. 507 |
| An attitude or an orientation toward the organization which links or attaches the identity of the person to the organization | Sheldon, 1971, p. 143 |
| The process by which the goals of the organization and those of the individual become increasingly integrated or congruent | Hall, Schneider & Nygren, 1970 |
| A partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth | Buchanan, 1974, p. 533 |
| The relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization | Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979, p.12 |

Table Seven

*Continuance Commitment Definitions*

| Definition | Author |
|---|---|
| Profit associated with continued participation and a "cost" associated with leaving | Kauter, 1968, p. 504 |
| Commitment comes into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity | Becker, 1992, p. 32 |
| A structural phenomenon which occurs as a result of individual-organizational transactions and alternatives in side bets or bets or investments over time | Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972, p. 556 |

## Normative Commitment Theory

Normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they *ought* to remain with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Other authors have offered similar definitions of Organizational Commitment that describe normative commitment in slightly different terms as illustrated in Table Eight.

The development of the affective, continuance, and normative commitment scales are reported by Meyer and Allen (1997) based on principles outlined by Jackson (1970). Definitions of the three constructs were used to develop an initial pool of questions administered to a sample of men and women working in various occupations and organizations. Items were selected for inclusion based on a series of decision rules applied to analysis of the pool of answers. The analysis considered the distribution of responses on a 7–point, agree-disagree, Likert scale for each item. Item scale correlations, content redundancy, and the desire to include both positive and negatively keyed items drove the analysis. Each scale contains eight items (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

## ANTECEDENTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

In this section of the literature review the work of various researchers are examined as they relate to the antecedents of Organizational Commitment. One of the difficulties encountered in this review is the variety of definitions used by various researchers to define Organizational Commitment as an independent variable in their research. Morrow

Table Eight

*Normative Commitment Definitions*

| Definition | Author |
|---|---|
| Commitment behaviors are socially accepted behaviors that exceed formal and/or normative expectations relevant to the object of commitment | Wiener & Gechman, 1977, p.48 |
| The totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests | Wiener, 1982, p.421 |
| The committed employee considers it morally right to stay in the company, regardless of how much status enhancement or satisfaction the firm gives him or her over the years | Marsh & Mannari, 1977, p.59 |

(1993) called for research to clarify the Organizational Commitment construct and identified over 25 commitment-related measures and constructs.

Meyer and Allen (1984) have offered a model of Organizational Commitment based on three constructs: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Their affective commitment, based on work by Porter and his colleagues (Mowday, et al., 1982; Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974), is differentiated from continuance commitment developed by Becker (1960) based on his Side Bet Theory. However, even Meyer and Allen (1984) call continuous commitment "perceived costs" and normative commitment "obligation" in earlier research. This situation highlights the problem of many authors addressing the issue and also points out that authors writing over time can and will change and refine their concepts of Organizational Commitment and how it may correlate with various antecedents.

A total of six papers are examined in this section of the literature review. Four of the papers address research conducted in 14 additional studies. One of the studies

examined is a longitudinal study and the final paper examined is a meta-analysis of 48 studies addressing the subject of antecedents of Organizational Commitment.

Steers (1977) reported on a study carried out with 382 hospital employees and 119 scientists and engineers examining the antecedents and outcomes of Organizational Commitment. The methodology employed was a cross-validation framework. The author cites various other authors in this work that have shown variables relating to commitment: age (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Sheldon, 1971) opportunities for achievement (Brown, 1996; Hall, Schneider, & Nygren, 1970), education (Koch & Steers, 1976), and role tension (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972).

Steers' expectation based on prior research was that commitment would be influenced by job challenge (Buchanan, 1974), opportunities for social interaction (Sheldon, 1971), the amount of feedback provided on the job, and by the nature and quality of an employee's work experiences during his tenure in an organization (Buchanan, 1974). The variables actually studied include personal characteristics (age, education, tenure, the need strengths of achievement, affiliation, autonomy and dominance), job characteristics (autonomy, variety, feedback, and task identity), work experiences (group attitudes toward the organization, extent to which subject's expectations were met by realities of the job, feelings of personal importance to the organization, extent to which the organization is seen to be dependable in carrying out its commitment to employees).

Results reported indicated that six antecedent variables were significantly associated with commitment. In both samples in the study the following antecedents were identified that showed significant correlations: need for achievement, group attitudes

toward the organization, education (inversely), organizational dependability, personal importance to the organization, and task identity (Steers, 1977).

Reichers (1986) in later research reported on a single study of 124 mental health workers. He employed a multiple consistency framework to examine the correlates (antecedents) of Organizational Commitment. This research focused on conflicts as antecedents, and added tenure, job satisfaction, role conflict, and role ambiguity. The findings indicated that only commitment to top management's goals was positively associated with commitment to the organization

Allen and Meyer (1990) reported on two studies. Data was collected in the first study from two manufacturing firms and a university, n=256. In study number two data was collected from a retail department store, a hospital and a university library, n=337. Antecedents studied included: job challenge, role clarity, goal difficulty, management receptiveness, peer cohesion, organizational dependability, equity, personal importance, feedback, and participation.

Findings of significant association with affective commitment were noted for: job challenge, role clarity, goal clarity, goal difficulty, management receptiveness, peer cohesion, organizational dependability, equity, personal importance, feedback, participation, and skills. Findings of significant association with continuance commitment were noted for: education, pension, and alternatives. No significant associations were found for normative commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Dunham, Grube, and Castaneda (1994) evaluated 9 studies, n=2,734, whose results confirmed Meyer and Allen's three dimensions of commitment (affective, continuance and normative). Their findings were that significant associations exist

between affective commitment and the following antecedents (task autonomy, task significance, task identity, skill variety, supervisory feedback, organizational dependency, participatory management, affective commitment, normative commitment, commitment behavior, age, tenure, and career).

Bateman & Strasser (1984) conducted a longitudinal study of 129 nursing department employees. Antecedent variables examined were: career tenure, job tenure, education, age, need achievement, motivating potential score, leader reward, leader punishment, centralization, tension, satisfaction, and environmental alternatives. They reported no significant association with any of the antecedent variables and Organizational Commitment. This was surprising given other researchers' findings and the call for more longitudinal research concerning antecedents of Organizational Commitment.

Mathieu & Zajac (1990) conducted a meta analysis of antecedents, correlates and consequences of Organizational Commitment. Their research examined 26 variables classified as antecedents in 48 studies. The 26 antecedents studied by Mathieu and Zajac were categorized into 5 broad groups: personal characteristics, enhanced job characteristics, influence of the leader, influence of group relations and organizational properties, and organizational characteristics (see Table Nine). Table Ten compares the five authors' findings and the antecedents identified as significantly correlating with Organizational Commitment. Of the 25 antecedents identified 11 appear multiple times in the research examined.

Table Nine

*Category of Characteristics*

| Characteristics | Findings |
|---|---|
| Personal characteristics | Correlations tended to be fairly small, however two variables exhibited medium size correlation corrections (protestant work ethic and age) and one a high correlation (perceived personal competence). |
| Enhanced job characteristics | The authors concluded that the findings taken as an aggregate offer promise as an antecedent to the development of Organizational Commitment, however they speculated that more committed employees tend to view their jobs as more fulfilling. |
| Leader behaviors | The results from the meta-analysis and individual studies suggested that the influence of leader behaviors is likely to be moderated by other factors including subordinate characteristics and characteristics and aspects of the work environment. |
| Group relations and Organizational properties | Little research in this area was found however the authors suggested a need for theoretical development. Wiener (1982) was cited as suggesting that organizational environments may act as normative influences and affect member's Organizational Commitment by shaping their belief systems; (organizational characteristics) weak correlations with Organizational Commitment were found. |

*Note.* Adapted from Mathieu & Zajac (1990, pp.177--180).

## ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Two research reports are examined as examples of research linking directly and indirectly the constructs of Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment. The first research by Sepic, Barnowe, Simpson and McNabb addresses directly the relationships between Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment. The second study by Shadur, Kienzle and Rodwell addresses Organizational Climate and employees' perception of involvement. Additionally, Turo Virtanen's chapter entitled, "Commitment and the Study of Organizational Climate and Culture," found in the *Handbook of Organizational Culture and Climate,* which was printed in 2000, is reviewed as an example of contemporary thinking addressing the links between Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment

Sepic, Barnowe, Simpson and McNabb's (1998) research argues that early assessment of Organizational Climate and commitment increases the probability of successful revitalization by detecting obstacles to change. The authors suggest that "interest in employee commitment and organizational identification has rekindled as managers refocus, set new strategies, and embrace organizational revitalization as a means to improving productivity, quality, and customer satisfaction. This revitalization is needed because of downsizing in the early 90s and a scarcity of skilled workers in the workforce.

Climate assessment, it is argued, provides a picture of ambient levels of employee commitment to the organization and that these indicate employee loyalty to the

Table Ten

*Comparing the Finding of Antecedents of Organizational Commitment*

| Antecedent | Reichers | Allen & Meyer | Durham, Grube, & Castaneda | Steers | Mathieu & Zajac |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Top managements Goals | X | X | | | |
| Goal Clarity | | | | | |
| Goal Difficulty | | | | | |
| Job Challenge | | X | | | |
| Role clarity | | X | | | |
| Management Receptiveness | | X | X | | |
| Participatory Management | | | | | |
| Peer Cohesion | | X | | X | |
| Group Attitudes | | | | | |
| Organizational Dependability | | X | X | X | |
| Equity | | X | | | |
| Personal Importance | | X | | X | X |
| Perceived Personal Competence | | | | | |
| Feedback | | X | X | | |
| Supervisory Feedback | | | | | |
| Participation | | X | X | | |
| Participatory Commitment | | | | | |
| Skills | | X | X | | |
| Skill variety | | | | | |
| Education | | X | | X | |
| Pension | | X | | | |
| Alternatives | | X | | | |
| Task Autonomy | | | X | | |
| Task Significance | | | X | | |
| Task Identity | | | X | X | |
| Participatory Commitment | | | | | |
| Need for Achievement | | | | X | |
| Age | | | X | | X |
| Coworker Affective Commitment | | | X | | |
| Coworker Normative Commitment | | | X | | |
| Tenure | | | X | | |
| Career | | | X | | |
| Protestant Work Ethic | | | | | X |

organization and identification with the organization's operations (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979). The authors conceptualize commitment in the study as an employee's response to the climate of the organization. They argue that by assessing baseline commitment to the organization as a whole it is possible to gauge actions necessary to improve scores for the various dimensions of Organizational Climate.

Two organizations were studied: a large law enforcement agency (public organization) and an apparel manufacturer (private sector). 252 respondents participated from the public agency and 92 from the private agency. A 56-item core climate instrument was administered in each organization comprising of nine scales: structure, responsibility, risk, rewards, warmth and support, conflict, organizational identity, approved practices, and ethical practices. The Organizational Commitment scales consisted of nine items extracted from five of the climate dimension scales: friendliness of the atmosphere in the organization, pride in belonging, beliefs about whether rewards are equitably based on performance, how much opportunity exists for participation, and the extent of conflict in the organization.

The authors noted that commitment differed for groups within each organization. These seemed to vary by job category in the public agency and by gender in the private agency. Variations in climate dimensions were also noted. In the public agency variation was again noted by job category. However the job category showing the highest commitment scores also showed the highest climate scores. In the private agency gender differences were again noted. Men scored higher than women on the commitment scales and climate dimensions of responsibility and rewards.

The research paper, *The Relationship Between Organizational Climate and Employee Perceptions of Involvement*, (Shadur, Kienzle, and Rodwell, 1999) argues that one of the key factors that may influence employee perceptions of involvement is Organizational Climate. It is important to note that the authors did not use the term commitment throughout their paper. However, involvement in the organization is an important part of the definition of affective commitment offered by Allen and Meyer (1990). In the research paper's conclusion a link between their definition of employee involvement and affective commitment is made.

Data was collected from 269 employees of a private company. Regression analysis of the results indicated that supportive climate and commitment significantly predicted each of the three employee involvement variables: participation in decision-making, teamwork, and communications. This research supports the finding that climate acts as an antecedent of affective commitment.

## Virtanen's Contemporary Thoughts

In his chapter on commitment and the study of Organizational Climate and culture Virtanen (2000) argues that the concept of commitment can best be connected to climate when commitments are seen as instruments of climate. He further suggests that definitions of commitment using values and norms, effects and attachments imply that it shares some of the references with those of Organizational Climate. The term commitment, while not used in definitions of climate, seems to be implied in that shared values, goals and assumptions include being committed to them (Virtanen, 2000).

Virtanen (2000, p.349) also suggests the need to differentiate between Organizational Climate and Organizational Culture. He states in the way of differentiation, "when climate is seen to be more controllable than culture and culture more autonomous than climate and even constitutive of organization, it is logical that the relationship of climate and commitment is seen as external...In this sense commitments are instruments of climate." Virtanen views management of commitment as also management of climate. It is suggested that managers can affect commitment by learning to use the antecedents of Organizational Commitment, including climate (Brooks & Seers, 1991; Cohen, 1991).

Qualitative and quantitative research is suggested by the author to reconceptulize the antecedents and consequences of commitment. He suggests in this way a more multidimensional conception of commitment can be embraced that includes important elements of climate (Virtanen, 2000). He blames the current state of confusion on the predominantly quantitative techniques of commitment studies and the goals of developing better survey instruments. Finally, Virtanen suggests that studies be broadened to include commitment to ideas and agents and in this way commitments may be better seen as instruments in the management of Organizational Climate.

SUMMARY

The older of the two constructs, Organizational Climate, has been confused with Organizational Culture by the conceptual confusion in the literature resulting from the general use of Organizational Culture as an all encompassing concept. This has resulted in the rolling up of Organizational Climate as a dimension within Organizational Culture.

Another confusion factor resulted from methodology creep on the part of Organizational Culture researchers by moving from qualitative methods to quantitative methods. This shift is observed in survey instruments that rely on members' perceptions concerning cultural "dimensions," and closely resemble the instruments originally developed for climate studies. Additionally, there has been confusion concerning definitions of both Organizational Climate and Organizational Culture. Over the thirty-year period from 1960 to 1990 approximately 54 definitions for Organizational Culture and 32 definitions for Organizational Climate have been identified in the literature. Finally is the failure to recognize that Organizational Culture and Organizational Climate evolved from two different academic disciplines. Organizational Climate has a positivist approach based on social psychology and is based on a viewpoint that people work within an Organizational Climate. They do not create it; top managers create the Organizational Climate. This differs from Organizational Culture where people define the culture and the approach to understanding it has been based on anthropology's use of qualitative research.

The conceptual foundations of Organizational Climate are environment and climate. Both concepts encountered difficulty in their applications. Difficulties with the environmental concept were noted by Tagiuri (1968, p.12) as follows: Distinguishing between the objective and subjective environment, Distinguishing between the person and the situation, Difficulty distinguishing between the person and environment, Determining what aspects of the environment need to be specified, and Identifying the structures and dynamics of the environment. These difficulties led to use of the climate concept. However this concept was not without its controversies. Theorists argued that focus on individual levels of analysis for an "organizational" construct was conceptually

inappropriate in that climate as conceptualized and measured as an individual variable and was merely job satisfaction under a new name, climate. This controversy was resolved by recognizing new but related concepts. When climate was conceptualized and measured at the individual level of analysis it is called psychological climate and when the construct is conceptualized and studied as an organizational, which is beyond the individual variable, it is Organizational Climate.

Thus Organizational Climate came to be a construct describing the effects of organizations and organizational life on the motivation of the individuals who work in these organizations. The motivational model underlying Organizational Climate is based on three intrinsic and nonmaterial motivators: the need for achievement, the need for power, and the need for affiliation. The need for affiliation is also reflected in affective commitment.

Two sets of major dimensions of Organizational Climate were developed. Campbell, et al. (1970), suggested a core of four dimensions: (1) individual autonomy, (2) degree of structure imposed on the position, (3) reward orientation, and (4) consideration, warmth, and support. Litwin and Stringer (1968) developed nine dimensions of Organizational Climate: (1) structure to work, (2) responsibility-- willingness to take, (3) reward--degree of positive, (4) risk--willingness to take, (5) warmth, (6) support--trust, (7) standards of performance, (8) conflict--openness to, and (9) identity--loyalty. While there was agreement with Cambell's four dimensions it was felt that more dimensions were needed to properly describe Organizational Climate and research generally tended to use Litwin and Stringer's dimensions.

Anticipated effects of positive and negative Organizational Climate perspectives were examined in the literature. The four effects of Organizational Climate were identified in the literature: TQM and organizational success, job satisfaction, and customer satisfaction and organizational performance, and the most important of these effects with implications for links between Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment is job satisfaction. McNabb and Sepic's (1995) study findings imply that Organizational Climate is an antecedent of job satisfaction. Additionally, job satisfaction was shown to correlate in a uniform and positive manner with Organizational Commitment in Mathieu and Zajac's meta-analysis finding.

The commitment construct is based on Social Exchange Theory. It can be described as a bargaining or exchange relationship between individuals employed by the organization and the organization itself (Homans, 1958). Employees agree to provide time and effort in the organization in return for any benefits and other rewards offered them by the organization. Thus commitment is based on individual perception of the balance of exchange between the organization and employees.

An expansion on the Social Exchange Theory is the Side Bet Theory. Becker (1960, p.33) described commitment as engagement in "consistent lines of activity" resulting from an accumulation of "side bets" that would be lost if the activity was discontinued. Side bets can be anything of value the individual has invested, such as time, effort or skills, and that would be lost or considered worthless in some other venue. As side bets grow the attractiveness of other career options or employment in other organizations decline in comparison. The Side Bet Theory influenced the concept of

Organizational Commitment and influenced the long-term one-dimensional nature of definitions and research in this area.

Organizational Commitment is a multidimensional concept (Becker, 1992; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mayer & Schoolman, 1992; Morrow, 1993). It has been defined in a general way as a psychological link between the employee and his or her organization that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1996). In supporting a multidimensional model of Organizational Commitment Meyer and Allen (1997) identified three distinct themes in the definition of commitment: commitment as an affective attachment to the organization, commitment as a perceived cost associated with leaving the organization (Side Bet Theory), and commitment as an obligation to remain in the organization. This model has become generally accepted as a three-component model of Organizational Commitment.

Of the research conducted investigating the antecedents of Organizational Commitment significant correlations were reported with the following: need for achievement, group attitudes toward the organization, education (inversely), organizational dependability, personal importance to the organization and task identity (Steers, 1977). Additionally, findings of significant association with affective commitment were found for the following: job challenge, role clarity, goal clarity, goal difficulty, management receptiveness, peer cohesion, organizational dependability, equity, personal importance, feedback, participation, and skills. Findings of significant association with continuance commitment were also found for: education, pension and alternatives. However, no significant associations were found for normative commitment (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Not all research resulted in significant findings of association.

Bateman & Strasser (1984), in a longitudinal study of nursing department employees examined: career tenure, job tenure, education, age, need achievement, motivating potential score, leader reward, leader punishment, centralization, tension, satisfaction, and environmental alternatives. They reported no significant association with any of the antecedent variables. Many of these categories appear familiar to the dimensions of Organizational Climate.

Virtanen (2000) suggested that commitment can best be connected to climate when commitments are seen as instruments of climate and that definitions of commitment using values and norms, effects and attachments imply that it shares some of the references with those of Organizational Climate. Management of commitment is also management of climate. It is suggested that managers can affect commitment by learning to use the antecedents of Organizational Commitment including climate (Brooks & Seers, 1991; Cohen, 1991).

The development of both Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment by separate academic disciplines has resulted in a lack of research concerning the relationship between the two constructs. The confusion that developed around each construct with multiple definitions offered and various dimensions suggested also contributed to concentration within disciplines rather than across disciplines (Kuhn, 1996). The discipline of Public Administration, like Organizational Behavior, borrows theory and applies it to practical applications and organizational problem solving. Bridging the gap in the literature between Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment is one of the goals of this study.

# CHAPTER III

# METHODOLOGY

Data was gathered and analyzed supporting the investigation of the research question associated with the research problem: *How do the nine dimensions of Organizational Climate* (McNabb & Sepic, 1995) *relate to the three components of Organizational Commitment* (Meyer & Allen, 1997)? This chapter aims to build on the introduction chapter to the study and provide assurance that appropriate procedures were followed. This will allow duplication of this research.

Eight major topics provide the organization of this methodology chapter. These topics are: (1) justification of the methodology, (2) limits of the methodology, (3) ethical issues, (4) units of analysis and sources of data, (5) instruments and procedures to collect data, (6) administration of data collection instruments, (7) treatments of the data before it is analyzed, and (8) computer programs used. These sections and their sequence are illustrated in Figure Two.

The justification section addressed the question of the use of an instrumental case study to guide the research. The limits of the methodology topic addressed various strengths and weaknesses inherent in the particular research design chosen. Since this research involved surveying and interviewing subjects, various ethical issues are considered as part of the research design.

The research population, sampling frame, and sample size are addressed in the sources of data and unit of analysis section. The unit of analysis, an important issue in this research, is also discussed in this section. The research included a survey based upon two existing instruments. Because of this usage the issue of "old wine in new bottles" is

addressed in the instruments and procedures to collect data section. A description of the evolution of each survey instrument is provided.

Administration of the survey, focus groups and individual interviews are described in the section on administration of instruments and procedures. The treatments of the data before it is analyzed section discusses indexing the survey data, the use of an odd numbered Likert scale and coding focus group and individual interview data. The SPSS computer program was used to analyze the survey data and is described in the computer programs used section.

Eight sections (see Figure Two) are presented in this chapter to document the methodology used. This documentation is presented in detail both in this chapter and in the appendices. The goal of this section of the study is to provide assurance that appropriate procedures were followed and to enable future duplication of this research.

## JUSTIFICATION OF THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The design of the research methodology began by focusing on the central concept being examined. This central concept is the relationship between Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment in a private nonprofit urban organization. Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment have enjoyed a long research history in Sociology, Organizational Anthropology, and Industrial Organizational Psychology. However, there is a gap in the body of research concerning the potential links between Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment constructs. This gap became the central concept focused on.

Recognition of this gap in the body of research led to the research question: *How do the nine dimensions of Organizational Climate* (McNabb & Sepic, 1995) *relate to the three components of commitment* (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The center of attention for this research question is the determination of any statistically/logically significant relationships between the dimensions of climate as defined by McNabb and Sepic (1995) (structure, responsibility, risk, rewards, warmth and support, conflict, organizational identity, approval practices, ethical practices) and the three components of commitment as defined by Meyer and Allen (1997; affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment). The next step in the design process was the choice of either the qualitative (naturalistic) or quantitative (positivist) paradigm that will guide this research.

In developing a research design, both the aims of the research and the particular research perspective/paradigm form the foundation for the design. Influencing this perspective are the accepted research traditions of the academic discipline. Additionally, the ontological and epistemological perspectives of the researcher as they apply to the research question help form the research foundation. The decision that guides the development of the research perspective/paradigm can be characterized by the way their proponents respond to three basic questions, characterized as the ontological, the epistemological, and the methodological questions. These questions are: What is the nature of the "knowledge"? Or, what is the nature of reality? What is the nature of the relationship between the knower (the enquirer) and the known (or knowable)? How should the inquirer go about finding out knowledge (Guba, 1990, p.18)?

## Ontological Perspectives

"What is the form and nature of reality and therefore, what is there that can be known about it?" (Guba, et al., 1994, p.108) This ontological question lies at the base of the researcher's imposed limitations or restrictions imposed on the research. The answer to this question is based on the researcher's personal beliefs and assumptions. Either the researcher believes that the phenomenon under study is not affected by the perspective of the observer, the act of being measured, or the highlighting of a particular aspect of the phenomenon being measured or not. Is reality legitimately characterized objectively and independently of the researcher? Do we construct what is real? Is truth absolute?

The researcher can be described as having a positivist perspective if his answers to the following personal questions are as follows: the researcher does not affect the phenomenon being measured, or that measuring some aspect of the phenomenon does not change the nature of the reality being studied, or that this can be accomplished in a way that does not have an impact on the phenomenon, reality can be legitimately characterized objectively independently of the researcher, and the researcher does not construct reality, and finally that truth is absolute. If the answers to these questions differ then the researcher may be said to have a naturalistic perspective.

## Epistemological Perspectives

What is the nature of knowing? "What is the nature of the relationship between the 'knower' and what can be known?" (Guba, et al., 1994, p.108). The researcher's perspective concerning these epistemological questions equally imposes limitations or

restrictions on the research. The answers to these questions are based on the researcher's personal beliefs and assumptions.

The researcher can be described as having a positivist perspective if his answers to the above personal questions are that what is known is true and by verifying hypotheses the researcher establishes what may be codified as facts or laws. If the answers to these questions imply that knowledge is individually constructed and coalesces around consensus (Guba, et al., 1994, p.112), then the researcher may be said to have a constructionist or naturalistic perspective.

These perspectives have been characterized as a research paradigm. The two major research paradigms are qualitative and quantitative. The nature of each paradigm has been suggested as the Quantitative Paradigm which is described as the traditional, the positivist, the experimental, or the empiricist paradigm. Quantitative thinking comes from an empiricist tradition established by such authors as Comte, Mill, Durkheim, Newton and Locke (Smith, 1983). The Qualitative Paradigm is described as the constructivist approach or naturalistic (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), the interpretative approach (Smith, 1983), or the post positivist or postmodern perspective (Quantz, 1992). It began as a countermovement to the positivist tradition in the late 19th century through such writers as Dilthey, Weber, and Kant (Smith, 1983; Creswell, 1994).

Given the nature of the two research paradigms, the next question is how do they differ? Five axioms are suggested by Guba (1985, pp. 82-86) as a means to differentiate between the two major research paradigms illustrated in Table Eleven.

The Research Paradigm Choice

Applying Guba's five axioms of differentiation to the nature of the research question led to the choice of the qualitative research perspective as the underlying research foundation:

1. The nature of reality (ontology)

There are multiple constructed realities that can be studied only holistically. The gap in the research concerning these two constructs may have resulted from a reliance on survey research methods to the exclusion of other richer approaches to the situation.

Inquiry into these multiple realities will inevitably diverge (each inquiry raises more questions than it answers), so that prediction and control are unlikely outcomes, although some level of understanding can be achieved.

2. The inquirer-respondent relationship (subject-object dualism)

The inquirer and the "object" of inquiry interact to influence one another. This research is about the human constructs of Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment. In order to understand these constructs it is necessary to interact with human subjects. This interaction by its very nature causes the researcher and "object" of the inquiry to interact.

Table Eleven

*Five Axioms and Differentiation*

| AXIOM | Quantitative (Positivist) Paradigm | Qualitative (Naturalistic) Paradigm |
|---|---|---|
| 1. The nature of reality (ontology) | There is a single, tangible reality "out there," fragmented into independent variables and processes, any of which can be studied independently of the others; inquiry can converge on that reality until, finally, it can be predicted and controlled. (This axiom corresponds to Hesse's assumption of naïve realism.) | There are multiple constructed realities that can be studied only holistically; inquiries into these multiple realities will inevitable diverge (each inquiry raises more questions than it answers), so that that prediction and control are unlikely outcomes, although some level of understanding can be achieved. |
| 2. The inquirer-respondent relationship (subject-object dualism) | The inquirer is able to maintain a discrete distance from the object of inquiry, neither disturbing it nor being disturbed by it. | The inquirer and the "object" of inquiry interact to influence one another; especially is this mutual interaction present when the "object" of inquiry is another human being (respondent). |
| 3. The purpose of inquiry (generalization) | The aim of inquiry is to develop a nomothetic body of knowledge; this knowledge is best encapsulated in nomic generalizations, which are truth statements independent of both time and context (they will hold anywhere and at any time); the stuff of which generalizations are made is similarities among units. | The aim of inquiry is to develop an idiographic body of knowledge; this knowledge is best encapsulated in a series of "working hypotheses" that describe the individual case; differences are as inherently interesting as (and at times more so than) similarities. |

Table Eleven Continued

| AXIOM | Quantitative (Positivist) Paradigm | Qualitative (Naturalistic) Paradigm |
|---|---|---|
| 4. The nature of explanation (causality) | Every action can be explained as the result (effect) of a cause that precedes the effect temporally (or is simultaneous with it). | An action may be explainable in terms of multiple interacting factors, events, and processes that shape it and are part of it; this interaction manifests itself as mutual and simultaneous shaping; inquirers can, at best, establish plausible inferences about the pattern of such shaping in a given case. |
| 5. The role of values in inquiry (axiology) | Inquiry is value free and can be guaranteed to be so by virtue of the methodology that is employed – the "facts speak for themselves." | Inquiry is value bound in at least five ways, captured in the corollaries that follow: Corollary 1: inquiries are influenced by inquirer values as expressed in the choice of the problem and in the framing, bounding, and focusing of that problem. Corollary 2: Inquiry is influenced by the choice of the substantive paradigm that guides the investigation into the problem. Corollary 3: Inquiry is influenced by the choice of the inquiry paradigm that guides the investigation into the problem. Corollary 4: Inquiry is influenced by the values that inhere in the context: social and cultural norms. Corollary 5: With respect to Corollaries 1 through 4 above, inquiry is either |

| | value-resonate (reinforcing or congruent) or value-dissonant (conflicting). Problem, substantive, paradigm, inquiry paradigm, and context must exhibit congruence (value-resonance) if the inquiry is to produce meaningful results. |
|---|---|

*Note.* This table is adapted from Guba (1985, pp. 82-86)

3. The purpose of inquiry (generalization)

The aim of inquiry is to develop an idiographic body of knowledge. This knowledge can best be encapsulated in a series of "working hypotheses" that describe the individual case. Again this level of inquiry is missing in the research literature.

The alternative would be to develop generalizations as statements of truth independent of both time and context (they will hold anywhere and at any time). The test of such generalizations is similarities among units.

4. The nature of explanation (causality)

An action may be explainable in terms of multiple interacting factors, events, and processes that shape it and are part of it.

5. The role of values in inquiry axiology

As noted in axiom 2, inquiries are influenced by values as expressed in the choice of the problem and in the framing, bounding, and focusing of that problem.

## Mixed-method

However it has been argued that researchers should make the most efficient use of both paradigms (Creswell, 1994). Three models of combined designs were considered:

> The two-phase design approach using a qualitative phase of the study and a separate qualitative phase.
>
> The dominant-less dominant design approach presenting the study within a single dominant paradigm with one small component of the overall study drawn from the alternative paradigm.
>
> The mixed-methodology design approachmixing qualitative and quantitative paradigm at all or many methodological steps (Cresswell, 1994, p.177-178).

The mixed-method design was choosen to provide maximum flexability in investigating the existence of any significance relationships between Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment. The study is based on both qualitative and quantitative paradigms.

## Case Study Design

Having thus decided that the qualitative perspective guides the research design, the next question became which of the five widely recognized research strategies used in the course of qualitative research in the social sciences (case studies, experiments, surveys, historical analysis or computer based analysis of archival records) (Yin, 1994) would be best for the investigation of the research question. A case study design was chosen as a result of the application of three research strategy conditions to the research question:

> 1. The type of research question posed,
>
> 2. The extent of control the investigator has over actual behavioral events, and

3. The degree of focus on contemporary as opposed to

historical events (Yin, 1994, p.4).

*Note:* Historical events are considered events where none

of the participants are now living (Yin, 1994, p.8)

The question of the type of case study still remains after the decision to use a case study design was made. Three types of case studies were considered: intrinsic, instrumental, or multiple. Stake (1995) defines the study of a critical or unique case as an intrinsic case study. A single case study that will yield results that can be generalized within a larger framework is defined as an instrumental case study. The multiple case strategy, Stake terms a collective case study.

In deciding what type case study to use the first category of collective case was eliminated since a multiple case strategy was not intended. The decision to use an instrumental or intrinsic case study hinges on the question of contexts. Stake (1995, p. 2) addresses this issue as follows, "The more the case study is an intrinsic case study, the more attention needs to be paid to the contexts. The more the case study is an instrumental case study, certain contexts may be important, but other contexts important to the case are of little interest to the study. The allocation of attention to contexts will be based partly on the distinction between intrinsic and instrumental purposes." The chosen case study design focuses on an organization in an urban setting in order to understand something else, the relationship between Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment. The case study chosen is instrumental to accomplishing something other than understanding the particular organization. Stake describes the nature of this inquiry

as an *instrumental case study* (1995). In this particular research the issue is more important than the case, again reinforcing the instrumental case study definition.

The instrumental case study design chosen incorporated the utilization of a survey, focus groups, and individual interviews to determine if patterns could be identified as part of a triangulation of multiple sources of evidence consistent with case study analysis (Yin, 1994).

## Methodological Triangulation

Research was conducted using a methodological triangulation under an instrumental case study approach. This research relies on multiple perspectives held by the various employees of an urban nonprofit organization. The research question was designed to explore the relationships between Organizational Climate as defined by the dimensions: structure, responsibility, risk, rewards, warmth and support, conflict, organizational identity, approval practices, and ethical practices. The three components of Organizational Commitment that were examined are affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment (see Figure Three).

A combined quantitative and qualitative research design was used. This follows a traditional social science research method that advocates the use of multiple methods. This form of research strategy is usually described as one of convergent methodology, "multi-method multi-trait" (Campbell & Fiske, 1959), convergent validation, or "triangulation" (Webb et al., 1966).

What is a methodological triangulation? Methodological triangulation

is labeled by Denzin, (1978, p.302) as the "between (or across) methods" type, and represents the most popular use

of triangulation. It is largely a vehicle for cross validation when two or more distinct methods are found to tie congruent and yield comparable data. For organizational researchers, this would involve the use of multiple methods to examine the same dimension of a research problem (Jick, 1979).

*Figure Three.* Methodological Triangulation
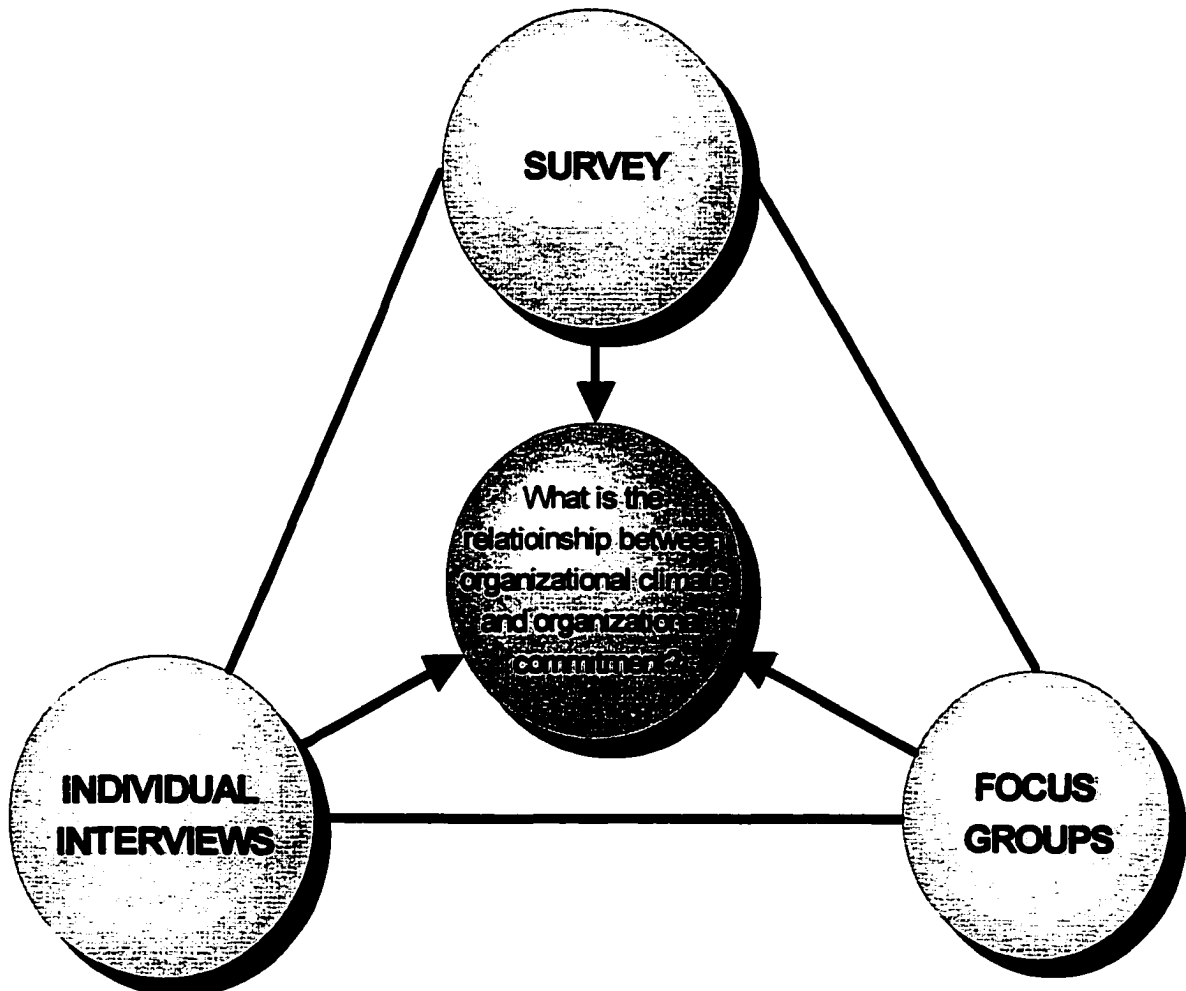


*Note.* The methodological triangulation utilized in this research

The quantitative aspect of this triangulated research methodology utilized a pre-tested survey of Organizational Climate designed by McNabb and Sepic (1995) and pre-tested commitment questions from Meyer and Allen (1997). Nine scales reflect the Organizational Climate dimensions: structure, responsibility, risk, rewards, warmth and support, conflict, organizational identity, approved practices, and ethical practices. Three scales reflect the Organizational Commitment components: affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. The use of the survey in the context of the instrumental case study is part of a "combined research design" (Creswell 1994, p.177). This dominant--less dominant design combines quantitative and qualitative approaches in a single case study.

The dominant--less dominant design allows the researcher to investigate the phenomenon within a single paradigm with one small component of the overall study drawn from the alternate paradigm (Creswell, 1994, p.177). The dominant--less dominant component in this research design is the survey. The survey links this research to previous studies and clarifies the definitions used for Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment. Its positivist contribution to the study is intended to be less dominant to the qualitative nature of the overall research. This dominant qualitative paradigm is reflected by the use of focus groups and opened-ended interviews.

## LIMITS OF THE METHODOLOGY

Good research, irrespective of qualitative or quantitative methods used, should adhere to scientific canons. Strauss and Corbin (1990, p. 250) suggest that for qualitative research, "...the usual canons of science should be retained, but require redefinition in

order to fit the realities of qualitative research, and the complexities of social phenomena that we seek to understand. The usual scientific canons include: significance, theory observation compatibility, generalizability, consistency, reproducibility, precision, and verification." All research to be sound should respond to the canons of science by addressing the following questions:

(1)    What is the credibility of the particular research findings and how will those findings be judged?

(2)    To what degree are the results transferable and applicable to context beyond the local research?

(3)    What assurances are there that there is replicability of the research if it was performed again?

(4)    How can it be established that the findings of the research are not a result of the subjectivity of the researcher (Marshall & Rossman, 1995 p.35)?

From a positivist's perspective, the canons of science translate into the constructs of internal validity, external validity, reliability, and objectivity (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In response to this perspective, Lincoln and Guba (1985) described four alternative constructs, from a non-traditional qualitative perspective to address the canons of science. Table Twelve illustrates these alternative constructs in relation to the more positivist constructs. These alternative constructs include:

*Credibility* as opposed to *internal validity*, or assurance that the research has accurately identified and described the subject of the research effort,
*Transferability*, as opposed to external validity, or the confidence in the applicability of the research findings to other contexts "similar" to those bounding the research initiative,

> *Dependability,* as opposed to *reliability,* or the accountability for dynamic conditions changing the nature of the research based on shifts in understanding of phenomena being researched, and
> *Confirmability,* as opposed to *objectivity,* or the provision that the findings of the study could be reached by another researcher. Therefore, both the quantitative and qualitative research traditions attempt to adhere to the canons of science. However, they differ with respect to the interpretation of the canons and the particular strategies to aspire to the canons (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.83).

Multiple sources of evidence including survey, focus groups and open-ended interviews were used to strengthen credibility. Transferability was strengthened by the use of opposing explanations and by mapping interview responses to theory from the literature. Yin's (1994) case study protocol was used and an instrumental case study database kept strengthening the dependability and confirmability of the study findings. Figure Four illustrates the components of the case study database.

The instrumental case study database included data and documentation from sources of evidence including literature review, survey and interview narratives. Research notes and the final dissertation paper are included. Database items are organized, categorized, complete and available for later access.

Table Twelve

*Canons of Science: Credibility, Transferability, Dependability, and Confirmability*

| Canons of Science | Traditional Positivist | Naturalistic | Actions |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. SIGNIFICANCE TRUTH VALUE How credible are the findings? By what criteria are we judged? Theory- Observation compatibility. | INTERNAL VALIDITY • Control • Randomization | CREDIBILITY Subject accurately identified and described. | • Prolonged • Engaged • Persistent observation • Triangulation • Peer debrief • Referential adequacy • Member checks • Reflexive journal |
| 2. APPLICABILITY (Generalizability) How transferable and applicable are the findings to other settings or controls? | EXTERNAL VALIDITY • Randomized sampling | TRANSFERABILITY Applicability to other contents | • Thick description • Purposive sampling • Reflexive journal |
| 3. CONSISTANCY What assurance do we have that the findings could be replicated? | RELIABILITY • Replication | DEPENDABILITY Account for changes in phenomenon and design | • Audit • Journal |
| 4. NEUTRALITY How can we be sure that findings result from inquiry and not from the researcher or design (prejudices and biases)? | OBJECTIVITY • Researcher bias | CONFIRMABILITY (Auditability) • Do data lead to findings and implications? • Is researcher and design accountable? • Soundness • Trustworthiness | • Audit • Journal |

*Figure Four.* An Instrumental Case Study Database
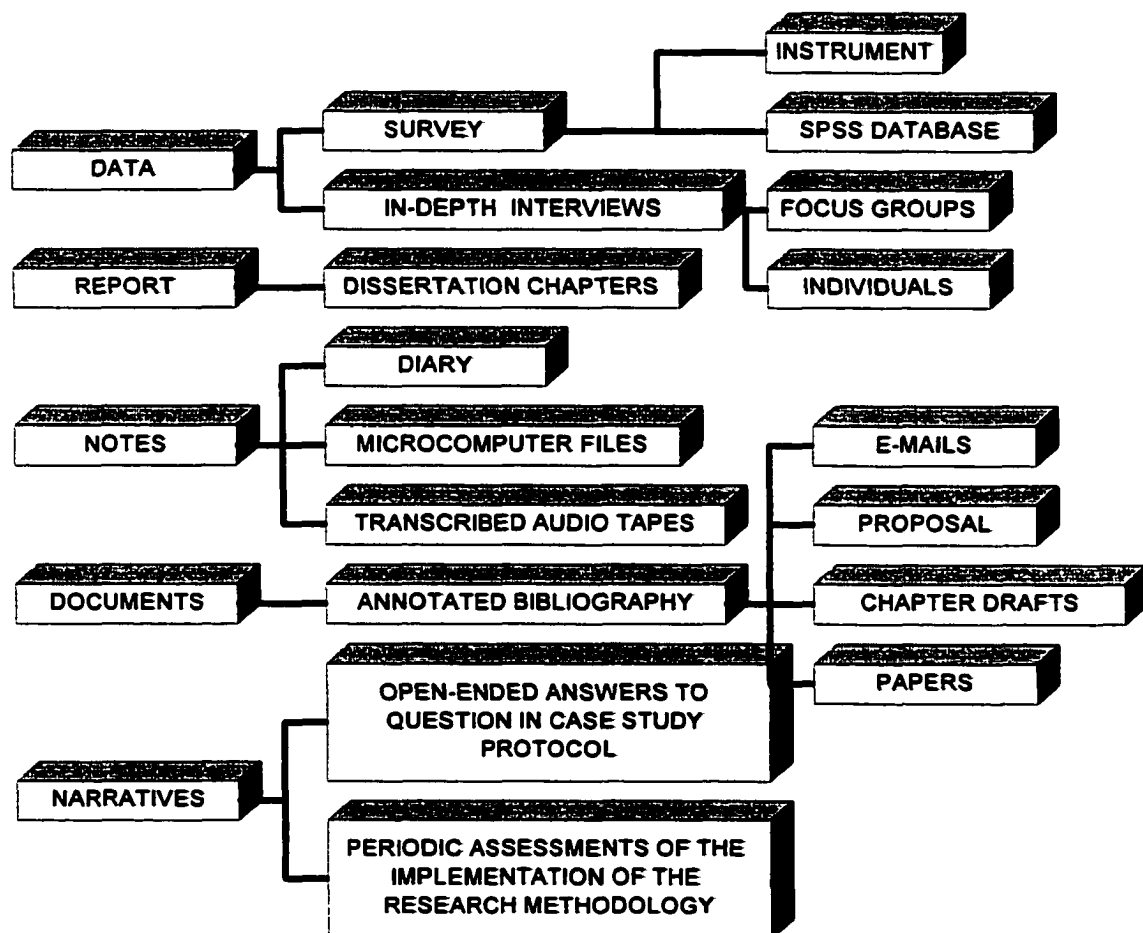
The strength of the instrumental case study is the utilization of a variety of multiple measures both quantitative and qualitative, in a dominant--less dominant context. The use of methodological triangulation captures a more complete, holistic, and contextual portrayal of the units under study (Jick, 1979). The use of multiple measures may also uncover more unique variance which otherwise may have been neglected by single methods. Qualitative methods can play an especially prominent role by eliciting data and suggesting conclusions to which other methods would be blind (Jick, 1979).

Replication of this research will be exceedingly difficult. Replication has been largely absent from most organizational research, but it is usually considered to be a necessary step in scientific progress. Qualitative methods, in particular, are problematic to replicate (Jick, 1979). Problems of bias, poor recall and poor or inaccurate articulation (Yin, 1994, p.85) may affect focus group discussion and individual interview documentation in the study.

ETHICAL ISSUES

The nature of qualitative research creates special relationships between the researcher and the human subject, the source of information (O'Sullivan & Rassel, 1998). Issues of respectful treatment and ethical considerations guide the methods that can be used in gathering information. One of the concerns in conducting this research was exposure of subjects to loss of privacy. The interaction of this researcher and the institutional review board responsible for reviewing the research proposal reflect concerns about ethical issues guiding dissertation research.

Both the federal government and various professional societies such as the American Psychological Association (APA) have developed standards for ethical research. Generally these standards address four issues:

1. Informed Consent,

2. Deception,

3. Privacy and confidentiality, and

4. Accuracy (Christians, 2000, p.12).

Informed consent is based on the concept of individual autonomy. Research subjects have the right to be informed about the nature and consequences of experiments in which they are involved. Informed consent is further based on voluntary participation without physical or psychological coercion. Secondly, the subjects' agreement should be based on full and open information.

Deception is a concept opposed in ethical standards (Christians, 2000). This involves deliberate misrepresentation of subjects; this especially includes criminals, children, and the mentally incapacitated. Deception is generally considered morally unacceptable and contrary to the search for knowledge and truth. Thus the use of deception is contrary to sound scientific research.

Privacy and confidentiality requirements rely on safeguards of individuals' identities. This became an issue for the institution review board responsible for review of this research proposal. Their concerns focused on the proposed use of tape recordings to document focus group discussions and individual interviews (see Appendix A). This researcher agreed with the committee that confidentiality must be the primary safeguard against unwanted exposure of individual's identities. Therefore notes were used to record

focus group discussions and individual interviews as suggested by the committee. Further, the identity of the organization in which the study subjects worked has been masked in this research.

Accuracy is the final of the four general standards addressed. Data accuracy is a "cardinal principle" (Christians, 2000, p.140) in social science ethical codes. Rigorous research methods are employed to avoid any hints of fabrication, fraud, omissions, or contrivances. These general standards reflect the basic themes of value-neutral experimentation and guide social science research. The use of notes rather than tape recordings further reflect the concerns and sensitivity of this researcher and institutional review board in protecting subjects and upholding ethical standards of research.

## SOURCES OF DATA AND UNITS OF ANALYSIS

The research was conducted during the fall of 2000. The researcher had access to 255 employees of an urban non-profit organization. This organization's mission is to provide responsive person-centered services to improve the quality of life of individuals with disabilities. It was formed in 1980 to provide supported employee opportunities to adults with mental and physical disabilities who could not find and maintain employment.

Their consultant program was designed to provide intensive training in behavior management and treatment plans for individuals with mental retardation who were living with their families. This program started in 1982. The residential support program provides support and training to adults with disabilities. This program provides daily living skills support and was begun in 1983. In 1989 the organization expanded to

provide affordable housing for adults with disabilities and provided the management necessary to own and maintain residences where these individuals live.

In addition to the full time staff that participated in this research, the organization employs over 300 persons with disabilities through various work programs in a variety of work environments. Behavioral Services division, formerly the consultant program, provides day care at a number of locations for adults with disabilities. The residential program supports over 100 adults with disabilities through the management of over 100 properties.

The appropriate unit of analysis is determined by both the research questions and the study propositions (Stake, 1995). The units of analysis may be a single individual or an entire organization (Yin, 1994). The selection of the unit of analysis must include consideration of the individuals to be specifically included and those who will be specifically excluded. Since the nature of the research question involves Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment the unit of analysis is the organization as a whole, not individuals. However, certain categories of employees are addressed in the analysis of the data because of the expanding nature of the research.

Three strategies were used (see Table Thirteen) to triangulate sources of evidence in this case study. Surveys and in-depth interviews consisting of focus group interviews, and individual interviews were used. The case study included a survey of employees of the urban nonprofit organization. The 65-item core Organizational Climate Assessment Survey (OCAS) instrument was used. McNabb and Sepic developed this instrument for assessing Organizational Climate and culture over nearly a decade of trial and revisions. Initially the instrument contained 99 items (McNabb & Sepic, 1995). Items with low

reliability scores after several applications were deleted or integrated into other items, and new items added.

Responses to all items are made on a seven-point scale. For items assessing the first eight dimensions, a value of "1" indicates that the item "very definitely describes" the way things are in the organization, and a value of "7" indicated that the item "does not describe" the way things are. A number of items are worded so that the response category "very definitely describes" indicated a negative meaning (i.e., a negative or unfavorable aspect of climate). These items were reverse scored so that a low score always indicates a more favorable climate, and a high score indicates an unfavorable climate. Responses to items, which comprised the approved practices dimension, were made on a different seven-point scale, which asked respondents to indicate how much approval or disapproval a described behavior would receive in the organization. (See appendix B: Survey Instrument).

Additionally, 18 questions from the revised affective, continuance and normative commitment scales (Meyer, et al., 1993; Meyer & Allen, 1997) were used. Responses to all these items were also made on a seven-point scale. For all items a value of "1" indicates that the response "strongly disagree" with the statement and a value of "7" indicated that the response "strongly agree" with the statement. Some questions are reverse-keyed (see Appendix C: Commitment Survey Questions).

## In-Depth Interviews

In-depth interviews included both individual interviews (e.g., one-on-one) as well as "group" interviews (focus groups). The data can be recorded in a wide variety of ways

including stenography, audio recording, video recording or written notes. Because of ethical questions, data was recorded using written notes. It is important to note that in-depth interviews differ from direct observation primarily in the nature of the interaction. In interviews it is assumed that there is a questioner and one or more interviewees. The purpose of the interview is to probe the ideas of the interviewees about the phenomenon of interest (Trochim, 2000). Direct observations were not used as part of information gathering in this study.

Focus group interviews were used to gather in-depth information and reactions. The focus groups were used to elaborate on data gathered in the survey. Four focus group sessions were held. Groups comprised of from 7 to 10 participants addressing 5 or 6 opened ended questions (O'Sullivan & Rassell, 1995). One focus group was comprised of only supervisory individuals.

Information was recorded by hand during the focus group meetings by the researcher. Reflective notes were recorded immediately following each focus group meeting. The pattern used to introduce the group discussion followed Krueger's (1994, p. 113) outline including the welcome, the overview of the topic, the ground rules, and the first question. Questions were prepared based on a checklist for focus group interviews as follows:

> The introductory question should be answered quickly and
> not identify status.
> Questions should flow in a logical sequence.
> Key questions should focus on the critical issues of
> concern.
> Consider probe or follow-up questions.
> Limit the use of "why" questions.
> Use "think back" questions as needed.
> Provide a summary of the discussion and invite comments.
> (Krueger, 1994, p. 122).

An example of the template used containing the focus group questions is contained in Appendix E.

Open-ended individual interviews were conducted using a purposeful or quota sampling technique to insure balanced management and non-management input as well as blue-collar and white-collar input. The researcher conducted each interview taking notes during the interview and recording reflective notes immediately following each interview. Questions were developed based on an analysis of the employee survey and the open coding of the focus group interview responses. An interview protocol was developed based on Creswell's (1994, p.152) design containing the following components;

1. Heading
2. Instruction to the interviewee, opening statements
3. The key research questions to be asked
4. Probes to follow key questions
5. Transitional messages for the interviewee
6. Space for recording the interviewee's comments and
7. Space in which the researcher records reflective notes.

Eight interviews were conducted. Information was recorded by hand on the interview protocol sheet and auxiliary sheets by the researcher during the interviews. eflective notes were recorded immediately following each interview. An example of the interview protocol sheet used containing the interview questions is contained in Appendix F.

<div align="center">Administration of Instruments</div>

The use of the combined survey instrument is part of a "combined research design" (Creswell, 1994, p.177). Creswell describes this as a dominant--less dominant design that combines quantitative and qualitative approaches in a single case study. The

use of this dominant--less dominant design allowed the investigation of the phenomenon within a single paradigm utilizing the combined survey instrument as a small component of the overall study drawn from the alternate paradigm (Creswell, 1994). The use of a combined survey instrument ties this research to previous research by McNabb and Sepic and Meyer and Allen, and clarifies the definitions used for Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment.

The use of a combined survey instrument (see appendix B) supports an original perspective on the research. Use of existing instruments always raises the question of "old wine in new bottles." The nature of this research addresses the relationship between the two constructs, Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment. The use of a combined survey instrument both strengthens the research and provides a strong link to previous, although separate, research addressing these two constructs.

In the fall of 2000 the combined survey instrument was administered to all full time employees of the urban non-profit organization. The survey was administered in three parts over a period of two days. The first administration was for office employees where instructions for informing employees (see appendix D) was based on a suggested format by Fowler (1993) and given prior to the taking of the survey.

Table Thirteen

*Methodological Triangulation of Information and How Each Source Influenced the Subsequent Phase of the Research.*

| PHASE | DATA COLLECTION METHOD | DATA ANALYSIS METHOD | EXPECTED OUTCOMES | RELATION TO RESEARCH |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| I | Conduct Survey | Statistical tests and correlation analysis | Statistically significant relationships between some climate dimensions and commitment components | How do the nine dimensions of Organizational Climate (McNabb & Sepic, 1997) relate to the three components of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997)? |
| II | Conduct Focus Group Interviews and open-ended individual interviews | Open coding of interview notes. | | What relationships appear to exist in the survey data and what issues that surfaced during the focus groups warrant further expansion by individual interviews. |
| III | Address study summary, conclusions, limitations and further inquiry | Triangulate data findings to address research questions. | | What is the relationship between Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment? |

Additionally, the respondents were asked to read carefully the instructions at the beginning of the survey instrument. The researcher asked questions of the respondents after the survey in an effort to clarify the instructions. No changes were deemed necessary to the instructions. The next sessions involved the remaining employees. Instructions for informing employees were also read to these respondents prior to the administration of the survey instrument.

Prior to these sessions, a memorandum was sent to all full time employees from the organization's executive director addressing support of the organization for the survey, identifying the researcher as a graduate student and not an employee of the organization, and assuring employees that answers to the survey "will be strictly anonymous." The surveys were administered by the researcher and completed instruments gathered by him at the end of each session. Extra copies of the blank survey instrument were also gathered and removed by the researcher, eliminating any opportunity for "extra" surveys to be completed and included at a later time.

## PROCEDURES AND TREATMENT OF THE DATA BEFORE ANALYSIS

This section addresses any special or unusual treatments of the data before it was analyzed. Responses to all survey questions were made on a seven-point Likert scale. For responses assessing the first eight dimensions, a value of "1" indicates that the item "very definitely describes" the way things are in the organization, and a value of "7" indicated that the item "does not describe" the way things are. Responses to items comprising the approved practices dimension were made on a different seven-point Likert scale, which asked respondents to indicate how much approval or disapproval a

described behavior would receive in the organization. The second part of the combined survey instrument contained 18 questions from the revised affective, continuance and normative commitment scales (Meyer, et al., 1993; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Responses to all these items were also made on a seven-point Likert scale.

Likert response scaling is not without its controversies. Like Thurstone or Guttman scaling, Likert scaling is a unidimensional scaling method (Trochim, 2000). There are a number of possible response scales (1-to-7, 1-to-9, and 0–to-4). All of the odd numbered scales have a middle value often labeled Neutral or Undecided. Forced choice or even numbered response scales are also possible.

Criticisms of the odd numbered Likert scaling used in both parts of this survey have to do with failing to force respondents to take a position or allowing them to be undecided in their responses. The argument for an odd numbered scale is that respondents should have a choice if they cannot decide or for whom the item is irrelevant. It is also argued that by allowing a middle value the respondent can express indifference. The controversy having to do with odd versus even scales hinges on whether the respondents should be "pushed" for an opinion or is it helpful to the research process if respondents can voice indifference to the questions the researcher poses.

SPSS Inc. published a book entitled *Surveys with Confidence: A Practical Guide to Survey Research Using SPSS* that addresses this issue as follows:

> Advice differs on the wisdom of including a middle alternative. Experiments have shown that, most of the time, offering such a choice understandably decreases the responses to the other categories but that the relative ranking of the categories is retained. Thus, the category chosen most often if there is no middle alternative will still be the one chosen most often when a middle choice is included, and so on.

Given this finding, our advice is to include a middle alternative, unless you have a good reason not to (1996, p. 16).

Following this advice, odd numbered Likert scales were used throughout the combined survey instrument in this research.

After carefully conducting multiple focus group meetings and several individual interviews the notes from each were recorded including the researcher's memos (the researcher's impressions and questions that arose at the time of the interviews). These notes were analyzed using a process of open coding procedures, category generation and pattern analysis. Figure Five illustrates this process. Three approaches to open coding were considered to "open up the notes" (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p.113) and to identify important concepts. Line-by-line analysis, coding by whole sentence or paragraph, and whole notes perusal were the three approaches to open coding that were considered. Line-by line analysis is the most time consuming of the three forms of open coding. This approach can be very important in the beginning of a study because it allows the researcher to generate concepts quickly.

Whole sentence or paragraph coding involves asking the question "What is the main idea brought out in this sentence or paragraph?" After determining the answer to this question by developing a concept name for the idea, a more detailed analysis can be carried out. Strauss and Corbin (1998) state that this coding method is especially useful after several categories of concepts have been identified and the researcher wants coding to continue using the already identified categories.

The third way to code is to peruse the whole interviewer's notes and ask, "What's going on here?" and, "what makes this interview different or the same as the others?"

This may lead to a coding approach that addresses the similarities and differences between interviews. Since the focus groups and interviews were part of a methodological triangulation of sources addressing the research problem "what is the relationship between Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment," the second approach of whole sentence or paragraph coding was used.

An example of the coding from the focus group interviews is presented: the nature of the questions asked led to the initial categories of Organizational Climate, Organizational Commitment, and questions addressing the potential links between both. An example question is "How important is the climate of your organization to an individual's commitment to the organization?" Example responses are: very important, climate makes workers feel good about their job, a negative climate would affect commitment, climate affects our attitudes, not all employees see things the same, and different parts of our organization are affected differently.

The first pass at establishing themes would be to sort answers by agreement or disagreement. The agreement answers are: very important, climate makes workers feel good about their job, a negative climate would affect commitment, and climate affects our attitudes. The disagreement answers consist of: not all employees see things the same, and different parts of our organization are affected differently. Within the agreement grouping the statement, "very important" does not contain information common to the other answers therefore will be ignored. The emergent theme is that climate has both positive and negative effects on workers feelings. This is reflected by the statements: climate makes workers feel good about their job (the implication is that a positive climate makes workers feel good), a negative climate would affect commitment

the statements: climate makes workers feel good about their job (the implication is that a positive climate makes workers feel good), a negative climate would affect commitment (the implication is that conversely a negative climate makes workers feel bad and therefore less committed), and climate affects our attitudes (this is a more universal statement implying that climate can make workers feel both good and bad).

While the open coding of concepts from the notes continued, groups of concepts were analyzed to determine if any could be grouped under more abstract higher order categories. These categories were chosen based on their ability to explain what seems to be going on from both the focus group's perspective and from each individual interviewee. This process is important because it reduced the many concepts to fewer numbers of categories. These categories also address the question, "what is going on here?" but from a broader phenomena perspective, having been built up from grouped concepts. Category names were chosen based on the research literature.

Once each category was established, properties and dimensions for each were identified. In this way categories are differentiated from each other and they gain precision of definition. Properties can be either general or specific characteristics or attributes of a category. Dimensions reflect the location of a property within a range or along a continuum (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Pattern analysis was performed to determine if groups of properties from the various categories aligned themselves along common dimensions. This leads to the grouping of data according to patterns. These patterns were examined in light of the research problem and as part of the process of triangulating resources. Additional areas for further research were also identified.

COMPUTER PROGRAMS USED

The statistical analysis program used to examine the survey data was SPSS 10.0. This program offers the researcher a broad range of capabilities for the entire analytical process and "provides capability that spreadsheets and databases can't" (SPSS Inc., 2000, p.2). SPSS 10.0 allowed the generation of tabular and graphical outputs. SPSS is a popular statistical analysis program that for over the past 30 years has supported such diverse applications such as data mining and database analysis, market and survey research.

SPSS 10.0 runs on a variety of platforms (SPSS Inc., 2000). The particular version chosen for the analysis of survey data was SPSS for Microsoft Windows©. This allowed the researcher to utilize his home computer for analysis and printing of tables and graphs that described the data and supported the analysis of relationships between the components of commitment and dimensions of climate.

SPSS allows the definition and data entry of survey data in a spreadsheet format. This provides for easy tracking of the data entry progress. The computer program's capability to analyze input data in a variety of ways supports not only statistical manipulation of the data but also graphical presentation of the data. The graphical presentation capability enabled visual inspection of relationships between variables for linearity.

*Figure Five.* The Process of an Open Coding Procedure

While this is a powerful statistical analysis program capable of generating both tables and graphs what it cannot do that is most important, "is select the appropriate procedures and interpret their results" (SPSS Inc., 2000, p.2). This was clearly the researcher's responsibility.

## SUMMARY

This chapter documents the methodology used. The methods to both provide data and to analyze that same data were discussed. The research problem: *What is the relationship between Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment in a private nonprofit urban organization* was discussed within the context of deciding on the research design and methods. Eight major topics were discussed: justification of the methodology, limits of the methodology, ethical issues, units of analysis and sources of data, instruments and procedures to collect data, administration of data collection instruments, treatments of the data before it is analyzed, and computer programs used.

The use of a case study to guide the research was addressed as well as the guiding qualitative paradigm. Various ethical issues were discussed and particular attention paid to protecting confidentiality in order to safeguard against unwanted exposure of individual identities. A description of the organization from which the research population was drawn was included.

The sampling frame and sample size were also addressed in the sources of data and unit of analysis section. The administration of the survey, focus group interviews and individual interviews were described in administration of instruments and procedures section. Indexing the survey data, the use of an odd numbered Likert scale and the coding

of focus group and individual interview data were addressed. Finally, the SPSS computer program used to analyze the survey data was described in the computer programs used section. This chapter provides assurance that appropriate procedures were followed so that duplication of this research is possible.

# CHAPTER IV

## ANALYSIS OF DATA

The objective of this fourth chapter is to present patterns of results. The data is analyzed for its relevance to the research question: *How do the nine dimensions of Organizational Climate* (McNabb & Sepic, 1997) *relate to the three components of Organizational Commitment* (Meyer & Allen, 1997)? Data was gathered using three methodologies: a survey, focus groups, and individual interviews.

The size of the correlation of survey data is reported in four ways suggested by Fink (1995, p.36) based on Person's Correlation:

.00 to .25: Little or no relationship

.26 to .50: Fair degree of relationship

.51 to .75: Moderate to good relationship

Over .75: very good to excellent relationship

Focus group and individual interview questions and categories of answers are presented followed by patterns of findings resulting from the application of open coding methodology. Summary findings are presented as the final section of chapter four.

Methodologies to collect data, approaches used to address credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability appear in chapter three. Chapter five contains a discussion of the data presented in this fourth chapter. This discussion is presented within the context of the literature review as presented in chapter two.

SURVEY DATA

Data were collected from 192 employees of a nonprofit urban organization using an anonymous survey. The survey measured 9 different dimensions of Organizational Climate, three Organizational Commitment constructs and demographic data. This response rate represented 85% of the 226 full-time employee survey population. Correlation indicated positive and significant associations for the measures of affective and normative commitment on the survey and seven of the Organizational Climate dimensions.

## Demographics

Since the nature of the research question involves Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment, the unit of analysis is the organization as a whole, not individuals. However, certain categories of employees are addressed in the analysis of the data because of the expanding nature of the research. Demographic data is limited to general categories of employee survey population information (see Table Thirteen).

Sixty-eight percent of the respondents in the sample were female. A large majority of the employee survey population had worked for the organization for less than six years while only four percent of the respondents had twenty or more years experience with the organization. Thirty-eight percent of the employee survey population reported having completed some college. Sixteen percent of the respondents held a four-year college degree and eleven percent of the employee survey population reported completing some graduate work.

Table Fourteen

*Original Survey Results: Demographic Descriptive Data*

| Variable | All |
| --- | --- |
| **Sex** | |
| Male | 32% |
| Female | 68% |
| | |
| **Experience** | |
| 20+ Years | 4% |
| 16 to 20 Years | 3% |
| 11 to 15 Years | 5% |
| 6 to 10 Years | 15% |
| 1 to 5 years | 73% |
| | |
| **Education** | |
| Not a HS Graduate | .5% |
| HS Graduate | 19% |
| Some College | 38% |
| 2 Year Degree | 14% |
| 4 Year Degree | 17% |
| Graduate Work | 11% |

Survey Results: Organizational Climate

Responses to all Organizational Climate questions were made on a seven-point scale. For these items assessing the Organizational Climate dimensions, a value of "1" indicates that the item "very definitely describes" the way things are in the organization, while a value of "7" indicated that the item "does not describe" the way things are. The mean index score for the nine dimensions of Organizational Climate varied from a high of 4.59 for ethical practices to a low of 3.68 for responsibility. Organizational Climate dimensions ranking by mean index scores were: ethical practices, structure, organizational identity, warmth and support, conflict, approved practices, rewards, risk, and responsibility.

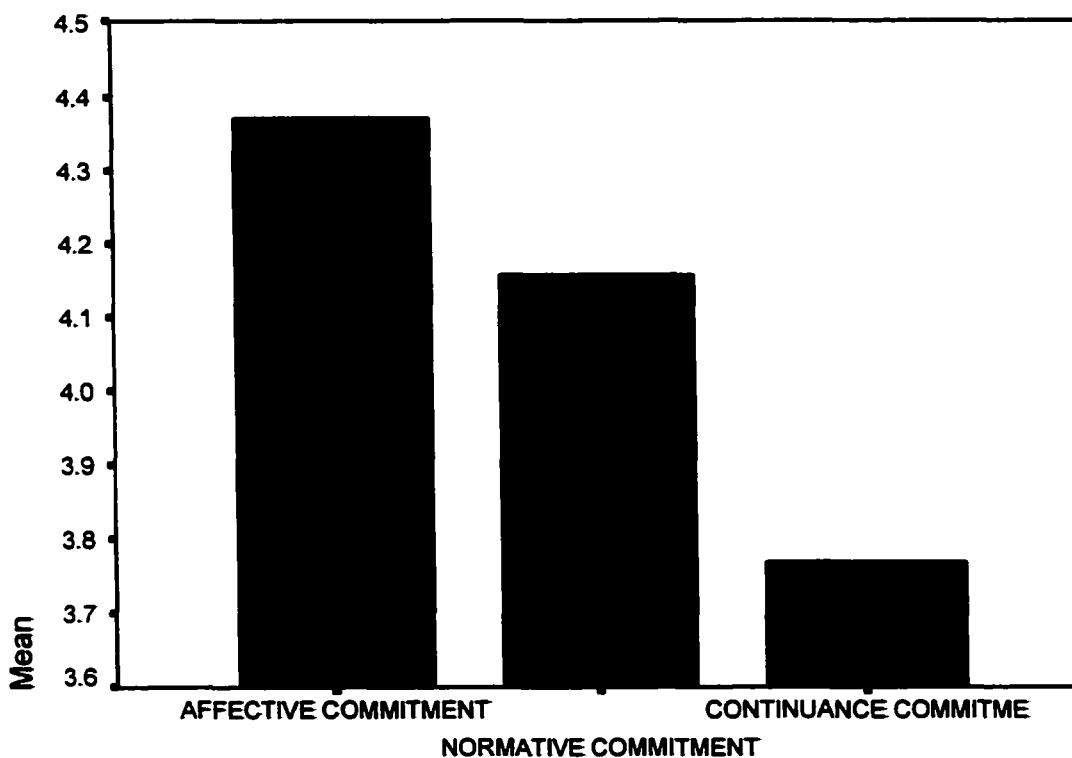*Figure Six.* Original Survey Results: Organizational Climate Dimensions
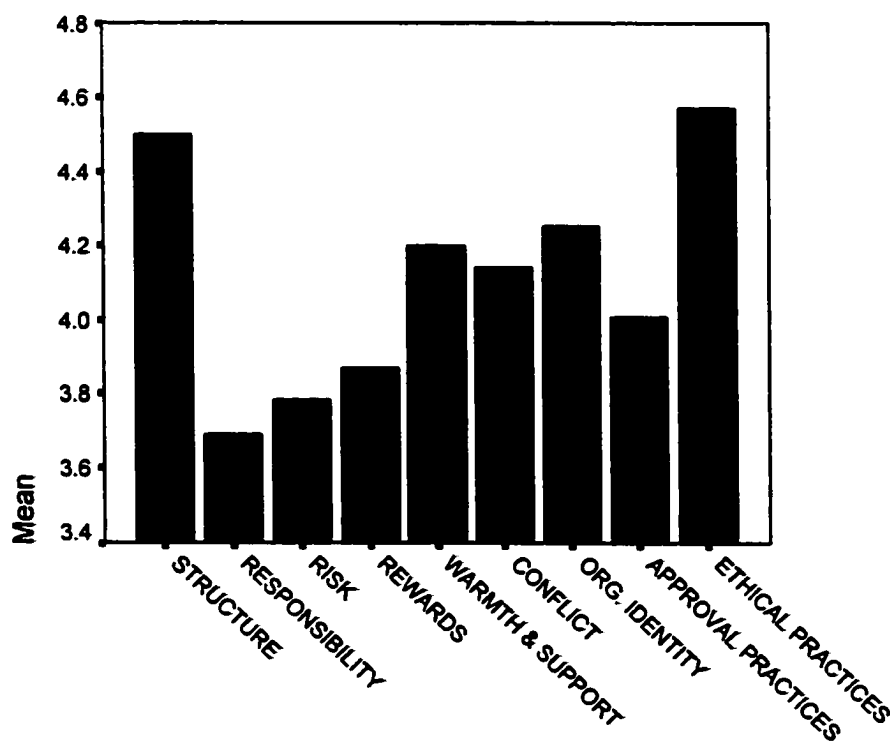


*Note.* Indexes were constructed as means scores from all questions by dimension.

Survey Results: Organizational Commitment

Responses to all Organizational Commitment questions were made on a seven-point scale. For all Organizational Commitment questions a value of "1" indicates that the response "strongly disagrees" with the statement and a value of "7" indicated that the response "strongly agrees" with the statement. The mean index scores for the three Organizational Commitments varied from a high of 4.36 for affective commitment, 4.17 for normative commitment to a low of 3.77 for continuance commitment.

*Figure Seven.* Original Survey Results: Organizational Commitment



*Note.* Indexes were constructed as means scores from all questions by component of Organizational Commitment.

Table Fifteen

*Original Survey Results: Mean Index Scores for Organizational Climate Dimensions and Organizational Commitment Components.*

| Variable | Mean | Standard Deviation |
|---|---|---|
| **Organizational Climate Dimensions** | | |
| structure | 4.52 | 0.84 |
| responsibility | 3.68 | 1.11 |
| risk | 3.80 | 0.92 |
| rewards | 3.91 | 1.19 |
| warmth and support | 4.19 | 0.83 |
| conflict | 4.17 | 1.07 |
| organizational identity | 4.27 | 1.26 |
| approved practices | 4.03 | 0.89 |
| ethical practices | 4.59 | 0.81 |
| **Organizational Commitment** | | |
| affective commitment | 4.36 | 1.31 |
| normative commitment | 4.17 | 1.07 |
| continuance commitment | 3.77 | 1.22 |

Survey Results: Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment

Correlations between the nine dimensions of Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment showed fair (.26 to .50) to good (.51 to .75) (Fink, 1995, p .36) relationships with Affective Commitment at the 0.01 significance level (p < .01) with the following exceptions: responsibility and risk. Responsibility showed only little or no negative relationship (0 to -.25) at the 0.05 significance level (p < .05). Risk showed no level of significance correlation.

Correlations between the nine dimensions of Organizational Climate and normative commitment showed fair (.26 to .50) to good (.51 to .75) relationships for all dimensions with the exception of responsibility and risk. Responsibility showed only little or no negative relationship (-.25 to 0.0) at the 0.01 significance level (p < .01). Risk showed no level of significance correlation.

There are no levels of significance correlation relationships between the nine dimensions of Organizational Climate and continuance commitment. The only exception was the Organizational Climate dimension "conflict". The conflict dimension showed little or no relationship (0.0 to .25) at the 0.01 level of significance (p < .01).

Table Sixteen

*Original survey Results: Bivariant Correlation Analysis*

| Climate Dimensions | affective commitment | normative commitment | continuance commitment |
|---|---|---|---|
| structure | .593** | .374** | .199 |
| responsibility | -.174* | -.195** | .036 |
| risk | -.057 | .012 | .108 |
| rewards | .488** | .509** | .048 |
| warmth & support | .650** | .430** | .071 |
| conflict | .493** | .431** | .170* |
| organizational identity | .591** | .512** | .138 |
| approved practices | .522** | .397** | -.008 |
| ethical practices | .384** | .340** | .119 |
| affective commitment | | .680** | .207** |
| normative commitment | | | .265** |

*Note.* Person Correlation
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 Level
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 Level

## FOCUS GROUPS DATA

Four separate focus group sessions were held with seven participants each. Three of the focus groups were composed of non-supervisors and the fourth session was composed only of supervisors. Supervisors and non-supervisors were divided in order to insure that participants would not feel inhibited. Asking questions of a sensitive nature concerning participant feelings about Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment in front of a supervisor was felt to yield less than candid results. All supervisors in the supervisory session were peers, in keeping with the above philosophy.

Focus group attendees were chosen to represent a wide cross section of the organization, including individuals from several site locations and the central office staff. The four focus group sessions were held over a two-day period. Early session attendees were asked not to discuss any of the sessions' content with anyone until after all the sessions had been completed.

Focus group sessions were held following the protocol outlined in chapter three. The researcher acted as moderator for each session. Additionally, the researcher hand recorded notes concerning the discussions and tape-recorded reflective notes following each session.

Sessions began with cookies, an informal introduction of each participant, and an explanation of why participants were invited and how the notes from each session were to be used by the researcher. A series of questions investigating perceptions of Organizational Climate, Organizational Commitment, the relationship between the two concepts and various follow-up questions were posed to each group. Notes from the

ensuing discussions were examined using an open coding methodology applied to identify categories and themes.

## Focus Groups: Organizational Climate

Each focus group was asked if they or their fellow workers used other words or terms when referring to Organizational Climate. Several participants indicated that the term Organizational Climate was not used in the organization. Other participants suggested terms such as "good environment, atmosphere, and morale" were used in the organization. The question was asked if formal or informal discussions about Organizational Climate existed in the organization. Responses followed two themes. Some participants suggested that no discussions were held but attempted to describe happenings where there was potential for such discussions by stating, "We have monthly management meetings; however, the things we bring up have slow or no feedback. Once a year we participate in a survey." The second theme presented by participants suggested that more informal than formal discussions did exist in the organization. The nature of these answers implied that these discussions were not led or initiated by management.

Each focus group was asked how important the Organizational Climate or "atmosphere" of your organization is to you. Two themes emerged from the discussions. The first can be described as agreement that Organizational Climate is important to employees. Responses reflecting this theme included, "It's very important. Climate makes workers feel good about their job. Climate affects our attitudes."

Not everyone agreed that Organizational Climate was important across the whole organization. Participants agreeing with this theme stated that, "not all employees see

things the same" and that "different parts of our organization are affected differently." This last statement was reflected in other conversations where it appeared that in this organization the field staffs viewed the office staff as less important to the organization and different. The comments that several participants made left the impression that the field employees were genuinely concerned with the clients and the office staff only worried about budgets and money.

Each focus group was provided a list of the nine dimensions that comprised the working definition of Organizational Climate. Each group was asked if any of the dimensions seemed more important to them. The responses varied by group. Ethical practices were mentioned in each session as being important. Warmth and support as well as responsibility were mentioned in three of the four sessions. All of the other dimensions were mentioned at least once during the four sessions.

Next each focus group was asked if they could identify any other dimensions of Organizational Climate that they would consider in defining the organization's climate. Two additional factors were suggested: occupational safety and organizational reputation. A follow-up question was posed to clarify what organizational reputation meant to the participants. The focus group indicated that the reputation the organization has in the community was what they thought of. It was stated, "We do very important things here and we have a video for the community but we don't show it to our own employees." None of the participants felt the new dimensions overlapped the existing nine Organizational Climate dimensions.

Focus Groups: Organizational Commitment

Commitment or Organizational Commitment seemed to be a term that the focus group members seemed familiar with. When asked what other terms are used by the organization when referring to commitment they indicated that commitment is called dedication, being a team player, and loyalty. There seemed to be general agreement that most team members remembered hearing these terms in a context that would be similar to Organizational Commitment. When asked about the context in which discussions about Organizational Commitment occurred, the answers were similar to Organizational Climate: we have monthly management meetings, however the things we bring up have slow or no feedback; once a year we participate in a survey; and more informal discussions than formal exist.

Each focus group was provided a list of working definitions for the three types of Organizational Commitment: affective, normative, and continuance. Each group was asked if any of the types of commitment seemed more important to them than the others. All four focus groups reported that affective commitment was most important. No other commitment type was mentioned by any of the focus groups as being most important.

These discussions led to the next question: What other kinds of commitment exist in your organization? Most groups had no further suggestions. One group suggested "Career Path Commitment." This focus group suggested that if the organization lets you do what you want to do, "what you love to do," another kind of commitment may exist. The researcher asked a follow-on question to clarify what renaming the concept and asking for clarification suggested.

The group was asked, do you mean like alignment commitment – the organization aligns you and what you want to, love to do? The focus group agreed that this was what they meant by career path commitment. Other members of the group suggested that this type commitment could overlap with Affective Commitment. It was further suggested that burnout might be an issue for alignment or career path commitment. It was stated that, "if they know you want to do the job they will overuse you."

Following this discussion, a series of questions was asked to determine the employees' feelings concerning each of the three types of commitment. Each focus group was asked how they felt about the following statement concerning continuance commitment: "People continue to work here because they need the work." An agreement and disagreement theme emerged from the conversations. Participants who agreed with the statement commented, "Some do and some don't. Yes, it's at everyone's top of the list. The majority needs work." The responses seemed to focus on the obvious fact that people work for money. Issues of continuance seemed lost in this discussion.

Participants who disagreed with this statement seemed to focus on the issue of continuance and stated, "People don't need to work here. There are other choices. Many are looking for a diversity of experience." The researcher asked a follow-on question: "What is your estimate of the number who are looking for experience?" An estimate of 40% was suggested. This response seemed consistent with conversations where participants suggested that many of the new employees were also new to any workforce.

Each focus group was asked how they felt about the following statement concerning affective commitment: "People continue to work here because they feel

involved with the organization and emotionally attached to their work." There was general agreement with this statement.

Two themes emerged from participant discussion. The first theme addressed the emotional attachment to the clients that the organization served. The nature of the field workers jobs constantly called for interaction with emotionally and physically challenged adults. Participants described almost family ties developing between employees and clients. This level of emotional attachment to clients and comradeship with fellow workers comprised the first theme.

The second theme addressed comfort with the work with typical statements made as follows, "People are committed when they feel comfortable with what they do." The third theme involved employment stability and safety." Statements addressing this included, "Stability is a factor. It is safe, that's why we stay." Affiliate commitment appeared to be a concept well understood by participants and important to them as a reason why they and their fellow workers continued as employees in this organization.

A follow-on question was asked to expand on the emotional attachment theme. "If we (the company) lowered the quality and number of relationships with the same money would you leave?" The answers indicated that employees would leave under those circumstances.

Next, each focus group was asked how they felt about the following statement concerning normative commitment: "People continue to work here because they feel they ought to be doing this work." There was no apparent consensus on this statement, with answers varying as follows: "We don't agree with the statement. Yes, because they love it; we are contributing to society."

A follow-on question was asked comparing normative commitment attitudes with continuance commitment attitudes. "How do you feel about the importance of your work compared to the income you receive from doing the work?" This question universally evoked laughter from each group. Two themes emerged from the discussion. The first was agreement that the work was more important than the income. This was reflected in the following statements, "Wages could be better but they believed people worked here because of their relationships with the consumers. Most people work here because of the nature of the work."

The second theme addressed the climate of the organization and the career potential. This was reflected by statements including, "It's low pay, but less structure. Bosses are not always looking over your shoulder. Positions are available for you to grow into. This is a flexible career place."

A follow-up question was asked to determine why people come to work here (the company) in the first place. Explanations fell into two themes: Theme one addressed the need for employment. Statements were made that employees need a job. The researcher asked, "You mean they are looking for more money?" The participant answered, "No they are looking for a job." The researcher further probed, "You mean this is their first job?" The answer given was yes, they are looking for all the experience they can get.

The second theme had to do with the nature of the work. Statements supporting this theme included, "They love what they are doing. They are compassionate and caring individuals. They are looking for the challenge, the versatility of the job." These two themes imply two very different perspectives concerning reasons to work in this organization.

Focus Groups: Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment

Two questions were asked of each focus group probing the relationship first between climate and commitment and secondly between commitment and climate. The first question asked was, "How important is the climate of your organization to commitment to the organization?" Most focus group members agreed that climate is important to commitment. Some members observed that this was not universal and, "not all employees see things the same and different parts of our organization are affected differently." The second statement implied that the climate in the organization was not uniform across all field operations and the central office.

The focus group participants who agreed with the proposition made statements like, "Climate is very important. Climate makes workers feel good about their job. A negative climate would affect commitment. Climate affects our attitudes."

The second question asked concerned the relationship between Organizational Commitment and Organizational Climate. "Given the earlier discussions, how do you feel about the following statement? People with high levels of commitment view the climate of our organization more favorably than people with low levels of commitment." Three themes emerged from this discussion. First, there was agreement with the statement as reflected by the comment, "dedication (commitment) first colors perception of climate."

Second, some participants seemed to still favor the idea that climate affects commitment. Their comments were, "perhaps commitment comes from happiness with what you are doing. If the organization allowed you to do what you want to do, feel

important doing it, then you were committed to it (the organization)." Some participants simply restated that climate affects commitment.

Third, there appeared to be some recognition that people come to work with a level of commitment and then they observe the organization's climate and it affects their commitment. A follow-up question was asked, "Do you come with a level of commitment that affects your perception of the climate? The answer was, "Yes, but the perception changes over time." Finally, some focus group members noted that people related to their work place but not to the "organization." This seemed consistent with earlier conversations about the decentralized nature of this organization.

## Focus Groups: Reflective Questions

At the end of each focus group session the moderator provided a summary of the session from his notes and asked, "Does this summary sound complete? Do you have any changes or additions?" The following additional comments were recorded, "Commitment here comes from relationships with consumers and fellow workers. Climate and commitment are not formally discussed here. Commitment colors perception of climate.

Finally the question was asked, "Have we left anything out? Do you have any advice to give me?" Several statements were made about how we (the organization) are different because of our consumer relationships. More statements were made emphasizing the need to define what the organization is trying to accomplish.

INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW DATA

Eight individual interviews were conducted. Two of the participants were managers and the remaining non-managers. This ratio was consistent with the overall ratio of managers to non-managers in the organization.

A series of questions were posed to each participant investigating perspectives concerning Organizational Climate, Organizational Commitment, and any relationships between the two constructs. Various follow-on questions were posed to each participant based on their responses to the standard questions. This was done in an effort to develop a richer understanding of their perceptions.

Each session began with cookies and an explanation of the purpose of the research and how the information from the interview would be used. Each individual was assured that his or her identity would be protected in the process. Participants were asked where they worked in the organization and for how long. This information was not recorded and used to relax the participant. The following sections address each of the three categories and report the themes of participant perceptions.

Individual Interview: Organizational Climate

Each participant was asked if they or their fellow workers use other words in this organization for Organizational Climate. Several participants could not think of any other terms. A follow-on question was then posed asking if management talks about the organization's climate. Responses varied as follows: "I guess as part of the annual staff survey. Questions are asked about retention of staff. But last week we did talk about how

to improve the climate." This last response most probably resulted from this research project.

A more direct answer to this question was for climate we say "atmosphere." When asked how management used this term it was indicated that there are no formal discussions, no orientation, and no newsletters. It appeared that employees only use this term.

The term Organizational Climate or climate with the exception of atmosphere is not a common subject of discussion in this organization. If it is discussed at all, the organization's atmosphere is used in informal discussions among the rank and file employees. Although Organizational Climate was not commonly used, interview participants recognized the term Organizational Climate and this discussion led to the next question.

The researcher noted that in the survey nine factors were listed as parts of Organizational Climate. The participants were provided a list of working definitions and time was given to read all of the definitions. Each participant was asked if some of these factors seem more important than others. The most common response was ethical practices and rewards. These were followed by responsibility, warmth and support and approved practices. All the remaining factors were mentioned at least once with the exception being risk. Risk was not mentioned by any participant as an important factor in Organizational Climate.

Individual Interview: Organizational Commitment

Each participant was asked if they or their fellow workers use other words in this organization for Organizational Commitment. Several terms were suggested by the participants such as dedication, being a team member, and "going that extra mile." It was explained that commitment is referred to as motivation and retention, and there are formal discussions about both.

This raised the question of who uses these terms and it was stated, "Yes we talk about commitment but from the bottom not from the top. It is a background issue." The researcher asked a follow-up question concerning what was meant by "bottom up" and it was suggested that what management emphasizes or talks about is money or budget issues as opposed to client service. It was further stated that, "it seems they (management) are always more concerned about the budget than the clients."

The term Organizational Commitment or commitment with the exception of motivation and retention is not a common subject of discussion by management in this organization. If commitment, dedication, being a team member and "going that extra mile" are discussed at all in this organization, it is informal. Although Organizational Commitment is not commonly used, interview participants readily recognized the term. This discussion led to the next question.

The researcher noted that in the survey three types of Organizational Commitment were listed. The participants were provided a list of working definitions and time was given to read all of the definitions. Each participant was asked if some of these types of Organizational Commitment seem more important than others.

Affective commitment was mentioned most often as more important. Comments were typically as follows, "affective commitment seems more important. It shows how we feel about the company." Continuance commitment was mentioned but in the context that their worksite pays well but there is also lots of comradeship. Normative commitment was also mentioned. Affective commitment was most important to the majority of the interview participants.

In the following discussions, two questions were posed investigating first the concept of alignment commitment that was suggested from the focus group sessions and asking if any other types of commitment could be thought of. In the previous interviews alignment commitment was mentioned as a new category. It was described as the organization enabling you to continue to do the type of work you enjoy.

Participants were asked how they felt about this proposed alignment commitment. The interview participants agreed with the notion. Some participants suggested that it might overlap with affective commitment. It was suggested that political and social commitment is another type of commitment. This would be dependent on how your political and social views aligned with the organizations or fellow workers. This may overlap with normative commitment. Two new components of Organizational Commitment as suggested by the interview participants were alignment commitment and social political commitment.

The following conversations focused on questions testing the interview participants' understanding of the three definitions of Organizational Commitment. Participants were asked how they felt about the following statement, "People continue to work here because they need the work." Answers fell into a classic yes or no theme with

those agreeing that people need money to care for themselves, their households, and to pay their bills. Those who agreed also felt that the company had low standards for hiring people.

Those who disagreed felt that the statement had a negative tone and that money doesn't bring commitment. They noted that money alone would not work. They stated that, "If that's all a worker is looking for they will feel afraid and trapped." There was no consensus among the interview participants.

Next, the participants were asked how they felt about the following affective commitment statement, "People continue to work here because they feel involved with the organization and emotionally attached to their work." The majority of the interview participants agreed with the statement. Their comments included statement such as, "True, some are really attached to consumers. Some stop part time and work full time because of that. Liking being here is important. Many of my fellow workers are emotionally attached to the clients. People are emotionally attached to the work because of the type people we deal with." One of the participants disagreed stating that, "people don't feel attached to the company." Most participants agreed with the statement. Their comments indicate that emotional attachment to their work and clients seems most responsible for their feelings.

The final question tested the participants' understanding of normative commitment. Participants were asked how they felt about the statement, "People continue to work here because they feel they ought to be doing this work." There was disagreement among the interview participants concerning this statement.

The majority of the interview participants agreed with the statement and made comments such as the following. "They are dedicated to the cause. People work here because they are caregivers."

The researcher asked a follow-up question: what forms a caregiver? Responses included the following, "Experiences: some are born that way, it is an ethnic thing; blacks are expected by society to be care givers. Yes, some are born or have skills to do this work. Some are meant to do it. Some are care givers because they feel obligated or guilt? Of course it may mean you have found your life work. It is a soft obligation."

The next conversation addressed the difference between normative commitment and continuance commitment. The following question was asked of the interview participants: How do you feel about the importance of your work compared to the income you receive from doing the work?

Two themes emerged from the conversations. The first theme addressed the issue of income with participants stating, "I'm here to do my job. That's what I get paid for. Are they paying enough for what we do? Yes and no. I feel as paperwork grows and justifies more time commitment, I should get more money."

The second theme emphasized the importance of the work over income. These participants made statements like, "as a whole how do you put a dollar amount on the type work we do? The work is more important than the income. I really enjoy the work. I enjoy helping clients and the employees solve problems. I like helping people."

A follow-on question was asked that addressed the core measurement of commitment, turnover. Participants were asked so why do you continue to work here? Reasons addressed all three commitments. The normative commitment answer was the

work is more important than the income. The continuance commitment answer was I feel I'm paid the right amount for what I do. The affiliate commitment answer was yes, because of the comfortable relationships.

Interview participants were asked a second question concerning normative commitment. They were asked what they thought about the statement, "Employees who identify with the organization, their fellow workers, and with the underlying mission and philosophy of the organization are more committed to the organization." All the participants agreed with the statement.

Management's role in making clear the underlying mission and philosophy of the organization was reflected in these participant comments. "Yes, the primary mission drives the commitment. The way management structures or facilitates the structure of the big picture facilitates employee's commitment. Definitely, support workers sometimes aren't apprised of the importance of their work. How can you embrace the philosophy of the company if you don't understand it? Yes, once people know more about the company they are more committed."

Individual Interview: Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment

The following questions and responses address the Organizational Climate, Organizational Commitment relationship. The first question addresses sequence. Interview participants were asked, "When looking at Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment, I don't know which one comes first. Can you help explain how this works?"

Participants suggested that when an employee is hired they come with an expected level of commitment. Then the organization's climate influences their commitment level. The follow-up question was asked, "do your previous job experiences help establish an expectation of commitment level?"

Commitment changes with multiple job experiences. Individuals who come to work with no job experience observe the organization's climate and then establish a level of commitment. The sequencing of climate or commitment is dependent on the previous work experience of the new employee or lack of work experience. The participants suggested that experience establishes expected Organizational Commitment levels that are later modified by Organizational Climate factors. New employees with no history of work experience are influenced by Organizational Climate factors and then establish a level of Organizational Commitment.

The researcher suggested that the focus groups presented some confusion about how employees relate to the organization as a whole. The implication was that various parts of the organization might experience different perceptions of Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment. Interview participants were asked if they could explain.

Responses indicated that it would be logical in this organization. Most people are hired at a site and never see the central office. They relate to their coworkers and work under the rules governing the site. It was stated that, "we are a very decentralized organization."

The following question was asked to further probe about the sequencing of Organizational Climate perspective and Organizational Commitment perspective, "Do

people with high levels of commitment view the climate of our organization more favorably than people with low levels of commitment?" Most of the interview participants agreed with this.

The researcher asked if employees with high levels of commitment view the climate of the organization more favorably because they are wearing "rose-colored glasses." Responses to this question varied. Some participants stated, "I disagree with that. A highly motivated individual tries to educate themselves about potential negative aspects resulting in more positive views. Commitment to people with disabilities comes first, then is reinforced by the climate."

Some participants agreed with the statement. They suggested that people with more positive commitment do feel this way. However their commitment to the workplace comes from management's actions and the workplace's climate. "If you are really committed to what we are doing, you see the agency more positively."

It was also suggested that Organizational Commitment and Organizational Climate views were dynamic and that commitment to the organization and clients over time mesh. It was suggested that people come to work here to do good works. People come to the organization with a neutral commitment and establish their commitment based on their experiencing the climate. Both experience and commitment grow over time. It was also suggested that people come with a level of commitment, then modify based on observed climate.

Individual Interview: Reflective Questions

After reviewing the notes from each interview with the participant, the researcher asked if anything had been left out or if the participant had any advice to give to the researcher. The suggestions offered by the participants included, "remember the remote site nature of the organization removes us from the 'organization.' The rules at the worksite give employees a perspective. We are a 'do-gooder' company. In order to enhance commitment we need to clearly define ourselves to potential employees. To draw the right kind of employees we need better press. Need to orient new employees selling the organization's self worth. Your survey needs a comments section."

## SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

### Organizational Climate

The mean index score for the nine dimensions of Organizational Climate varied with dimensions ranking in order from highest to lowest as follows: ethical practices, structure, organizational identity, warmth and support, conflict, approved practices, rewards, risk, and responsibility.

Focus group findings indicate that the term Organizational Climate was not used in the organization. Terms used in the organization having the same meaning are good environment, atmosphere, and morale. The nature of the discussions about Organizational Climate terms implied that these discussions were not led or initiated by management. The focus group discussions suggested agreement that Organizational Climate is

important to employees. It also was evident from the discussions that not everyone agreed that climate was viewed the same across the whole organization.

The focus group discussions revealed that employees recognized Organizational Climate even if the terms used in research were not familiar to them. Employees agreed that Organizational Climate was important to them. Ethical practices, warmth and support as well as responsibility were mentioned most often as the important dimensions of Organizational Climate in this organization. Focus group participants felt comfortable enough with the construct to suggest the two additions dimensions of occupational safety and organizational identity.

When individual interview participants were asked what terms are used in the organization meaning Organizational Climate, "atmosphere" was suggested. When asked if the term, "atmosphere" was used by management, interview participants felt non-supervisory employees only used this term. Although Organizational Climate was not commonly used, the term Organizational Climate appeared to be recognized by interview participants. The most common Organizational Climate dimensions mentioned as important were ethical practices, rewards, responsibility, warmth and support as well as approved practices. All the remaining factors were mentioned at least once except the risk dimension.

## Organizational Commitment

The mean index scores for the three Organizational Commitments varied in order from highest to lowest from affective commitment, normative commitment to continuance commitment. Focus group findings indicated that the concept of

Organizational Commitment seemed familiar to the focus group participants. Other terms for the concept used in the organization were suggested as dedication, "being a team player," and loyalty. When asked which of the three Organizational Commitments seemed most important all four focus groups reported that affective commitment was most important. An additional type of Organizational Commitment was suggested as career path commitment.

Questions probing continuance commitment suggesting people continue to work here because they need the work generated discussions indicating both agreement and disagreement with the concept. Affective commitment discussions in consideration of the question that people continue to work here because they feel involved with the organization and emotionally attached to their work resulted in a general agreement that employees continue to work because of involvement, or emotional attachment to the work. Emotional attachment to clients, comradeship with fellow workers, and comfort with the work were also suggested as reasons for continuation of employment.

A follow-on question was asked to expand on the emotional attachment theme asking if the company somehow lowered the quality and number of relationships with the same money offered, would employees leave? The discussions reflected a feeling that employees would leave under those circumstances.

Discussions concerning normative commitment based on the statement that people continue to work here because they feel they ought to be doing this work resulted in both agreement and disagreement with this statement. When comparing normative commitment with continuance commitment, two themes emerged from the discussion.

The first was agreement that the work was more important than the income and that the climate of the organization and the career potential were important to employees.

The focus group discussions revealed that employees recognized Organizational Commitment and used terms such as dedication, "being a team player," and loyalty in informal discussions. Employees agreed that affective commitment was important to them. A fourth type commitment was suggested as career path commitment.

Interview findings indicated that terms used in the organization to mean Organizational Commitment included dedication, being a team member, and "going that extra mile." Participants indicated that talk about commitment happened from the bottom, not from the top in the organization. It was suggested that Organizational Commitment was a background issue. Although Organizational Commitment is not a commonly used term, interview participants readily recognized the term. When asked which of the three Organizational Commitments seemed most important, affective commitment was mentioned most often.

Alignment commitment was suggested by the focus groups as a fourth component of Organizational Commitment. All the interview participants agreed with this. Some interview participants suggested it might overlap with affective commitment. A fifth Organizational Commitment component was also suggested, "political and social commitment."

When continuance commitment perceptions were tested by asking if people continue to work here " because they need the work," those agreeing felt that people need money to care for themselves, their households, and to pay their bills. Those who

disagreed felt that the statement had a negative tone and that money alone doesn't bring commitment.

When affective commitment perceptions were tested by asking if people continue to work here because they feel involved with the organization and emotionally attached to their work, the majority of the interview participants agreed with the statement. When normative commitment perspectives were tested by asking if people continue to work here "because they feel they ought to be doing this work," there was disagreement among the interview participants concerning this statement. When asked if employees "who identify with the organization, their fellow workers, and with the underlying mission and philosophy of the organization," are more committed to the organization, all the interview participants agreed with the statement.

When testing the perceived difference between normative commitment and continuance commitment, the following question was asked of the interview participants, "How do you feel about the importance of your work compared to the income you receive from doing the work." Two themes that emerged from the conversations were: the issue of income and the importance of the work over income.

A follow-on question addressed turnover. Participants were asked why they continue to work in the organization. The normative commitment answer was that the work is more important than the income. The continuance commitment answer was, "I feel I'm paid the right amount for what I do." The affective commitment answer was because of the comfortable relationships.

Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment

Survey findings indicated that the measures of Organizational Climate most strongly related to the scores for affective commitment were warmth and support, structure, organizational identity, approved practices, conflict, rewards, and ethical practices. Measures of Organizational Climate most strongly associated with normative commitment were organizational identity followed by rewards, conflict, warmth and support, approved practices, structure, and ethical practices. For both affective and normative commitment the Organizational Climate dimensions of responsibility and risk showed no significant associations. No significant associations were found for the measure of continuance commitment and the nine dimensions of Organizational Climate.

Focus group findings indicated that when asked how important is the climate of your organization to employees' commitment to the organization, most focus group members agreed that climate is important to commitment. Some focus group participants suggested that this was not universal, that not all employees see things the same, and that different parts of the organization are affected differently. It appeared that the climate in the organization was not uniform across all field operations and the central office.

When asked if people with high levels of commitment view the climate of the organization more favorably than people with low levels of commitment, three themes emerged. There was agreement with the statement noting, "dedication (commitment) first colors perception of climate." Some participants suggested that Organizational Climate affects Organizational Commitment. A dynamic situation was suggested where people come to work with a level of commitment and then they observe the organization's climate and then modify their commitment. A follow-up question asking if you come

with a level of commitment that affects your perception of the climate resulted in agreement by the participants who noted that it changes over time.

Focus group participants suggested that there was a logical relationship between Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment. Participants noted that this relationship appeared not to be uniform across all employees and for all parts of the organization. Further it was suggested that a dynamic situation exists, especially for new hires, where based on your previous experience or lack thereof you bring a level of commitment to the organization that is then modified as a result of the Organizational Climate factors. However, if you have no previous experience, the situation appears to be reversed where the Organizational Climate factors appear to establish your commitment level.

Interview findings indicated that participants suggested that when an employee is hired they might come with an expected level of commitment. Then the organization's climate influences their commitment level. Commitment is based first on previous job experiences. Individuals who come to work with no job experience observe the organization's climate and then establish a level of commitment.

When asked why perceptions of Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment may vary based on different parts of the organization, interview participant responses indicated that it would be logical in this organization. Most people are hired at a site and never see the central office. They relate to their coworkers and work under the rules governing the site. It was stated, "the organization is very decentralized."

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the summary findings and recommendations from the research. The study sought to reduce the gap in the body of research concerning the links between the construct of Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment. Both quantitative research methods and qualitative research methods were relied on to examine the relationship between the two constructs. The center of attention of this study was the determination of any significant relationship between the dimensions of Organizational Climate as defined by McNabb and Sepic (1997) (structure, responsibility, risk, rewards, warmth and support, conflict, organizational identity, approved practices, ethical practices) and the three components of Organizational Commitment as defined by Meyer and Allen (1997) (affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment).

This study examined the worker perceptions in a nonprofit urban service organization. In studying the relationship between the constructs of Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment, this study sought to shed more light on the underlying theoretical relationships. Methodological triangulation was utilized in this study. This dominant--less dominant research design combined quantitative and qualitative approaches in a single instrumental case study. Multiple methodological sources of evidence including survey, focus groups, and open-ended interviews were used. The quantitative aspect of this methodological triangulated research methodology utilized a pre-tested survey of Organizational Climate designed and tested by McNabb

and Sepic (1995) and pre-tested Organizational Commitment survey questions designed and tested by Meyer and Allen (1997). The qualitative aspect of this methodological triangulated research methodology utilized in-depth interviews including both individual interviews and focus group interviews. Data analysis consisted of the correlation of the nine dimensions of Organizational Climate indexes with the three components of Organizational Commitment indexes from the survey data. Focus group and individual interview patterns of findings were identified from the application of an open coding methodology.

## ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Findings are in three parts that address the research question: Is there a significant relationship between the dimensions of Organizational Climate (structure, responsibility, risk, rewards, warmth and support, conflict, organizational identity, approval practices, ethical practices) and the three components of Organizational Commitment (affective, continuance, and normative)? The survey findings indicate that correlations between the nine dimensions of Organizational Climate and normative commitment showed fair to good relationships for all dimensions with the exception of responsibility and risk. Responsibility showed only little or no negative relationship at the 0.01 significance level (p < .01). Risk showed no level of significance correlation. There are no levels of significance correlation relationships between the nine dimensions of Organizational Climate and continuance commitment.

Focus group findings indicated that Organizational Climate perceptions might be grouped into two themes. The first can be described as agreement that Organizational

Climate is important to employees. Responses reflecting this theme included, "It's very important. Climate makes workers feel good about their job. Climate affects our attitudes." However, not everyone agreed that Organizational Climate was important across the whole organization. Participants agreeing with this theme stated that, "not all employees see things the same" and that "different parts of our organization are affected differently." Ethical practices were mentioned in each session as being important. Warmth and support as well as responsibility were mentioned in three of the four sessions. All of the other dimensions were mentioned at least once during the four sessions.

Commitment or Organizational Commitment seemed to be a term that the focus group members seemed familiar with. Each focus group was provided a list of working definitions for the three types of Organizational Commitment: affective, normative, and continuance. Each group was asked if any of the types of commitment seemed more important to them than the others. All four focus groups reported that affective commitment was most important. No other commitment type was mentioned by any of the focus groups as being most important.

Most focus group members agreed that climate is important to commitment when asked, "How important is the climate of your organization to commitment to the organization?" Some members observed this was not universal and, "not all employees see things the same, and different parts of our organization are affected differently." Agreement with the statement as reflected by the comment, "dedication (commitment) first colors perception of climate." There appeared to be some recognition that people come to work with a level of commitment and then they observe the organization's

climate and it affects their commitment. A follow-up question was asked, "Do you come with a level of commitment that affects your perception of the climate? The answer was, "Yes, but the perception changes over time." Finally, some focus group members noted that people related to their work place but not to the "organization." This seemed consistent with earlier conversations about the decentralized nature of this organization.

Individual interview findings indicated that the term Organizational Climate or climate with the exception of atmosphere is not a common subject of discussion in this organization. If it is discussed at all, the organization's atmosphere is used in informal discussions among the rank and file employees. When asked which climate dimension seem most important the most common response was ethical practices and rewards. Responsibility, warmth and support, and approved practices followed these. All the remaining factors were mentioned at least once with the exception being risk. Risk was not mentioned by any participant as an important factor in Organizational Climate.

Individuals interviewed indicated that commitment is referred to as motivation and retention, and there are formal discussions about both. This raised the question of who uses these terms and it was stated, "Yes, we talk about commitment but from the bottom not from the top. It is a background issue." The researcher asked a follow-up question concerning what was meant by "bottom up" and it was suggested that what management emphasizes or talks about is money or budget issues as opposed to client service. When asked which component of commitment seemed most important, affective commitment was mentioned most often as more important. Comments were typically as follows, "affective commitment seems more important. It shows how we feel about the company." Continuance commitment was mentioned but in the context that their worksite

pays well but there is also lots of comradeship. Normative commitment was also mentioned. Affective commitment was most important to the majority of the interview participants.

Individuals suggested that when an employee is hired they come with an expected level of commitment. Then the organization's climate influences their commitment level. The follow-up question was asked, "Does your previous job experience help establish an expectation of commitment level?" Commitment changes with multiple job experiences. Individuals who come to work with no job experience observe the organization's climate and then establish a level of commitment. The sequencing of climate or commitment is dependent on the previous work experience of the new employee or lack of work experience. The participants suggested that experience establishes expected Organizational Commitment levels that are later modified by Organizational Climate factors. New employees with no history of work experience are influenced by Organizational Climate factors and then establish a level of Organizational Commitment.

It was also suggested that Organizational Commitment and Organizational Climate views were dynamic and that commitment to the organization and clients over time mesh. It was suggested that people come to work here to do good works. People come to the organization with a neutral commitment and establish their commitment based on their experiencing the climate. Both experience and commitment grows over time. It was also suggested that people come with a level of commitment, then modify it based on observed climate.

Within the bounds of this instrumental case study of an urban nonprofit organization evidence exists that significant relationships exist between Organizational

Climate and Organization Commitment. Specifically, fair to good correlation relationships exist between seven dimensions of Organizational Climate: structure, rewards, warmth and support, conflict, organizational identity, approved practices, ethical practices and two components of Organizational Commitment: affective commitment, and normative commitment. Focus group findings indicate that climate is important to commitment although there are differences of opinion concerning whether people come to work with a level of commitment and then they observe the organization's climate and it affects their commitment. Ethical practices, warmth and support, as well as responsibility were mentioned most often as being important dimensions of Organizational Climate to workers. Affective commitment was universally indicated as the most important of the three Organizational Commitment components. Individual interview findings also indicated that the organization's climate influences their commitment level. When asked which dimensions of Organizational Climate seem most important, they indicated that ethical practices and rewards were followed by responsibility, warmth and support, and approved practices. Interviewees, when asked which component of Organizational Commitment seemed most important, indicated that affective commitment was most important.

Two additional themes emerge from this study: the lack of agreement and support for continuance commitment in this urban non-profit service organization and the suggested interactions between the constructs of Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment as they influence employee perceptions of the organization. The survey research revealed that the dimensions of Organizational Climate most strongly related to affective commitment were warmth and support, structure,

organizational identity, approved practices, conflict, rewards, and ethical practices. Dimensions of Organizational Climate most strongly associated with normative commitment were organizational identity followed by rewards, conflict, warmth and support, approved practices, structure, and ethical practices. No significant associations were found between any of the Organizational Climate dimensions and continuance commitment. Additionally, the continuance commitment index score from the survey was markedly lower than the other two components of Organizational Commitment.

The focus groups were asked which of the Organizational Climate dimensions were most important to them. Focus group participants mentioned ethical practices, warmth and support, and responsibility most often. The most common Organizational Climate dimensions mentioned as important in the individual interviews was ethical practices, rewards, responsibility, warmth and support as well as approved practices. When asked which of the three Organizational Commitment components seemed most important, all of the focus groups reported that affective commitment was most important. In the individual interviews, the commitment component that was reported as most important (affective commitment) was also mentioned most often. The survey results, focus group interviews and individual interviews showed a lack of support for continuance commitment.

Given that 73% of the survey participants' demographic profile indicated that they had less than five years experience with the organization, the lack of continuance commitment may also be explained at least in part by Becker's "Side Bet" Theory. They had not accumulated enough benefits such as pension vesting or other "side bets" to influence their levels of commitment. When management of this organization was

queried concerning the large number of workers with less than five years experience the organization's growth was credited as the cause.

However, there is also another possible explanation. The nature of non-profit organizations is not to emphasize profits and therefore may minimize discussions of a money nature; the tension exhibited by many of the interview participants between budget constraints and client services; the apparent numbers of new hires into this organization that were seeking employment for the first time; and other factors such as the importance of the work and its rich source of experience may explain the lack of agreement and support for continuance commitment in this organization. When comparing normative commitment with continuance commitment, two themes emerged from the interview discussions. The first was agreement that the work and career potential were more important than income to most employees and the second theme was the importance of the climate of the organization.

The second emergent theme from this study has to do with suggested interactions between the constructs of Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment as they influence employee perceptions of the organization. Interview participants agreed that climate is important to commitment, making statements like, "climate is very important, makes workers feel good about their job, and it affects our attitudes."

There is a perception that people come to work with a pre-existing level of commitment. These individuals then observe the organization's climate. This perception of Organizational Climate then affects their commitment level. However, commitment may change over time. Individuals who come to work with no job experience observe the organization's climate and then establish a level of commitment. The sequencing of

climate or commitment is dependent on the previous work experience of the new employee or lack of work experience. The participants suggested that experience establishes expected Organizational Commitment levels that are later modified by Organizational Climate factors. New employees with no history of work experience are influenced by Organizational Climate factors and they then establish a level of Organizational Commitment.

## IMPLICATIONS FOR THEORY

Litwin and Stringer (1968, p.29) called for a more molar model, incorporating the mass of the subject as opposed to all the infinite detail, to understand worker motivation and behavior and suggested climate as that model. Subsequent study disputed climate as the model but not for the need for a model. The findings from this study suggest a basis for a more extensive molar model. Both Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment were shown to contribute to management's understanding of worker's motivation and behavior. Little attention has been paid to the particular organizational setting that each of these constructs is measured in. Litwin and Stringer's molar model may be more richly described in Figure Eight. This study's finding contributes toward the nonprofit frame. More research concerning this proposed expansion of Litwin and Stringer's molar model is warranted.

*Figure Eight.* Proposed Expanded Version of Litwin and Stringer's Molar Model

| ORGANIZATIONAL SETTINGS | | MOLAR MODEL'S PERCEPTUAL CONSTRUCTS | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | | ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE | ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT |
| | PUBLIC ORGANIZATIONS | THE PUBLIC ORGANIZATION FRAME | |
| | FOR PROFIT ORGANIZATIONS | THE FOR PROFIT ORGANIZATIONAL FRAME | |
| | NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS | THE NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONAL FRAME | |

*Note.* The three frames of Litwin and Stringer's Molar model to understand worker

motivation and behavior: The Public Organization Frame, The For Profit Organization

Frame, and The Nonprofit Frame.

Continuance commitment was recognized and tested for as a central theme in academic literature. The assumption was that if low index scores of commitment were recorded, management should take some actions to bring up these scores and therefore in some cases reduce turnover and other undesirable and observable characteristics of employee behavior. As a result, the assumed management actions to be taken focused on social exchange theory or giving employees more things (money, benefits, etc.) in exchange for higher levels of commitment. These may not have been the most effective actions to take. The assumption that continuance commitment was the only component of Organizational Commitment may have been faulty. This study's findings support Meyer and Allen's contention that commitment has more than one component. Interviewed employees of this urban private nonprofit organization clearly recognize that the other two Organizational Commitment components seemed more important than continuance commitment.

Alignment commitment or career path commitment was suggested as an additional component of Organizational Commitment. This was described as a commitment that arises if the organization lets you do what you want to do, "what you love to do." It was also described as arising from the organization aligning you with what you want to, love to do. This suggested additional component of Organizational Commitment is described by Schein's (1978, p.125) Career Anchor Theory. Career Anchor Theory is based on three components:

1. Self-perceived talents and abilities (based on actual successes in a variety of work settings);
2. Self-perceived motives and needs (based on

opportunities for self-tests and self-diagnosis in real situations and on feedback from others);
3. Self-perceived attitudes and values (based on actual encounters between self and norms and values of the employing organization and work setting).

While Schein describes these as a "set of driving and constraining forces on career decisions and choices," it may be hypothesized that these "forces" make up a dimensions of a fourth component of Organizational Commitment namely, "career path or anchor commitment."

Cambell, Dunnette, Lawler, and Weick (1970) described four major dimensions of organizational climate: (1) individual autonomy, (2) degree of structure imposed on the position, (3) reward orientation, and (4) consideration, warmth and support. Individual autonomy describes "the freedom of the individual to be his own boss and reserve considerable decision-making power for himself. The degree of structure refers to "the degree to which the objectives of, and methods for, the job are established and communicated to the individual by superiors." Reward orientation "convey(s) a reward overtone" for performance. The fourth category, consideration, warmth, and support, refers to "the support and stimulation received from one's superior" (Campbell, et al., 1970, p. 393). This study's findings support the commonality of these four dimensions. Although McNabb and Sepic (1995) used slightly different terms (responsibility, structure, rewards, warmth and support) these dimensions of Organizational Climate were all recognized in this study and some (responsibility, rewards, warmth and support) are shown to be most important to interview participants.

The study findings support the concept of attitude commitment (Mowday, et al., 1979) or attitudinal commitment (Brown, 1996) which exist when "the identity of the

person (is linked) to the organization (Sheldon, 1971, p.143)." "Attitudinal commitment represents a state in which an individual identifies with a particular organization and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in order to facilitate these goals (Mowday, et al., 1979, p.225). Emotional attachment to the clients that the organization served was indicated in the study. The nature of the field workers' jobs appeared to constantly call for interaction with emotionally and physically challenged adults. Participants described almost family ties developing between employees and clients. This urban nonprofit organization's mission is to provide responsive person-centered services to improve the quality of life of individuals with disabilities.

When asked how they felt about the importance of their work compared to the income they receive from doing the work, there was agreement that the work was more important than the income. This was reflected in the following statements, "Wages could be better, but they believed people worked here because of their relationships with the consumers. Most people work here because of the nature of the work." These study findings appear to support the concept of attitude commitment.

## IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY AND PRACTICE

This study identified several reasons why organizations, and especially nonprofit organizations, need to pay attention to employee perceptions of Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment. It appears evident from this study that this nonprofit organization's workers discuss both Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment although they used different terms such as good environment, atmosphere, and morale for Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment is referred to as motivation and retention. Nonprofit management should consider periodic surveys of all

workers to determine perceptions of Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment within the organization. McGregor (1957), writing in organizational literature about Theory X and Theory Y, suggested that management creates a managerial climate. It would appear from this research that nonprofit management climate is created by design or by happenstance depending on the perceptiveness of nonprofit managers. If employees feel these constructs are important as was found in this study, then nonprofit management should provide leadership and be involved in discussions of Organizational Climate dimensions and Organizational Commitment components.

This study of an urban nonprofit organization suggested that worker experience establishes expected Organizational Commitment levels which are later modified by Organizational Climate factors. New workers with no history of work experience are influenced by Organizational Climate factors and then establish a level of Organizational Commitment. Orientation programs and employee development programs should consider which category new hires fall into: first time workers or previously employed workers. The emphasis for each group is suggested by this research to be different. This also suggests the use of periodic surveys and interviews to determine how each category of new hires is evolving their perceptions of the organization.

The indications from this research are that in nonprofit organizations, actions that enhance affective commitment should be taken. Management, if determined as important by survey or focus groups, should also nurture the Organizational Climate dimensional perceptions of ethical practices, rewards, responsibility, warmth and support as well as approved practices among established workers.

In summary, Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment are shown by this research to be important to nonprofit workers. Simply giving more things in the hope of gaining more commitment may not work. Actions to enhance the dimensions of Organizational Climate (ethical practices, rewards, responsibility, warmth and support as well as approved practices) and affective and normative components of Organizational Commitment may result in reduced turnover (Meyer & Allen, 1997) and improved job satisfaction (McNabb & Sepic 1995).

## RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Given the iterative nature of qualitative research and in keeping with the notion that qualitative research provides perspective rather than truth, theories of action rather than generalizations, and verification of universal theories (Patton 1990), working hypotheses are offered as guides and suggestions for further research based on suggestions by Cronback (1975), Patton (1990), and Merriman (1998) that qualitative research should propose working hypotheses.

An important consideration in the methodology of this study was the ability for it to be replicated. Further research is recommended, replicating this instrumental case study. The components of Organizational Commitment and Organizational Climate may vary between nonprofit service organizations and other organizations. The proposed expansion of Litwin and Stringer's molar model suggests that this may be the case. Further research is recommended to determine if Organizational Commitment and Organizational Climate measured in service organizations and across nonprofit, for profit, and public organizations are statistically and perceptually different. This is consistent

with Virtanen's (2000) suggestions that qualitative and quantitative research is needed to reconceptualize the antecedents and consequences of Organizational Commitment.

This research suggests that new workers with no history of work experience are influenced by Organizational Climate factors and then establish a level of Organizational Commitment. Previously employed hires have an established level of commitment that is subsequently modified by the organization's climate. Further research is recommended to determine if previous work experience colors Organizational Commitment and Organizational Climate perceptions. Research is also suggested to determine if Organizational Commitment changes over time in different ways depending on the new hires' previous work experience or lack thereof.

A fourth component of Organizational Commitment has been suggested by this study. Organizational Commitment may be comprised of four components: continuance, affective, normative and career path or anchor. Further research is recommended to determine if Organizational Commitment is composed of four components including career path or anchor commitment, rather than Meyer and Allen's (1997) three components.

Organizational Climate dimensions have been measured based on Likert scales measuring both agreement and disagreement. This research found several dimensions that were identified as important to employees with low survey index scores. Further research is recommended to determine if Organizational Climate as measured by the current nine dimensions can be improved by the addition of an importance factor to weigh the responses by dimension.

# SUMMARY

This study sought to shed more light on the theoretical relationship, underlying the constructs of Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment. Methodological triangulation was utilized in this dominant--less dominant research design that combined quantitative and qualitative approaches in a single instrumental case study. Multiple methodological sources of evidence including survey, focus groups and open-ended interviews were used.

The findings addressing the research question: does any significant relationship exist between the dimensions of Organizational Climate as defined by McNabb and Sepic (1997) (structure, responsibility, risk, rewards, warmth and support, conflict, organizational identity, approved practices, ethical practices) and the three components of Organizational Commitment as defined by Meyer and Allen (1997) (affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment) were presented in three parts. Correlations between the nine dimensions of Organizational Climate and normative commitment showed fair to good relationships for all dimensions with the exception of responsibility and risk. There are no levels of significance correlation relationships between the nine dimensions of Organizational Climate and continuance commitment based on the survey results. The question, "How important is the climate of your organization to commitment to the organization?" resulted in most focus group members agreeing that climate is important to commitment. Some members observed that this is not universal and, "not all employees see things the same, and different parts of our organization are affected differently." Individuals who were interviewed suggested that when an employee is hired they come with an expected level of commitment. Then

the organization's climate influences their commitment level. Within the bounds of this instrumental case study of an urban nonprofit organization evidence exists that significant relationships exist between Organizational Climate and Organization Commitment.

Two additional themes emerge from this study. There was a lack of agreement and support for continuance commitment in this urban nonprofit service organization. The suggested interactions between the constructs of Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment as they influence employee perceptions of the organization were suggested to differ for new hires based on their previous job experience or lack of experience.

The findings from this study suggest a more extensive molar model than originally proposed by Litwin and Stringer (1968, p.29). Further, this study's findings support Meyer and Allen's contention that Commitment has more than one component. An additional component of Organizational Commitment was suggested by this study and is described by Schein's (1978) Career Anchor Theory.

The study findings support the four common dimensions of Organizational Climate as originally suggested by Cambell, Dunnette, Lawler, and Weick (1970) as: (1) individual autonomy, (2) degree of structure imposed on the position, (3) reward orientation, and (4) consideration, warmth, and support. The concept of attitude commitment (Mowday, et al., 1979) or attitudinal commitment (Brown, 1996) exists when "the identity of the person (is linked) to the organization (Sheldon, 1971, p.143)." "Attitudinal commitment represents a state in which an individual identifies with a particular organization and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in order to facilitate these goals (Mowday, et al., 1979, p.225) is supported by the study findings.

In the way of policy and practice, this study identified several reasons why nonprofit organizations need to pay attention to employee perceptions of Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment.

It was suggested that nonprofit management should provide leadership and be involved in discussions of Organizational Climate dimensions and Organizational Commitment components.

Worker experience establishes expected Organizational Commitment levels, which are later modified by Organizational Climate factors. New workers with no history of work experience are influenced by Organizational Climate factors and then establish a level of Organizational Commitment. Orientation programs and employee development programs should consider the category new hires fall into: first time workers or previously employed workers. The emphasis for each group is suggested by this research to be different. This also suggests the use of periodic surveys and interviews to determine how each category of new hires is evolving their perceptions of the organization.

The indications from this research are that in nonprofit organizations, actions that enhance affective commitment should be taken. Management, if determined as important by survey or focus groups, should also nurture the Organizational Climate dimensional perceptions of ethical practices, rewards, responsibility, warmth and support as well as approved practices among established workers.

Further research is suggested in six areas. Research is recommended to replicate this instrumental case study. Further research is recommended to determine if Organizational Commitment and Organizational Climate measured in service organizations and across nonprofit, for profit, and public organizations are statistically

and perceptually different. Research is recommended to determine if previous work experience colors Organizational Commitment and Organizational Climate perceptions. Research is suggested to determine if Organizational Commitment changes over time in different ways, depending on the new hire's previous work experience or lack thereof. It is also suggested that Organizational Commitment be examined to determine if it is composed of four components including career path or anchor commitment rather than Meyer and Allen's (1997) three components. Finally, research is recommended to determine if Organizational Climate as measured by the current nine dimensions can be improved by the addition of an importance factor to weigh the responses by dimension.

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## Appendix A

**OLD DOMINION UNIVERSITY**

College of Business and Public Administration Graduate School of Business and Public Administration
Norfolk, Virginia 23529-0219
Phone- (757), 683-3520

FAX: (7S7) 683-5639

MEMORANDUM

TO:             William Sawyer Grant

FROM:

October 3, 2000

College of Business and Public Administration Human Subjects Review Committee
Steve Maurer, Management
Joan Mann, Information Systems/Decision Sciences

SUBJECT:     Review of Proposed Research Plan

We have completed our initial review of your proposal under Standards for Human Subjects Research put forth by the state of Virginia. As the proposal stands now, it is not exempt from needing informed consent and may need to be reviewed by the ODU Human Subjects Review Committee

Our concerns center on the use of tapes to record focus group and interview conversations on sensitive issues concerning organizational climate. Taping should not be done without the permission of the subject and so an informed consent document needs to be created (see attached guidelines). Once you have created such a form, you can then give your proposal and the form to us so that we may pass it along.

Might we suggest that you pursue another option by refraining from any taping of the subjects. If you
use only handwritten notes that do not include name identifications then the proposal would be acceptable not needing informed consent and would not need to go up to the University Human Subjects Committee.

Cc: Dr. Wolfgang Pindur

Old Dominion University it; an equal opportunity, affirmative action institution.

Appendix B

Survey Instrument

# SURVEY OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

## © In Part By Research Associates Northwest

**INSTRUCTIONS:** This survey instrument is structured into several different parts. All are designed to enable you to state how you see the climate and commitment of your organization. All personnel are asked exactly the same questions. No one questionnaire will ever be singled out for any purpose. Only the opinions of the entire organization are assessed. To answer each question, simply fill in the space that reflects your response in the spaces on the answer sheet below. Mark only one answer per question. **Thank you for your participation!**

## SECTION 1. [STRUC]

[Record your answers in the space provided]

VERY DEFINITELY DESCRIBES ▽     DOES NOT DESCRIBE ▽

1. The jobs in this organization are clearly defined and logically structured.

$[_7]$   $[_6]$   $[_5]$   $[_4]$   $[_3]$   $[_2]$   $[_1]$

2. In this organization it is sometimes unclear who has the formal authority to make a decision.

$[_1]$   $[_2]$   $[_3]$   $[_4]$   $[_5]$   $[_6]$   $[_7]$

3. The policies and organization structure of the organization have been clearly explained to me.

$[_7]$   $[_6]$   $[_5]$   $[_4]$   $[_3]$   $[_2]$   $[_1]$

4. Red tape is kept to a minimum in this organization.

$[_7]$   $[_6]$   $[_5]$   $[_4]$   $[_3]$   $[_2]$   $[_1]$

5. Excessive rules, administrative details and red tape make it difficult for new and original ideas to receive consideration here.

$[_7]$   $[_6]$   $[_5]$   $[_4]$   $[_3]$   $[_2]$   $[_1]$

6. Our productivity sometimes suffers from lack of organization and planning.

$[_1]$   $[_2]$   $[_3]$   $[_4]$   $[_5]$   $[_6]$   $[_7]$

7. Our management isn't so concerned about formal organization and authority, but concentrates instead on getting the right people together to do the job.

$[_7]$   $[_6]$   $[_5]$   $[_4]$   $[_3]$   $[_2]$   $[_1]$

8. In some of the projects I've worked on, I haven't been sure exactly who my boss was.

$[_1]$   $[_2]$   $[_3]$   $[_4]$   $[_5]$   $[_6]$   $[_7]$

## SECTION 4. [RWRD]

19. We have a promotion system here that helps the best person to rise to the top.

[₇]   [₆]   [₅]   [₄]   [₃]   [₂]   [₁]

20. In this organization the rewards and encouragement you get usually outweigh the threats and criticism.

[₇]   [₆]   [₅]   [₄]   [₃]   [₂]   [₁]

21. You get quite a lot of support and encouragement for trying something new in this organization.

[₇]   [₆]   [₅]   [₄]   [₃]   [₂]   [₁]

22. In this organization people are rewarded in proportion to the excellence of their job performance.

[₇]   [₆]   [₅]   [₄]   [₃]   [₂]   [₁]

23. There is not enough reward and recognition given in this organization for doing good work.

[₇]   [₆]   [₅]   [₄]   [₃]   [₂]   [₁]

24. A person doesn't get the credit he or she deserves for accomplishments in this organization.

[₁]   [₂]   [₃]   [₄]   [₅]   [₆]   [₇]

## SECTION 5. [W&S]

25. You wouldn't get much sympathy from higher-ups in this organization if you make a mistake.

[₁]   [₂]   [₃]   [₄]   [₅]   [₆]   [₇]

26. Mistakes in this organization just aren't tolerated.

[₁]   [₂]   [₃]   [₄]   [₅]   [₆]   [₇]

27. There is a great deal of criticism in this organization.

[₁]   [₂]   [₃]   [₄]   [₅]   [₆]   [₇]

28. A very friendly atmosphere prevails among the people in this organization.

[₇]   [₆]   [₅]   [₄]   [₃]   [₂]   [₁]

29. You wouldn't get much sympathy from higher-ups in this organization if you make a mistake.

[₇]   [₆]   [₅]   [₄]   [₃]   [₂]   [₁]

30. This organization is characterized by a relaxed, easy-going working climate.

[₇]   [₆]   [₅]   [₄]   [₃]   [₂]   [₁]

31. You get quite a lot of support and encouragement for trying something new in this organization.

[ 7] [ 6] [ 5] [ 4] [ 3] [ 2] [ 1]

32. People in this organization tend to be cool and aloof toward each other.

[ 1] [ 2] [ 3] [ 4] [ 5] [ 6] [ 7]

33. The philosophy of our management emphasizes the human factor (how people feel, etc.)

[ 7] [ 6] [ 5] [ 4] [ 3] [ 2] [ 1]

VERY DEFINITELY
DESCRIBES
▽

DOES NOT
DESCRIBE
▽

## SECTION 6. [CONF]

34. A very friendly atmosphere prevails among the people here.

[ 7] [ 6] [ 5] [ 4] [ 3] [ 2] [ 1]

35. The attitude of our management is that conflict between competing units and individuals can be very healthy.

[ 7] [ 6] [ 5] [ 4] [ 3] [ 2] [ 1]

36. There is a good deal of disagreement, even some fighting, between various people in this organization.

[ 1] [ 2] [ 3] [ 4] [ 5] [ 6] [ 7]

37. In this organization cooperation and getting along well are very important.

[ 7] [ 6] [ 5] [ 4] [ 3] [ 2] [ 1]

38. People here are encouraged to speak their own minds, even if it means disagreeing with supervisors.

[ 7] [ 6] [ 5] [ 4] [ 3] [ 2] [ 1]

39. The best way to make a good impression around here is to steer clear of open arguments, disagreements and fights.

[ 1] [ 2] [ 3] [ 4] [ 5] [ 6] [ 7]

## SECTION 7. [ORID]

40. People are proud of belonging to this organization.

[ 7] [ 6] [ 5] [ 4] [ 3] [ 2] [ 1]

41. In this organization people pretty much look out for their own interest above other considerations.

[ 1] [ 2] [ 3] [ 4] [ 5] [ 6] [ 7]

42. There is a feeling of belonging to a team here.

[ 7] [ 6] [ 5] [ 4] [ 3] [ 2] [ 1]

43. I feel good about telling people where I work. [₇] [₆] [₅] [₄] [₃] [₂] [₁]

44. We have trouble keeping good people. [₁] [₂] [₃] [₄] [₅] [₆] [₇]

45. I would encourage anyone to work for this organization. [₇] [₆] [₅] [₄] [₃] [₂] [₁]

## SECTION 8. [APRAC]

### in the space provided]

[Record your answers

| | VERY DEFINITELY DESCRIBES | | | | | DOES NOT DESCRIBE | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|

46. People here show routine or unimaginative thinking. [₁] [₂] [₃] [₄]   [₆] [₇]

47. People here avoid responsibility. [₁] [₂] [₃] [₄] [₅] [₆] [₇]

48. Management here rewards workers who come up with excellent ideas for making improvements or solving problems. [₇] [₆] [₅] [₄] [₃] [₂] [₁]

49. People here are not punished for making risky decisions that turn out to be wrong. [₇] [₆] [₅] [₄] [₃] [₂] [₁]

50. Achieving the goals of your unit by taking advantage of others in the section is common here. [₁] [₂] [₃] [₄] [₅] [₆] [₇]

51. Keeping costs down to the minimum and striving to reduce all expenses is the primary objective of management here. [₁] [₂] [₃] [₄] [₅] [₆] [₇]

52. Our managers encourage workers to come up with new ideas or recommendations for changes. [₇] [₆] [₅] [₄] [₃] [₂] [₁]

53. Failing to follow through on a commitment is typical behavior here. [₇] [₆] [₅] [₄] [₃] [₂] [₁]

54. Having an inquisitive mind and constantly questioning the how and why of things describes the people working here. [₇] [₆] [₅] [₄] [₃] [₂] [₁]

## SECTION 9. [ETH]

55. Everyone who works here knows about and fully understands the organization's code of ethical conduct.

[ 7 ]  [ 6 ]  [ 5 ]  [ 4 ]  [ 3 ]  [ 2 ]  [ 1 ]

56. Top management is sincerely committed to upholding the organization's code of ethical conduct.

[ 7 ]  [ 6 ]  [ 5 ]  [ 4 ]  [ 3 ]  [ 2 ]  [ 1 ]

57. People working here are expected to follow their own ethical beliefs.

[ 1 ]  [ 2 ]  [ 3 ]  [ 4 ]  [ 5 ]  [ 6 ]  [ 7 ]

58. Our code of ethical conduct effectively tells how to handle just about every situation encountered on the job.

[ 7 ]  [ 6 ]  [ 5 ]  [ 4 ]  [ 3 ]  [ 2 ]  [ 1 ]

59. It is very important here to follow strictly the organization's rules and procedures.

[ 7 ]  [ 6 ]  [ 5 ]  [ 4 ]  [ 3 ]  [ 2 ]  [ 1 ]

60. People working here are expected to do whatever it takes to further the organization's best interests.

[ 1 ]  [ 2 ]  [ 3 ]  [ 4 ]  [ 5 ]  [ 6 ]  [ 7 ]

61. Our professional ethics code is upheld in all decisions.

[ 7 ]  [ 6 ]  [ 5 ]  [ 4 ]  [ 3 ]  [ 2 ]  [ 1 ]

62. It is all right for people who work for the public to accept small gifts as tokens of gratitude for a job well done.

[ 7 ]  [ 6 ]  [ 5 ]  [ 4 ]  [ 3 ]  [ 2 ]  [ 1 ]

63. Sometimes even when rules are clear, it

is best to do what you know is right

(follow your conscience).

[ 7 ]  [ 6 ]  [ 5 ]  [ 4 ]  [ 3 ]  [ 2 ]  [ 1 ]

64. When faced with making a decision, the first consideration should be whether it violates any law.

[ 7 ]  [ 6 ]  [ 5 ]  [ 4 ]  [ 3 ]  [ 2 ]  [ 1 ]

## SECTION 10. [Comm]

in the space provided]

[Record your answers

Strongly Agree
∇

Strongly Disagree
∇

65. This organization has a great deal of
   personal meaning for me.    [₇]   [₆]   [₅]   [₄]   [₃]   [₂]   [₁]

66. I would be very happy to spend the rest
   of my career in this organization.    [₇]   [₆]   [₅]   [₄]   [₃]   [₂]   [₁]

67. I do not feel like "part of the family" at
   my organization.    [₁]   [₂]   [₃]   [₄]   [₅]   [₆]   [₇]

68. I really feel as if this organization's
   problems are my own.    [₇]   [₆]   [₅]   [₄]   [₃]   [₂]   [₁]

69. One of the few negative
   consequences of leaving this    [₇]   [₆]   [₅]   [₄]   [₃]   [₂]   [₁]
   organization would be the scarcity
   of available alternatives.

70. I would feel guilty if I left my
   organization now.    [₁]   [₂]   [₃]   [₄]   [₅]   [₆]   [₇]

71. Even if it were to my advantage; I do not
   feel it would be right to leave my    [₇]   [₆]   [₅]   [₄]   [₃]   [₂]   [₁]
   organization now.

72. I do not feel any obligation to remain
   with my current employer.    [₁]   [₂]   [₃]   [₄]   [₅]   [₆]   [₇]

73. It would be very hard for me to leave my
   organization right now, even if I wanted    [₇]   [₆]   [₅]   [₄]   [₃]   [₂]   [₁]
   to.

74. Right now, staying with my organization
   is a matter of necessity as much as desire.    [₇]   [₆]   [₅]   [₄]   [₃]   [₂]   [₁]

75. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to
   this organization.    [₁]   [₂]   [₃]   [₄]   [₅]   [₆]   [₇]

76. Too much of my life would be disrupted
   if I decided I wanted to leave my    [₇]   [₆]   [₅]   [₄]   [₃]   [₂]   [₁]
   organization right now.

77. I would not leave my organization right
   row because I have a sense of obligation    [₇]   [₆]   [₅]   [₄]   [₃]   [₂]   [₁]
   to the people in it.

78. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging
   to my organization.    [₁]   [₂]   [₃]   [₄]   [₅]   [₆]   [₇]

79. I owe a great deal to my organization.

   [₇]   [₆]   [₅]   [₄]   [₃]   [₂]   [₁]

80. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.

[₇] [₆] [₅] [₄] [₃] [₂] [₁]

81. This organization deserves my loyalty.

[₇] [₆] [₅] [₄] [₃] [₂] [₁]

82. I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.

[₇] [₆] [₅] [₄] [₃] [₂] [₁]


## SECTION 11. [Spec]

**answers in the space provided]**

[Record your

| Strongly Agree ∇ | | | | | | Strongly Disagree ∇ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|

83. I understand the complaint and grievance procedure.

[₇] [₆] [₅] [₄] [₃] [₂] [₁]

84. The organization pays a reasonable wage in compensation for the employees work.

[₇] [₆] [₅] [₄] [₃] [₂] [₁]

85. In this organization it is understood that the consumer comes first.

[₇] [₆] [₅] [₄] [₃] [₂] [₁]

86. This organization looks for feedback from employees and uses it to make changes.

[₇] [₆] [₅] [₄] [₃] [₂] [₁]

87. The organization offers a competitive benefits package.

[₇] [₆] [₅] [₄] [₃] [₂] [₁]

88. The atmosphere in this organization is relaxed.

[₇] [₆] [₅] [₄] [₃] [₂] [₁]

89. In this organization people take pride in accomplishment and their physical environment.

[₇] [₆] [₅] [₄] [₃] [₂] [₁]

## ABOUT YOU

**(For statistical purposes only—your responses will NOT be used to identify you to anyone in your organization)**

**[Record your answers in the space provided]**

90. Your gender:

| Male | Female |
|------|--------|
| [ $_1$ ] | [ $_2$ ] |

91. Years with this organization:

| Less than 6 months | 6months – 1year | 1-5 | 6-10 | 11+ |
|------|--------|-----|------|-----|
| [ $_5$ ] | [ $_4$ ] | [ $_3$ ] | [ $_2$ ] | [ $_1$ ] |

**THE END, THANK YOU.**

Appendix C
Key sheet linking Commitment scale questions to random listing of the 18 questions on the dissertation survey instrument.

| Scale code # | Instrument question # |
|---|---|
| A1 | 66 |
| A2 | 68 |
| A3 | 67 |
| A4 | 75 |
| A5 | 65 |
| A6 | 78 |
| C1 | 73 |
| C2 | 76 |
| C3 | 74 |
| C4 | 82 |
| C5 | 69 |
| C6 | 80 |
| N1 | 72 |
| N2 | 71 |
| N3 | 70 |
| N4 | 81 |
| N5 | 77 |
| N6 | 79 |

**Affective Commitment Scale Items**

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.

2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
3. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)

4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)

5. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

6. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (R)

**Continuance Commitment Scale Items**

1. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
2. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization right now.

3. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.

4. I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.

5. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

6. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.

## *Nonnative Commitment Scale items*

1. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (R)

2. Even if it were to my advantage; I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.

3. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.

4. This organization deserves my loyalty.

5. I would not leave my organization right row because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.

6. I owe a great deal to my organization.

Note: **Responses to each item are made on a 7-point scale with anchors labeled (1) strongly disagree and (7) strongly agree. R indicates a reverse-keyed item (scoring is reversed). Items are mixed.**

Appendix D

Instructions :Informing Respondents

1. I am Bill Grant a graduate student at Old Dominion University.

2. This survey is part of research I am conducting as part of my dissertation requirements for a Ph.D.

3. The purpose of the survey is to determine your perceptions of organizational climate and organizational commitment. This is part of an effort to increase general knowledge in this area. The research problem I am addressing is "What is the relationship between organizational climate and organizational commitment."

4. Your answers will be protected with respect to confidentiality. No individual survey will be viewed by any member of your organization's management. No data will be identified by a small enough unit to allow identification of an individual's answers.

5. You cooperation in completing this survey is voluntary and no negative actions will result if you decide not to participate. However, I believe this research is important and your perceptions are important and I ask you to participate.

6. You may skip any questions that you do not want to answer (Fowler, 1993, p. 132).

7. Do you have any questions?

Appendix E

Focus Group Template

Focus Group # _____ Date: _____

1. Tell us your name and where you work.

2. How important is the climate of your organization to an individual's commitment to the organization?

3. **In this organization are there formal or informal discussions about organizational climate factors or employee's commitment?**

4. **Given the discussion we have just had how do you feel about the following statement?** "People with high levels of commitment view the climate of our organization more favorably then people with low levels of commitment."

In the survey we asked questions about three types of commitment (handout definitions).
5. **What do you think about the differences between them?**

6. Did any of them seem more important to you than others?

7. **What other kinds of commitment exists in your organization?**

**In the survey we listed 9 factors as part of climate (provide participants a list).**
8. Did some of these factors seem more important to you than others?

9. What other factors would you consider in defining your organization's climate.

Key Questions

10. **How do you feel about the following statement?** People continue to work here because they need the work.

11. **How do you feel about the following statement?** People continue to work here because they feel involved with the organization and emotionally attached to their work.

12. How do you feel about the following statement? **People continue to work here because they feel they ought to be doing this work.**

13. **How do you feel about the importance of your work compared to the income you receive from doing the work?**

14. **What do you think about the statement?** Employees who identify with the organization, their fellow workers, and with the underlying mission and philosophy of the organization are more committed to the organization.

ENDING

Lets summarize the key points of our discussion (moderator/researcher gives a brief summary of responses to key research questions).

15. **Does this summary sound complete? Do you have any changes or additions?**

After another review of the purpose of the study the question asked will be:

16. **Have we left anything out? Do you have any advice to give me?**

Appendix F

Interview Protocol

Organizational Climate and Organizational Commitment Study

Interview# _____ Date _____
Opening Statements:
Research Questions to be asked
1. Tell us your name and where you work.

2. How important is the climate of your organization to an individual's

commitment to the organization?

**3. In this organization are there formal or informal discussions about organizational climate factors or employee's commitment?**
**4. Given the discussion we have just had how do you feel about the following statement?** "People with high levels of commitment view the climate of our organization more favorably then people with low levels of commitment."
In the survey we asked questions about three types of commitment (handout definitions). **5. What do you think about the differences between them?**
6. Did any of them seem more important to you than others?

**7. What other kinds of commitment exists in your organization?**
**In the survey we listed 9 factors as part of climate (provide**

**participants a list). 8.** Did some of these factors seem more important to

you than others?

9. What other factors would you consider in defining your organization's

climate.

Key Questions

**10. How do you feel about the following statement?** People continue to work here because they need the work.
**11. How do you feel about the following statement?** People continue to work here because they feel involved with the organization and emotionally attached to their work.

12. How do you feel about the following statement? **People continue to**

**work here because they feel they ought to be doing this work.**

**13. How do you feel about the importance of your work compared to the income you receive from doing the work?**
**14. What do you think about the statement?** Employees who identify with the organization, their fellow workers, and with the underlying mission and philosophy of the organization are more committed to the organization.

ENDING

Let's summarize the key points of our discussion (moderator/researcher gives a brief summary of responses to key research questions). **15. Does this summary sound complete? Do you have any changes or additions?**
After another review of the purpose of the study the question asked will be: **16. Have we left anything out? Do you have any advice to give me?**
Transition message _____

Comments _____

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Reflective Notes _____

Appendix G Scatter Grams of the Dimensions of Organizational Climate and the components of Organizational Commitment.

Source Survey Data: Scatter Graph Structure Dimension vs. Affective Commitment

# Structure Dimension of Organizational Climate
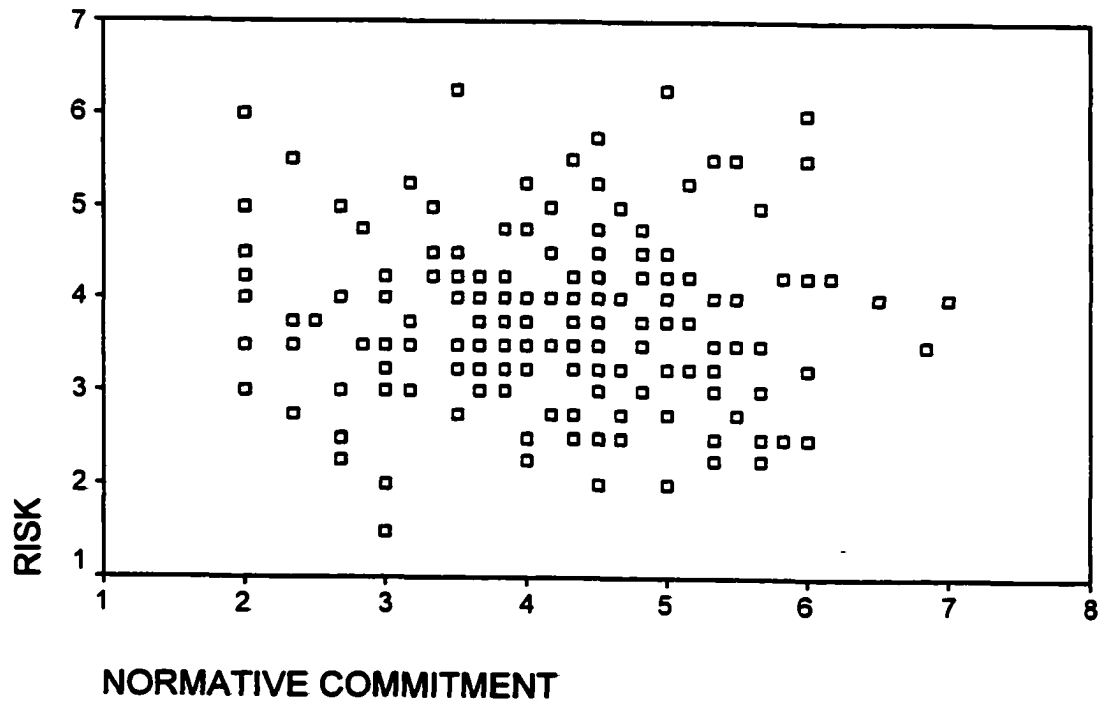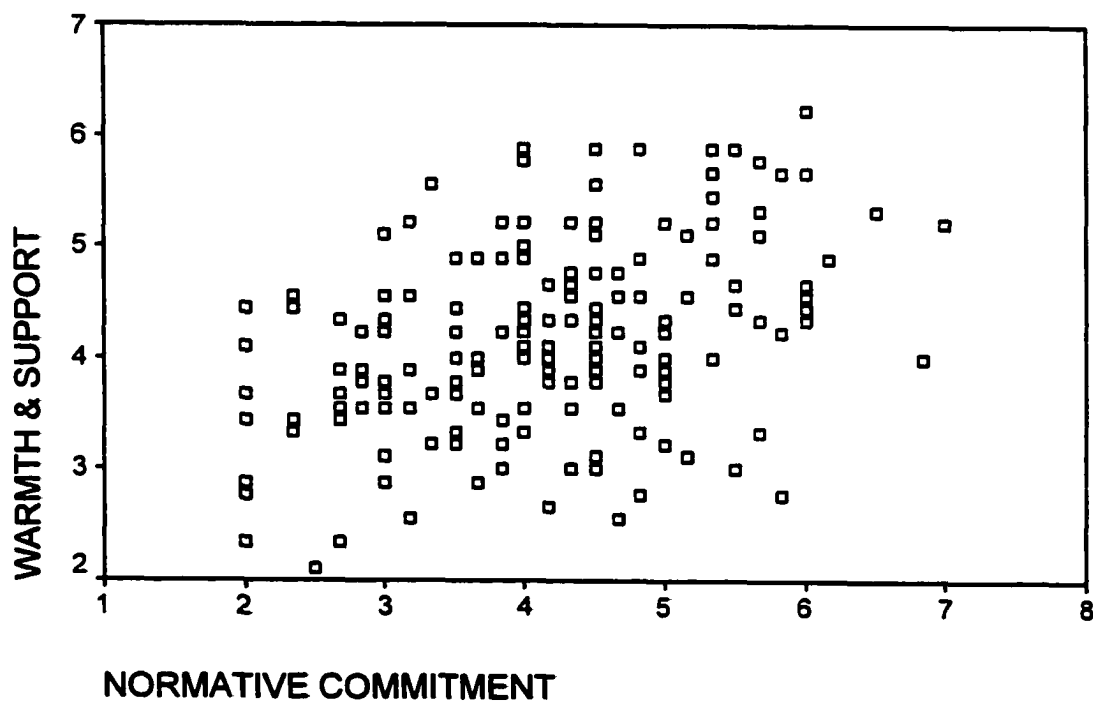
# VS Affective Commitment



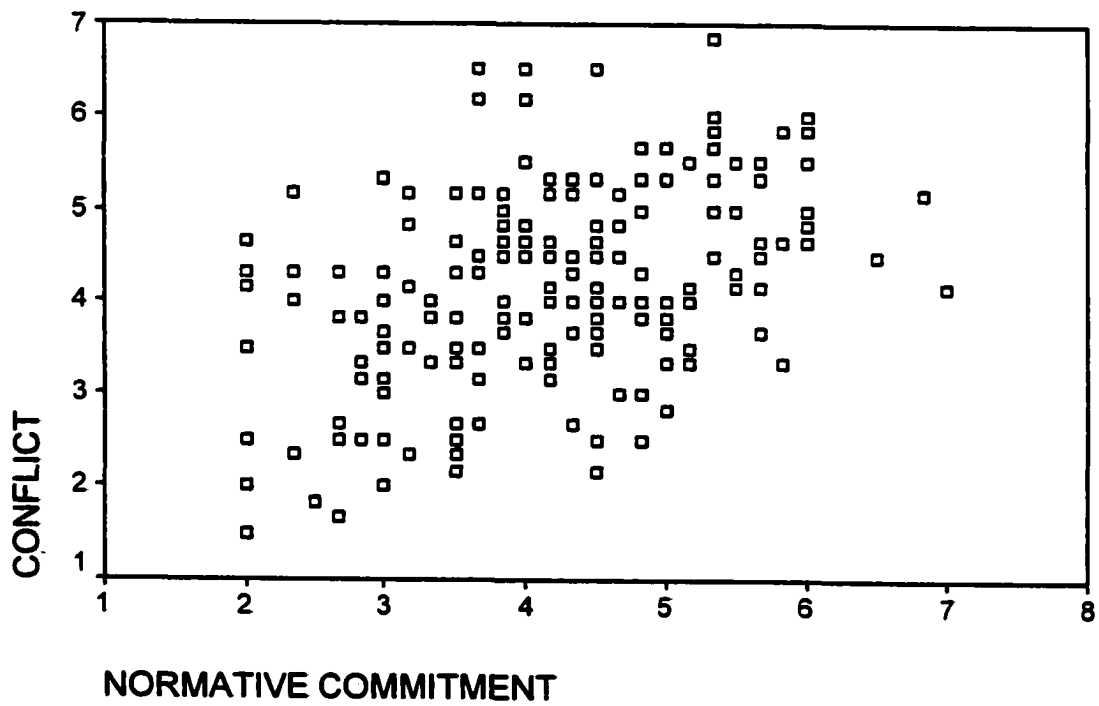AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT
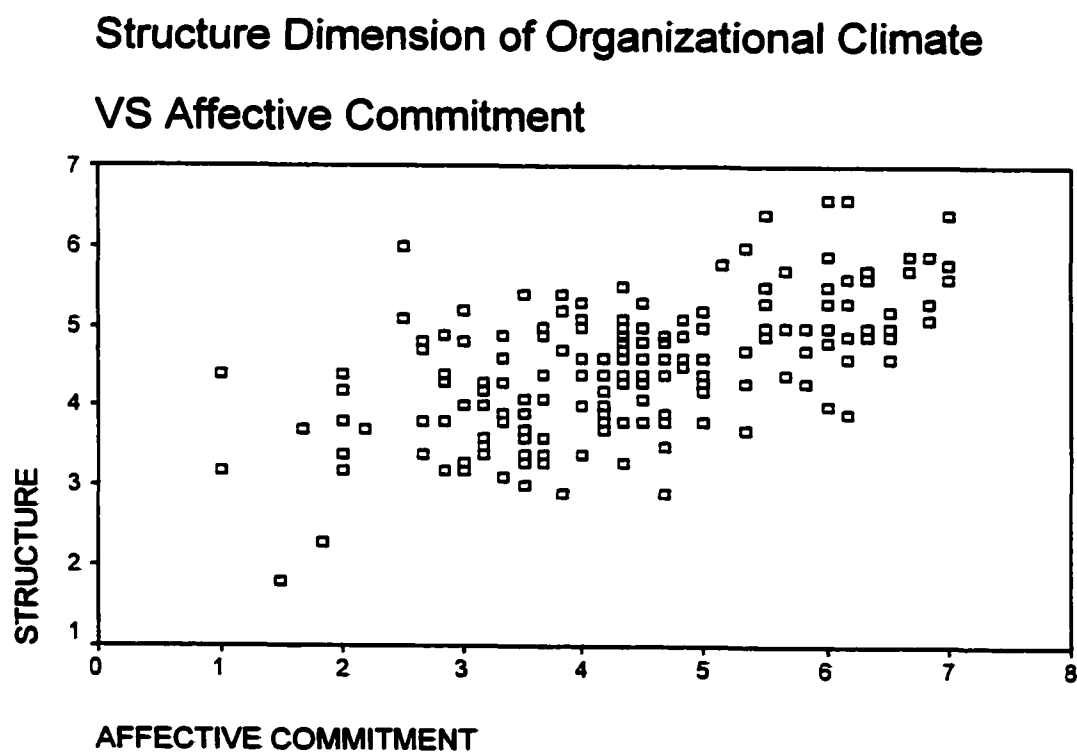
Source Survey Data: Responsibility Dimension of Organizational Climate vs. Affective
Commitment

# Responsibility Dimension of Organizational Climate

## VS Affective Commitment

# Risk Dimension of Organizational Climate VS Affective Commitment



**RISK** (y-axis)

**AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT** (x-axis)

Source Survey Data: Scatter Graph Rewards Dimension vs. Affective Commitment

# Rewards Dimension of Organizational Climate

# VS Affective Commitment

Source Survey Data: Scatter Graph Warmth and Support Dimension vs. Affective Commitment

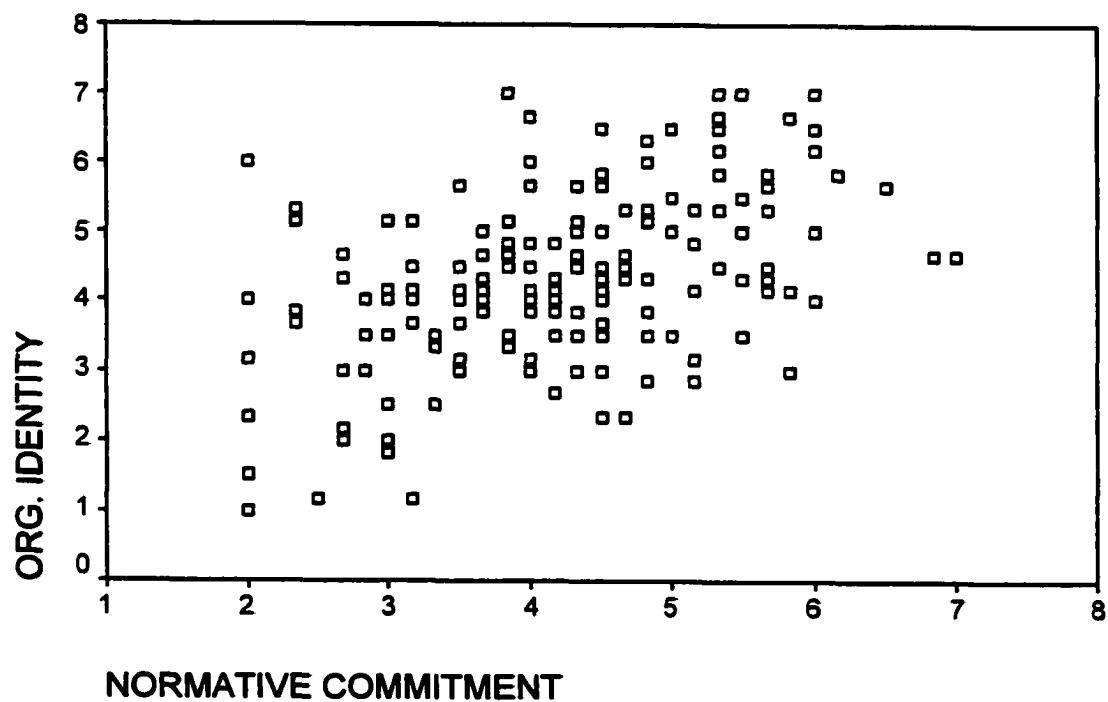# Warmth and Support Dimension of Organizational Climate VS Affective Commitment

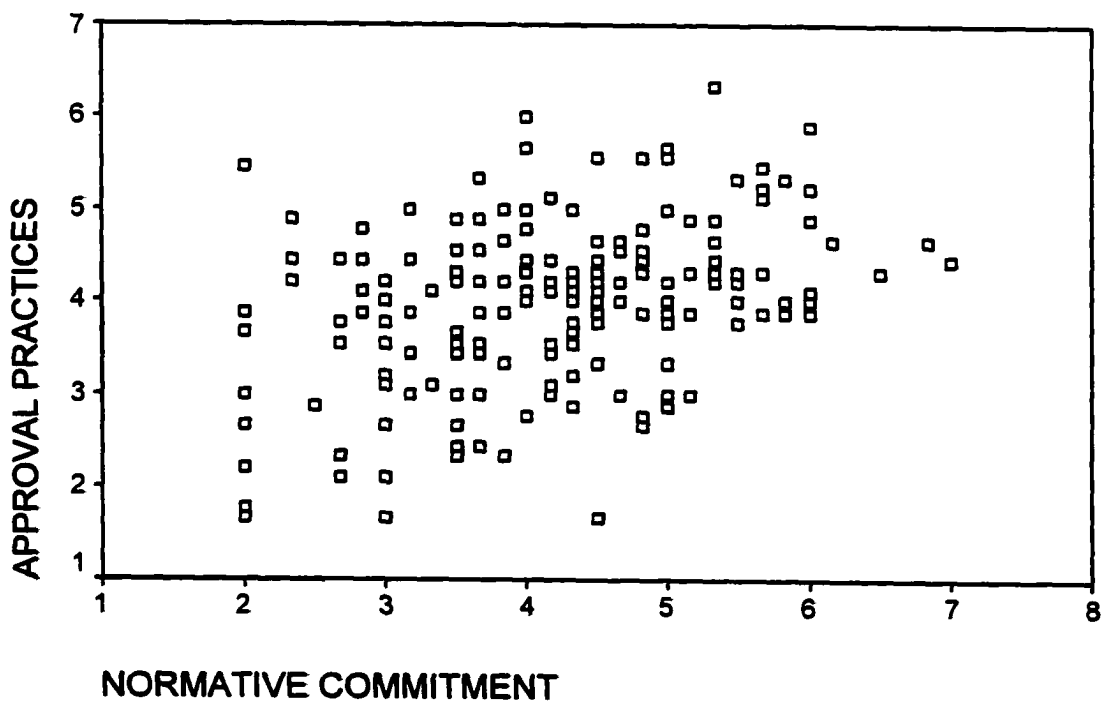## Conflict Dimension of Organizational Climate VS Affective Commitment

Source Survey Data: Scatter Graph Organizational Identity Dimension vs. Affective Commitment

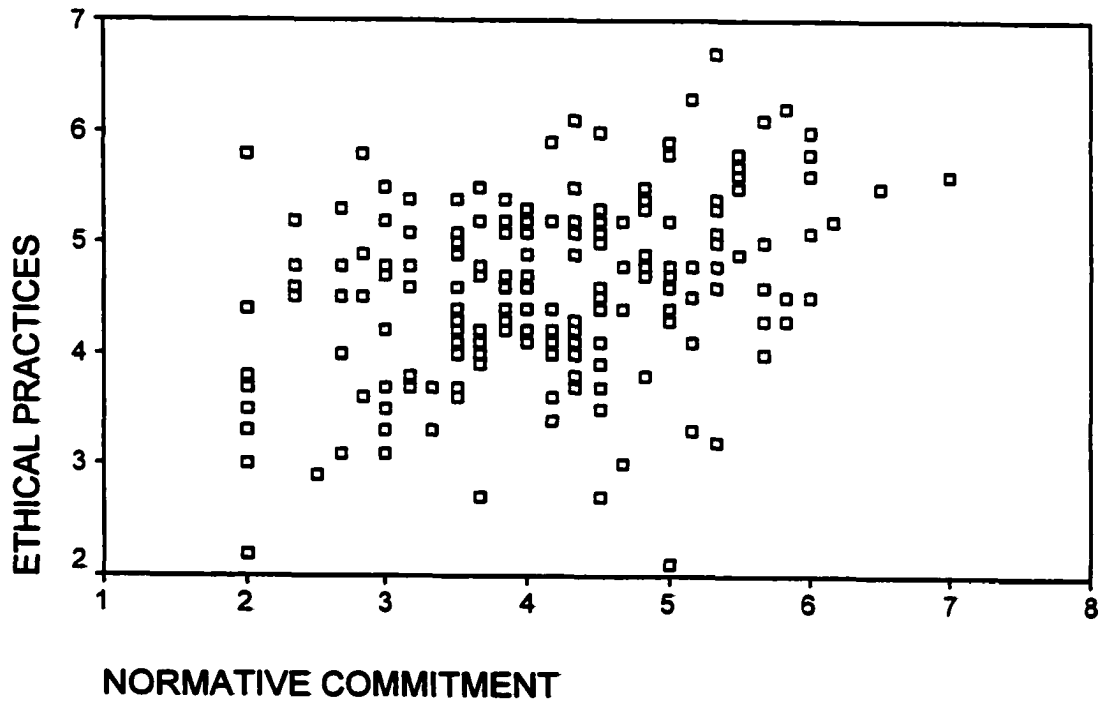## Org. Identity Dimension of Organizational Climate VS Affective Commitment



AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT

Source Survey Data: Scatter Graph Approved Practices Dimension vs. Affective
Commitment

## App. Practices Dimension of Organizational
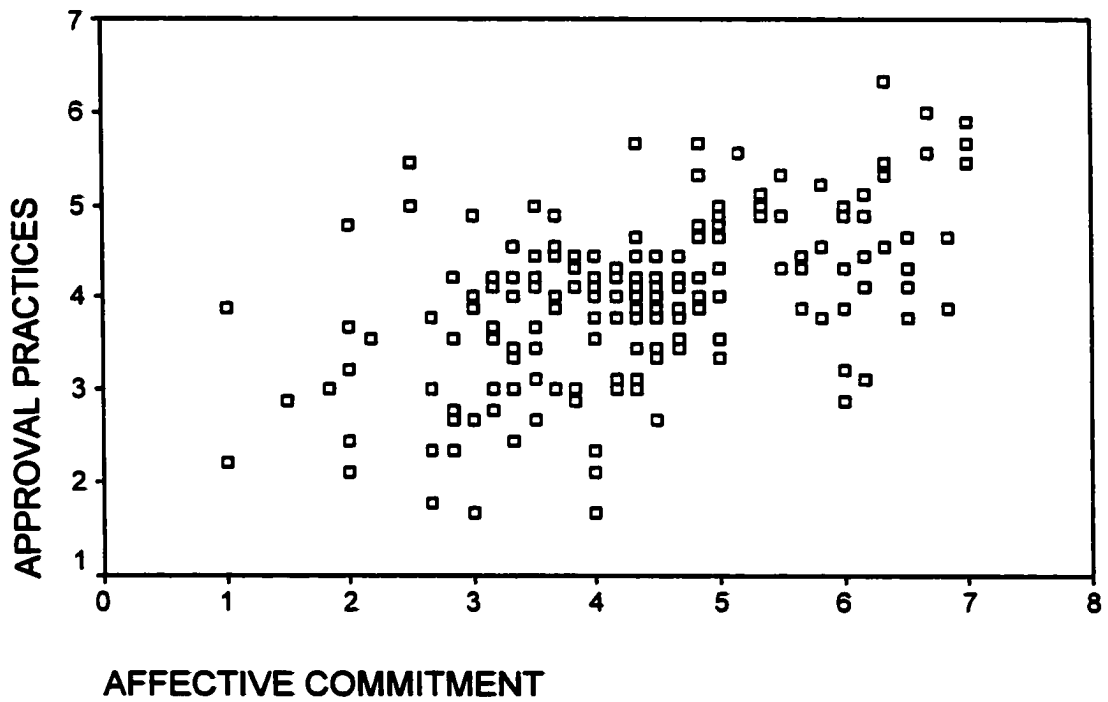
## Climate VS Affective Commitment



AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT

## Structural Dimension of Organizational
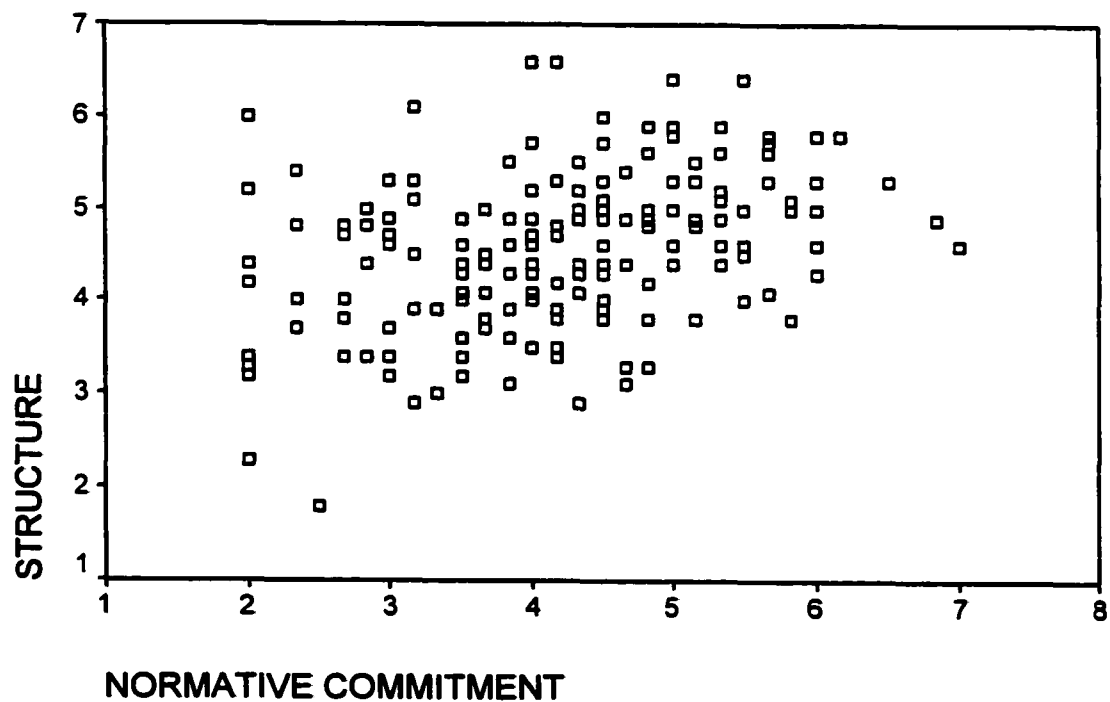
## Climate VS Normative Commitment



NORMATIVE COMMITMENT

Source Survey Data: Scatter Graph Responsibility Dimension vs. Normative Commitment

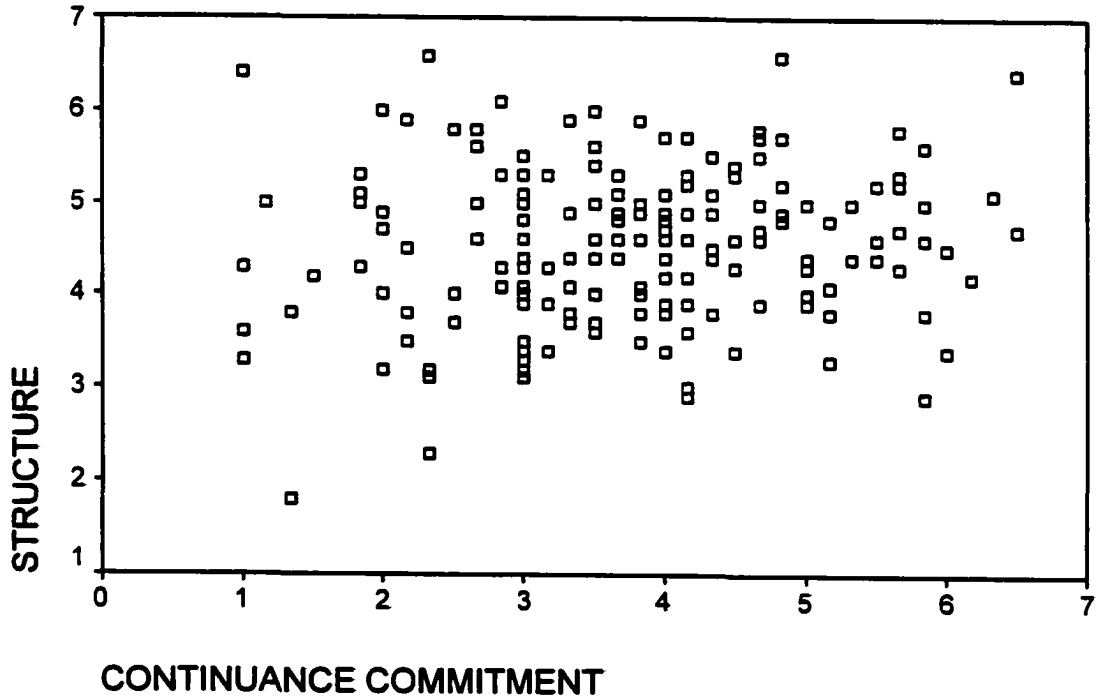# Responsibility Dimension of Organizational Climate VS Normative Commitment



NORMATIVE COMMITMENT
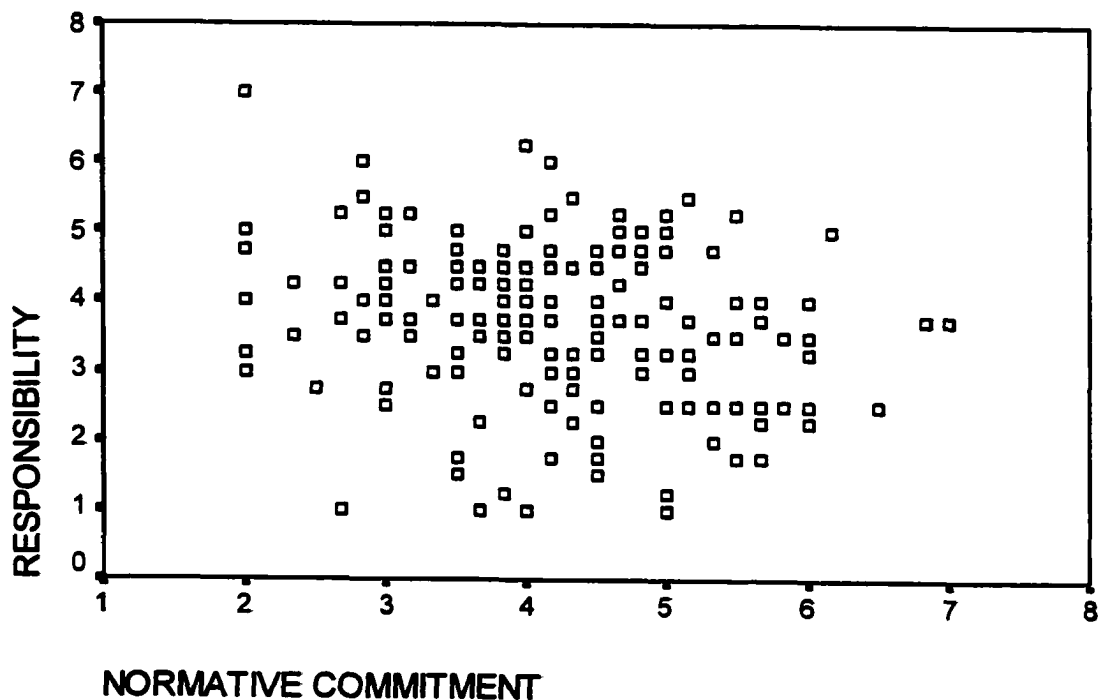
Source Survey Data: Scatter Graph Risk Dimension vs. Normative Commitment

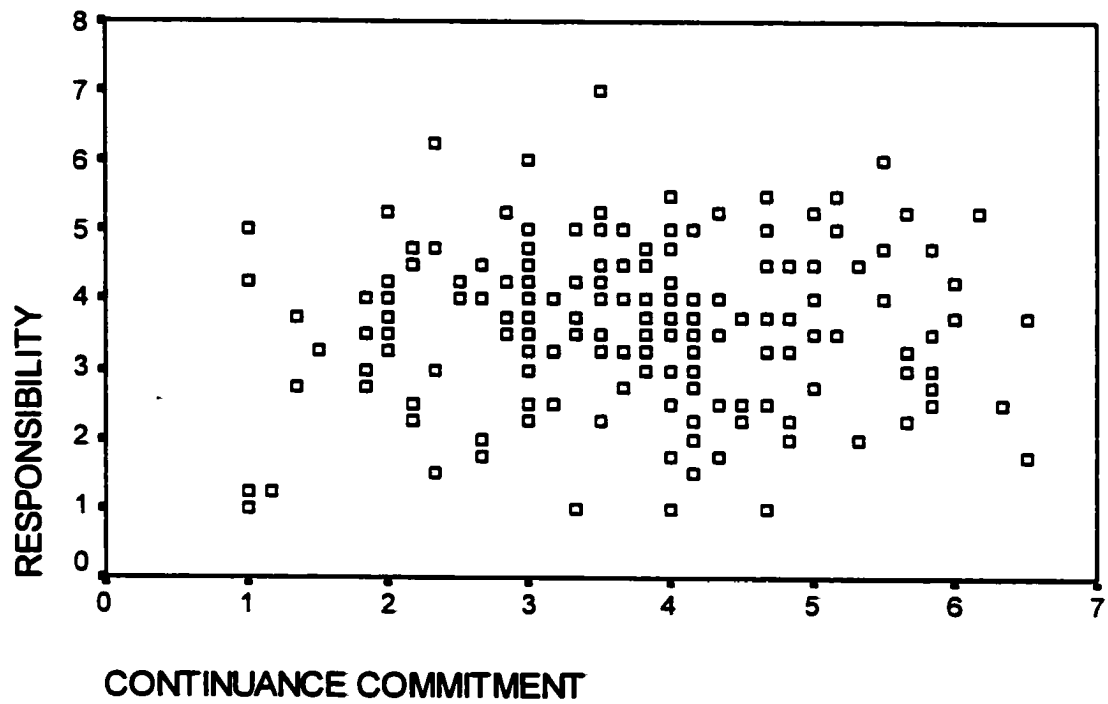# Risk Dimension of Organizational

# Climate VS Normative Commitment



NORMATIVE COMMITMENT

Source Survey Data: Scatter Graph Warmth and Support Dimension vs. Affective
Commitment

## Warmth and Support Dimension of Organizational

## Climate VS Affective Commitment

Source Survey Data: Scatter Graph Warmth and Support Dimension vs. Normative Commitment

# Warm & Support Dimension of Organizational Climate VS Normative Commitment

## Conflict Dimension of Organizational

## Climate VS Normative Commitment



CONFLICT

NORMATIVE COMMITMENT

Source Survey Data: Scatter Graph Organizational Identity Dimension vs. Normative Commitment

## Org. Identity Dimension of Organizational Climate VS Normative Commitment

Source Survey Data: Scatter Graph Approved Practices Dimension vs. Normative
Commitment

# Approval Prac. Dimension of Organizational

# Climate VS Normative Commitment



NORMATIVE COMMITMENT

Source Survey Data: Scatter Graph Ethical Practices Dimension vs. Normative
Commitment

## Ethical Prac. Dimension of Organizational

## Climate VS Normative Commitment

NORMATIVE COMMITMENT

Source Survey Data: Scatter Graph Structure Dimension vs. Continuance Commitment



Structure Dimension of Organizational Climate VS Continuance Commitment

Source Survey Data: Scatter Graph Responsibility Dimension vs. Continuance Commitment

## Responsibility Dimension of Organizational Climate VS Continuance Commitment

Source Survey Data: Scatter Graph Risk Dimension vs. Continuance Commitment



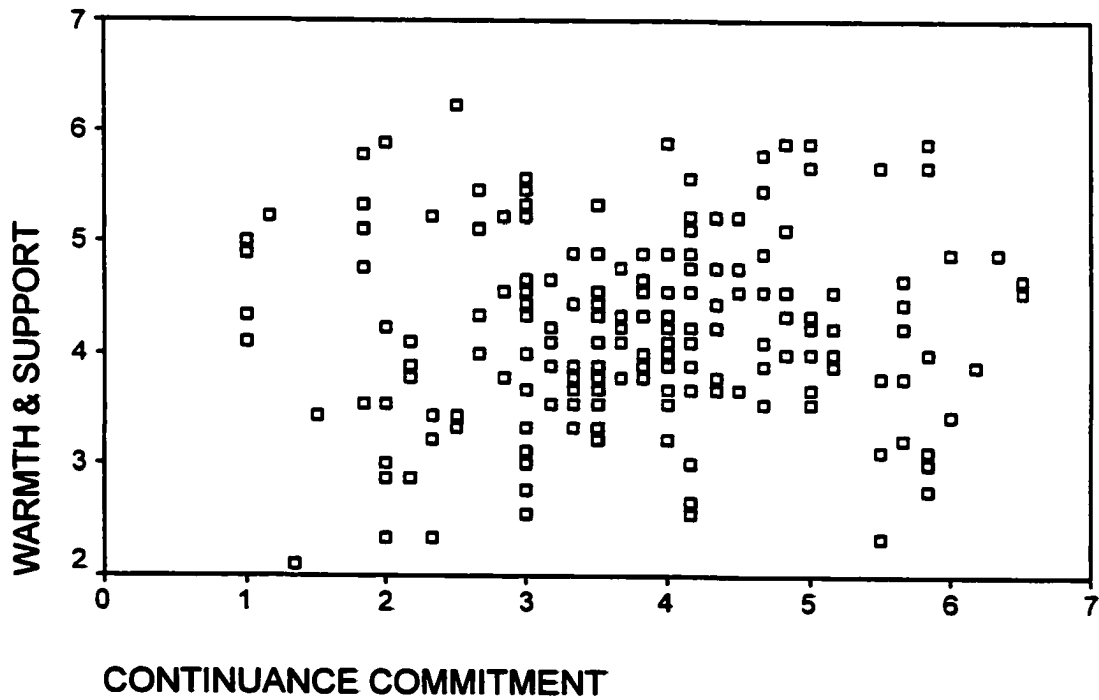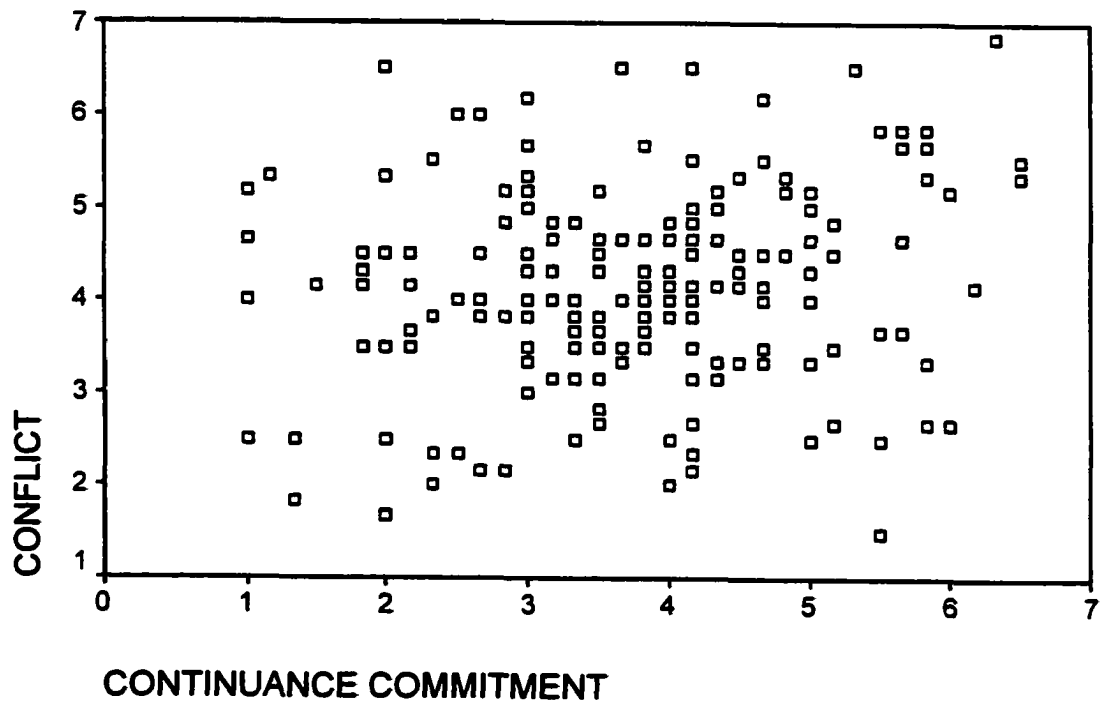Risk Dimension of Organizational Climate VS Continuance Commitment
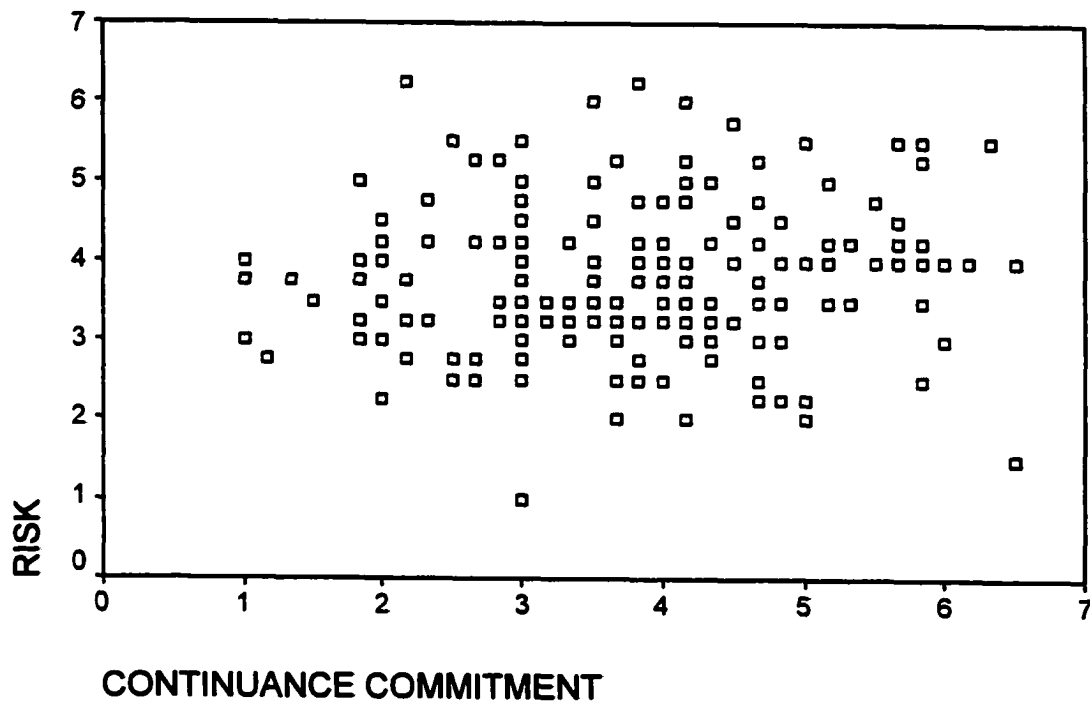
Source Survey Data: Scatter Graph Rewards Dimension vs. Continuance Commitment

## Rewards Dimension of Organizational

## Climate VS Continuance Commitment



CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT
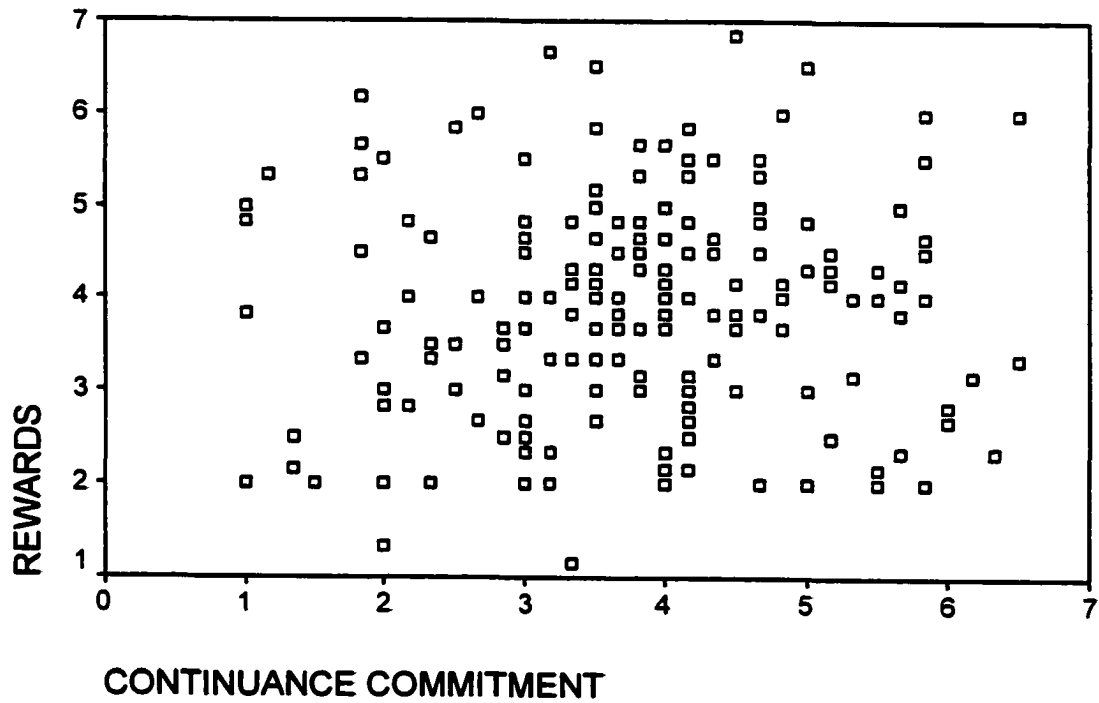
Source Survey Data: Scatter Graph Warmth and Support Dimension vs. Continuance Commitment

# Warm & Support Dimension of Organizational Climate VS Continuance Commitment
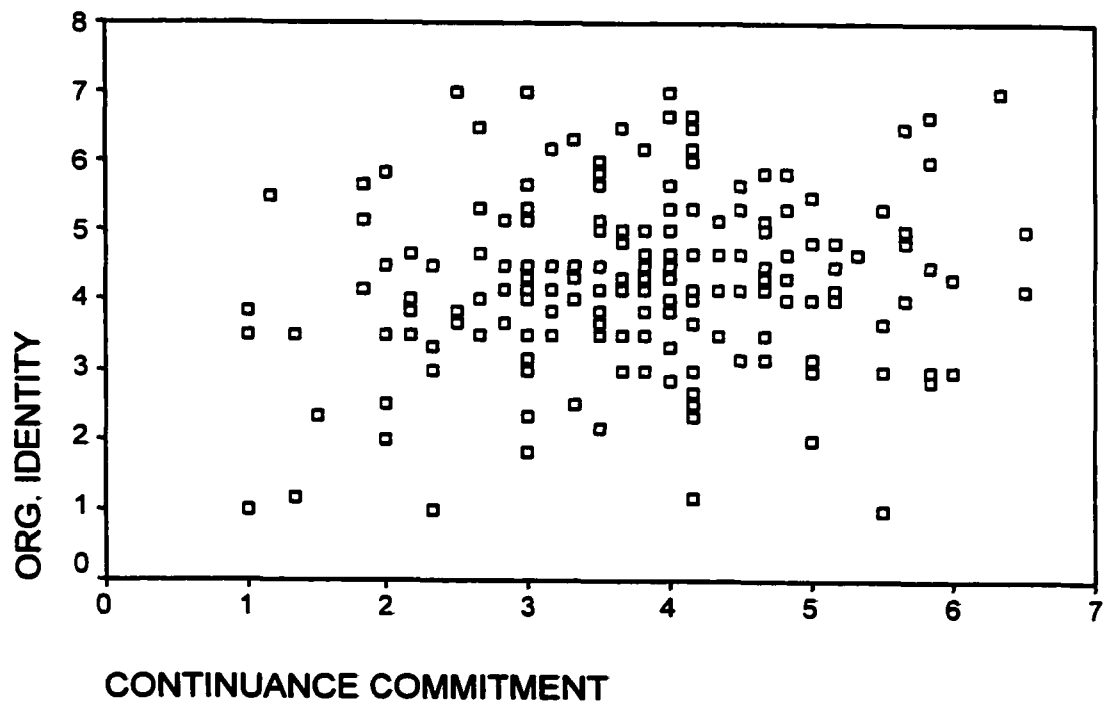
Source Survey Data: Scatter Graph Conflict Dimension vs. Continuance Commitment

## Conflict Dimension of Organizational

## Climate VS Continuance Commitment
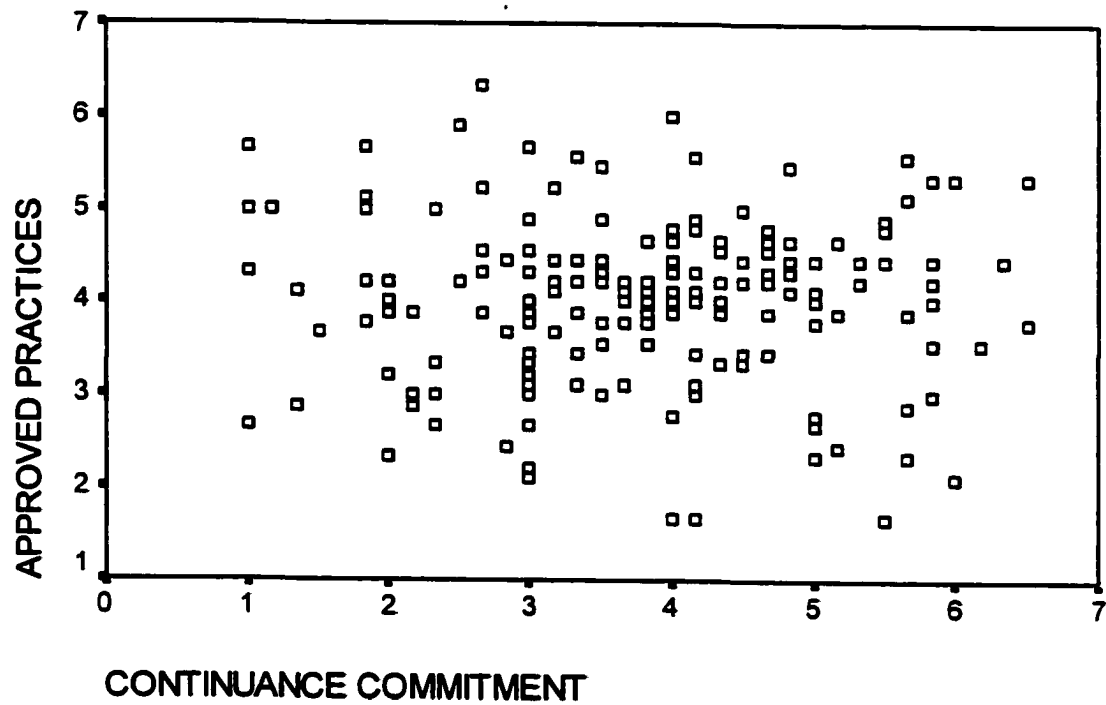


CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT

Source Survey Data: Scatter Graph Organizational Identity Dimension vs. Continuance
Commitment

## Org Identity Dimension of Organizational
## Climate VS Continuance Commitment



CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT

Source Survey Data: Scatter Graph Approved Practices Dimension vs. Continuance
Commitment

## Approved Prac. Dimension of Organizational
## Climate VS Continuance Commitment



CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT

Source Survey Data: Scatter Graph Ethical Practices Dimension vs. Continuance
Commitment

## Ethical Pra. Dimension of Organizational

## Climate VS Continuance Commitment
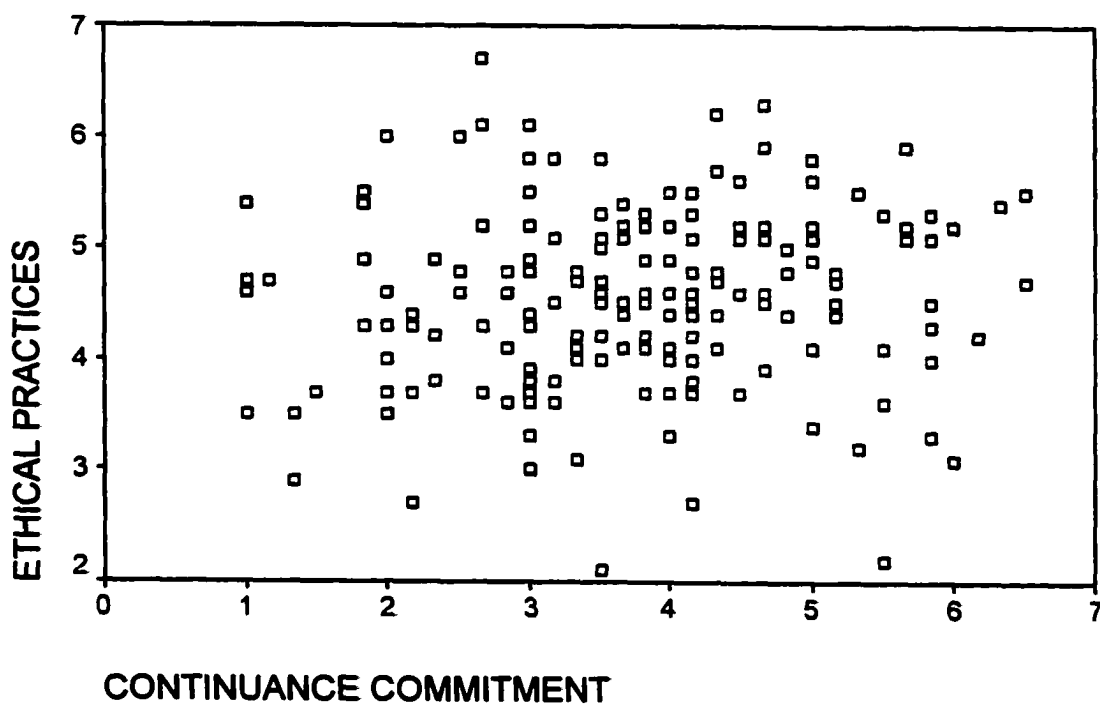
## VITA

William Sawyer Grant holds a B.S. in Industrial Engineering from Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University at Blacksburg Virginia (May, 1969). Additionally, he was awarded a M.A. in Public Administration from Troy State University, University College, at Norfolk, Virginia (May, 1996), and a M.A. in Urban Services (December, 1999) from Old Dominion University at Norfolk, Virginia. He is a member of Phi Delta Epsilon (Honorary Journalism Fraternity), Phi Alpha Alpha (Honorary Public Administration Fraternity), and was recognized as the 1999 Management Track Student of the Year in Urban Services. William was awarded a Ph.D. in Urban Services from Old Dominion University in December 2002.

Dr. Grant is an Industrial Engineer specializing in strategic planning and organizational analysis for the Navy Public Works Center Norfolk Virginia. William is a graduate of the NAVFAC Leadership Development Program.

Dr. Grant completed the 1999 Class of the Leadership Hampton Roads Program. He holds the Silver Beaver Award from the Tidewater Council, Boy Scouts of America and is a graduate of the Wood Badge adult leader education program. Additionally, he has been awarded the God and Service Recognition, the Torch Award, and the Cross and Flame Award from the United Methodist Church for service to youth. Dr. Grant is an Eagle Scout.

Dr. Grant's publications include:

- Research for Public Administration: Who uses What?, (2000), by W.S. Grant & G. Johnson, Ph.D., presented at the 23$^{rd}$ Public Administration Teaching Conference at Florida Atlantic University.

- Public Works Organizations On The Edge of The 21$^{st}$ Century, (1998), by W.S. Grant, Presented at the American Society For Engineering Management National Conference at Virginia Beach, Virginia.

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