CORPORATE CULTURE: AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE OPERATIONALISATION OF THE CONCEPT AND INTO DIVERGENCES BETWEEN MANAGEMENT AND STAFF

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Abstract

Studies on corporate culture are mostly limited to samples drawn from management, and the integrative view of corporate culture as something unique within an organisation still dominates in the literature. Such a unitary stance bears the risk that cultural divergences in corporations remain undetected, thereby limiting the value of research on corporate culture. A further aspect found in the literature is the complexity and variety ascribed to corporate culture, which exacerbates practical implementation of the concept. The operationalisation of the cultural concept is still a prevalent problem not yet completely resolved. This research addresses these two concerns.

The researcher conducted this research at Post CH Ltd. The study incorporated the design and implementation of a tailored survey, based on cultural dimensions from the literature, items from Swiss Post's employee survey, and data from semi-structured qualitative interviews with members of top management. The survey involved employees of Post CH Ltd from all hierarchical levels, selected by proportionate stratified random sampling. The two thirds of the questionnaire recipients who responded could also comment on an optional open question. The researcher then analysed the qualitative and quantitative data in order to discover the degree of alignment on corporate culture. Finally, recommendations were elaborated on how to mitigate the explored divergences between management and employees.

This research provides contributions in two distinct areas: first, it demonstrates that the perception of a unitary corporate culture is not always tenable. The researcher found distinctive and statistically significant divergences in corporate culture, as staff in line management positions are considerably more positive in their perception of corporate culture compared to employees without management responsibilities. Using content

i

analysis, the researcher further discovered divergences in the perception of corporate culture between top management and employees. Second, it demonstrated the successful operationalisation of corporate culture research into practical application, by offering a thorough, concrete, specific, and tailored approach, contributing to a more practitioner friendly usage of the concept of corporate culture. The methods used here can be applied to other organisations in a similar way.

Author's declaration

I declare that the work in this thesis was carried out in accordance with the regulations of the University of Gloucestershire and is original except where indicated by specific reference in the text. No part of the thesis has been submitted as part of any other academic award. The thesis has not been presented to any other education institution in the United Kingdom or overseas.

Any views expressed in the thesis are those of the author and in no way represent those of the University.

Signed …………………………………….. Date ……………………………….

Contents

List of figures

List of tables

Abbreviations

ABS	Association of Business Schools
AG	Public limited company (in German: Aktiengesellschaft)
ANOVA	Analysis of variance
BSC	Balanced Scorecard, a management instrument for the strategic management of an organisation
CAQDAS	Computer assisted analysis of qualitative data
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CHF	Swiss Francs
COI	Cultural Orientations Indicator
DOCS	Denison Organizational Culture Survey
EBIT	Earnings before interest and taxes
Economiesuisse	The largest umbrella organisation of the Swiss economy
EThOS	The British Library's electronic theses online service
EU	European Union
HR	Human Resources
HRM	Human Resource Management
IBM	International Business Machines
IMD	International Institute for Management Development
IT	Information technology
Kg	kilogramme
KPI	Key performance indicator
KVK	Karlsruhe virtual catalogue, worldwide network of libraries
M&A	Mergers and acquisitions
Max.	Maximum
MAXQDA	The qualitative data analysis computer software used for this research
MBA	Master of Business Administration
Min.	Minimum
n/a	Not applicable
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
No.	Number
OCP	Organizational Culture Profile
PEU	Swiss Post's employee survey
PF	PostFinance, a business unit of Swiss Post
Ph.D.	Doctor of Philosophy
PL	PostLogistics, a business unit of Post CH Ltd
PM	PostMail, a business unit of Post CH Ltd

Post CH Ltd	The communications and logistics markets of Swiss Post, the subject of this research
PR	Public relations
PTT	The Swiss Postal, Telegraph and Telephone agency, the forerunner of Swiss Post
PV	Post Offices & Sales, a business unit of Post CH Ltd
Q	Question
QDA	Qualitative data analysis
SHRM	Strategic human resource management
SME	Small and medium enterprises
SPS	Swiss Post Solutions, a business unit of Post CH Ltd
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, a computer program used for this research
Swiss Post	Swiss Post Holding, Post CH Ltd's parent organisation
Top management	Umbrella term for the members of the board of directors and executive management
UK	United Kingdom
US	United States
WWII	Second World War

Symbols for statistics

α	Cronbach's alpha
β	Beta, statistical power
Cov	Average covariance between items
df	Degrees of freedom, the number of values in the final calculation of a statistic that are free to vary
η^2	Eta squared
F	F-ratio (test statistics used in Analysis of variance ANOVA)
H	Kruskal-Wallis test
Md	Median
N, n	The common sign for a variable quantity; used for the sample size
p	Probability value, *p*-value or significance of a test
r	Effect size/Pearson's correlation coefficient
SD	Standard deviation
s^2	Variance of the sample data
U	Mann Whitney U test
χ^2	Chi-square test statistic
Σ	Sigma; meaning "add everything up"

Note: Reproduced from Field (2009, xxxii)

Acknowledgements

1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter outlines the researcher's motivation for this thesis, the underlying research philosophy, and how the literature review was conducted. Furthermore, it explains the selection of the corporation where data were collected, describes its environment, and outlines how culture is measured in that corporation. The chapter concludes by stating the research questions and research objectives.

1.1   Motivation for research

The last few years have seen a transition of the role of Human Resources (HR) from a rather administrative function to a role of strategic human resource management (SHRM). HR managers are nowadays confronted with the question of their contribution and the value added by their work. This has led to a shift of researchers' attention to how Human Resources Management (HRM) contributes to firm performance (Carroll, Dye, & Wagar, 2011). Being an HR manager myself, I was interested in demonstrating that research conducted by HR managers can be relevant not only from a research perspective, but also from a managerial point of view, prompting a focus on the "black box" between HRM and firm performance (Carroll, et al., 2011). A further issue that I have been intrigued with for many years are the cultural aspects, as my interest in culture has been fuelled by travelling on several continents. Furthermore, I grew up in Switzerland, a multicultural and multilingual country.

My interest in providing a contribution to scientific knowledge as an HR manager and the conclusions from the literature review finally led to the decision to conduct research in the field of corporate culture, a field I consider as highly relevant not only for HR, but also for the successful conduct of a corporation.

1.2   Research problem: Addressing the gap in knowledge

During the literature review for my research, I discovered that certain aspects still seem to be yet unsatisfactorily resolved in the literature. These gaps include the unitary or divergent perception of the concept of corporate culture and the lack of operationalisation of the concept. This finding left me somewhat unsatisfied, as I believe these aspects deserve a better recognition. Consequently, this notion served as a stimulus for my research and provided the rationale for investigating these aspects in more detail. Furthermore, it curtailed the research and served as a base for the definition of the research questions outlined in section 1.9.

1.2.1   Unitary or divergent perception of corporate culture.

An aspect frequently encountered in the literature was the finding that many studies on corporate culture solely focused on questioning managers, without involving staff (Wilderom, Glunk, & Maslowski, 2000). Although researchers such as Detert, et al. (2000) and Baetge (2006) claim that surveying members of management in cultural research is not enough, many studies and cultural surveys are restricted to intraorganisational respondents that are not representative of an organisation as a whole. Sackmann (2011, p. 193) for example argues that data collection at the organisational level is still focused on management functions such as the executive, group, top, and senior management. Sackmann (2011, p. 218) argues that sample procedures require more attention, as culture is not only a top level or managerial phenomenon. In a similar vein, Hartnell and Walumba (2011, p. 235) claim that the majority of organisational culture studies elicit answers from key personnel within organisations, such as the chief executive manager (CEO), or other high-level executives. This raises questions not only about the representativeness of a sample, but also does not reveal a possibly fragmented organisational culture (Denison, Nieminen, & Kotrba, 2012). These responses are then

generalised, believed to be representative of how values, beliefs, and assumptions are perceived for the whole organisation. This notion of culture propagating a set of values and meanings communicated by senior management leading to a strong sense of direction and priorities was for example contended by Schein (1991). The idea that organisations can have broadly shared cultures, with top management as central architects behind them, enjoyed great faith; most of the early writings on organisational culture adopted this integrative view, emphasising culture as unitary and unique in an organisation (Alvesson, 2011, p. 15). Although this has lost some of its credibility, Alvesson (2011) argues that it still seems to dominate in popular and academic writings. Frequently, the term organisational culture is (and was) used to indicate a view of organisations as unitary and unique, characterised by a stable set of meanings (Alvesson, 2011, p. 15). Hartnell and Walumba (2011, p. 241) argue that researchers are inclined to view organisations as monolithic and coherent systems, taking the same action to attain a common outcome. Such a unitary stance bears the risk that divergences on corporate culture within different groups in an organisation remain undetected, limiting the value of cultural research in organisations.

1.2.2   Lack of the operationalisation of the concept of corporate culture.
A further aspect repeatedly found throughout the literature review outlined in Chapter 2 is the complexity and variety ascribed to corporate culture, which is also reflected in a multitude of definitions and questionnaire items in use (Wilderom, et al., 2000). This diversity exacerbates the implementation of the concept of corporate culture from theory into practice. Schein (2011, p. xi) argues that, although academics may continue to argue about definitions, a growing collection of survey instruments will evolve that will make these concepts concrete and more usable by practitioners. It seems therefore that the operationalisation of the concept of corporate culture is still a prevalent problem

yet not completely resolved, and that further studies will contribute to the better implementation of corporate culture concepts into practice. The urge to implement the concept of corporate culture into practical application is exemplified by Schein (2011, p. xii) as follows: "If we are to make progress in this murky domain, we need to be more concrete".

By collecting and analysing qualitative (semi-structured interviews) and quantitative (survey) primary data on corporate culture from randomly selected employees from all hierarchical levels of a Swiss company, the researcher examined both of the aforementioned gaps in the literature using content analysis and analytical statistics. The relevance of this research goes beyond its conceptual contribution; it can be further extended to be relevant for the practical application of the concept of corporate culture as well. Hofstede, et al. (1993, quoted in Sweeney & Hardaker, 1994) for example argue that is important to gain an insight into particular groups' perceptions of culture within an organisation in order to successfully manage change processes. A similar argumentation is brought forward by Detert, et al. (2000), who argue that change initiatives are considerably more difficult to implement if large gaps existed between the culture that is espoused by certain organisational members and the culture that actually describes the artifacts and behaviours visible throughout the organisation.

The satisfactory response delivered by this research, outlined in the final chapter, provides a contribution to knowledge in at least two distinct areas.

First, it identifies divergences in the perception of corporate culture among different groups of a corporation. In particular, it reveals significant differences in the perception of culture between management functions and staff's perception of culture, which are outlined in detail in section 4.6.

Second, it demonstrates the successful operationalisation of the concept of corporate culture into practical application, by offering a thorough, concrete, and specific

approach for cultural research. Although the data were collected in one corporation only, the methods applied in this research can be used in designing tailored cultural surveys suitable for practical implementation in other organisations as well, contributing to a more practitioner friendly usage of the concept, as urged by Schein (2011). Finally, yet most importantly, this research represents a significant contribution to a better understanding of the concept of corporate culture.

1.3   Research philosophy

This section describes the main positions in research philosophy and their influence on this study.

1.3.1   Positivism.

Positivist epistemology has dominated earlier textbooks on methodology in the social sciences (Kvale, 2007, p. 21). Hamel, 2000 (quoted in Buchanan & Bryman, 2007, p. 485) describes positivism as: "A normative approach, assuming enlightenment, rationalisation, and control, with concerns for codification, with establishing covariation and causal relation, with cumulative evidence, and with nomothetic laws". This approach may however be hard to accomplish in the social sciences; Gill, et al. (2010, pp. 13-14) argue that there is no single method that generates scientific knowledge in all cases. What may be appropriate for researching the physical world may be inappropriate in the social world; knowledge generation is not neutral but is affected by the presuppositions of the researchers. Positivists believe in having direct access to the real world with a single reality (Carson, 2001), ignoring the subjective dimensions of human action (Gill, et al., 2010, p. 190). In order to objectively observe the phenomena reviewed, positivists must assume a dualism, to be able to separate subject from object, thus using rigorous methodology to have knowledge independent from the observer and

uncontaminated by the act of observation (Gill, et al., 2010, p. 193). Positivism treats social facts as existing independently of the activities of both participants and researchers (Silverman, 2010). The researcher used a positivistic approach in finding responses to the research questions described in section 1.9.

1.3.2   Interpretivism and constructivism.

Interpretivist and constructivist positions are at the opposite ends of positivism on the philosophical spectrum. In these positions, sense-making individuals are seen as engaged participants and cocreators of social structures (Buchanan & Bryman, 2007). Emphasis is on process and meanings (Sale, Lohfeld, & Brazil, 2002, p. 45), thus requiring interpretivist researchers to consider different perspectives or multiple realities. Qualitative purists argue for the superiority of constructivism, idealism, relativism, humanism, hermeneutics, and sometimes, postmodernism (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Interpretive research is committed to the broad philosophy of social construction, which sees social reality as a constructed world built in and through meaningful interpretations. The objective of the researcher is therefore not to capture the pre-existing or ready-made world presumed to be out there, but to "understand", this process of symbolic "worldmaking" (Schwandt, 1994, quoted in Prasad & Prasad, 2002). Qualitative methods could provide a richer picture than purely quantitative research and have the potential to illuminate a scientific problem from different angles. This study used elements based on interpretivism and constructivism in finding responses to the second research question outlined in section 1.9.

1.3.3   Positivism and interpretivism compared.

Table 1.1, based on Krauss (2005), shows the main distinctions between positivism and interpretivism.

Table 1.1: Main distinctions between positivist and interpretivist epistemology and ontology

Research paradigm	Epistemology Study of knowledge	Ontology Study of being	Methodology
Positivism	• Dualism • Takes an outsider position	• Single reality • "One unitary truth"	Deductive
Interpretivism	• Theory is grounded • Takes an insider position	• Multiple realities • Experiences from different points of view	Inductive

Note: Based on Krauss (2005)

1.3.4 Post-positivism.

Post-positivism is in-between positivism and constructivism/interpretivism. It retains the basic beliefs of positivism, but gives the researcher greater flexibility to incorporate different research methods (Denzin, 1998). It can therefore be seen as an alternative approach, combining the advantages from both quantitative and qualitative research in answering the research questions.

1.3.5 Influence on this research.

One of the challenges in this research was to find appropriate research methods while straddling multiple ontological paradigms and to combine this eclecticism in a reasonable manner. The researcher identifies himself as a post-positivist, with a preference for evidence-based methods and situations where a researcher strives to be neutral. The knowledge of different schools of thinking during the study phase strengthened the researcher's philosophical position as a post-positivist; consequently, a combination of positivist and interpretivist/constructivist philosophy was used for this research. An overview of assumptions in research philosophy is outlined in Appendix I.

1.4   Process of the literature review

The literature review outlined in Chapter 2 set the stage for the subsequent definition of the research questions and the research objectives. Silverman (2010) suggest that the literature review should combine knowledge with critical thought, to see the process as dialogic rather than just a replication of published papers.

1.4.1   Structured versus unstructured reviews.

The process of systematic literature review can be described as a "systematic, explicit and reproducible method for identifying, evaluating, and interpreting the existing body of recorded work produced by researchers, scholars, and practitioners" (Fink, 2005, p. 3). Compared to an unstructured literature review, the advantage of a systematic review is that it enables other researchers to draw conclusions on the knowledge based on the literature underpinning a study (Dixon-Woods et al., 2006). By the 1980s for example, increasing credence was given to the argument that narrative reviews of evidence in medicine were flawed because reviewers tended to focus on a small sub-set of studies without revealing how they were selected (Dixon-Woods, et al., 2006). This led to the "evidence based policy", promoting an influential methodology that might be termed the "rationalist" model of systematic review (Dixon-Woods, et al., 2006). One of its defining characteristics is the insistence on explicit searching strategies, as reviewers usually give a clear account of their search for relevant evidence for the potential reproduction of the search methods. A potential disadvantage of systematic review is its limitation to searches in major electronic databases, as the search process in a systematic literature search normally relies on electronic databases, utilising indexing systems of keywords or thesaurus terms (Barroso, et al., 2003; Evans, 2002, quoted in Dixon-Woods, et al., 2006). This may lead to the exclusion of potentially relevant or interesting literature in other sources.

The researcher finally decided to conduct a structured literature review, as the benefits seem to outweigh the disadvantages. Furthermore, the objective nature of a structured literature review seems to be apt for the post-positivist researcher and allows establishing the current state of published knowledge.

1.4.2 Purpose of a systematic literature review.

A systematic review serves the following purposes (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, pp. 50-53, quoted in Silverman, 2010, p. 319):

- To stimulate theoretical sensitivity, providing concepts and relationships

- To provide secondary sources of data to be used for initial trial runs of own concepts and topics

- To stimulate questions during the data gathering and data analysis

- To direct theoretical sampling to "give ideas about where a researcher might go to uncover phenomena important to the development of a theory"

- To be used as supplementary validation to explain why a researcher's findings support or differ from the existing literature.

1.4.3 Phases and criteria for the systematic literature review.

Table 1.2, based on Tranfield, Denyer, and Palminder (2003), served as the guideline for the systematic literature review. The researcher divided the review into three stages and nine phases.

Table 1.2: Guideline for the literature review

Stage	Phase	Description of the literature review
I. Plan the review	0: Identification of need for review	As a vital element of a doctoral thesis, a systematic literature review helps to compare the researcher's philosophical position with those of authors from the literature

(continued)

Stage	Phase	Description of the literature review
I. Plan the review	1: Prepare proposal for review	This review was prepared on the basis of "pragmatic science" (Anderson, Herriot, & Hodgkinson, 2001), with the intention of constructing an academically sound base, but with a certain practical relevance
	2: Develop review protocol	A review protocol narrows or scopes down potentially relevant literature on corporate culture. The researcher curtailed literature needing further scrutiny gradually, with the addition of literature published after the initial search
II. Conduct the review	3: Identification of research papers	The review was based on the sources listed in Appendix II
	4: Selection of studies	The inclusion and exclusion criteria of literature on corporate culture are listed in Appendix III
	5: Assess quality of studies	The Academic Journal Quality Guide (Association of Business Schools, 2010) lists citation indices of journals, thereby providing a hierarchy of a publication's relevance. Google Scholar (2012) gave additional indications of the relevance of a particular piece of literature by listing the number of citations. Eigenfactor (2010), an additional source consulted, ranks and maps scholarly periodicals and provides mapping of the structure of academic research. The researcher expected journals on corporate culture to be located in Eigenfactor's business and marketing category; however, the use of this instrument yielded little results. The assessment of academic papers finally relied on critical judgement and experience of the researcher
	6: Data extraction and monitor progress	This phase documents the steps taken during the final systematic literature review, by refining and selecting the relevant literature. The researcher archived literature considered as not suitable
	7: Research synthesis	The research synthesis describes the activity of summarising and integrating on a topic

(continued)

Stage	Phase	Description of the literature review
III. Report/ disseminate	8: Report and recommen- dations	This could come in the form of an aggregated, general description of the field of corporate culture. Visual presentations (such as Papineau's tree or the network theory of models) may help to follow the arguments of the structure of the literature review. The researcher considered using visualisation software, but such software either requires JavaScript programming knowledge (e.g., http://www.thejit.org) or is expensive commercial software (e.g., http://www.touchgraph.com/navigator.html)
	9: Getting evidence into practice	As it is not known if any recommendations based on this research are going to be implemented in practice, the outcome of this step could not be assessed by the time of publication

Note: Based on Tranfield, et al. (2003)

1.4.4   Sources and selection criteria.

The available sources used for this review are outlined in Appendix II, whereas the detailed, final selection criteria can be found in Appendix III. The exclusion of languages other than English poses a limitation; however, as scientific literature is predominately published in English, this limitation seems appropriate. Potentially relevant literature in German found during the research was, however, used as well, based on the dominance of the (Swiss) German language in Switzerland, which accounted for 71.6% of the Swiss population in the year 2010, compared to 23.5% French, and 4.5% Italian (Swiss Federal Statistics Office, 2013).

The researcher could not keep to the own initial limitation of literature published in 1999 or later, as a great deal of seminal and still often cited literature was published in the 1980s, such as works from Hofstede (1980) and Smircich (1983), to name only a few.

Potential bias in terms of relevance of a study cannot be ruled out as personal criteria, such as the author's own moral concepts, may have had an influence on the selection of the literature. However, this risk was mitigated by adhering to the selection criteria.

1.4.5   Literature review as conducted.

As the research centres on corporate culture, the initial literature review in summer 2010 encompassed a search by the keywords "corporate culture" and "organisational culture" in the title or abstract as well as a search in the indices of different peer-reviewed journals. The researcher screened and assessed references that explicitly referred to "culture" in the title and abstract for potential relevance. The search with the keywords however showed very generic results and lacked pertinence. Literature found in the initial review was limited to the first 50 hits, as the relevance dropped significantly after the first 30 hits; the search in the Karlsruhe virtual catalogue (KVK) revealed no context-relevant literature (see Table 1.3).

Table 1.3:   Number of hits for corporate culture and organisational culture in the initial literature review

Electronic database	Search term Corporate culture	Search term Organisational culture
Google Scholar	103,000	222,000
KVK (Germany, Switzerland, Austria)	15,280	18,711

Note: By the researcher

The search based on the indices of the journals listed in the ABS (Association of Business Schools, 2010) focused on those with a quality rating of at least 3 from the following domains:

- Business history

- Economics

- General management

- Human resources management (HRM) and employment studies

- International business and area studies

- Management and education

- Organisation studies

- Social sciences

- Business strategy.

This search however revealed similar results as the previous search on the online platforms. In some cases, the terms "corporate culture" or "organisational culture" did not appear at all or just showed in the index of the journal, with no relevance to culture whatsoever.

As a next step, the researcher performed online searches of the British Library theses in August 2010 and March 2013 (British Library, 2010), as outlined in Table 1.4. An examination of the theses however showed only few relevant results.

Table 1.4: *Number of hits for corporate culture and organisational culture on EThOS (British Library's electronic theses online service)*

EThOS	Search term Corporate culture		Search term Organisational culture	
	Number of theses	For immediate download	Number of theses	For immediate download
Thesis title	9	2	17	11
Subject or keyword	5	3	5	2

Note: By the researcher

The researcher then halted the initial research and adjusted the research criteria. Furthermore, the researcher extended the publication period to include seminal articles and influential books as well. Additional relevant literature on corporate culture was also found in the reference list of relevant articles and books. Literature published after

the initial search which met the selection criteria was integrated during subsequent reviews in winter 2011/2012 and winter 2012/2013.

1.4.6   Conclusion on the literature review.

The process of the initial literature review turned out to be somewhat unsatisfactorily, as a high percentage of hits were not specific enough to corporate culture. In order to have a sound basis for the literature review outlined in Chapter 2, the researcher had to expand the inclusion criteria to older, seminal publications.

1.5   Selection of the corporation to conduct the research

In order to conduct this research focused on corporate culture, the researcher considered the selection of a commercial organisation or corporation as being a necessity. Furthermore, the researcher also wished to demonstrate that research conducted by HR managers represents a conceptual and managerial contribution (see section 1.1). As the researcher works and lives in Switzerland, a company with domestic headquarters was a prerequisite due to geographical limitations. A further important aspect was the required size of the corporation, which had to be large enough to allow for a broad selection of research methods. An additional aspect was corporate language, which had to be Swiss German, German, English, or French, the languages well spoken by the researcher. This excludes Italian (one of Switzerland's national languages), as the researcher only has a passive understanding of this language. The most important aspect however was top management's explicit consent to conduct this research.

During the literature review phase, Swiss Post announced a large reorganisation and the nomination of a new CEO, following regular retirement of the predecessor. Although these changes were not associated with each other, both aspects brought corporate culture to the forefront of interests at this corporation, and the researcher's request to

conduct research within Swiss Post was granted. As the researcher is employed by PostLogistics, one of Swiss Post's business units, this obviously raises the question of bias. This research was however self-financed, and the study was conducted outside the terms of employment. Furthermore, potential bias was limited by keeping to the research objectives and by the careful selection of research methods.

1.6   Postal sector

The postal sector in Europe is influenced by five factors: deregulation, digitisation, globalisation, sustainability, and changing customer needs (Swiss Post, 2011). The European Union (EU) completed deregulation of the postal sector by the beginning of 2013. Switzerland, although not a member of the EU (European Union), is unlikely to evade the deregulation trend. Physical postal and payment transactions are under pressure from electronic alternatives, and globalisation intensifies the pressure for an increasingly international orientation. Furthermore, growth in the demand for sustainable, "green" products can also be noticed. Finally, there is growing demand for simple solutions and a focus on quality, reliability, and security (Swiss Post, 2011).

1.7   Swiss Post

Swiss Post, owned by the Swiss Confederation, employs more than 62,000 employees (44,600 full-time equivalents) worldwide, with a presence in 30 countries (Swiss Post, 2012a). It has a service mandate from the Swiss Federal Council to provide universal postal and payment-services in all regions and to all sections of Switzerland's population within a reasonable distance of where they live, and to operate a nationwide post office network (Swiss Federal Department of the Environment, Transport, Energy and Communications, 2012). Swiss Post has Europe's densest sales network, with 3,505

access points in Switzerland, 2,991 billion addressed letters, and 111 million parcels delivered in 2012 (Swiss Post, 2012a). It operates in the following four markets:

- Communications

- Logistics

- Retail finance

- Public passenger transport.

In 2012, the company generated a turnover of 8,582 million Swiss Francs (CHF) and a profit of 859 million CHF (Swiss Post, 2012a).

1.7.1 Vision and values.

Although Swiss Post does not have a mission, its vision outlines the organisation's main purpose (Swiss Post, 2012a): "We move people, goods, money, and information – in a reliable, value-enhancing, and sustainable way

- for our customers

- successfully, with innovations in our four markets

- together with our employees

- for Switzerland".

The core values of Swiss Post are based on its vision (Swiss Post, 2012a):

- Reliable

- Value-enhancing

- Sustainable.

The core values between the years 2000 and 2011 were credible, entrepreneurial, and co-operative.

1.7.2 Strategy.

Swiss Post finds itself not only in an increasingly dynamic marketplace, but also in a multifaceted, challenging regulatory environment. Its operating conditions are defined by (Swiss Post, 2011):

- The purpose clause in the Postal Organisation Act, which defines the fields of business

- The Swiss Federal Council's strategic objectives

- The Postal Act, which regulates the universal service, with the sole remaining regulated service with letters up to 50 grams, where Swiss Post still holds a monopoly, accounting for 20% of its sales.

The strategic emphases as expected by the Federal Council are (Swiss Federal Department of the Environment, Transport, Energy and Communications, 2012):

- To provide a universal service in all regions of Switzerland according to the same basic rules, in good quality and at decent prices

- To exist as an innovative company in competitive markets

- To be prepared to the upcoming consequences of the Postal Organisation Act

- To develop new services and solutions, enter co-operations, and create growth

- To develop its core business in the communications, logistics, retail finance and public transportation markets.

This implies for Swiss Post that the universal service has to be geared towards customer needs and technological change (e.g., through alternative forms of delivery). Swiss Post's future is expected to be hybrid, with both a physical and an electronic presence, requiring integrated customer requirements for simple, flexible and individual services, and a sustainable business philosophy in its business model (Swiss Post, 2011).

1.7.3 Reorganisation in 2013.

Due to the revision of the Postal Organisation Act, Swiss Post is currently undergoing a reorganisation, which has transformed the company from a public institution into a public company under special legislation. This reorganisation has split-up the company into three new entities Post CH Ltd, PostFinance Ltd, and PostBus Ltd under the umbrella of Swiss Post holding as of 26 June 2013. This segregation puts Post CH Ltd under pressure, as the profit from PostFinance (accounting for two thirds of Swiss Post's profit) falls away. The researcher selected Post CH Ltd, serving the traditional communications and logistics market, for this research. Table 1.5 gives an overview of Swiss Post's new structure (Swiss Post, 2012a).

Table 1.5: Legal entities of Swiss Post since 26 June 2013

Swiss Post (holding)		
Entity	**Market**	**Headcount**
Post CH Ltd	Communications	
	• PostMail (PM)	17,900
	• Post Offices & Sales (PV)	6,700
	• Swiss Post Solutions (SPS)	6,500
	Logistics	
	• PostLogistics (PL)	5,500
PostFinance Ltd	Retail banking	3,500
PostBus Ltd	Public transportation	2,300

Note: Based on Swiss Post's annual report (2012a)

PostMail's core business is accepting, sorting and delivering letters, promotional mailings and newspapers; its business is declining, so letter processing has to be further optimised and customers need to be persuaded of the advantages of physical mail. Post Offices & Sales will have to adjust its sales network even more closely to new customer requirements. PostLogistics, the logistics division operating in the courier, express and parcels (CEP), small consignments and warehousing, international, and overnight logistics submarkets aims to keep its current position as the national quality and cost leader (Swiss Post, 2011). Finally, Swiss Post Solutions promotes the development of

products and services at the interfaces of physical and electronic communications. This unit however did not participate in the research for two reasons. First, it only has a small domestic presence with a few hundred employees in Switzerland, impeding generalisations. Second, concerns were elicited from SPS HR over the fact that their employees were going to be surveyed on the topic of corporate culture. However, Post CH Ltd's business units PostMail, Post Offices & Sales, and PostLogistics all participated in this research.

1.7.4   Research population.

An important aspect in any research is the selection of the most adequate research population, especially as the different constituent's interests may be overlapping, compatible, opposed, or mutually exclusive (Denison, 1990). Stakeholders consisting of insiders (employees who belong to the organisation) and outsiders, who have an interest in the organisation without belonging to it, can be distinguished. Anderson, et al. (2001, pp. 400-401) contend that unless the existence of the various stakeholders and the ways in which they are exercising their power is recognised, a researcher cannot address the real issues.

Insiders.

This research was limited to Switzerland's national boundaries to reduce the effect of potentially skewed results from influences based on differences of national effects (Hofstede, 2001; Sackmann, 1991). Such distortion could not be excluded completely, however, as the research population, employees of Post CH Ltd, also consist of foreign nationals. According to Swiss Post's annual report (2012a), 85.2% of its employees work in Switzerland, and its staff comes from 140 nations. Appendix IV provides an overview of Post CH Ltd's stakeholders.

Outsiders.

The inclusion of stakeholders such as Swiss Post's owner, the Federal Department of Environment, Transport, Energy and Communications, suppliers, customers, and unions outside the corporation may provide additional information. The researcher, however, shares Schein and Mader's (1995) belief of corporate culture as something that happens within an organisation, which can only be perceived and assessed by the members of that organisation. Furthermore, as Post CH Ltd is a construct founded as of 26 June 2013, it can be assumed that external stakeholders at least are not fully aware of the differences between Swiss Post's new legal entities. Swiss Post follows a one-brand strategy in the logistics and communications market; external entities therefore often perceived it as one corporation. Furthermore, the inclusion of external stakeholders would go beyond the research questions and the scope of this research.

1.7.5   Challenges of Post CH Ltd.

This section describes the main challenges faced by Post CH Ltd.

Deregulation.

Deregulation of the postal market in Europe was agreed on in 2002 with the Postal Act 2002/39/EC, an amendment to the Postal Act 97/67/EC, which opens the postal market in the EU by 2013. This is going to affect Swiss Post in the future (Economiesuisse, 2010, 2011).

In 1998, the first steps towards deregulation in Switzerland were made, when the former Postal, Telegraph, and Telephone agency (PTT, Swiss Post's forerunner) was split into Swiss Post and Swisscom (telecommunications). Subsequent steps were taken in 2004 (liberalisation of the courier, express and parcels market), in 2006 (market opened for letters weighing more than 100 grams), and the ensuing adjustment to letters more than

50 grams in 2011. Political pressure for an all-embracing deregulation of the postal

market has decreased somewhat (Economiesuisse, 2010, 2011). Riechmann, Vaterlaus,

Zenhäusern, Etten, and Strobel (2007) investigated the consequences of the abolishment

of the letter post monopoly and the ensuing deregulation of the postal market in

Switzerland, which cumulated in the spin-off of Swiss Post into three new entities in the

form of public companies. Riechmann, et al.'s (2007) study focused on:

- Financing of the universal service

- Financial and personnel development of Swiss Post's staff

- Market supply and demand

- Macroeconomic aspects.

This study compared the consequences of the liberalisation of the postal markets in four

European countries between 1993 and 2006. Swiss Post operates more than 95% of its

Point of Sales as post offices, which are more expensive to operate than postal agencies,

where postal services are combined with small shops. This is an exceptionally high

proportion (Economiesuisse, 2010). The number of post offices is however a political

issue, especially in rural areas (Economiesuisse, 2011).

Table 1.6: Deregulation of postal market in selected European countries

Consequence	United Kingdom	Germany	Netherlands	Sweden
Start of liberalisation of the letter market	2001	2006	2006	-
Liberalisation of the postal market for all letters	2006	2008	2008	1993
Decrease of market share	-6%	-9%	-12%	-9%

(continued)

Consequence	United Kingdom	Germany	Netherlands	Sweden
EBIT (Earnings before interest and taxes) margin in 2005	5.5%	7.8%	11.5%	5.3%
Development of staff figures	-5%	Increase	Increase	-5%
Post office network	Restructured, 95% agency	Restructured, 55% agency	Restructured, almost 100% agency	Restructured, mainly agency

Note: Based on Economiesuisse (2011)

The following factors were found to be relevant for the forthcoming liberalisation (Riechmann, et al., 2007):

- Regulation of prices

- Access to Swiss Post's infrastructure

- Scope and extent of the universal service

- Concession/licence for financing the universal service.

Riechmann, et al. (2007) concluded that Swiss Post will be confronted with a substantial decrease in market share if it does not implement cost-cutting measures, especially in segments attractive to competitors. If Swiss Post succeeds in cutting its costs, it may remain in a comfortable situation due to economies of scale. Postal organisations in other countries however are confronted with more demanding challenges in terms of the decrease in the core postal business, as the population density and the amount of mailings in Switzerland is relatively high (Economiesuisse, 2010). From a customer point of view, Economiesuisse (2011) argues that fair competition is a guarantor for good value for money and that competitors should all have the same conditions, including the abolishment of the ban for night-time driving or the administration of postal addresses, which are presently only granted to Swiss Post.

Market environment.

One major challenge is the profitable operation of the traditional physical core business with reduced volumes (20% fewer payment transactions, 40% fewer parcels and 50% fewer letters processed at Swiss Post's office counters in 2010 compared to the year 2000); another is the dichotomy between the universal service and competition (Swiss Post, 2011). Universal service in Switzerland entails the transportation of letters up to 1 kg, parcels up to 20 kg, and addressed newspapers and journals, as well as retail payment services (Economiesuisse, 2011). The revision of the Postal Organisation Act entails the transition of Swiss Post to a public company, whereas the Postal Act deregulates the postal market in Switzerland (Economiesuisse, 2010).

Management.

Ms Susanne Ruoff, a former manager in the IT (information technology) industry, took over Swiss Post's Chief Executive Officer (CEO) position in 2012. The split-off of Swiss Post and Ms Ruoff's nomination following her predecessor's regular retirement is a coincidence. As the researcher reveals in the later analysis of the research data, it is widely believed at Swiss Post that Ms Ruoff's nomination, based on her function as the company's new leader, will play a key role in the cultural development of Swiss Post.

Culture.

The transition from a public institution to a public company under special legislation could have an impact to corporate culture; while employees of PTT were used to an environment protected by the government, employees nowadays have to compete both internally and externally. Despite the tremendous changes in the past decades, the high quality standards set by the organisation's employees have not changed (Knobel, 2011). The following comparison between the cultures of the former PTT and Swiss Post in the

future (based on Knobel, 2011, p. 103) outlined in Table 1.7 may be held in a "black and white" attitude, but is a vivid representation of the cultural challenges Swiss Post is already facing.

Table 1.7: Indication of Swiss Post's corporate culture in the past and in the future

Post as part of PTT 1849 to 1997	Swiss Post as an independent company Currently and in the future
Serve: To serve the government and the Swiss population	Make money: Employees work primarily to earn money for the corporation
Oriented toward postal services: People using postal services had access to the services defined and offered by PTT	Customer-oriented: Employees have to acquire, serve, and retain customers. Swiss Post offers what customers want
Equality: Under civil service law	Individuality: Employees are treated according to the employment market and the collective labour agreement
Job security: Secure jobs even in harsh economic situations	Less secure jobs: Jobs at Swiss Post are subject to Swiss private law and will be slightly better protected compared to the private sector, as the duty to negotiate with the unions and the objectives of the Federal Council will persist. Swiss private law is among the most liberal in Europe, with no formal job protection
Employment protection: Civil service law assured protection against layoffs	Restricted employment protection: Limited protection against layoffs
Complex disciplinary code: A complex catalogue served as a basis for disciplinary action	Basic disciplinary code: Disciplining staff according to the principles of law
Career assured: Career was mainly within PTT, with high relevance given to seniority and age of service	No career assurance: No relevance to seniority or age of service, emphasis on performance
Internal staffing: Vacancies were mainly staffed from within PTT	External staffing: People from external companies bring in new ideas and useful experiences
Limited employability: Focus on internal formation, with limited usefulness on the external job market	High employability: External formation is widely adopted, leading to higher employability

(continued)

Post as part of PTT 1849 to 1997	Swiss Post as an independent company Currently and in the future
Monopoly: PTT acted in a monopolised environment	Deregulated market: Swiss Post acts in competition and has to work the market by adjusting services and prices
Accomplishment: Politics regulates, PTT accomplishes	Acting: Swiss Posts acts as an entrepreneur; the Swiss Federal Council represents the interests of the owner
Leisure time in the organisation: PTT staff spent leisure time in various associations and clubs closely related to PTT	Individual leisure: Leisure time is spent individually

Note: Based on Knobel (2011)

It can be concluded that Post CH Ltd is facing the following challenges and changes simultaneously:

- Deregulation and liberalisation of the postal market

- Stable to declining markets

- The induction of the new CEO

- Swiss Post's recent split-up into PostFinance Ltd, PostBus Ltd, and Post CH Ltd

- The change from a public institution to a public company

- Political pressures.

Many studies have shown that the culture of an organisation is an important factor in phases of change (Jung et al., 2009). The following research outlines, based on the research questions, the intended culture Post CH Ltd has to have in top management's eyes in order to be successful. Together with the assessment of current culture, a researcher can reveal to what extent culture is shared between top management and staff. In a next stage, the researcher gathered information as to how Swiss Post assesses culture.

1.8   Process of cultural assessment at Swiss Post

This section describes the instruments used within Swiss Post that may have the

potential to answer the research questions outlined in section 1.9, whereas a general

overview of cultural surveys in the literature can be found in section 2.12.

Jung, et al. (2009) identified instruments that are freely and easily available both by

reference to the respective literature and to commercial packages. To this latter category

belong two quantitative instruments, the Cultural Orientations Indicator (COI) and the

Denison Organizational Culture Survey (DOCS), which have both seen application at

Swiss Post. Jung, et al. (2007, p. 12) define a quantitative measure of culture as: "An

explicit and systematic method, which can be applied to an entity in order to define a

score, rating or code, which describes the cultural quality or qualities of an entity".

Besides these two commercial instruments, Swiss Post has an annual employee survey,

abbreviated PEU (from the German word Personalumfrage). The researcher also

reviewed this instrument for potential culture assessment at Swiss Post. The outcome of

this preparative phase revealed the attempts already made to measure culture at Swiss

Post.

1.8.1   Commercial instruments.

This section describes the two commercial instruments used at Swiss Post that could

serve as a basis for measuring corporate culture.

Cultural Orientations Indicator (COI).

The COI, developed in the 1980s, provides a profile of preferences along 17 continua

classified within 10 cultural dimensions (see Figure 1.1). Every cultural dimension

contains one or more related continua, and the instrument currently contains 87

questions (Training Management Corporation, 2012b). Its strength lies in building skills

and behavioural adaptations for multicultural management and business (Training Management Corporation, 2012a). Individuals bring their layers of culture to the workplace, thereby affecting cooperation. Coefficient alpha reliabilities of the COI scales range from .75 to .95, with a median value of .84 (Training Management Corporation, 2012b). The underlying statistical structure is comprised of a five-factor model. Swiss Post introduced the instrument in 2009, and the COI has since been used sporadically in initiatives for developing intercultural competence and in coaching. Swiss Post has selected the COI over competing tools based on scientific relevance, the availability of an online-platform, its application in a national as well as an international context, and price (S. Schneider-Bean, personal correspondence, 1 February 2012). The tool however measures work style preferences and behaviour on an individual rather than an institutional level.
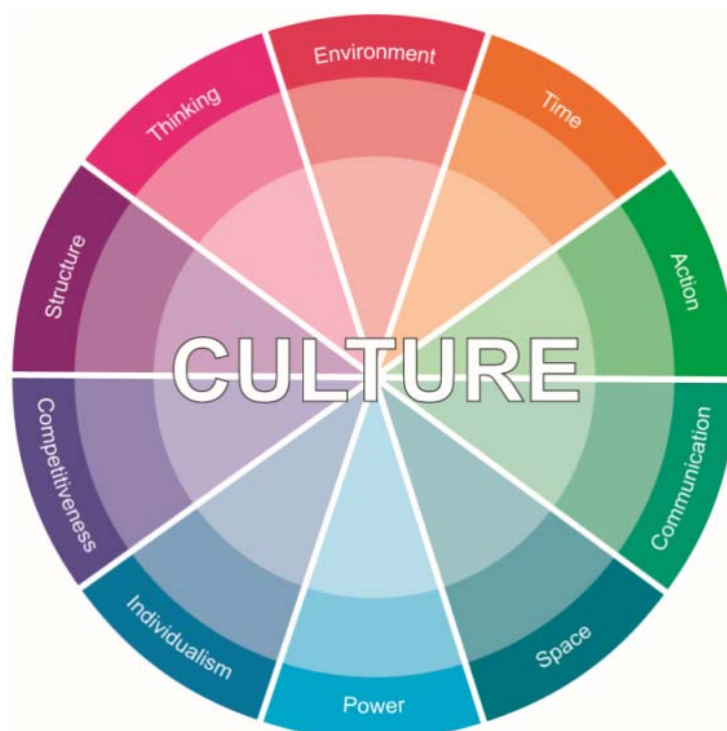
Figure 1.1: Cultural Orientations Indicator

Note: Reproduced from Training Management Corporation (2012a)

Denison Organizational Culture Survey (DOCS).

The DOCS dates back to the 1980s (Denison, 1984; Sackmann, 2007). It was designed to enable leaders, key stakeholders, and employees to understand how their culture affects organisational performance and to learn how to influence culture in order to improve organisational effectiveness (Jung, et al., 2007). The instrument (see Table 1.8) combines four higher order key traits as drivers of organisational performance: involvement, consistency, adaptability, and mission (Denison, 1990, p. 15). Denison and Mishra (1995) demonstrated that each of these traits had a significant positive association with subjective and objective measures of organisational effectiveness. They indicate that the highest performing organisations empower their employees (involvement), facilitate coordinated actions and promote consistency of behaviours with core business values (consistency), translate the demands of the organisational environment into action (adaptability), and provide a clear sense of purpose and direction (mission).

Table 1.8:   The culture and effectiveness model

	Change and flexibility	**Stability and direction**
External	Adaptability: • Customers' comments and recommendations often lead to changes in this organisation • This organisation is very responsive and changes easily	Mission: • This company has a long-term purpose and direction • There is a shared vision of what this organisation will be like in the future
Internal	Involvement (of employees): • Most people in this company have input into the decisions that affect them • Cooperation and collaboration across functional roles is actively encouraged	Consistency: • There is a high level of agreement about the way that we do things in this company • Our approach to doing business is very consistent and predictable

Note: Based on Denison (1990)

Whereas change and flexibility allow an organisation to grow in line with the demands of the external market, stability and direction contribute to efficient and productive systems (Denison, et al., 2012). The cultural traits of the DOCS (see Figure 1.2) were levied by combining qualitative and quantitative methods to examine the cultural characteristics of high and low performing organisations (Denison & Mishra, 1995).
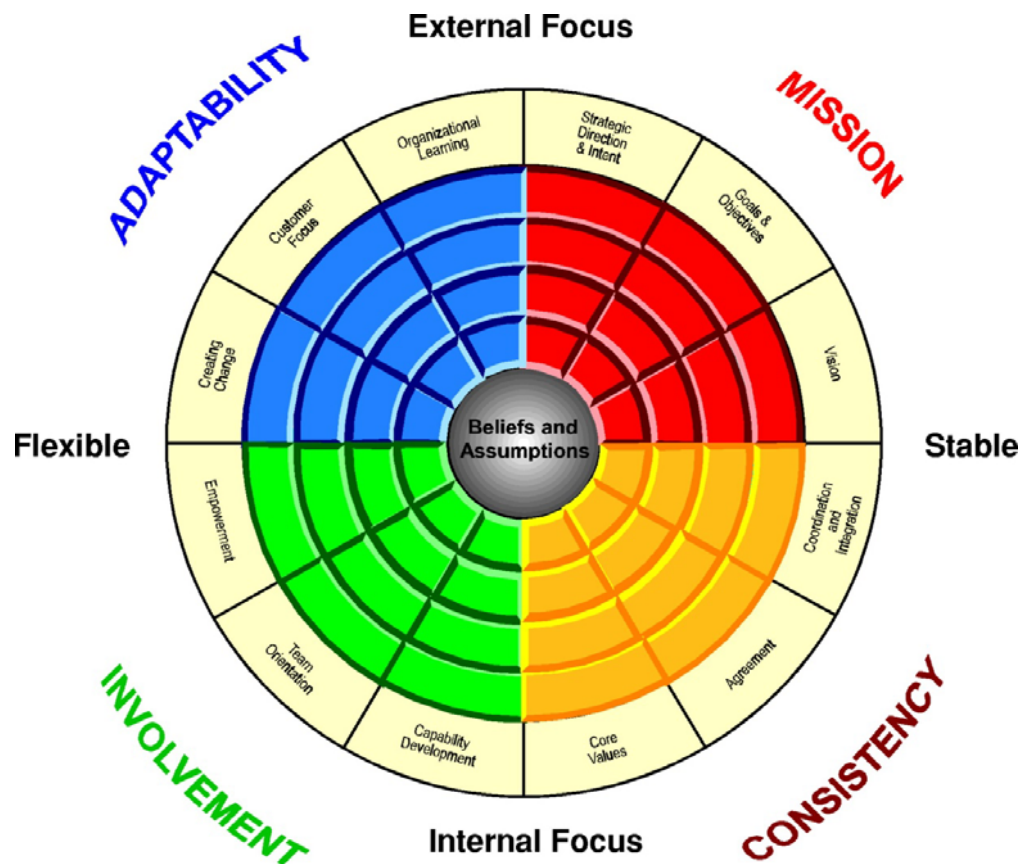
Figure 1.2: Denison Organizational Culture Survey (DOCS)
Note: Reproduced from Denison and Mishra (1995)

The DOCS proposes a nested factor structure, with first-order dimensions specific enough to facilitate clear statements about behavioural norms and values. The higher-order factors are broad enough to allow for conceptual linkages to other theoretical models and instruments (Denison, et al., 2012, p. 10). Respondents rate the 60 questions or 5 items per content area on a five-point Likert scale, with individual surveys

collected and tabulated in a profile where rating scores are converted into percentile scores of 25% each. Recurring use of the DOCS can provide a measure of the organisation's development towards a high-performance culture based on different indices (Sackmann, 2007). The tool permits comparisons between different companies, albeit with the disadvantage of rather superficially recording a specific corporate culture (Sackmann, 2007). The benchmark data encompass 764 organisations, predominately companies from the US, with each organisation weighted equally. The results allow users to gain insight into the correlations between culture and performance, based on profitability, market share, sales growth, innovation, and employee satisfaction, linked to financial key performance indicators (KPIs). The DOCS has been widely used by consulting firms and large multinationals, mainly in the US. Denison Consulting recommends benchmark comparisons against a global benchmark, not least because of its representativeness and robustness (L. Kotrba, personal correspondence, 6 January 2012). Furthermore, research from Denison Consulting seems to have found very few systematic differences by geographical region.

Reliability and validity of the DOCS was tested based on data from 160 privately held companies from different industries and geographic locations that completed the DOCS between 1997 and 2001 (Denison, et al., 2012). The selection process and the underlying rationale of this sample were however not disclosed, so these results are to be taken with a grain of salt. Internal consistency reliability indicated that people using the DOCS perceived moderately to strong relationships between the cultural aspects. Model fit was additionally tested using several indices, and results supported the conceptualisation of the 60 items as representing 12 indices grouping into the four higher-order culture traits. In general, the internally-focused higher order traits involvement and consistency were found to be better predictors of performance, whereas the two externally focused traits adaptability and mission are better predictors

of sales growth (Denison, et al., 2012). Jung, et al. (2007) considered internal consistency, aggregation, and dimensional validity of the DOCS as adequate. Table 1.9 (based on Chan, Shaffer, & Snape, 2004; Denison & Mishra, 1995; Sackmann, 2007) outline strengths and weakness of the DOCS.

Table 1.9:   *Strengths and weaknesses of the Denison Organizational Culture Survey*

Strengths	Weaknesses
• Tool specifically designed to assess organisational culture • The DOCS was designed with the intention of intervention and to link culture to performance measures • User friendly in terms of length and presentation of data • Information about the survey, psychometric properties and link to performance are openly communicated • Available in 37 languages, in electronic and paper-and-pencil versions • Well-established in practice and research	• The model underlying the questionnaire incorporated only members of top management • The normative database is predominately US-based (80% as of 2003), which makes its use and comparison with the benchmark data questionable • The model may not reveal all relevant aspects of a particular corporation's culture

Note: Based on Chan, et al. (2004), Denison and Mishra (1995), and Sackmann (2007)

Swiss Post's former CEO selected the DOCS in 2010, based on a proposal by the International Institute for Management Development (IMD) Business School. Swiss Post used the instrument in its leadership training at IMD with the 60 members of the management boards in the business units. The intention was to serve as a basis for a discussion on leadership competencies, along with the Denison Leadership Development Survey (Th. Meier, personal correspondence, 19 December 2011). In addition to the leadership training, the tool was used in 2010 and 2011 to get a snapshot on Swiss Post's culture. Swiss Post deployed these surveys before the start of the leadership training in September 2010/2011. They were exclusively distributed to

employees in higher management functions, achieving a response rate of 73.3%. Table

1.10 summarises the application of the DOCS at Swiss Post.

Table 1.10: The Denison Organizational Cultural Survey at Swiss Post

Population	Number of people	Selection
Qualified administration staff	150 (15 per business unit) in 2010 and 150 in the year 2011	Randomly based on function, representing required qualifications and hierarchical level in Swiss Post's enterprise resource planning System SAP
Higher management	150 in 2010 and 150 in the year 2011	
Participants of the leadership programmes (members of management boards)	30 in 2010 and 30 in the year 2011	All participants
Total distributed	660 in total (330 in 2010 and 2011)	
Total returned	In 2010: 247, and 237 people in 2011 (484 in total), corresponding to a response rate of 73.3%	

Note: By the researcher

IMD presented the analysis as a written report during the leadership training, and every

member of executive management received the results for the respective business unit.

There were however no collective activities, limiting the initiative's practical

application. The fact that Swiss Post confined this instrument to German and French

speaking managers, excluding blue-collar workers and Italian speaking employees

entirely, presents a significant limitation to culture measurement. Furthermore, the

DOCS was not designed for Swiss Post's specific situation, and it incorporates results

from Swiss Post's different markets (logistics, communications, retail banking, public

transport), rendering such diluted data questionable for cultural exploration at Post CH

Ltd.

Conclusion on the commercial tools COI and DOCS

The COI was not designed to assess organisational culture; it was reviewed neither by Ashkanasy, et al. (2000) nor by Jung, et al. (2009). Furthermore, its use at Post CH Ltd is limited. The DOCS is widely known among managers in the professional world, but the way in which Swiss Post implemented it raises concerns over its usability for cultural measurement. The main limitations in the application of commercial tools for measuring culture at Swiss Post can be summarised as follows:

- Specific measurement of culture is limited to small and biased populations

- A significant proportion of Swiss Post's staff (blue-collar workers, Italian speaking employees) is excluded

- Some of the employees who completed the DOCS considered the questions difficult to understand

- Cost-effectiveness: due to the self-financed nature of this research, deploying a commercial tool for cultural measurement at Post CH Ltd was not possible.

Due to these limitations, the researcher then examined Swiss Post's annual employee survey to see if it could serve as a basis for answering the research questions outlined in section 1.9. Specific questions of the DOCS may have, however, the potential to serve as a basis for the development of the conceptual framework outlined in section 3.8.4.

1.8.2 Employee surveys in general.

Employee surveys are a special form of survey; they are a common source to collect information on an organisation's culture, scoring second after appraisal interviews in Germany (Leitl, Meifert, & Sackmann, 2011a). In preparing such surveys, companies need to distinguish between the values that all employees share (the company's base culture) and the perceptions that employees have of their existing system (Kaplan & Norton, 2004, p. 10). According to Kaplan and Norton (2004), assessment of cultural

readiness relies heavily on employee surveys, serving as an early detection system for top management to perceive changes in staff attitudes (Edwards, Thomas, Rosenfeld, & Booth-Kewley, 1997). Linking results to managerial evaluation and reward (as it is also done at Swiss Post) ensures that employees are treated correctly; in return they treat the customers well and create value in this way (Barney & Wright, 1997). Hartley (2001), in an article about the use of employee survey on organisational change, describes the increasing use of employee surveys as an integral part of an HRM strategy, linked to business strategy in order to influence organisational change. A properly carried-out and communicated survey may trigger organisational change unintentionally (Hartley & Barling, 1998, quoted in Hartley, 2001). Employee surveys however often lack a link to a continuous circle consisting of gaining and analysing information and deducing, implementing, and controlling of subsequent action items and measures (Leitl, Schubert, & Sackmann, 2010). They may be used as a diagnostic device prior to change or to facilitate changes through the feedback of findings and the monitoring of progress towards strategic goals. If an employee survey is seen as a form of consultation with the workforce, then the importance of the way that the survey is carried out, communicated and used is important (Hartley, 2001).

1.8.3   Swiss Post's employee survey (PEU).

Swiss Post's annual employee survey PEU was designed in the 1990s with the objective of measuring employee satisfaction. In its current form, the external company Empiricon mandates the instrument. The PEU collects perceptual data in an internet and a paper-and-pencil version, using a set of 58 positively scaled questions. It is the only tool at Swiss Post that provides management with a full insight into the employees' states of mind; however, it was designed neither to gain scientific insight nor to measure corporate culture. The PEU uses a six-point Likert scale, allowing proper

descriptiveness and selectivity between the scale items; the scale also incorporates a seventh "unable to judge" category. In 2012, the instrument was conducted in 19 countries. Despite voluntary participation (but strongly supported by management), the response rate at Swiss Post was 75.2%. Data protection and anonymity are respected at all times, and no conclusions can be drawn about individuals. Repeated assessments of the PEU values are made, and potential changes can be evaluated.

Questions 1 to 46 of the PEU belong to the 15 dimensions (independent variables) describing the organisational environment and represent the PEU's core model. The additional dimensions customer orientation, image, and employee satisfaction are calculated as well, but are considered as additional information and are not used in the core model or for any further analysis. Figure 1.3 outlines the model. Appendix V shows the factsheet for employee information; the PEU questionnaire is given in Appendix VI, while the overview of the dimensions can be found in Appendix VII.
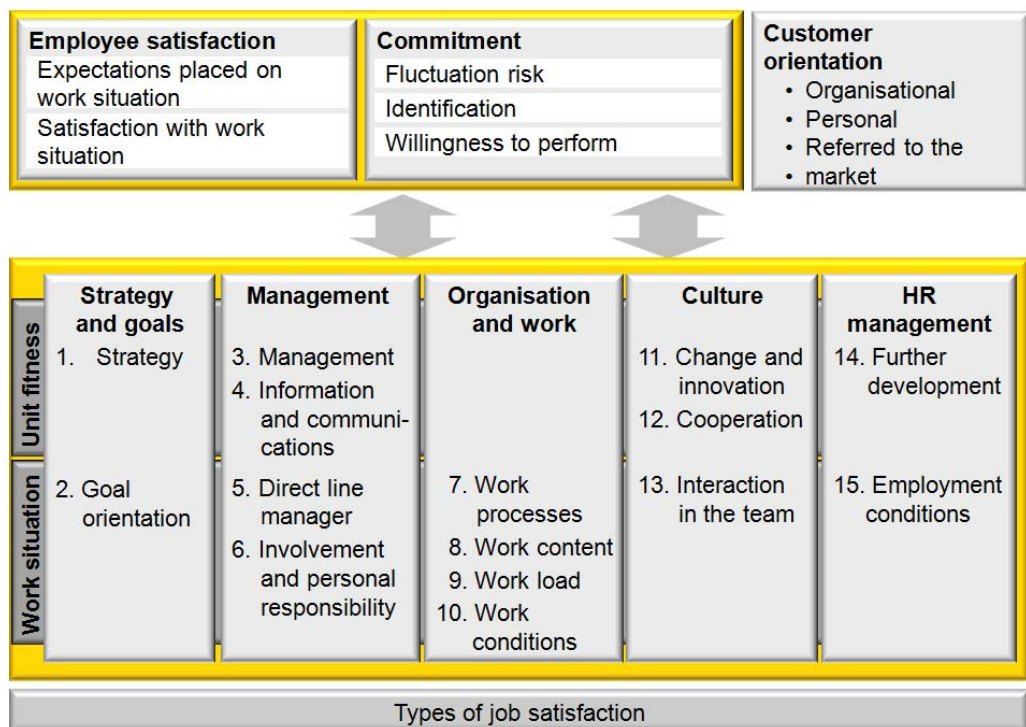
Figure 1.3: Model of Swiss Post's employee survey (PEU)

Note: Based on an internal presentation of Swiss Post (2012)

The PEU uses univariate statistics such as arithmetic mean, median, modus, and measures of scale such as standard distribution and variance for the analysis. A central aspect however are causal statistical models based on multivariate methods, which analyse causalities between variables. Linear regressions are used for the analysis, which better account for quality of data, especially when confronted with missing responses (Empiricon, 2008). Empiricon (2008) considers multiple, linear regression analysis to be the most user-friendly method in calculating factors contributing to the work situation. For demonstrating which variable affects a specific index or dimension to a certain degree, Empiricon uses the least squares method, considered suitable with a relatively large number of questions or variables correlating with each other. Furthermore, it presents a good measure of discrepancy in many situations (Hand, 2008, p. 79). In the next step, Empiricon measures the influence on the target variable using multiple regression analysis. In the last stage, Empiricon uses non-parametric mean comparison tests such as the Mann Whitney U test or variance analyses to work out differences between specific groups of employees.

Edgar Matter (Empiricon, personal communications, 18 April 2012) argues against the use of structural equation modelling, as he considers the method as not being sufficiently practice-oriented due to the finely chiselled number frame and because it has high demands in terms of integrity and distribution of data. This is especially a problem in the PEU's paper-and-pencil version. Structural equation modelling is sensitive to missing or incomplete data, which is often seen in the paper-and-pencil questionnaires. Furthermore, the theoretical model of structural equation modelling with all latent factors and their operationalisation with a large number of verified indicators does not conform to the needs of employee surveys (Empiricon, 2008).

Sampling in Swiss Post's PEU.

Swiss Post's employee survey allows data analysis according to the following variables:

- Business units

- Function families (e.g., all functions in logistics, finance, HR, or sales)

- Staff versus management functions.

Representative sampling utilising Post CH Ltd's group units could be particularly interesting if subcultures are suspected, following Martin's (1992, quoted in Yauch & Steudel, 2003) integration perspective.

Validity and reliability in the PEU.

According to several meetings and mail exchanges (E. Matter, personal communications, 17 February 2011 to 12 March 2013), Empiricon considered the following as minimum standards for modelling the instrument:

- The theoretical foundation of the model

- The reliability of quality factors from the index engagement (commitment)

- Validity

- Contribution of the quality factors in the model for explaining variance of the index engagement (commitment).

Empiricon tested the underlying model and quality factors using reliability analysis with Cronbach's α and item selectivity to examine if cutting out questions further enhances a dimension's reliability. Empiricon then conducted statistical validation based on a survey of 325 employees. In addition, workshops led by Empiricon to check comprehensibility and translation were conducted with a sample of 15 German speaking probands, before applying the questionnaire in group interviews. In a second phase, translations were checked in small groups of five to eight bilingual probands for correctness and consistency, with the assistance of a professional translator. The

practice used by Empiricon is that respondents must fill out at least half of the questions in the PEU if the questionnaire is to be included in the analysis; values in the "unable to judge" scale hereby do not count. Incomplete questionnaires are included in the gross return quota, whereas the net return quota only contains questionnaires subject to further analysis.

Strengths and weaknesses.

Table 1.11 summarises strengths and weakness of the PEU for cultural measurement.

Table 1.11: Strengths and weaknesses of Swiss Post's employee survey PEU

Strength	Weaknesses
• Dimensions and questions are specific to Swiss Post	• The employee survey was not designed to measure corporate culture
• Possibility for longitudinal comparisons	• Difficulty in getting permission for additional questions
• Reliable and validated tool	• Annual rollout of the PEU does not conform to the time planning of this research

Note: By the researcher

The PEU would allow the inclusion of additional questions on a nonrecurring base; Swiss Post's top management however usually refuses adaptations of the PEU. Furthermore, the PEU's annual deployment from May to June did not conform to the time scale of this research, so it was not possible to adapt the PEU for measuring corporate culture. However, some PEU items could serve as a basis for cultural measurement at Swiss Post.

1.8.4   Conclusion on cultural assessment at Swiss Post.

The researcher concludes that the current measurement of corporate culture at Swiss Post has serious limitations. The tools used are either not suitable to measure culture (COI), were not purposefully designed as such (PEU), or exclude a significant

proportion of the organisation (DOCS). None of the tools takes the organisation's specific core values and strategy into account. Furthermore, the data available do not recognise potential cultural differences between Swiss Post's different industries. Finally and importantly, data are not analysed for providing an overarching picture of Post CH Ltd's culture. The researcher therefore does not consider the current instruments as suitable to answer the research questions outlined in the next section.

1.9   Research questions

The research questions are affected by different factors: by the field of study, by the researcher's experience, and by the stakeholders (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Lowe, 2002). A further aspect may be the ontological position, so the researcher adapted Easterby-Smith, et al.'s (2002, p. 60) model accordingly (see Figure 1.4).
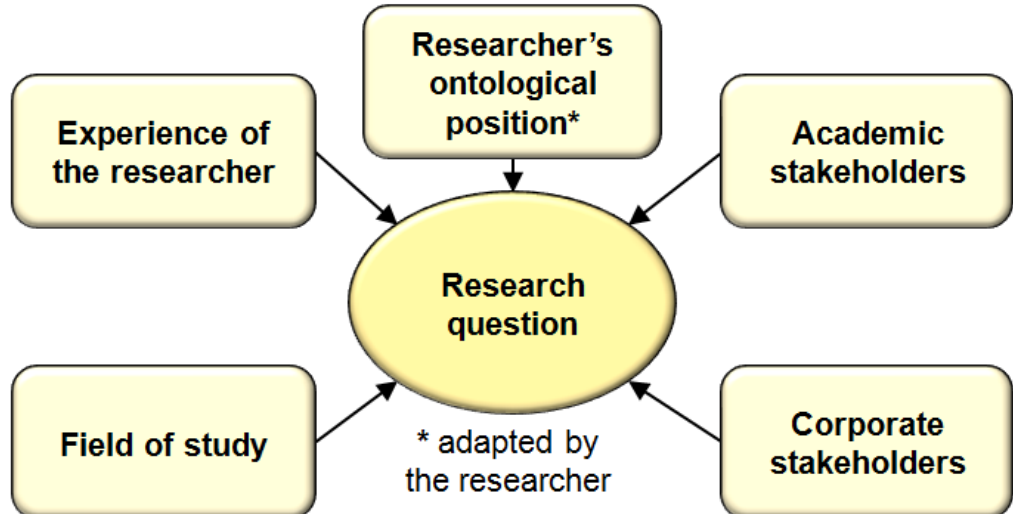
Figure 1.4: Influencing factors on the research question

Note: Based on Easterby-Smith, et al. (2002)

In the field of corporate culture, the literature review revealed a lack of literature in at least two areas, as outlined later in section 2.16. These gaps led to the formulation of the

research questions and research objectives. As the research population encompasses employees from Post CH Ltd, the research questions refer to this corporation.

- First: How do the board of directors and executive management define intended corporate culture of Post CH Ltd?

- Second: What is Post CH Ltd's current corporate culture?

- Third: What is the extent of the alignment between the intended and current corporate culture of Post CH Ltd?

- Fourth: How can any potential divergence between intended and current corporate culture be mitigated?

The response to these research questions will then represent a contribution to a better understanding of the concept of corporate culture.

1.10   Research objectives

The research objectives can be summarised as follows:

- First: To explore how top management, consisting of the board of directors and executive management, define Post CH Ltd's intended corporate culture

- Second: To explore how employees, based on a statistically relevant sample of all ranks, perceive current corporate culture of Post CH Ltd

- Third: To identify the alignment between intended and current corporate culture of Post CH Ltd

- Fourth: To identify measures that could mitigate potential divergence between intended and current corporate culture at Post CH Ltd.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review provides insight in the definitions and concepts, history and current stage of research on corporate culture, its functions, the importance of the concept and strategies to shape it. The literature review for this research:

- Provided an understanding of the many cultural definitions and concepts

- Outlined the history and the development of the concept of corporate culture

- Revealed the strengths and weaknesses of cultural concepts

- Gave insight into the ideas of main proponents of corporate and organisational culture

- Outlined potentially relevant dimensions of culture, thereby narrowing this research

- Served as a base for the development of the research questions.

2.1 The historic research on culture in organisations

This section outlines the development of the research on culture in organisations.

2.1.1 Prior to the 1980s.

Research on the understanding of cultures in organisations started in the late 1930s, when Lewin, et al. (1939, quoted in Vickers, 2008) identified different styles of leadership. With Jaques' ethnographic definition of culture in a factory (1951, quoted in Denison, 1990, p. 28), the word "culture" entered the management literature for the first time (Hofstede, 2001, p. 392). The "comparative systems of management" described by Harbison and Myers (1959, quoted in Lattmann, 1990) can be seen as the precursors on the subject of comparative culture relations. The term "organisational culture" itself however is a relatively recent addition, as it entered the English academic literature only in the late seventies in Pettigrew's (1979) article *On studying organizational cultures*,

which approached the creation of organisational culture through the concepts of symbol, language, ideology, belief, ritual, and myth (Hofstede, Neuijen, Daval Ohayv, & Sanders, 1990; Lee & Yu, 2004). Organisational culture had attracted "only sporadic interest before the late 1970s" (Barley, Meyer, & Gash, 1988, p. 32).

2.1.2   1980s onwards.

The idea that business organisations are exposed to culture was beginning to be recognised in the eighties. A cover story in *Business Week* (1980), the bestsellers from Peters and Waterman (1982), Deal and Kennedy (1982), and a section in the *Fortune Magazine* (Uttal, 1983) were forerunners of the discussions on corporate culture, which took the business and academic world by storm and created a small industry in the process (Denison, 1990, p. 21). With the exception of Schein (1981, quoted in Barley, et al., 1988), the first batch of publications was through the writings of consultants and applied researchers who published their ideas primarily for an audience of managers and other practitioners (Barley, et al., 1988, p. 31). Despite criticism relating to their academic rigour, these publications sparked a revolution in cultural research (Jung, et al., 2007). Culture as an integral managerial concept attracted attention from managers, consultants and academics in the western hemisphere (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982). Afterwards, it gained a wider interest (Hofstede, et al., 1990) in a relatively short period of time by both the academic and managerial communities (Barley, et al., 1988). Sathe and Davidson (2000) argued that the interest in culture change was the dramatic increase in competition worldwide, often fuelled by government deregulation (especially the weakening of protectionist trade policy) and increases in international trade. In the 1980s, the dominant concept of organisational culture focused on the notion of shared meaning, and in the 1990s on representational fragmentation control and resistance (Linstead, 2011).

2.1.3 Current situation.

The field of organisational culture is still growing and developing (Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson, 2011). According to the EBSCO Discovery Service (2013), the concept of organisational and corporate culture (the terms are explained in detail in section 2.2) still attracts a considerable amount of research, although the cultural discussion has been going on for decades (see Table 2.1). The number of articles for the terms "corporate culture", "organisational culture", and "organizational culture" have globally more than doubled since 2000 in peer-reviewed scholarly journals. The debate, critique, or strong positioning around culture has however somehow abated (Alvesson, 2011).

Table 2.1:   Number of references in peer-reviewed scholarly journals on keywords corporate culture and organisational culture

Year	Corporate culture	Organisational Culture
2000	274	257
2001	256	247
2002	271	284
2003	391	399
2004	506	543
2005	565	597
2006	520	559
2007	554	625
2008	690	765
2009	667	739
2010	675	746
2011	682	719
2012	720	746
Average	521	556

Note: By the researcher

For the first decade of the twenty-first century, the one thing symbolising this period is "change" (Ashkanasy, et al., 2011, p. 8). In recent developments, the role of organisational culture has partly been taken over in academia by the newer concepts of organisational discourse and organisational identity (Alvesson, 2011). This author

(2011, p. 12) however questions if some work framed under this discourse on identity labels offers anything novel, or whether these are merely relabeling organisational culture work, as cultural terms sometimes seem to be used at random (2011, p. 24). Up to this day, no conceptually rigorous model has yet been published that successfully addresses the multilevel nature of culture (Ashkanasy, et al., 2011, p. 6).

2.2 Definitions of cultural terms

Figure 2.1 depicts the researcher's understanding of the relationship between national, organisational, and corporate culture, based on the literature. This section provides an overview of different definitions on terms related to culture, with a conclusion of the cultural definitions in section 2.2.7.
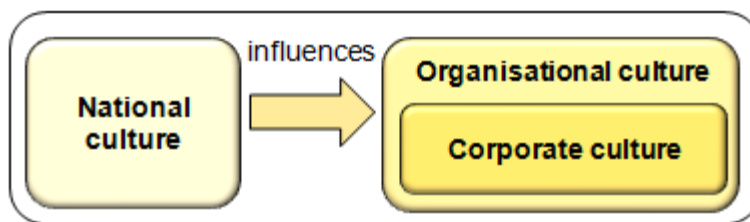
Figure 2.1: Delineation of cultural terms

Note: By the researcher

2.2.1 Definition of culture in general.

It is hardly possible to appoint the correct definition of the term culture, especially as it has a number of different meanings in English, German and French (Hofstede, 2001, p. 107). The concept of the word culture goes back to the Latin word "cultura"; it stems from the word "colere", meaning "to cultivate" (Harper, 2010; Tyrrell, 2000). An early classification of culture stems from Osgood (1951); his classification of cultural

elements (see Table 2.2) shares some traits with Schein's concepts outlined later in this section.

Table 2.2: *Classification of culture*

Perceptible layer Perceptas (perceptum)	**Non-perceptible layer** Konzeptas (conceptum)
Tangible, observable expressions, verifiable by observation. Examples: Architecture, artefacts, clothing, language and other elements of a social culture	Non-tangible assets not recognisable by outsiders. Example: Ideas in the minds of human beings conceivable as objects of thoughts

Note: Based on Osgood (1951)

Going back as far as 1952, there were at least 164 definitions of culture stemming from anthropology (Ernst, 2003; Gordon & DiTomaso, 1992). Smircich (1983) and Sackmann (2007) also draw on the origin of the concept of culture from anthropology, where there is, according to Barley, et al. (1988), no consensus on its meaning. Hofstede however counters by a "well-known anthropological consensus definition" of culture as follows:

> Culture consists in patterned ways of thinking, feeling and reacting,
>
> acquired and transmitted mainly by symbols, constituting the distinctive
>
> achievements of human groups, including their embodiments in artifacts;
>
> the essential core of culture consist of traditional (i.e., historically derived
>
> and selected) ideas and especially their attached values (Kluckhohn, 1951,
>
> p. 86, quoted in Hofstede, 2001, p. 9)

Anthropologists use the term "culture" either for the ability of humans to generate symbols and artifacts or the specific interface structures of particular groups (Tyrrell, 2000). Hofstede (2001, pp. 9-10) treats culture as "the collective programming of the mind, which distinguishes members of one group or people from another" and states

that the word "culture" is usually objectified as "nations or as ethic or regional groups within or across nations".

The least common denominator in most generic definitions of culture seems to be a system of shared values or beliefs (Gordon & DiTomaso, 1992). For culture in general, it can also be said that individuals are often not consciously aware of their culture because it is familiar, taken for granted, and appears unshakably real (Krefting & Frost, 1985).

2.2.2   Organisational culture.

Organisational culture is located in the body of the research that focuses on how people act within organisations (Jung, et al., 2007); Pettigrew (1979) appears to be the first to have coined the term. Organisational culture serves to mobilise, allocate and leverage resources in achieving company goals through values, ritual, behaviours, management systems, decision criteria, and visionary planning (Barney, 1986). The term does not exactly describe the same phenomena as "corporate culture"; the former corresponds to cultures of organisations of any kind and has a broader spectrum of definitions, whereas "corporate culture" is focused on culture of economically driven corporations. Every corporation is an organisation, whereas the *argumentum e contrario* is not true. Non-governmental organisations (NGOs) or religious institutions, for example, are organisations, but not corporations. Organisational culture is therefore broader than corporate culture. The terms are however very often used interchangeably in the literature, for example by Hofstede (2001, p. 393), who holds the view that "organisational culture or corporate culture are constructs without consensus on their definition", a construct defined as: "A product of our imagination, supposed to help our understanding" (Hofstede, 2001, p. 2). Armstrong (2006, p. 303) also sees organisational and corporate culture as congruent terms: "Organisational culture or

corporate culture is the pattern of values, norms, beliefs, attitudes and assumptions that may not have been articulated but shape the ways in which people behave and things get done". Schein (1983, p. 14) defines organisational culture as: "The pattern of basic assumptions a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration". Smircich (1983) describes organisational culture in terms of shared meanings, patterns of beliefs, symbols, rituals and myths that evolve across time and function as social glue. This author deconstructed the term in its constituent parts, "culture" and "organisation", whereby "culture" stems from anthropology and "organisation" from organisation theory. Denison (1990, p. 2) refers to the underlying values, beliefs, and principles that serve as a foundation for an organisation's management system, highlighting the relationship between culture, management practices and performance effectiveness, whereas van den Berg and Wilderom (2004), based on quantitative studies, define organisational culture as shared perceptions of organisational work practices within organisational units. Xenikou and Furnham (1996) argue that definitions of organisational culture either focus on values or on behavioural norms. Organisational culture is therefore far from having a universal concept; van der Post, de Coning, and Smit (1997) found over 100 dimensions with the concept, and there is little agreement on the meaning of either of the underlying concepts of "organisation" and "culture". Given the various definitions of organisational culture, consensus may never be reached (Hofstede, 2001), although some researchers consider it as desirable (Hansen & Wernerfelt, 1989), as opposed to Sackmann (1991), who questions the desirability to strive for a single, all-encompassing definition and operationalisation of culture. According to Ruigrok and Achtenhagen (1999, p. 522), many authors agree that organisational culture refers to: "A set of values, norms, and patterns that is shared by people in an organization and that direct people into specific patterns of performance

enhancing or problem solving". This explicit connection of culture with performance

and problem solving seems especially relevant for culture in corporations.

For Schein (2001), the best model of culture is one that thinks of it as existing at several

levels. Schein is, together with Hofstede (1980), one of the most cited authors in the

field of cultural studies (Google Scholar, 2012) and probably among the most influential

ones. Due to the contributions of Schein and Hofstede in the understanding of the nature

of culture, the researcher outlined their cultural concepts in the following sections.

Schein's level of culture.

Schein (1991) describes how the complex concept of culture can be used by managers

to better understand the dynamics of an organisation and also to initiate interventions

(Sackmann, 2007). Schein (1991) points out the role of leaders when it comes to

applying the principles of corporate culture to achieving an organisation's objectives

and understanding organisational culture as a process of adaptation to the diversity of

organisational contents and their integration in this reality. Figure 2.2 depicts the

phenomenon of organisational culture as an interaction between interrelated cultural

levels (Schein, 1991).
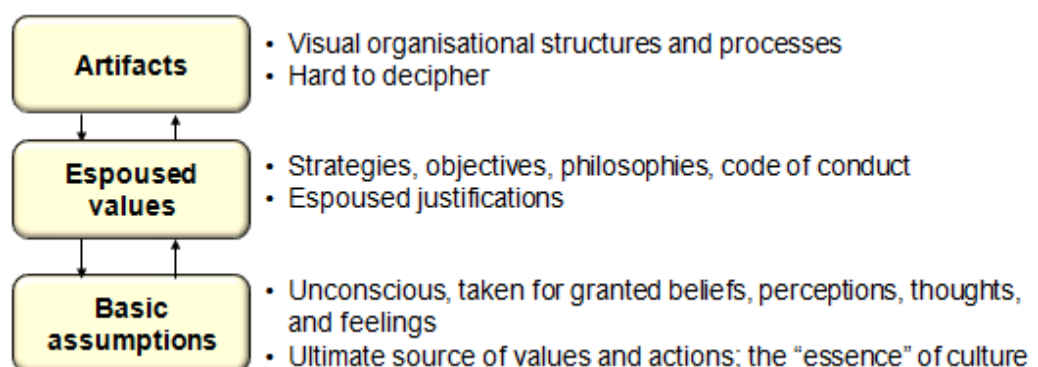
Figure 2.2 Levels of culture

Note: Based on Schein (1991)

On the first layer, culture is evident in created objects and artefacts; this encompasses tangible, visible, or audible things such as buildings, decor, logos, physical products, stories, speeches, interactions, rites, and rituals. Sackmann (1991) however cautions against drawing conclusions without knowing the specific meanings attributed to visible cues by giving an example from anthropology, where Mayan and Egyptian pyramids served completely different purposes.

On the second layer lie the collective values of the organisation's members, which have a significant impact on attitudes. Imposed values have, according to Schein (1991), a lesser impact on the behaviour than self-imposed, internalised moral concepts.

The third level, the "essence" of culture, incorporates the basic assumptions or underlying principles of the members of an organisation. Such assumptions are normally taken for granted and have a long-term, binding influence. They are neither visible nor consciously perceived. Schein (1991) attributes importance to basic assumptions for the understanding of organisational culture followed by values. The decoding of the embedded underlying principles is important to Schein, whose model is based on anthropologist researchers (Sackmann, 2007). In contrast, Hofstede's (2001) research suggest that values are part of the larger societal culture, whereas collective practices determine organisational culture (Sackmann, 2007, p. 130). Despite criticism, such as not addressing the active role of assumptions and beliefs in forming and changing culture (Hatch, 1993, quoted in Martins & Terblanche, 2003, p. 66), Schein's model (1991) gained widespread acceptance and is still one of the most cited concepts of organisational culture (Google Scholar, 2012).

Schein's ideas and descriptions of different layers of culture formulated in 1985 still occupy an important position, have received widespread acceptance and have seen numerous adaptations (Sackmann, 2007).

2.2.3   Corporate culture.

The concept of corporate culture has a varied history in a number of disciplines (Tyrrell, 2000). Montana and Charnov define it as follows:

> An important aspect . . . of a company is corporate culture, the total sum of
>
> the values, customs, traditions, and meaning that make a company unique. It
>
> is also often called the character of an organization . . . Corporate culture
>
> embodies the vision of the company founders and the early heroes of the
>
> business enterprise (2008, p. 83)

Moreover, Hill and Jones state that:

> Corporate culture is the specific collection of values and norms that are
>
> shared by people and groups in an organisation and that control the way
>
> they interact with each other and with stakeholders outside the organisation
>
> (2009, p. 381)

According to Denison (1984), most authors agree that corporate culture refers to the set of values, beliefs, and behaviour patterns that form the core identity of an organisation. Uttal (1983, p. 66) views corporate culture as: "A system of shared values and beliefs that interact with a company's people, organisational structures, and control systems to produce behavioural norms". A straightforward definition is given as: "Corporate culture is the personality of a company" (Mahrokian, Chan, Mangkornkanok, & Lee, 2010, p. 14). Most definitions seem to share the notion of something shared (values are particularly mentioned here) and a reference to organisational or corporate culture as being unique and distinctive. Some experts however follow other paths; Jost (2003) considers the multitude of definitions as impracticable and defines corporate culture simply as: "The sum of stories told in a company".

It is obvious that this plurality makes it hard to select one definition, especially as the definition of corporate culture may differ heavily from a researcher's view of culture

(Alvesson, 2011). When it comes to the selection of a specific definition for a study, a researcher has to be conscious of his/her ontological position. As the author of this research views corporate culture as something that is changeable or is at least subject to influence, any adequate definition must imply the adaptability of the cultural concept to guide behaviour in a corporation.

2.2.4   National culture.

In contrast to the many definitions of "culture", fewer definitions of national culture seem to exist. The most-cited study on national culture (Google Scholar, 2012) was conducted by Hofstede (1980, 1984).

Hofstede's model of cultural classification.

Hofstede's legacy can be ascribed to his landmark study on the differences between national cultures. Hofstede conducted the study among International Business Machines (IBM) employees in 64 countries in the 1960s and 1970s. Comparative research across organisations until that time had been very rare, and the cross-national project published with the first edition of *Culture's consequences* (1980) set out to move into the field to contribute to filling the research gap. According to Hofstede (2001), people's thoughts and actions are guided by the categories defined in his study. Hofstede takes the view that nationally influenced cultural values do not inevitably form practices of an organisation in a decisive fashion, and that organisational practices may override these values. Hofstede then distinguished national from organisational cultures by allocating national cultures to anthropology and organisational cultures to sociology. The data originally validated four dimensions to uncover differences in national culture, with the fifth dimension added later (Hofstede & Peterson, 2000). Hofstede's (2001) studies revealed that employees in the same national context share similar attitudes towards his

cultural dimensions listed in Table 2.3; differences can only arise between different national contexts.

Table 2.3: *Hofstede's cultural dimensions*

Dimension	Explanation of the cultural dimension
Power distance	The extent to which the less powerful members in a society accept and expect that power is distributed unequally
Individualism versus collectivism	Explains the extent to which either groups or individuals are valued more highly
Masculinity versus femininity	This dimension refers to the distribution of roles between the genders, which is another fundamental issue in any society or organisation. The valuation of assertive, "masculine" hard factors (e.g., success, materialism, power) versus modest, "feminine" soft factors (e.g., concern for others, nurture and care)
Uncertainty avoidance	Deals with a society's tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity; it indicates to what extent members of a group feel uncomfortable/comfortable in unstructured situations
Long-term versus short-term orientation	Hofstede later added this fifth dimension in the continuing studies. Values associated with long-term orientation are thrift and perseverance; values associated with short-term orientation are respect for tradition, fulfilling social obligations and protecting one's "face"

Note: Based on Hofstede (2001)

Paradoxically, the cross-national IBM study did not supply systematic information on IBM's organisational culture, as there had been no comparison with organisations outside IBM in the countries studied (Hofstede, 2001). Despite its influence, the study harvested mixed reviews, which Hofstede attempted to refute in the second edition of *Culture's consequences* (2001, p. 73), as outlined in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4: *Critics on Hofstede's cultural dimensions*

Critics	Hofstede's vindications
Surveys are not a suitable way of measuring cultural differences	They should not be the only way
Nations are not the best units for studying cultures	True, but they are usually the only kinds of units for comparison

(continued)

Critics	Hofstede's vindications
A study of the subsidiaries of one company cannot provide information about national cultures	What were measured were differences between national cultures. Any set from national populations can supply information about such differences
The IBM data are obsolete	The dimensions found are assumed to have centuries-old roots. Only data that remained stable across two subsequent surveys were maintained
Four (1984) or five (2001) dimensions are not enough	Additional dimensions should be both conceptually and statistically independent from the five dimensions already defined. They should be validated by significant correlations with conceptually related external measures

Note: Based on Hofstede (2001)

Following his influential IBM-study, Hofstede conducted a case study encompassing 10 different organisations with a total of 20 units in the Netherlands and Denmark (Hofstede, et al., 1990). The units employed 60 to 2,500 people and belonged to private manufacturing and service companies, or public agencies. Unlike the IBM study, this study was designed from scratch, with an attempt to make it methodologically perfect (Hofstede, 2001). It incorporated in-depth interviews, a survey, and the collection of contextual data. The study identified six dimensions of practices specific to corporate culture, which are entirely different from the five dimensions of national culture and are much less quoted than his previous IBM-study. A possible explanation could be that the IBM-study just outshone the later study in popularity.

2.2.5   National culture and corporate culture compared.

National culture and organisational culture are two different things, but it is not always clear how they differ (Ruigrok & Achtenhagen, 1999). Hofstede (2001, p. 71) draws the line from national culture as: "The collective mental programming of otherwise similar persons from different nations" to organisational culture as: "The collective mental programming of otherwise similar persons from different organizations". This author

responded in an interview (Harss, 2010, p. 14) that national culture and corporate culture are different aspects: "National culture deals with values, organizational culture with practices". Hofstede hereby acknowledged earlier findings, by arguing that national and organisational culture differ in two important dimensions: values and practices. While the former is acquired in early youth, practices are acquired through socialisation at the workplace, which renders dimensional approaches focusing on values in an organisational culture context to be of little benefit, although Hofstede and Peterson (2000, p. 405) argue that: "National culture and organizational culture will have some relationship". Hofstede argues that organisational cultures are distinct from national cultures and complement each other, purporting the view that national culture goes deeper, as people are born and raised in a nation (Harss, 2010).

Whereas some view national culture as having a stronger impact on staff than organisational culture, others oppose this view and report significant differences in organisational culture within the same national context. Denison (quoted in Sackmann, 2007, p. 62) reports that the variance between national and regional data is much smaller than between organisations. Schein (2001) holds a similar view by concluding that aspiring organisational cultures are powerful enough to affect and partly override elements of national culture. Hilb (2000) has a competing view to the aforementioned authors on the relationship between corporate culture and national culture; this author sees corporate culture as being embedded in national culture (see Figure 2.3). It remains open if other (e.g., religious or familial) influences could further complete this view.
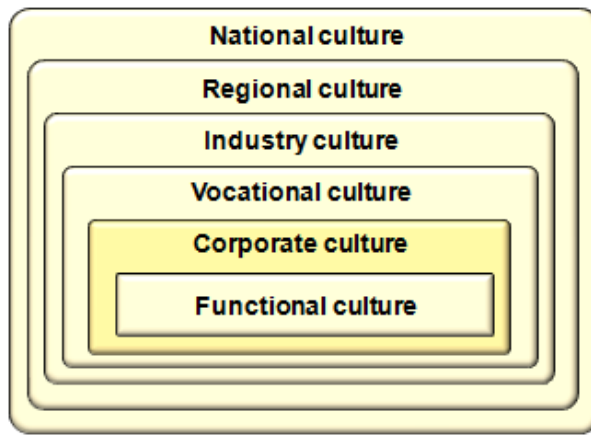
Figure 2.3: Multiple value stimuli for employees

Note: Reproduced from Hilb (2000)

Hilb's view (2000) is in line with Sagiv, Schwartz, and Arieli (2011), who argue that organisational cultures tend to develop and evolve in ways compatible with the respective national culture, and that many researchers recognise national culture to have an important influence on organisations. Western Europe tends to attribute on average higher importance to openness and self-transcendence values, compared to other world regions (Sagiv, et al., 2011, p. 532). In an attempt to combine the different views on the relationship between national and corporate culture, Simmel (1992), a sociologist, argues for an intertwined relationship between "nation" and "organisation". This concept (see Figure 2.4) acknowledges the interdependencies between national and corporate culture, without making a claim about which concept is stronger.
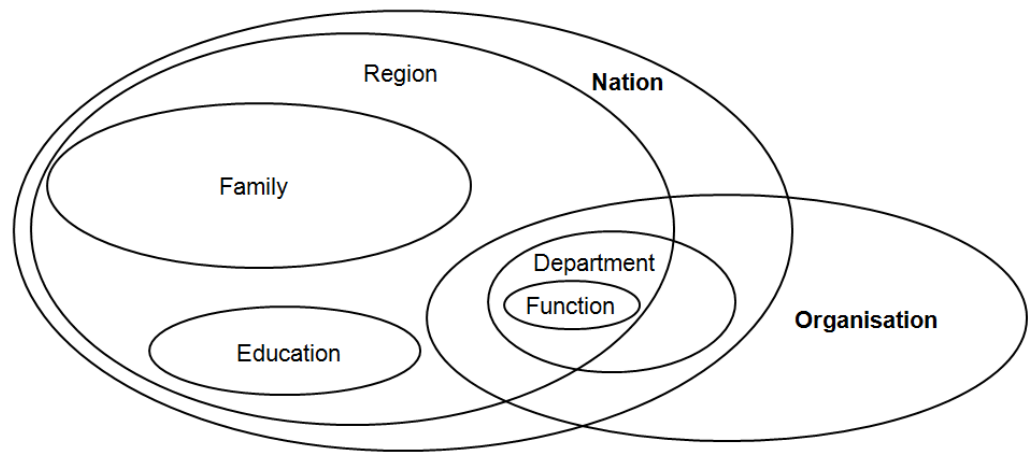
Figure 2.4: Membership in groups and subgroups

Note: Reproduced from Simmel (1992)

2.2.6   Corporate culture and corporate climate.

At the beginning of the evolution of the culture perspective, there was a clear distinction between culture and "climate": studying culture required qualitative research methods, whereas studying climate referred to quantitative methods (Denison, 1996; Jung, et al., 2009; Xenikou & Furnham, 1996). Around the same time that many of the problems of climate researchers were resolved, organisational culture emerged as an alternative construct to conceptualise culture and has been dominating the research literature ever since (Schneider & Bowen, 2000, p. 25), bringing "climate" as a research topic to the brink of extinction (Alvesson, 2011). This is demonstrated by the number of citations on corporate climate, organisational climate and organizational climate. Applying the same criteria as defined in Table 2.1 for the terms corporate culture, organisational culture, and organizational culture, the average annual number of articles in peer-reviewed journals was significantly lower. However, the researcher noticed a revived interest in corporate climate, based on the results from EBSCO Discovery Service (2013) depicted in Table 2.5. This backs up the increased research interest in organisational climate,

which has (although from a very modest starting point) increased since 2000, relative to the 1990s (Schneider, Ehrhard, & Macey, 2011).

Table 2.5: *Number of references in peer-reviewed scholarly journals*

Year	Corporate climate	Organisational climate
2000	0	12
2001	2	10
2002	2	17
2003	0	18
2004	1	28
2005	5	23
2006	0	30
2007	4	35
2008	1	47
2009	2	57
2010	4	85
2011	2	71
2012	0	92
Average	2	40

Note: By the researcher

Culture can be considered to be a more encompassing and global concept, whereas climate can be perceived as an index rather than a causative factor in the operation of a company (Jung, et al., 2009). The concept of culture stems from anthropology (Hofstede, 2001; Kaplan & Norton, 2004; Smircich, 1983), whereas the concept of climate has its roots in social psychology, grounded in the philosophy of Kurt Lewin (1951, quoted in Schneider & Bowen, 2000), who was the door opener for a psychological understanding of organisations. Ashkanasy, et al. (2011, p. 4) define climate at the psychological group level as: "Configurations of attitudes and perceptions by organization members that, in combination, reflect a substantial part of the context of which they are a part and within which they work", concluding that culture refers to "understanding" systems of meaning, values, and actions that characterise societies.

According to Schein (2011, p. xii), a climate can be locally created by the actions of leaders, what circumstances apply, and what the environment affords; culture, on the other hand, can only evolve out of mutual experience and shared learning. Glick (1985, p. 612, quoted in Xenikou & Furnham, 1996, p. 349) argues that "climate research tends to be nomothetic, using quantitative techniques to describe phenomena while culture research is primarily idiographic, employing qualitative methods to explain dynamic processes". Culture refers to the deep structure of organisations rooted in the values, beliefs, and assumptions held by organisational members, while climate portrays an environment to be rooted in the organisation's values system (Denison, 1996). Quantitative, comparative, and Lewinian approaches formerly associated with climate research are applied by culture researchers, whereas evolutions in social contexts are studied by climate researchers from a social constructivist point of view formerly associated with qualitative cultural research (Denison, 1996; Payne, 2000). The critique of positivism, which was central to the evolution of culture research, may have contributed to the rejection of earlier quantitative climate research (Denison, 1996), although the differences between culture and climate have, according to Denison (1996), abated since (see Table 2.6).

Table 2.6: A comparison of culture and climate

Focus	**Culture**	**Climate**
Epistemology	Contextualist	Nomothetic/comparative
Point of view	Natives'	Researcher's
Methodology	Qualitative	Quantitative
Concern	Values and assumptions	Consensus of perceptions
Theoretical foundations	Social construction/ critical theory	Behaviour as a function of personality and environment
Discipline	Anthropology	Psychology

Note: Based on Denison (1996)

The idea of using climate-like concepts to measure culture dates back to the end of the 1980s, where Siehl and Martin (1988, quoted in Payne, 2000, pp. 163-164) demonstrated that quantitative approaches can be used to assess cultural concepts. Hofstede (2001) for example explicitly referred to culture, although using a quantitative approach. Payne (2000) argues that climate could be seen as a way of measuring culture. Denison (1990) perceives the debate over organisational culture and climate to be mainly an example of philosophical differences obscuring a basic similarity, given that both concepts focus on organisation-level behavioural characteristics, cover a wide range of phenomena, and share a similar problem. Van den Berg and Wilderom (2004) and Denison (1996) discovered many similarities and areas of convergence, which are not least manifested by comparing well-known definitions of organisational climate and culture. Additionally, as exemplified by Denison (1996), several researchers were asking very similar questions, but attributing them differently to either organisational culture or organisational climate. Denison (1996, p. 645) sees differences mainly in interpretation rather than differences in the phenomenon, and that the tradition of organisational climate can be neglected. Based on the comparatively lower significance of climate compared to culture, the researcher does not differentiate these terms further in this research.

2.2.7   Definitions concluded.

An all-embracing definition of the cultural concept that is accepted by researchers from different standpoints does not exist. The definitions are subject to criticism; the notion of "shared" for example leaves the questions of how much actually is shared (Schneider & Bowen, 2000). Sackmann (1991) made the point that if Ajiferuke and Boddewin's notion (1970, quoted in Sackmann, 1991, p. 296) that: "Culture is one of those terms that defy a single all-purpose definition" is accepted, then choice of research methods

should be guided by a researcher's particular interest in a given study. The terms corporate culture and organisational culture are often used alternately; this interchangeability of terms in the literature raises problems for this research. From this point forward, the original terms as used by authors will be respected when citing literature. However, as the researcher collected data in a commercial organisation, the author of this research subsequently uses the term corporate culture.

2.3 Paradigms

The concept of paradigms, a term referring to patterns of declension and conjugation (Eckberg & Hill, 1979) has been used to describe distinct concepts in linguistics and science. The following sections describe their relevance in the field of corporate culture.

2.3.1 Definition of paradigms.

According to Kuhn (2012, p. 11), a paradigm is defined by accepted examples of actual scientific practice that provide models from which spring particular coherent research traditions. It consists of a set of fundamental theoretical assumptions accepted by all members of a scientific community and a set of particular scientific problems or "exemplars" that have been solved by means of those assumptions (Okasha, 2002). Although Kuhn (2012, p. xlii) did not consider the concept of paradigms as suitable for the social sciences, attempts from several authors have since contributed to the discussion. Kuhn also developed the notion of "normal science", referring to the daily work of scientists by experimenting within a paradigm and trying to enlarge it. Kuhn described this process as "puzzle-solving" (1970). According to Hofstede (2001, p. 73), the idea of dimensions in national culture has become part of this "normal science". Kuhn was strongly pro-science and regarded modern science as a huge intellectual

achievement; his doctrine had no intention to undermine science, but to help its better understanding (Okasha, 2002, p. 94).

2.3.2   Paradigms in culture.

Ritzer (1975) believes that work in organisation theory can be characterised by an array of assumptions regarding the ontological status of social reality and a range of assumptions about human nature. Culture can either be observed as a holistic view of an organisation, the "social definition paradigm", or be perceived as an additional organisational variable among others, the "social factist paradigm". The latter view seems credible to the researcher, as it implies the variability or adaptability of an organisation's culture. According to Kuhn (2012), theoretical paradigms are incommensurable, although he later moderated his incommensurability thesis somewhat (Okasha, 2002). This incommensurability is defined as the idea that two paradigms may be so different that any straightforward comparison between them is rendered impossible (Okasha, 2002). Researchers who maintain different philosophical positions approach the subject of organisations in fundamentally different ways (Smircich, 1983); it is therefore not surprising that culture can be seen from different perspectives. Hofstede (2001, p. 73) for example describes having made a paradigm shift in the field of cross-cultural studies himself, tracing the critics on his cross-national study (1984) back to Kuhn (1970), who stated that paradigm shifts are initially confronted with strong resistance. Academic papers from the beginning of the eighties justified the study of organisational culture as an alternative paradigm for understanding organizational phenomena (Barley, et al., 1988). Smircich (1983) developed five different paradigms, which can be differentiated on a meta-level between culture as a root metaphor and an organisational variable for conceptualising an organisation. The metaphoric conceptualisation is adopted from anthropology and implies that corporate culture defies

any government or control by management, so it cannot be manipulated (Ernst, 2003). It represents the idea of culture as "non-concrete", as something that penetrates all aspects and layers of an organisation. This perspective considers culture as less influenceable from managerial interference than the view of culture as a variable (Jung, et al., 2007) and reflects the development of corporate culture in the literature since the 1980s. In the organisational variable conceptualisation, the emphasis lies on the term "variable", meaning "not consistent or having a fixed pattern; liable to change" (Oxford Dictionary of English, 2005), a stance consistent with the views of Jaques (1951, quoted in Smircich, 1983) and Harrison (1972, quoted in Smircich, 1983) who were among the first to see corporate culture as an organisational variable (Hofstede, 2001). This adaptability of corporate culture or its perception as a variable is also consistent with the researcher's position. In the corporate culture-paradigm, culture is assumed to be an internal variable created within the organisation subject to management control in order to achieve desired outcomes (Ernst, 2003). Smircich recapitulates this paradigm as:

> Overall, the research agenda arising from the view that culture is an organizational variable is how to mould and shape internal culture in particular ways and how to change culture, consistent with managerial purposes (1983, p. 346)

In the cross-cultural or comparative management-paradigm, culture is seen as an exogenous variable that influences internal processes. Figure 2.5 summarises Smircich's (1983) view on organisational culture.

Concepts of culture from anthropology	Themes in organisation and management research	Concepts of "organisation" from organisation theory	
Culture as an instrument serving human needs	Cross-cultural or comparative management	Organisations are social instruments for task accomplishment	Modifiable variable
Culture functions as an adaptive-regulatory mechanism; unites individuals into social structures	Corporate culture	Organisations are adaptive organisms existing by process of exchange with the environment	
Culture as a system of shared cognitions; human mind generates culture by means of a finite number of rules	Organisational cognition	Organisations are systems of knowledge; rests in the subjective meanings that members share to varying degrees	Root metaphor Not a variable
Culture as a system of shared symbols and meaning. Symbolic action needs to be interpreted or deciphered in order to be understood	Organisational symbolism	Organisations are patterns of symbolic discourse. "Organisation" is maintained through symbolic modes that facilitate shared meanings	
Culture as a projection of mind's universal unconscious infrastructure	Unconscious processes and organisation	Organisational forms and practices are the manifestations of unconscious processes	

Figure 2.5: Intersections of culture theory and organisation theory

Note: Reproduced from Smircich (1983)

2.4   Manageability and controllability of culture

The question of whether corporate culture can be managed has led to much debate among both academics and practitioners (Siehl, 1985). Barley, et al. (1988) postulated that early practitioners' interest in organisational culture grew out of a desire for greater organisational control; in contrast, early academic authors viewed organisational culture as an opportunity to build a phenomenologically attuned theory of organisational life. The debate seems to depend on a researcher's organisational culture approach (De Witte & van Muijen, 1999a; Ernst, 2003; Sackmann, 2007). Denison attributes the different ontology in the literature, as outlined by Smircich (1983), to the roots of the climate concept in Lewin's field theory (1951, quoted in Denison, 1996), and to the cultural concepts rooted in the social construction perspective. Ogbonna and Harris (1998) classify research into cultural change in two principal categories: studies on natural

change, the evolution of cultures in organisations, and research into culture management. Those adhering to the first notion argue that organisational culture is a system of shared beliefs and values; they claim that culture can only be influenced in an indirect way and is the result of the interaction between the individual and organisational processes (De Witte & van Muijen, 1999a). The second notion can be further divided into concepts in which organisational culture is seen as a manageable variable, where researchers seek for more predictable methods of organisational control, believing that organisational culture can be managed (De Witte & van Muijen, 1999a). The researcher complemented Ogbonna and Harris' view (1998), summarised in Figure 2.6, with an indicator of corporate culture's degree of controllability.
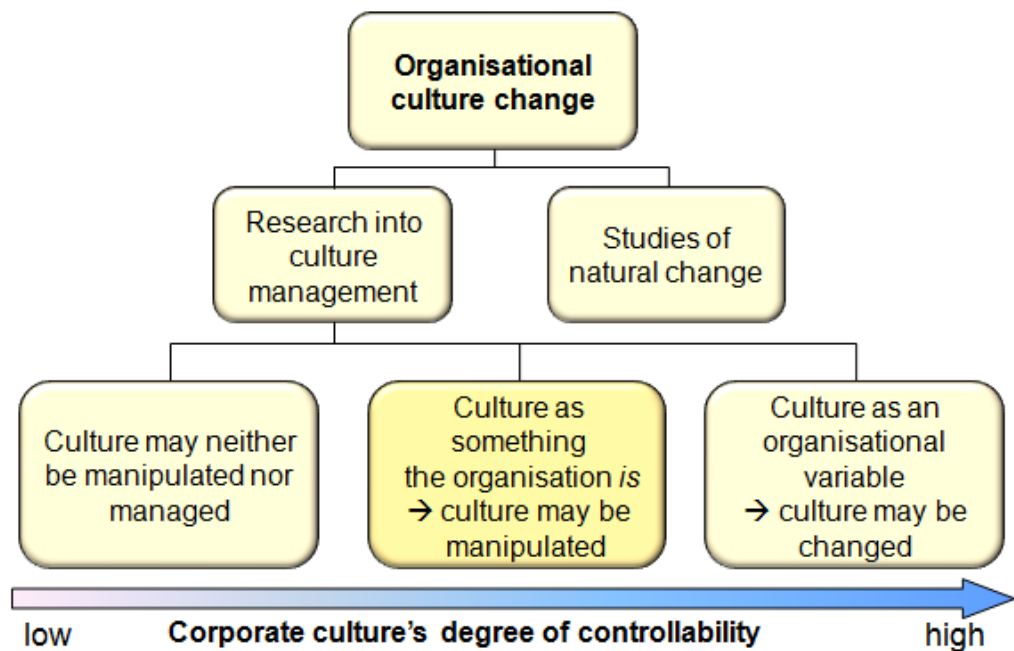
Figure 2.6: Concepts of cultural change

Note: Based on Ogbonna and Harris (1998)

A further distinction could be carried out when considering different interests in corporate culture. Whilst researchers are mainly interested in the understanding and

measurement of organisational culture, practitioners wonder whether organisational culture can be managed (De Witte & van Muijen, 1999b; Sackmann, 2007). Barley, et al. (1988) found that articles published between 1975 and 1984 from both academics and practitioners viewed organisational culture as a source of social integration. Academics however, in contrast to the practitioners, did not seek to portray organisational culture as a means to exert social control: they seem to have moved towards the practitioner's point of view (Barley, et al., 1988, p. 24). Siehl (1985) holds the view that it would seem more fruitful to explore the conditions under which it would be more likely that culture could be managed, implying a change of questions from "can culture be managed"? to "when and what aspects of culture can be managed"? Cultural purists suggest that organisations should be conceptualised as cultures; they favour the view that culture is part of what an organisation *is* rather than something an organisation *has* (De Witte & van Muijen, 1999b; Smircich, 1983). Purists find it preposterous to talk about managing organisational culture; it cannot be managed, it emerges (Martin, 1985) or "leaders do not create cultures; members of the culture do" (Martin, 1985, p. 95). Christensen and Gordon (1999) partially support this view; as leaders are somewhat limited in the type of effects they can have on changing corporate culture, actions running contrary to industry imperatives are likely to fail. Researchers arguing that culture is a socially constructed system of shared beliefs and values would find it inconsistent to think of systematically managing or attempting to control the phenomenon (Siehl, 1985). Weick (1983, quoted in Siehl, 1985, p. 125) states that: "Organizations do not have cultures, they are cultures, and this is why culture is so difficult to change". Bate (1998, p. 26), an exponent of the view that organisations *are* cultures: ""Why change culture" is the same as asking, "Why change organizations" or "Why change strategy"? There is no difference between them . . . and therefore no exceptional or additional case to be made for changing (or not changing) culture".

Cultural pragmatists such as Deal and Kennedy (1982), Peters and Waterman (1982) and Denison (1990) perceive culture as a variable and assume that culture can be controlled and governed by executives. Smircich (1983) classified this approach in her seminal article as "functionalist", assuming culture to be an organisational property subject to management control (Ogbonna & Harris, 1998). Whereas some authors think that organisational culture can easily be managed, others perceive this to be much more difficult (De Witte & van Muijen, 1999a). However, researchers seeking for predictable means of control and improved methods for organisational management, would seem to at least hope that culture can be managed, at least to some degree (Siehl, 1985). Pragmatists generally see culture as a key to commitment, productivity and profitability, and they often offer guidance how to achieve this (Martin, 1985). An examination of the literature found that the issue of control provided much of the rationale for attempts to alter organisational culture (Ogbonna & Harris, 1998). From this perspective, culture is viewed as a powerful means of implicit control. Several researchers (Chatman & Jehn, 1994; Denison & Mishra, 1995; Kotter & Heskett, 1992) have contributed to the field of culture-performance studies by explicitly acknowledging that culture is being treated as a variable for a specific research purpose. However, Denison and Mishra's study (1995) operationalised four cultural traits based on only two items, which Wilderom, et al. (2000) consider as too narrow a basis for the study of culture. Many researchers fall somewhere between the two conceptualizations of culture as a variable or as a root metaphor; they refrain from viewing culture as a mere variable, and at the same time refrain from viewing organisations as cultures either (Alvesson, 2002, quoted in Jung, et al., 2007), as outlined in Figure 2.7.

Culture as a variable

Business concept · Strategy · Organisational structure · Organisational culture · Technology

Culture as a root metaphor

Organisational dimension

Business concept · Strategy · Organisational structure · Technology
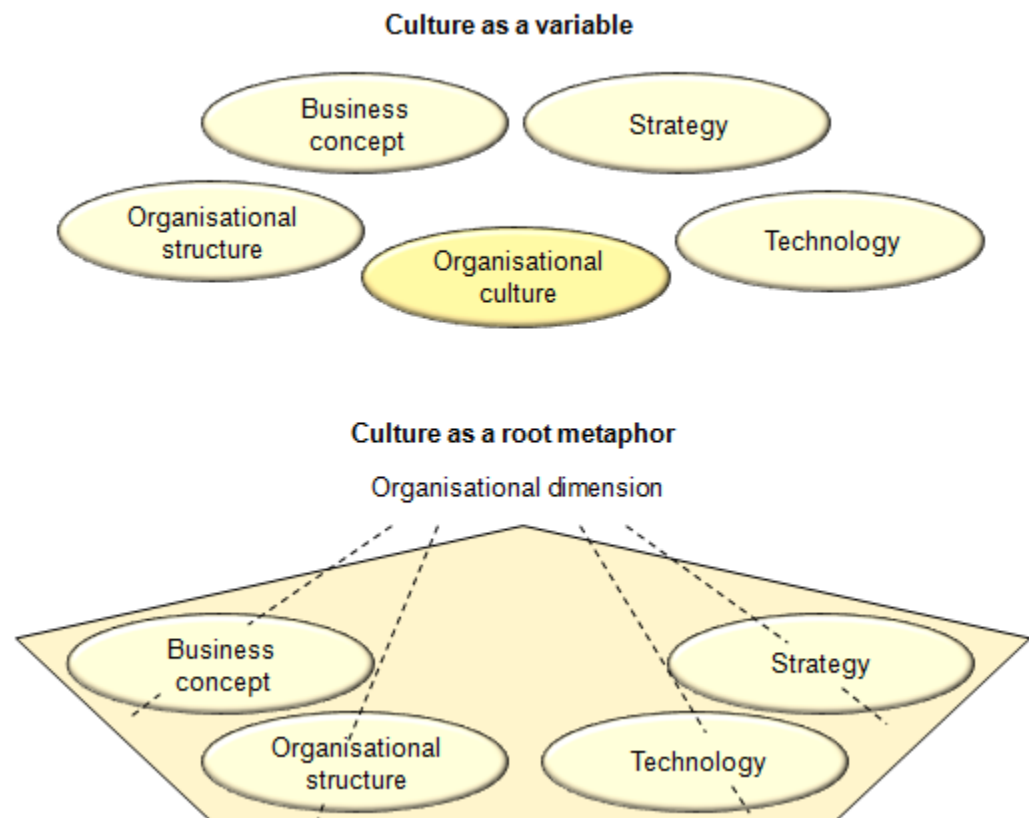
Figure 2.7: Culture as a variable or as a root metaphor

Note: Reproduced from Jung, et al. (2007)

In spite of a lack of convincing evidence, there is an interest, and perhaps also a need, for some researchers, to believe that culture can be managed (Siehl, 1985). Critics oppose this view, arguing that culture cannot be manipulated in a mechanistic sense and that resulting efforts are likely to fail (Sackmann, 2007, p. 129). After all, organisational culture is and seems likely to remain a complex and contested concept (Jung, et al., 2009, p. 1092), and no consensus on the best way to measure or assess the cultural construct has been found (Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson, 2000).

2.5   Measuring corporate culture

Questions on the theoretical foundation, measurement, and significance of corporate culture for achieving company goals have gained momentum since the beginning of the

eighties (Ernst, 2003), but scholars still disagree on the best way to measure it (Ashkanasy, Broadfood, et al., 2000). Links between culture and organisational variables that have been explored include leadership, performance, learning, change, job satisfaction, staff retainment, and employee attitudes and behaviour (Jung, et al., 2007). According to Baetge (2006), the purpose of measuring corporate culture is to influence it through management instruments with the intention of enhancing economic success of the company. The literature however offers little guidance regarding the best form of measure to use, and arguments can be made for several measures (Denison, 1990; Gordon & DiTomaso, 1992). Sackmann (2007) presents four different rationales for measuring culture:

- To have an argumentation basis for a specific measure

- To obtain a general overview of an organisation's culture

- To tackle a specific problem

- To improve a company's ability to survive.

Ernst (2003) argues that failures in mergers and acquisitions (M&As) are often related to cultural differences between the organisations involved. The aspect of measuring cultures of the merging organisations could therefore added to Sackmann's (2007) aforementioned rationales.

Unfortunately, no agreement exists on the most relevant aspects of culture, and, consequently, on the questions of which ones to measure (Sackmann, 2007). Furthermore, Sackmann (2007, p. 12) reminds us that "measurement is only the description of a specific state". Drucker's dictum: "If you cannot measure it, you cannot manage it" (quoted in Sackmann, 2007, p. 12) presents a rationale for measuring corporate culture. The three major questions when aiming to measure culture are (Wilderom, et al., 2000):

- How corporate culture can best be assessed

- How to best assess organisational performance

- How to approach the relation between organisational culture and performance in the best way.

Given the plurality of views of corporate culture, which is also reflected in the multitudinous items used in questionnaires, one may ask how knowledge on corporate culture can ever be accumulated. Several empirical studies (most of them designed in a way that makes them prone to criticism) have attempted to measure corporate culture; an overview of such studies is presented in Appendix VIII.

The measurement of the link between culture and performance has its roots in the studies of Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939, quoted in Wilderom, et al., 2000) and Jaques (1951, quoted in Wilderom, et al., 2000). Wilderom, et al. (2000) distinguish the phases "emergence" (Second World War WWII to 1978), "promulgation" (1978 to 1982), "defiance" (1982 to 1990s), and "testing" (1990s to present). There is however debate on if, and how, corporate culture can be measured (Ernst, 2003), especially as some empirical studies in the 1990s had conceptual and methodological deficiencies such as questionable construct validity, a small number of participating organisations, and the lack of representativeness of organisational cultures (Wilderom, et al., 2000). Results from such measurements are not comparable, either due to different underlying definitions (van den Berg & Wilderom, 2004) or because they investigate different stakeholders, industries, and firms (Sackmann, 2007). Studies on organisational culture have used various dimensions of the culture construct, and results are therefore not comparable for scientific purposes (van den Berg & Wilderom, 2004). The same authors (2004), in their plea for dimensional convergence, propose the following dimensions to measure organisational culture using quantitative methods:

- Autonomy

- External orientation

- Interdepartmental coordination

- HR orientation

- Improvement.

As Siehl and Martin (1988, quoted in Lee & Yu, 2004, p. 354) argue, many important theoretical questions cannot be answered until "culture can be measured with repeatable, easily administered instruments that permit systematic comparisons". Sackmann (2007) emphasises that corporate culture must first be assessed before the results can be related to performance indicators. According to this author (2011, quoted in Denison, et al., 2012), a review of empirical studies revealed the direct effects of culture on performance.

To conclude, miscellaneous concepts for measuring corporate culture are documented in the literature. However, a single, repeatable, easily to administer and scientifically sound measurement instrument that allows systematic comparisons does not exist.

2.6 Performance and corporate culture

The belief that corporate culture has an influence on organisational performance played an important factor in the introduction of the concept from anthropology into the domain of management (Sackmann, 2011, p. 189). It was however not before the 1980s that organisational researchers addressed the relationship between culture, strategy, and performance (Christensen & Gordon, 1999; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Hofstede, 1980; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Schein, 1983). Gordon and DiTomaso (1992) found evidence that a strong culture was predictive of short-term company performance, and that "adaptability" as a cultural value is also predictive of short-term performance. However, organisations incapable of shaping at least a moderate degree of common

understanding, failing to achieve a shared understanding on at least some issues, may perform badly; they even risk their existence (Alvesson, 2011, p. 16). Whereas both a "strong" culture and an appropriate culture from the standpoint of content will produce positive performance, a combination of the two is most powerful. Barney and Wright (1997) outline the way Southwest Airlines exemplifies the role that the company's culture plays in ensuring competitive advantage, by focusing on employee and customer satisfaction, while other airlines believe in a focus on controlling costs or economies of scale (Hartnell & Walumba, 2011, p. 234). Data across studies however are difficult to compare, as culture and organisational performance are measured differently (Sackmann, 2007, p. 139). Furthermore, some studies have shown that determinants of a successful culture need to be treated with care, as they do not necessarily seem to last over time. For example, some companies that were included in Peters and Waterman (1982) do not exist anymore. This is in line with the findings from Denison (1990) and Denison and Mishra (1995), who discovered that cultural strength was significantly associated with short-term, but not with long-term financial performance. Whereas researchers on culture have devoted numerous articles to the nature and definitions of culture, relatively few contribute towards culture and performance research; one reason for this is the difficulty in operationalising the culture construct (Barney & Wright, 1997; Ernst, 2003; Lee & Yu, 2004; van den Berg & Wilderom, 2004). While the correlation of corporate culture and economic success has been intensively researched in the United States (US), such analysis is however still scarce in Europe (Herrmann, et al., 2004, quoted in Baetge, 2006). Denison (1990) and Hansen and Wernerfelt (1989) conclude that it is corporate culture that influences economic success and not vice-versa. According to Barney and Wright (1997, p. 32): "Firms create values through either decreasing product/service costs or differentiating the product/service in a way that allows the firm to charge a premium price". Corporate

culture could be such a differentiator. Denison (1990) argues that the cultural

determinants of performance and effectiveness must be incorporated in all effective

cultures and that balancing these partially conflicting elements is essential for

organisational culture. Kotter and Heskett (1992) concluded that companies which

intentionally managed their culture effectively outperformed similar companies that did

not and backed up their findings with statistics from the capital market. Although their

study can be criticised for using convenience samples, the result showed that the

companies with an adapted, more "appropriate" culture for their business and

environment performed better, consistent with findings from Chatman and Jehn (1994)

and Gordon (1991), who found that companies in different industries developed

different cultural traits to suit their business demands. Sackmann (1992) also found that

the same functional domains and industries are important influences in the formation of

culture. According to the 4+2 formula in Table 2.7 (Nohria, Joyce, & Roberson, 2003),

one has to excel at the four primary management practices: strategy, execution, culture,

structure, and two of the secondary practices to sustain superior performance.

Table 2.7: Mastery of business basics to sustain superior performance

Primary practices Excel at all four	**Secondary practices** Excel at any two
Strategy: • Build strategy on deep knowledge of your target customers and company capabilities	Talent: • Create top-of-the-line training to retain skilled managers
Execution: • Streamline operational processes essential to consistently meeting customer expectations	Leadership: • Successful company leaders are committed to the business. Forge connections with people at all levels
Culture: • Hold individuals and teams to unyielding performance expectations	Innovation: • Lead you industry with breakthrough innovations, even if that means cannibalising existing products

(continued)

Primary practices	**Secondary practices**
Excel at all four	Excel at any two
Structure:	Mergers and partnerships:
• Create a fast, flexible, and flat structure that reduces bureaucracy and simplifies work	• Enter only new business that leverage existing customer relationships and complement your core strengths

Note: Based on Nohria, et al. (2003)

Hansen and Wernerfelt (1989) distinguish between two major streams of research on determining firm performance. One is based on an economic tradition, emphasising external market factors in determining firm success; the other builds on the behavioural and sociological paradigm, seeing organisational factors and their fit with the environment as the major determinants of success. Denison (1990, p. 23) holds the view that attributing value to an individual corporation is always a combination of technical financial analyses and subjective judgements about "future potential". Gebauer, et al. (2010, p. 255), in a similar vein, believe that non-financial service outcomes, such as quality of customer relationships, have an impact on overall profitability. Further aspects to consider for measuring performance may be employee satisfaction, employee health, and quality of products/services. This may be even more relevant in a situation where an organisation's performance can hardly be measured based on economic success or financial KPIs, such as for small and medium enterprises (SME) or governmental organisations. All these aspects seem to be broadly classified as financial performance on the one hand and non-financial performance on the other hand.

2.6.1   Financial performance and economic success.

Denison (1990) revealed that studying organisational processes and using responses and judgment from members of the organisation can be a useful way to measure company performance, using return on sales and return on investment (ROI). According to Baetge

(2006), financial performance or economic success can be interpreted as a multidimensional, complex phenomena. In economics, the differentiation is made between accounting profit and economic profit. Empirical studies based on accounting profit measure economic success with traditional KPIs such as equity return, operating margin, return on assets and cash flow (Baetge, 2006). Organisational performance researchers focusing on profit-seeking firms have traditionally adhered to this dominant performance approach, assuming that striving for financial goals is the key objective. However, a growing discontent with these performance measures (in view of the awareness that multiple, partly conflicting goals in an organisation exist) have since challenged the dominance of this rational goal approach (Wilderom, et al., 2000). On the other hand, Sackmann (2011), in a review of 55 empirical studies published between 2000 and 2009, criticises the fact that most studies tended to employ perceptual measures of performance, lamenting a lack of objective measures. In studies measuring economic success as economic profit, measures are usually based on equity prices. This restricts such measurement to companies listed on a stock exchange (Baetge, 2006), rendering studies measuring corporate culture on financial KPIs as not suitable for other companies, such as those in public ownership. This problem is however not unique to state-owned organisations, but also concerns companies owned by policyholders (Gordon & DiTomaso, 1992). Advantages of using financial data include (Denison, 1990):

- Ratios are a summary measure of effectiveness and refer to the performance of the organisation

- Such indicators are widely recognised by those managing and investing in organisations.

A further method described by Gebauer, et al. (2010) measures economic performance, using the average return on sales over the last three years and the average return on sales in comparison to industry average.

2.6.2   Non-financial performance.

In empirical studies, measurement of the correlation between corporate culture and economic success is not exclusively limited to financial KPIs (Baetge, 2006). Wilderom, et al. (2000, p. 204) argue that financial and economic superiority represents only one part of organisational performance, with performance in terms of satisfaction of relevant stakeholders seen as a complementing factor. The same authors (2000) propagate less convenient, more complex (in terms of conceptualisation and measurement) multidimensional performance approaches that include financial and economic performance indicators instead of straightforward and easily accessible KPIs. Kaplan and Norton (1996, quoted in Sathe & Davidson, 2000) argue against focusing solely on financial indicators, favouring the BSC (Balanced Scorecard) model instead, which incorporates the valuation of drivers of future performance. Denison (1990), in an alternative approach, uses subjective measures of performance, based on a five point Likert scale: sales/revenue growth, market share, profitability, quality of goods and services, new product development, and employee satisfaction. According to Sackmann (2011), researchers adhering to perceptual measures of performance usually justify their choice with the statement that these perceptual data are good indicators for actual performance, an argument that Sackmann (2011) perceives as questionable since it may not be applicable for all organisations.

2.6.3 Uniqueness of culture and relation to performance.

A cultural profile that everyone else has will not prove to be a source of sustained competitive advantage, and the distinguishing cultural elements of each company are important in determining performance (Barney & Wright, 1997; Lee & Yu, 2004). Barney (1986) further claims that certain firms may enjoy competitive advantages that are not subject to imitation and can be the source of sustained superior financial performance. Barney and Wright (1997) and Chan, et al. (2004) argue in a similar vein on the value of an organisation's human assets; in order to provide competitive advantage, a culture must be valuable, rare and imperfectly imitable. Valuable cultures enable a firm to do things and behave in ways that add financial value to that company, a prerequisite for generating even normal economic performance, whereas rare cultures highlight attributes and characteristics that are not common to the cultures of a large number of firms. Imperfectly imitable cultures are those that are not subject to imitation that dissipates competitive advantages over time; as such, a firm's culture can hold promise for sustained superior performance for some firms. Barney (1986) however also claims that the overall performance of a firm, even if the aforementioned criteria are met, may lack if the firm fails to manage other relevant functions successfully. Barney's view (1986) is supported by Hansen and Wernerfelt (1989) and Kaplan and Norton (2004, p. 2), who state that intangible assets are hard for competitors to imitate, which makes them a powerful source of sustainable competitive advantage. Chan, et al. (2004, p. 20) hold the view that researchers generally agree that culture is extremely difficult to imitate or duplicate due to its inherent tacitness, complexity and specificity. However, a focus on specific cultural dimensions inherent to many quantitative cultural assessment instruments may reinforce a spurious view of culture as static and given (Jung, et al., 2009).

As a conclusion, Martins and Terblanche (2003, p. 67) corroborate that "organisational culture seems to be a critical factor in the success of any organisation". Sackmann (2007, p. 11) argues that the contribution of corporate culture to economic success has been designated as "a well-known maxim", although later lamenting the plurality of ways that have been used to assess culture and performance, leading to results that cannot be directly compared (2011, p. 218).

2.7 Functions of corporate culture

According to Denison and Mishra (1995), culture fosters the coordination of the organisation's sub-parts with its mission. They assume that the coordination function is more relevant in large firms due to their higher complexity. By providing frameworks for solving problems and interpreting events in everyday life, Krefting and Frost (1985) argue that culture reduces the number of variables that individuals must deal with to levels more consistent with human information processing capabilities. The different functions relevant to a corporation have in common that they should contribute to the company's success; it is difficult to describe this competitive advantage in hard business facts, as it differs from organisation to organisation (De Witte & van Muijen, 1999a). Heinen (1987) ascribes three primary functions of corporate culture: coordination, integration, and motivation. The model is completed by three derivative functions (see Figure 2.8).
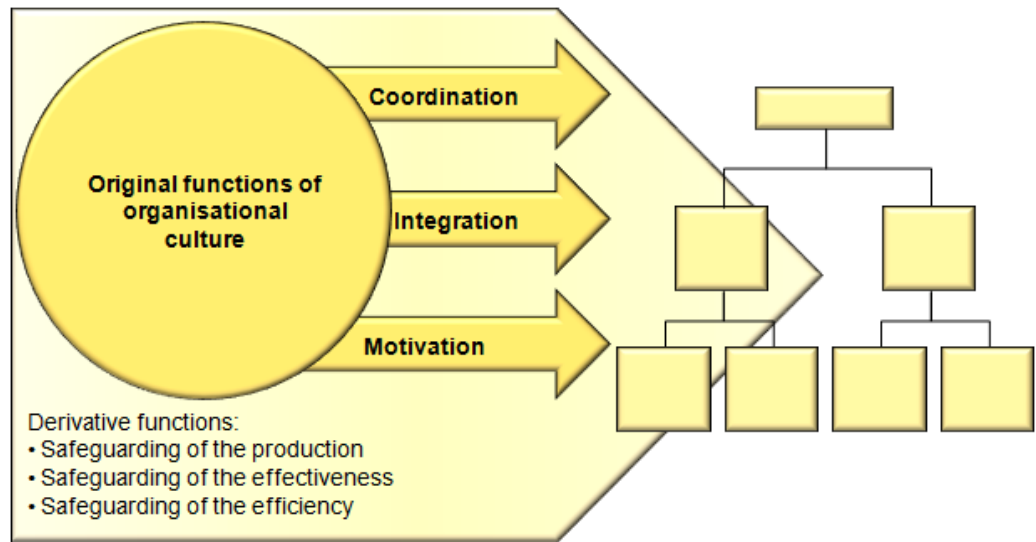
Figure 2.8: Functions of corporate culture

Note: Reproduced from Heinen (1987)

Schein (1993, quoted in Weick & Quinn, 1999, p. 381) supports the view that dialogue enables groups to create a shared set of meanings, thereby backing the coordination function. Nemeth (1997) sees a critical aspect in the coordination function, where people might worry about being different, about not being accepted (Nemeth, 1997). Some researchers (Jung, et al., 2007; Martin, 1995, quoted in Payne, 2000) argue that those who study organisational culture need to take all three perspectives (integration, differentiation and fragmentation) into account to better understand the cultural dynamics. Table 2.8 outlines different functions of corporate culture.

Table 2.8: Functions of culture

Brown (1985) (quoted in De Witte & van Muijen, 1999a)	**Martin (1995)** (quoted in Payne, 2000)	**Heinen (1987)**
• Conflict reduction • Coordination and control • Uncertainty reduction • Higher motivation among the employees	• Integration perspective • Differentiation perspective • Fragmentation perspective	• Coordination • Integration • Motivation

Note: By the researcher

Smircich (1983) sees the concept as serving four main functions: providing a sense of identity, facilitating the commitment to a larger whole, enhancing social system stability, and finally serving as a sense-making device, which can guide and shape the behaviour of organisational members. In a Kienbaum Management Consultants study, the "identification" function scored highest, followed by the retention of high performers (Leitl, et al., 2011a). The "integration" perspective, suggesting that values, beliefs, and assumptions within an organisation are monolithic and exhibit company-wide consensus (Hartnell & Walumba, 2011, p. 231), can however be criticised, as it is often not the case, as later explained in section 2.10. Sackmann (2011) concludes that culture may play different roles: influencing, being influenced, and providing a context for action.

It can be concluded that a consistent view on the functions of corporate culture does not seem to exist; the functions seem to differ from organisation to organisation. However, some aspects were repeatedly found in the literature, particularly coordination, integration, and motivation.

2.8   Factors influencing corporate culture

Doppler and Lauterburg (2005) list a number of factors acting on corporate culture. These authors distinguish between factors with the capability of being influenced only conditionally, and those that can be widely influenced by the organisation. Aspects subject to conditional influence may need considerably more effort and time to change compared with those subject to wider influences. Doppler and Lauterburg's (2005) construct could be complemented with an additional, third model for aspects that are not capable of being influenced at all. "Age and history of the corporation" for example, attributed to the conditionally capable factors (Doppler & Lauterburg, 2005), are in fact

unchangeable. The notion of influenceable factors implies the adaptability of corporate culture; it can therefore be seen as congruent with Smircich's (1983) functionalist perspective or Ritzer's (1975) social factist paradigm.

Table 2.9 sums up the influencing factors between instruments, culture, and economic success (Baetge, 2006).

Table 2.9: Influencing factors on corporate culture

Management instruments	Corporate culture	Characteristics of corporate culture	
• Incentives • Salary • Appreciation • Cancellation policies	• Values • Norms • Beliefs	• Identification • Integration • Coordination • Motivation • Satisfaction • Innovation • Customer satisfaction	**Economic success**

Note: Reproduced from Baetge (2006)

A further aspect influencing culture is the industrial sector in which a corporation operates in; this is further explained in the following section.

2.9   Industrial determinants of corporate culture

Hansen and Wernerfelt (1989), along with Christensen and Gordon (1999, p. 406), argue that measurement of performance itself is a controversial area of considerable academic discourse, not least due to performance data not being consistent across industries. Chatman and Jehn (1994) outlined the differences in the link between corporate culture and strategy implementation between industry characteristics and organisational culture. They state that service sector firms rely heavily on social control mechanisms, such as cultural values, to direct member's actions (Chatman & Jehn,

1994). Furthermore, Deal and Kennedy (1982) claim that the industrial sector and the broader social and business environment in which a company operates has the biggest single influence on corporate culture. Christensen and Gordon (1999) argue in a similar vein, citing empirical research showing that similarities in corporate culture exist across industries. According to Hofstede (2001, p. 402), cultural dimensions varied at least partly according to the industrial sector and type of market in which the corporations operated. Gordon (1991) replicated earlier findings that stable organisational culture dimensions existed, but these varied more across industries than within them. These findings were later confirmed by other researchers (Mahrokian, et al., 2010; Vickers, 2008). An empirical study (Ernst, 2003) found adhocracy to be prevalent in companies with high dynamics in technology, whereas organisations with low technology dynamics were hierarchically characterised. The results from Lee and Yu's (2004) study on corporate culture and organisational performance in Singapore also gave support to the hypothesis that even though organisations do possess distinct cultural profiles, which appear to be related to industry dynamics, cultural variation is greater across industries than within them. Industry membership might be a greater constraint on truly unique cultural types than earlier thought. Cable and Edwards (2004) hold the view that certain values, psychological needs, or supplies can be over or underrepresented according to industry. Some authors (Christensen & Gordon, 1999; Gordon, 1991) argue that the potential for changing a company's culture is limited to actions that are neutral or consistent with industry demands. However, despite the necessity for conformity, culture can provide competitive advantage when it enables an organisation to do things differently from others facing the same environmental constraints (Christensen & Gordon, 1999, p. 414). Gordon (1991) further holds the view that strategy and structures must be compatible with or neutral to the culture and not in conflict with it. This is based on the argument that organisations are founded on

industry-based assumptions about customers, competitors and society, which form the basis of the company's culture. From these assumptions, certain values develop concerning the "right things to do" and, consistent with these values, management develops the strategies, structures, and processes. Gordon (1991) mentions that culture formation is neither a random event nor an action dependent solely on the personalities of founders or current leaders, but is to a significant degree a reaction to external imperatives. Gordon argues that companies operating in multiple environments lead to the expectation that such companies would develop strong and different subcultures rather than a single dominant culture. Should companies do not develop such subcultures, they will perform poorly in those industries where the cultures are not aligned with the industry demand. An additional aspect was brought forward by Leitl, et al. (2010), who did not rule out the influence of an organisation's the legal form on corporate culture. Hodgkinson and Healey (2011) argue that industries are sociocognitive constructions, created through a shared interpretation of reality among a collective of organisations, and that the mental models of rival firms become highly similar. These shared beliefs and practices in an industry can lead to collective blind spots and even to collective misconduct in a whole industry, as shown by the recent global financial crisis (Hodgkinson & Healey, 2011).

It can be concluded that the influence of the industry on corporate culture seems to be well documented. Furthermore, the industrial sector, the competitive situation in a market and possibly the company's legal form have an influence on corporate culture. In light of this finding, an instrument to assess a corporation's culture should allow the integration of the respective imperatives of the industry in question.

2.10   Subcultures

Subcultures emerge as a more specific set of means to accomplish organisation-directed objectives, as organisational culture is too broad and too vague to provide clear instructions to guide employee behaviour (Hartnell & Walumba, 2011, p. 229). Subcultures coexist in all organisations, and organisational culture may exist only in the form of the subparts making a whole, argue Denison and Mishra (1995, p. 214). Cultures with different and sometimes even conflicting views on organisational reality even dominate in the so-called differentiation perspective (Alvesson, 2011, p. 15). Top management for example may primarily focus its attention on profits, whereas lower status employees may be more concerned about job security and pay levels (Martin, Sitkin, & Boehm, 1985, p. 101). In a similar vein, Payne (2000) argues that people fulfilling different roles have different motives and interests even though some cooperation among them is needed, as the organisation may otherwise fail and none of the groups will achieve their interests; such divergences are often reflected in distinct subcultures. The presence of subcultures does however not necessarily preclude the existence of an integrative culture in an organisation (Hartnell & Walumba, 2011, p. 236). Sweeney and Hardaker (1994) argue that managers need to be aware that some variations in culture are both necessary and desirable in different units or functions. Although written from a customer care perspective, Kakabadse, et al. (2006, quoted in Chakravorti, 2011) state that in order for values to become shared, a match between the organisation's value propositions for customers and the value orientation that the employee desires at work is needed. From this perspective, organisations are not accurately described as having a monolithic dominant culture (Martin, et al., 1985, p. 102) and may be differentiated into several subcultures (Sackmann, 2007), although it is argued that the dominant organisational culture will prevail as a common theme (Harrison & Carroll, 1991, quoted in Sweeney & Hardaker, 1994).

According to Detert, et al. (2000), contingency theory indicates that not all elements of culture related to a specific innovation will need to be adopted to the same extent in an organisation, which may lead to a differentiated perception of a corporation's culture in different organisational units. Different levels in a company may therefore represent different sub-cultures (Gordon & DiTomaso, 1992). The culture of a Research and Development group, for example, should be different from the culture of a manufacturing unit (Kaplan & Norton, 2004, p. 10). Nevertheless, executives should strive for agreement throughout the organisation on corporate wide values such as integrity, respect, treatment of colleagues, and commitment to customer satisfaction, although some values statements will only refer to the culture of specific operating units (Kaplan & Norton, 2004). It is perhaps not surprising that these portrayals stress that a leader alone is not the only one who generates the values, understandings, and behavioural norms that become part of organisational culture. The view that other members play an active role in the culture creation process is however challenged by several authors (Payne, 2000; Schein, 1983; Siehl, 1985), who contend that founders are the originators of an organisation's characteristic values and behaviours. If contextual factors and people other than the founder can influence the content of what is shared, then the understandings, values, and behavioural norms that constitute cultures should reflect the personal perspective of a founder only to a small extent (Martin, et al., 1985). There are at least two reasons for this view: first, not all organisations (particularly those in the public sector, where overarching bodies regulate the power of individuals) have charismatic leaders; values and norms are often the result from a collective governing body or specific basic conditions. Second, many managers leading corporations are in post for only a few years, so their cultural influence is bound to be limited.

Dunphy (1996, p. 551) concludes that there is an uneasy tension between executive level strategic direction and intelligent, committed and innovative action on the part of the non-executive workforce. Detert, et al. (2000) argue that the importance of subcultures should receive more research in the future, as research in the past showed that most attempts at culture change proceeded with little consideration of the pluralistic characteristic of contemporary organisations. These authors argue that top management has paid little attention to the values and beliefs of ordinary employees, without taking into account that their own management subculture is not representative for a common, all-embracing culture.

The conclusion from the literature shows that the importance of subcultures should receive more research (Detert, et al., 2000). Top management usually defines the desired culture of an organisation, whereas the actual, perceived culture reflects the views of the members of the organisation as a whole.

2.11   Strong cultures

A strong corporate culture can be defined in various ways:

- As showing consistency of perceptions of company values (Gordon & DiTomaso, 1992)

- As a culture that encourages the participation and involvement of each member of an organisation (Denison, 1984)

- As a culture with high levels of shared meaning and agreed-upon normative structures (Denison, 1990, p. 78; Peters & Waterman, 1982; van den Berg & Wilderom, 2004)

- As a culture that is adopted by most people and where consistency between values, beliefs, and behaviours exist (Payne, 2000).

To ascribe an organisation to have a strong culture implies congruence of values, belief structures, and norms throughout the whole organisation (Stackman, Pinder, & Connor, 2000), which would set it apart from subcultures. The ways the concepts strong, culture, and performance are defined differs however from study to study (Sackmann, 2007). Hofstede (2001) argues that a strong organisational culture is related to company size; Ruigrok and Achtenhagen (1999) however oppose this view. The strength with which the cultural values are held among employees could be taken as a predictor of future organisational financial performance (Lee & Yu, 2004, p. 341), and empirical support of cultural strength on performance was demonstrated by Gordon and DiTomaso (1992). According to Gordon and DiTomaso (1992), various authors seem to consider cultural strength as a function of a combination of:

- Who and how many accept the dominant values set

- How strongly, deeply or intensely the values are held

- How long the values have been dominant.

The strong culture hypothesis, purporting the idea that a strong culture is often characteristic to successful organisations, highlights the consistency between principles, behaviour and conformity to organisational practices (Denison, 1990, p. 10). Strong cultures are therefore considered as desirable (Sackmann, 2007). The idea that strong cultures have a positive effect on performance was especially advocated in early research on corporate culture (Sackmann, 2011, pp. 211-212), by authors such as Deal and Kennedy (1982), Gordon and DiTomaso (1992), Kotter and Heskett (1992), and Peters and Waterman (1982). Somewhat surprisingly however, only 3 out of the 10 studies reviewed by Wilderom, et al. (2000) incorporated a measure of culture strength, whereas some studies used convenience samples, with a biased focus on management. In a review of 55 empirical studies, Sackmann (2011) furthermore discovered that culture strength was only investigated in three of these studies, each operationalised

differently. Strong cultures could be however associated with an attendant set of problems and generate inertia, thereby possibly becoming a liability during periods of accelerated change, for example by restricting the variety of options over the long run (Denison, 1990). Deal and Kennedy (1982, p. 34) argue that one of the most serious risks of a system of shared values is that economic circumstances change, while shared values continue to guide behaviour in ways no longer helpful to the success of the organisation. Sackmann (1992, p. 156) considers that arguments about strong cultures need to be revised if a more differentiated cultural perspective is applied, as they could turn out to be less consistent, less strong, and less homogeneous than they appear to be. Nemeth (1997) contends that a strong corporate culture emphasises uniformity, loyalty and adherence to company expectations, which makes it on the one hand advantageous, but at the same time could limit innovation. Nemeth also contends that there is evidence that one must feel free to deviate from expectations, to question shared ways of viewing things, in order to evidence creativity; companies with strong cultures may therefore unwittingly suffocate the innovativeness of employees by demanding blind commitment. Status tends to make the situation even worse, as people are particularly unlikely to challenge persons of higher status (Nemeth, 1997). Denison (1984) argues that lack of variety limits an organisation's ability to adapt to a changing environment. Strebel (1994) argues that organisations with weak cultures are actually better in some respects, as they are more flexible and adapt more easily to external change, consistent with Barney (1986), who states that culture could, in different economic or competitive conditions, become an economic liability. Cultural diversity in an organisation, in contrast to homogeneity in a unitary corporate culture, may in fact be a source of sustainable competitive advantage (Hartnell & Walumba, 2011).

Gordon and DiTomaso (1992, p. 794) propose that both a strong culture from the standpoint of consistency, and an appropriate culture from the standpoint of content,

will produce positive results, but a combination of the two is more powerful. The importance of consistency to corporate culture was described by Denison (1984, p. 18) as "an indication of a system that is currently well coordinated and integrated and performs well", not neglecting the drawback of a lack of variety, which could limit the organisation's ability to adapt to changes in the environment. Wilderom, et al. (2000) conclude that, based on a number of studies, strong cultures are indicative of short-term economic performance. Furthermore, findings from Denison (1990), later backed up by Gordon and DiTomaso (1992), showed that strength of culture is predictive of short-term overall performance. As Denison (1984, p. 17) contends, "soft measures do, in fact, predict hard outcomes".

As a conclusion, it seems to be a contested issue if a strong culture is beneficial to or a liability for an organisation. On the one hand, cultural strength could be beneficial in unifying an organisation, but on the other, too strong a corporate culture could suffocate innovation and impede inevitable change initiatives. Wilderom, et al. (2000, p. 203) argue that instead of striving for strong cultures, firms should rather attempt to reduce the gap between employees' preferred organisational practices and their perception of their organisation's practices. This notion is relevant to the extent of alignment between the intended and current culture of an organisation. Furthermore, based on these findings, recommendations to mitigate cultural divergences between top management and staff can be elaborated.

2.12   Cultural surveys

This section provides an overview of qualitative and quantitative cultural surveys.

2.12.1 Overview of cultural surveys.

Contemporaneously with the interest in organisational culture that started in the 1980s, an increase in the development of cultural surveys was noticeable (Jung, et al., 2009). However, only minor developments of new measurement tools has taken place since the beginning of the 1990s (Ashkanasy, Broadfood, et al., 2000), although the oldest instruments can be traced back to the middle of the last century (Jung, et al., 2009). The most comprehensive review of such tools to date are, according to Denison, et al. (2012), from Ashkanasy, et al. (2000) and Jung, et al. (2009). The instruments differ in their methodological approaches and research designs, ranging from structured questionnaires (the predominant approach in cultural surveys), to relatively unstructured ethnographic approaches (Jung, et al., 2007). The largest number of instruments seem to have been developed in the US, which is to some extent attributable to the widely held view there that culture is a variable (Jung, et al., 2007). The focus of most instruments is on the overarching culture of an organisation or on a specific type of culture, with only a few tools being designed with a specific context or professional group in mind. In general, their intention is to decipher tangible and intangible aspects of culture that seem to correlate with performance, covering from 1 to 15 predefined dimensions (Jung, et al., 2007). Culture surveys are most appropriate when investigating observable and measurable traits of culture, such as behavioural norms and values (Denison, et al., 2012). The goal of such comparative research using surveys is often the reduction of the complexities in human behaviour (Denison, 1990, p. 88). It has already been stated that there is a lack of clarity about the relevant aspects of culture; the same is true for the dimensions or types of culture that exist (Sackmann, 2007; van den Berg & Wilderom, 2004). Some researchers (van den Berg & Wilderom, 2004, p. 576) argue that academic organisational culture research should be based on quantifiable data to measure and compare corporate culture, although the spectrum of tools ranges from quantitative to

qualitative approaches (Jung, et al., 2009; Sackmann, 2007). A trend to more

quantitative approaches however may be attributed to the background of popular

authors in big-company consultancies, where a diagnostic focus tends to be preferred, a

movement driven by the desire to design easy to administer and evaluate off-the-shelf

products which facilitate comparisons between organisations or groups (Jung, et al.,

2009). Sackmann (2007) provides a classification of such tools according to three

criteria: level and components of culture, origin of dimensions, and main purpose of

assessment. Although the instruments vary in format (see Table 2.10), the use of Likert-

style scales for the responses is predominant (Ashkanasy, Broadfood, et al., 2000; Jung,

et al., 2007; Payne, 2000), followed by Q-methodology and ipsative measures (Jung, et

al., 2007).

Table 2.10: Approaches used in cultural surveys

Approach	Description
Likert scale	Predefined statements are presented to participants, who then indicate the extent of agreement on a scale
Q-methodology	Each participant receives a set of predetermined values statements and arranges this into a given number of categories. A greater degree of discrimination compared to Likert scales is assumed
Ipsative measures	Participants are asked to allocate a given number of points (usually 10 or one-hundred) across a given set of statements

Note: Reproduced from Jung, et al. (2007)

The disadvantages of quantitative cultural exploration related to the rigid categories

operationalised by such research make it easy for items not to be contained and

therefore to be unnoticed in research, with the risk of leading to a superficial meaning of

organisational culture and a failure to explore deeper levels of culture (Jung, et al.,

2009). This development does not conform to Sackmann (2007), who holds the view

that a cultural survey should be able to reflect the dynamic, pluralistic and complex nature of culture in an organisation. Sackmann (2007) classifies cultural surveys as outlined in Table 2.11.

Table 2.11: Classification of cultural surveys

Level of culture	Origin of dimensions Most important dimensions to assess	Main purpose of cultural assessment
Includes: • Artifacts • Practices • Norms • Values • Beliefs • Assumptions	Insider perspective: Aspects relevant to a particular organisation such as ethnography, analysis of assumptions, and symbolic interpretations	Understanding of a cultural setting
Predominant component of the above	Combined approaches	Purpose of intervention in addition to understanding of the cultural setting
	Outsider perspective: Dimensions that were developed by external experts	

Note: Reproduced from Sackmann (2007)

Some methods focus on understanding a specific culture, whereas others target the purpose of the intervention (Sackmann, 2007). The aims of the instruments also vary widely, from formative to summative, and diagnostic. Whereas formative instruments allow for cultural exploration, the latter aim to identify and assess cultures and to modify them, with the intention of aligning existing culture to characteristics associated with "high-performance" organisations (Jung, et al., 2009), as outlined in Table 2.12. Diagnostic instruments therefore implicitly adhere to a philosophical view that treats culture as a controllable or modifiable variable. Respondents to diagnostic instruments are expected to address the intensity of specific behavioural norms and values within their organisation and not whether those norms and values lead to higher effectiveness (Denison, et al., 2012).

Table 2.12: Purpose of exploring organisational culture

Purpose	Description	Interest/application
Formative	Offers feedback on the cultural elements of performance and change	Can be used to inform organisational development and learning
Summative	Cross-sectional or longitudinal examination of culture and its relationship to other organisational variables	For a better understanding of organisational culture from a general research perspective
Diagnostic	Offers insights on cultural traits and processes within an organisation and their functionality	Purpose is to identify strengths and weaknesses within an organisation and to examine capacity and readiness for cultural change at different levels within the organisation

Note: Based on Jung, et al. (2009)

Most contemporary assessment approaches now account for the complexity, dynamics, and plurality of human systems that form cultural reality (Jung, et al., 2009; Sackmann, 2007). Furthermore, most tools take predefined, a priori sets of dimensions, where the greatest diversity in assessing culture exists. Although they may make sense within the author's framework, the problem is that they do not answer important questions, such as how many dimensions (and which ones) are required for a thorough understanding of culture in an organisation (Sackmann, 2007). These dimensions can cover a broad range of categories that are as diverse as the dimensions associated with culture found in the literature (Jung, et al., 2009). Appendix IX gives an overview of cultural types and dimensions. Well over 100 dimensions associated with organisational culture were identified in the literature, ranging from observable phenomena to abstract ideas (Jung, et al., 2009, p. 1087). Denison, et al.'s (2012) literature review revealed from 74 to 114 unique dimensions, an indication that surveys cover a broad range in terms of nominal categorisations of the content of culture. At the same time, the typologies for clustering these dimensions differ in scope, number of items, and defining characteristics (Jung, et

al., 2009). Detert, et al. (2000), in an attempt to define cultural values underlying Total Quality Management, grouped the dimensions of 25 multi-concept frameworks of culture in a qualitative content analysis on the basis of conceptual similarity until no further grouping could be justified. The ensuing model resulted in eight general dimensions from the literature that seems to represent a substantive content of extant organisational culture work:

- The basis of truth and rationality

- The nature of time and time horizon

- Motivation

- Stability versus change/innovation/personal growth

- Orientation to work, tasks, and co-workers

- Isolation versus collaboration/cooperation

- Control, coordination, and responsibility

- Orientation and focus internal and/or external.

Detert, et al.'s (2000) study provides evidence that the dimensions of different culture surveys can be conceptualised in terms of a set of higher-order culture dimensions (Denison, et al., 2012). Jung, et al. (2009, p. 1087) hold the view that the degree to which a measure is seen as "fit for purpose" depends on the particular reason for its application. In Sackmann's (2007, p. 137) review of 25 cultural surveys, the following 12 dimensions for measuring culture were most often used:

- Performance issues (efficiency, effectiveness, competitiveness, results orientation, profitability/cost effectiveness)

- People orientation/individual development

- Leadership

- Interpersonal relations

- Innovation/development of the organisation

- Openness/adaptability of the organisation, readiness for change

- Work related issues

- Team orientation

- Customer orientation

- Communication

- Values orientation

- Strategy and vision.

The syntheses of Detert, et al. (2000) and Sackmann (2007) are partially comparing the same cultural concepts, for example those of Hofstede (1990) and Denison (1984). Despite the notion that a relatively small number of dimensions underlie the majority of current culture concepts (Detert, et al., 2000), it is surprising that their consolidations produced such diverse results. The rationale for the selection or exclusion of the studies was however neither revealed by Detert, et al. (2000), nor by Sackmann (2007); their conclusions on general dimensions of corporate culture could however form a solid base for further research. Sackmann (2007) compared many cultural studies (mainly from Germany, including her own cultural framework developed between 1985 and 1991), where little information could be obtained. Due to the better transparency and presumably better objectivity, the researcher decided to use Detert, et al.'s (2000) framework to serve as a basis in the later stage of this research (see section 3.7.4).

2.12.2   Types of cultural surveys.

Edwards, et al. (1997) make a distinction between self- and group-administered surveys. Self-administered surveys provide a high degree in anonymity and confidentiality and are therefore often used to conduct surveys on sensitive items. Gill, et al. (2010) differentiate analytic from descriptive surveys; they differ in intention, emphasis, and attention required, as outlined in Table 2.13.

Table 2.13: Comparison of analytic and descriptive surveys

	Analytic survey	**Descriptive survey**
Intention:	To test a theory deductively by elucidating cause and effect relationships	Assess the attributes or particular characteristics of a population of subjects; often used to ascertain attitudes
Emphasis on:	• Specifying independent, dependent and extraneous variables • Control	To secure a representative sample of the relevant population (population validity)
Special attention to be paid to:	• Achieve a successful and internally valid analytical survey by using statistical techniques during data analysis • Failure to identify extraneous variables will negatively affect internal validity	• Prior consideration of relevant theory and literature to determine what kinds of questions need to be asked • Guiding theory employed must correspond to the questions in the survey

Note: Based on Gill, et al. (2010)

Jung, et al. (2007) distinguish culture surveys according to purpose, critique, and example (Table 2.14), and classify these approaches as dimensional or typological.

Table 2.14: Types of cultural surveys

	Dimensional Approaches	**Typological approaches**
Purpose	To explore the nature and extent to which predefined dimensions are reflected in an organisation	To categorise an organisation into predefined organisational types, either of a general descriptive type or rooted in a psychoanalytical concept by referencing to a variety of types
Critiques	The idea of remodelling culture and align it with those associated with high-performance cultures is a debated assumption	Risk of stereotyping and passing judgement on different types of culture, with potentially neglecting a key point from an anthropological perspective of culture as a value-free concept
Examples	DOCS (Denison Organizational Culture Survey), Organizational Culture Profile (OCP)	Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI), Hall (1966)

Note: Based on Jung, et al. (2007)

Ashkanasy, Broadfood, et al. (2000) make a similar distinction: whereas profiling surveys are concerned with giving descriptions of organisations by measuring the strengths or weaknesses of a variety of organisational members' beliefs and values, typing surveys use standardised instruments to yield sets of culture "types", which allow comparisons with other organisations. Profiling surveys differ from typing surveys in that they categorise organisations according to categories of norms, behaviours, and values or beliefs which are not necessarily mutually exclusive (Ashkanasy, Broadfood, et al., 2000, p. 135). Typing surveys however present problems for establishing validity and reliability (Ashkanasy, Broadfood, et al., 2000), and bear the risk of depicting stereotypical views of organisational culture (Jung, et al., 2009).

2.12.3 Reliability and validity of cultural surveys.

Jung, et al. (2007, p. 15) argue that there is no consensus over the exact standard that has to be met before a measure is considered to be valid, and that any quantitative measure requires some test of reliability to provide an assessment that the measure assesses a construct in a reproducible way. According to Denison, et al. (2012, p. 13), the primary considerations for formative instruments include internal reliability, validity of the survey and the adequacy with which the survey covers meaningful descriptive content. Diagnostic instruments must additionally cater for internal validity and must allow for the criteria that the cultural dimensions are related to organisational effectiveness outcomes. Figure 2.9 outlines the relationship between reliability and validity (University of Berne, 2008).

Objectivity   Reliability   Validity

Partial aspect of   Special case of   Precondition of

Standardisation of application   Accuracy of measurement   Accordance with construct
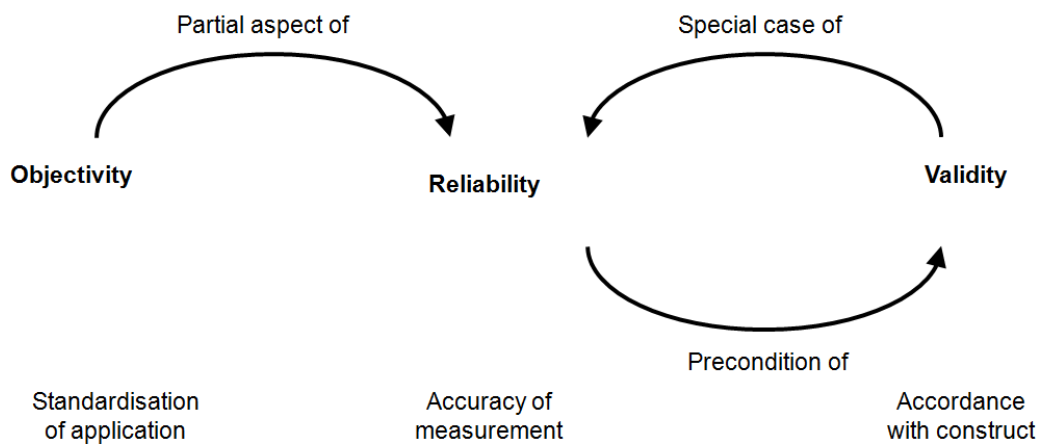
Figure 2.9: Main psychometric properties

Note: Reproduced from the University of Berne (2008)

After a review of 18 culture surveys, Ashkanasy, Broadfood, et al. (2000, pp. 135-138) found the following criteria: scale reliability, consensual validity (i.e., evidence of aggregation and agreement), construct validity, and criterion-related validity. Evidence for validity and reliability were lacking in 10 of the 18 reviewed instruments, with two others having minimal reliability or validity evidence only. Six of the instruments possessed criterion-related validity, whereas consensual validity was available for only four instruments. In terms of psychometric testing, many instruments must be considered at a preliminary stage of development (Jung, et al., 2007). Acceptable levels of evidence in Jung, et al.'s (2007) extensive review of 70 instruments were found for only a minority of the reliability and validity criteria by which culture assessment tools are evaluated. Predictive validity and internal consistency were most commonly reported with 54% and 46% respectively, whereas test-retest reliability and evidence of convergent and discriminant validity was available for only 10% of the tools. Demonstrating that the predictive relationships are applicable across different industries, organisational settings, and national-cultural boundaries represents an important aspect of validity evidence in any diagnostic approach to organisational culture assessment

(Jung, et al., 2007). From a research perspective however, comparative analysis within a specific industry is attractive, as potential industry-level bias can be ruled out (Denison, et al., 2012). A further limitation involves the use of single-respondent or manager-only samples, a practice frequently seen in the literature. This raises questions not only about the representativeness of a sample, but also fails to reveal a possibly fragmented organisational culture (Denison, et al., 2012), therefore concealing potentially relevant subcultures.

Denison, et al. (2012) identified three key challenges where diagnostic instruments have demonstrated their limitations: first, instruments must pass a psychometric test to ensure that individual respondents can discern the underlying structure proposed by the theory. Second, respondents must show a high level of agreement to make a valid claim that organisational characteristics are being measured. Finally, the organisational level characteristics must demonstrate a close link to organisational effectiveness or the organisational level outcomes proposed by a model. No matter what analysis strategy is adopted, important points of interest involve the valid and reliable demonstration that individual ratings can be used to represent the overall culture of an organisation. Reliability and validity in cultural instruments were also relevant for this research, and the terms are outlined further in section 3.8.3.

To conclude this section on cultural surveys, Jung, et al. (2007, 2009) deny the existence of a generic, ideal instrument for cultural exploration. Qualitative and quantitative approaches offer different strengths and weaknesses, and choosing between the two paradigms is a trade-off between breadth (quantitative approaches that allow examining larger sample sizes) and the depth and insight offered by qualitative approaches; the value of any instrument lies in its utility. The appropriateness of an instrument depends on several factors, such as context and questions of the research, the

underlying aim, and available resources (Jung, et al., 2007). Although their reviews did not include all cultural surveys, Denison, et al. (2012) and Ashkanasy, Broadfood, et al. (2000) stress the need for additional methodological research focused on the development and validation of culture surveys.

2.13   Dimensions of corporate culture in the literature

After this review of the definitions, paradigms, and important aspects of corporate culture, the researcher gained an overview of potentially relevant dimensions of culture. These dimensions were frequently found in the literature and in cultural surveys (although often with slightly different terms).

2.13.1   Mission.

Denison (2006, p. 16) holds the view that successful organisations have a clear sense of purpose and direction that defines goals and objectives; a mission provides purpose and meaning by defining a role and external goals for the organisation. Denison and Mishra (1995) demonstrated that mission appears to be the strongest predictor of performance. Denison and Mishra (1995, p. 216) argue that the most critical crises in organisations came when the underlying mission was questioned or altered, as it provides purpose and meaning was well as an appropriate course of action for the members of an organisation.

2.13.2   Values.

Values refer to what is desirable and worthy, and in their collective form, characterise social collectives such as corporations by a set of assumptions, beliefs, and values (Sagiv, et al., 2011). Hofstede describes values as: "A broad tendency to prefer certain states of affairs over others" (Kluckhohn, 1951, p. 359, quoted in Hofstede, 2001, p. 9).

Rokeach (1969, p. 160, quoted in Stackman, et al., 2000, p. 38) gives another definition of values: "An enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally and socially preferable to alternative modes of conduct or end-states". Values can serve as a means of social control, recognising the importance of normative prescriptions (Denison & Mishra, 1995). When people are faced with a majority of others who agree on a particular attitude or judgment, they are very likely to adopt the majority judgment (Nemeth, 1997, p. 61). This power of peers is an established finding in social psychology, based also on the grounds that people adopting normative views fear disapproval and rejection for being different, not being accepted or even being rejected (Nemeth, 1997). Organisations must not only adapt to nation-level values prevailing in their society, but also to individual-level values that are important to the members of the organisation (Sagiv, et al., 2011, p. 515). Analysing the nature of personal values and their implications contributes to the understanding of the organisational phenomena, and personal values of individuals help to shape organisational culture (Sagiv, et al., 2011, p. 526). The goals and values of many people who work in prisons, the military, and manufacturing organisations have central importance and are highly valued, with behaviour controlled by each individual (Payne, 2000). This person-organisation fit can be defined as "the congruence between patterns of organisational values and patterns of individual values" (Chatman, 1991, p. 459). The fit between an individual's values and those of the organisation is an important factor for identification (Cable & Edwards, 2004). It is influenced by the prevalent organisational values at the time of membership and by changes in individual values following tenure (Chatman, 1991, p. 460). Cable and Edwards (2004) argue that as an organisation's values are reflected onto its staff, value incongruence results in dissatisfaction and cognitive dissonance; joining an organisation is an a expression of individual values. According to Detert, et al. (2000), value congruence seems to be a

promising approach for studying culture and its impact on change initiatives. According to some writers, the advantage of organisational culture is based on value consensus (Wilderom, et al., 2000, p. 205). By hiring employees who are responsive to their practices, organisations hope to establish a robust and stable attachment among their members; such selection processes may also serve to select individuals with values compatible to those of the organisation (Chatman, 1991). The fit between a person and an organisation is a suitable way of assessing interaction, as individual values within an organisation are relatively persistent and can be directly compared between an individual and an organisation (Chatman, 1991). It can be fostered at the beginning of an individual's membership of an organisation by recruitment and selection, and later through socialisation such as mentoring (Chatman, 1991). Weber and Menipaz (2000) highlight the importance of what they refer as cultural fit as an important factor in M&A failures, although empirical studies backing up his view remain a rarity. The central importance of values and beliefs to organisational life was already contended by Denison (1984, 1990), who attributes the success of organisations to "a combination of values and beliefs, policies and practices" (1990, p. 5) or a more effective means of achieving coordination and integration than external control systems (Denison & Mishra, 1995, p. 15). Researchers such as Peters and Waterman (1982) consider values as the central element of culture for assessment. The congruence between an individual and an organisation can be measured using specific cultural surveys or cultural assessment tools (Ashkanasy, Broadfood, et al., 2000; Sackmann, 2007). It is not surprising that the influence of values on organisational culture is reflected in a variety of definitions (van den Berg & Wilderom, 2004). A few value-based principles enable individuals to better react to an unpredictable environment (Stackman, et al., 2000). Although values can be considered to have a strong influence on human behaviour, the question of how values cause preferences and how they cause individuals to act on their

preferences remains unsolved; values are equal neither to attitudes nor behaviour (Connor & Becker, 1994, quoted in Stackman, et al., 2000, p. 38). Xenikou and Furnham (1996) also make a distinction between values and behavioural norms; as far as the relationship between the two is concerned, the results of their factor analysis loaded on the same factors. Even though values and behavioural norms are different concepts, it seems that they share a core theme as they are expressed in similar terms (Rousseau, 1990, quoted in Xenikou & Furnham, 1996). A contested theme is the distinction between values in the general sense and work values, although conceptions and definitions of the latter are usually not in conflict with the more general conception (Stackman, et al., 2000). When it comes to the malleability of values, Stackman, et al. (2000) mention two aspects:

- The degree a value in society changes over long periods of time

- The natural, developmental alteration that occur in individuals' values as they age.

Both aspects may inhibit discretionary, external manipulation of individual values, an important factor to consider in the conformity of values attributed by an organisation to values at personal level. Nohria, et al. (2003, p. 7) state that winning companies write down their values in clear, forceful language and demonstrate them with concrete actions. Hofstede (2001) and van den Berg and Wilderom (2004) assume that (invisible) values are expressed in part in organisational practices. This importance of high ideals was already ascertained by Denison (1984), who points out the importance of a symbolic vision as a means of providing direction and integration. Denison (1990) sees normative systems such as values and management practices as an organisation's most important assets or as its most destructive liabilities.

Figure 2.10 shows a list of 10 value types based on Schwartz's Universal Values Scales (Sagiv, et al., 2011, p. 526), with the adjacent types tending to be associated to each

other, whereas values reflecting conflicting assumptions are in opposing positions. Two basic conflicts exist: first, between values of self-enhancement and self-transcendence and second, between values of openness to change and the opposing conservation. This framework has been replicated internationally, indicating a similar meaning of these broad values across cultures.
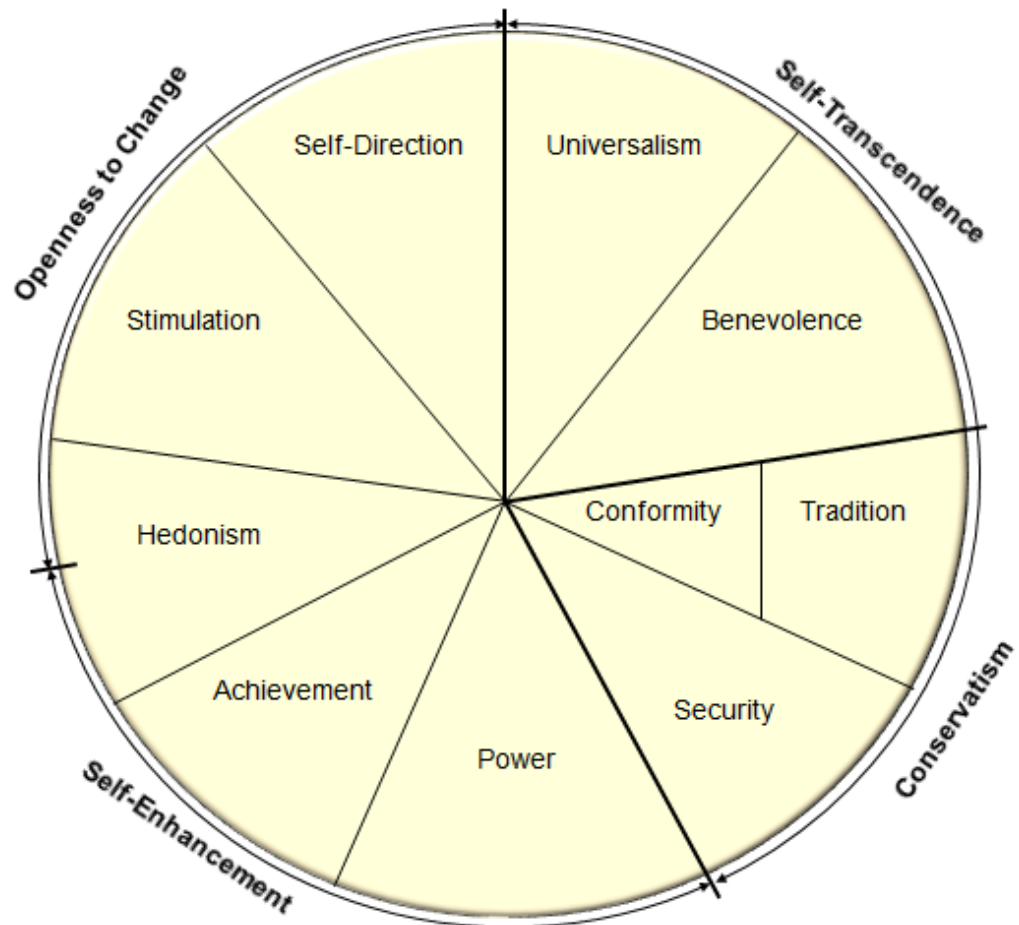
Figure 2.10:   Schwartz' structure of value systems
Note: Reproduced from Sagiv, et al. (2011)

According to Deal and Kennedy (1982), shared values affect performance in three ways:

- Managers give attention to whatever matters are stressed in the corporate values system

121

- Down-the-line managers make marginally better decisions because they are guided by their perception of shared values

- People work harder because they are dedicated to the cause.

Peters and Waterman (1982) elaborated what became known as the McKinsey 7-S framework (see Figure 2.11), which centres on shared values.
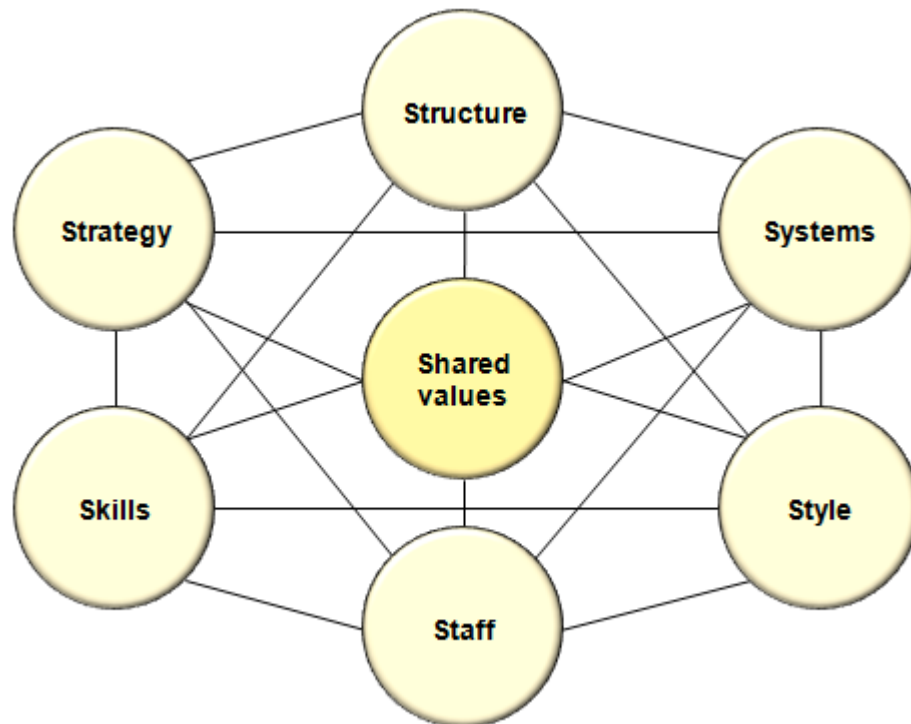
Figure 2.11:   McKinsey 7-S framework

Note: Reproduced from Peters and Waterman (1982)

Depending on the industry, it appears that different beliefs and values may be more productive (Gordon & DiTomaso, 1992). This aspect can be relevant for the culture of corporations operating in different markets and industries. Although Stackman, et al. (2000) conclude that future research should be conducted on the malleability and importance of values in the workplace, there is evidence of the considerable relevance of values in culture of organisations.

2.13.3 Strategy.

The plethora of literature pertaining to managing organisational culture is based on the assumption that the performance of organisations is dependent on the alignment of organisational values to the espoused values of a company strategy. A common rationale for cultural management attempts is to exert control in order to accomplish the goals of the organisation (Ogbonna & Harris, 1998). It is understood that such an attempt implies the view of culture as something subject to influence or manipulation. The relationship between corporate culture and an organisation's strategy is often depicted as a trilogy of strategy, culture, and structure. Doppler and Lauterburg (2005) see strategy as the pivotal element, influencing structure and culture. The high relevance of strategy is further supported by Nohria, et al. (2003), who argue that strategy should only be refined in response to changes in the marketplace. Rühli and Keller (1991) see strategy, structure and culture as equally potent; furthermore, they also included the interdependencies with their respective environments, marked in Figure 2.12 by the arrows:
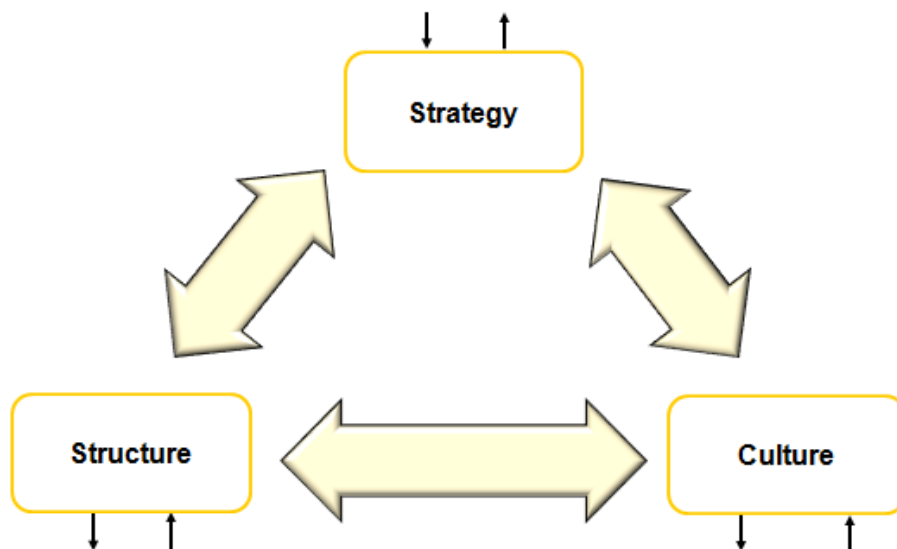
Figure 2.12:   Strategy, structure, and culture trilogy

Note: Reproduced from Rühli and Keller (1991)

As argued by Hofstede (2001, p. 414), strategy should also be taken in account when relating organisational culture and performance, as depicted in Figure 2.13.
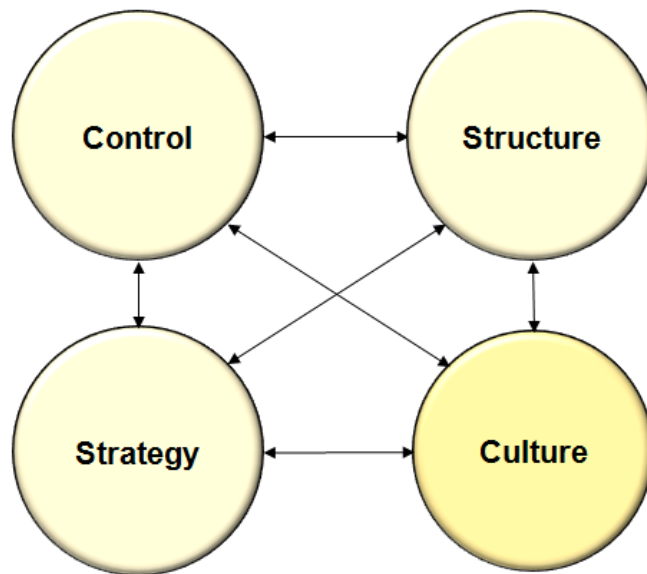
Figure 2.13:   Relationship between strategy, structure, control, and culture
Note: Reproduced from Hofstede (2001)

The aforementioned models refer to culture in general and not explicitly to corporate culture. In the context of strategy and structure (typically used in the business jargon), their meaning as corporate culture can however be assumed. The impact of strategy, leadership, and culture on performance in a case study in a manufacturing SME in the United Kingdom (UK) showed that strategy positively affected the culture and performance in regard to all aspects of a BSC (Sackmann, 2011, pp. 215-216). According to the management consulting company Accenture (Dutra & Hagberg, 2007), strategy alone however does not produce results; it is its execution that matters, by aligning strategy, culture and operating model components (Figure 2.14).
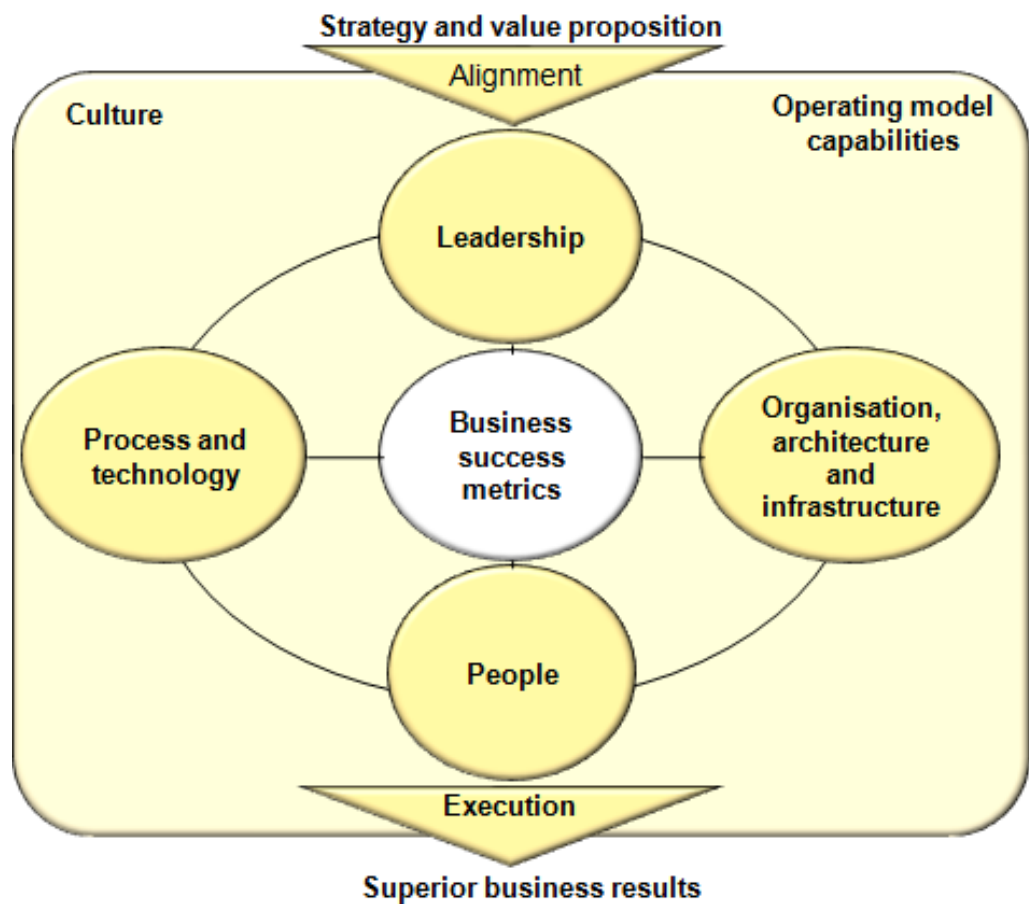
Figure 2.14:   Achieving superior business results

Note: Reproduced from Dutra and Hagberg (2007)

A study from Kienbaum Management Consultants, with a predominately German sample, concluded that the strategic relevance of corporate culture is mainly recognised at top management level and among HR professionals, but less by middle management with a rather operative focus (Leitl, et al., 2010). Denison (1984) suggests that the importance of managing culture should be one of the fundamental elements of a corporation's strategy for staying in business. According to Kaplan and Norton (2004, p. 3), the value of intangible assets for organisational capital (such as corporate culture) is about estimating how closely aligned those assets are to the company's strategy. Based on their database of BSC implementations, Kaplan and Norton (2004) claim that successful companies had a culture in which people deeply internalised the mission,

vision, and core values needed to execute the company's strategy. Such companies

strive for a clear alignment between their strategic objectives and the goals and

incentives of individuals, teams, and departments. An example of Kaplan and Norton's

capital readiness report (2004, p. 12) is indicated in Table 2.15.

Table 2.15: Example of an organisation's capital readiness report

Attribute	Strategic objective	Strategic measure	Target	Actual
Culture	Foster awareness and internalisation of the mission, vision, and core values needed to execute the strategy	Customer focused (customer survey; percentage who understand the organisation's mission)	80%	68% ☒
		Other core values (employee change readiness survey)	80%	52% ☒
Leader-ship	Develop leaders at all levels who can mobilise the organisation towards its strategy	Leadership gap (percentage of key attributes in competence model rated above threshold)	90%	92% ☑
Alignment	Align goals and incentives with the strategy at all levels of the organisations	Strategic awareness (percentage of staff who can identify organisation's strategic priorities)	80%	75% ☒
		Strategic alignment (percentage of staff whose objectives and incentives link to BSC)	100%	60% ☒
Teamwork	Ensure that knowledge and staff assets that have strategic potential are shared	Sharing best practices (number of knowledge management system hits per employee)	5.0	6.1 ☑

Note: Reproduced from Kaplan and Norton (2004)

Kaplan and Norton (2004) consider culture to be the most complex and difficult

dimension to understand, because it encompasses a wider range of behavioural territory

than the others. Furthermore, they argue that if the company has a sound strategy and if

the intangible assets are aligned with that strategy, the assets will then create value for the organisation. This view seems nowadays to be shared by most authors in the field of culture, acknowledging that culture is an elusive and very complex concept influenced by a multitude of dimensions.

2.13.4   Leadership.

Under the notion of the concept of climate, Lewin, et al. (1939, quoted in Schneider & Bowen, 2000) identified three major leadership styles: democratic, authoritarian, and laissez-faire. Based on the finding of the paramount importance of the role of the leader, this work created interest as something new and exciting for social psychologists: the study of leadership. It continued with McGregor's writings on Theory X and Theory Y and the role of a manager in creating a managerial climate, to Blake and Mouton, who described how management development and organisational planning could be calibrated to yield corporate excellence (Schneider & Bowen, 2000). Keone, et al. (2004, quoted in Baetge, 2006) demonstrated that a charismatic leadership style positively affects corporate climate and financial success, congruent with Denison's (1990) findings that leadership ideals avouching a vision or desired state have a positive effect on performance. Hansen and Wernerfelt (1989) suggest that managers can influence the behaviour of their employees by considering factors such as structure, planning, reward, control and information, systems, skills and personalities, and the relation of these to the environment. In a more recent study from Kienbaum Management Consultants (Leitl, et al., 2010), 94% of participants, consisting of top and middle managers and HR professionals, indicated a high relevance of corporate culture to company performance. In recent years, many commentators from an array of different perspectives have argued that there is an undeniable relationship between management and the control of the behaviours of subordinates so as to ensure that the

latter accomplish particular tasks (Gill, et al., 2010, p. 45). In a similar vein, Wilderom (2011, p. 80) argue that managers' business priorities, decisions, and behaviours have a great deal of influence on how employees experience the culture of their work settings, an effect that Wilderom views as often underrated. A CEO of a company creates, changes, or reinforces organisational culture by (Hartnell & Walumba, 2011, pp. 232-233):

- Making strategic decisions

- Formulating a compelling vision

- Paying attention to performance and linking it to the espoused cultural values

- Identifying and rewarding employees who exemplify desired cultural values.

In sum, they describe the role of leaders in the context of organisational culture as both innovators and maintainers. The researcher concludes that the role of management and leadership has a strong influence not only on the creation, but also on the perception of corporate culture.

2.13.5   Change and innovation.

Organisational culture is widely considered to be one of the most significant contributors to organisational change (Jung, et al., 2009, p. 1087). The importance of change is further reflected by Chan, et al. (2004), who see the firm's ability to renew, reallocate, rejuvenate and redefine its resources in coping with the changing environment as central to sustaining competitive advantage. Chakravorti (2011) states that managing change in organisational culture and knowledge might very well enhance customer experiences, resulting in a possible competitive advantage. "Change" also symbolised the first decade of the twenty-first century, which is reflected in the ways of viewing, treating, and understanding concepts of culture (Ashkanasy, et al., 2011, p. 8). Porras and Robertson define change in relation to organisational development as:

A set of behavioural science-based theories, values, strategies, and

techniques aimed at the planned change of the organisational work setting

for the purpose of enhancing individual development and improving

organisational performance, through the alteration of organisational

members' on-the-job behaviours (1992, p. 723, quoted in Weick & Quinn,

1999)

Definitions of change in an organisational development context however still often draw

on Lewin's (1951, quoted in Weick & Quinn, 1999) three stages of change: unfreeze,

change, refreeze. Culture is highly related to adaptability and change, although "most

attempts at change, whether by individuals or organisations, fail" (Ben-Shahar, 2009, p.

5). Culture itself is relatively persistent and not susceptible to chance (Hofstede, 2001);

Markus (2000, p. 299) argues that "culture does not seem to fade". According to Sathe

and Davidson (2000), there is general consensus that culture change consists of

changing people's minds as well as their behaviour, and that both extrinsic and intrinsic

motivators are necessary for sustained culture change, with the majority of researchers

favouring the latter. Only few researchers promote extrinsic motivators, although they

can be seen as a tool to "shock" individuals into unfreezing change (Sathe & Davidson,

2000). Strebel (1999, quoted in Sathe & Davidson, 2000) argues that intrinsic

motivators should be employed before extrinsic ones to persuade change agents first,

but should be applied in reverse for the ones who actively constrain change. Tyrrell

(2000) contends that the adoption of new technologies has inflicted great changes on the

social environment where culture is located. Payne (2000, p. 165), in a similar vein,

holds the view that change tends to result from environmental pressures incrementally

rather than dramatically. Culture can rather be seen in a constant state of small

refinements, which could change an organisation's culture over the years (Doppler &

Lauterburg, 2005). Strebel (1994) mentions that it is more difficult to mobilise the

organisation for change when a company is ahead of the competition (and when there is no actual performance crisis), compared to a situation where reaction to the moves of others is needed. Lawler and Worley argue in relation to the importance of change that:

> Excellence is about change. We would not have said this in the 1980s or even in the 1990s. Today it almost goes without saying. Most organisations simply cannot sustain excellent performance unless they are capable of changing (2006, p. xiii)

An early approach to culture and change from Deal and Kennedy (1982) lists the situations in which top management should consider cultural change on a large scale:

- When the environment is undergoing fundamental change, and the company has always been highly value-driven

- When the industry is highly competitive and the environment changes quickly

- When the company is mediocre, or worse

- When the company is truly at the threshold of becoming a large corporation

- When companies are growing very rapidly.

For companies operating in stable markets, continuous adaptation to a changing environment is required; should adaptation lag, effectiveness decreases and pressure for change increases (Weick & Quinn, 1999). According to Weick and Quinn (1999, p. 362), organisational change routinely occurs in the context of failure or, as put by Dunphy (1996), by people failing to create continuously adaptive organisations, referring to Porras and Silvers' (1991) distinction between episodic and continuous change. Episodic change is a generic term applicable to a multitude of organisational forms and values, whereas continuous change is used to group together changes at organisational level that tend to be ongoing, evolving, and cumulative (Weick & Quinn, 1999). Table 2.16 summarises this distinction.

Table 2.16: Distinction between episodic and continuous change

Characteristics	Episodic change	Continuous change
Frequency	Infrequent, discontinuous	Continuous adjustments that can cumulate and create change
Content	More strategic	Operational
Triggering of change	Intentional/planned; deliberate and formal change	Situated and grounded in continuously updating work processes
Drivers	• Inertia • Inability of organisations to keep up	• Alertness • Inability of organisations to remain stable
Change produced by	• Environment • Performance • Characteristics of top managers • Structure • Strategy	• Improvisation • Translation • Learning
Relevant processes	• Inertia • Triggering of change • Replacement	• Ongoing variations in practice • Cumulation of variations • Continuity in place of dramatic discontinuity • No beginning or end point
Usually initiated by	Higher levels in the organisation	Not necessarily by higher levels, most organisations have pockets of people already adjusting to the new environment
Involves	Larger change that sometimes tends to be dramatic	• Small, but continuous adjustments • Acceptance of change as a constant
Emphasis on	Short-run adaptation	Long-run adaptability
Change sequence	• Unfreeze • Transition • Refreeze	• Freeze • Rebalance • Unfreeze
Occurs	Tends to occur in periods of: • External events (e.g., technology change) • Internal events (e.g., new key personnel) • Misalignment between organisational structure and new demand	• Ongoing • Evolving • Cumulative
Role of change agent	Prime mover who creates change	Redirects change by managing language, dialogue, and identity

Note: Based on Weick and Quinn (1999)

Change could therefore be seen as a spiral pattern of contemplation, action, and relapse and then successive returns to contemplation before entering the maintenance and then the termination stages (Weick & Quinn, 1999, p. 373). Managing continuous change is seen as important to organisational culture, as it holds the miscellaneous changes together and gives permission for nonconforming actions (Kotter & Heskett, 1992). According to Prochaska, et al. (1992), change at an individual level is often difficult to accomplish, concluding that most people reaching the action stage in a situation of episodic change relapse and change back to previous habits three or four times before they settle into the new behaviour. As an implication of their research, Prochaska, et al. (1992, p. 1110) consider the need to assess the client's readiness for change and to tailor interventions accordingly. This finding may be relevant for change at an organisational level as well.

In terms of the duration of a cultural change, Hofstede responded that "it takes ages, even longer than people remain in the company" (Harss, 2010, p. 13) or, again from Hofstede, "changes take decades, if not centuries" (2001, p. 454). In a similar vein, Uttal's (1983) estimation for cultural change in an organisation ranges from 6 to 15 years. When it comes to changing organisational culture, Schein (1996, quoted in Weick & Quinn, 1999) assumes inertia in the form of a quasi-stationary equilibrium to be the biggest obstacle.

An agreed theory in the field of organisational change does not seem to exist. Competing theories based on different underlying metaphors can be broadly divided into the socio-technical systems change approach and the strategic change approach. Table 2.17 shows the main traits of these approaches, based on Dunphy (1996).

Table 2.17: Socio-technical and strategic change approaches compared

	Socio-technical approach	**Strategic approach**
Commitment to placing the major initiative for the direction of change	Key groups within the workforce	Senior management
Prime attention to analysis directed toward	Internal factors	External factors
Challenges	Creating interventions: • Involving the workforce • Provide the knowledge and skills to ensure informed decisions • Build a negotiated consensus on the direction of change and major implementation steps	Creating interventions: • Analyse the external environment • Create a winning, competitive business strategy • Align the workforce to the strategy • Involve them in translating the strategy into coordinated action
Possible problems of change agents in implementing change	Change programs may be abolished due to new or changed strategic initiatives	The opposition of stakeholders who have not been consulted in the strategy formulation process may stall a change initiative
Proponents	Dunphy (1996)	Kotter and Heskett (1992)

Note: Based on Dunphy (1996)

Given these characteristics, episodic change can be linked to the strategic approach, whereas continuous change is related to the socio-technical approach. Dunphy (1996, p. 551) concludes that few theoretical approaches cover change initiatives extending from executive level to the general workforce. Denison (1990, p. 189) demonstrated that in each of the case studies covered in his research, cultural change occurred in response to external demands of the business environment rather by an intention to change the organisation itself. Christensen and Gordon (1999) further highlight that change which runs contrary to industry imperatives will fail. A further aspect is suggested by Tyrrell (2000), who reminds us that all individuals are members of multiple communities, not

just the organisation they work for. Chakravorti (2011), in a meta-analysis of the literature, states that organisational culture management should be geared towards making employees customer oriented, fostering collaboration and sharing information across the organisation. According to Siehl (1985, p. 139), "managing culture" is often synonymous with "changing culture". However, some researchers also point out that during a time of transition it may be as important to manage stability as to manage change (Markus, 2000; Siehl, 1985). Such ideas about change versus stability were included in almost every culture framework reviewed by Detert, et al. (2000). In order to successfully manage change processes, it is relevant to gain an insight into the different perceptions of particular groups within an organisation (Hofstede, et al., 1993, quoted in Sweeney & Hardaker, 1994). Stace (1996) reminds us that strategies for organisational change in certain business areas and cultures may not be successful in another, and that the style and scale of change must be aligned to the specific needs of an organisation. Stace concludes that a best practice approach to organisational change is eclectic, pragmatic, and attuned to the situational and specific culture. This notion therefore favours tailored instruments over generic culture instruments. Table 2.18 shows dominant patterns of corporate change (Stace, 1996, p. 557).

Table 2.18: The Dunphy-Stace change matrix

Style of change management	Scales of change			
	Fine-tuning	Incremental adjustment	Modular transformation	Corporate transformation
Collaborative				
Consultative	**Lower performers** Avoiding change	**Developmental transitions** Constant change		**Charismatic transformation** Inspirational change
Directive		**Task-focused transitions** Constant change		**Turnaround** Frame breaking change
Coercive				

Note: Reproduced from Stace (1996)

The most effective ways to manage culture are through one-to-one verbal communications and role modelling, according to Siehl (1985). Weick and Quinn (1999, p. 380) point out that organisational change is more likely to take place when leaders model personal change. Markus (2000) argues that should such change agents be absent, cultures remain as they are. Denison (1990) even holds the view that one of the most important contribution of managers is the culture they create by actions inevitably creating or reinforcing key values; this notion is however somewhat contradictory to Martin's (1985, p. 95) statement that members of the culture create cultures, not the leaders. On the other hand, Beer, et al. (1990, quoted in Weick & Quinn, 1999, p. 380) raised the subtlety that inconsistency between word and action at the corporate level does not harm change effectiveness, but negatively affects leaders at the unit level, explaining it as a necessity for corporate managers to cope with pressures from different stakeholders.

Weick and Quinn (1999) hold the view that an ideal organisation is one that continuously adapts, based on the assumption that organisational change generally occurs in the context of failure to adjust. Inertia, which limits an organisation's capability to adjust, may be the unintended consequence of successful performance (Miller, 1993/1994, quoted in Weick & Quinn, 1999), backing up Lewin's (1951, quoted in Weick & Quinn, 1999) view of inertia as being the main impediment to change. Whereas some individuals accept change with openness, others are said to have a high need for security and may resist change (Hofstede, et al., 1990). Effecting cultural change is a very expensive business, much more expensive than most people realise (Deal & Kennedy, 1982, p. 163). Besides the fact that reshaping a culture literally takes years to achieve (Hofstede, 2001), the very expense itself is a significant barrier to change. It also goes without saying that powerful cultural forces within an

organisation could limit solutions which managers need to enact to maintain a firm's performance (Stace, 1996).

The terms change and innovation are sometimes used concurrently in the literature. In terms of innovation and creativity, Martins and Terblanche (2003) found, based on a literature study, little agreement on what type of organisational culture improves innovation and creativity. This view is contended by Bear and Jamrog (2006), who concluded that innovation is inextricably linked to cultures that put an emphasis on teamwork, collaboration, communication, appropriate risk-taking, freedom to innovate, and other factors. Ernst (2003), in an empirical study, argued that performance is connected with success in innovation, although correlation analyses did not reveal causality. Martins and Terblanche (2003) considered strategy, structure, support mechanisms, behaviour that encourages innovations and communication as determinants of organisational culture that either foster or inhibit creativity and innovation.

To conclude, newer research on cultural change shows that change initiatives shall be specifically designed to the needs of the respective organisation. In contrary to earlier beliefs (e.g., Deal & Kennedy, 1982), a general recipe for organisational change does not seem to exist. Especially when senior management put emphasis on organisational performance, the ideal model being the effectively functioning competitive organisation (Dunphy, 1996), then potential resistance to cultural development or change has to be taken in consideration. Sathe and Davidson (2000) conclude that at least some beliefs and values can be changed, and there is evidence that supports the possibility of altering beliefs and values at a level deep enough to refer to culture change.

2.14   The right corporate culture

Wilderom, et al. (2000) investigated the question of what type of culture is so valuable that it leads to a culture-based advantage. As argued by Wilderom, et al. (2000, p. 205), some researchers (e.g., Peters & Waterman, 1982) argue that value consensus or pervasiveness is the basis for the advantage of organisational culture, whereas others (e.g., Denison & Mishra, 1995) focus more on the content of organisational culture for explaining culture-based advantage. It can however be stated that an ideal corporate culture does not exist, as every corporation has unique features and goals and is influenced by strategy and the industry (Christensen & Gordon, 1999; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Gordon, 1991). Michaelson (1989, quoted in Jung, et al., 2009, p. 1092) states: "There is no such thing as a good, bad, positive, or negative culture". This rather anthropological view of a value-neutral culture may disguise the virtue of different responses when the focus is on performance-relevant aspects of culture (Jung, et al., 2009). Wilderom, et al. (2000) argue that a significant correlation between the culture and an organisation's performance might be an indicator that should be investigated further, and that the notion of one best culture does not exist. However, the literature generally supports the idea that certain aspects of culture are desirable to almost every organisation, especially when such features are associated with higher performance (Vickers, 2008). According to Lee and Yu (2004), it seems however that evolving cultural norms to fit industry dynamics only enabled it to become a strong competitor in its current regime and that it is not a guarantee or predictor of future success. If industry dynamics inevitably forces a company to adopt the standard set of traits and values, common culture items cannot be a source of sustained, superior performance. Not adopting certain industry norms may very well lead to organisational dysfunction (Lee & Yu, 2004), and the industry itself may have a spurious effect on the outcome measures (Denison, 1990). It appears that organisations should constantly strive to

redefine themselves and thereby create critical success factors in the industry (Hamel & Prahalad, 1996, quoted in Lee & Yu, 2004). This is further backed up by the argument that a too strong corporate culture, one that does not adapt to changing market environments or does not redefine itself, is considered a handicap. "A good culture this year might not be the optimal one for the next decade" (Jung, et al., 2007, p. 29). Detert, et al. (2000) finally suggest that further research and theory development should have the objective of better understanding the gaps espoused by certain organisational members and the one(s) that actually describe(s) the visible artifacts and behaviours in an organisation. These researchers argue that change initiatives will be considerably more difficult to implement if these gaps are large. This notion of fit is nothing new and also extends to the area of congruence of values, which seems to be an auspicious approach for cultural studies and its impact on change initiatives (Detert, et al., 2000).

The literature review shows that an ideal corporate culture does not exist. Rather, the key to the "right" culture of a corporation seems to depend on a number of factors, for example, the industry a corporation operates in, and the specific situation of a corporation.

2.15   Summary and findings of the literature review

This section summarises the findings from the literature review and outlines its relevance for this research.

The literature on corporate culture has evolved since the early 1980s from the view of culture as a variable (as publicised by the early proponents) to a position that takes into account the complexity of the culture construct, adding breadth and depth (Kobi, 2005; Sackmann, 2007). In terms of a general understanding of its major characteristics, the concept has been further refined (Sackmann, 2011, p. 188). This is also reflected in the

difficulties of attributing the relevant dimensions of the culture construct. Figure 2.15 outlines the development of the discussion on corporate culture since the eighties (Kobi, 2005, p. 12).

time

1984
- Relativisation of mechanistic schools of thought
- Seminal books
- Importance of soft factors
- Implementation of strategy

- Involvment of all change processes
- New mindsets
- M&A
- New management
- Subcultures
- Knowledge management
- Privatisation
- Diversity

- Holistic experience
- Less analysis, more implementation
- Management sensitive to culture instead of management of culture
- Embodiment of culture as change process
- Extensive discussion on values/sense

broader

deeper

Figure 2.15:   Development of the discussion on corporate culture
Note: Reproduced from Kobi (2005)

Culture in organisations is now rather conceptualised as holistic, historically determined and socially constructed (Detert, et al., 2000), a dynamic construct on the basis of contemporary knowledge, taking into account the fact that human systems are complex, dynamic and pluralistic which create and evolve cultural reality (Sackmann, 2007, p. 129). According to Ashkanasy, Wilderom, and Peterson (2011, p. 5), "organisational culture is an intangible, complex phenomenon". Instead of attributing some kind of a fixed-form phenomenon to organisational culture, it is more likely to be moving, constantly adapting to environmental conditions; it should now be viewed as a dynamic interaction of the organisation and its environment (Ashkanasy, 2011, p. 321). The researcher takes the position of that culture is something the organisation *is*, which acknowledges the interference of factors that influence culture, and are thereby able to

exert some control on the cultural concept (see section 2.4). The rationale of this stance is the predominant position in the management literature, where cultural perceptions implicitly or explicitly draw on Smircich's (1983) comparative management or corporate culture paradigm, both of which induce controllability of the cultural construct (Ernst, 2003). This view is consistent with the state-of-the-art knowledge of organisational culture as a complex, pluralistic, dynamic, and firm-wide phenomenon (Sackmann, 2007, p. 130). Jung, et al. (2007, p. 38) however remind us that corporate culture is just one of the pieces that make up the puzzle of organisations, and it should not be considered as the answer to all organisational problems. Alvesson (2011, p. 12) concludes that culture has been firmly anchored as one important aspect in the organisations and in management, and that it should be viewed as a "cornerstone in any broad understanding of organisation and management". Despite the growing knowledge of organisational and corporate culture, gaps still exist: these are described further in the next section.

2.16   Gaps in the literature

Although the literature review revealed many aspects of corporate culture, the researcher discovered gaps in the literature in at least two areas. First, whether the perception on corporate culture is shared or divergent between different groups of an organisation, and second, a lack of operationalisation of the concept of corporate culture. These gaps in the literature left the researcher somewhat unsatisfied. Consequently, they served as a justification to investigate these aspects in this research and provided the rationale for the definition of the research questions.

2.16.1 Unitary or divergent perception of corporate culture.

Literature on organisational culture has often not explicitly investigated the relation of different cultural traits within organisations. Frequently, the term organisational culture is (and was) used to indicate a view of organisations as unitary and unique, characterised by a stable set of meanings (Alvesson, 2011, p. 15). This is consistent with the findings from other researchers (Baetge, 2006; Detert, et al., 2000; Dunphy, 1996; Gordon & DiTomaso, 1992; Leitl, et al., 2011a; Leitl, Meifert, & Sackmann, 2011b; Hofstede, et al., 1993, quoted in Sweeney & Hardaker, 1994; Wilderom, et al., 2000). Most of the early writings on organisational culture adopted an integrative view, emphasising culture as unitary and unique at the organisational level (Alvesson, 2011, p. 15). The idea that organisations can have broadly shared cultures, with top management as the central architects behind it, enjoyed great faith; although this has lost some of its credibility, it still seems to dominate in popular and academic writings (Alvesson, 2011). The majority of organisational culture studies elicit answers from key personnel within organisations, such as the CEO, or other high-level executives; these responses are then generalised, believed to be representative of how values, beliefs, and assumptions are perceived for the whole organisation (Hartnell & Walumba, 2011, p. 235). This view is problematic in several ways, as different groups develop different outlooks on the world, often referred to as organisational subcultures (Alvesson, 2011, p. 15). Data collection related to culture at the organisational level however still revolves around managerial levels such as the executive, group, top, and senior management, although studies with data from randomly selected organisational members exist (Sackmann, 2011, p. 193). As culture is, however, not only a top level or managerial phenomenon, such sample procedures require more attention (Sackmann, 2011, p. 218).

The researcher concludes that the possibility of different interests in a corporation and its influence on culture seems not to be sufficiently represented in the literature. In this light, the assumption of a common purpose of corporate culture may not be justified, as it could differ between different interest groups, primarily between top management and employees. Detert, et al. (2000) suggest that future research should concentrate on understanding gaps between the culture espoused by certain organisational members and the culture that is visible throughout the organisation. These authors believe that change initiatives will be very difficult to implement if the gaps or cultural divergences are too big, stressing the notion of cultural fit or the lack of culture gaps as an important predictor of organisational change.

2.16.2   Lack of operationalisation of the concept of corporate culture.

Several researchers have outlined a lack of operationalisation of the concept of corporate culture (Barney & Wright, 1997; Ernst, 2003; Lee & Yu, 2004; van den Berg & Wilderom, 2004). The unsatisfactory starting points to the implementation of the concept of corporate culture brought forward by the aforementioned authors may inhibit the potential of corporate culture being tapped to the fullest.

2.17   Literature review as basis for the conceptual framework

The literature review showed over 100 dimensions of organisational culture (Jung, et al., 2007; van der Post, et al., 1997). This lack of consensus on dimensions of culture may impede the construction of a conceptual framework to be used as a basis for this research. However, the literature review showed recurring use of the following key themes, which could serve as a basis of the measurement of corporate culture:

- Mission
- Values

- Strategy

- Leadership

- Change and innovation

Together with additional dimensions identified in the later stages of this research, these key aspects can serve as a basis for the conceptual framework outlined in section 3.8.4 of the following research methodology chapter.

3   RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Huberman takes a critical stance on research methodology:

> In any study, there are only bits and pieces that can be legitimated on "scientific" grounds. The bulk comes from common sense, from prior experience, from the logic inherent in the problem definition or the problem space (1987, p. 12)

Despite this critique, research methodology is an essential part of any research, and its thorough understanding paved the way to disclosing the answers to the research questions. The different research methods are hereinafter explained first, followed by their practical application for answering the research questions in section 1.9.

3.1   Methodology and methods

Silverman (2010, p. 110) defines methodology as: "The choices we make about cases to study, methods of data gathering, forms of data analysis etc. in planning and executing a research study", whereas methods are specific research techniques. Whereas methodology can broadly be classified as either quantitative or qualitative, a wide array of methods can be attributed to belonging to qualitative or quantitative methodology. In positivist and analytical approaches to the social sciences, method has become restricted to a mechanical rule (Kvale, 2007, p. 48). A distinction may be made between primary or field research and secondary or desk research. Table 3.1 outlines the pros and cons of field and primary research according to the researcher. As no secondary data were available to answer the research questions outlined in section 1.9, this research had to depend on primary data.

Table 3.1: Examples of primary and secondary data sources in research methodology

	Primary/field research Examples	**Secondary/desk research** Examples
Quantitative methodology	• Purposively designed questionnaires	• Federal statistics • Database research
Qualitative methodology	• Qualitative interviews • Participant observation	• Hermeneutics based on ancient religious texts • Meta-analysis of different qualitative studies
Advantages	• Data can be collected and structured in a way it fits the researcher's needs • Researcher controls design of data collection • Primary data collected belong to the researcher • Broader selection of research methods	• Less time consuming • Less expensive • Easier to access
Disadvantages	• May be expensive and time consuming to acquire • Complex research design, elaboration of a research plan recommended • Often difficult to get sufficient response rates	• Data do not belong the researcher; accessibility may be difficult • Findings in a research project may be based on obsolete data • Quality of data is more difficult to examine • In contrary to primary research data, secondary data were collected for another purpose

Note: By the researcher

3.2   Logic of enquiry: Deduction versus induction

An important distinction can be made in the selection of deductive and inductive approaches.

3.2.1   Deduction.

The process of operationalisation is at the heart of deductive approaches; it enables the construction of specific instructions in terms of what and how to observe in order to establish a consensus about what is being investigated. Deductive methods involve the

researcher conceptualising and operationalising key dimensions in order to be able to measure variation statistically and thereby test hypotheses through data collection (Gill, et al., 2010). In deduction, a theory comes from deriving consequences from a more wide-ranging theory (Fielding & Gilbert, 2006). Figure 3.1 outlines the process of deductive logic (Gill, et al., 2010, p. 47).
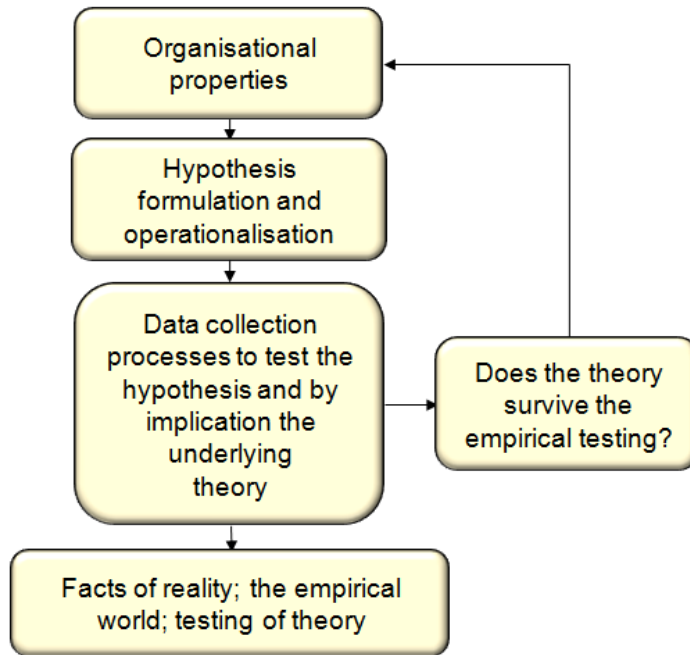
Figure 3.1: Processes of deductive logic
Note: Reproduced from Gill, et al. (2010)

3.2.2   Induction.

The logical order of induction is the reversed of deduction; it moves from the plane of observation of the empirical world to designing theories and explanations about what has been observed (Gill, et al., 2010). In induction, theory can be generated from a sample where the analysis finds common features (Fielding & Gilbert, 2006). Induction can be seen as learning by reflecting on experiences and through the formulation of categories, deduction by the formation of generalisations and testing them, thereby

contributing to concrete experiences. Figure 3.2 outlines the inductive development of

theory (Gill, et al., 2010, p. 56).
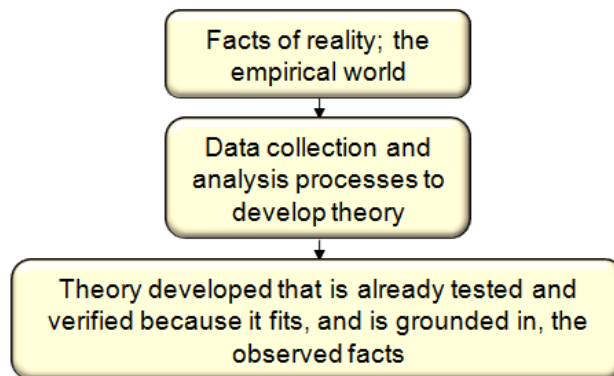
Figure 3.2: The inductive development of theory

Note: Reproduced from Gill, et al. (2010)

Deduction and induction are opposite sides to a coin; whereas induction is a method for

generating a theory, deduction is one for applying it (Fielding & Gilbert, 2006, p. 7).

The difference between deduction an induction is outlined in Figure 3.3 (Gill, et al.,

2010, p. 7).
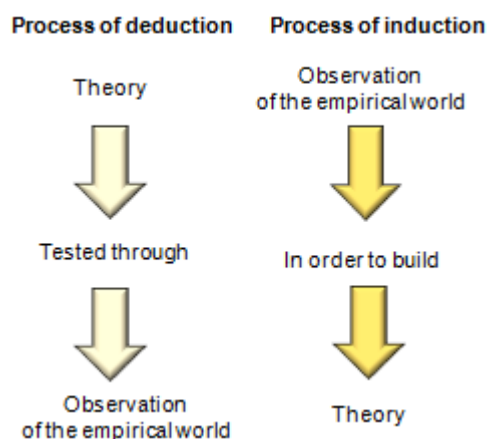
Figure 3.3: Deduction versus induction

Note: Reproduced from Gill, et al. (2010)

Contemporary justification for adhering to the inductive tradition in the social sciences tends to revolve around at least two arguments (Gill, et al., 2010):

- Explanations of social phenomena are relatively worthless unless they are grounded in observation and experience

- Use of methodological monism in the social sciences usually involves conceptualising and explaining human behaviour deterministically, as necessary responses to the action of empirically observable, measurable and manipulable stimuli, causal variables, or antecedent conditions.

Human beings have subjective, emotional, and cognitive capacities. It may therefore be argued that ignoring subjective processes when explaining human behaviour is a mistake. These and other considerations create the need for social scientists to explain human behaviour adequately (Gill, et al., 2010). The methodological implications in induction usually entail the avoidance of the highly structured approaches of deduction. The deductive researcher, prior to conducting empirical research, formulates a theoretical model of the behaviours of interest, which is then tested through data collection, imposing an external logic upon a phenomenon, which has an internal logic of its own. The interpretivist nature of relatively unstructured inductive approaches has encouraged the positivist counter-argument to claim such approaches as unreliable. Inductive approaches are not easily replicable and bias cannot be ruled out, whereas positivistic methods have built-in extensive means for protecting the researcher against personal biases (Gill, et al., 2010). Kobi (2005), for cultural studies, argues that while quantitative researchers typically adhere to deductive approaches, the modus operandi chosen by qualitative researchers is of inductive nature.

3.2.3   Deduction and induction compared.

Sackmann (1991) argues that culture can either be studied from a deductive logic of enquiry (an outsider perspective) or from an inductive (insider) perspective. Deduction is associated with positivism, with the goal of generalising from the data, often with the treatment of culture as one of several controllable organisational variables. In contrast, induction aims at getting a thorough, specific understanding of life within an organisation, without making a claim to generalise beyond the immediate context (Sackmann, 1991). The subject of this research, Post CH Ltd, is a corporation consisting of sentient human beings. The researcher did not consider the formulation of a hypothesis (an important element of the deductive tradition) for this research, mainly due to the subjective, emotional capacities often associated with corporate culture. It could further be argued that the diverse and specific nature of corporate culture favours inductive approaches to begin with, as corporate culture is more complex than previously assumed (Sackmann, 2007). Furthermore, induction seems to be adequate to answer the first (how top management defines intended culture), third and fourth research question outlined in section 1.9. To answer the second research question on measuring current culture, however, deduction can be considered as more adequate, involving the researcher conceptualising and operationalising cultural dimensions in order to be able to measure variation statistically (Gill, et al., 2010).

3.3   Nomothetic and ideographic methodology

At each end of the philosophical continuum between positivism and constructivism or interpretivism, nomothetic and ideographic methodology can be distinguished. Nomothetic methodology emphasises the importance of basing management research upon the rigorous application of systematic protocols, as is common in the natural sciences. Ideographic methodology emphasises the analysis of subjective accounts by

getting inside situations and involving oneself in various ways. This involves the deployment of qualitative methods in management research (Gill, et al., 2010, pp. 64-65). Table 3.2 outlines a comparison of nomothetic and ideographic methods (Gill, et al., 2010).

Table 3.2: A comparison of nomothetic and ideographic methods

Nomothetic methods Emphasise		Ideographic methods Emphasise
Deductive testing of theory	versus	Inductive development of theory
Explanation via analysis of causal relationships and explanation by covering-laws ("etic")	versus	Access to, and description of, subjective meaning systems and explanation of behaviour through understanding ("emic")
Generation and use of quantitative data	versus	Generation and use of qualitative data
Use of various controls to allow the rigorous testing of hypotheses	versus	Commitment to research in, or access to, everyday settings, whilst minimising the disruption caused by the research to those being investigated
Highly structured research methodology	versus	Minimum structure

Note: Based on Gill, et al. (2010)

3.4 Facilitating research in organisational science and management research

As research methods and techniques have become more sophisticated, there is some evidence that they have at the same time become increasingly less useful for resolving practical problems in organisations (Gill, et al., 2010). This aspect is usually less relevant for a Ph.D. As data were to be collected in a corporation, practical application of the research methods was, however, an advantage when seeking permission to conduct the research. An attempt to combine processes of research in organisational science is action research, which collaboratively takes place in real-life social contexts to ameliorate practical problems (Gill, et al., 2010). The researcher however decided for non-intervention, non-action research on grounds of:

- The personal and organisational risk involved in intervening with a large and rather risk-aversive corporation

- A supposed lack of commitment of Swiss Post's top management for any interventionist research methods

- The acceptance of a novice researcher within top management

- Validity concerns, as critics in action research show that validity is a criterion not satisfactorily met in action research

- The notion that "action research is mainly a form of local constructivism" (Gustavsen, 2008, p. 425) nourished concerns, as constructivism does not conform to the researcher's philosophical position

- The lack of the necessary facilitation skills to conduct interventionist methods with top management.

The motivation for Post CH Ltd's top management to participate in this research was to gain insight into corporate culture, but not to interfere with it. As the commitment of top management to conduct research is of paramount importance, the researcher considered any interventionist research methods as infeasible.

3.5   Quantitative and qualitative methodology

It is very challenging to measure a theme as complex as corporate culture. It can, according to Hofstede (1980), only be measured indirectly, based on the behaviour of the culture's members, by taking elements from the natural sciences and applying them to research in the social sciences. According to Prasad and Prasad (2002), the distinction between the natural sciences and the social sciences is important, as the two have often been seen to differ in terms of certain key dimensions (see Table 3.3).

Table 3.3: Distinction between the natural sciences and the social sciences

	Natural sciences Objective	**Social sciences** Subjective
Focus of enquiry	Natural objects	Human, social and cultural phenomena
Methodological aim of enquiry	Explanation and control	Understanding

Note: Based on Prasad and Prasad (2002)

Objective quantitative data are the numbers typically collected through surveys, and qualitative data are the words collected by conducting interviews, focus groups, observation, or other qualitative methods. Qualitative and quantitative methods are presented as two distinct research paradigms (Yauch & Steudel, 2003). The history of the quantitative-qualitative debate can be traced back to the late nineteenth century and the development of the interpretive approach to social enquiry, which was a reaction to positivism (Smith & Heshusius, 1986, p. 4). In the past, conventional management researchers have often conceptualised human and organisational phenomena as belonging to a natural world of facts and have subscribed to a host of problematic methodological assumptions. They include the givenness of reality or experience, and the researcher's objectivity, separation, and neutrality vis-à-vis their subject of enquiry (Bohman, 1991; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, quoted in Prasad & Prasad, 2002). These manoeuvres seem to have been motivated by a desire to produce universalistic and nomothetic organisational knowledge. The turn towards qualitative research in management and organisation studies partly denotes dissatisfaction with that situation (Prasad & Prasad, 2002). The distinction between qualitative and quantitative methodology however is not always clear-cut (Dixon-Woods, Shaw, Agarwal, & Smith, 2004). This is illustrated by the fact that about half of the qualitative researchers in Dixon-Woods, et al.'s team (2006) regarded content analysis as a qualitative analysis strategy, although the other half did not, unfortunately without outlining it any further.

Bryman and Bell (2011) for example argue that content analysis is firmly rooted in the quantitative research strategy. A further area where disagreement existed was in whether open-ended questions on a survey should be deemed to be qualitative (Dixon-Woods, et al., 2006). Although frequency count on responses to open-ended questions are often associated with qualitative research, Sale, et al. (2002) do not consider such counts as qualitative research. The researcher's attempt to outline key aspects of quantitative and qualitative methodology, based on Coxon (2005), Howe (1988), and Silverman (2010) is shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4: Levels of discourse in which the quantitative/qualitative contrast appears

	Quantitative	Qualitative
Paradigms	Variable-centred	Meaning-centred
Epistemological position	Positivism (Empiricism)	Interpretivism Rule-following/reasons-based explanation
Description	• Scientific knowledge as the paragon of rationality • Free of metaphysics • Based on pure observation • Free of interests, values, purposes, and psychological schemata of individuals • Anything that deserves the name "knowledge" must measure up to these standards	• Metaphysics in social science cannot be eliminated • Observation cannot be pure in the sense of altogether excluding interests, values, purposes, and psychological schemata • Investigation must employ empathic understanding
Data conceptualisation	Formal measurement approaches	Natural-language and speech as data
Form	Mostly numbers	Mostly words
Data collection	Systematic questionnaire format/closed-ended	Discursive data elicitation/open-ended
Data analysis models and approaches	General linear model	Thematic, semantic and content analytical procedures
Number of cases	Large	Small
Details	In aspects of correlations between variables	Found in the precise particulars of people's understanding s and interactions

Note: Based on Coxon (2005), Howe (1988), and Silverman (2010)

Buchanan and Bryman (2007) argue that the choice of research methods involves a complex, interdependent set of considerations. Many researchers nowadays argue that the quantitative-qualitative issue known as "paradigm wars" went from a situation of conflict to one of compatibility and cooperation during the early 1980s (Silverman, 2010; Smith & Heshusius, 1986). Despite the earlier disputation between quantitative and qualitative purists, most researchers from both ends have now reached basic agreement on several major points of earlier philosophical disagreement (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 16). The underlying assumptions of the quantitative and qualitative paradigms result in differences that extend beyond philosophical and methodological debates; the two paradigms have given rise to different journals, different sources of funding, different expertise, and different methods (Sale, et al., 2002, p. 45). Coxon (2005) argues that the hegemony of software producers such as the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), which triumphantly championed the quantitative survey component, will ensure that qualitative and quantitative divide to exist. The making of methodological choices involves considering the inevitable trade-offs that occur when issues such as different types of validity are debated. They happen because of the various strengths and weaknesses the different approaches have built into them (Gill, et al., 2010). Generally speaking, it can be assumed that there is no best methodological approach, but rather an approach most appropriate for the investigation of a given research question (Bryman, Becker, & Sempik, 2008; Denison, 1990; Gill, et al., 2010; Jung, et al., 2007; Niglas, 2009; Silverman, 2010). Choice of methods tend to be defined as a step between setting objectives and commencing fieldwork during the research process (Buchanan & Bryman, 2007). It is usually a compromise between options of several philosophical assumptions, and choices are frequently influenced by resources available and the ability to gain access to organisations and their members for the purpose of undertaking research (Gill, et al., 2010). Sale, et al. (2002, p. 50) argue

that because quantitative and qualitative methods represent two different paradigms, they are incommensurate. Flick (2011) however highlights common aspects between quantitative and qualitative research, as both:

- Work systematically, using empirical methods

- Aim at generalising findings

- Pursue specific research questions, trying to answer these by adhering to a planned and systematic procedure

- Have to check progress of research for ethical acceptability and appropriateness

- Have to make the process of research transparent.

When it comes to studying corporate culture, the methods described in the literature cover a wide range, from paper-and-pencil questionnaires associated with positivism to participant observations at the other end of the philosophical spectrum, and with methods such as group discussions or in-depth interviews located on a continuum between the reference parameters (Sackmann, 1991). According to Silverman (2010), observation has often been the method of choice to understand cultures or subcultures. The researcher however deemed observation as inappropriate for this research: bias cannot be ruled out, having been employed by the corporation when the data were collected. Organisational research is also not immune to changes; medium and large-sized organisations are frequently affected by role and structure change (Buchanan & Bryman, 2007). The research methods should therefore cater for such potential change. Figure 3.4 outlines influences on the choice of research methods (Buchanan & Bryman, 2007, p. 488).

Trends in organisational research

Widening boundaries:
An unbounded research field,
embracing an expanding
range of topics and aims

Multiple paradigms:
Positivist, interpretative,
critical, postmodern

Methodological inventiveness:
Combining conventional with
creative new data collection
and analysis methods

Organisational properties
Size, location, sites
professional bureaucracy,
role and structure,
stability/instability

Research topic
Traditional concern with
questions, objectives,
and norms of practice

Historical properties
Experience and
evidence base,
benchmark and
traditions, terminology

Evidential properties
Different audiences:
academic, management,
research participants;
audience receptiveness

Organisational research methods choice

Political properties
Negotiated objectives,
layered permission,
stakeholder demands,
partisan conclusions,
polictics of publishing

Personal properties
Preferences,
competencies, networks
relationships

Ethical properties
Heightened scrutiny,
codes of practice,
committee positions

Figure 3.4: Influences on choice of research methods

Note: Reproduced from Buchanan and Bryman (2007)

The next sections outline quantitative and qualitative methodology in more detail.

3.5.1 Quantitative methodology.

The quantitative paradigm is based on positivism (Sale, et al., 2002). Positivists assume

that social science researchers can neutrally collect data from an independent social

reality so as to empirically test causal predictions deduced from a priori theory, as long

as they follow the correct methodological procedures, which derive from those used in

the natural sciences (Cassell & Johnson, 2006, p. 790). They perceive truth as

something that describes an objective reality, separate from the observer and waiting to

be discovered (Sale, et al., 2002). A primary advantage of quantitative methods is the

possibility of statistical analysis, which is more difficult with qualitative methods

(Baetge, 2006). In addition, it has the advantage that numbers are universally

understood (Hand, 2008, p. 24). According to Silverman (2010), most research methods can be used in either the quantitative or qualitative methodology. As outlined in Table 3.5, Easterby-Smith, et al. (2002) distinguish between four main ways of gathering quantitative data and treat interviews and observations as special cases, with application under either the quantitative or qualitative paradigm.

Table 3.5:   *Main ways of gathering quantitative data*

Methodology	Interviews	Questionnaires	Tests/ measures	Observation
In general	Qualitative	Quantitative	Quantitative	Qualitative
Secondary	Quantitative	-	-	Quantitative

Note: Based on Easterby-Smith, et al. (2002)

In the period following WWII, most social scientists shared a desire to define in a clear-cut way what is to count as scientific (Mir & Mir, 2002), putting emphasis on Popper's hypothetico-deductive method expressed in the use of laboratory experimental methodology, which entails the deductive testing of theoretical predictions in the form of hypotheses. Quantitative purists believe that social observations should be treated as entities in much the same way that physical scientist treat physical phenomena, that social sciences enquiry should be objective, that time and context-free generalisations are desirable and possible, and that real causes of social scientific outcomes can be determined reliably and validly (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 14). A further characteristic of this school of thought is that researchers should eliminate their biases, remain emotionally detached and uninvolved with the objects of study, and test or empirically justify their hypotheses (Jung, et al., 2007). Quantitative purists call for rhetorical neutrality involving a formal writing style using the impersonal passive voice (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The positivist or empiricist tradition has had an marked impact on the Western world, although it has also been subject to criticism from other philosophical positions (Mir & Mir, 2002). Up to now, quantitative methods have

dominated in publications in prestigious academic journals (Alvesson and Skoldberg, 2002, quoted in Frost et al., 2010; Gill, et al., 2010). The conduct of fully objective and value-free research can however be considered a myth, even though the regulatory ideal of objectivity can be a useful one (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). A few examples of subjectivism and intersubjectivism in quantitative research include (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, pp. 15-16):

- What to study (i.e., what are the important problems?)
- Developing instruments believed to measure what the researcher views as being the target construct
- Tests and items for measurement
- Making score interpretations
- Selecting confidence or alpha levels
- Drawing conclusions and interpretations based on the data collected
- Deciding what elements of the data to emphasise or publish
- Deciding what findings are practically significant.

According to Howe (1988), one gets to the point of employing statistical tests only by first making numerous judgements about what counts as a valid measure of the variables of interest, what variables threaten to confound comparisons, and what statistical tests are appropriate.

In culture research, quantitative approaches however have inherent shortcomings, which include rigid, predefined categories and the risk that items will remain unnoticed. Furthermore, no information on the reason for the respondents' answers can be obtained. The focus on predefined dimensions might also lead to the idea of culture as something static and given (Jung, et al., 2007), and the use of predefined conceptual categories in quantitative research may not reflect the respondent's own dimensions, presuming an unwarranted generalisability (Xenikou & Furnham, 1996). Qualitative in-

depth methods however may not be feasible due to time-constraints, intrusiveness, human resources, and research skills, as a simple survey is potentially easier to conduct compared to complex qualitative research (Jung, et al., 2007). The majority of cultural surveys therefore depend on quantitative methodology, mostly through questionnaires (Jung, et al., 2007). Hofstede's (2001) landmark IBM study for example was totally quantitative (Denison, 1996; Easterby-Smith, et al., 2002). Gebauer, et al. (2010), in their study on the impact of service orientation in corporate culture, also adhered to mainly quantitative research, but with preceding face-to-face interviews to pre-test a questionnaire. Such self-report questionnaires allow the examination of a larger portion of an organisation; as a drawback, this is achieved at the costs of deeper insight and potentially unanticipated findings (Jung, et al., 2007). Quantitative approaches can be relatively easily administered and evaluated, and the numerical data obtained facilitates comparisons between organisations or give an indication on the extent to with participants agree or disagree between different groups (Yauch & Steudel, 2003). Denison (1996), in the quantitative part of his study, used existing questionnaires as a basis and grouped the set of indices into five areas, together with an additional qualitative case-study approach.

A further rationale for using quantitative methodology in the field of corporate culture is provided by Sackmann (2007, p. 9), who states that a direct connection between culture and performance of an organisation can be established with quantitative culture surveys. Yauch and Steudel (2003) furthermore propound the view that quantitative methods have two significant advantages: first, speed of administration and evaluation and second, that they facilitate comparisons between organisations and groups, as well as indicating the extent of agreement or disagreement between respondents.

3.5.2   Qualitative methodology.

The qualitative paradigm is based on interpretivism and constructivism; emphasis is on

process and meanings (Sale, et al., 2002, p. 45). Qualitative purists reject what they call

positivism; qualitative research typically refers to methodological approaches that rely

on non-quantitative (or non-statistical) modes of data collection and analysis (Prasad &

Prasad, 2002, p. 6). Qualitative research conjures up images of diverse philosophical

perspectives, research techniques, and procedures in organisational scholarship.

Researchers from this tradition are concerned with the changing nature of reality created

through people's experiences, an evolving reality, where researcher and the researched

are mutually interactive and inseparable (Phillips, 1988b, quoted in Sale, et al., 2002).

Various commentators have argued that qualitative research is very difficult to define

(Gill, et al., 2010, p. 148); although these methods share a common ground, each is

based on relatively unique methodological considerations. Kvale (2007, p. x) argues that

it has become more and more difficult to find a common definition of qualitative

research that is accepted by the majority of researchers. A possible definition for

qualitative research is: "Any type of research that produces findings not arrived at by

statistical procedures or other means of quantifications" (Strauss and Corbin, 1998, p.

11, quoted in Gill, et al., 2010). The term qualitative is not strictly identical to

interpretive, although they are frequently identified in the same breath (Prasad &

Prasad, 2002). Mir and Mir (2002) hold the view that organisational researchers

referring to interpretive and post-positivist ontology should examine the effects of

organisational measures on the wider society they are embedded in, particularly on the

common people. Many researchers using qualitative methods however think that the

social and natural sciences should not share the same methodology, pointing out the

complexity and juvenility of the social sciences (Okasha, 2002). Qualitative researchers,

especially interpretivists and constructivists, contend that time and context-free

generalisations are neither desirable nor possible. They view research as value-bound and believe that knower and known cannot be separated because the subjective knower is the only source of reality. Furthermore, their style of writing prefers detailed, rich and thick (empathic) description, written directly and somewhat informally (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Sackmann, 1991). The qualitative researcher's design consists of provisional questions to investigate, some sites for gathering data, and a schedule allocating time for data collection, analysis and writing up results. The quantitative researcher's design has these elements as well, but the questions are usually more precisely and exhaustively stated, and the schedule sharply distinguishes the data collection, analysis, and write-up phases of the research (Howe, 1988, p. 12). Qualitative management research has been seen as arising in response to limitations perceived in conventional quantitative management research (Prasad & Prasad, 2002), although researchers such as Hogan and Sinclair (1996, quoted in Gill, et al., 2010) argue that scientific enquiry based on the methods of the natural sciences is the proper means for examining what happens in organisations. Qualitative methods have become key methods of social research since the 1980s, exemplified by the growth of qualitative publications and with computer programs facilitating qualitative analyses of transcribed interviews (Kvale, 2007). The advantage of qualitative methodology to organisational culture research lies in its ability to identify structures through patterns displayed by individual behaviour. Appropriate ways to identify such patterns include techniques such as interviews, observation or discussion (Jung, et al., 2007). The presumed inaccessibility, depth or unconscious quality of culture further serves as a justification for advocates of qualitative culture research (Xenikou & Furnham, 1996). For assessing culture, Yauch and Steudel (2003) add the ability to probe for underlying values, beliefs, and assumptions for a better understanding of what is driving the behaviour of the members of an organisation. Furthermore, they emphasise the broad and open-ended

enquiry of qualitative research (giving participants more control over the content of the data), which allows participants to raise issues that are not covered by the preconceived, finite set of issues used by quantitative researchers. These are relevant aspects for the first question in this research, the definition of Post CH Ltd's intended culture. The use of qualitative data alone however is not considered to be sufficient for the purpose of comparing different cultures in an organisation (van den Berg & Wilderom, 2004, p. 576). The time-consuming and often costly nature of qualitative research represents a limitation in research on corporate culture, and the lack of objectivity and the narrow focus on a small number of cases could furthermore lend to limited generalisability (Jung, et al., 2007). The subtleties and complexities of life make qualitative research difficult to design, and the rich information gathered can be intimidating and frustrating, which could tempt researchers to prefer easily measurable quantitative cultural indicators (Jung, et al., 2007). The difficulty with qualitative data lies in condensing complex and context-bound information into a format that tells a convincing story. Furthermore, the nature of the problem investigated and the researcher's philosophical stance will dictate the relationship of the research process. Researchers who prefer a more positivist approach will more likely see a sharper distinction between data and the process of analysis. A clear explanation of how the analysis was done, how the researcher reached conclusions, and a demonstration of how the raw data were transformed into meaningful conclusions is necessary.

In terms of quality criteria, Bryman, et al. (2008, p. 262) state that they are well known and widely agreed for quantitative research, but this is not the case for qualitative research. There is a debate in the literature on whether the concepts of quality used to assess qualitative research should be similar to, parallel to, or quite different from those used to assess quantitative research (Spencer, Ritchie, Lewis, & Dillon, 2003, p. 4). Whereas some researchers emphasise the importance of detailed transcriptions and the

use of specific software, others prioritise subjectivity, flexibility and contend that quasi-statistics and computer software are neither necessary nor sufficient (Dixon-Woods, et al., 2004). According to Seale (1999), an agreement on all-embracing criteria to assess quality in qualitative methodology is not addressed directly, preserving its elusive nature. This is in marked contrast to the quantitative tradition, where a consensus around certain ideas in terms of quality in research has been easier to sustain (Seale, 1999, p. 467). The emergence of many proposals for quality criteria in qualitative research has led to over a hundred sets of such proposals, and attempts to produce consensus on such criteria has been very difficult (Dixon-Woods, et al., 2004). Given the abundance and plurality of approaches in qualitative research, this is not surprising. According to Bryman, et al. (2008, p. 262), little research has been carried out on views of quality criteria among social researchers. There is however disagreement over whether criteria for quality in qualitative research should exist at all, as some researchers argue that criteria are best regarded as guide to good practice rather than rigid requirements (Dixon-Woods, et al., 2004). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) support the view that qualitative researchers sometimes do not pay due attention to providing an adequate rationale for the interpretation of their data. Bryman, et al.'s (2008) survey yielded a high relevance of validity (stemming from positivistic ontology) as a criterion in qualitative research. Reliability can be demonstrated by providing the audit trails or the recorded audio files of the interviews, and objectivity can be shown by critical self-reflection and by linking the data with the findings of this research.

3.5.3   Conclusion on qualitative and quantitative research.

A distinction between quantitative and qualitative methodology exists, although the boundaries seem not to be always clear-cut. Howe (1988) contends that the chief

differences between quantitative and qualitative design and analysis are related to the

questions which are of interest and their place within the background knowledge. Table

3.6 summarises the main differences between qualitative and quantitative methods,

based on Jung, et al. (2007, adapted from Hussey & Hussey, 1997).

Table 3.6: *Assumed methodological differences between qualitative and quantitative approaches*

Qualitative	Quantitative
Inductive process	Deductive process
Mutual, simultaneous shaping of factors	Cause and effect
Emerging design; categories identified during research process	Static design; categories isolated before study
Context-bound	Context-free
Patterns, theories developed for understanding	Generalisations leading to prediction, explanation, and understanding
Accurate and reliable through verification	Accurate and reliable through validity and reliability

Note: Based on Jung, et al. (2007)

Another distinction are quality criteria, which seem to differ between qualitative

research and the methods developed for appraising quality in quantitative research

(Dixon-Woods, et al., 2004). Koller summarises the differentiation between qualitative

and quantitative methodology as follows:

> Quantitative methods tend to focus on a few variables, which are to be
>
> assessed as precisely and accurately as possible. Typically, the whole
>
> population is in the center of interest. Qualitative approaches are oriented
>
> more broadly and comprehensiveness has priority over precision (2008, p.
>
> 51)

Although the quantitative-qualitative debate flourishing in the 1970s and 1980s has

somewhat abated, it still presents a decisive point in research, based on the researcher's

epistemological and ontological position, which can be considered a key issue in the

quantitative-qualitative debate (Sale, et al., 2002). Both quantitative and qualitative research have their inherent advantages and disadvantages; depending on the situation, either the qualitative or the quantitative approach is more appropriate (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Appendix X outlines the relevant strengths and weaknesses of quantitative and qualitative methods for this research.

The researcher agrees with Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) that consideration and discussion of pragmatism by research methodologists and empirical researchers are productive, as they can offer an immediate and useful middle position philosophically and methodologically. The aforementioned aspects of qualitative and quantitative research led the researcher to look for an alternative that combines the advantages from both. Such pragmatic, balanced, pluralist solutions to overcome the existing methodological dichotomy are known as mixed methods.

3.5.4   Mixed methods.

Philosophically, mixed methods are the third wave or third research movement, overcoming the qualitative-quantitative divide by offering a logical and practical alternative (Smith & Heshusius, 1986). Mixed methods designs incorporate the combination of qualitative and quantitative methodology as well as different methods of data collection (Koller, 2008). From a historical perspective, the combination of qualitative and quantitative elements in the social sciences is nothing new; it was already conducted in the Hawthorne experiments in the 1920s (Schreier & Odağ, 2010), before it was superseded by the dominant quantitative paradigm. In the last decades, convergence was re-established, not least due to the appearance of alternative paradigms (Schreier & Odağ, 2010). Mixed methods research falls on a continuum between monomethod to fully mixed methods, as outlined in Figure 3.5 (based on Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, pp. 17-18).
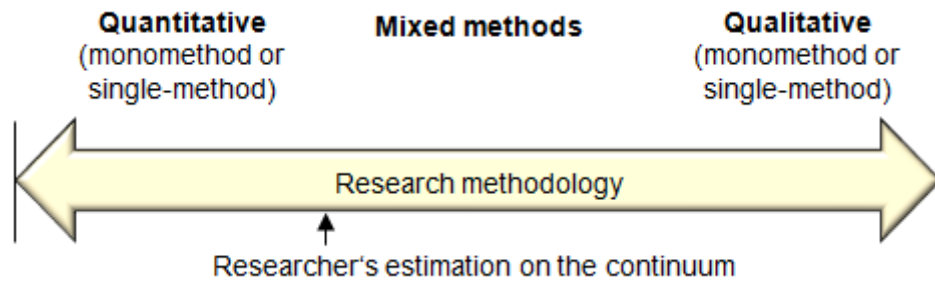
Quantitative	Mixed methods	Qualitative
Positivism	Pragmatism	Interpretivism
Deduction	Deduction, induction and/or abduction	Induction
Theory/hypothesis testing	Eclectic form to method selection	Theory/hypothesis generation
Standardised data collection	Attempt to legitimate the use of multiple approaches	Researcher as "instrument" for data collection
Statistical data analysis	Expansive and creative	Qualitative data analysis

Figure 3.5: Comparison of research methodology

Note: Based on Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004)

Mixing methods implies the question of whether the quantitative and qualitative components of an investigation are related to each other (Bryman, 2007). Several authors (Hofstede, et al., 1990; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Xenikou & Furnham, 1996) have attempted to combine Smircich's (1983) functionalist perspective associated with positivism and the phenomenological perspectives (Denison & Mishra, 1995) in an organisational culture context, intending that the end product should be more than the sum of the quantitative and qualitative components (Bryman, 2007). Denison and Mishra (1995) demonstrated that an inductive, theory-building approach can be coupled with deductive, quantitative research. Yauch and Steudel (2003) discovered that mixed methods are valuable in two ways: first, in the triangulation of cultural factors, thereby increasing validity by reducing bias; second, by combining the two paradigms, leading

to a deeper understanding of organisational culture. A mixed method approach in the sense of methodological triangulation combines the advantages of each method and therefore contributes to overcoming the weaknesses of the methods involved (Koller, 2008, p. 50). Denison (1990, p. 192) argues in a similar vein when considering how to overcome the limitations of single or monomethod, stating that the result is "more than the sum of two partially flawed studies". Furthermore, it provides opportunities for greater insight than can be achieved by one approach alone (Buchanan & Bryman, 2007, pp. 486-487). The compatibility thesis supports the view that combining quantitative and qualitative methods is a good thing and denies that such a wedding of methods is epistemologically incoherent (Howe, 1988, p. 10). Rousseau (1990, quoted in Xenikou & Furnham, 1996) further argues for the use of different research methods depending on the element of culture to be examined. This opposes Sale, et al.'s view (2002), which takes the position that qualitative and quantitative paradigms do not study the same phenomena and that combining the two methods is not a viable option. It is not surprising that qualitative and quantitative purists view their paradigm as the ideal for research and that they advocate the incompatibility thesis (Howe, 1988). This thesis posits that qualitative and quantitative research paradigms should not be mixed and that a combination of both paradigms is considered as improper (Schreier & Odağ, 2010). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) however support the view that mixed methods research will be successful as more investigators study and help advance its concepts and that mixed methods research as the third research paradigm can also help to bridge the schism between quantitative and qualitative research. Miles and Huberman (1984a, p. 21, quoted in Smith & Heshusius, 1986) argue that "epistemological purity does not get research done". Coxon (2005) also argues that the search should be for a new paradigm to supplant the qualitative and quantitative distinction in social science and stakes a claim for this "integrative middle ground". Sackmann (1991, p. 303) presses the

point that the overall methodology must strike a balance between unstructured, in-depth enquiry and a highly structured approach, and that such a midrange methodology is mixed methods. In a similar vein, Ashkanasy, et al. (2000, p. 144) argue that mixed methods allow researchers to capitalise on the advantages of quantitative methods while capturing a richer picture of the organisation that is often not amenable to quantification.

Definition of mixed methods.

Mixed methods can be defined in different ways: "The class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods approaches, concepts or language into a single study" (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 17). Alternatively, "the use of two or more methods that draw on different meta-theoretical assumptions" (Moran-Ellis et al., 2006, p. 46); "qualitative data collection and/or analysis with quantitative data collection and/or analysis in a single study" (Hurmerinta-Peltomäki & Nummela, 2006, p. 441). Greene, et al. (1989, p. 256) argue in a similar vein: ". . . as those that include at least one quantitative and one qualitative method . . . where neither type of method is inherently linked to any particular inquiry paradigm". This is similar to Tashakkori and Teddlie's (2003) usage of mixed methods as an umbrella term for any combination of qualitative and quantitative research. A final agreement between different authors on mixed methods is however still missing (Niglas, 2009; Schreier & Odağ, 2010). Mixed methods furthermore must not be confused with the use of more than one qualitative method in the same study; Frost, et al. (2010) describes this as pluralism. The integration in mixed methods research can take place at several points in the research process (Moran-Ellis, et al., 2006, p. 56). Where one method is subsumed to the other in terms of the weight of its contribution to the research, integration is not an appropriate description of the relationship between the

methods and should rather be titled as a combination (Moran-Ellis, et al., 2006). Table 3.7, based on Schreier and Odağ (2010), shows the difference between the various mixed research methods.

Table 3.7: *Difference between mixed, mono and multimethods*

Research method	Explanation
Mixed methods (also known as): • Multitrait-multimethods • Blended research • Integrative research • Triangulation • Mixed methods • Mixed research • Hybris	Combination of elements of qualitative and quantitative research
Quasi-mixed methods	Application of qualitative and quantitative methods alike, but with a strong dominance of either paradigm
Monomethod	Anchored in either the qualitative or quantitative paradigm
Multimethods	Uses multiple methods anchored in one paradigm

Note: Based on Schreier and Odağ (2010)

Mixed method studies can include positivistic-quantitative and interpretive-qualitative components or a mix of different qualitative data. In this sense, creating mixed method designs within one study can be seen as another form of triangulation (Koller, 2008). The notion of triangulation seems however not to be used consistently (Yauch & Steudel, 2003). Several authors (Greene, et al., 1989; Seale, 1999) use it for a specific type of mixed methods, with the intention to increase validity in a study by using several methods to assess the same conceptual phenomenon. Other researchers define the term as a vehicle for cross-validation, when multiple methods produce comparable data. To avoid the inherent problems in varying definitions, Yauch and Steudel (2003) recommend avoiding use of the term.

Application of mixed methods.

Mixed method strategies are often guided by more than one purpose (Greene, et al., 1989, p. 266), and there are several viewpoints as to why qualitative and quantitative methods can be combined (Sale, et al., 2002). The aspect that the complexity of the phenomena requires data from a large number of perspectives is backed up by Buchanan and Bryman (2007), who contend that not combining qualitative and quantitative methods at the very least raises questions about whether researchers are accessing all that is available to them in the data. The substantial integration of qualitative and quantitative data is however still rarely seen (Greene, et al., 1989). These authors (1989), in an empirical study based on 57 mixed methods studies, found the following five purposes of mixed methods research: triangulation, complimentary, development, initiation, and expansion, ranging from constrained-narrow to open-wide in terms of flexibility. The rationale on using mixed methods for cultural research is to get a broader picture (Schreier & Odağ, 2010), for complimentary reasons (Greene, et al., 1989), and to take advantage of the differences by using such hybrid designs, which often pay off when studying a single topic (Denison, 1990). Sieber (1973, quoted in Yauch & Steudel, 2003) argues that concluding qualitative fieldwork can be significantly helpful prior to the development of a quantitative survey. In contemporary social science research, the combination of interviews with other methods is frequently used (Kvale, 2007). Qualitative and quantitative methods can be combined in such a way that their strengths and weaknesses are mutually compensated (Schreier & Odağ, 2010). Denison (1990, p. 35) suggests that different perspectives may be appropriate at different stages in the research process, and Silverman (2010, p. 10) argues that "methods should be our servants, not our rulers". Several authors (Denison, 1996; Ernst, 2003; Sackmann, 2007; van den Berg & Wilderom, 2004) hold the view that a combination of methods will yield data that are more reliable and are preferable to

single-method approaches. Van den Berg and Wilderom (2004, p. 576) advocate for mixed methods, particularly valuing interviews before and after organisational culture questionnaires, not least for a better interpretation of expressions. Denison (1996, pp. 645-646) sees the nowadays widely neglected difference between organisational culture and climate (see section 2.2.6) and the ensuing, dwindling difference in applying either qualitative or quantitative research methods as a rationale for an increased use of mixed methods in the field of organisational culture.

Design of mixed methods.

A major problem with the current state of affairs is that there are a plethora of mixed methods designs in existence (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009). These authors claim that it is not possible for a typology of mixed methods designs to be exhaustive because "the actual diversity in mixed methods studies is far greater than any typology can adequately encompass" (Maxwell & Loomis, 2003, p. 244, quoted in Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009). Furthermore, many of the existing typologies are either unnecessarily complicated, too simplistic, or do not represent a consistent system. This lack of coherence and conceptual clarity is not untypical in developing areas, and it is not surprising that many different labels for the same ideas can be found (Niglas, 2009). When undertaking a mixed methods study, a researcher can use qualitative research methods for one phase and quantitative methods for the other research phase. Thus, a qualitative and a quantitative research study can be conducted either concurrently or sequentially. Fully mixed methods involve the mixing of quantitative and qualitative techniques within or across one or more stages of the research process. In partially mixed methods, both the quantitative and qualitative elements are conducted either concurrently or sequentially in their entirety before being mixed at the data

interpretation stage (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009). Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2009) conceptualised these designs as a function of:

- Level of mixing (partially versus fully mixed)

- Time orientation (concurrent versus sequential)

- Emphasis of approaches (equal status versus dominant status).

In contrast, Hurmerinta-Peltomäki and Nummela (2006, p. 446) differentiate between data collection and data analysis to categorise mixed methods studies. Other researchers distinguish between theoretical, data, investigator and methodological types of triangulation (Easterby-Smith, et al., 2002) and between embedded, explanative and explorative design approaches (Schreier & Odağ, 2010). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004, p. 22) suggest a classification according to time order decision and the emphasis on paradigm, as shown in Figure 3.6. Capital letters denote high priority or weight; lower case letters denote lower priority or weight.
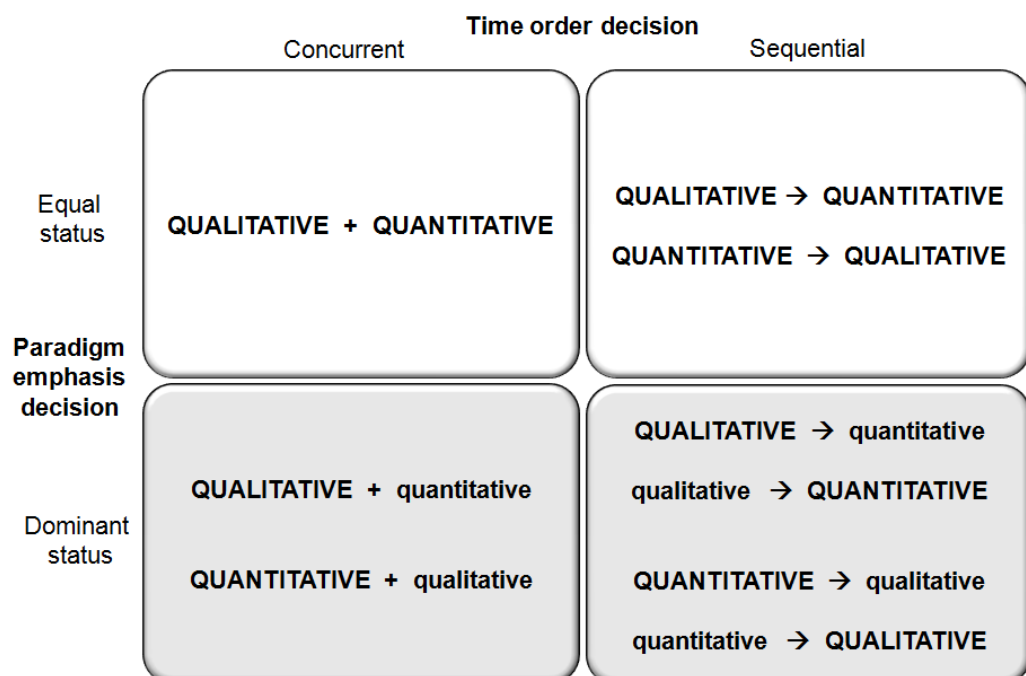
Figure 3.6: Mixed method design matrix

Note: Reproduced from Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004)

This differentiation between simultaneous and sequential research designs is one of the most common aspects in classifying mixed methods designs (Niglas, 2009). Owing to the vast number of typologies and designs, it is not surprising that there are other mixed methods classifications. Niglas (2009) argues that the best method of compiling a mixed method design is through an open and creative, but systematic and organised view on and between the different methodological aspects.

Strengths and weaknesses of mixed research.

Besides the potential to offer insights that could not otherwise be gleaned by bringing quantitative and qualitative findings together (Bryman, 2007), mixed methods offer a multitude of strengths and weaknesses outlined in Table 3.8, based on Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004, p. 21) and Moran-Ellis, et al. (2006). Silverman (2010) adds the possible under-analysis and increased complexity of a research framework as a further disadvantage.

Table 3.8: Strengths and weaknesses of mixed methods

	Mixed methods
Strengths	- Can provide strengths of quantitative and qualitative methods - A researcher can use the strengths of an additional method to overcome the weaknesses in another method, by using both methods in a research study - Can add insight and understandings that might be missed when a single method is used exclusively - Qualitative and quantitative research used together produce more complete knowledge necessary to inform theory and practice - Increasing the accuracy of research findings and the level of confidence in them
Weaknesses	- It can be very difficult for a single researcher to carry out both qualitative and quantitative research, especially if two or more approaches are expected to be used concurrently - The researcher has to learn about multiple methods and approaches and understand how to mix them appropriately - More expensive than monomethod

Note: Based on Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) and Moran-Ellis, et al. (2006)

Challenges and barriers in mixed methods.

The challenge of an analysis that is integrated in any sense lies in developing some form

of common analysis of a diverse set of data without losing the characteristics of each

type. One approach would be to analyse each set of data within the parameters of its

own paradigm but addressing common analytic questions (Moran-Ellis, et al., 2006, p.

53). Table 3.9, based on Hurmerinta-Peltomäki and Nummela (2006), outlines

advantages and challenges associated with the implementation of mixed methods

designs.

Table 3.9: Advantages and challenges in mixed method designs

	Mixed methods	**Single method**
Advantages	• Can facilitate the quantitative part of the study • Can improve validity of a research (e.g., by identifying threats to validity) • Can allow a better understanding of the research subject	• Requires less cost, less financial resources and is usually less time-consuming • More likely to get the study published, as rather institutionalised mindsets in terms of empirical research designs still seem to be prevalent
Challenges	• Likely to demand more and different kinds of resources • Requires the acquisition of quantitative and qualitative methodological skills • Requires thorough planning of the research process in advance • Quantitative data still seem to dominate in reporting the findings	• Does not allow the insight gained from a mixed methods approach

Note: Based on Hurmerinta-Peltomäki and Nummela (2006)

Bryman (2007) identified nine barriers to mixing methods after interviewing 20 British

social scientists. The researcher added an additional, tenth aspect, the amount of time

needed to conclude a mixed methods research. Appendix XI outlines these barriers to

mixed methods.

Critics of mixed methods.

Just because qualitative and quantitative methods are often combined does not mean that it is always appropriate to do so (Sale, et al., 2002, p. 44). Even proponents of mixed methods consider it partially problematic (Greene, et al., 1989). Nevertheless, mixed methods cannot lead to the conclusion that the qualitative and quantitative perspectives are compatible. Not only must each accept a different conceptualisation of validity, each must also hold to a different interpretation of the place of procedure in the claim to validity (Smith & Heshusius, 1986). The alternative to the pragmatic conception is the forced choice between truth as correspondence and truth as coherence (Howe, 1988, p. 15). A critique concerning the pragmatic design of mixed methods relates to the combination of methods without considering their epistemological and methodological basis adequately (Schreier & Odağ, 2010).

Philosophical positioning.

At the philosophical level, mixed methods may pose a problem. Easterby-Smith, et al. (2002) thus suggest using, whenever possible, different methods from within the same paradigm. These authors warn researchers to be wary of mixing methods simply for the sake of getting a slightly richer picture, as this may lead to contradictions and confusions. The reality of what is investigated may be considerably more complex than the data collection methods are capable of demonstrating. Mixed methods attempts could be problematic, as their growth in popularity may weaken the confidence in preoccupation with epistemology and methods (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Howe (1988) argues that researchers should forge ahead with what works and seems to suggest that only pragmatists (or those not wedded to either paradigm) would attempt to combine research methods across the quantitative and qualitative divide. Greene, et al. (1989) and Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) argue similarly, by pointing out that those

engaged in applied research pay little attention to paradigm differences, and different methods are not treated as exclusive to a particular perspective (Moran-Ellis, et al., 2006). Sackmann (1991) recommends using the methods that are most appropriate to unravel the sense-making processes underlying culture, based on the research questions.

Quality criteria in mixed methods.

The results of Bryman's study (2006) show that most respondents feel that a combination of traditional and alternative criteria should be employed in relation to mixed methods research, using different criteria for the qualitative and quantitative components alike. This is backed up by Seale, who asserts that:

> Triangulation, if used with due caution, can enhance the credibility of a research account by providing an additional way of generating evidence in support of key claims (1999, p. 61)

Furthermore, Seale supports the view that findings from mixed method approaches can either be juxtaposed or integrated. Bryman, et al. (2008) argue that mixed methods research should be judged by the degree in which the different components are integrated, which can sometimes be difficult.

Mixed methods in cultural research

The application of mixed methods in a study can offer benefit and create various types of added value, but the purpose of selecting mixed methods should be expressed (Hurmerinta-Peltomäki & Nummela, 2006). The results of a triangulation study can converge, be complementary to each other, or diverge. Diverging results are undesirable, but may be a cause for further investigation (Schreier & Odağ, 2010). The use of mixed methods in the domain of corporate culture is documented in several cases (Denison, 1990; Gordon & DiTomaso, 1992; Hofstede, et al., 1990).

The possibility of combining the advantages from both qualitative and quantitative methods, while at the same time not relinquishing from the researcher's philosophical stance as a post-positivist, is appealing. Mixed methods allow combining the advantages of quantitative methods, such as cost-effectiveness, with preceding qualitative methods that elicit the required a priori knowledge about the cultural context of an organisation (Sackmann, 1991). Despite the higher complexity and the inherently higher demands in terms of costs and time, the advantages of mixed methods can outweigh the deficiencies (Payne, 2000).

3.6   Justification of research methods

Based on the findings from the previous chapters, the research methods for measuring Post CH Ltd's culture in order to answer the research questions outlined in section 1.9 have to meet the following conditions:

- Conformity to accepted academic standards

- Fit to Post CH Ltd's needs (i.e., by referring to the company's core values)

- Incorporation of employees from all hierarchical levels to avoid the predominant use of manager-only samples in cultural research explained in section 2.16.1.

- Good comprehensibility of the questionnaire by using a plain, easy understandable language, rendering the questionnaire usable for both white-collar employees and blue-collar workers

- Availability of the questionnaire in German, French and Italian, to cater for Switzerland's three main national languages

- Data collection and analysis at reasonable costs.

For the first research question, how do the board of directors and executive management define intended corporate culture of Post CH Ltd, the researcher considered qualitative, semi-structured interviews as most suitable. Interviewing is not only seen as the most

fundamental of all qualitative methods, it is also often claimed to be "the best method" of gathering information (Easterby-Smith, et al., 2002). In the context of organisational or corporate culture, Ashkanasy, Broadfood, et al. (2000) argue that the deepest levels of culture can only be accessed by using qualitative methods such as focused interviews and by involving organisational members. Furthermore, van den Berg and Wilderom (2004) consider in-depth interviews as useful for the discovery of unique characteristics of a culture. Due to the limited availability of the members of top management, it was impossible to use any collective qualitative research methods such as focus groups or cooperative enquiry. As interviews have been successfully deployed in other organisational or corporate culture research, e.g., by Hofstede, et al. (1990), the selection of interviews to start with was an obvious choice for the researcher.

In order to answer the second research question, what is Post CH Ltd's current corporate culture, it follows that employees from all hierarchical levels must participate in this research. Whereas qualitative methods have their strengths in limited number of in-depth cases, the quantitative paradigm is suitable for a large number of people (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). A quantitative survey facilitates comparisons between groups as well as allowing the extent of agreement or disagreement between respondents (Yauch & Steudel, 2003). Self-administered surveys are arguably the most widely used form of data collection in organisational studies (Simsek & Veiga, 2001). Structured questionnaires are characterised by cost-effectiveness in covering large samples and allow for controlled comparisons (Jung, et al., 2009; Sackmann, 1991, 1992). Together with qualitative data, questionnaire measures represent a standardised means to assess organisational culture (Ashkanasy, Broadfood, et al., 2000, p. 145).

The third – what is the extent of the alignment between the intended and current corporate culture of Post CH Ltd – and fourth research question, how can any potential divergence between intended and current corporate culture be mitigated, can be

answered using content analysis (see section 3.7.5). Content analysis seeks to quantify content in terms of predetermined categories in a systematic and replicable manner (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 289).

Furthermore, the researcher decided to include an optional, open question in the questionnaire, allowing respondents to make comments and expectations about their perception of Post CH Ltd's corporate culture.

The researcher finally selected a mixed methods approach for this research, the combination of qualitative and quantitative methods. This decision is based on the truism that research methods should be chosen based on the specific task (Silverman, 2010), more precisely by the research questions outlined in section 1.9. The validity of mixed methods in the application of cultural assessment has been demonstrated by several researchers, such as Yauch and Steudel (2003). The value of a mixed method approach in this research can furthermore be seen in acquiring a deeper understanding of the research subjects by combining qualitative methods with ensuing quantitative methods. This combination of qualitative and quantitative methods is not only well suited to answer the research questions; they can also be associated with post-positivism and hence conform to the researcher's philosophical position.

3.7   Interviews

This section gives an overview of interviews and the relevant aspects associated with this method.

3.7.1   Interviews as a research method.

Silverman (2010) describes doing interviews as the most natural thing in the world. There is also a preference for interview-based qualitative research in mainstream journals, and interviews clearly predominate as the single most preferred qualitative

method (Silverman, 2010). Conversation, an old way of obtaining systematic knowledge, is a basic mode of human interaction; the term interview however is a relatively new approach in the social sciences (Kvale, 2007). The term can be defined as: "A systematic form of asking people for research purposes, either in an open form with an interview schedule or in a standardised form similar to a questionnaire" (Flick, 2011, p. 249). Alternatively, explicitly referring to research interviews (Kvale, 2007, p. 8): "An interview with the purpose of obtaining descriptions of the life world of the interviewer with respect to interpreting the meaning of the described phenomena". Knowledge in an interview is constructed in the interaction between the interviewer and the interviewee (Kvale, 2007). Interviewing, however, is a little standardised craft; different interviewers, using the same interview guide, can come up to different statements or results on the same topic (Kvale, 2007). The complexity of interviews is sometimes underestimated; it is time consuming to undertake them properly, and the method is sometimes used when other methods might be more appropriate (Easterby-Smith, et al., 2002). In addition, Silverman (2008) criticises the "artificial" research setting of interviews, although this has become more predominant in qualitative research.

Most interviews are conducted on a one-to-one basis, between the interviewer and the interviewee (Easterby-Smith, et al., 2002, p. 87). Research engagement in interviews will require individuals to explore their own thoughts and feelings to an interested and respected other (Clark, 2010, pp. 407-408). Because field research interviewing is so much like normal conversations, researchers must keep reminding themselves that what they are doing is something different (Babbie, 2007). The hierarchically asymmetrical relationship in an interview may be uncomfortable for the interviewer: it can require the researcher to control the interaction with someone superior, an aspect that was relevant

for this research. Garton and Copland (2010) argue that it is important for a researcher to highlight the "baggage" brought to the interview.

Types of interviews.

In the selection of a type of interview, the researcher has to take the research questions and the ontological position into account. A common typology involves the denomination of the survey interview as a structured interview and the categorisation of the qualitative interview as a semi-structured or unstructured, open or in-depth interview. Appendix XII outlines the main differences between the two interview types. Structured interviews are seen to be somewhat less effective in covering large samples than questionnaires, although they are subject to the same criticism and problems (Sackmann, 1991, p. 301). An experienced researcher can also use in-depth interviews (e.g., to collect information on values and practices), such as was done by Hofstede, et al. (1990). According to Sackmann (1991), such interviews can be used to uncover culture in an organisation by using broad and open-ended questions and by bracketing the interviewer's own cultural assumptions. Sackmann (1992) argues that it is difficult to ask members directly about what they think their culture is; this may discourage researchers from using structured interviews in a cultural context. In a study on subcultures in organisations, Sackmann (1991) therefore used open interviews with an issue-focus, asking all interviewees the same questions on major innovations or changes that had occurred in the company in the last five years, before going deeper with refining questions. The researcher used a similar approach: the interview guide served as a guideline, which the researcher complemented with additional, spontaneous questions.

Epistemological conception.

The qualitative nature of interviews derives from the notion that they cannot be seen as objective accounts of the interviewee's reality. Instead, they should rather be viewed as an interactional event, in which interviewer and interviewee jointly construct meaning (Garton & Copland, 2010). It is widely acknowledged that interviewees can take on different voices or roles depending on the way they situate themselves vis-à-vis a particular question and the person asking it (Block, 2000, p. 760, quoted in Garton & Copland, 2010). Kvale (2007) distinguishes between two contrasting metaphors of the interviewer and of knowledge production. First, the miner metaphor (a view close to the mainstream in the social sciences, which the researcher used for this research), where knowledge is waiting to be uncovered or excavated by the researcher out of a subject's experiences; and second, the alternative traveller metaphor related to anthropology.

Structure and stages of an interview.

One of the first problems all researchers must resolve is how much structure to put into the interview. Researchers are likely to be more successful if they are clear at the outset about the exact areas of interest (Easterby-Smith, et al., 2002). Kvale (2007) attributes to interviews either a hypothesis-testing or an explorative purpose: whereas interviews that test hypotheses tend to be more structured and standardised, an exploratory interview has less pre-planned structure. The more open the interview, the more likely are spontaneous, unexpected answers; on the other hand, the later conceptual structuring and analysis will be easier in a more structured approach (Flick, 2011). Such a structured approach is suggested by Kvale (2007, pp. 35-36), who argues that interview craftsmanship involves going through the seven stages of a research interview (see Table 3.10).

Table 3.10: The seven stages of an interview enquiry

Step	Description
Thematising	Formulates purpose and concepts of the interview
Designing	Plan the design, taking into consideration all seven stages, before the interviewing starts
Interviewing	Based on an interview guide, conduct the interview
Transcribing	Prepare the interview material for analysis (includes a transcription)
Analysing	Decide appropriate methods of analysis for the interview
Verifying	Reliability (how consistent the results are) and validity checks (whether an interview study investigates what is intended to be investigated) of the findings
Reporting	Communicate the findings in a form that it: • Lives up to scientific criteria • Takes the ethical aspects of the investigation into consideration • Results in a readable product

Note: Reproduced from Kvale (2007)

The ability of the interviewer to sense the meaning of an answer in order to follow it up is important. Kvale (2007, pp. 61-62) describes the following types of interview questions, as outlined in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11: Types of interview questions

Category	Description	Example
Introductory questions	Opening questions that may yield spontaneous, rich descriptions	• "Can you tell me ..."?
Follow-up questions	Preceding answers may be extended by a curious, persistent, and critical attitude of the researcher	• Direct questioning of what has just been said • Certain non-verbal cues
Probing questions	The researcher pursues the answers, probing content without stating what dimensions are taken into account	• "Could you say something more about that"?
Specifying questions	The researcher follows up with a more operationalising question	• "How have you experienced this yourself"?
Direct questions	Are rather used at the end of an interview, after spontaneous descriptions have been already given	• "Have you ever received money for..."?

(continued)

Category	Description	Example
Indirect questions	The answer may refer directly to the attitudes of others	• "How do you believe others regard..."?
Structuring questions	Used to break off long answers with little relevance to the investigation, by summarising the interviewee's response and leading to the next question	• "I would now like to introduce..."
Silence	Employing silence and pauses, giving the subjects ample time to associate and reflect before breaking the silence with further, significant information	
Interpreting questions	May involve rephrasing an answer in order to clarify it	• "You then mean that..."?

Note: Reproduced from Kvale (2007)

Interviewing skills.

The skills of an interviewer centre around the ability to recognise what is relevant and remember it, or tape it, so that detailed notes can be made afterwards (Easterby-Smith, et al., 2002, p. 89); the interviewer is the key research instrument of an interview enquiry (Kvale, 2007, p. 81). A precondition to pose the relevant questions is familiarity with the research themes and the context of an enquiry, as the researcher must continually make on-the-spot decisions about what to ask, when, how, and which answers require the interviewer to follow-up in order to be able to produce knowledge (Kvale, 2007).

Obtaining trust.

Interviewers need to be able to listen, and to refrain from projecting their own opinions; this can be challenging, since one of the ways of obtaining trust is to empathise with the respondent. Trust is an important factor underlying the effectiveness of social interaction in an interview. It must be established early in the process to make the respondent feel at ease and to explore freely the mentioned issues (Sackmann, 1991, p. 306). The rapport that can be built up during face-to-face interviews allows for better

data quality (Edwards, et al., 1997). The interview is usually introduced with a briefing, where the situation for the subject and the purpose of the interview is explained (Kvale, 2007). An open and trusting relationship may however not be possible when dealing with particular elites or individuals in positions of power, such as members of top management. It is often beneficial if the researcher is viewed as having equal status to the manager (Easterby-Smith, et al., 2002), which was however not the case in this research. Silverman (2010) cautions the interviewer to be aware of how the relationship between the researcher and those involved in the research might affect the findings. John and Lyn Lofland (1999, pp. 56-57, quoted in Babbie, 2007) suggest that investigators adopt the role of the "socially acceptable incompetent" when interviewing. A missing feature from current research is the contribution that prior relationships can play in developing rapport, which may come about as a result of the fact that the interviewer and interviewee already know each other (Garton & Copland, 2010). However, this aspect was less relevant in this research, as the researcher personally knew only one of the interviewees.

Interviewing elites.

Kvale (2007) sees researcher and the interviewees as partners, not as opponents. Elites, persons who are leaders or experts, are used to being asked about their opinions and thoughts and are often interesting conversation partners for an interviewer with expertise in the interview topic (Kvale, 2007). Whether elite is defined in terms of social position relative to the researcher conducting the interview or relative to the average citizen in society, they are still clearly in a position of power and raised social structure (Stephens, 2007, p. 205). The researcher's position relative to the interviewees from top management, based on self-assessment and on self-defined criteria, is outlined in Table 3.12.

Table 3.12: Comparison of the characteristics between interviewees and researcher

Characteristic	Interviewees	Researcher
Hierarchical status in the corporation	Very high	Relatively high (senior management)
Social status in society	High to very high	Medium
Insider knowledge about Post CH Ltd	Very high	Medium
Work and management experience	High	Medium
Specialised knowledge on corporate culture	Low to medium	Medium to high
Age	Senior	Midlife
Level of acquaintance among interviewees	Very high	n/a
Level of acquaintance, researcher versus interviewees	n/a	Low

Note: By the researcher

According to Kvale (2007), power asymmetry in qualitative research interviews can however also be attributed to the researcher:

- The researcher/interviewer has scientific competence

- The researcher initiates the interview, determines the topic, poses questions based on the interview guide, decides where to follow-up, and terminates the conversation

- The role of the researcher/interviewer is to ask, while the interviewee's role is to answer.

The researcher's knowledge on organisational culture can be estimated as higher than the respective knowledge of the interviewees. This may pose an advantage, should the interviewees test subject knowledge with gate-keeping questions. A further advantage in interviewing elites could be that the research questions, which are usually formulated in a theoretical language, may be less often expressed in the everyday language of common people, as elites often share an academic background. In this research, the interviewees and the researcher share some characteristics or similarities, such as

ethnicity, a management position, and a common interest in the corporation where the research was conducted, Post CH Ltd.

Confidentiality in interviews.

The use of pseudonyms in place of the real names of individuals is so dominant in the social sciences that both authors and readers often assume that pseudonyms are in use (Guenther, 2009). For the research interviews, confidentiality had not only to be ensured externally (efforts to concealing real identities from outsiders), but also internally, which involves the ability of participants in research to identify each other (Guenther, 2009; Tolich, 2004). Consequently, the interviewees' consent over dissemination of results was a prerequisite.

Bias in interviews.

Bias was an issue in the research interviews, as a certain a risk of dependency of the researcher on members of top management existed. As an alternative to just leaving questions open in order to reduce bias, using probes can be a useful intervention technique, although they should never lead. Table 3.13 outlines types of probes (Easterby-Smith, et al., 2002, p. 93).

Table 3.13: Probes in interviews

Probe	Examples
Basic probes	Involves repeating the question
Explanatory probes	Involves building onto vague statements made. "What did you mean by..."? "What makes you say..."?
Focused probes	To obtain specific information. "What sort of..."?
Silent probes	Simply pause; let the interviewee break the silence

(continued)

Probe	Examples
Drawing out	Repeat the last words the interviewee said, and then say, "Tell me more about that", "What happened then"?
Giving ideas/ suggestions	Involves offering the interviewee an idea to think about. "Have you thought about..."?
Mirroring/ reflecting	Paraphrasing, expressing in the researcher's own words what the respondent has just said. This is effective, as it forces the interviewees to rethink their answer

Note: Reproduced from Easterby-Smith, et al. (2002)

Required number of interviews.

As opposed to quantitative research, an exact number of interviews to be conducted in order to make statistical generalisations cannot be given. If the number of subjects interviewed is too small, testing hypotheses or deciphering differences among groups is difficult. With a too large sample, the value-add (based on the law of diminishing returns) and the time required to make penetrating analyses of the interviews may not be sufficient (Kvale, 2007). In general, the number of interviews tends to be around 15, with a margin of ± 10 (Kvale, 2007). Trigwell (1994, quoted in Taylor, 2007) cautions that more than 20 interviews provides too much data to handle. According to Silverman (2010), the question of the cases needed in qualitative research depends on the research problem. The researcher conducted seven interviews, considered sufficient to answer the first research question.

Facilitating participation.

Based on aggregations from a range of studies, Clark (2010) distinguishes between the individual and the collective level, where motivation for engaging with qualitative research exists beyond a personal level. According to Clark's mechanism, at least two of the 12 elements identified to facilitate participation in qualitative research can be considered as applicable to this study. First, the subjective interest (the ability of the

research to promote a positive affective interest) and second, representation (research engagement perceived as offering access to represent the interests of the group to an external audience). Almost certainly because the Chairperson of the board of directors and the new CEO agreed to participate right from the beginning, the researcher did not experience any difficulty in motivating the members of top management to participate in this research.

3.7.2   Rationale for selection.

The rationale for selecting interviews was that face-to-face communication can be considered the richest communication medium, as it allows for immediate feedback, visual, auditory and spatial cues, and natural language (Simsek & Veiga, 2001, p. 221). Furthermore, qualitative interviews seem particularly suitable to answer the first research question, how Swiss Post's board of directors and executive management define the intended culture of Post CH Ltd. In addition, semi-structured interviews are compatible with the researcher's ontological position. Face-to-face interviews also reduce the risk of an inhibited establishment of rapport feared by many researchers (Stephens, 2007). Finally, the researcher conducted qualitative, semi-structured interviews for this research.

3.7.3   Quality, reliability, and validity in interviews.

This section describes the aspects of quality, reliability, and validity in semi-structured interviews.

Quality of an interview.

Verbal accounts may not be perfect indicators of actual behaviour (Sackmann, 1991).

Kvale (2007, p. 80) suggests the following criteria for judging the quality of an

interview:

- Extent of spontaneous, rich, specific, and relevant answers

- The shorter the interviewer's questions and the longer the interviewee's

  responses, the better

- Degree to which the interviewer follows up and clarifies the meanings of the

  relevant aspects

- The ideal interview is to a large extent interpreted throughout the interview

- The interviewer attempts to verify the interpretations of the subject's answers

  during the interview

- The interview is self communicating, not requiring much extra description and

  explanation.

However, the qualitative research interview is often confronted with criticism. This

includes the notion that the research interview is not a scientific method or that it is not

objective. Appendix XIII summarises these critics and their counterarguments.

Reliability.

Reliability refers to the "degree of consistency with which instances are assigned to the

same category by different observers or by the same observer on different occasions"

(Silverman, 2010, p. 290). See section 3.8.3 for more detail on the concept of reliability

in quantitative research.

Validity.

Silverman (2010) sees validity as another word for truth. It refers in ordinary language to the truth, correctness, and the strength of a statement (Kvale, 2007, p. 122). In the social sciences, validity means whether a method investigates what it purports to investigate, which is, from a positivist stance, restricted to measurement. In-depth interviews are further subject to two major problems (Sackmann, 1991): data from individual interviews do not differentiate between respondents' opinions and cultural issues, and ensuring objectivity and reliability in obtaining and analysing interview data is often difficult. Sackmann (1991) recommends validation at the end of each interview by the researcher giving silent answers before a respondent's answer to check the understanding of the respondent's perspective. After the interview, interviews can further be validated, leading to a process of constant comparisons and contrasts (Sackmann, 1991) by:

- Acknowledging the interview transcript with the respective interviewee

- Comparing the themes that emerged with additional information gathered through observation and secondary data, if available

- Having different people analyse the same data, and a re-analysis and comparison some time later.

According to Kvale (2007), the need for researchers to demonstrate their expertise results in products with knowledge so convincing that they carry the validation with them, especially as there are no fixed criteria for what constitutes a good interview. Roulston (2010, p. 202) summarises that quality in relation to qualitative interviewing focuses on the:

- Use of interview data as an appropriate means for the research question

- Interaction facilitated by interviewers generated quality data

- Quality has been addressed in the research design

- Methods and strategies used are consistent with the theoretical underpinnings for the study.

Furthermore, Roulston mentions that neo-positivist assumptions about interview data are evident in much published research, particularly in mixed methods design, where the inclusion of semi-structured interview is likely to be seen. Kvale (2007, p. 122) however counters that reliability and validity, seen by qualitative researchers as being too laden with conceptions from quantitative research, have been replaced by credibility, trustworthiness, and the like. In contrast to widely held opinion, knowledge in interviews can in principle be an objective method with respect to key meanings of objectivity (Kvale, 2007, p. 122). For quantitative data, the researcher outlines the concept of validity further in section 3.8.3.

3.7.4   Preparation and design of research interviews.

This section is grouped according to the different phases of a research interview, from the preparation phase to piloting the interviews.

Preparation phase.

The selection of the interviewees marked the beginning of this phase. Seven members of top management participated in the interviews: four people from the board of directors (the Chairperson, the head of the Organisation, Nomination, and Remuneration committee, the employee representative, and Swiss Post's new CEO) and three people from executive management (the CEO's of Post CH Ltd's business units PostMail, Post Offices & Sales, and PostLogistics). More detail on the members of top management can be found in Appendix XIV. Employing purposive-sampling demands critical thinking about the parameters of the population (Silverman, 2010). The rationale for the researcher in selecting the interviewees was based on the first research question (see

section 1.9), how the board of directors and executive management define intended culture of Post CH Ltd. The researcher then selected the most influential and important members of top management, explaining the objectives of the research to all interviewees. The next step was the definition of the interview questions.

Thematising and design phase of the interview guide.

In preparing the interview guide, the researcher also used pre-defined cultural dimensions from the following sources:

- Cultural dimensions from the DOCS (see section 1.8.1)

- Questions from Swiss Post's employee survey PEU (see section 1.8.3)

- Cultural dimensions from Detert, et al.'s framework (see section 2.12.1).

- The conclusion from the literature review (see section 2.17)

The rationale for using the dimensions from the DOCS was its widespread application in the corporate world and its use at Swiss Post (see section 1.8.1). In addition, the employee survey PEU was developed according to the needs of Swiss Post and could present an interesting source of aspects related to corporate culture. Furthermore, the researcher used dimensions from Detert et al.'s condensed framework (2000), as it could be suitable to conceptualise a set of higher order cultural dimensions (see section 2.12.1). Finally, the selection of cultural dimensions from the literature is nothing new in the development of a cultural survey; it was, for example, conducted in the development of the OCP survey (Ashkanasy, Wilderom, et al., 2000).

The researcher then grouped the interview guide along the following themes:

- Introducing questions and corporate culture in general (questions 1 to 16)

- Intended culture of Post CH Ltd (questions 17 to 27)

  o Open questions

  o Selection of cultural dimensions from existing instruments

- Current culture of Swiss Post (questions 28 to 42)

- Degree of alignment of corporate culture (questions 43 to 49)

- Potential divergences of corporate culture (questions 50 to 54)

- Selected questions from Swiss Post's employee survey (for executive management only, questions 55 to 62)

- Concluding questions (questions 63 and 64).

Because the three members of executive management are responsible for the overall result of their business unit, the researcher selected additional questions from Swiss Post's employee survey PEU from the dimensions cooperation, management, goal orientation, information and communications, and strategy. The researcher selected these dimensions based on the findings of the literature review on relevant cultural aspects. Appendix XV outlines the interview guide; the German original is in Appendix XVI.

Piloting of the interviews.

Silverman (2010) considers piloting a feature of good qualitative and quantitative research. The researcher piloted the interview guide in an interview with the Head of HR at PostLogistics, which served to:

- Pre-test questions and check their comprehensibility

- See if the questions are appropriate to members of top management

- Check whether the interview questions all fit within the time window

- Practice interviewing for the researcher

- Find out whether the interview questions lead to potentially relevant material

- Test the recording equipment, as Silverman (2010) strongly recommends recording all interviews.

The rollout of the interviews started after the researcher made a few changes to the interview guide.

3.7.5 Rollout of the interviews.

A time window of 1.5 hours was given for each interview. The time per interview ranged from 70 to 110 min, with an average of 95 min. The researcher tried to avoid questions that can be answered with a "yes" or "no" in favour of more probing questions (Edwards, et al., 1997). The interview guide mainly consisted of open-ended questions, but also incorporated a few fixed-choice questions. Due to the interviewees' function in top management, the researcher assumed at least some knowledge of corporate culture, allowing the respondents to talk about various facets of culture (Sackmann, 1991). According to Silverman (2010), interviewers should refrain from presenting their main research questions directly to the respondents, as it could affect their responses and lead to unreliable data analysis. The interview then started with:

- A short, personal introduction of the researcher/interviewer

- An introduction to the research, covering objectives, methods, and the timeline

- Securing consent for interview recording for later transcription and analysis.

The interviewing phase started with the designated new CEO, Ms Ruoff, who took on Swiss Post's CEO position five months after conducting the interview. The researcher had to drop some questions from the guide, as Ms Ruoff denied making statements about current culture at Swiss Post before officially taking up her new position. The subsequent face-to-face interviews included additional, spontaneous questions to probe unanticipated responses and to clarify meanings of statements (Edwards, et al., 1997), so considerable parts of the analysis could be pushed forward on the spot (Kvale, 2007). The researcher conducted the interviews mainly in German, being the language best understood by all the interviewees. Swiss-German, French, and English were partially

spoken in the interviews as well. In order to ensure mutual understanding, the researcher often paraphrased what was said and used follow-up questions.

Transcription phase.

Transcribing follows a set of technical and interpretational issues, although Kvale (2007, p. 95) mentions as the only basic rule the fact that it should be explicitly stated how the transcriptions were made. In addition to the voice transcriptions, the researcher took fieldnotes and used transcription codes (Babbie, 2007, pp. 430-431; Kvale, 2007, p. 96). The interviews were first transcribed based on the voice recordings, including pauses, overlaps, and laughter. This follows Silverman's (2010) advice, as reliability may otherwise be weakened. The researcher crosschecked this researcher or verbatim version of the transcript with both the voice recordings and the fieldnotes, and it served as the basis for interview analysis. The researcher then transformed this transcription into a slightly shorter, formal version with the mispronunciations corrected, but without the non-verbal cues, coughs, laughter, and the like. The respective interviewee then received this formal version of the interview transcript, and the researcher ensured interview validity by the acknowledgement of these interview transcripts. Whereas four interviewees suggested no changes, three interviewees returned transcripts with minor modifications. These amendments incorporated the correction of typological errors, the deletion of filler words/expletives, or highlighted a statement made during the interview. The researcher compared all modifications with the initial researcher transcription and the corresponding voice recording. All changes were of cosmetic nature, and the researcher did not consider these deviations from the initial interview as changing the meaning of the material. A translated formal interview transcription can be found in Appendix XVII, the German original is in Appendix XVIII.

Analysing interviews.

Although there are different technical procedures, no standard method or *via regia*

exists to unveil the meaning hidden in transcriptions. The quality of analysis is defined

by experience, knowledge of the researcher about the topic investigated, and the tool

used (Kvale, 2007). Table 3.14 (based on Kvale, 2007, pp. 102-103) outlines the steps

in the analysis phase.

Table 3.14: Steps of analysis used by the researcher for this research

	Step
1	Subjects describe their experience. Little interpretation or explanation is needed
2	Subjects themselves discover new relationship during the interview
3	The interviewer condenses and interprets the answers of the interviewees during the exchange, paraphrasing what has been said to check common understanding
4	The interviewer analyses the interview, based on the interview transcription

Note: Based on Kvale (2007)

The researcher skipped the fifth step, re-interviews, due to the limited availability of the

members of top management. Furthermore, the sixth step, the inclusion of action of

interviewees to extend the interpretations, may make sense in action research, but the

researcher considered it to be unpractical based on the research questions outlined in

section 1.9. Kvale (2007, p. 104) differentiates between the following key approaches in

the analysis of interviews, as outlined in Table 3.15. This research focused mainly on

meaning coding: the researcher did not make any analysis focused on language,

bricolage (a combination of different analytical techniques) or theoretical reading, as

these are rather on the interpretivist side of the philosophical continuum and do not

necessarily conform to the post-positivist researcher. Coding is a key feature of

computer-assisted and content analysis; it is explained later in this section.

Table 3.15: Modes of interview analysis

Modes of analysing	Mode
Analysis focusing on meaning	Meaning coding
	Meaning condensation
	Meaning interpretation
Analysis focusing on language	Linguistic analysis
	Conversation analysis
	Narrative analysis
	Discursive analysis
	Deconstruction
Bricolage	
Theoretical reading	

Note: Reproduced from Kvale (2007)

Analysing interviews using qualitative data analysis software.

According to Silverman (2010), good data analysis is not confined to the selection of the right methods or techniques, but is based on theorising about data using a consistent model. The researcher analysed the interview transcriptions using the qualitative data analysis (QDA) tool MAXQDA. Computer assisted analysis of qualitative data (CAQDAS) became popular in the humanities in the 1960s for basic content analysis, before social researchers began to exploit the advantages of computers for data analysis by the proliferation of personal computers (Silverman, 2010). The core feature of such tools allows coding segments of data according to a conceptual scheme (Silverman, 2010). Coding, an early approach to the analysis of text, involves attributing keywords to text segments in order to identify a statement (Kvale, 2007), which is also known as the code-and-retrieve element (Silverman, 2010). Furthermore, CAQDAS also has the capacity to map out ideas in diagrams or conceptual networks (Silverman, 2010). Table 3.16 summarises, based on Silverman (2010), the advantages and limitations of qualitative data analysis tools.

Table 3.16: Advantages and limitations of CAQDAS

Advantages	Limitations
Speed in handling large volumes of data	What is the contribution of specialist CAQDAS compared to a good word processing program?
Rigour improvement, including counts of phenomena and identification of deviant cases	Does QDA software impose a narrowly exclusive approach to qualitative data analysis?
Facilitation of team research	CAQDAS is of little help in examining small data extracts

Note: Based on Silverman (2010)

Content analysis.

Content analysis is a technique for the systematic quantitative description of the content of communication (Kvale, 2007). This technique enables statements or answers to open questions to be summarised and systematically categorised (Roberts, Wallace, & Pfab, 2008), and thereby seems to be well suited to the post-positivist researcher. Content analysis allows combining qualitative data with generating counts. Using CAQDAS, rigour can thereby be improved (Silverman, 2010). Objectivity (in the sense that there is transparency in the procedures for assigning the raw material to categories) and the systematic procedure (by applying the rules in a consistent manner to suppress bias) are qualities of content analysis (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Generating counts help to identify how widespread phenomena are, even between subgroups. Counts from content analysis are greatly facilitated by the rapid retrieval of coded data segments (Silverman, 2010). Such categorisation and coding also represent the most common form of computer analyses in qualitative research (Kvale, 2007), and coding is a central and distinctive stage of doing a content analysis (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Content analysis is a transparent, flexible, and unobtrusive method (Bryman & Bell, 2011) and offers an important method for the cultural study of organisations, as it enables analysing organisational values (Kabanoff, et al., 1995, quoted in Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 305).

The latter may render its application particularly useful in organisations and corporations. A disadvantage of content analysis however arises from the fact that it can be very labour intensive; furthermore, it is only as good as the data on which the researcher works (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

Coding.

Kuckartz (2007) differentiates between theoretical and thematic coding. Theoretical coding follows an inductive tradition, where theory is extracted and generated from data and theoretically based generalisations are drawn from qualitative data (Silverman, 2010). At the beginning of theoretical coding is the process of open coding, which can then be further subdivided into axial and selective coding. In contrast, thematic coding is more focused on the researcher's previous theoretical knowledge (Hopf, 1993); it involves an interpretative approach, seeking not just for manifest content, but for latent content as well (Bryman & Bell, 2011). This process involves probing in order to go beneath the surface and ask deeper questions. For this study, the researcher exemplified it by the frequent use of "why" questions in the interviews with top management to understand an interviewee's motivation and rationale for an answer given. Thematic coding emphasises the examination and further development of existing theory, and it is well suited for the rather structured form of qualitative methods prevalent in this research. Whereas the researcher used thematic coding for the analysis of the qualitative interviews, theoretical coding was used for the analysis of the single open question in the questionnaire. The objective of the interview analysis was to discover and crystallise relevant cultural dimensions for this research, as well as to examine dimensions from existing cultural surveys. Although consensual coding in a group of researchers might have enhanced the quality of the codes, all interviews were exclusively analysed by the researcher to ensure confidentiality. For the same reason, the researcher did not carry

out interrater agreement, the extent of accordance between two or more researchers to quantify the quality of a coding (Edwards, et al., 1997). The codes were developed during the analysis, requiring rich information on the phenomena obtained in the interview, combined with the deductive selection of predefined dimensions (Kvale, 2007), before the researcher structured them according to the themes from the interview guide. The researcher treated the statement: "Swiss Post Ltd is shaping up well and is prepared for the future" and the last interview question: "Do you have anything to say at the end of this interview" from the interview guide as separate categories. The researcher processed results on the employee survey questions and noteworthy citations made by the interviewees in the same way. The researcher was careful that the codes in the coding structure did not overlap, as suggested by Bryman and Bell (2011). Finally, the coding structure was refined in a second and third analysis that followed some weeks after the initial coding, until the researcher could dispel the last doubts regarding the assignment of the text segments to the respective codes. This is in line with Silverman's (2010) argument that every piece of data has to be used. The final coding structure was the result of an iterative process of coding in a consistent manner, re-reading, re-categorising, and re-coding interview data.

Overall, the researcher grouped the 691 codes from the interviews in 9 main categories and 42 categories, further divided into 192 sub-subcategories. Appendix XIX shows an excerpt of the interview coding structure in MAXQDA.

After completing the coding, the researcher drew conclusions using the code structure and MAXQDA's code matrix and code relations browser. When asked about the relevant cultural dimensions for intended culture, five interviewees for example mentioned strategy as a key aspect from the employee survey PEU; in addition, six interviewees selected it from the DOCS (see Figure 3.7). The outcome of this content analysis served as the rationale to select strategy as a relevant dimension for Post CH

Ltd's corporate culture. The researcher defined the other dimensions for intended culture in the same way, which later served as a basis for the conceptual framework.
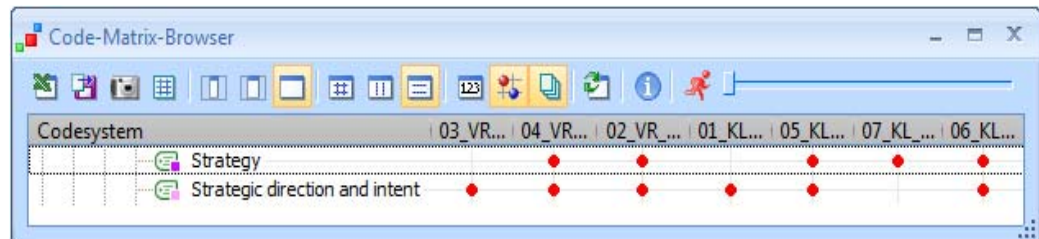
Figure 3.7: Screenshot from MAXQDA's code relations browser
Note: By the researcher

Verifying phase.

Reliability and validity issues raise epistemological questions of objectivity of knowledge and go beyond mere technical or conceptual concerns. Objectivity can be understood as freedom from bias, as intersubjective consensus, and as adequacy to the object. In freedom from bias, it refers to reliable, checked, and controlled knowledge undistorted by personal bias and prejudice (Kvale, 2007). One could argue that bias in this research cannot be neglected, although the researcher only knew one of the interviewees, PostLogistics' CEO, slightly from a business context. Bias based on previous personal contacts could therefore be widely ruled out. In terms of the intersubjective consensus common in the social sciences (Kvale, 2007), the researcher ensured objectivity by recording the interviews. In the sense of allowing the "object to object", the interviewees granted approval of what was said during the conversation based on the interview transcriptions.

Validation in this research was safeguarded in the interviews by playing devil's advocate: this involves adopting a critical look at the analysis, presenting one's own perspective on the subject matter studied and the controls applies to counter selective

perceptions and biased interpretations (Kvale, 2007). According to Miles and Huberman (quoted in Kvale, 2007, p. 123), validity involves analysing the sources of potential biases that might invalidate qualitative observations and interpretations, giving detailed tactics for testing and confirming qualitative findings. Before the interviews started, the researcher identified potential preconceptions in a process of self-reflection, namely the fact that the corporation under scrutiny employs the researcher. Another preconception existed for one interviewee because of a specific organisational responsibility, but not based on personal characteristics. The researcher was conscious about this potential bias and experienced a fruitful and enriching conversation with that interviewee. The researcher could have improved validity by having another person re-analyse the transcription; in order to secure confidentiality and to keep to the code of ethics vis-à-vis the interviewees, the researcher however did not adopt this practice. Silverman (2010) suggests enhancing validity by beginning with the analysis on a relatively small part of the data; emerging hypotheses can then be tested out by expanding the data corpus. As only seven interviews were conducted in total, the researcher refrained from this technique.

Reporting phase.

This last phase of the interviews included the communication of the findings, by respecting ethical aspects of the interviews at the same time. The researcher applied the following guidelines for enhancing the presentation of interview findings in this research, based on Kvale's (2007) suggestions:

- Contextualisation of the quotes: quotes are fragments abstracted from the interview context, well known to the interviewer, but not to the reader. The researcher demonstrated transparency in this research by including an actual interview transcription

- Interview quotes in a readable style: the subject's oral speech is to be presented in a readable, textual form

- Interview quotes should be loyal to the habitual language of the interviewees.

Swiss German is the native language of three of the seven interviewees, plus one person with German as his first language, whereas French is the mother tongue for three interviewees. The researcher transcribed all interviews in the interview language (German), before analysing and coding them in English. The researcher reports the detailed analysis from the interviews in section 4.1.

3.8 Surveys

This section relates to the development and rollout of the specific, quantitative cultural survey, whereas the findings from the analysis can be found in Chapter 4. The researcher outlined an overview of existing qualitative and quantitative cultural surveys in the literature review in section 2.12.

3.8.1 Questionnaires and quantitative surveys.

The interest in organisational culture initiated a variety of questionnaires to assess the phenomenon of corporate culture (Ashkanasy, Broadfood, et al., 2000). However, some researchers consider the lack of consensus on questionnaire format or style as a disadvantage (Ashkanasy, Broadfood, et al., 2000). The type of survey, sample size, procedures of data collection, analysis, and measurement are major concerns when conducting a survey. The term survey refers to the instrument to gather data as well as the processes employed when using the instrument (Edwards, et al., 1997, p. 1). Surveys can be constructed to gather information, to improve communication, and to assess effectiveness of change. Questionnaires used in surveys are, along with interviews, one of the most employed techniques in research (de Yébenes Prous, Salvanés, & Ortells,

2008). Questionnaires therefore play an important role, representing an efficient and standardised method in analysing organisational culture, although quantitative assessment is limited to the rather observable and accessible levels of culture (Ashkanasy, Broadfood, et al., 2000). Prestructured questionnaires designed with the intention to uncover cultural issues in an organisation measure answers from respondents on questions thought to be of relevance. Inherent to quantitative surveys, no underlying reasoning behind the answers can be obtained; a researcher therefore cannot be confident that a question is interpreted in the way it was intended in designing the questionnaire (Yauch & Steudel, 2003). Understanding the survey questions by all participants is therefore an important aspect a researcher has to consider in the questionnaire design. An emphasis on comprehensibility was particularly relevant for this study, as the cultural questionnaire to be designed had (in order to answer the second research questions outlined in section 1.9), to be addressed to employees from all hierarchical levels.

A survey can contain closed ended or open ended questions; where larger samples of respondents are required (e.g., in the prediction of the behaviours of larger groups), pre-coded, closed ended answers in survey questionnaires are more adequate than time-consuming qualitative methods (Kvale, 2007). As opposed to qualitative approaches, respondents are guided to follow the researcher's culture rather than employing the language of their own culture (Sackmann, 1991). Closed ended questions however have the advantage that they are supportive for respondents with literacy difficulties. This aspect was relevant for this research, as Post CH Ltd employs a considerable number of lower-qualified staff in the operations. As more educated individuals are more likely to return a survey, the use of closed ended questions reduced the risk of non-response bias (Bradburn & Sudman, 1988, quoted in Edwards, et al., 1997). Table 3.17, based on Edwards, et al. (1997) summarises the main aspects.

Table 3.17: Closed and open ended questions

	Closed ended	**Open ended**
Response	Mostly in a numerical rating scale	In form of text
Advantage	• Fast • Easy to answer • Requires less effort • Same frame of reference for everyone	• Provide better insight • Allows to obtain information about sensitive or taboo-topics • Respondents can use their own frame of reference
Disadvantages	• Force respondents among alternatives that may not reflect their perception about the topic • Potential frustration when views cannot be expressed in own words	• More time consuming for the respondents • Effort required for survey administration • Difficult to assess intensity of opinion or satisfaction about a topic

Note: Based on Edwards, et al. (1997)

Based on a researcher's cultural perspective, a priori knowledge about culture in organisations is a prerequisite in the design of questionnaires (Sackmann, 1991). Surveys are useful for establishing communication from lower-level employees to management and to keep fingers on the pulse of the organisation (Edwards, et al., 1997). Surveys are also less costly, require less time than ethnographical methods, facilitate benchmarking and organisational change processes and allow for direct replication (Ashkanasy, Broadfood, et al., 2000). Further advantages include the possibility of replication and cross-sectional comparative studies, giving a frame of reference for interpreting data, which can be analysed through diverse statistical techniques (Ashkanasy, Broadfood, et al., 2000). Surveys however lack the ability to access "deeper" cultural elements such as basic assumptions, and they are confined to using a priori content (Smircich, 1983).

Structure and stages of surveys.

Figure 3.8 provides the following outline for the structure and the planning stages of surveys (Gill, et al., 2010, p. 125).
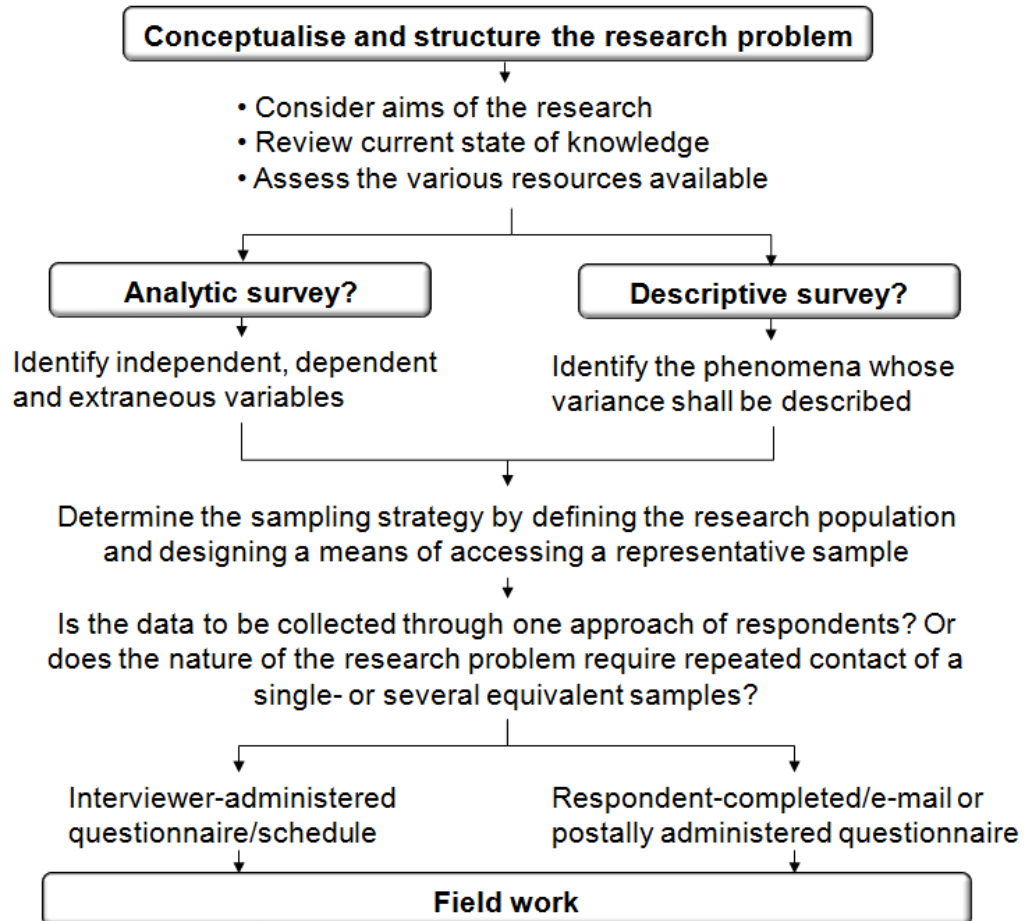
Figure 3.8: Planning stages of surveys in a research project

Note: Reproduced from Gill, et al. (2010)

The research questions, the literature review, and the available resources guided the conceptualisation and structure of this research. While analytic surveys deductively test a theory, descriptive surveys assess attributes and characteristics of a population. The researcher selected descriptive surveys, as the formulation and testing of a hypothesis usually connoted with the deductive tradition was not part of this research.

Defining survey items.

For the selection of the relevant items for the quantitative part of this research, several possibilities exist (Edwards, et al., 1997):

- Define questions based on the researcher's knowledge gained during the literature review and/or in the analysis of the qualitative interviews

- Use appropriate dimensions and questions of validated commercial cultural surveys

- Use appropriate dimensions and questions of a validated employee survey

- Consult one or several external experts on corporate culture, to lend credibility to the survey process.

The above options can also be combined. As the development of a questionnaire is a laborious task, de Yébenes Prous, et al. (2008) recommend employing questionnaires that have been shown to be useful in other studies. Survey items can be demographic, factual, or attitudinal. The first cover the demographic attributes of a respondent; although they allow for better comparisons between groups of respondents, they bear the risk of people becoming too suspicious about confidentiality and anonymity (Edwards, et al., 1997). Factual questions ask about behaviours or experiences, and attitudinal questions are a popular category for organisational surveys, questioning attitudes, opinions, or beliefs of perceptions.

Questionnaire format.

Designing a clear, simple questionnaire understood by all groups of participants, which minimises bias and maximises quality of data for statistical analysis is a vital skill. The researcher checked comprehensibility of the questionnaire used in this research at multiple levels within Swiss Post. First, by a panel of internal experts, consisting of the Head HR of PostLogistics, two managers, three team leaders of a parcel distribution

centre, and two industrial psychologists from HR development. These internal experts speak German, French, or Italian. Second, the researcher checked the questionnaire in the ensuing pilot phase outlined in section 3.8.6. de Yébenes Prous, et al. (2008) list the following characteristics of a valid questionnaire:

- Feasibility: simplicity, viability, user and researcher acceptance

- Reliability and precision (mistake-free measurements)

- Adequacy for the problem intended for measure (content validity)

- Reflection of underlying theory in the phenomenon or concept (construct validity)

- Capability of measuring change through time.

Easterby-Smith, et al. (2002) consider the following general principles when drafting items for a questionnaire:

- Assure that the question is clear

- Avoid jargon or specialist language

- Avoid negatives (e.g., Q: Do you dislike your work?)

- Avoid personal questions

- Avoid asking two questions in one item

- Avoid leading questions, which indirectly suggest what the right answer might be.

Sackmann (1991) recommends using questionnaires when corporate culture is perceived as a variable, which accords with the researcher's view of corporate culture as adaptable, as opposed to observation techniques with a rather metaphoric understanding of culture.

Web-based and postally administered surveys.

In web-based surveys, an e-mail with the embedded URL (uniform resource locator) directs recipients to a web-survey. This convenient, contemporary, and modern method also provides good sampling control (Simsek & Veiga, 2001). Internet surveys share a lot of characteristics with traditional surveys (Deutskens, De Ruyter, Wetzels, & Oosterveld, 2004). Postally administered surveys can however also have some advantages over web-based surveys, as outlined in Table 3.18.

Table 3.18: Characteristics of postally and internet administered surveys

Characteristics	Survey	
	Postally administered	Web-based
Confidentiality (in the eyes of the respondents)	X	
Anonymity (in the eyes of the respondents)	X	
Easy to compose	X	
Speed		X
Faster response		X
Convenience		X
Low cost		X
Quality of data (less missing data or multiple responses in a single question)		X
Facilitates item branching/skip pattern		X

Note: By the researcher

Postally administered paper-and-pencil surveys were a necessity for this research, as blue-collar workers, representing a substantial fraction of Post CH Ltd's workforce, do not have corporate e-mail. The concurrent use of paper-and-pencil surveys and web-based surveys eliminates the problem of gaining access to all levels of Post CH Ltd's workforce. The next section outlines the sampling procedure.

3.8.2   Sampling.

All surveys are inherently concerned with sampling, as it is often impractical or even impossible to involve all members of a population (Edwards, et al., 1997). In the quantitative paradigm, samples are much larger than those used in qualitative research; therefore, statistical methods to ensure representative samples are used (Carey, 1993, quoted in Sale, et al., 2002), in contrast to qualitative research, where small, purposeful samples of articulate respondents are used. Quite small quantitative samples can give reasonable estimates about whole populations; the discovery of this fact made surveys and opinion polls possible. To collect data, either a sample survey or a census, a 100 per cent sample can be used, although this is quite rare (Fielding & Gilbert, 2006). Responses drawn from a carefully selected, representative sample can allow for accurate generalisations to the population (Henry, 1990, quoted in Edwards, et al., 1997, p. 56). According to Simsek and Veiga (2001, p. 221), sampling issues faced by researchers are the most important issues they have to contend with when considering self-administered surveys. As with any other survey, the sample in corporate culture research has to be adequate to the research population. Representativeness is needed to check consistency of culture, the extent to which cultural beliefs are held in an organisation, and to identify potential subcultures (Sackmann, 2007, p. 130). Simsek and Veiga (2001) argue that a sample has to represent the population that it was drawn from. This reduces the risk of sampling errors, the degree to which a statistic from a sample can be expected to vary from the value that would have been obtained if the data were gathered from the population (Edwards & Thomas, 1993, quoted in Edwards, et al., 1997, p. 62). Furthermore, sampling frames have to be unbiased, especially when dealing with multiple organisations (or business units). To cater for non-sampling errors, Simsek and Veiga (2001) argue that nonresponse error can be limited by:

- Notifying sample members about the incoming questionnaire

- Using follow-up mailings

- Convincing a trustful, highly respected sponsor

- Using incentives

- Appealing questionnaire layout and design

- Conducting a pilot among a sample of the research population.

A researcher can be more precise about the population mean if a larger sample is used to estimate it (Fielding & Gilbert, 2006). In a similar vein, Xenikou and Furnham (1996) argue that the bigger the sample size, the more stable and replicable are the dimensions. Non-sampling errors are all the other errors in a survey except for those due to sampling method and sample size (Sudman,1996; Tull & Hawkins, 1993, quoted in Simsek & Veiga, 2001).

Sampling strategies.

The following sample strategies can be outlined (Edwards, et al., 1997; Gill, et al., 2010):

- Random sampling: random selection of population members

- Stratified sampling (strata): particular population characteristics that make random sampling from within specific subgroups necessary if the sample is to be representative and efficiently drawn.

Stratified sampling divides the population from the sampling frame into strata (Hand, 2008). A researcher thereby usually assigns individuals to the strata and derives random sampling to select the respondents; the percentage of employees in the sampling frame reflects their appropriate proportion. Randomisation is important, as it eliminates most other sources of systematic variation (Field, 2009). Researchers agree that selecting employees on the basis of personal traits and characteristics does not conform to ethical codes and may even be unlawful (Stackman, et al., 2000).

Stratified random sampling.

The researcher did not consider a census necessary due to the large research population. Instead, the researcher defined a sampling frame with proportionate stratified random sampling, as it combines the advantages of random sampling (individual, random selection of employees) with representation of Post CH Ltd's group units according to their respective weight in terms of staff population. Furthermore, proportionate stratified random sampling results in more precise survey estimates, as it is more representative of the population from which it is drawn (Edwards, et al., 1997). The appropriate representation of key population subgroups results in more precise survey estimates by reducing sampling error (Henry, 1990, quoted in Edwards, et al., 1997). However, if concern exists that proportionate stratified random sampling would not ensure the representation of all subgroups in a reasonable manner, disproportionate stratified random sampling guarantees that the researcher obtains adequate numbers of personnel in all categories of interest. The sampling frame (see Figure 3.9) consisted of more than 25,000 employees.

Post CH Ltd (34,000 employment contracts)

Sampling frame (25,000 employees)
Employment level ≥ 50%, ongoing employment, monthly wage earners

Random sample

Business unit PM	Business unit PV	Business unit PL
Proportionate stratified random sample	Proportionate stratified random sample	Proportionate stratified random sample
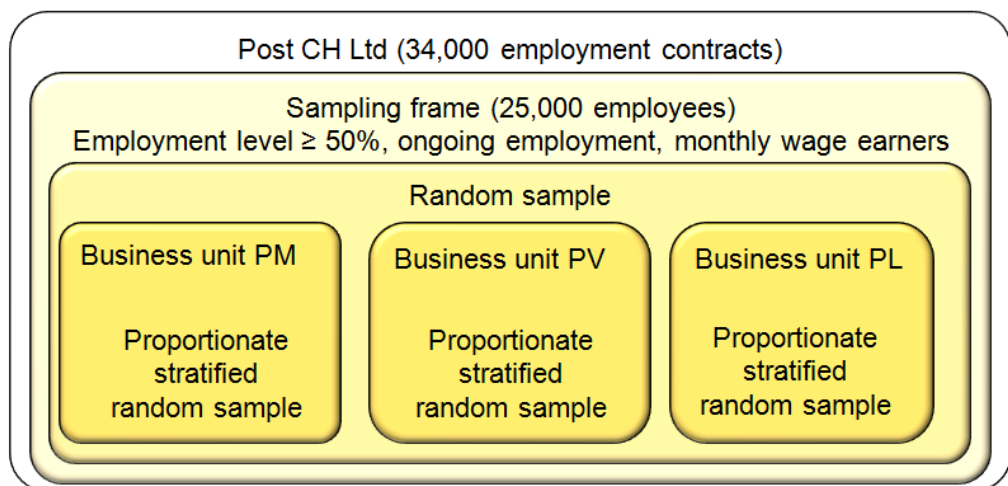
Figure 3.9: Graphical representation of the sampling frame

Note: By the researcher

After a survey is conducted, post-stratification weighting can be performed to compensate for subgroup overrepresentation (Edwards, et al., 1997). The researcher defined the sampling frame according to the following criteria:

- Employees of Post CH Ltd, consisting of PostMail (PM), Post Offices & Sales (PV), and PostLogistics (PL)

- Level of employment of 50% or more with Swiss Post

- Monthly wage earners

- Ongoing employment.

The self-imposed limitation to employment levels of 50% or more to reduce the required sample size was mainly due to financial limitations. Fielding and Gilbert (2006, p. 239) however argue that the sample needs to be representative not just on one, but on every characteristics that could be relevant. Based on the research questions, the researcher considered the following main characteristics as relevant for proportionate stratified random sampling:

- Post CH Ltd's business unit (PM, PV, PL)

- Availability of corporate e-mail

- Gender

- Language (German, French, Italian)

- Managing versus staff function.

56.5% of the employees work for PM, 25% for PV, and 18.5% for PL. 54% of the employees from the sampling frame have corporate e-mail, whereas 46% have not. The availability of corporate e-mail mainly served to select either the paper-and-pencil or the intranet version of the cultural questionnaire used for this research. Staff without corporate e-mail typically work in the line operations within PM and PL; the vast majority of their line managers do have a corporate e-mail address.

Males account for 61.9% of the research population, females for 38.1%. Non-managing staff functions are held by 81.6%, whereas 18.4% in the research population have a line managing function.

Employees speaking one of the three different national languages should be representative for the language distribution within Post CH Ltd. In terms of different nationality, the relevance of national cultures is limited, as the research population is entirely located in Switzerland. Post CH Ltd's workforce however also consists of 14.3% foreign nationals working and living in Switzerland (Swiss Post, 2012a). See Appendix XX for the detailed sampling frame.

Sampling bias in this research.

It was the researcher's intention that the sampling population should not be biased towards any specific group or characteristics. However, as the sample encompassed only employees with a level of employment of 50% or more, females, who are disproportionally more employed in part-time jobs, were underrepresented. As of 1 October 2012, Post CH Ltd's business units PM, PV, and PL had a total of 33,991 employment contracts, 50.5% males, and 49.5% females. The sampling frame however encompassed 25,309 employees, 61.9% males to 38.1% females. The difference between the 33,991 employment contracts and the sampling frame of 25,309 employees is explained by:

- The exclusion of employment levels of less than 50%. In 2012, 35.6% of all female employees and 16.3% of male employees had employment levels of less than 50% (Swiss Post, 2012a)

- Some part-time employees have more than one employment contract with Post CH Ltd (i.e., 20% with PostMail, 20% with PostLogistics, a total employment level of 40%).

Calculating sample size.

A sample needs to be of adequate size in order to generalise from it. Only when the population is small, less than 500, it is customary to send the questionnaire to all members (Easterby-Smith, et al., 2002; Edwards, et al., 1997). A common approach to allow for the required number of samples is to increase sample size by 50% (Gill, et al., 2010). Different formulae are available to calculate the sample size; decisions about size should be made based on the number of subgroups for whom results will later be presented (Edwards, et al., 1997). An example of such a formula (Cochran, 1977, quoted in Gill, et al., 2010) is given in Table 3.19. Simplified versions of such formulae (e.g., without incorporating the level of confidence) are also common (Easterby-Smith, et al., 2002).

$$N = \frac{P\,(100 - P)\,Z^2}{E^2}$$

Table 3.19: Explanation of Cochran's sample size formula

Term	Meaning	Description
N	Sample size required	Sampling size depends on the absolute size of the sample selected relative to the complexity of the population (Gill, et al., 2010, p. 128) and the number of obtained questionnaires. When the sample size exceeds 10% of the population size, *N* has to be adjusted by Cochran's (1977) sample correction factor (Bartlett, et al., 2001, quoted in Gill, et al., 2010)
P	Percentage occurrence of a state or condition	Researchers should use 50% as an estimate of P to maximise variance and sample size. If P is unknown (e.g., as there are no previous survey data), a value of 50% or .5 should be assumed (Roberts, et al., 2008)
E	Confidence level	In most social research, a 5% margin of error (confidence level) is acceptable (Gill, et al., 2010, p. 128)
Z	Value corresponding to level of confidence required	Degree to which a researcher can be sure that the characteristics of the population has been accurately estimated by the sample survey (Gill, et al., 2010). In management research, the typical levels of confidence used are 95% (0.05; equals a *z*-value of 1.96) or *z* = 2.58 for 99% (Field, 2009)

Note: Reproduced from Gill, et al. (2010)

Sample size used for this research.

The result for the calculation based on Cochran's (1977, quoted in Gill, et al., 2010) formula in Table 3.19 resulted in a sample of 384 cases, using the standard confidence level of 95%. Based on a sampling frame of 25,309 employees, using a confidence level of 95% and an interval width of ± .03, the software *SampleSizer 1.2* (Reinboth, 2011) calculated a minimal sample size of 1,026. An online sample size calculator (Creative Research Systems, 2012) calculated a minimal sample size of 1,023. The researcher therefore assumed a minimal, required sample size of at least 1,000 responses for this research. Based on an estimated response rate of 40%, the researcher overestimated the sample by a factor of 2.5, which resulted in 2,500 questionnaires to be distributed.

3.8.3   Quality, reliability, and validity in surveys.

Fielding and Gilbert (2006, p. 11) define validity in quantitative research: "Validity concerns the extent to that an indicator accurately measures the concept. Reliability concerns the consistency of the measurement". In a survey among social policy researchers, Bryman, et al. (2008) found a strong commitment for reliability and validity in quantitative research. Easterby-Smith, et al. (2002, p. 135) suggest measuring reliability and validity at the pilot stage of an investigation. The researcher considered validity and reliability as important aspects in assessing culture using quantitative methods. Questionnaires and interviews base their information on the validity of verbal information perception, feelings, and attitudes or conducts transmitted by the respondents; such information can be difficult to translate to a measurement instrument (de Yébenes Prous, et al., 2008, p. 171). Due to the standardised format of a questionnaire, objectivity is usually in terms of administration, analysis, and interpretation (Sackmann, 1991). Self-report measures offer internal credibility to the

participating members of an organisation, which increases the likelihood that all

members will accept the outcome of the survey (Ashkanasy, Broadfood, et al., 2000).

Data quality.

The following aspects served as basis for the examination of data quality in this

research:

- Data entry errors in the paper-and-pencil questionnaires

- Correct storage of the online questionnaires

- Empty or near-empty questionnaires

- Systematically filled-out questionnaires (the researcher classified questionnaires

  with answers grouped in descending or ascending order as invalid)

- Unilaterally filled-out questionnaires (a special form of systematically filled-out

  questionnaires, where the same answer is given throughout the whole

  questionnaire). The researcher barred these from the analysis.

All survey participants received a letter via their corporate address, informing them

about this research. Employees with a corporate e-mail address then received the

intranet link for the survey; all other received the paper-and-pencil questionnaire. As

completion of the intranet survey was technically confined to the randomly selected

employees, parallel completion of both intranet and paper-and-pencil questionnaire was

not possible. Furthermore, as the sample encompassed approximately 10% randomly

selected employees of the research population, it is unlikely that groups of employees

filled out the questionnaires in exactly the same way.

To cater for missing values, Hand (2008) distinguishes between two elementary

approaches: first, discarding missing records, which can however lead to selection bias

and leave spoiled data sets; furthermore, there is a risk of a considerable reduction in the

size of the data set. The second approach is to enter substitute values in the missing

fields (e.g., with data representing an average value of the existing data). As this approach results in purposively made up data, Pallant (2010) rejects it, and the researcher did not adopt it.

Reliability.

Reliability is defined as whether an instrument can be interpreted consistently across different situations. It designates the degree with which an instrument accurately measures something free of random error (Pallant, 2010), or how a measure or questionnaire reflects the construct it is measuring (Field, 2009). Variation error in reliability is due to (de Yébenes Prous, et al., 2008):

- Systematic error or bias, produced in a systematic manner (e.g., by a respondent consequently scoring higher than others)

- Random error, which affects an instrument the most.

Reliability in surveys can be evaluated by:

- Testing/re-testing (intraobserver reliability): the application of a questionnaire to the same research population at different points of time (de Yébenes Prous, et al., 2008); a reliable instrument will produce similar scores at both points in time (Field, 2009)

- Interobserver reliability, referring to the degree of agreement between two or more evaluators (de Yébenes Prous, et al., 2008).

A further option is presented by Roberts, et al. (2008), where alternative forms of a question with different orders of the questions and responses can be used to compare it with the data from the original questionnaire. The researcher considered these methods for evaluation of reliability as unpractical, as it did not conform to the timeline of this research (test/retest reliability) or were ruled out due to confidentiality concerns (interobserver reliability). The most popular measure of an instrument's reliability is

however usually evaluated through internal consistency, which refers to the coherency of the measurement instrument components or to the fact that items which measure the same attribute are consistent among themselves (de Yébenes Prous, et al., 2008).

Internal consistency.

Internal consistency is the degree to which the items that make up the scale are all measuring the same underlying attribute (Pallant, 2010). When every component or item of an instrument measures a single construct homogenously, a consistent scale is assured (de Yébenes Prous, et al., 2008). Internal consistency depends on the number of items an instrument is composed of and the mean correlation among them. Depending on the sample, the reliability of a scale can vary; the scales therefore have to be checked for reliability with a particular sample (Pallant, 2010). Internal consistency is evaluated through the statistical method of Cronbach's α, which range between 0 and 1, with an interpretation similar to a correlation coefficient (de Yébenes Prous, et al., 2008). The Cronbach's α coefficient is one of the most commonly used indicators of internal consistency (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2010):

$$\alpha = \frac{N^2 \, Cov}{\Sigma s^2_{\text{item}} + \Sigma Cov_{\text{item}}}$$

α = Cronbach's α

N^2 = Number of items squared

Cov = Average covariance between items

s^2 = Variance of the sample data

For each item, the variance within the item and the covariance between a particular item and the other items on a scale can be calculated (Field, 2009, p. 674). Cronbach α values are sensitive to the number of items used; low α are commonly found in short scales

220

(Field, 2009; Pallant, 2010). The top half for α of the aforementioned equation includes the number of items squared; therefore, an increasing number of items on the scale results in an increased α. It is therefore possible to get a large value of α simply because the scale contains a large number of items, not because the scale is reliable (Field, 2009, p. 675). For exploratory research, reliability coefficients in the order of .6 are acceptable (Easterby-Smith, et al., 2002, p. 135). Pallant (2010) argues that α coefficients of at least .7 are acceptable and values above .8 are preferable. In fundamental research, reliabilities between .7 to .8 are considered sufficient, whereas higher reliability is needed in clinical or individual diagnostics tests (Edwards, et al., 1997; University of Berne, 2008). For cultural dimensions, a Cronbach's α of at least .7 is acceptable, higher than .8 is considered reliable (Ashkanasy, Broadfood, et al., 2000, p. 142). Reliability is more difficult to assess in certain constructs such as attitudes, compared to others, for example in intelligence quotient tests (University of Berne, 2008). It can be enhanced by different means (University of Berne, 2008):

- Standardisation of the execution of a test

- Giving unambiguous instructions

- Prolongation of a survey; the higher the item sample, the higher the representation of a characteristic

- Item and factor analysis, elimination of items with low α.

Whereas the first of the aforementioned points is relevant in experimental research, emphasis in this research was on giving unambiguous instructions, which the researcher tested in a pre-test and a pilot. The reliability of a dimension increases as the number of items in that dimension increases (Edwards, et al., 1997). Important aspects to consider are reverse-scored or negatively worded items. These have a negative relationship with other items, resulting in negative covariances between this item and the other items

(Field, 2009). Such data have therefore to be recoded first. The statistical analysis of Cronbach's α can be found in section 4.5.3.

Validity.

Validity to a quantitative researcher would mean that results correspond to how things are out there in the world or measure what they were designed to measure (Field, 2009), whereas to a qualitative researcher validity is a label applied to an interpretation or description with which one agrees (Smith & Heshusius, 1986). Validity refers to the capacity of an instrument to measure that for which it was designed (de Yébenes Prous, et al., 2008):

- Face, logical or apparent validity

- Content validity

- Construct validity

- Criteria validity.

Face validity refers to the degree in which a questionnaire appears to measure that for which it was intended in the opinion of experts and the respondents (de Yébenes Prous, et al., 2008, p. 173). A researcher must decide whether a question should be included in a questionnaire before its redaction. In this research, face validity was an aspect in the design and pilot phase of the questionnaire, checked in the pre-test.

Content validity refers to the adequacy with which a measure has sampled from the intended domain of content (Pallant, 2010). An instrument is considered valid if it contemplates all of the related aspects of the concept under study (de Yébenes Prous, et al., 2008, p. 173). It is a more exhaustive and more formal process than face validity, and its evaluation is based on different origins, such as expert opinion or pilot studies. The researcher ensured content validity in the qualitative interviews with Post CH Ltd's top management, where the analysis revealed the relevant dimensions for Post CH Ltd's

intended culture from their perspective. Finally, a content analysis of the questionnaire's open question also revealed cultural dimensions relevant for the survey participants; these dimensions were compared to those mentioned by top management (see section 4.3 for more detail).

Construct validity evaluates the degree to which the instrument reflects the theory of the phenomenon or the concept to be measured (de Yébenes Prous, et al., 2008). It involves testing a scale not against a single criterion, but in terms of theoretically derived hypotheses concerning the nature of the underlying construct (Pallant, 2010, p. 7). It guarantees that the measurements resulting from the questionnaire responses can be considered and used as a measurement of the phenomenon under study (de Yébenes Prous, et al., 2008, pp. 173-174).

Criteria validity concerns the relationship between scale score and specified, measurable criterion (Pallant, 2010, p. 7); it is used as an alternative way to measure a phenomenon with a demonstrated reference validity. The external or reference criteria should be independent measurements obtained by a different method. The diagnostic test analysis is used as a prototype of the validity of the criteria (de Yébenes Prous, et al., 2008). Table 3.20, based on de Yébenes Prous, et al. (2008), summarises these characteristics of reliability and validity.

Table 3.20: Characteristics of the measurement instruments

Term	Aspects to consider	Analysis technique	Considered for this research
Reliability	Internal consistency	Cronbach's α	Yes, Cronbach's α was calculated
	Test/retest or Intraobserver	ICC, Kappa index, Bland and Altman graphic method	No, due to confidentiality reasons
	Interobserver	ICC, Kappa index, Bland and Altman graphic method	No, as this thesis does not represent a team effort

(continued)

Term	Aspects to consider	Analysis technique	Considered for this research
Validity	Face validity	Postulating questions	Yes, tested in the pilot
	Content validity	Expert opinion	Yes, tested in the pilot
	Construct validity	Factor analysis	Initially considered, but then not pursued further, as the researcher did not recognise a value-add using it for answering the research questions
	Criterion validity	Diagnostic tests	No

Note: Based on de Yébenes Prous, et al. (2008)

Finally, another potentially relevant aspect to look at is ecological validity (Xenikou & Furnham, 1996). It is the evidence that the results of a study can be applied, and allow inferences to real-world conditions (Field, 2009, p. 795). As this study yielded reliable data from a corporation, which further allowed making conclusions for cultural development, the researcher assumed proof of ecological validity.

3.8.4   Conceptual framework used for the questionnaire.

In preparing the interview guide for the semi-structured interviews with top management, the researcher followed the steps explained in section 3.7.4. For the development of the questionnaire, the main source was, however, the analysis of the semi-structured interviews (see section 3.7.5). Although general dimensions and items may address the relevant issues of an organisation too globally, or not at all (Edwards, et al., 1997), the researcher integrated items from the literature and of the Denison Organizational Culture Survey (DOCS) in the design of the questionnaire as well. The researcher finally selected the items used in the cultural questionnaire used in this research based on:

- Elements taken from Swiss Post's employee survey PEU and the DOCS (see sections 1.8.1 and 1.8.3)

- The researcher's conclusion from the literature review (see section 2.17)

- Dimensions of intended culture, based on the analysis of the qualitative interviews with top management outlined in section 4.1.

The relevant cultural aspects for Post CH Ltd, developed from the interviews with top management (see section 4.1), incorporated the following 11 cultural dimensions:

- Identification (7 items)

- Cooperation within the team (4 items)

- Cooperation with others (4 items)

- Motivation (3 items)

- Skills development (4 items)

- Customer orientation (5 items)

- Results orientation (4 items)

- Management (4 items)

- Change and innovation (6 items)

- Communications (4 items)

- Strategy (4 items).

In order to avoid responses biased by preconception, the researcher did not make these dimensions transparent in the cultural questionnaire. As past surveys of an organisation can be an excellent source in developing a new questionnaire (Edwards, et al., 1997), the researcher assigned questions from Swiss Post's employee survey PEU perceived to appropriately measure corporate culture to the questionnaire.

The questionnaire developed for this cultural research finally incorporated 49 items from the following instruments:

- 8 items from the DOCS

- 8 items from the PEU

- 33 items developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis

The detailed overview of the sources of the items used in the cultural questionnaire used for this research can be found in Appendix XXI.

3.8.5 Preparation and design of the questionnaire.

Although Edwards, et al. (1997) argue that the end product of a survey is better in a team effort, the researcher conducted the design, administration and analysis for this research alone. Not only does a doctoral thesis represent an individual effort, it also ensured that no interferences from within the corporation could be made.

Preparation phase.

Based on the conceptual framework outlined in section 3.8.4, the researcher designed a first draft of the questionnaire. The quality of the questionnaire was increased by avoiding (Schmid, 1992):

- Asking more than one topic or idea in one question

- Unfamiliar expressions

- Double negatives, as they can be confusing

- Leading (biased) questions.

In addition, Pallant (2010, p. 10) suggests avoiding:

- Long, complex questions

- Jargon or abbreviations

- Culture-specific terms

- Words with double meanings

- Emotionally loaded words.

Table 3.21 (based on Gill, et al., 2010) shows possible activities to cater for non-respondents and to increase response rate in surveys. With the exception of the notification in advance and the re-execution of the survey, the researcher considered all these aspects in the preparation phase of this research.

Table 3.21: Strategies to increase response rate

Phase	Activity
Preparation phase	• Advance notification to persuade respondents of the survey's utility • Increase sample size up to 50% in the first batch • Using multiple survey modalities (e-mail, letter post, web-based) for convenience and to reduce sample bias • Gain support from stakeholders seen as trustworthy • Provide incentives • Good and simple survey design with concise questions. Questionnaires are most suited to closed, specific questions, because open question are difficult to analyse across large samples • Create/establish a trustworthy environment and take care of a researcher's integrity by giving a clear explanation of the survey's purpose, the selection process of respondents, and assuring confidentiality
Execution phase	• Inform stakeholders of this research's proceedings
Closing phase, post-processing	• Send follow-up e-mails/letters directly to the selected participants • Execute the survey again

Note: Based on Gill, et al. (2010)

In preparing cultural surveys, Ashkanasy, Broadfood, et al. (2000) furthermore argue that the following aspects need attention:

- Clear distinction of the cultural dimension, as overlapping dimensions can render subsequent interpretations difficult

- Enhancing validation, by more and larger samples

- Causal relationship between culture dimensions and outcome variables; requiring longitudinal studies

- Establishment of psychometric properties and validity of culture measures

- Nature of the organisational sample, indicating industry, subcultures, and interaction between them.

Questionnaire design.

The researcher defined the order of the questionnaire's main parts in the design phase; it finally incorporated:

- A title page with closing date, version number and date

- An explanation of the research

- Principles of survey and instructions

- The questions, grouped into cultural dimensions

- Statistical data, which served to collect demographic, factual information about the respondents.

As the survey recipients may become suspicious when questioned about personal data, Edwards, et al. (1997) recommended placing this part at the end of the questionnaire, although it incorporated the risk that a higher proportion of questionnaires are returned lacking at least partial statistics data. A further rationale for putting the demographic items at the end was to have a similar layout to Swiss Post's employee survey PEU, with the researcher's intention of increasing the response rate.

The factual question "are you a line manager" could not be subdivided any further (e.g., between team leaders and senior managers), as no consistent definition of line managing functions exists within Post CH Ltd. This was a restriction insofar as the line managing functions encompass team leaders in the operations with small teams of 6 to 10 staff, up to senior management functions with a responsibility of several hundred employees. Furthermore, the layout for the paper-and-pencil version conformed to the requirements for automatic scanning by using position marks, but no code or other distinctive identifying feature was printed on the questionnaire.

In addition, the researcher explained the purpose of the survey; instructions on how to fill it were given as well. A phone number and two e-mail addresses were also provided.

Survey items and length.

No ideal length in terms of number of items, pages or survey completion time exists (Denscombe, 2007; Edwards, et al., 1997), although Rosenblum (2001, quoted in Deutskens, et al., 2004) recommends approximately 20 questions, which Deutskens, et al. (2004) however consider too short for academic research. Surveys that take more time for completion usually have lower response rates (Deutskens, et al., 2004) and bear the risk of fatigue (Edwards, et al., 1997). The researcher's intention was to make it just long enough to obtain a reasonable understanding of the attitudes from respondents at all hierarchical levels regarding Post CH Ltd's culture, but to keep it as short as possible to achieve higher response rates (Deutskens, et al., 2004). Based on Deutskens, et al. (2004), the researcher defined a maximum of 50 questions for the questionnaire, which finally incorporated 49 closed questions and one open question.

Scale.

The researcher used a Likert scale, the most widely used response format (Ashkanasy, Wilderom, et al., 2000). It gives a wide range of possible scores and increases the statistical analyses available to a researcher (Pallant, 2010). The Likert scale measures both the strength and the bipolar direction of a response. A controversial issue in the literature with a long history and without a definitive conclusion is whether the scale should contain a neutral midpoint. Edwards, et al. (1997) argue that a midpoint may give less significant results. However, it can inhibit measurement error, as respondents are not forced or frustrated by selecting an option that does not reflect their feelings. Its inclusion could enhance the possibility of getting normally distributed data, a

prerequisite for parametric statistical tests. The questionnaire used for the pre-test in this research had no midpoint, but the researcher changed this for the ensuing pilot and the final questionnaire, which incorporated a midpoint on a seven-point Likert scale, allowing a respondent to select a neutral response based on an odd number of categories (Roberts, et al., 2008). The researcher however refrained from using an additional "unable to judge" category in order to avoid a complex Likert scale with eight items.

Cultural dimensions in the questionnaire.

Usually, survey professionals group responses together based on items that have a strong relationship to the characteristic that they are supposed to measure. This forming of a dimension enhances the measurement of a characteristic, as single closed items tend to be unreliable (Edwards, et al., 1997). Furthermore, a bad item can be dropped and still give an index measuring the intended characteristic. The researcher therefore grouped survey items homogeneously to make it easier for participants to answer, starting with the simpler items within a dimension. The final questionnaire (with the reference to the cultural dimensions added) can be found in Appendix XXII.

Questionnaire items.

The formulation of questions followed Schmid's (1992) guidelines. Reverse-coded or negatively and positively worded items can be used to cater for the yea-saying or nay-saying bias (Edwards, et al., 1997), or to prevent response bias (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2010) and counter a tendency for social desirability. In employee surveys, negatively worded items are often used with caution, because it can be confusing for participants to switch between these items, leading to inaccurate data. Swiss Post avoids negatively worded items in the employee survey PEU completely, as comprehensibility of the instrument is seen as more important than academic rigour. This follows Easterby-

Smith, et al.'s (2002) advice not to use negatives in questionnaires (see section 3.8.1). According to Pallant (2010), a combination of both closed and open-ended questions works best.

Roberts, et al. (2008) argue that it is easy to get distracted into including questions that may provide interesting insight, but do not answer the research objectives. Open questions have the advantage that the comments can be analysed and compared with the analysis from the qualitative interviews, giving the employees freedom to respond in their own way, with the possibility of bringing in their views on the organisation or on corporate culture as well. In addition, such information can also be used to check if the cultural dimensions stated by top management are congruent with those of the research participants, thereby contributing to content validity. In contrast to closed questions, open questions cannot be easily converted to a numerical format in SPSS (Fielding & Gilbert, 2006; Pallant, 2010). The researcher therefore created a data entry field in SPSS to indicate if a respondent made such a comment in the questionnaire's optional open question. For the analysis, CAQDAS was considered to be more suitable for the task, not least due to SPSS' limitation to a maximum of 255 characters (Fielding & Gilbert, 2006).

Pre-test.

The German questionnaire used for a first pre-test incorporated 48 items, one of them negatively worded. It had a six-point Likert scale without a mid-point. The researcher conducted the pre-test with 12 HR specialists and HR managers, half of them work and organisational psychologists. The researcher knew all of them personally, and 11 questionnaires were returned. This phase served to evaluate the clarity of the introduction and the instructions, the readability, survey content, wording of the items, the survey administration time, and the reliability analysis; the pre-test also served as a

basis for the ensuing pilot. The researcher then created a codebook to convert the information from the questionnaires into a format that SPSS can understand. The sole negatively worded item was reversed in SPSS, a prerequisite to calculate Cronbach's α (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2010). A relatively low Cronbach's α of .62 was observed for the pre-test. The respondents had an average of 4 minutes for reading the instructions and 13 minutes to fill in the questionnaire. Furthermore, a few typographical errors were found. The researcher considered recommendations made by the participants that would contribute to a better understanding for the revised version of the questionnaire, enhancing the construct for the ensuing pilot.

Pilot phase.

After the pre-test, the researcher revised the questionnaire as follows:

- Inclusion of a neutral mid-point, resulting in the seven-point Likert scale

- Two additional questions were included

- Inclusion of more negatively worded items, in order to achieve a normal distribution of the data.

To test the methodology and the questionnaire, a pilot study should always be conducted (Roberts, et al., 2008). Similar to the pre-test, the pilot served to check:

- Clarity of the introduction and the instructions

- Readability, survey content, and wording of the items

- Reliability of the data, as Edwards, et al. (1997) cautions that the questionnaire should not exceed the readability skills of the average employee.

The German questionnaire used for the pilot phase contained 50 questions, 28 positively worded, 21 negatively worded, and one optional open question. The variety of positively and negatively worded items has the advantage of avoiding boredom and stops the respondent falling into a pattern of answers (Denscombe, 2007). The

232

researcher ensured that every dimension consists of both positively and negatively worded questions. The pilot was then conducted in a regional sales team consisting of account managers, retail account managers, and sales supporters. It consisted of 14 people aged 16 to 60 years, both male and female. The majority were from the eastern (German speaking) part of Switzerland, with two people with very good knowledge of the German language resident in the Italian speaking part of the country. With the exception of the regional sales manager, the researcher did not know anybody personally. All participants completed their questionnaires. For the reliability analysis, the researcher recoded the negatively worded items in SPSS. The pilot showed a high overall Cronbach's α of .94. Due to this high alpha value, the researcher decided not to drop questions for the final survey, but rather delete items with low α values based on the analysis of the final data. Several respondents mentioned in the pilot that the combination of positively and negatively worded items is somewhat demanding for the reader; as a consequence, the latter were underlined in the final questionnaire. In addition, a randomly selected, small group of team leaders from blue-collar workers checked this questionnaire for readability and comprehensibility. They concluded that the survey should be understandable by an average worker, although it requires a respondent's concentration and attentiveness, not least due to the combination of positively and negatively worded items. Finally, the researcher held two debriefing meetings with participants of the pilot, before making small changes to the final survey.

Translations.

The German version of the questionnaire served as a basis for the translations to French and Italian. Swiss Post's internal translation service department conducted this process. Two internal, bilingual line managers checked the first version of the translations; the researcher then checked their comments in a meeting with the professional translators.

The researcher resubmitted the revised version to the two line managers, who then both acknowledged proper translation and good comprehensibility of the revised questionnaire. These revised Italian and French versions were then cross-translated to German, and the researcher discussed the few deviations in a personal meeting with the specialists from the translation service. Before the researcher released the survey, an internal communications specialist checked the German version, whereas a professional translator screened the English version. The two aforementioned bilingual line managers finally acknowledged the questionnaire's good quality of the French and Italian language versions. After the paper-and-pencil version, the researcher set up the intranet version in Swiss Post's internal intranet survey system (USP). The previously mentioned communications specialist and the two bilingual line managers re-checked the intranet version for proper language.

3.8.6   Rollout of the questionnaire.

The survey started in mid-October 2012 with 2,500 questionnaires being distributed. In order to avoid coinciding with the peak time of the business (Roberts, et al., 2008), the timeline allowed for a completion period of three weeks. The researcher sent the survey packages to each participant's corporate postal address. The packages contained:

- A covering letter signed by Swiss Post's Head HR with an appeal to fill in the survey
- A bar of chocolate as an incentive for all survey recipients.

In addition, the paper-and-pencil version also contained the physical questionnaire and a post-paid return envelope. The covering letter for the intranet version indicated that the link to the intranet survey would be sent to their corporate e-mail address within the next few days. The researcher sent additional sets of 42 paper-and-pencil survey packages to randomly selected employees two weeks after the main rollout. The reason

was to use the remainder of chocolate bars and send them to sample populations with below-average response rates, so 21 survey packages went to German speaking employees from PostLogistics, and 21 to Italian speaking employees from Post CH Ltd's business units.

The researcher finally distributed 2,542 questionnaires (1,192 sets of the paper-and-pencil and 1,350 of the intranet version). This slightly differs from the initial sampling frame of 2,500.

3.9 Limitations of the process

This section outlines the risk mitigation procedures and the methodological and financial limitations of this research.

3.9.1 Risk mitigation.

Fundamental changes within Post CH Ltd could have imperilled this research. In order to ensure completion, the researcher therefore considered risk mitigation, which would have influenced the choice of research methods. No major organisational changes however occurred that influenced this research. Appendix XXIII provides more detail on risk mitigation.

3.9.2 Methodological limitations on qualitative methods.

Despite demands for universal knowledge in the social sciences (Kvale, 2007, p. 126), the results of the interview phase in this research are not generalisable for corporate culture in general, as the interviews were limited to members of top management in one corporation. Furthermore, doubts on the researcher's skills for rather intrusive methods such as focus groups and cooperative enquiry, and the risks associated with being a novice researcher and member of the organisation researched further backed the

decision not to opt for any collective or action research. Furthermore, the results from the interviews may not reflect the perception of culture for all members of top management, as the researcher purposively selected the interviewees based on their function. The fact that the interview language was mainly German, not the first language of all interviewees (although very well understood by all members of top management) may also pose a limitation. In addition, the researcher did not consider interrater reliability to be a viable option due to the sensitive nature of data. It cannot be ruled out that another researcher, analysing the same interview transcripts, would therefore come to slightly different conclusions.

3.9.3 Methodological limitations on quantitative methods.

The research focused on employees with employment levels of at least 50% or more; this however excludes a portion of Post CH Ltd's part-time employees. In 2012, 48.6% of Swiss Post's workforce had employment levels of less than 90%, whereas 25.4% worked less than 50%. 83.7% of Swiss Post's male and 64.4% female employees had employment levels of 50% or more (Swiss Post, 2012a); unfortunately, no data for Post CH Ltd were available. Traditionally, jobs with low-employment levels are disproportionally held by female employees, leading to a male-biased overall research population of 61.9% males to 38.1% females, compared to the 50.5% males and 49.5% females employed by Post CH Ltd's business units PM, PV and PL. Finally yet importantly, it must be remembered that the study was limited to Post CH Ltd, excluding Swiss Post's activities in retail banking, public transportation, and its international business.

3.9.4 **Financial limitations.**

This research was entirely self-financed, thereby imposing a limitation on the size of the research population and on the selection of the research methods. External experts may have helped at certain stages of the research, for example in the design phase of the questionnaire. The researcher however did not consider external assistance because a Ph.D. should represent an individual effort, due to confidentiality concerns, and for financial reasons.

4 DATA ANALYSIS

The following sections outline the analysis of the qualitative interviews and the quantitative survey.

4.1 Interview analysis

The main purpose of this phase was the analysis of Post CH Ltd's intended culture, thereby answering the first research question (see section 1.9). The interview analysis contributed to the development of the questionnaire for this research's cultural survey. The results of the interview analysis is summarised in the next sections.

4.1.1 Corporate culture in general.

The intention of the first part of the interview analysis was to discover if a common understanding of corporate culture existed among the interviewees. Whereas three of the seven interviewees ascribe the difference between corporate and organisational culture to commercial and non-commercial organisations, others perceive only small or linguistic differences between the two terms, stating that they are "more or less the same". One interviewee fairly and squarely responded "to have no idea". Based on the question of how the interviewees define corporate culture, the notion of something shared (particularly values) was mentioned most frequently. Although the interviewees generally perceive the difference between the terms corporate and organisational culture to be very small, the researcher could however not discover a consistent understanding of the definition of corporate culture among the interviewees.

All interviewees had heard about corporate culture from the literature or the media. With the exception of one member of top management, who was involved in a cultural development process in another company, all other interviewees denied having a lot of practical experience in projects where corporate culture was a topic per se. The other six

respondents however claimed to have encountered cultural issues in reorganisations or in strategy definition processes.

When it comes to the influencing factors of corporate culture in general, four interviewees mentioned the role model function of managers. A further four interviewees (one person mentioned both aspects) mentioned the importance of vision, values, and paradigms. "Identification of employees with an organisation" and "stakeholders" in general came second, followed by elements of corporate identity such as symbols and artifacts.

Based on their role in top management, three interviewees already tried to link cultural aspects with Swiss Post's new overarching organisational structure. Five interviewees mentioned their belief that the new CEO, Ms Ruoff, would have considerable influence on Post CH Ltd's culture in her role as change manager, ascribing high relevance to cultural aspects with respect to Swiss Post's reorganisation. In concordance with the researcher's view, all seven respondents believe in the adaptability of culture, based on questions 13 from the interview guide: "Do you think corporate culture is adaptable, meaning subject to influences with the intention to chance culture"? The role of managers in Swiss Post's reorganisation, especially "coherency and credibility of management" and "individual leaders", is here seen as crucial. Four respondents expressed the view that changing culture takes a lot of time, whereas one person oppositely said, "new leaders can change culture fast".

4.1.2   Intended culture of Post CH Ltd.

The researcher used the interview analysis on intended culture as a preparation for the quantitative part of this study. It can therefore be seen as the main, central part of the interview analysis, as it answers the first research question, how does top management (consisting of the board of directors and executive management) defines intended

corporate culture of Post CH Ltd. In a first phase, the researcher asked the interviewees to describe in their own words what they consider important for Post CH Ltd's intended culture. The most mentioned factors were "entrepreneurial" and "serving customers" (each mentioned by three respondents). The interviewees also made several notions on the "role and importance of communication" and "strategy". Other aspects such as "more courage for investments" and "risk acceptance", "an organisation that adapts to organisational and technical developments", "preserving Swiss Post's core values" and "being a fair employer", and "style of leadership" were mentioned by two respondents each. A number of other answers were given, but the researcher could not identify a common pattern.

As a rationale for their statements, two respondents mentioned the "well-being of Swiss Post". Another two justified it with the "liberalisation, and competition in the logistics market". Asked why the interviewees came to their conclusions, they ascribed this to "personal perceptions", "experience", or simply "because they are relevant".

Asked what the irrelevant factors of Post CH Ltd's intended culture were, three interviewees mentioned "greed" and "total profit maximisation"; two respondents argued that "everything is important or for corporate culture". One interviewee mentioned "aggressiveness", and one respondent frankly claimed, "to have no idea".

In the next phase, the researcher asked all interviewees to select the five dimensions for Post CH Ltd's intended culture from each Swiss Post's employee survey (PEU) as well as from the Denison Organizational Culture Survey (DOCS) that they considered most important. Another three dimensions were to be selected from Detert, et al.'s (2000) review of cultural dimensions in the literature. The researcher imposed a limitation to five (DOCS, PEU) and three dimensions from Detert, et al. (2000) in order to force the

respondents to make unambiguous decisions. Table 4.1 shows the number of responses given by the seven interviewees.

Table 4.1: *Dimensions from existing frameworks with the number of responses given in the interviews*

PEU	No.	DOCS	No.	Detert, et al.	No.
Goal orientation	5	Strategic direction and intent	5	Motivation	5
Strategy	5	Capability development	4	Isolation versus collaboration/ cooperation	4
Interaction with the team	4	Core values	4	Orientation and focus-internal and/or external	4
Involvement and personal responsibility	4	Customer focus	4	Stability versus change, innovation, personal growth	3
Change and innovation	3	Empowerment	3	The basis of truth and rationality	3
Direct line manager	3	Goals and objectives	4	The nature of time and time horizon	1
Information and communications	3	Team orientation	4	Control, coordination, and responsibility	1
Employment conditions	2	Creating change	2	Orientation to work, tasks, and co-workers	0
Cooperation	1	Vision	2	**Total**	**21**
Customer orientation	1	Agreement	1		
Further development	1	Coordination and integration	1		
Management	1	Organizational learning	1		
Work content	1	**Total**	**35**		
Working conditions	1				
Work load	0				
Work processes	0				
Total	**35**				

Note: By the researcher

Some dimensions from the PEU and from the DOCS seem to be related closely.

Although the terms differ slightly from a linguistic point of view, one can assume that

the dimensions address the same meaning or at least a closely related cultural

dimension. Table 4.2 outlines the related dimensions from these two instruments, with

the number of responses combined.

Table 4.2: *Similar cultural dimensions from Swiss Post's employee survey and the Denison Organizational Culture Survey*

PEU	DOCS	Combined responses
Strategy	Strategic direction and intent	10
Goal orientation	Goals and objectives	9
Interaction with the team	Team orientation	8
Further development	Capability development	5
Change and innovation	Creating change	5
Customer orientation	Customer focus	5

Note: By the researcher

Goal orientation for example goes with goals and objectives, strategy with strategic

direction and intent, and change and innovation with creating change. The researcher

analysed these combinations using MAXQDA's code relations browser. The intention

was to look for consistency of answers and check whether the interviewees selected the

respective dimensions from both the PEU and the DOCS. Although this was not always

the case, the researcher found a strong connection in some dimensions; this was

particularly evident for strategy (see section 3.7.5).

The answers on the cultural surveys reflected earlier statements by the interviewees;

almost all respondents in the first, open part of the interview for example shared the

high relevance of strategy and goal orientation. The researcher summarised the rationale

given by the interviewees for the selection of these dimensions as follows:

- Having the right people on board: employees as a source of good results, the

    importance of good managers and the cooperation in a team

- The importance of the aspect or dimension for Post CH Ltd.

Asked why the interviewees did not select some dimensions, four respondents argued they had to set priorities and choose the dimensions they considered of utmost importance. Three interviewees believe that certain aspects do not present a problem within the corporation, such as employment conditions, as the employees accepted them in the hiring phase. Other aspects the interviewees mentioned were "employees are motivated" and "employees are used to deal with challenges such as the continuous change in the corporation". Two respondents also expressed the opinion that certain dimensions are subject to influence by the direct line manager, for example "work load" and "work content".

Finally, the analysis from the seven interviews served as a further base in the design process of the questionnaire. The interview analysis on intended culture revealed high emphasis on the dimensions strategy, goal orientation, change and innovation, team interaction, motivation, development, and customer orientation. The interviewees also attributed importance to the role of leaders; they made several explicit comments related to the nomination of the new CEO and her influence on corporate culture. The cultural dimensions selected from the existing cultural surveys were, therefore, congruent with the open statements of the interviewees in the first part of the interviews. Consequently, the researcher included the above dimensions in the questionnaire for the cultural survey.

4.1.3   Current corporate culture of Post CH Ltd.

Asked about how the members of top management experience Swiss Post's current corporate culture, four interviewees responded by "mainly based on internal cues, from feedback from postal workers", by Swiss Post's employee survey PEU (four responses), or by their own, subjective perception (three responses). The sole external aspect

outside Swiss Post mentioned by three interviewees here was "feedback from customers". When it comes to similarities of culture between Post CH Ltd's business units PostMail, Post Offices & Sales, and PostLogistics, the "high identification" of staff with Swiss Post and "high customer orientation" had four responses each, then performance orientation, an emphasis on delivering high quality, the management culture, but also risk aversion and a lack of courage (three responses each).

The interviewees perceive cultural differences between the business units to be moderate to high (four responses). Only one interviewee claimed such differences to be small, justifying it with the similar business model and the similar style of leadership between Post CH Ltd's business units. Cultural differences between the business units are ascribed to "protected versus liberalised markets", "national versus international markets", "new versus traditional units", "growing versus declining markets", and on "internal competition" due to each business unit's profit and loss responsibility.

The interviewees ascribe differences in corporate culture between top management and staff mainly to the different interests between them. Three respondents mentioned "differences from postal workers' national culture", based on the plurality of Swiss Post's employees from 140 nations (Swiss Post, 2012a). Further responses (each mentioned once) encompassed "regional or cantonal differences", "lack of trust due to salary differences", and the "primarily financial objectives of top management, which are not those of the employees". One person believes that such differences are decreasing due to staff selection, by recruiting employees that culturally "fit" to the corporation. Top management believes, when asked about the sense of belonging, it is Swiss Post that employees associate their allegiance with (three responses each in the first and second priority). The reason why Post CH Ltd was not scoring highly on allegiance is understandable, as it was an artificial construct at the time of the interviews in spring 2012, more than a year before Post CH Ltd's foundation in June 2013.

4.1.4   Degree of alignment of corporate culture.

The members of top management see potential divergences of corporate culture between themselves and staff as problematic. The two aspects most frequently mentioned were "different perceptions of the necessity of change" and "change management" (mentioned each by five respondents), and the "communication of cultural values and the company's objectives to the bottom" (mentioned by four respondents). All interviewees consider a corporate culture that is aligned with Post CH Ltd's intended culture as important. The interviewees consider this a necessity to:

- Successfully implement the strategy (two interviewees)

- Achieve Post CH Ltd's objectives (two interviewees)

- Achieve a stronger focus on the common objectives of Post CH Ltd (two interviewees)

- Ensure the future of the organisation (one interviewee).

Two interviewees think that such divergences have to be accepted, but should be accompanied by corresponding measures to mitigate them. Three interviewees would only accept such divergences based on their ramifications or implications. One respondent opposes this view and think that top management should not accept such divergences. One interviewee explicitly mentioned the importance of communication, but the answers to this question remained somewhat vague.

In the evaluation of the extent to which top management and employees share a common corporate culture, the respondents seem to be unsure. Three members of top management think the accordance between current and intended culture is high and there is a rather small difference; one respondent explicitly mentioned at least a partial agreement between top management and staff insofar as Swiss Post has to make a profit. One person had "no idea", and a respondent from the board of directors confessed to be "too far away from the basis" to answer the question.

4.1.5 Potential divergences of corporate culture.

When it comes to implementing measures to mitigate potential cultural divergences between top management and employees, the aspect most repeatedly put forward by top management (four responses) was "translation and communication of values and objectives" to the specific staff groups, for example by using adequate, striking examples. Further responses were, with one response each, "proper introduction of new employees" and "cultivating storytelling" to create a stronger sense of identity. Based on the question of what should explicitly not be implemented in mitigating cultural divergences, two respondents argued that a culture that does not fit to Swiss Post's DNA cannot be imposed and would be doomed to fail. In a similar vein, one person mentioned a specific culture must not be "decreed". One person explicitly mentioned not to use public relations (PR), whereas two interviewees did not mention anything in particular.

Although it was not an explicit question in the interview guide, no interviewee mentioned cultural differences based on Switzerland's national language populations. However, cultural differences in the corporation are perceived between the urban and rural areas (two responses), and between the headquarters and the decentralised operations (two responses).

Three respondents considered measuring, detecting, and evaluating cultural divergences a prerequisite. Two interviewees argued for a "dynamic development of corporate culture", whereas one respondent highlighted the importance of retaining the fundamentals of Swiss Post's cultural identity, for example the importance of Swiss Post's yellow corporate colour.

Three interviewees also mentioned that should the cultural gap between top management and staff to be too large, intended culture should be checked and revised where necessary. The researcher was somewhat surprised by this comment, as such

246

consideration for the employees' perception of corporate culture was not expected. It must remain open whether the potential acceptance of a deviation of intended culture is ascribed to the traditionally high employee orientation at Swiss Post as a corporation owned by the government. Eventually, it can also be traced back to the high consensus orientation said to be typical of the Swiss people, or if the public service aspect also played a role.

4.1.6 Selected questions from Swiss Post's employee survey PEU.

Solely for the three members of executive management, the researcher posed eight questions from Swiss Post's employee survey PEU (questions 55 to 62 in the interview guide), using the six-point Likert scale from the PEU. The verbal responses resulted in a high level of agreement on the PEU-statements. The respondents acknowledged their previous statements, by primarily using the response options "I entirely agree" or "I agree". This part of the interview only provided a little additional insight.

4.1.7 Concluding questions.

With the exception of one respondent, who thinks that the vision and strategy are not yet ready for successful implementation within the corporation, all the other respondents share the opinion that Post CH Ltd is well prepared for the future. One person explicitly mentioned the absence of a specific weakness. Challenges are seen in many aspects: the decreasing letter market, the political pressures on the post office network, and managing staff insecurity due to the reorganisation were mentioned twice each. Other aspects mentioned include the deficit of the post offices network, a stronger customer and market orientation, the need for flexibility, and an increasing competition in the logistics market.

4.1.8 Conclusion on the interview analysis.

The researcher could not discover any distinctive patterns in the responses to the interview questions. Neither was such a pattern revealed between the members of the board of directors and the members of executive management, nor between the cultural origin of the interviewees (Swiss German and French with three interviewees each, plus one German national). This could, however, possibly be ascribed to the relatively small number of just seven interviews.

Figure 4.1 maps out the overall coding structure of the seven interviews in MAXQDA. Citations from the interview analysis are in Appendix XXIV. MAXQDA's tag cloud is in Appendix XXV.
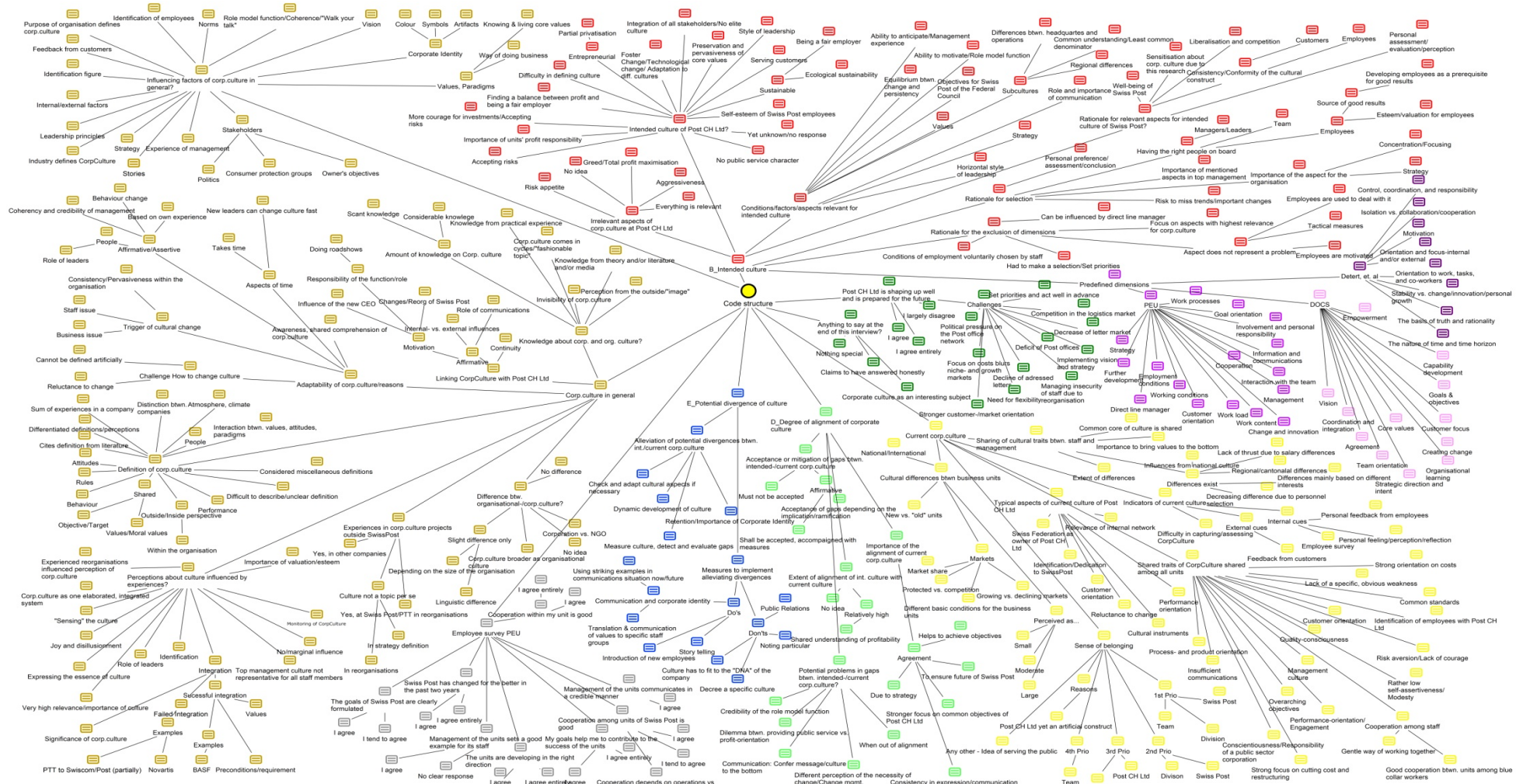
Figure 4.1: Map of MAXQDA's code structure of the seven interviews (by the researcher)

4.2   Survey response rate

The response rate is often used as a quality indicator for judging the success of survey administration (Edwards, et al., 1997). It is defined as: "The number of people from whom surveys were received divided by the number of people to whom the survey was mailed" (Edwards, et al., 1997, p. 92) or "the percentage of the contacted sample that has answered and returned the questionnaire" (Deutskens, et al., 2004, p. 27). Gross response rate is calculated as the number of surveys received (or, in net response rate, the number of valid surveys) divided by the number of recipients of the survey (Edwards, et al., 1997). Church's (1993) meta-analysis found that incentives have substantial positive effects on mail survey response rates, with an average response rate of 36% without incentives, compared to 49% with incentives. Significant effects were however only found in those surveys where survey completion was not a prerequisite (Church, 1993). Deutskens, et al. (2004) found that lotteries with small prizes, but with a high chance of winning, are most effective in increasing response rate as well as response quality. Small response rates should be avoided, as they bear the risk of non-response bias if the non-respondents differ systematically from respondents. Furthermore, they may induce insufficient data for the analysis, limiting and degrading the generalisability of the findings. The best way to avoid such problems is to maximise response rate (Edwards, et al., 1997). The researcher took the following steps to achieve this:

- Ensuring high quality of the recipient's addresses
- Respondent-friendly design, similar to Swiss Post's employee survey PEU
- Covering letter from Swiss Post's Head of HR
- A bar of Swiss chocolate as incentive.

A further measure to increase the response rate would have been to administer the questionnaire in Spanish, Serbo-Croatian, Portuguese, and Turkish language versions as

well, as migrants from these language regions make up a considerable proportion of Swiss Post's staff. The researcher however did not consider this option due to the increase in complexity, costs, and time. With the exception of the pre-test and the pilot, the researcher did not give any prior notification of the survey. Making repeated contacts with survey non-respondents is the most important factor in obtaining a good response rate in mail and online-surveys (Deutskens, et al., 2004). Therefore, the researcher contacted the recipients two weeks after releasing the survey by sending out a physical reminder letter, which boosted the response rate, particularly in the paper-and-pencil version. As the corporate postal addresses of the survey recipients were based on Swiss Post's enterprise resource planning system (ERP), the address quality was excellent.

Techniques applied to reduce the situational pressure to respond in a socially desirable manner in this survey included highlighting that responses are confidential, giving survey instructions, and by indicating that there are no right or wrong answers (Fowler, 1993; Oskamp, 1991, quoted in Edwards, et al., 1997). The overall gross response rate in this research was 67.1%, with a net response rate (valid questionnaires) of 66.3%, compared to survey response rates in the literature ranging from 35% to 80% (Edwards, et al., 1997). The response rate in the intranet version was 9% higher than in the paper-and-pencil version. In both versions, French speaking respondents had the highest response rate with a combined 69%, followed by German speaking respondents with 66.5% and Italian speaking people with 58.4%. The reasons for the differences in response rate according to language are unknown to the researcher; a similar effect is observed in Swiss Post's employee survey PEU. It remains open whether this difference can be ascribed to cultural variations.

As a conclusion, two thirds of the recipients of the quantitative survey responded to a voluntary and rather complex questionnaire. This surpassed the researcher's expectation of a 40% response rate (1,000 out of 2,500 questionnaires distributed, as outlined in section 3.8.2) and enhanced the reliability of the statistical analysis. Appendix XXVI outlines the response rate in detail.

4.3   Qualitative analysis of the optional open ended question

When open questions are used to collect data, they should be summarised using content analysis, enabling the answers' systematic categorisation (Roberts, et al., 2008). The analysis of the open survey question "If you have any comments, views and/or expectations in relation to corporate culture at Swiss Post (PM, PV, PL units), please indicate them" complemented the later statistical analysis and contributed to the second research question, what is Post CH Ltd's current corporate culture (see section 1.9). The researcher analysed this open question using MAXQDA. Some comments of the survey participants were extensive, encompassing up to 275 words. About 16% of all respondents to the intranet version made a comment, whereas the percentage in the paper-and-pencil version was considerably higher with more than 23%. A total of 318 or 19% of all survey participants commented on this question.

4.3.1   Analysis of the open question.

The researcher prepared the analysis by creating categories based on individual responses and content coding in a similar way as in the analysis of the semi-structured interviews; this procedure is described section 3.7.5. Unlike the aforementioned interview analysis, where the coding structure basically followed the structure given in the interview guide, the researcher selected theoretical coding (Kuckartz, 2007), a more grounded approach without a predefined structure. In such an open coding approach,

labels are assigned to the respondent's statements, which are then grouped (Silverman, 2010). This procedure accounted for the broad range of statements made by the respondents. The survey recipients made comments on all the three survey languages, which the researcher coded in their original language. Some respondents also disclosed their identity, giving full name and further personal information. The researcher did not enter such data into MAXQDA, assuring anonymity of the respondents. Apart from analysing responses to the open question, the researcher also combed through all paper-and-pencil questionnaires for any additional comments made. After repeated, iterative coding of all comments, the researcher grouped them into four overarching categories:

- Comments related to corporate culture (the main category, related to the second research question, which also served to identify cultural dimensions brought forward by the employees)

- Explicit recommendations to management

- Comments made by members of Post CH Ltd's three business units

- Comments related to the survey.

These categories are explained in the next sections.

4.3.2   Comments related to corporate culture.

Whereas some survey respondents specifically addressed aspects of corporate culture, the comments covered a wide range of topics: from strategy over to processes, to servicing retired citizens, up to the price of the parking place employees have to pay at the postal facility. The codes assigned the most frequently are outlined in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Codes most frequently used for the analysis of the open question

Main code	Category	Sub-category	Number of codes assigned	
Swiss Post	Reorganisation/ split-up of Swiss Post	General comments	27	54
		Information/ communications	27	
Swiss Post	Cooperation	Cooperation between business units	39	
Swiss Post	Processes		38	
Employees	Stress/work load		29	
Swiss Post	Profitability		28	
Line managers	n/a		24	
Employees	Esteem/appreciation for employees		24	
Swiss Post	Corporate culture at Swiss Post in general		21	
Swiss Post	Management		19	

Note: By the researcher

The "reorganisation/split-up of Swiss Post" peaked, followed by "cooperation between business units", "processes", and "stress/work load". It is not surprising to the researcher that employees made many comments about Swiss Post's split-up described in section 1.7.3, given the fact that this reorganisation was communicated a few months before the survey was conducted. An aspect frequently brought forward by the employees were concerns regarding Post CH Ltd's split-up, often expressing the hope that Swiss Post remains as one entity. A desire for more information about the reorganisation was also evident. In a similar vein, the cooperation between the business units was a further aspect of concern for the respondents. "Processes" (or organisational processes) summarised a broad range of comments, for example, on the organisation of parcel distribution tours, on letter sorting processes, and regarding the contracts with telecommunication providers for mobile phones sold in the post offices.

In the next stage, the researcher compared this analysis with the analysis of the dimensions from the interviews with top management. It revealed that the researcher could assign each of the 11 dimensions from the culture survey to one of the aspects

mentioned by the employees. This acknowledged that these cultural dimensions, which are seen as important by top management, were considered relevant by the responding employees as well, especially the dimension "cooperation with others". Although many comments centred on Swiss Post, the employees' comments covered a broad range of subjects; it is doubtful whether all these really addressed cultural aspects. "Processes", for example, played an important role for the employees, a dimension that the members of top management hardly mentioned in the preceding qualitative interviews. The categories "line managers" and "esteem/appreciation for employees" identified in the analysis of the open question could probably subsumed under the category Management used in the questionnaire. The high relevance of the category "stress/work load" may at least be partially ascribed to the different interests between top management and employees. Appendix XXVII outlines the comments made by the employees with the predefined cultural dimensions.

4.3.3   Recommendations to management.

A total of 16 employees made explicit recommendations or specific proposals for improvement. They encompassed a broad range of topics, such as how to enhance information for retail customers and employees, but also suggested improvements in operational processes. These comments (without disclosing the respondent's identity) could be forwarded to the members of top management. Although this would not be related to one of the research questions, it could strengthen the benefit drawn from the practical application of this study and enhance the operationalisation of the concept.

4.3.4   Comments made by members of the respective business units.

The comments made by the employees of Post CH Ltd's three business units PM, PV, PL could be forwarded to the respective member of executive management, without

disclosing the respondent's identity. Such information would allow gaining insight into the condition of the respective business unit and could serve as an incentive for the participation of executive management in the interviews. The researcher would have to ensure anonymity of the respondents.

4.3.5   Comments related to the survey.

This category provided insight into how well the recipients received the survey. Furthermore, it was the researcher's attempt to become more proficient in conducting surveys. Whereas the overall layout, the rationale for the research and the translations were generally praised, some perceived the questionnaire as rather complex by the use of both positively and negatively worded items. One respondent also commented that the elaborated use of language might be difficult for foreign employees who are not proficient in German, French, or Italian, although this aspect was checked in the pilot phase outlined in 3.8.5. Table 4.4 outlines the details.

Table 4.4: Survey-related comments

Comment made related to the survey			No. of comments
Questionnaire	General comments about the survey	Positive	13
		Neutral	3
		Negative	4
	Complexity of the survey	Positive	0
		Neutral	2
		Negative	11
	Comments to specific questions		8
Chocolate bar (incentive)	Positive		12
	Negative		3
Desire for publishing results of the study			6
Suggestions in case of a potential re-deployment of the study			4
Total comments coded			66

Note: By the researcher

In order to demonstrate the variety of comments made by the employees, Appendix XXVIII outlines noteworthy citations.

4.4 Quantitative analysis

The preparation to the statistical analysis is outlined in the following sections.

4.4.1 Introduction and purpose.

The initial data analysis should focus on checking validity of the data, identifying potential problems, and producing simple frequency tables, charts and summary statistics (Roberts, et al., 2008, p. 3/21). The first step to gain an understanding of a data set is to look at each variable using univariate statistics (Fielding & Gilbert, 2006). At the centre of statistical analysis in the social sciences, however, is finding relationships between the variables, known as variable-centred analysis (Fielding & Gilbert, 2006). For the quantitative data analysis, the researcher used SPSS version 20.

General aspects.

Although there is no hard rule, social scientists tend to prefer to use percentages (Fielding & Gilbert, 2006). In cases of less than 100, the researcher usually reported the exact number in this study, instead of percentages. Furthermore, the researcher rounded up the numbers of the analysis ending in .5.

It can sometimes be useful to combine response options to make a table easy to read and to follow (e.g., to keep a presentation short or to facilitate interpretation of the findings). Scale categories such as "I agree entirely" and "I largely agree" can for example be collapsed in a category "agreement". Details of the findings are however lost, giving a distorted view of the data (Edwards, et al., 1997), so the researcher refrained from such practice. Tests of statistical significance indicate how likely a finding (e.g., higher

values on Identification of a particular group) represents a statistically significant difference between the groups. Typically, a level of significance of .05 is chosen (Edwards, et al., 1997), which the researcher also followed in this research. Statistical significance highly depends on the sizes of the groups being examined; it is improper practice to analyse groups with 10 respondents or less (Edwards, et al., 1997). This aspect was however less relevant in this research, as the groups were generally of rather large size. Very large groups however can also be problematic, as small differences between the groups with little practical implications may achieve statistical significance (Edwards, et al., 1997).

Plausibility check in the categorical variable Level of employment.

The questionnaire also incorporated a question on the employment level, in order to differentiate between full-time and part-time employees. The researcher provided three response options, "90% or more", "50% to 89%", and "less than 50%". Although the sampling population was restricted to staff with employment levels of at least 50% (see section 3.8.2), the researcher included the last option (employment level of less than 50%) in order to check plausibility of the data. Although there should have been none such responses, four of the 1,685 respondents claimed their employment level to be less than 50%. A check at the end of the data collection phase revealed that 12 of the 2,500 employees in the initial sampling population had, since initial data preparation, a change in their employment levels to less than 50%, and 13 employees had reductions to exactly 50%. Although data input error (be it on behalf the respondents or the researcher) cannot be excluded, the researcher determined no signs of deception or wilful misguidance, contributing to the plausibility of the data. For the statistical analysis, the researcher attributed the aforementioned four cases to the "50 to 89%" employment level category.

4.4.2 Preparation of the analysis and data cleaning.

The researcher set up a codebook, listing the questions and their annotated variable names for data processing in SPSS. For the intranet survey, the researcher exported the data to a Microsoft Excel file and subsequently imported it into SPSS. For the paper-and-pencil survey, the researcher entered the data of the French and Italian questionnaires manually. The German paper-and-pencil questionnaires were scanned, with data written automatically into the precoded SPSS-file.

The researcher manually coded a unique identification number for each returned questionnaire. Such codes are important, so that progress through coding, data entry, processing and analysis can be traced (Roberts, et al., 2008). Coding hereby is the process of assigning numerical values to the responses of a variable, in order to create a data file for computer analysis (Fielding & Gilbert, 2006, p. 23). The subsequent data cleaning process involves two steps (Pallant, 2010):

- Checking for errors

- Finding and correcting errors in the data file.

First, the data from the paper-and-pencil and intranet questionnaires were merged into one data file. The researcher then visually sifted the data for missing items and for data that were not within the range of possible scores. Data of the intranet survey was checked at random, whereas the researcher verified all data from the paper-and-pencil questionnaires. Although tedious, it represents a vital part of the survey process (Edwards, et al., 1997). Furthermore, the researcher checked the range and validity of the questions, using frequency counts, in order to determine the number of received answers, the range of values, and any outliers. The latter were identified, using both boxplots and a comparison between each variable's mean and its corresponding 5% trimmed mean. In most cases, this difference was less than 0.1. Question 11 (Q11) had

the highest positive deviation between mean and 5% trimmed mean with .18, whereas the highest negative deviation was -.15 with Q18. The lowest deviation was .02 in Q25.

Handling missing data in SPSS.

Research shows that there are disproportionally more semi-completes or not fully completed questionnaires in long surveys (Deutskens, et al., 2004), resulting in a lack of data. Edwards, et al. (1997) distinguish between three strategies to handle missing data:

- Listwise/Casewise deletion: eliminates all the questionnaires containing any missing data, after comparison with the rest of the sample on key demographic variables. This is feasible with few missing data only, as many good data are discarded

- Imputation: mean substitution, where the average value of the subsample is taken to fill in missing data for that variable. It keeps the maximum number of records, but it is recommended only when less than 10% of the data are missing and with low correlation between the variables (Donner, 1982, quoted in Edwards, et al., 1997).

- Assigning a neutral value: this is the neutral response from a rating scale that substitutes the missing value.

Edwards, et al. (1997) suggest examining data with and without the imputed values. As sample size in this research was large, the researcher did not impute any data. Instead, SPSS allows selecting between the following options for missing data (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2010):

- Exclude cases listwise: a case is excluded from all analysis if one piece of information is missing, limiting sample size N

- Exclude cases pairwise: excludes the case only if the missing data are required for the specific analysis. Both Field and Pallant recommend this option

- Replace with mean (available in some statistical procedures): replaces the

    missing value for the variable with its mean value, accepting the risk of

    distorting the results of the analysis. Pallant does not recommend this option.

Unless otherwise stated, the researcher used the exclude cases pairwise option. The

researcher classified missing data in SPSS using the code 99.

Missing data in this research.

Whereas the intranet questionnaire could be concluded only after having responded to

all closed questions (resulting in no missing data), this was not possible for the paper-

and-pencil version. For the demographic questions, the number of missing responses

from the 730 respondents in the paper-and-pencil version ranged from 47 ("length of

service") to 61 ("unit the employee works for"). For the questions Q1 to Q49, the

percentage of missing data was considerably lower, ranging from two missing responses

in Q1, Q9, and Q13, to 28 missing responses in Q24.

Overall, it can be stated that missing data occurred disproportionally more frequently in

the demographic questions, which were at the end of the questionnaire. Despite a

reminder to fill out the demographic questions on the last page, it cannot be ruled out

that a portion of the missing data occurred because respondents simply failed to notice

these questions. Given this finding, Edwards, et al.'s (1997) advice to put the

demographic questions at the end of a survey must be taken with caution.

4.4.3   Types of statistical analysis.

Edwards, et al. (1997) recommend structuring the statistical analysis around the

following types:

- Descriptive information needed for the sample or population, including response

    rate and percentages of each category of organisational members

- Means or percentages should be computed based on data from the respondents for every dimension and each questionnaire item

- Means or percentages should be calculated for selected items and dimensions for key subgroups

- Comparisons between subgroups can be made; this facilitates the identification of subcultures

- More sophisticated data analysis.

These recommendations served as a loose guideline for this research. In choosing the right statistics, Pallant (2010) argues to consider the following factors:

- Type of questions to address, given by the research questions

- Items and scales available, given by the questionnaire

- The nature of the variables, given by statistical analysis.

In order to reveal the nature of the data, the researcher conducted preparatory statistical analyses outlined in section 4.5.

4.4.4   Limitation to the statistical analysis.

This section describes the limitation to the statistical analysis in this research.

Limitation of the cultural dimensions.

The questionnaire was restricted to the cultural dimensions identified in the qualitative interviews with top management. The analysis of the optional open question in the questionnaire (see section 4.3) revealed further, potentially relevant aspects of culture. Aspects frequently mentioned by the employees for example were stress, workload, and employment conditions. Top management did either not mention these aspects in the interviews or considered them as not being relevant. One interviewee for example mentioned that employees accepted the employment conditions in the recruiting

process, or that "stress" and "workload" are subject to the control and responsibility of the line managers.

Limitation of the analysis of language in the intranet version.

Although the researcher could report the response rate per language, the intranet survey system did not store the assignment of the individual responses to either one of the three questionnaire languages German, French, and Italian. The endeavours of IT specialists to solve this problem were not successful. Only for those 15.6% respondents of the intranet version who commented the optional, open-ended question, the respective language code could be assigned. This problem was, however, restricted to the intranet version, with the consequence that language information was lost for 47.8% of all respondents, resulting in a lower *n* for analyses based on language. As, however, the further statistical analysis showed no significant differences between the survey languages (see section 4.5.6), this limitation was therefore not relevant for analysing differences between the language populations.

4.5   Preparatory statistical analyses

The preparatory statistical analyses incorporated tests to assess the distribution of the data. It incorporated the following analyses, which are outlined in the next subsections.

- Descriptive statistics
- Frequency distributions
- Internal consistency using Cronbach's α
- Tests for normal distribution of data
- Correlation analysis
- Chi-square test.

The findings from these preparatory analyses paved the way for the later main statistical analysis.

4.5.1   Descriptive statistics.

Descriptive statistics usually include the mean, standard deviation, range of scores, skewness and kurtosis (Pallant, 2010). The interpretation of means, a simple statistical model of the centre of a distribution of scores (Field, 2009, p. 789), is relatively straightforward on the "agree" or "disagree" sides of a scale; however, if many respondents chose the neutral point on an item, this could be an indication of uncertainty or confusion (Edwards, et al., 1997).

Standard deviations are an estimate of the average variability (spread) of a set of data measured in the same units of measurement as the original data or square root of the variance (Field, 2009, p. 794). They indicate how item responses cluster around the mean; small standard deviations are a sign that most respondent's scores fell close to the mean (Edwards, et al., 1997). Skewness indicates the symmetry of the distribution, whereas kurtosis provides information about the shape of the peak of the distribution. Skewness and kurtosis with a value of zero indicate a perfectly normal distribution, which is seldom experienced in the social sciences (Pallant, 2010). Positive skewness indicate positive skew, with the scores clustered to the left at low values, whereas negative skew has the values at the high end, right hand side of a graph. Positive kurtosis values indicate a peaked, negative ones a relatively flat distribution (Pallant, 2010).

Questions Q1 to Q49.

A total of 1,685 people responded to the survey (see section 4.2). Valid *N* in SPSS (listwise) was 1,594; *N* statistic peaked at 1,683 (Q1, Q9, Q13), with the lowest *N* of

1,657 for Q24. All items used the full scale, resulting in a minimum statistic of 1 ("I do not agree at all") and a maximum statistic of 7 ("I agree entirely"); the neutral value was 4 ("I neither agree nor disagree"). The means were between 4.16 for Q22 and 6.10 for Q18. No question had a mean on the negative side of the scale. The minimum value for the standard deviation was 1.09 in Q28, the maximum 1.70 in Q49. All skewness values were negative and ranged from a minimum of -1.87 in Q18 to a maximum of -.02 in Q15, whereas Kurtosis values ranged between -.89 in Q25 and 4.36 in Q18. Detailed descriptive statistics for questions Q1 to Q49 can be found in Appendix XXIX.

Cultural dimensions

The details with the questions grouped according to the cultural dimensions are in Appendix XXX. These data however only contain those questions included after the reliability analysis using Cronbach's α described in section 4.5.3. The results showed high agreement (with mean values higher than five on a seven-point Likert scale) on the dimensions Motivation, Results orientation, Cooperation within the team, Identification, and Management.

Categorical (demographic) variables.

The demographic variables encompass gender, age, Post CH Ltd's business unit the employee works for, whether the respondent has a line management function or not, the level of employment (full-time or part-time), the section the employee works in (operations or administration), tenure (length of service), and language. Whereas 61% of the survey respondents were male, 39% were female; this is close to the 61.9% males and 38.1% females of the overall research population outlined in the sampling frame (see section 3.8.2).

The respondents grouped average age was 44 years 8 months, almost on par with the average age of Swiss Post employees of 44 years 7 months (Swiss Post, 2012a) and the research population of 44 years 5 months (J. Thoeny, personal correspondence, 2 April 2013).

About 54% of the respondents work for the business unit PostMail (PM), 27% for Post Offices & Sales (PV), and 19% for PostLogistics (PL). Compared to their share within the sampling population, PV and PL staff had higher response rates, whereas PM staff responded slightly below average.

A bit over a quarter of the respondents indicated to exert a line managing function, compared to the 18.4% from the sampling frame. It follows that line managers were more motivated to participate in this research than staff, leading to their overrepresentation, compared to staff without line managing functions.

In terms of level of employment (grouped), three quarter of the population indicated to work full-time, with employment levels of 90% or more.

A total of 89% of the respondents work in the operations (e.g., letter and parcel distribution, postal clerks, sorting centres, warehousing, transportation), compared to 11% in the administration (e.g., Finance, Marketing, HR). For comparison, no data were available from the sampling population, as Swiss Post's Enterprise Resource Planning Software does not distinguish between staff in the administration or in the operations. The average, grouped tenure of the respondents in this survey was 21 years 6 months. This is slightly higher than the average tenure of Swiss Post employees of 18 years 3 months, or the average tenure of the research population of 19 years (J. Thoeny, personal correspondence, 2 April 2013), indicating that employees with longer tenure responded disproportionally higher to the cultural survey.

In the categorical variable Language, the researcher received 71% of the questionnaires in German, 24% in French, and 5% in Italian. The language distribution was found to be close to the sampling population of 71.3% German, 23.6% French, and 5.1% Italian. Compared to the sampling frame, where 54% of the survey recipients belong to the intranet survey category and 46% to the paper-and-pencil survey category, 56.7% of those who responded used the intranet version and 43.3% the paper-and-pencil version. Given its higher convenience, this overrepresentation of the intranet version was not surprising. Further details on the demographic variables can be found in Appendix XXXI.

4.5.2 Frequency distribution.

Frequency distribution allows comparing information between groups of individuals; it can be useful for assessing properties of the distribution of scores (Field, 2009). Frequency distribution is only suitable for variables with a moderate number of categories, as it would otherwise result in very long tables (Fielding & Gilbert, 2006). The researcher considered this aspect in the design phase of the questionnaire (e.g., by grouping the demographic variables Age, Tenure, and Level of employment). The frequency distribution tables can be found in Appendix XXXII.

4.5.3 Internal consistency using Cronbach's α.

The researcher recoded the negatively worded items before calculating Cronbach's α, in order to avoid negative covariances between the items (see section 3.8.3). As already outlined in section 3.8.3, Cronbach's α have its limitations, especially when a scale contains many items, as it was the case for this research. Cortina (1993, quoted in Field, 2009, p. 675) points out that general guidelines need to be used with caution because the value of α depends on the number of items on the scale.

Cronbach's α over all cultural dimensions.

The overall Cronbach's α in this survey was .95. This can be considered as a very good internal consistency (Edwards, et al., 1997; Field, 2009; Pallant, 2010). The Cronbach's α in the pilot was comparable with .94 (see section 3.8.5). By deleting items in the overall construct, Cronbach's α would improve in just one item (Q39 in Change and innovation). Deleting Q22 (dimension Skills development), Q24, Q26, Q27 (dimension Customer orientation) and Q41 in the dimension Change and innovation would result in an equal α of .95. This calculation is however of limited value, as Cronbach's α increases with the number of items.

Cronbach's α per cultural dimension.

If several factors exist, Cronbach's α should be applied separately to items relating to different factors (Cronbach, 1951, quoted in Field, 2009; Pallant, 2010). As this study incorporated different factors (groups of items forming the cultural dimensions), the formula was tested on each subscale. The average Cronbach α value of the 11 dimensions in the initial questionnaire was .73, compared to the aforementioned value of .95 for the overall construct with items Q1 to Q49. Cronbach's α calculation per cultural dimension therefore significantly reduces the alpha value, compared to the calculation on the overall construct.

Table 4.5: Internal reliability of the initial construct

Cultural dimension (in the order of the questionnaire)	Cronbach's α per dimension	Items in the dimension	Total items/ dimension	N	Significance on the cultural dimension's Cronbach's α if an item is deleted
Identification	.83	Q1 to Q7	7	1,642	Lower α in all items
Cooperation within the team	.85	Q8 to Q11	4	1,675	Lower α in all items
Cooperation with others	.74	Q12 to Q15	4	1,661	Lower α in all items
Motivation	.66	Q16 to Q18	3	1,665	Lower α for Q16 and Q18, higher α for Q17 (.74)
Skills development	.54	Q19 to Q22	4	1,660	Lower α for Q20 to Q22, higher α for Q19 (.63)
Customer orientation	.62	Q23 to Q27	5	1,642	Lower α for Q23 to Q26, higher α for Q27 (.64)
Results orientation	.75	Q28 to Q31	4	1,663	Lower α for Q28, Q30, Q31, higher α for Q29 (.79)
Management	.84	Q32 to Q35	4	1,663	Lower α in all items
Change and innovation	.67	Q36 to Q41	6	1,647	Lower α in Q36, Q37, Q38, and Q40, higher α in Q39 and Q41 (both .68)
Communications	.70	Q42 to Q45	4	1,660	Lower α in Q42 to Q44, higher α in Q45 (.71)
Strategy	.80	Q46 to Q49	4	1,659	Lower α in Q47 to Q49, equal in Q46
Total			49		

Note: Deletion of items Q17 and Q19 significantly improves the reliability of the respective dimensions.

Cronbach's α after item reduction.

Based on the argumentation that Cronbach's α should be applied separately to items relating to different factors (or cultural dimensions in this research), α was recalculated without those questions, resulting in higher Cronbach's α values. The recalculation,

based on the reduced set of questions, revealed that further deletion of items bolsters the reliability of the construct. In three instances, the researcher retained questions whose deletion only had a small impact on Cronbach's α, as the researcher favoured the value of the information contained in these questions over marginally higher alpha values. This also had the advantage that most cultural dimensions consisted of at least three or more questions instead of just two.

Finally, the researcher deleted 10 questions in order to enhance reliability, resulting in a total of 39 questions or items. The Cronbach α values range from .63 (dimension Skills development) to .85 (dimension Cooperation within the team), with a new Cronbach's α over all dimensions of .76. Table 4.6 outline these calculations.

Table 4.6: Internal reliability after item reduction

Cultural dimension in the order of the questionnaire	Cronbach's α per dimension	Items in the dimension	Total items/ dimension	*N*	Significance on cultural dimension's Cronbach's α if an item is deleted
Identification	.83	Q1 to Q7	7	1,642	Lower α in all items
Cooperation within the team	.86	Q8 to Q11	4	1,675	Lower α in all items
Cooperation with others	.74	Q12 to Q15	4	1,661	Lower α in all items
Motivation	.72	Q16 and Q18	2	1,680	Lower α in all items
Skills development	.63	Q20 to Q22	3	1,661	Lower α in Q21 and Q22, slightly higher α in Q20 (.64)
Customer orientation	.64	Q23 to Q26	4	1,645	Lower α in all items
Results orientation	.79	Q28, Q30, Q31	3	1,664	Lower α for Q30 and Q31, slightly higher α in Q28 (.81)
Management	.84	Q32 to Q35	4	1,663	Lower α in all items

(continued)

270

Cultural dimension in the order of the questionnaire	Cronbach's α per dimension	Items in the dimension	Total items/ dimension	N	Significance on cultural dimension's Cronbach's α if an item is deleted
Change and innovation	.79	Q36 to Q38	3	1,662	Lower α in Q36 and Q37, slightly higher α in Q38 (.80)
Communications	.71	Q42 to Q44	3	1,666	Lower α in all items
Strategy	.84	Q48 and Q49	2	1,672	Lower α in all items
Total			39		

Comparison of Cronbach's α with Swiss Post's employee survey (PEU).

The dimensional Cronbach α values of Swiss Post's employee survey with data from the three business units PostMail, Post Offices & Sales, and PostLogistics range from .69 to .94 per dimension, with a mean of .84; the employee survey therefore showed higher Cronbach alpha values than the cultural questionnaire used in this research. It is however not possible to compare the values for several reasons:

- The PEU measures a broad range of dimensions, without the intention to measure corporate culture

- The dimensions of the cultural survey are not the same as those of the PEU

- The PEU is available in more languages and is not limited to the three languages used for the cultural survey, increasing the likelihood of a higher consistency in responses due to a reduced risk based on language and comprehensibility problems

- The PEU only incorporates positively worded questions, potentially contributing to a better understanding of the construct.

Conclusion on Cronbach's α calculation.

Item deletion resulted in a Cronbach's α over all questions of .94. From the 11 cultural dimensions, seven achieved a higher Cronbach's α, resulting in an increase from .73 to .76 over all cultural dimensions. Given the average number of just 3.55 questions or items per dimension, the researcher considers this a good internal consistency. The survey's cultural dimensions finally consisted of:

- Identification: 7 items (no change)

- Cooperation within the team: 4 items (no change)

- Cooperation with others: 4 items (no change)

- Motivation: 2 items (initially 3)

- Skills development: 3 (initially 4)

- Customer orientation: 4 items (initially 5)

- Results orientation: 3 items (initially 4)

- Management: 4 items (no change)

- Change and innovation: 3 items (initially 6)

- Communications: 3 items (initially 4)

- Strategy: 2 items (initially 4).

For the ensuing tests for normal distribution and the correlation analysis, the researcher retained the original set of 49 items, in order to check if these findings correspond to those of the Cronbach's α calculations.

4.5.4   Tests for normal distribution of data.

The central limit theorem is a fundamental theorem of statistics. It demonstrates that the distribution of sample means is always approximate to the bell-shaped normal distribution, provided it is based on a sufficient number of samples each large enough in size (Field, 2009; Fielding & Gilbert, 2006). All normal curves share the same basic

shape; they can be defined by just two parameters, the mean of the distribution and by the standard deviation (Fielding & Gilbert, 2006). The standard deviation of the normal curve is also called the standard error of the mean (Fielding & Gilbert, 2006). The shape of the sampling distribution can be used to give an estimate of how accurate inferences based on that sample are likely to be. In a normal curve, 95% of its area falls between plus or minus 1.96 standard deviations from the mean. This can be interpreted as 95% of the means of random samples from a population will fall within ± 1.96 standard errors from the population mean, a range known as the 95% confidence interval (Fielding & Gilbert, 2006). The standard error and the confidence interval only depend on the size of the sample, but not on the size of the population (Fielding & Gilbert, 2006). Confidence intervals give an idea about how accurate the estimate is likely to be (Fielding & Gilbert, 2006). Being 95% sure that the population mean is within the confidence interval is considered good enough for most applications in the social sciences (Field, 2009; Fielding & Gilbert, 2006). A significant value (*sig*. less than .05) hereby indicates a deviation from normality (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2010). To assess the distribution of the research data, the researcher used the Komolgorov-Smirnoff test, based on the large size of the sample. In a lot of research, particularly in the social sciences, the scores on the dependent variable are not normally distributed (Pallant, 2010). Pallant (2010, p. 63) also argues that the violation of the assumption of normality is quite common in larger samples, which was also the case in this research. Many scales and measures used in the social sciences have either positively or negatively skewed scores; this does not necessarily indicate a problem with the scale, but rather reflects the underlying nature of the construct being measured (Pallant, 2010, p. 64). According to Alvesson (2011, p. 23), a positive affiliation with the organisation is common. The researcher expected a rather positive attitude to Swiss Post, not least because employees have the freedom of choice in selecting their employer. The

researcher assessed the distribution of the data using SPSS' P-P plot and the explore function. Histograms with distribution curve fitted for each item showed negative skew in the positively worded questions, whereas the negatively worded questions showed positively skewed data. This finding acknowledged the researcher's assumption of a rather positive attitude of Post CH Ltd's employees. Q14 and Q15 in the dimension Cooperation with others however had a distribution curve resembling a normal distribution, indicating that the perception of this dimension was equally distributed. Q22 (dimension Skills development) and Q48/Q49 (dimension Strategy) had distinctive peaks at the neutral point, indicating uncertainty. A bimodal distribution with two peaks was found in Q39 and Q41 (dimension Change and innovation); this could indicate discordance among the survey participants. To a lesser extent, this was also experienced for Q25 (dimension Customer orientation) and Q33 in the dimension Management.

Conclusion on the tests for normal distribution.

The researcher found no normally distributed questions and categorical variables; the deviation for all items was significant at the confidence level of .05. The non-normal distribution of the data rendered the use of parametric tests as not suitable, although Pallant (2010, p. 206) argues that most parametric techniques are reasonably robust in tolerating violation of the assumption of normal distribution in large enough samples (e.g., 30+). The following options exist in analysing a non-parametric data distribution (Pallant, 2010):

- The researcher can use the corresponding parametric technique anyway, hoping that it does not invalidate the findings

- Variables can be transformed mathematically to achieve normal distribution of data. As there is considerable controversy concerning this approach in the literature, the researcher did not consider this option

274

- A researcher can use non-parametric tests.

Whereas parametric tests require a normal distributed sampling distribution, homogeneity of variance, interval/ratio data, and independence of observation, non-parametric tests are a family of procedures not subject to the restrictive assumptions of parametric tests. Particularly, they do not assume normal distribution of the sampling distribution (Field, 2009). They are sometimes known as assumption-free tests, requiring fewer assumptions on the type of data on which they can be used (Field, 2009, p. 540). Both parametric and non-parametric techniques assume that scores are obtained from a random sample from the population. Non-parametric tests have the disadvantage that they are less sensitive than their more powerful counterparts (Pallant, 2010); Field (2009, p. 551) however argues that this is only the case if the assumptions of the parametric test are met.

4.5.5   Correlation analysis.

Correlation analyses, a technique to explore relationships between variables, describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables (Pallant, 2010). Correlations coefficients can have values from +1 to -1, whereas the latter indicates a negative correlation (as one variable increases, the other decreases); a value of zero hereby indicates no correlation (Pallant, 2010). Based on the non-normal data distribution, the researcher calculated a two-tail Spearman's rho, as the nature of the relationship cannot be predicted. Spearman rho works by ranking the data first before applying Pearson's equation to those ranks (Field, 2009). The researcher did not consider Kendall's tau (another non-parametric alternative), as it is suited for small data sets (Field, 2009). Correlations served to assess the construct validity, by investigating the relationship of a construct (an item or a dimension) with another one:

- Within the cultural dimensions

- Between Q1 to Q49

- Between the cultural dimensions.

The detailed correlation analysis can be found in Appendix XXXIII. In addition, the researcher calculated the effect size and statistical power. Scatterplots were also generated in order to have a better idea of the nature of the relationship.

Correlation coefficients of items within the cultural dimensions.

The researcher found large average correlations coefficients within the dimensions in three of the 11 dimensions, medium effects in five, and small effects in three dimensions. The lowest correlation coefficient was found in the dimension Skills development, whereas the dimension Identification had the highest correlation coefficient. According to Field (2009), values of $\pm .1$ represent a small effect (explaining 1% of the total variance), $\pm .3$ a medium effect (accounts for 9% of the total variance), and $\pm .5$ a large effect, accounting for 25% of the variance.

Correlations coefficients between the items.

The researcher analysed the correlations between the questions Q1 to Q49. Correlation coefficients equal or higher than .5, indicating a large effect, were found in 35 cases; 28 of these were between items within the respective dimensions. In seven cases, however, items from the dimension Strategy correlated high with items from the dimensions Communications and Management. One item was found to correlate slightly negative (Q19 with Q39); the correlation was however not statistically significant. The correlation between the items showed that correlation coefficients higher than .5 usually occur within the respective dimension. The high correlation between items from the dimensions Strategy, Communications, and Management is not surprising, as the

questions centred on Post CH Ltd's future, highlighting the importance of Management and Communications related to Strategy.

Correlation coefficients between the cultural dimensions.

The lowest correlation between the 11 cultural dimensions was .35, between the dimensions Cooperation within the team and Communications, whereas the researcher found the highest correlation coefficient of .72 between the dimensions Strategy and Communications. The analysis confirmed that the overall instrument is measuring a range of attitudes within a valid meaningful domain, within the same frame of reference.

Effect sizes and statistical power in correlations.

An effect size is an objective, usually standardised measure of the magnitude of observed effect (Field, 2009, p. 56). It provides an objective measure of the importance of an effect and a way to express the importance of a research finding (Field, 2009, pp. 57-57). A population's effect size is linked to the sample size, the probability level at which an effect is accepted as being statistically significant (the α-level), and the ability of a test to detect an effect of that size, known as statistical power (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007; Field, 2009). Power β, the probability of detecting an effect if it really existed in the population, is increased as sample size gets larger (Edwards, et al., 1997; Pallant, 2010).

The effect sizes are calculated for a given sample. Field (2009, p. 58, based on Cohen, 1992), using the standard α-level of .05 to achieve the recommended statistical power β of .8 (Black, 1999; Pallant, 2010), recommends 783 samples to detect a small effect size ($r = .1$), explaining 1% of the total variance. The power β of .8 means an 80% change of detecting an effect if one generally exists.

As SPSS does not provide effect size statistics, the researcher calculated β with the software G*Power 3.5.1 (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009; Faul, et al., 2007), using the N of 1.685, an α-level of .05, and a small effect size of $r = .1$. The researcher selected a two-tail t correlation test, with a post-hoc type power analysis. This resulted in β of .98, indicating that there is a 98.4% chance of detecting an effect if one genuinely existed.

Conclusion on correlation analysis.

The correlation coefficients confirmed that the instrument measures attitudes within a meaningful domain. In general, questions with low Cronbach α values had small coefficients in the correlation analysis as well, for example in Q39 and Q41. This backed the researcher's decision to delete 10 items in the Cronbach's α calculation, as outlined in section 4.5.3.

4.5.6   Chi-square tests.

The non-parametric Pearson chi-square statistics are used to investigate the relation between two categorical variables (Pallant, 2010). The comparison of responses according to different groups is common practice; responses of two or more variables at a time are conducted with cross-tabulation analyses such as the chi-square tests, although no absolute rules about the interpretation of differences between groups exist (Schiemann, 1991, quoted in Edwards, et al., 1997). Categorical variables describe categories of entities, such as gender or age. Their measurement involves analysing frequencies, the number of things falling into each combination of categories (Field, 2009, p. 687). Chi-square tests are based on the idea of comparing the frequencies observed in certain categories to the frequencies one might expect to get in those categories by chance. The Pearson chi-square statistic tests whether the variables are

independent or not. In order to be meaningful, the chi-square tests have to conform to two assumptions (Field, 2009):

- Each person, item, or entity must be restricted to only one cell of the contingency table; a chi-square test cannot be used on a repeated measures design. This research met this assumption.

- Expected frequencies should be greater than five, as statistical power would otherwise be insufficient. This can be catered for using Fisher's exact test (Field, 2009), designed to overcome the problem of small samples. In larger than two by two contingency tables, no more than 20% of expected counts should be less than five; furthermore, no expected frequencies should be below one.

Although samples from this research were generally large, this assumption was violated twice, in the calculation of the association of the categorical variable Age. Field (2009) suggests collecting more data, which was however not possible. Alternatively, Field (2009) recommends using the Fisher exact test instead of Pearson's χ^2.

To correct the too small significance values in two by two contingency tables, the Yates continuity correction was designed. Pallant (2010) recommends using it, but Field (2009) argues that there is evidence it overcorrects the calculation and is producing too small chi-square values. The researcher therefore refrained from using it.

Calculation of Pearson's chi-square values.

The researcher collected data on the following categorical variables through the statistics data section at the end of the cultural questionnaire:

- Gender

- Age (grouped): up to 19 years, 20 to 29 years, 30 to 39 years, 40 to 49 years, 50 to 59 years, 60 years and over

279

- Business unit: Post CH Ltd's business unit the employee works for; PostMail (PM), Post Offices & Sales (PV), and PostLogistics (PL)

- Line manager (whether the respondent has a line managing function or not)

- Level of employment (grouped): 50% to 89%, 90% or more

- Section, whether the employee works in the operations or administration

- Tenure (how long the employee has been working for Swiss Post, grouped): less than 1 year, 1 to 3 years, over 3 to 9 years, over 9 to 29 years, over 29 years

- Language of the questionnaire: German, French, Italian.

The researcher then analysed the relations among the categorical variables. The detailed chi-square analysis can be found in Appendix XXXIV.

Conclusion on the chi-square analysis.

The demographic variables are partitioning the research data; each categorical variable demonstrates statistically significant differences between levels of these variables. The researcher ascribes some of the high χ^2 values to the construct (e.g., the high association of Age with Tenure or the association between Gender and Level of employment, as Post CH Ltd employs considerably more women in part-time jobs than males). In two cases in the dimension Age, the assumptions for chi-square tests were violated. The researcher found the highest associations in the categorical variables Age and Tenure, followed by Gender. Medium associations were found in Level of employment (part-time or full-time work), Line manager, and Business unit. The dimension Section (operations or administration) had the second lowest associations. For the demographic variable Language, the researcher found no significant differences between the German, French, and Italian questionnaires. Therefore, the researcher further ignored the categorical variables Section and Language as partitioning variables. The remaining six categorical variables were subject to further statistical tests outlined in the next section.

4.6   Main statistical analysis on differences between groups

The researcher conducted the main statistical analysis based on the second research question, what is Post CH Ltd's current corporate culture (see section 1.9). When no specific a priori predictions or hypotheses are made (as it was the case in this research), the interest is in exploring the data for any between-group differences using post-hoc procedures (Field, 2009, p. 372), consisting of pairwise comparisons designed to compare different group combinations. The categorical variables Section and Language are not significantly associated (see section 4.5.6) and are not investigated further.

To test differences between groups, t-tests and ANOVA (Analysis of variance) are often used. A t-test assesses the significance of the difference in means when comparing two subgroups, whereas ANOVA compare means for more than two groups (Edwards, et al., 1997). Based on the findings from the preparatory statistical analysis, data in this research were however not normally distributed. In order to identify potential differences between groups, the researcher therefore decided to calculate their non-parametric equivalents, the Mann Whitney U test, and the Kruskal-Wallis test.

The categorical variables Gender, Line manager, and Level of employment have two subgroups; the researcher recoded Tenure to two subgroups as well. Variables with more than two subgroups require the Kruskal-Wallis test, which was the case for the categorical variables Age and Business unit. In order to facilitate group comparisons, the researcher recoded Age to three subgroups (up 29 years, 30 to 49 years, and 50 years and over). The rationale for recoding categorical variables into smaller sets of groups is to be restrictive in selecting the key groups for comparison, in order to keep the alpha levels at a manageable level (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2010).

The researcher compared the data from the categorical variables:

- On the total construct (corporate culture at Post CH Ltd) as an entire dimension, based on the reduced, final set of 39 questions

281

- On the 11 cultural dimensions

- On each of the 39 questions.

The rank table function in SPSS for the non-parametric tests defined the direction of the difference (which group is higher). Field (2009, p. 550) argues for reporting median values for non-parametric tests, as they are more appropriate. Pallant (2010, p. 210) cautions against drawing hasty conclusions from statistically significant analyses, as even very small differences between groups can become statistically significant in large samples, which does not automatically mean that the difference has any practical or theoretical value. The researcher therefore assessed the importance of the findings by calculating the effect size.

As this research did not involve the statement of a hypothesis, the researcher did not use analytical statistics to its fullest extent. The researcher therefore deemed high-level analytical statistics such as regression analysis to be inappropriate for this research.

4.6.1   Non-parametric Mann Whitney U test.

The Mann Whitney U test is the alternative to the t-test in comparing two subgroups (Pallant, 2010). One independent categorical variable with two subgroups and one continuous variable are required for calculation. This test works on ranking data from lowest to highest (Field, 2009). The results are hereinafter reported according to the categorical variable. The detailed Mann Whitney U test calculations on the cultural dimensions can be found in Appendix XXXV.

Mann Whitney U test with the categorical variable Gender.

On the overall construct (all items).

Significant differences at the .05 confidence level between males ($Md = 206$, $n = 924$) and females ($Md = 202$, $n = 584$), $U = 250398$, $z = -2.36$, $p = .017$, $r = -.06$ were found in the perception of corporate culture.

On the cultural dimensions.

The researcher found statistically significant differences at the .05 confidence level in the five dimensions Identification, Motivation, Customer orientation, Change and innovation, and Communications. Males hereby had higher ranks in the aforementioned cultural dimensions; this can be interpreted that males indicate a higher identification, be more motivated, be more customer-oriented, less reluctant to change, and feel better informed. Effect size, an objective and standardised measure of the magnitude of an observed effect (Field, 2009) was however rather small, ranging from $r = -.07$ to $-.10$. According to Cohen (1988, quoted in Field, 2009, p. 57; Pallant, 2010, p. 230), an r of .10 represents a small effect, explaining 1% of the variance.

On Q1 to Q49.

From the 39 items, 15 showed statistically significant differences at the .05 confidence level. The mean ranks in these 15 items were higher for males, with the exception of Q12 and Q13 (both in the dimension Cooperation with others) and Q28. Whereas males generally show a slightly higher level of agreement, woman perceive the cooperation with other teams and cooperation with other business units as better compared to their male colleagues.

Mann Whitney U test with the categorical variable Line manager.

On the overall construct (all items).

Significant differences at the .05 confidence level between staff ($Md = 201$, $n = 1,124$) and employees with line management functions ($Md = 214$, $n = 385$), $U = 165243$, $z = -6.93$, $p = < .001$, $r = .18$ were found in the perception of corporate culture. Employees with line managing functions are considerably more positive in their perception of Post CH Ltd's culture.

On the cultural dimensions.

The researcher found statistically significant differences at the .05 confidence level in nine of the 11 cultural dimensions. The size of the effects ranged from $r = -.07$ to $r = .19$. Only in the two cultural dimensions Change and innovation and Cooperation with others, the researcher found no statistically significant differences. In nine of the 11 dimensions, employees with line managing functions were more positive than staff. Cooperation with others was the only cultural dimension where staff had higher values compared to line managers, although this difference was not statistically significant.

On Q1 to Q49.

The differences between employees with line managing functions and staff were statistically significant at the .05 confidence level in 33 of the 39 items. Q14 and Q15 from the dimension Cooperation with others (which encompasses four questions) were the only questions where staff responded more positive than employees with line managing functions. These differences were statistically significant ($p = .004$ for Q14, $p = < .001$ for Q15).

Mann Whitney U test with the categorical variable Level of employment.
On the overall construct (all items).

No significant differences between full-time employees with employment levels of 90% or more ($Md = 205$, $n = 1,152$) and part-time employees with employment levels between 50% and 89% ($Md = 203$, $n = 358$), $U = 204942$, $z = -.176$, $p = .856$, $r = -.01$ were found in the perception of corporate culture. The very small effect size indicates that no statistically significant differences exist between full-time and part-time employees.

On the cultural dimensions.

The only statistically significant difference between full-time employees ($Md = 20$, $n = 1,228$) and part-time employees ($Md = 20$, $n = 389$), $U = 210930$, $z = -3.49$, $p = < .001$, $r = -.09$ was found in the dimension Cooperation with others. It can be concluded that part-time employees are more positive concerning cooperation with other teams.

On Q1 to Q49.

The researcher tested the differences between full-time employees and part-time employees on each of the 39 questions. Eight questions had statistically significant differences at the .05 confidence level. The researcher found higher statistical significance with $p > .01$ in Q12, Q14, and Q15, all in the dimension Cooperation with others.

Mann Whitney U test with the categorical variable Tenure.

On the overall construct (all items).

Statistically significant differences at the .05 confidence level between employees with tenure up to nine years ($Md = 201$, $n = 325$) and those with more than nine years of service ($Md = 205$, $n = 1,185$), $U = 174328$, $z = -2.66$, $p = .07$, $r = -.07$ were found in

the perception of corporate culture. This shows that longer serving employees have a more positive perception of corporate culture.

On the cultural dimensions.

The researcher found statistically significant differences at the .05 confidence level in the six cultural dimensions Identification, Motivation, Customer orientation, Results orientation, Change and innovation, and Strategy. Longer serving employees hereby seem to have a higher identification with their employer, seem to be more motivated, more customer-oriented, more results-oriented, and more open to change and innovation; on the other hand, the data indicate that they are less confident in the organisation's strategic direction. The size of the effects ranged from $r = -.05$ to $r = -.10$ and can be considered to be small.

On Q1 to Q49.

The differences between employees with length of service up to nine years and those with longer tenure were statistically significant at the .05 confidence level in 13 of the 39 items. This includes all questions in the dimensions Motivation and Strategy.

For the categorical variables encompassing more than two subgroups, the researcher used the Kruskal-Wallis test.

4.6.2   Non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test.

For the comparison of three or more subgroups, the non-parametric alternative to a one-way between-group ANOVA is the Kruskal-Wallis test. Like the Mann-Whitney U test; scores are converted to ranks and the mean rank for each group is compared (Pallant, 2010, p. 232). Two variables are needed, one independent categorical variable with

three or more subgroups, and one continuous variable. The detailed Kruskal-Wallis test calculations on the cultural dimensions can be found in Appendix XXXVI.

Kruskal-Wallis test with the categorical variable Age.

On the overall construct (all items).

No statistically significant difference at the .05 confidence level between the three aggregated age groups (up to 29 years, 30 to 49 years, and 50 years and over) was observed in the perception of Post CH Ltd's corporate culture, $H(2) = 3.87$, $p = .145$, $r = -.06$.

On the cultural dimensions.

The researcher found statistically significant differences at the .05 confidence level in three of the 11 cultural dimensions: Cooperation with others, Motivation, and Customer orientation. The researcher conducted three Mann Whitney U tests to follow up these findings using a Bonferroni correction, so all effects are reported at a .0167 level of significance.

The result showed that the age group up to 29 years recorded higher scores in the cooperation with others than their middle-aged colleagues. Employees 50 years and over recorded higher scores than the age group of 30 to 49 year olds. The effect size, however, was small, with $r = -.08$ and $r = -.09$ respectively. The researcher found no statistically significant differences between the age group up to 29 years old and employees aged 50 years and over.

The group of 30 to 49 year old employees indicate to be higher motivated than the age group of up to 29 years old. Employees of 50 years and over recorded higher motivation scores than employees up to 29 years old; the effect sizes were $r = -.11$ and $r = -.16$. The

difference between age group 30 to 49 years old and those aged 50 and over was not statistically significant at the .0167 level of significance.

In Customer orientation, the age group 30 to 49 year had higher scores than the age group up to 29 years. Employees of 50 years and over seem to be more customer-oriented than employees aged up to 29 years. The size of the effect however was small, with $r = -.11$ in both cases. The difference between age group 30 to 49 years old and those aged 50 years and over was not statistically significant.

On Q1 to Q49.

The differences between younger, middle-aged, and older employees were statistically significant at the .05 confidence level in 15 of the 39 items (in different cultural dimensions).

Kruskal-Wallis test with the categorical variable Business unit.

On the overall construct (all items).

A statistically significant difference at the .05 confidence level was observed between the three business units PostMail (PM), Post Offices & Sales (PV), and PostLogistics (PL) in the perception of corporate culture, $H(2) = 6.95$, $p = .034$. The researcher conducted three Mann Whitney U tests to follow up this finding using a Bonferroni correction, so all effects are reported at a .0167 level of significance (PM, $n = 788$; PV, $n = 438$; PL, $n = 272$). PM had higher mean ranks than PV, although the size of the effect was small with $r = -.07$. The differences between PM and PL and between PL and PV were not statistically significant.

On the cultural dimensions.

The researcher found statistically significant differences at the .05 confidence level in four of the 11 cultural dimensions: Cooperation with others, Motivation, Customer orientation, and Change and innovation. In the dimension Cooperation with others, PM had higher scores than PV, meaning PM perceived the cooperation with others to be better, although the size of the effect was small with $r = -.08$. The differences between PM with PL and between PL with PV were not significant at the .0167 level of significance.

The researcher found a statistically significant difference between the business units in the perception of the dimension Motivation. PM employees claim a higher motivation than those of PV; the effect size was small with $r = -.20$. PL employees had higher mean ranks than PV, with $r = -.15$. The difference between PM and PL was not statistically significant at the .0167 level of significance.

Another statistically significant difference was observed in the perception of the dimension Customer orientation, where PM employees showed higher values than those from PV, although with a small effect size of $r = -.17$. PL had higher scores than PV, with $r = -.18$. The difference between PM and PL was not statistically significant at the .0167 level of significance.

Finally, the researcher observed a statistically significant difference between the business units in the perception of the dimension Change and innovation. PM staff recorded higher mean ranks than PV, meaning that PM employees are more ready to embrace change compared to those of PV ($r = -.21$). PL had higher scores than PV, with $r = -.26$. The difference between PM and PL was not statistically significant at the .0167 level.

On Q1 to Q49.

The researcher found statistically significant differences at the .05 confidence level between the business units in 15 of the 39 items, among them all items in the dimension Customer orientation.

4.6.3   Parametric tests: T-Test and ANOVA.

Based on Pallant's (2010, p. 206) argumentation that most parametric techniques are reasonably robust in tolerating violation of the assumption of normal distribution (see section 4.5.4), the researcher analysed the data on differences between groups using the parametric t-Test and ANOVA as well, in order to see how the results relate with the findings from the non-parametric tests.

T-Test.

The independent t-test is based on normal distribution. Because it is used to test different groups of people, it assumes the variances in these populations to be roughly equal (homogeneity of variance) and independence of scores, as they come from a different group of people (Field, 2009). The researcher calculated the t-test to see how the result relates with calculations of the Mann Whitney U test.

ANOVA.

To test the findings for more than two groups, calculating multiple t-tests is not suitable, as it would inflate the Type I error rate. This error occurs when a genuine effect in a population is believed to exist, when in fact it does not (Field, 2009, p. 56). With three categories (such as in the categorical variables Age and Business unit), the familywise error would increase to 14.3% (Field, 2009, p. 348). The researcher conducted a one-way between groups ANOVA, which compares the variance (variability in scores)

290

between more than two groups with the variability within each of the groups (believed to be due to chance). Large F-ratios hereby indicate more variability between the groups caused by the independent variable than there is within each group (Pallant, 2010). The researcher conducted post-hoc comparisons when the F-ratio was found to be significant; these post-hoc test are conducted when there are no specific hypotheses (Field, 2009), as it was the case in this research. ANOVA is reasonably robust to violations of the assumption of homogeneity of variance, meaning that samples are obtained from populations of equal variances, resulting in a similar variability of scores, provided the size of the groups is reasonably similar (Pallant, 2010, pp. 206-207). This assumption was however violated in several occasions on the research data, for example in the number of employees holding a line managing function compared to staff (one quarter versus three quarters of the sampling population), in the number of employees in the business units, or within the age groups. Should the homogeneity of variance be violated, Field (2009, p. 380) recommends using Welch's F-ratios. Samples of unequal size are common in the social sciences (Field, 2009, p. 335); Wilcox (2005, quoted in Field, 2009, p. 360) argues that accuracy and power of F are affected in quite unpredictable ways when group sizes are not equal.

The findings from the t-Test and ANOVA are described in the next section.

4.7 Conclusion on the main statistical analysis

This section concludes the main statistical analysis.

4.7.1 Comparison of non-parametric and parametric results.

The findings from both non-parametric and parametric tests produced similar results. In several occasions however, the assumptions on parametric tests were violated, especially the homogeneity of variance, tested through Levene's test for equality (Field,

2009). This confirms and back up the researcher's decision to select non-parametric tests.

4.7.2   Effect sizes.

The effect sizes calculated were small to medium. In the non-parametric tests, they were between $r = -.01$ and $r = -.18$ on the total construct (all items), with values of r up to -.26 in one dimension. Schwartz, Landrum, and Gurung (2011, p. 82) argue that an effect size of .20 or more is something to be taken very seriously in most psychological research. The researcher found the highest effect sizes in both the non-parametric and parametric tests in the dimension Line manager. Table 4.7 shows the effect sizes on the total construct (all dimensions) of the categorical variables.

Table 4.7:   Effect sizes and eta squared of the categorical variables

	Gender	Line manager	Level of employment	Tenure	Age	Business unit
Effect size non-parametric	$r = -.06$	$r = .18$	$r = -.01$	$r = -.07$	$r = -.07$	$r = -.06$
Effect size parametric	$r = -.04$	$r = .25$	$r = .01$	$r = .05$	$\eta^2 = .04$	$\eta^2 = .06$

4.7.3   Conclusion on the differences between the categorical variables.

The main differences in the categorical variables are hereinafter outlined in more detail. Based on the aforementioned non-normal data distribution, the researcher only reported the results from the non-parametric tests.

Gender.

- Gender differences were statistically significant in 5 of the 11 cultural dimensions

- Males were more positive compared to women in six cultural dimensions, scoring higher median values and higher means

- Females perceive the Cooperation with others (outside their teams) to be better than males and achieved higher scores in the dimensions Skills development, Results orientation, Management and Strategy. None of these differences were however statistically significant.

Line manager.

- The researcher found statistically significant differences between employees holding a line management function and staff without managerial responsibilities in nine of the 11 dimensions. No other categorical variable had so many statistically significant differences between groups

- Employees with line managing functions scored significantly higher median values and higher means compared to staff without management responsibilities

- In the two dimensions Cooperation with others and Change and innovation, staff had slightly higher median values and higher means compared to employees with line managing functions. These differences were, however, not statistically significant

- The categorical variable Line manager showed the highest effect sizes of all categorical variables in the survey

- The highest effect size on all statistical calculations in this survey was found in this categorical variable, with $p = < .001$, $r = .30$ with the dimension Communications, based on a t-test, indicating a medium effect (Field, 2009).

Level of employment.

- The differences between part-time employees and full-time employees (employment levels of 80% and more) are rather small and are not statistically significant on the total construct

- Part-time employees perceive cooperation with others to be significantly better compared to their colleagues with full-time contracts.

Tenure.

- The researcher observed a statistically significant difference between employees serving up to nine years and those serving nine years and over. The latter category scored higher median values and higher means and seems to have a more positive attitude towards Post CH Ltd's corporate culture

- Employees serving nine years and over had statistically significantly higher scores in the dimensions Identification, Motivation, Customer orientation, Results orientation, and Change and innovation. However, those with tenure up to nine years had higher median values and mean scores in the dimension Strategy, indicating a higher confidence in the organisation's strategic direction.

Age.

- The differences between the age groups up to 29 years, 30 to 49 years, and 50 years and over are not statistically significant on the total construct

- Statistically significant differences were found in the dimensions Cooperation with others, Motivation, and Customer orientation

- Employees up to 29 years and those with 50 years and over perceive a better Cooperation with others compared to their colleagues between 30 and 49 year old

- The researcher did not find a statistically significant difference between employees up to 29 years old compared to the employees aged 50 years and over

- Motivation seems to increase with age, as employees aged 30 to 49 years and those with 50 years and over had higher scores on Motivation compared to their younger colleagues aged up to 29 years

- The difference between the 30 to 49 year olds and the oldest group of employees is not statistically significant

- In the dimension Customer orientation, employees aged 30 to 49 years and 50 years and over had statistically significantly higher median values and mean scores than their colleagues with 29 years and younger. The difference between the age groups 30 to 49 years and 50 years and over was statistically not significant.

Business unit.

- The researcher found statistically significant differences between the business units PostMail (PM), Post Offices & Sales (PV) and PostLogistics (PL) on the total construct

- Statistically significant differences were found in the dimensions Cooperation with others, Motivation, Customer orientation, and Change and innovation

- Employees of the business unit PM, followed by PL, had higher scores in this categorical variable, perceive the cooperation with others to be better, have higher scores in customer orientation and are less reluctant to change and innovation compared to those of PV. The differences between employees from PM and PL were not statistically significant.

4.8 Comparison with items from the employee survey PEU

The cultural questionnaire also contained eight items from Swiss Post's employee survey PEU. The findings from this cultural questionnaire could therefore be compared with the results from the PEU in order to validate the findings. Q47 in the cultural survey was deleted in the reliability analysis outlined in section 4.5.3; the researcher could therefore make comparisons between the two instruments on Q13, Q14, Q16, Q23, Q28, Q30, and Q35. Although comparisons of cultural dimensions were not possible (as these questions belonged to different cultural dimensions), such could be made on the aforementioned seven questions, as outlined in Table 4.8. The square brackets indicate the number of the question from the employee survey.

Table 4.8: Questions from Swiss Post's employee survey used in the cultural questionnaire

Cultural dimension	Question in the cultural questionnaire
Cooperation with others	Q13: Cooperation within my unit is good [16]
Cooperation with others	Q14: Cooperation with other units of Swiss Post is good [17]
Motivation	Q16: When I go home after work, I feel like I have done something useful [3]
Customer orientation	Q23: Swiss Post has a positive image with customers [50]
Results orientation	Q28: My goals are clearly formulated [30]
Results orientation	Q30: My goals help me to contribute to the success of my unit [31]
Management	Q35: I have confidence in the management of Swiss Post [46]

4.8.1 Difference in the research populations of the two instruments.

The researcher collected data from the employee survey from Empiricon, the company mandating it. It was not possible to filter all the data in a way to achieve identical, comparable populations in both instruments. Therefore, differences between the populations of the employee survey PEU and the cultural survey used in this research exist. Staffs with employment levels of as low as 20% receive the employee survey,

whereas the population in this research was restricted to employment levels of at least 50%. Therefore, the PEU incorporates a higher percentage of data from females, as Post CH Ltd employs considerably more females than males in part-time jobs. Table 4.9 outlines the main differences.

Table 4.9: *Difference in research populations between the cultural questionnaire and Swiss Post's employee survey*

Differences in research population	Cultural questionnaire	Employee survey PEU
Employment level in the research population	50% - 100%	20% - 100%
Employment conditions	Ongoing employment, not under notice	All employment contracts, including those under notice
Point in time of data collection	October to November 2012	May to June 2012

Note: By the researcher

4.8.2   Difference in the scale of the two instruments.

Whereas the scale items for the cultural questionnaire in this research incorporated a neutral mid-point on a seven-point scale, the PEU uses a six-point Likert scale with no mid-point (see Table 4.10); all other scale items were identical.

Table 4.10: *Scales from the cultural questionnaire and from the employee survey*

This research's cultural questionnaire	I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely
Swiss Post's employee survey PEU	I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely	

Note: By the researcher

As the agreement between Swiss Post and Empiricon forbids passing over raw data from the employee survey, Empiricon conducted the statistical analyses, based on the

same SPSS syntaxes used to analyse the data from this research's cultural questionnaire. Furthermore, Empiricon recoded the raw data of the employee survey from the six-point Likert scale to a 100-point scale; the PEU data was only available in this recoded format. Table 4.11 outlines the re-coding systematic used by Empiricon.

Table 4.11: Re-coding systematic in Swiss Post's employee survey

	Scale items					
Scale item from the PEU	I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely
Recoded values for the PEU calculations	0	20	40	60	80	100

Note: By the researcher

In order to convert the data from the cultural questionnaire to the 100-point scale used for the PEU calculations, two options are possible; both however are problematic from a scientific perspective:

- Deletion of the neutral data ("neither agree nor disagree") from the cultural survey, therefore reducing the seven-point scale to a six-point scale and apply the same re-coding principle as for the PEU, as outlined in Table 4.11

- Re-coding according to the formula $(x - 1) * (100/7) = (x-1) * 16.67$, without data deletion.

By the deletion of neutral values, considerable amount of data could be lost; on the other hand, an accumulation of data in the neutral scale would lead to distorted analysis. The alternative approach with re-coding data, but without deletion of the neutral values, may be more feasible if data are normally distributed. Table 4.12 outlines the difference between the two options.

Table 4.12: Re-coding options of the employee survey to a 100-point scale

Original scale in the cultural questionnaire	Deletion of neutral data and recoding (x - 1) * 20	Recoding, no data deletion (x - 1) * 16.67
I do not agree at all	0	0
I largely disagree	20	16.67
I tend to disagree	40	33.34
Neither agree nor disagree	99 (missing)	50
I tend to agree	60	66.68
I largely agree	80	83.35
I agree entirely	100	100

Note: By the researcher

The ensuing assessment of the neutral scale point in the cultural questionnaire showed no accumulation of neutral data, as shown in Table 4.13. In all cases, the percentage of neutral items was lower than the 16.67% that one could expect when converting a six-point scale to a 100-point-scale.

Table 4.13: Percentage of the neutral scale point in the cultural questionnaire

Item in the questionnaire	n of the neutral scale point	Percentage of N
Q13	154	9.1
Q14	278	16.5
Q16	83	4.9
Q23	74	4.4
Q28	53	3.1
Q30	146	8.7
Q35	225	13.4

$N = 1,685$

Note: By the researcher

Consequently, the researcher selected the second option, recoding data using the formula (x - 1) * 16.67 without deletion of neutral data. In order to compare the data from this research's cultural questionnaire with the items from the employee survey PEU, the researcher calculated the descriptive statistics. The detailed item comparison

between the cultural questionnaire and Swiss Post's employee survey is outlined in Appendix XXXVII.

4.8.3   Findings from the calculation of descriptive statistics.

With the exception of Q14, the means and standard deviations between the items from the cultural questionnaire and from the employee survey PEU only had slight differences. The differences in the means, based on the 100-point scale, were between .92 in Q35 and -2.0 for Q30. For standard deviations, the differences were between -.14 in Q28 and 1.52 in Q14. For Q14 on the cooperation with others, however, the researcher found a significant mean difference of 5.61 between the cultural questionnaire (mean: 63.19) and between the PEU (mean: 68.8). In order to validate this finding, the researcher calculated the data according to the first option in Table 4.12 (deletion of neutral data and recoding) as well, using the formula (x - 1) * 20, which produced similar results. The reason of this difference between data from the PEU and the cultural survey on Q14 is unknown, and attempts for explanation would be speculative. One reason could be that the PEU asked for the cooperation with other units within Swiss Post in general, although the researcher excluded business units outside Post CH Ltd (e.g., PostFinance Ltd and PostBus Ltd). Furthermore, given the fact that no code or other means of identification was printed on the cultural questionnaire, it could also be that survey recipients assumed higher anonymity compared to the PEU. This could tempt the survey participants to respond more critically than in the PEU, where the calculations generally scored slightly higher values compared to the cultural questionnaire.

4.8.4   Conclusion of the comparison with the employee survey.

Given that fact that the research populations were, as previously mentioned, not identical (albeit very similar), and the PEU and the cultural questionnaire use slightly different scales, the differences between the instruments can be considered to be small. This comparison generally backs up the findings from the questions used in the two instruments. The large difference in Q14 on the cooperation between the different units could be a starting point for further investigation. Using identical items in both a cultural survey and an employee survey could also serve as a means of crosschecking and enhancing the reliability of an instrument.

4.9   Extent of alignment between intended and current corporate culture

The extent of alignment refers to the third research question, what is the extent of the alignment between the intended and current corporate culture of Post CH Ltd. Intended culture as defined by the qualitative interviews with top management does not compare one-to-one to current culture as perceived by the employees measured with the quantitative survey. The sets of data could however be related, based on the results from:

- The statistical analysis in section 4.7

- The analysis of the responses to the questionnaire's open question in section 4.3

- Top management's assumptions on current culture from the interviews outlined in section 4.1.

This examines whether top management's assumptions were correct, or if divergences in corporate culture between top management and employees exist. The researcher compared the two sets of data by each of the 11 cultural dimensions. For the statistical analysis, the researcher used the means and the standard deviations of the individual

items outlined in Appendix XXIX and of the cultural dimensions outlined in Appendix XXX.

After an explanation of the statistical data, the researcher then summarised the analysis of the questionnaire's optional open question, before giving an outline on the analysis from the interviews with top management and a brief conclusion.

4.9.1   Cultural dimension Motivation.

This dimension consisted of two questions and achieved a mean of 5.95 (on a maximum scale of 7); this is the highest mean of all dimensions in the survey. Q18 "I am motivated to give my best at work" had the highest mean of 6.1 of all the items.

In the questionnaire's open question, 12 respondents made comments on Motivation. These were predominately negative, explained by line manager decisions, different terms of employment, or how superiors deal with criticism.

In the interviews, the three members of executive management independently mentioned a high engagement and performance orientation as a common cultural trait for the employees. Furthermore, "motivation" from Detert, et al.'s (2000) framework was selected by five of the seven members of top management. "Empowerment" from the Denison Organizational Culture Survey (DOCS) was mentioned by three interviewees, emphasising the importance of this dimension for intended culture.

In general, the high value from the questionnaire analysis seems to confirm top management's perception of the high importance and state of mind of Post CH Ltd's employees on Motivation.

4.9.2   Cultural dimension Results orientation.

This dimension consisted of three questions and achieved a mean of 5.82, the second highest value of all the 11 cultural dimensions. All items had high means (for example

Q28 "My goals are clearly formulated" with a mean of 6.0). Based on the rather negative perception of the cooperation with other business units, it is somewhat surprising that Q30 "My goals help me to contribute to the success of my unit" had a slightly lower mean compared to Q31, which referred to the contribution of one's goals to the success of Swiss Post overall.

In addition to the statistical analysis, 28 employees made comments on the "results orientation" or on "profitability". It seems that a shared understanding among employees exists on cost-effectiveness of Post CH Ltd's services, and that financial figures have to be in the black. Disagreement however seems to exist between employees and top management on how much profit Post CH Ltd as a government-owned corporation has to make. An additional nine respondents made comments on what the researcher coded in MAXQDA as "economising", complaining that there is too much pressure on cutting costs. In general, the survey respondents perceive the profit as being too high, at the cost of customer service, and to the detriment of employee job satisfaction.

It comes as little surprise that top management shares a high emphasis on results orientation, especially among the three members of executive management, who all stressed the importance of an entrepreneurial Post CH Ltd, including the profit and loss responsibility of the three business units. Two members of top management also mentioned the difficulty in finding a balance between profit-orientation and being a fair employer.

Overall, the views between employees and top management seem to be consistent insofar that Post CH Ltd has to be profitable. However, top management seems to put a considerably stronger emphasis on making a profit to an extent that employees do not necessarily share. An aspect to be aware of might also be that employee accordance

with Swiss Post's core value "value-enhancing" was the lowest of their three core values.

4.9.3 Cultural dimension Cooperation within the team.

This dimension with four questions scored third, with a mean of 5.65. It seems that there is a high sense of belonging to the team, probably stronger than to any other organisational affiliation, such as to the respective business unit or to Swiss Post overall. This could be an indication of the high importance of well-functioning teams. Furthermore, employees made eight comments on "cooperation within the team"; three people explicitly mentioned the positive mood prevailing in their teams, whereas three comments were negative, and two neutral, emphasising the importance of a good team spirit for motivation.

Top management believes that employees associate their sense of belonging mainly to Swiss Post, based on their responses to question 41 from the interview guide.

One interviewee mentioned "team" to be the primary unit of allegiance. Based on the statistical analysis, top management's perception of primary allegiance to Swiss Post is therefore challenged somewhat, emphasising the role of the team as an important organisational unit.

4.9.4 Cultural dimension Identification.

This dimension consisted of seven questions with a mean of 5.48, the fourth highest value of all dimensions. Its standard deviation of .95 was the smallest of all cultural dimensions. Furthermore, Q7 ("I would be glad to work for this company in future") had the second highest mean of all items, with a value of 6.06. The widespread agreement of employees with Swiss Post's core values was confirmed by high means: "reliable" (with a mean of 5.82), "sustainable" (with a mean of 5.41), and "value-

enhancing" (with a mean of 5.37). This backed up the high relevance of "values" on corporate culture, as outlined in the literature review. This information on value congruence is new to the organisation, as it does not form part of Swiss Post's employee survey.

The analysis of the responses to the questionnaire's open question however showed mixed results; some respondents claimed that the sense of unity was stronger at the time of Swiss Post's predecessor PTT, more than 15 years ago.

In the interview analysis on corporate culture, five of the six members of top management who responded to current culture (the new CEO did not give statements on current culture, as explained in section 3.7.5) mentioned the "high identification of employees with Swiss Post" as a common cultural trait within the organisation. Another aspect mentioned by them was pride in being an employee of Swiss Post.

The statistical analysis of the questionnaire largely confirms top management's perception on the high identification of Swiss Post's employees. This was also corroborated by some exemplary citations from the employees (see Appendix XXVII).

4.9.5   Cultural dimension Management.

This dimension consisted of four questions and achieved a mean of 5.11, ranking it fifth from the 11 dimensions. Q33 on the role model function ("The leaders and managers at all levels of Swiss Post do not practice what they preach") was the sole item in this dimension with a mean of less than 5.

On this dimension, 19 employees made mixed (positive, neutral, but predominately negative) comments. One aspect repeatedly put forward was the feeling that top management knows little of the woes of the staff in the operational units. Furthermore, 24 survey respondents commented on line managers; some comments were neutral, the

majority was however negative. The most commonly mentioned aspect here was a lack of esteem and appreciation towards the employees.

Top management puts strong emphasis on the role of management in corporate culture. All of them mentioned the importance of the leader role, the role model or "walk-the-talk" function, and the credibility of management. Two members of top management mentioned (when asked about shared cultural traits within Post CH Ltd) that the management culture is the same between the three business units. When asked if the management of the business units set a good example (question 57 from the interview guide), two of the three members of executive management responded with "I agree", whereas one interviewee responded that this question has to be answered rather by the employees of the manager's business unit. All three members of executive management agreed on question 60 from the interview guide that management communicates in a credible manner.

The researcher concludes that agreement exists among employees and top management on the importance of the dimension Management. However, employees seem to perceive the role of line managers and top management more critically.

4.9.6   Cultural dimension Customer orientation.

This dimension with four questions achieved a mean of 4.90, the sixth rank of all dimensions.

The researcher coded 44 comments from the questionnaire's open question on "customers". Employee comments are generally rather negative, raising concerns about a decrease of customer service based on factors such as internal competition between business units, insufficient customer orientation, product and service delivery, high prices, services for retail customers (especially pensioners), unmotivated staff, and insufficient IT tools for customers. In addition, 12 employees also made comments on

Swiss Post's image, which the respondents perceive to be in jeopardy, although Q23 ("Swiss Post has a positive image with customers") achieved a relatively high mean of 5.50. Based on these comments, there seems to be a concern about deteriorating customer orientation and image within Post CH Ltd's workforce.

For top management, three of the six interviewees who responded to questions related to current culture of Swiss Post perceived "customer orientation" as a shared trait among Swiss Post employees. Three members of top management also mentioned "serving customers", based on question 15 from the interview guide. Furthermore, four of the seven members of top management selected "customer focus" from the DOCS, and "customer orientation" was chosen by an additional fifth member in the interviews. The researcher concludes that both top management and employees share the high emphasis placed on customer orientation. However, there are also concerns from employees that decreasing customer orientation could tarnish Swiss Post's image.

4.9.7   Cultural dimension Cooperation with others.

This dimension with four questions achieved a mean of 4.90, ranking it seventh of all 11 cultural dimensions. Q14 "Cooperation with other units of Swiss Post is good" achieved a mean of 4.79; Q15 "Cooperation across different parts of Swiss Post is not actively encouraged" had a mean of 4.22.

A total of 39 survey respondents explicitly commented on the "Cooperation between business units" in the questionnaire's open question. Most of these comments were negative; some were neutral, but none positive. Many comments from the employees centred on internal competition between the business units (which they see critically), in contrary to top management, where both the assets and the drawbacks of the business units' profit and loss responsibility were mentioned.

It is somewhat surprising that in the survey, staff without line management functions perceive the cooperation with other business units as significantly better than line managers do (Q14 with $p = .004$). The rather negative perception of survey participants on cooperation with others is in contrast to the perception of top management. When asked about the shared cultural traits within Post CH, two interviewees mentioned the good cooperation among blue-collar workers. Furthermore, two of the three members of executive management responded to question 56 from the interview guideline "Cooperation among business units of Post CH is good", with "I agree", whereas the third member of executive management responded with "tend to agree". It can be said that employees perceive the cooperation with others, especially with other business units, as a liability rather than an asset, contradictory to the views of top management.

4.9.8 Cultural dimension Change and innovation.

This dimension consisted of three questions and achieved a mean of 4.89, ranking it eighth of the dimensions. Employees agree that Swiss Post responds well to competitors and other changes in the work environment (Q38 with a mean of 5.16), whereas internal processes and products and services are, according to employees, more difficult to change (Q36 and Q37, with means of 4.72 and 4.78 respectively).

In the open question, 38 survey respondents commented on processes. They perceive internal processes as not always optimal for customers, sometimes being too complex, and that changes take a rather long time. Some respondents also complained that criticism of existing processes is not always welcome, whereas others made explicit suggestions to top management for internal process improvement. Many comments were made in relation to the daily duties of the postal workers. Furthermore, the employees made 18 predominately negative comments on "change" in general. The respondents claim to perceive too much change, and professed to have difficulties in

understanding and keeping pace with them. They also often referred to the past, where "change" was not such a prevailing theme.

For top management, "change and innovation" is a central aspect; five members of top management made links between change and innovation concerning the split-up of Swiss Post (questions 11 and 12 from the interview guide). Top management also sees a change and innovation-friendly corporate culture as a prerequisite to foster technological advance. A member of the board of directors however also mentioned the need to find equilibrium between change and consistency; this is also reinforced by the selection of the dimension "stability versus change/innovation/personal growth" from Detert, et al.'s (2000) framework, "change and innovation" from the PEU and "creating change" from the DOCS, each selected by three interviewees. Top management seems at least to be aware of the perception of "change" among the employees: a member of the board of directors mentioned a "reluctance to change" as one of Swiss Post's typical cultural traits. When asked about potential problems in gaps between intended and current culture, four members of top management mentioned the "different perception of the necessity of change/change management". As already outlined in section 4.7.3, the dimension Change and innovation achieved higher median and mean values among staff without line management functions compared to management functions. Although statistically not significant, it should be a cause of concern for top management that those responsible for the implementation of change, the line managers, are more critical than their employees are.

4.9.9   Cultural dimension Skills development.

This dimension, consisting of three questions, ranks ninth from the dimensions, with a mean of 4.74. Employees tend to agree that professional development is supported by Swiss Post (Q20 with a mean of 5.22), and that skills are constantly improving (Q21

with a mean of 4.83). There is however only a marginal consent that the skills of Swiss Post employees are developing more strongly than those of staff outside Swiss Post (Q22 with a mean of 4.16, the lowest mean value of all items from the survey). SPSS' frequency checks showed that 50.4% of all respondents selected the neutral response (neither agree nor disagree) on the Likert scale, the highest percentage of responses in the neutral point of all items, indicating uncertainty.

In the questionnaire's open question, 10 employees made mixed comments (positive, neutral, and negative) on personnel development.

Four members of top management selected the dimension "capability development" from the DOCS; one of them also selected "further development" from Swiss Post's employee survey PEU. The rationale given for this selection was that four members of top management perceive skilled and motivated employees as a prerequisite for good results.

Although top management emphasised the importance of skills development, it can be said that employees generally feel that Swiss Post supports professional development, but there is uncertainty whether the advance of the postal worker's skills keeps pace with skills development outside the organisation. This could be relevant for top management in terms of the corporation's innovative capacity.

4.9.10   Cultural dimension Communications.

This dimension consisted of three questions and had a mean of 4.47, ranking it tenth and second to last of all cultural dimensions. All three questions had neutral to slightly positive means, with a mean of 4.77 in the clarity on the strategic direction in Q41 to the feeling of being well informed about the split-up in Q42 with a mean of 4.38, and finally the understanding of the reasons about the split-up of Swiss Post with a mean of 4.27.

Furthermore, 27 respondents made comments on information and communications in the open question. These were mostly negative; employees perceive a lack of information, leading to uncertainty, especially with regard to the split-up of Swiss Post. Several employees also wanted general status information on strategy, objectives, and staff and management changes (even if top management has not yet made important decisions) to be communicated more frequently. Somewhat surprisingly, three respondents claimed to have heard about the split-up of Swiss Post only by the questionnaire for this research, although intranet, personal letters, and internal fact sheets had communicated this earlier.

Top management unanimously agrees on the important role of communications. One member of top management saw the potential for improving communications within the corporation, and two interviewees mentioned the role and importance of communications as a central element for the organisation's intended culture (questions 19 and 20 from the interview guide). Three members of top management selected "information and communications" from the employee survey as an important aspect in Post CH Ltd's intended culture (question 23 from the interview guide). Asked about the problem of potential gaps between intended and current culture, four members of top management highlighted the importance of transmitting information from top to bottom. To conclude, employees and top management both seem to be consistent at least on the importance of the role of communications. However, differences seem to exist on how well this aspect is implemented within the corporation, as employees seem to be discontented with the quantity and content of communication received.

4.9.11   Cultural dimension Strategy.

This dimension consisted of two questions. With a mean of 4.33, it ranked last and only had a slightly positive agreement among the employees. Furthermore, Strategy had the

highest standard deviation (1.53) of all the dimensions. Remarkably, a slightly higher average consent was seen in the question of whether Swiss Post's split-up is the right thing for oneself (Q49 with a mean of 4.40), compared to the question whether the split-up is the right thing for the company (Q48 with a mean of 4.26). It seems that the employees are not yet fully persuaded about the reorganisation and Swiss Post's split-up in June 2013. However, more than two thirds of the respondents selected the middle, neutral value on the Likert scale (more than for any other except Q22), which could be interpreted as uncertainty.

The researcher coded five comments in the questionnaire's open question on Strategy, four of them positive. As already outlined in section 3.7.5, top management perceives strategy to be a key aspect for intended corporate culture.

The researcher concludes that top management's considerable emphasis on strategy is not widely shared among employees. A lot of uncertainty seems to exist, probably coupled with the dimension Communications, which also contained an item (Q41) on the clarity of Swiss Post's strategic direction.

4.9.12   Conclusion of the comparison.

Questions 38 to 40 from the interview guide gathered information on shared cultural traits between top management and employees. Four members of top management believe that differences exist, based on different interests and cultural differences among the various nationalities of staff (two responses each), regional and cantonal differences, and a lack of trust due to salary differences (one response each). One interviewee holds the view that these differences are decreasing due to staff selection and employee turnover. An aspect that the members of top management did however not mention in the interviews is the cultural divergence between line managers and staff without line managing functions. According to the statistical analysis, considerable differences exist

between these two employee categories, where the perception of current culture at Post CH Ltd is significantly more positive among line managers compared to staff. Questions 43 to 49 from the interview guide were centred on corporate culture's degree of alignment between top management and the employees. A different perception of the necessity of change (six interviewees), the role of communications (four interviewees), and the credibility of the role model function (three interviewees) were explicitly mentioned by the members of top management. Furthermore, top management ascribes the importance of cultural alignment between themselves and employees "due to strategy" (two interviewees), "it helps to achieve objectives", a "stronger focus on common objectives of Post CH Ltd", and "to ensure the future of Swiss Post". The statistical analysis however revealed rather low values on the cultural dimensions Change and innovation, Communications, Management, and Strategy.

In the cultural dimensions Identification, Motivation, Customer orientation, both top management and employees seem to be consistent in their perception of corporate culture. The researcher did not reveal the strong emphasis and allegiance of employees to their teams (dimension Cooperation within the team) in the interviews with top management. Differences also seem to exist in the dimensions Results orientation and Management, but also in Skills development, where high uncertainty seems to prevail.

Finally, the researcher concludes that considerable divergences exist in the perception of corporate culture at Post CH Ltd, particularly in the dimensions Cooperation with others, Change and innovation, Communications, and Strategy. The differences not only exist between top management and employees, but among different groups of employees as well, particularly between those with line management functions and those without line managing responsibility.

4.10 Recommendations to mitigate potential divergences

This section refers to the fourth research question, how any potential divergence between intended and current corporate culture can be mitigated. Edwards, et al. (1997) view action-oriented recommendations as one of the most important functions for a survey team or a researcher. In making organisational recommendations, a researcher should prioritise the survey results and stress potential actions by seeking attainable solutions (Edwards, et al., 1997). As a contribution to the operationalisation of the concept of corporate culture, this section outlines possible recommendations to mitigate the identified cultural divergences. The researcher therefore put emphasis on those four dimensions where considerable divergences seem to exist within Post CH Ltd, the dimension Cooperation with others, Change and innovation, Communications, and Strategy, before summarising the academic contributions in the ensuing Chapter 5.

4.10.1 Cooperation with others.

- Awareness could be raised that too strong a focus solely on business unit results may jeopardise staff allegiance to Post CH Ltd as the overarching organisational entity of the three business units

- Line managers, who are more critical than staff in this dimension, have to be convinced of the value-add of improved cooperation between the business units of Post CH Ltd as a whole

- Employee perception on this dimension should be monitored, for example by the potential adaptation of the employee survey

- Measures could be defined on how to foster cooperation between Post CH Ltd's three business units. Measuring this dimension alone may not be sufficient; one option could be a stronger involvement of line managers, with an overarching objective on cooperation included in their annual performance appraisal.

4.10.2 Change and innovation.

- Frequency of information and communications could be increased, trying to convince employees of the necessity of change

- Management could implement some of the employees' recommendations from the questionnaire's open question on product and process innovation

- Management could communicate the potential implementation of such a recommendation explicitly, showing that employee recommendation could lead to change, thereby increasing motivation and participation. Furthermore, it could also serve as a confidence-building measure

- Management could put more emphasis on convincing line managers about the necessity of change, as the analysis showed higher reluctance on this dimension compared to the employees

- Line managers' personal responsibility for change projects could be increased, for example by setting stringent, measurable objectives in their annual performance appraisal

- Top management could foster role modelling, e.g., by communicating where they have been affected by change personally, using story-telling

- To counter Detert, et al.'s (2000) findings that most culture change attempts proceeded with little consideration of the pluralistic characteristic of contemporary organisations, top management could pay more attention to the values and beliefs of ordinary employees, for example by the establishment of sounding boards or by spending a few days in the operations.

4.10.3 Communications.

- Management could increase the frequency of information and communication, especially with regard to the consequences of Swiss Post's upcoming split-up

- Communication at a regular interval, even if there is not much new information, as there is a risk that silence in communication could lead to uncertainty

- Important information could be disseminated using different communication channels, as the analysis of the questionnaire's open question showed that not all employees receive or understand company-relevant information

- Top management could reflect on whether and how employees can exemplify Swiss Post's values, reputation, and the new strategy within their private environment, using Swiss Post's employees as figureheads of company reputation.

4.10.4   Strategy.

- Employees are not yet convinced that Post CH Ltd's strategy is positive for the organisation or for them personally. Based on the statistical analysis, uncertainty seems to be prevalent. Management could attach more importance to the communication of the reason and rationale for Swiss Post's split-up to the employees

- Although agreement on the necessity of a profitable organisation seems to exist between top management and employees, the requirement for a higher than just cost-covering profit could be more comprehensibly communicated.

5 CONTRIBUTION

This research provides contributions in two distinct areas, based on the gaps identified in the literature review in section 2.16.

- Divergences in the perception of corporate culture between management and staff

- Operationalisation of the concept of corporate culture.

Starting with the overall conclusions, the responses to the research questions and the research objectives, this section outlines the two aforementioned contributions from this research, before summarising the conceptual contribution and disclosing potential areas for future research.

5.1 Overall conclusions and response to the research questions

The answers to the four research questions outlined in section 1.9 and the four research objectives in section 1.10 can be summarised as follows:

First: How do the board of directors and executive management define intended corporate culture of Post CH Ltd?

The first research question was answered by conducting semi-structured, qualitative interviews with seven members from top management. The researcher's analysis of the interviews with top management showed 11 relevant dimensions for Post CH Ltd's intended culture, as outlined in section 4.1. These cultural dimensions encompass Identification, Cooperation within the team, Cooperation with others, Motivation, Skills development, Customer orientation, Results orientation, Management, Change and innovation, Communications, and Strategy.

Second: What is Post CH Ltd's current corporate culture?

The answer to the second research question was based on a mainly quantitative survey, encompassing members from all hierarchical levels of Post CH Ltd's three business units PostMail, Post Offices & Sales, and PostLogistics, achieving a response rate of 66.3% (see section 4.2). Descriptive statistics showed high levels of agreement on the dimensions Motivation, Results orientation, Cooperation within the team, Identification, and Management (see section 4.5 and Appendix XXX). Further analyses using non-parametric statistics showed statistically significant differences between groups of employees in the categorical variables Gender, Tenure, and Business unit; the highest differences were, however, found in the categorical variable Line manager, reaching effect sizes up to .3 (see section 4.7.2). Line managers were found to be considerably more positive compared to employees without line management functions. It follows that the assumption of a culture shared across all employees within an organisation, transmitted through behaviours and actions of employees within an organisation (Wilkings and Ouchi, 1983, quoted in Weinzimmer, Franczak, & Michel, 2008), is not necessarily supported.

Third: What is the extent of the alignment between the intended and current corporate culture of Post CH Ltd?

The response to the third research question (see section 4.9) was based on content analysis, relating the analysis from the interviews with top management (see section 4.1) with the analysis of the questionnaire's open question (see section 4.3) and the statistical analysis (mainly means and standard deviations) in section 4.7. The researcher examined whether divergences in corporate culture between top management and employees exist, comparing the aforementioned sets of data by each of the 11 cultural dimensions. Although the employees, by responding to the questionnaire's

318

optional open question, confirmed the 11 aforementioned cultural dimensions, the analysis also showed additional dimensions perceived to be relevant to corporate culture. The following aspects were frequently mentioned by the employees:

- Stress/work load

- Processes

- Esteem for employees (could be subsumed under the dimension Management).

The responses to the open question also showed that the importance ascribed to a specific cultural dimension differs between top management and the employees. Top management, for example, attributes high importance to the dimension Change and innovation; however, this aspect was not frequently brought in by the employees in the optional open question. Figure 5.1 depicts the researcher's estimation of the differences.
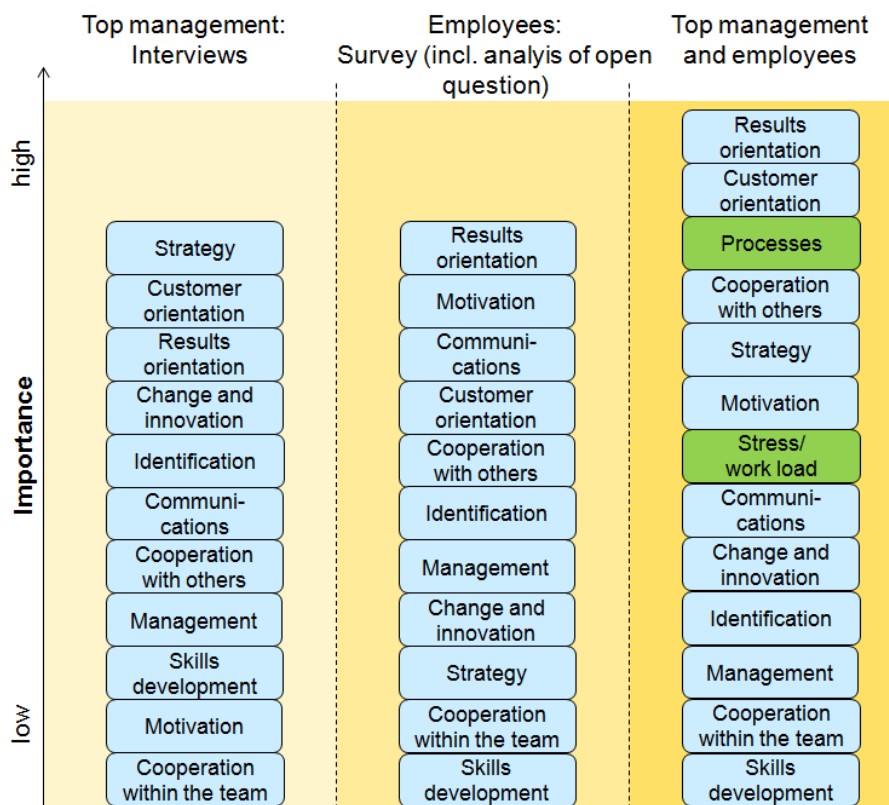
Figure 5.1: Perception of Post CH Ltd's cultural dimensions between top management and employees

Note: By the researcher

Both top management and employees seem to share a high emphasis on certain

dimensions (e.g., results orientation and customer orientation).

It may be difficult to answer if the aforementioned aspects are really cultural

dimensions in a narrower sense. In the eyes of the employees, however, this is the case,

based on the questionnaire's optional question "If you have any comments, views

and/or expectations in relation to corporate culture at Post CH Ltd (business units PM,

PV, PL), please indicate them".

> *Fourth: How can any potential divergence between intended and current*
>
> *corporate culture be mitigated?*

The researcher elaborated the response to the fourth research question based on the first

three objectives (see section 1.10). Pursuing the intention to mitigate the cultural

divergences identified at Post CH Ltd (see section 4.9), the specific, action-oriented

recommendations made in section 4.10 are seen as crucial for a researcher (Edwards, et

al., 1997). The researcher thereby put emphasis on those dimensions where the most

considerable divergences seem to exist within Post CH Ltd; the researcher identified

these to be the cultural dimensions Cooperation with others (see section 4.10.1), Change

and innovation (see section 4.10.2), Communications (see section 4.10.3), and Strategy

(see section 4.10.4).

5.2   Divergent perceptions of corporate culture between management and staff

The findings from this section are based on the first three research questions (see section

1.9) and the ensuing research objectives (see section 1.10). They relate to the gap in the

literature identified in section 2.16.1 on the unitary perception of corporate culture,

which – although it has lost some credibility – still dominates in the literature

(Alvesson, 2011). Wilderom, et al. (2000, p. 196) argued that most empirical studies in

the 1990s had important conceptual and methodological weaknesses, for example by involving intraorganisational respondents that are not representative of an entire organisational culture. To this day, the majority of organisational culture studies still elicit answers from key personnel within organisations. These responses are generalised and then believed to be representative of how values, beliefs, and assumptions are perceived for the whole organisation (Hartnell & Walumba, 2011, p. 235), and data collection at the organisational level still centres on managerial levels. Sackmann (2011, p. 218) argues that sample procedures require more attention, as culture is not only a top level or managerial phenomenon. The use of manager-only samples is also criticised by other researchers, as management seems to be more positive about their companies than people at lower levels (Gordon & DiTomaso, 1992; Leitl, et al., 2011a, 2011b). Denison (1990) also argued that stakeholder interests may be overlapping, compatible, opposed, or mutually exclusive; people fulfilling different roles have different motives and interests (Payne, 2000). Detert, et al. (2000) argue that the importance of subcultures should receive more attention in the future, as research in the past showed that most culture change attempts proceeded with little consideration of the pluralistic character of contemporary organisations, and that top management paid little attention to the values and beliefs of ordinary employees. This research addressed this limitation by incorporating randomly selected employees from all hierarchical levels of a corporation, contributing to a better understanding of divergences of corporate culture between different employee groups of a corporation.

The divergence in the perception of a corporation's culture was demonstrated in two ways, critically challenging the dominant perception of a unitary corporate culture. First, by divergences between staff and employees with line managing functions. The researcher found statistically significant differences between staff and employees with line managing functions in 9 of the 11 cultural dimensions, far more compared to any

other categorical variable in this research (see sections 4.6.1 and 4.7.3); the analyses showed that line managers were considerably more positive about corporate culture than staff. This is exemplified by the comparatively high effect sizes of the differences. This finding is important; instead of striving for strong cultures, firms should rather attempt to reduce the gap between employees' preferred organisational practices and their perception of their organisation's practices (Wilderom, et al., 2000, p. 203). The term organisational culture is however still used to indicate a view of organisations as unitary and unique (Alvesson, 2011, p. 15). The researcher concludes that the categorical variable Line manager is the most important differentiator in the perception of corporate culture at Post CH Ltd, and the line management function can be deemed as a subculture between top management and ordinary staff. This is remarkable, as most line managers of Post CH Ltd work in the decentralised operational units, for example in the letter and parcel sorting centres, in the post offices, or in letter and parcel distribution. These line managers essentially do the same job as their employees, and they can rather be seen as headmen. Typically, line managers in the operations allot 10% to 20% of their labour time for line management tasks.

Second, by divergences between employees and top management. In contrast to divergences between staff and line managers, this finding was not based on statistical analysis, but on the comparison of quantitative and qualitative data. Using content analysis, the researcher compared the quantitative data from the cultural survey to the qualitative data from the semi-structured interviews with top management (see section 4.9). Although the employees confirmed the cultural dimensions based on the interviews with top management as being relevant for intended culture of Post CH Ltd, the researcher identified additional dimensions, based on the analysis of employee responses to the questionnaire's open question. Employees thereby seem to perceive culture as something specific and concrete to their daily jobs. In case of Post CH Ltd,

this involves the dimensions stress/workload, the processes they are involved in, and the way they are treated by their line managers (see section 4.3.2). This is somewhat in contrast to some of the higher-order cultural dimensions emphasised by top management, such as Strategy (see section 4.1.8).

Based on the research findings, it can be concluded that:

- The cultural dimensions in a corporation may not necessarily have the same relevance for all groups of employees

- Some cultural dimensions may be shared by different groups of a corporation (top management and employees), whereas others are relevant for some groups only

- Those perceived by the employees to be relevant to corporate culture seem to be concrete and specific to their daily jobs

- The weight or relevance ascribed to a specific cultural dimension may be different between different groups of employees

- The perception of what corporate culture is (or what it consists of) is not necessarily identical between top management and employees.

The notion of culture having an integrative notion, being commonly perceived, and enacted throughout the organisation, may therefore not always be tenable (Hartnell & Walumba, 2011, p. 242).

The divergences in the perception of culture may also be ascribed to the lack of consensus about definitions of organisational culture, which has implications for the operationalisation of the cultural construct (Rousseau, 1990, quoted in Wilson, 2000).

5.3   Operationalisation of corporate culture

The findings outlined in this section are based on the fourth research question (see section 1.9) and the ensuing research objective (see section 1.10), how any potential

divergence between intended and current corporate culture can be mitigated. These findings relate to the gap in the literature identified in section 2.16.2, the lack of operationalisation of the concept of corporate culture. This research contributes to the operationalisation of the concept of corporate culture by the practical application of a specific, tailored corporate culture survey, and by making recommendations to mitigate cultural divergences (see section 4.10). In making organisational recommendations, a researcher should prioritise the survey results and stress potential actions by seeking attainable solutions (Edwards, et al., 1997).

The difficulty in operationalising the culture construct is one reason why relatively fewer articles have focused on culture and performance (Barney & Wright, 1997; Ernst, 2003; Lee & Yu, 2004; van den Berg & Wilderom, 2004). Wilderom, et al. (2000) identified the lack of operationalisation as being a major problem, arguing that the widely-varied assessment of organisational culture aggravates the accumulation of knowledge on organisational culture. Sackmann (2007) also argues that a lack of clarity about the relevant aspects and dimensions of corporate culture exist. Predefined sets of dimensions from cultural surveys may not answer important questions, such as which dimensions are required for a thorough understanding an organisation's culture (Sackmann, 2007). An unsatisfactory starting point to implementing the concept of corporate culture into practical application may inhibit the potential of corporate culture from being fully tapped. Schein (2011, p. xi) argues that a growing pile of survey instruments will make the concept of corporate culture more usable by practitioners. In order to make progress in the cultural concept, academics need to be more concrete (Schein, 2011, p. xii).

This research addressed these limitations by the development of an idiosyncratic, tailor-made survey on corporate culture. A further rationale for tailored culture surveys is presented by Chatman and Jehn (1994), Christensen and Gordon (1999), Gordon

(1991), Hansen and Wernerfelt (1989), and Sackmann (1992), who argued that companies in different industries developed different cultural traits to suit their business demands. This specificity was achieved by interviewing members of top management, ensuring that the business needs, objectives, and strategy were taken into account. Furthermore, the researcher also integrated the core values – which differ from corporation to corporation – of Post CH Ltd in the design process of the survey (in the dimension Identification). A further important aspect involved the integration of internal stakeholders from all hierarchical levels within a corporation, a practice still rarely seen in contemporary culture research (Hartnell & Walumba, 2011), which is criticised by several researchers (see section 5.2).

Such a concrete tool for cultural measurement not only allows monitoring the development of a corporation's culture over the years, but also provides a cost-effective tool, not least by grouping pre-existing items (e.g., from the literature) together with specific, purposively designed items. Should items from an employee be utilised in the design process of a cultural survey (as it was the case in this research), item comparisons based on results from both the cultural survey and the employee survey are possible. Furthermore, the induction of pre-existing items could also enhance their validity, thus contributing to the claims of Denison (2012, based on Jung, et al., 2009) and Ashkanasy, Broadfood, et al. (2000), who stressed the need for additional methodological research focused on the development and validation of culture surveys. An important aspect in the operationalisation of the concept of corporate culture involves the implementation of potential actions to be taken in order to mitigate cultural divergences in a corporation. Such action-oriented recommendations are seen as one of the most important functions for a survey team or a researcher (Edwards, et al., 1997). Next to its conceptual contribution, this research also gave insight into practical aspects. It provided an overview of both common and divergent views among Post CH Ltd's

325

employees on aspects of corporate culture. As an organisation's values are reflected onto its staff, value incongruence results in dissatisfaction and cognitive dissonance (Cable & Edwards, 2004). Successful companies have cultures in which people deeply internalise the mission, vision, and core values needed to execute the company's strategy (Kaplan & Norton, 2004); a common rationale for cultural management attempts is therefore exerting control in order to accomplish the goals of the organisation (Ogbonna & Harris, 1998). For the successful management of change processes, it is relevant to gain an insight into the perception of particular groups within an organisation (Hofstede, et al., 1993, quoted in Sweeney & Hardaker, 1994). Detert, et al. (2000) also argue that change initiatives will be considerably more difficult to implement if large gaps exist in an organisation. This is especially relevant for companies undergoing reorganisation.

It can be concluded that, although the data are from one corporation only, the methods can be applied to other organisations in a similar way.

5.4   Potential areas for future research

The design and timeline of this thesis did not allow for monitoring possible consequences of the potential implementation of the recommendations outlined in section 4.10. However, the differences in the perception of corporate culture could be further explored. This could be done by integrating items or questions from the questionnaire used in this survey into a revised version of Swiss Post's annual employee survey. Should any of the recommendations from this research be implemented, a further study could represent a conceptual contribution to the question of whether corporate culture can be influenced, or at least manipulated (see section 2.4). This is based the argument that conducting another survey is often the best way to evaluate the success of survey-based organisational changes (Edwards, et al., 1997).

5.5   Summary of key contributions to academic knowledge

The key contributions of this thesis to academic knowledge are based on the gaps in the literature identified in section 2.16.

5.5.1   Divergent perceptions of corporate culture between management and staff.

This contribution refers to the unitary perception of corporate culture that still dominates in the literature (Alvesson, 2011). This lack in the literature was addressed by incorporating employees from all hierarchical levels of Post CH Ltd; the results from this study challenge the findings from previous culture studies in two ways.

Firstly, the research identifies divergences between staff and line managing functions. Statistically significant differences between staff and employees with line managing functions were found in nine of the 11 cultural dimensions, far more than any other categorical variable. Line managers were considerably more positive about corporate culture than staff, although Post CH Ltd's line managers in the operations usually do the same jobs as their employees, with only a small percentage of their labour time allotted for line management tasks.

Secondly, although the employees confirmed the cultural dimensions derived from interviews with top management as being relevant for intended culture, the divergences between employees and top management led to additional dimensions being identified from employee responses to the questionnaire's open question. Employees seem to perceive culture as something specific and concrete to their daily jobs, incorporating dimensions such as stress/workload, the processes they are involved in, and the way they are treated by their line managers. This differentiates the dimensions from the higher-order cultural dimensions emphasised by top management.

The cultural dimensions in a corporation may therefore not necessarily be the same, or indeed have the same relevance for all groups of employees. The view that culture has an integrative role, is commonly perceived, and enacted throughout the organisation, may therefore not always be tenable (Hartnell & Walumba, 2011, p. 242).

5.5.2   Operationalisation of corporate culture.

This study, in part, also addresses the lack of operationalisation of the concept of corporate culture in previous research (Wilderom, et al., 2000). It contributes such an operationalisation by the application of a specific, tailored corporate culture survey, and by making recommendations to mitigate cultural divergences (Edwards, et al., 1997; see section 4.10).

The lack of operationalisation of the culture construct is a major problem, as the widely varied assessment of organisational culture aggravates the accumulation of knowledge (Ashkanasy, Wilderom, et al., 2000). Predefined sets of cultural dimensions may not provide an answer to which dimensions are required for a thorough understanding an organisation's culture (Sackmann, 2007). This unsatisfactory starting point for the implementation of the concept into practical application may inhibit its potential from being fully tapped. In order to make progress in examining corporate cultural in context, academics need to be more concrete (Schein, 2011, p. xii).

This limitation was addressed by the development of a tailor-made corporate culture survey. Specifically, this was achieved by interviewing members of top management, ensuring that organisational objectives and the strategy were taken into account in the design process of the questionnaire (Sackmann, 2007). Furthermore, the researcher also integrated questions on core values in order to identify the fit between personal and company values (Detert, et al., 2000; Weber & Menipaz, 2000). The creation of such a tool for cultural measurement allows for the monitoring of the development of a

corporation's culture and provides a cost-effective instrument by grouping together pre-existing items from the literature and from an employee survey with specific, purposively designed items. An important aspect in the operationalisation of the concept of corporate culture involves the elaboration of specific actions in order to mitigate cultural divergences (Wilderom, et al., 2000), as such action-oriented recommendations are seen as one of the most important functions for a researcher (Edwards, et al., 1997). The approach developed and employed in this research enables such recommendations to be made, and thus moves forward work in this domain.

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Appendices

Appendix I   **Assumptions of research philosophy**

	Positivist	Post-Positivist	Critical theorist	Scientific realist/ critical realist	Constructivist	Interpretivist
Ontology	Real world exists	Real world exists, but cannot truly be perceived	Real world exists, but cannot truly be perceived	Real world is independent of human thought, but meaning or knowledge is always a human construction	Real world is independent of human thought, but meaning or knowledge is always a human construction	Real world can only ever be perceived and its working out (social reality) is a human construction
Epistemology	• Inquirer is separate from the phenomenon under consideration • Objective	• Inquirer strives to be as neutral as possible • Acknowledge-ment of position	• Value inherently bounded by a particular ideology • Aimed at changing social structure • Socially produced "facts" are central	• Inquirer strives to adopt a contemporary scientific perspective • Universalistic in scope, but particular in interpretation	• Realities exist as multiple, mental constructions • Socially and experientially based • Inquirer and the phenomenon under consideration interact to literally "create" the findings	• Realities exist as multiple mental constructions • Inquirer is embedded and influences the construction of the shared reality • Context-dependent construction

(continued)

	Positivist	Post-Positivist	Critical theorist	Scientific realist/ critical realist	Constructivist	Interpretivist
Methodology	• Empirical • Perceptual • Precision, control, and manipulation • Verification • Single method • Etic	• Empirical • Perceptual • Precision, control, and manipulation • Triangulation • Seeks "under-standing" • Falsification and discovery • Etic	• To capture the social reality • Social and activist • Transformative • Single method • Emic	• Empirical • Seeks "understanding" • Multi-methodology	• Case • Ethno-methodology • Multi-methodology • Emic	• "Lived experience" • Ethno-methodology • Multi-methodology • Emic
Methods and reasoning	• Experiment • Observation • Survey • Deductive • Inductive	• Experiment • Observation • Survey • Deductive • Inductive/ abductive	• Observation • Activism • Historical • Dialectic	• Experiment • Observation • Survey • Deductive • Inductive/ abductive • Hermeneutic • Dialectic	• Hermeneutic • Dialectic • Ideographic	• Observation • Hermeneutic • Dialectic
Consequences	• Correspon-dence • Theory of truth • Laws	• Knowledge remains tentative • Strives for balance	• Change • Ideologically based conclusions	• Context and goal dependent science is driven by questions, not by methods • Methods follow the questions	• Empathetic • Specific • Rich • Thick descriptions	• Everything is interpreted • Centrality of the symbolic and cultural • Rich • Empathetic

Note: Reproduced from the University of Gloucestershire (2010)

Appendix II   Sources for systematic literature review

Journal articles	Books	Dissertation databases	Others
Resources provided by the University of Gloucestershire: • EBSCO Business Source Premier • Emerald • Learning Centre Catalogue • eSearch • MetaLib	Libraries: • Central library, Zurich • Swiss Post library, Berne • Network of libraries and information centres (NEBIS) • Karlsruhe virtual catalogue (KVK) Booksellers: http://www.amazon.com	• British Library: http://ethos.bl.uk • US-dissertations: http://www.proquest.com • Swiss National Library: http://www.nb.admin.ch/dienstleistungen/online_katalog/02138/index.html?lang=en • German National Library: http://www.dnb.de/ • Austrian Library of Dissertations: http://www.obvsg.at/services/dissertationsdatenbank	Internet gateway: http://www.repec.org Swiss quality newspapers: http://www.nzz.ch Grey literature/ephemera: The researcher conducted no specific search for such literature

Note: By the researcher

Appendix III   **Criteria for inclusion in the systematic literature review**

Parameters	Final inclusion criteria	Exclusion criteria
Geographic	Literature published in the UK, US, and the German speaking countries Switzerland, Germany, Austria	Any other
Language	Literature in English and German	Any other
Keywords in title or abstract	Corporate culture, organisational culture	Any other
Journals and articles and books (year of publication)	The researcher limited the initial search to literature published after the year 1999, but this did not produce sufficient hits. The search was therefore extended to literature published from year 1980 (inclusive) onwards and older, but seminal books ("classics")	Non-seminal books published before 1980 and non-seminal journals and articles older than 1980
Relevance	The number of citations in Google scholar (2012) served as a rough guide to assess the relevance of an article	Articles older than three years without citations in Google Scholar
Quality of articles in journals	The researcher considered the ranking of the ABS (Association of Business Schools, 2010)	Eigenfactor (2010) did not yield satisfactory results
Focus of the study/investigation	Studies concerned with corporate or organisational culture. Furthermore, studies concerned with national culture as well as corporate and/or organisational culture	Studies focused on ethnography and on national culture
Study methods and data synthesis	Meta-synthesis, realist synthesis and meta-ethnography	Meta-analysis or pure narrative synthesis
Study types	Primary research, reviews	Opinion statements

Note: By the researcher

Appendix IV   Stakeholders in data collection and analysis

Stakeholders of Post CH Ltd	Arguments for the inclusion of internal stakeholder groups	
	Pro	Contra
Top management: • President of the board of directors and board of directors • Executive management	• Their consent was a prerequisite for conducting this research • Top management defines strategy, which impacts the corporation's culture	• Risk of bias and potential conflict of interest in the researcher's position as HR-manager in the same corporation • Due to the small number of top managers, quantitative approaches may be not be suitable
Management board of Post CH Ltd's group units	• Opinion leaders • Probably better support for this research	• Risk of bias and potential conflict of interest • Limited influence on the definition of Post CH Ltd's strategy and culture
Senior Management	• Opinion leaders • Probably better support for this research	• No influence on the definition of Post CH Ltd's strategy and culture
Middle Management	• Opinion leaders • Represent a considerable part of the corporation • Probably better support for this research	
Lower Management	• Represent a considerable part of the corporation • Probably better support for this research	
Staff	• Represent the majority of the corporation	

Note: By the researcher

Factsheet for employees

Employee Survey 2012
Tell us what you think!

Why do we need an employee survey?

The employee survey is the only tool that provides management with full insight into the state of mind of Swiss Post employees. Thanks to the employee survey, it is now possible to establish – from the employees' point of view – whether the workload has increased since last year, for example, or whether team work has improved.

The results also highlight where more can be done to increase employee commitment. This may mean taking measures to encourage team work in one organizational unit, while implementing measures to make workloads more bearable in another.

How will the employee survey be conducted?

The questionnaire will be sent out before mid-May and the survey will again take four weeks (submission deadline: 1 June 2012). The results of the 2012 survey will be presented to Executive Management at its first meeting after the summer holidays in August. The results will then be communicated to the units.

Will my input remain anonymous?

Data security and the anonymity of the information you provide are respected at all times. The consulting and research institute empiricon AG guarantees that no conclusions can be drawn about individuals. Your answers are subject to data protection.

What does the code mean on the title page of the questionnaire?

The code on the title page refers to the allocation of an individual to a specific organizational unit within Swiss Post or one of its subsidiaries. This means that the answers can be sent automatically to the unit in which the individual works. Without this allocation, no distinctions could be made as to whether workloads in different organizational units have been assessed separately. Without this code, the survey results would simply generate a single value with respect to workload.

Individual units or subsidiaries are to give employees the choice of taking part in the questionnaire online or on paper (hybrid form). In this case, an additional code is noted in the accompanying letter as on the questionnaire. Employees wishing to complete the questionnaire online use the letter code on www.empiricon.ch/swisspost.html to be logged on.

Do I have to participate in the employee survey?

Participation in this survey is voluntary. However, your personal input is important, as each completed questionnaire increases the validity of the survey.

Where can I find more information?

If you would like to know exactly what is meant by the term "measurement model", you can find all this information and more on the intranet of Swiss Post under "Human Resources".

Tell us what you think!

We are keen to hear your thoughts on the employee survey: send your feedback to employeesurvey@swisspost.ch

Thank you!

Appendix VI   Swiss Post's employee survey PEU

Principles of the survey: We guarantee your anonymity

This survey and all data collected are subject to the statutory data protection regulations. The consulting and research institute empiricon AG, Berne, an independent external company which evaluates the survey, guarantees that your answers will be treated with complete confidentiality. The questionnaires will not be read either by line managers or other people at Swiss Post.

When evaluating the questionnaires, empiricon AG guarantees that no conclusions can be drawn about individuals. Swiss Post receives only a summary of the evaluations relating to groups of persons. Only groups with at least five members are evaluated.

Participation in this survey is voluntary. Your personal participation is important, since each completed questionnaire increases the validity of the survey.

What does the code on the front page mean?

The code on the cover page indicates your organizational allocation within Swiss Post or a group company. Thus your answers are automatically correctly allocated, for example to your organizational unit.

Complete questionnaire online

Individual units/subsidiaries are to give employees the choice of taking part in the questionnaire online or on paper (hybrid form). In this case, an additional code is noted in the accompanying letter and on the questionnaire. Employees wishing to complete the questionnaire online can use this additional code to log on to www.empiricon.ch/swisspost.html.

How to complete the questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of individual statements on which you can give your opinion. When giving your answer, think about your personal work situation and your experience at the workplace. Please allow sufficient time to complete the questionnaire. To avoid misunderstandings, we explain the following important terms:

– Your **direct line manager** is the person who is directly superior to you in the line.

– **Team** refers to the organizational unit managed by your direct line manager.

– **Customers** refers to both external and internal customers.

– The **work environment** encompasses all organizational units of Swiss Post with whose employees you regularly have contact as part of your work.

– **Unit** refers to the following business units: Swiss Post Solutions (SPS), Swiss Post International (SPI), PostBus (PA), PostFinance (PF), PostLogistics (PL), PostMail (PM), Post Offices & Sales (PV).

Use the predefined scale from "I do not agree at all" to "I agree entirely" for your answers.

I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely	I am unable to judge
☐	☐	☐	☐	☒	☐	☐

Enter a cross in the box under the opinion that is closest to your own. Only select the answer "I am unable to judge" if you cannot form an opinion on this statement.

Please use a **ball-point pen** to fill in the questionnaire. To correct a wrong answer, please block out in pen the whole of the box you have marked by mistake (■).

Please return this questionnaire in the enclosed prepaid envelope to empiricon AG, Employee Survey, P.O. Box, 3176 Neuenegg, Switzerland by **1 June 2012**.

Many thanks for your valuable cooperation!

Work content

		I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely	I am unable to judge

Preliminary remark: The various terms (e.g. unit, work environment) are described on the adjacent page.

		I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely	I am unable to judge
1.	My work is varied.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	My work is important for the success of my unit (SPS, SPI, PA, PF, PL, PM, PV).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	When I go home after work I feel like I have achieved something useful.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Involvement and personal responsibility

		I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely	I am unable to judge
4.	In decisions that are important for my work, I can contribute my point of view.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	I have sufficient freedom in making decisions to be able to perform my tasks in a goal-oriented manner.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	I am responsible for the success of my work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	Responsibilities are clearly defined in my work environment.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Working conditions

		I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely	I am unable to judge
8.	I can perform my tasks well with the resources available (e.g. office equipment, vehicles, operating resources, IT, rooms).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	A lot is done in my work environment to avoid job-related illnesses/accidents.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Work processes

		I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely	I am unable to judge
10.	In my work environment there are no duplications/idle time.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	In my work environment, processes are adapted if and when necessary.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Interaction in the team

		I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely	I am unable to judge
12.	In my team, we solve conflicts in a good way.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13.	In my team, we support each other in our work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14.	In my team, we give each other feedback on our work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Cooperation	I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely	I am unable to judge
15. Cooperation between my team and other teams is good.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. Cooperation within my unit (SPS, SPI, PA, PF, PL, PM, PV) is good.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. Cooperation with other units of Swiss Post (SPS, SPI, PA, PF, PL, PM, PV) is good.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Work load	I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely	I am unable to judge
18. In my team, the work load is distributed fairly.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. There are enough colleagues in my team to handle the incoming tasks.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. I find it easy to unwind after work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. My work allows me to pursue both professional and private interests/tasks (e.g. family).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. The working hours regulations correspond to my needs.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Direct line manager My direct line manager …	I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely	I am unable to judge
23. … gives me constructive feedback on my work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. … acknowledges good performance through praise/appreciation.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. … promotes my professional development.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26. … has the necessary specialist skills.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27. … supports me in my daily work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Management	I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely	I am unable to judge
28. The management of my unit (SPS, SPI, PA, PF, PL, PM, PV) sets a good example for its employees.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
29. I have confidence in the management of my unit (SPS, SPI, PA, PF, PL, PM, PV).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Goal orientation	I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely	I am unable to judge
30. My goals are clearly formulated.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
31. My goals help me to contribute to the success of my unit (SPS, SPI, PA, PF, PL, PM, PV).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Further development	I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely	I am unable to judge
32. I want to develop professionally, even if this means I have to put in additional effort.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
33. My employer offers attractive options for my professional development.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Information and communications	I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely	I am unable to judge
34. The information that is important for my work is available in good time.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
35. I receive the information that is important for my work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
36. The information that is important for my work is easy to understand.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
37. The information I receive in connection with my work focuses on the essentials.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
38. The management of my unit (SPS, SPI, PA, PF, PL, PM, PV) communicates in a credible manner.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Employment conditions	I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely	I am unable to judge
39. I receive a salary that is appropriate to my duties.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
40. My salary adequately reflects my personal performance.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Change and innovation	I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely	I am unable to judge
41. In my work environment, we learn from mistakes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
42. In my work environment, good ideas are implemented in good time.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
43. I can adapt well to changes in my work environment.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Strategy	I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely	I am unable to judge
44. Swiss Post has changed for the better in the past two years.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
45. My unit (SPS, SPI, PA, PF, PL, PM, PV) is developing in the right direction.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
46. I have confidence in the management of Swiss Post.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

+ +

Customer orientation	I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely	I am unable to judge
47. My work environment is organized in a way that allows me to provide a good service to my customers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
48. In my team, customer needs are regarded as very important.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
49. Our products/services meet the needs of our customers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
50. Swiss Post has a positive image with customers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Attractiveness / identification	I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely	I am unable to judge
51. I am proud to work for Swiss Post.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
52. I fully identify with my unit (SPS, SPI, PA, PF, PL, PM, PV) and its products/services.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
53. I am prepared to perform at an above-average level for my unit (SPS, SPI, PA, PF, PL, PM, PV).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
54. I am fully committed to my work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
55. If I have the choice, I will still be working for Swiss Post in two years' time.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
56. If I had to decide today, I would choose to work for Swiss Post again.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Satisfaction with work situation	I am very dis-satisfied	I am largely dis-satisfied	I tend to be dis-satisfied	I tend to be satisfied	I am largely satisfied	I am very satisfied	I am unable to judge
57. When you think of everything that is important to you in your work, how satisfied are you overall with your current work situation?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Expectations placed on work situation	not fulfil-led at all	largely not fulfilled	tends not to be fulfilled	tends to be fulfilled	largely fulfilled	completely fulfilled	I am unable to judge
58. To what extent does Swiss Post fulfil the requirements/expectations you place on an ideal employer?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Note: The researcher excluded pages 7 to 9 of the employee survey, as they contain an additional, non-recurring survey on bullying, sexual harassment, and the journey to and from work. This part of the employee survey is not relevant to this research.

Statistics

We use the following personal details to identify **differences** in the answers between various groups of employees. This allows us to examine, for example, whether there are differences in the assessment of **working conditions** between individual age groups or between full and part-time employees.

Your answers are subject to data protection regulations. empiricon AG guarantees that **it will not be possible to draw conclusions about individuals** from the responses.

a) Gender

female	☐
male	☐

b) Age

up to 19 years	☐
20 to 29 years	☐
30 to 39 years	☐
40 to 49 years	☐
50 to 59 years	☐
60 years and older	☐

c) What is your level of education?
(Please enter your highest certificate/qualification)

no education/on-the-job training	☐
Apprenticeship	☐
University entrance qualification, School for Administration, High School	☐
Bachelor's degree	☐
Master's degree	☐

d) Level of employment

90 % or more	☐
50 % until 89 %	☐
below 50 %	☐

e) How long have you worked for the company?

less than 1 year	☐
1 to 3 years	☐
4 to 9 years	☐
10 to 29 years	☐
30 years and more	☐

f) Are you a line-manager?

yes	☐
no	☐

g) Work area

(Please only check the management unit with which you are **most** involved.)

Logistics and Production	Logistics and production management, acceptance, transport, sorting, fulfilment, customs clearance, warehouse logistics, document processing, mailroom services	☐
Finance	Finance management, accounting, controlling, taxes, insurance	☐
Business Development	Business development management, strategy, mergers, acquisitions, alliances, new business development	☐
Information Technology	IT management, development, operations	☐
Sales	Sales management, sales and sales support	☐
Infrastructure	Infrastructure management, facility manager, cleaning, maintenance	☐
Human Resources	Human resources management, personal development, training, HR consulting, HR administration	☐
Marketing	Marketing management, communication, customer service, product management, market management	☐
Organization, Project and Process Management	Organization, project and process management, project management, process management, quality management	☐
Senior Management	Executive Management, CEO of subsidiaries and country managers	☐

Questionnaire: German ☐   French ☐   Italian ☐   Spanish ☐

                  English ☒   Dutch ☐   Vietnamese ☐   Slovak ☐

Please return this questionnaire in the enclosed prepaid envelope to empiricon AG, Employee Survey, P.O. Box, 3176 Neuenegg, Switzerland by **1 June 2012.**

Many thanks for your valuable cooperation!

+   +

Appendix VII   Dimensions of Swiss Post's employee survey PEU

	Dimension	Area fitness	Work situation	Number of questions	Question number
1	Work content		x	3	1, 2, 3
2	Involvement and personal responsibility		x	4	4, 5, 6, 7
3	Working conditions		x	2	8, 9
4	Work processes		x	2	10, 11
5	Interaction in the team		x	3	12, 13, 14
6	Cooperation	x		3	15, 16, 17
7	Work load		x	5	18, 19, 20, 21, 22
8	Direct line manager		x	5	23, 24, 25, 26, 27
9	Management	x		2	28, 29
10	Goal orientation		x	2	30, 31
11	Further development	x		2	32, 33
12	Information and communications	x		5	34, 35, 36, 37, 38
13	Employment conditions		x	2	39, 40
14	Change and innovation	x		3	41, 42, 43
15	Strategy	x		3	44, 45, 46
n/a	Customer orientation			3	47, 48, 49
n/a	Image			1	50
n/a	Attractiveness/identification			6	51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56
n/a	Satisfaction with work situation			1	57
n/a	Expectations placed on work situation			1	58
	Total			58	

Note: By the researcher

Study	Dimensions of corporate culture	No. of items	Scaling	Sampling	Criticism
Gordon and DiTomaso (1992)	• Clarity of strategy/shared goals • Systematic decision-making • Integration/communication • Innovation/risk taking • Accountability • Action orientation • Fairness of rewards • Development and promotion from within	61	7-stage rating scale	Interviews with 850 managers in 11 insurance companies	Measurement of corporate culture exclusively based on responses of members of higher management levels
Denison and Mishra (1995)	**External orientation** — **Adaptability:** • Customer comments and recommendations often lead to changes in this organisation • This organisation is very responsive and changes easily / **Mission:** • This company has a long-term purpose and direction • There is a shared vision of what this organisation will be like in the future **Internal integration** — **Involvement** (of employees): • Most people in this company have input into the decision that affect them • Cooperation and collaboration across functional roles is actively encouraged / **Consistency:** • There is a high level of agreement about the way that we do things in this company • Our approach to doing business is very consistent and predictable **Change and flexibility** **Stability and direction**	8	n/a	Opinion survey with 764 top-managers	Measurement of corporate culture exclusively based on responses of members of top management. Furthermore, only eight items were used as basis for measurement

(continued)

Study	Dimensions of corporate culture	No. of items	Scaling	Sampling	Criticism
Hofstede (1998)	• Communication climate • Attitudes about work content • Values about work context • Gender issues • Attitudes about direct boss • Attitudes about work pressure • Values about work content	110 (later 73)	5-stage rating scale	2,590 employees of a Danish insurance company	
Poech (2003)	• Corporate culture • Service culture • Team culture • Learning culture • Innovation culture • Leadership culture	60	5-stage rating scale	1,670 employees in 11 companies	Selection process of the items partially intransparent
Unterreitmeier (2004)	• Decision processes and leadership style • Results and career orientation • Employee orientation • Fairness of the compensation system • Problem solving behaviour • Work climate • Orientation toward competition • Customer orientation • Environment of the corporation • Artefacts	111 (later 52)	7-stage rating scale	2,376 employees in 49 Bavarian companies	This author questions whether corporate culture can be measured adequately with the measurement method used

Note: Based on Baetge (2006)

Appendix IX   Dimensions and culture types

Author	Types	Dimensions		
Handy (1978)	4 types	Power culture Role culture Task culture Person culture		
Deal and Kennedy (1982)	2 dimensions	Decision risk Environmental feedback	4 types	• Tough guy/ macho • Bet your company • Process • Work hard/play hard
Peters and Waterman (1982)	8 values	Action orientation Customer relation Autonomy and entrepreneurial spirit Productivity of employees Orientation to core competencies Simple structure, low administration Personal freedom and social control Social responsibility		
Kilman and Saxton (1983)	2 dimensions	Technical: • Task oriented • Employee oriented • Humanistic Time: • Short-term • Long-term	4 culture gaps	• Task support • Task innovation • Social relationship • Personal freedom
Wallach (1983)	3 dimension	Bureaucratic Innovative Supportive		
Pümpin (1984), Kobi and Wüthrich (1986)	8 orientations	Customer orientation Employee orientation Performance orientation Innovation orientation Cost orientation Communication orientation Company orientation Technology orientation		
Hofstede (1984)	4 dimensions	Power distance Individualism versus Collectivism Masculinity versus Femininity Uncertainty avoidance		

(continued)

Author	Types	Dimensions	
Schein (1985)	5 basic assumptions	Nature of human nature Nature of human relationships Nature of human activity Nature of reality and truth Nature of time and space	
Sackmann (1985/1991)	4 types of cultural knowledge	Directory knowledge Dictionary knowledge Recipe knowledge Axiomatic knowledge	• Task accomplishment • Interpersonal relations • Adaptation and change • Organisational learning The organisation's purpose, strategy, design, its members, and processes (directory knowledge)
Hofstede, et al. (1990)	6 practices	Process versus outcome orientation Employee versus task orientation Local versus professional orientation Open versus closed system Loose versus tight control Normative versus pragmatic	

Note: Based on Sackmann (2007)

Appendix X   Strengths/weaknesses of quantitative and qualitative research

	Quantitative	**Qualitative**
Strengths	• Useful for obtaining data that allow quantitative predictions to be made • Data collection is relatively quick • Provides precise, quantitative, numerical data • Data analysis is less time consuming (using statistical software such as SPSS) • The research results are relatively independent from the researcher • May have higher credibility with many people in power • Useful for studying large numbers of people	• It is useful for studying a limited number of cases in depth • It is useful for describing complex phenomena • Provides an understanding and description of people's personal experience of phenomena (i.e., the "emic" or insider's viewpoint) • Can describe, in rich detail, phenomena as they are situated and embedded in local contexts • Qualitative approaches are responsive to local situations, conditions, and stakeholders needs
Weaknesses	• The researcher may miss out on phenomena occurring because of the focus on theory or hypothesis testing rather than generation (so-called "confirmation bias") • The theories and categories used by the researcher may not reflect local constituencies' understandings • Knowledge produced may be too abstract and general for direct application to specific local situations	• It may have lower credibility with some people • It generally takes more time to collect the data compared to quantitative research • Data analysis is often time consuming • The results are more easily influenced by the researcher's personal biases and idiosyncrasies • Knowledge produced may not generalise to other people or other settings

Note: Based on Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004)

Appendix XI   **Barriers to integrating mixed methods**

Barrier		Explanation
Intrinsic aspects of quantitative and qualitative research	Structure of research projects	Based on the research questions or nature of a research, mixed methods may be set up in a way that makes it difficult to integrate them
	Bridging ontological divides	It may be difficult to marry an objectivist account with a constructivist one
	Role of timelines	Timelines may be out of kilter for the quantitative and qualitative components, which may entail one survey component being faster to conduct and analyse than the other
Issues in the wider institutional context	Different audiences	Different perceptions regarding expectations of audiences may cause mixed methods researchers to emphasise either the qualitative or the quantitative set
	Publication issues	Publication issues may inhibit integration due to: • The tendency for some journals to have methodological preferences • Length restrictions, making it more difficult to publish integrated approaches
Skills and preferences of the researcher	Methodological preferences	Some researchers may have a predilection for either the quantitative or the qualitative set of findings because they feel more familiar with either methodology. Such inclination may inhibit the researcher from combining the methods
	Skill specialism	Research teams may consist of predominately quantitative or qualitative researchers, which may militate against the degree to which findings are integrated
	Nature of the data	A researcher may have the impression that one set of data is more interesting than the other, which may cause it to be given priority over the other set
Not categorised by Bryman (2007)	Problem of exemplars	There is relative absence of well-known, exemplary, integrated studies. Bryman (2007) argues that there is still uncertainty concerning what it means to integrate mixed methods findings
Added by the researcher, no categorisation	Time needed (barrier proposed by the researcher)	Mixing methods require mastering qualitative and quantitative methods alike. It may be a demanding and time consuming task for a novice researcher to become proficient in both qualitative and quantitative methodology

Note: Based on Bryman (2007)

Appendix XII   Types of interviews

Type of interview	Objective	Description	Methodology	Associated ontology	Advantages compared to questionnaires	Disadvantages	Aspects to consider
Survey interview	To gain a quantitative result	Short answers to a standard-dised set of questions. The interviewer ticks boxes; no deep thought is required	Quantitative	Positivist	• Offers some flexibility • Allows identifying non-verbal clues • Adds an additional degree of confidence to replies compared to questionnaires	• New insights limited • Non-verbal clues may offer reasons for misinformation • Most interview surveys require more than one interviewer	Standards by which it is judged are those that apply to quantitative questionnaires
Qualitative interview	To develop an under-standing of the respon-dent's world	Guidance by using a predefined set of questions, which the researcher can complement with individual, open questions	Qualitative	Post-positivist to const-ructivist	• Gain further insight • To understand how individuals construct the reality of their situation	• Requires a skilled researcher • At times, the researcher has to assist individuals to explore their own beliefs • More difficult to analyse and to decipher patterns • Risk of interviewers imposing their own references to the interviewees	Necessary to understand the constructs that the interviewees use as a basis for their opinions and beliefs about a particular matter or situation. At its extreme, it is a non-directive-interview where the interviewee talks freely without intervention

Note: Based on Babbie (2007) and Easterby-Smith, et al. (2002)

Appendix XIII   Standard criticisms of qualitative interviews

Criticism	Refers to	Counter-argument
Not scientific; it only reflects common sense	General research conceptions	There is no single, authoritative definition of "science" or "research". Seale (1999, p. 471) argues that "particular people do concrete things in the world and call them research"
Not quantitative, but only qualitative	General research conceptions	In the research practice of the natural and the social sciences, qualitative analysis has a major position
Not objective, but subjective	General research conceptions	Objectivity and subjectivity of interview research need to be elaborated for each of the multiple meanings of objectivity and subjectivity
No testing of scientific hypothesis, but only exploratory	General research conceptions	An interview may also take the form of a process of continual hypothesis testing
Not a scientific method, as it is too person-dependent	General research conceptions	The interviewer is regarded as the primary research instrument for obtaining knowledge, which puts strong demands on the researcher's skills
Not trustworthy, but biased	Interviewing and analysis stages	Unacknowledged bias may invalidate the results of an enquiry; a recognised bias or subjective perspective may however come to highlight specific aspects of the phenomenon being investigated
Unreliable, since it rests on leading questions	Interviewing and analysis stages	Leading effects of leading questions are well documented; a qualitative interview is however also well suited to applying leading questions to check reliability of the interviewees' answers
Interpretation of interviews is not intersubjective, but subjective, since different readers find different meanings	Interviewing and analysis stages	With clarification of the perspectives adopted towards an interview text, multiple interpretations do not need to be a weakness, but rather a strong aspect of interview research
Not a valid method, as it relies on subjective impressions	Validation and generalisation	Interviewing is a personal craft, with quality largely depending on the craftsmanship of the researcher. Validation comes from the researcher's ability to check, question and interpret findings
Not generalisable, as there are too few subjects	Validation and generalisation	The number of subjects depends on the purpose of a study. In post-modern conceptions of social sciences, global generalisation was replaced by knowledge transferability from one situation to another, taking into account the context

Note: Based on Kvale (2007)

Appendix XIV   Interviewed members of top management

The following data for the members of the board of directors and for the members of executive management were retrieved from Swiss Post's website (Swiss Post, 2012b, 2012c). The researcher disguised the identity of the interviewee in the interview transcript in Appendix XVII and Appendix XVIII to cater for anonymity.

Name	Group	Function	Member since
Dr Peter Hasler	Board of directors	Chairperson	2010
Susanne Ruoff	Board of directors	Chief Executive Officer	2012
Dominique Freymond	Board of directors	Vice-Chairperson of the board of directors; Head of the Organisation, Nomination, and Remuneration Committee	2002
Michel Gobet	Board of directors	Employee representative	2010
Dr Dieter Bambauer	Executive management	Head of PostLogistics	2009
Ulrich Hurni	Executive management	Head of PostMail	2009
Patrick Salamin	Executive management	Head of Post Offices & Sales	2007

Note: By the researcher

Appendix XV   Interview guide, English version

Interview guide on corporate culture (English version)

Konrad Rietmann
Student s0913923, University of Gloucestershire

28 March, 2012

Blue = Research questions
Violet = Key questions

Research questions
1. How do the board of directors and executive management define intended culture of Post CH Ltd?
2. What is Swiss Post's current culture?
3. What is the extent of the alignment between intended and current corporate culture of Post CH Ltd?
4. How can any potential divergence between intended and current corporate culture be mitigated?

The warming up-phase consists of:
- Presentation of the interviewer
- Introduction to the research project: objectives, methods, timeline
- Short presentation of the interviewee, giving them the opportunity to talk about themself
- Information that the interview is recorded for further transcription and analysis
- Transcription and analysis of the interviews will be kept securely.

Introduction
"Thank you for your willingness to participate in this research. I have developed an interest in investigating potential divergences in corporate culture, and your contribution presents an important step in this research. There are no wrong or right answers in this interview. Do you have any questions before we start?"

Introducing questions

1. In the literature, the terms predominately used are organisational culture and corporate culture. Where do you believe lies the difference between the two terms?

2. How do you define the term corporate culture?

3. What do you know about corporate- or organisational culture?

4. Have you ever been involved in organisational culture projects outside Swiss Post?

5. If YES, could you please tell me more about it?

6. If question 4 was YES: How has this experience influenced your perception of corporate culture?

7. If question 4 was NO, what have you heard or read about corporate culture?

8. If question 4 was NO: How has your knowledge of corporate culture influenced your perception of culture?

9. Have you tried to link these aspects with Swiss Post in general?

10. If question 9 was YES: What was the motivation to do so?

11. If question 9 was YES: Have you tried to link these aspects with future Post CH Ltd?

12. If question 11 was YES: Why? What was the motivation to do so?

13. Do you think corporate culture is adaptable, meaning subject to be influenced with the intention to it?

14. Why?

15. Corporate culture is influenced by a multitude of basic conditions, factors, or aspects. What do you think influences corporate culture in general?

16. Which aspects do you consider as particularly relevant for corporate culture in general?

Intended culture

17. How would you describe intended culture of Post CH Ltd in your own words?

18. What made you to name the aspects mentioned to be relevant for corporate culture of Post CH Ltd?

19. Please indicate the basic conditions, factors, or aspects you consider as relevant for intended culture of future Post CH Ltd.

20. Please select – based on your answer from the preceding questions – the maximum five aspects you consider most relevant for intended culture of future Post CH Ltd.

21. Are there aspects you explicitly consider as not relevant for intended culture for Post CH Ltd?

22. If question 21 was YES: Why have you selected these?

23. The following outline is a compilation from cultural dimensions from the Denison Organisational Culture Survey – a commercial instrument used in Swiss Post's top management leadership training in 2010 and 2011 – and a condensed framework of cultural dimensions identified in the literature from Detert, et al. (2000).

24. Why have you chosen these dimensions?

25. Swiss Post's Employee Survey (PEU) incorporates a set of 58 questions grouped into 16 dimensions. Which of these dimensions do you consider as relevant for intended culture of Post CH Ltd? Please select the five most relevant dimensions for you.

26. Why have you selected these?

27. Why have you not selected others?

28. How would you describe Post CH Ltd's (business units PM/PV/PL/SPS) current culture?

29. Why? What makes you to name the aspects mentioned regarding the perception of current culture of Post CH Ltd (business units PM/PV/PL/SPS)?

30. What are the cues or indicators you use to decipher current culture of Post CH Ltd (business units PM/PV/PL/SPS)?

31. Do you believe there are cultural differences among the business units of future Post CH Ltd?

32. If question 31 was YES: Could you please name these differences?

33. If question 31 was NO: Could you please explain why you believe in a uniform or heterogeneous corporate culture of Post CH Ltd?

34. Do you see traits or aspects of corporate culture that are shared among all units of future Post CH Ltd?

35. Please name maximum five aspects you consider particularly typical for current culture of future Post CH Ltd (business units PM/PV/PL/SPS).

36. Are there aspects you explicitly consider as not typical for current culture?

37. Why? Could you please explain?

38. Do you believe that employees and top management of future Post CH Ltd share the same traits of corporate culture?

39. If question 38 was YES: Could you please name these?

40. If question 38 was NO: Why?

41. In terms of the sense of belonging of employees of future Post CH Ltd: do you think emphasis of staff allegiance or sense of belonging is currently on:
    a) Swiss Post in general
    b) Post CH Ltd (business units PM, PV, PL, and SPS)
    c) The respective unit (business unit PM, PV, PL, or SPS)
    d) The respective team or group they belong to
    e) Any other (if so, please name them)
    Please select one of the above

42. Why have you selected a), b), c), d) or e)?

Degree of alignment of corporate culture

43. Gaps between intended culture defined by top management and current corporate culture as perceived by staff may be problematic. Where would you see potential problems?

44. Why? Could you please explain?

45. In general, do you consider a corporate culture that is aligned with the intended culture to be important for the achievement of a corporation's objectives?

46. Why? Could you please explain?

47. To what extent is, according to your opinion, intended culture (as defined by top management) of future Post CH Ltd aligned with the current culture of Post CH Ltd (business units PM/PV/PL/SPS)?

48. Why? Could you please explain?

49. Should, according your opinion, gaps between intended- and current corporate culture be accepted or do you believe actions are necessary to mitigate these?

Potential divergences of corporate culture

50. How, according to your estimation, can potential divergences between intended- and current corporate culture alleviated or mitigated in general?

51. Which of the aforementioned measures would you implement at Post CH Ltd?

52. Why do you consider these as important?

53. Are there measures which you would explicitly <u>not</u> implement at Post CH Ltd?

54. Why? Could you please explain?

Employee survey PEU → Questions for executive management only

In the next phase of the interview, I ask you a few questions with relevance to corporate culture derived from Swiss Post's PEU. Please respond to these questions from your own point of view according to the scale from the PEU: I do not agree at all / I largely disagree / I tend to disagree / I tend to agree / I agree / I agree entirely

Cooperation:
55. Cooperation within my unit (PM, PV, PL, SPS) is good

56. Cooperation among units of Swiss Post (PM, PV, PL, SPS) is good

Management:
57. The management of Post CH Ltd's business units (PM, PV, PL, SPS) sets a good example for its employees

Goal orientation:

58. The goals of Swiss Post are clearly formulated

59. My goals help me to contribute to the success of the business units (PM, PV, PL, SPS)

Information and communications:

60. The management of Post CH Ltd's business units (PM, PV, PL, SPS) communicates in a credible manner

Strategy:

61. Swiss Post has changed for the better in the past two years

62. Post CH Ltd's business units (PM, PV, PL, SPS) are developing in the right direction

Additional question (not contained in the employee survey) for all interviewees
To conclude this interview, I have a question that is not contained in the employee survey, but uses the same Likert-scale as Swiss Post's employee survey (I do not agree at all / I largely disagree / I tend to disagree / I tend to agree / I agree / I agree entirely)

63. Overall: How would you answer the statement "Post CH Ltd is shaping up well and is prepared for the future"?

Final question
Now let me ask you a last question

64. Is there anything you would like to say before we end this interview?

Many thanks for this interview.

Appendix XVI   Interview guide, German version

Interview guide on corporate culture (German version)

Konrad Rietmann
Student s0913923, University of Gloucestershire

28. März 2012

Blau = Research questions
Violett = Key questions

Research questions
1. How do the board of directors and executive management define intended culture of Post CH Ltd?
2. What is Swiss Post's current culture?
3. What is the extent of the alignment between intended and current corporate culture of Post CH Ltd?
4. How can any potential divergence between intended and current corporate culture be mitigated?

Die warming up-Phase vor dem eigentlichen Interview umfasst:
- Präsentation des Interviewers
- Einführung in die Studie: Ziele, Methoden, Zeitablauf
- Kurze Präsentation des Interviewpartners
- Information, dass das Interview zur Transkribierung und Analyse aufgezeichnet wird
- Sämtliche Datenaufzeichnungen und Analysen werden vertraulich behandelt und unter Verschluss gehalten.

Einführung
"Danke für Ihre Bereitschaft zur Teilnahme an dieser Studie. Diese befasst sich mit der Frage nach potenziellen Unterschieden in der Unternehmenskultur. Ihre Teilnahme stellt dabei einen wichtigen Beitrag zum Gelingen dieser Studie bei, und ich schätze ihr Engagement sehr. Es gibt im Interview keine falschen oder richtigen Fragen. Haben Sie noch Fragen, bevor wir loslegen?

Einführungsfragen

1. In der Literatur werden oft die Begriffe Organisationskultur und Unternehmenskultur verwendet. Wo liegt Ihrer Meinung nach der Unterschied?

2. Wie definieren Sie den Begriff Unternehmenskultur?

3. Was wissen Sie über Unternehmens- oder Organisationskultur?

4. Waren Sie ausserhalb der Schweizerischen Post je in Organisationskulturprojekten involviert?

5. Falls JA: Können Sie mir bitte mehr darüber erzählen?

6. Falls Frage 4 JA: Wie hat diese Erfahrung Ihre Wahrnehmung über Unternehmenskultur beeinflusst?

7. Falls Frage 4 NEIN: Was haben Sie über Unternehmenskultur gehört oder gelesen?

8. Falls Frage 4 NEIN: Wie hat das Wissen, das Sie von Unternehmenskultur haben, Ihre Wahrnehmung von Kultur beeinflusst?

9. Haben Sie versucht, diese Aspekte mit der Schweizerischen Post in Verbindung zu setzen?

10. Falls JA: Was war die Motivation, dies zu tun?

11. Falls JA: Haben Sie versucht, diese Aspekte mit der künftigen Post CH AG zu verbinden?

12. Falls JA: Was war die Motivation, dies zu tun?

13. Denken Sie, dass Unternehmenskultur adaptierbar ist, sprich beeinflussbar unter dem Gesichtspunkt eines beabsichtigten Kulturwandels?

14. Weshalb?

15. Unternehmenskultur wird durch eine Vielzahl von Rahmenbedingungen, Faktoren oder Aspekten beeinflusst. Was beeinflusst Ihrer Ansicht nach Unternehmenskultur ganz generell?

16. Welche Aspekte erachten Sie als besonders relevant für Unternehmenskultur im Generellen?

Soll-Kultur

17. Wie würden Sie die Soll-Kultur der künftigen Post CH AG in eigenen Worten beschreiben?

18. Was hat Sie dazu bewogen, die soeben erwähnten Aspekte als relevant für die Unternehmenskultur aufzuführen?

19. Bitte nennen Sie diejenigen Rahmenbedingungen, Faktoren oder Aspekte, welche sie als relevant für die Soll-Kultur der künftigen Post CH AG erachten

20. Bitte wählen Sie – basierend auf Ihren vorhergehenden Antworten – die fünf Aspekte, welche für Sie am Wichtigsten für die Soll-Kultur der künftigen Post CH AG sind

21. Gibt es Aspekte, welche Sie explizit als nicht relevant für die Soll-Kultur der Post CH AG erachten?

22. Falls JA: Weshalb haben Sie diese ausgewählt?

23. [Übersicht verteilen] Die folgende Übersicht ist eine Zusammenstellung von sogenannten Kulturdimensionen aus dem Denison Organizational Culture Survey - welches 2010/2011 limitierten Einsatz in der Führungsentwicklung der Top Kader der Schweiz. Post fand - und eines kondensierten Rahmenwerks von Kulturdimensionen, welche Detert, et al. (2000) in der Literatur identifiziert haben.
Bitte wählen Sie fünf Dimensionen aus Denison und drei aus Detert, et al. (2000), welche für Sie wichtig sind

24. Weshalb haben Sie diese Dimensionen ausgewählt?

25. Die Personalumfrage der Schweizerischen Post umfasst ein Set von 58 Fragen, welche sich in 16 Dimensionen gruppieren. Welche Dimensionen erachten Sie als relevant für die Soll-Kultur der Post CH AG? Bitte wählen Sie die fünf aus Ihrer Sicht wichtigsten Dimensionen.

26. Weshalb haben Sie gerade diese ausgewählt?

27. Weshalb haben Sie andere weggelassen?

Ist-Kultur

28. Wie würden Sie die aktuelle Kultur der Post CH AG (Bereiche PM/PV/PL/SPS) beschreiben?

29. Weshalb? Aus welchen Gründen haben Sie diese Aspekte in Bezug auf die aktuelle Unternehmenskultur der Post CH AG (bestehend aus PM/PV/PL/SPS) erwähnt?

30. Aufgrund welcher Hinweise oder Indikatoren erkennen Sie die aktuelle Unternehmenskultur der Post CH AG?

31. Denken Sie, dass es kulturelle Unterschiede zwischen den einzelnen Bereichen der künftigen Post CH AG gibt?

32. Falls JA: Können Sie mir diese Unterschiede bitte nennen?

33. Falls NEIN: Können Sie bitte erläutern, weshalb Sie der Ansicht sind, dass die Unternehmenskultur der Post CH AG einheitlich ist?

34. Sehen Sie Züge/Aspekte der Unternehmenskultur, welche von allen Bereichen der künftigen Post CH AG geteilt werden?

35. Bitte nennen Sie fünf Aspekte, welche Sie als besonders typisch für die aktuelle Kultur der Post CH AG (bestehend aus PM/PV/PL/SPS) erachten

36. Gibt es Aspekte, welche Sie als nicht typisch (untypisch) für die Ist-Kultur erachten?

37. Weshalb? Können Sie dies bitte erläutern?

38. Denken Sie, dass die Mitarbeitenden der Post CH AG dieselben Merkmale der Unternehmenskultur wie das Top Management teilen?

39. Falls JA: Können Sie diese bitte benennen?

40. Falls NEIN: Weshalb?

41. Bezüglich Zusammengehörigkeitsgefühl der Mitarbeitenden der künftigen Post CH AG:
    Denken Sie dass sich dieses hauptsächlich auf die Zugehörigkeit
    a) zur Schweizerischen Post generell
    b) zur Post CH AG (PM/PV/PL und SPS)
    c) zum jeweiligen Bereich (PM oder PV oder PL oder SPS)
    d) zum jeweiligen Team resp. der jeweiligen Gruppe
    e) oder zu etwas anderem (falls ja, nennen Sie dies)
    bezieht?
    Bitte wählen Sie aus den aufgeführten Antwortmöglichkeiten aus

42. Weshalb haben Sie a), b), c), d) oder e) gewählt?

Übereinstimmungsgrad der Kultur

43. Unterschiede zwischen der Soll-Kultur aus Sicht Top Management und der Ist-Kultur aus Sicht der Mitarbeitenden können problematisch sein. Wo sehen Sie allfällige Probleme?

44. Weshalb? Können Sie dies bitte erläutern?

45. Erachten Sie generell eine Unternehmenskultur, welche auf die Soll-Kultur abgestimmt ist, als wichtig zur Erreichung der Unternehmensziele?

46. Weshalb? Können Sie dies bitte erläutern?

47. Wie gross ist Ihrer Meinung nach der Grad an Übereinstimmung zwischen der Soll-Kultur - so wie diese aus Sicht Top Management sein soll - und der Ist-Kultur der künftigen Post CH AG?

48. Weshalb? Können Sie dies bitte erläutern?

49. Sollen solche Unterschiede zwischen Soll- und Ist-Kultur Ihrer Meinung nach akzeptiert werden oder sollen Massnahmen definiert werden?

Potenzielle Divergenz der Unternehmenskultur

50. Wie kann generell - nach Ihrer Einschätzung - die Abweichung zwischen Soll- und Ist-Kultur generell gemildert/abgeschwächt werden?

51. Welche der aufgeführten Massnahmen würden Sie bei der Post CH AG umsetzen?

52. Weshalb erachten Sie diese Massnahmen als wichtig?

53. Gibt es Massnahmen, welche Sie explizit <u>nicht</u> bei der Post CH AG umsetzen würden?

54. Weshalb? Können Sie dies bitte erläutern?

Personalumfrage PEU → Fragen nur für Leiter Konzernbereiche
In einer weiteren Phase dieses Interviews werde ich Ihnen einige Fragen im Zusammenhang mit Unternehmenskultur stellen, welche von der Personalumfrage abgeleitet wurden. Bitte beantworten Sie diese Fragen aus Ihrer Sicht, gemäss der Bewertungsskala aus der Personalumfrage: Stimme gar nicht zu / Stimme grösstenteils nicht zu / Stimme eher nicht zu / Stimme eher zu / Stimme grösstenteils zu / Stimme voll zu

Zusammenarbeit:
55. Innerhalb meines Bereiches (z.B. PM, PV, PL, SPS) funktioniert die Zusammenarbeit gut

56. Die Zusammenarbeit mit anderen Bereichen der Post (z.B. PM, PV, PL, SPS) funktioniert gut

Management:
57. Die Leitung meines Bereichs (z.B. PM, PV, PL, SPS) ist ein Vorbild für die Mitarbeitenden

Zielorientierung:
58. Die Ziele der Schweizerischen Post sind eindeutig formuliert

59. Meine Ziele helfen mir, zum Erfolg der Bereiche (PM, PV, PL, SPS) beizutragen

Information und Kommunikation:
60. Die Leitung der Bereiche (PM, PV, PL, SPS) kommuniziert glaubwürdig

Strategie:
61. In den letzten zwei Jahren hat sich die Post positiv verändert

62. Die Bereiche (PM, PV, PL, SPS) entwickeln sich in die richtige Richtung

Zusatzfrage (nicht in der Personalumfrage enthalten, für alle Interviewpartner)
Nun noch eine Frage, welche nicht in der Personalumfrage enthalten ist, wiederum auf Basis derselben Skala (Stimme gar nicht zu / Stimme grösstenteils nicht zu / Stimme eher nicht zu / Stimme eher zu / Stimme grösstenteils zu / Stimme voll zu)

63. Über alles gesehen: Wie beantworten Sie die Aussage "Die Post CH AG ist gut aufgestellt und für die Zukunft bereit"?

Schlussfrage
Nun noch eine letzte Frage:

64. Gibt es noch etwas was Sie hinzufügen möchten, bevor wir dieses Gespräch beenden?

Besten Dank für dieses Gespräch.

Appendix XVII   Interview transcript (sample, English translation)

The respective interviewee permitted publication of this interview, which was conducted in spring 2012, for the purpose of this research.

Mod: = Interviewer, question according to the interview guide

[→]   = Follow-up questions from the interviewer

Mod.: The terms predominately used in the literature are "organisational culture" and "corporate culture". Where do you believe is the difference between the two?

I do not see a difference between organisational culture and corporate culture. You could say that organisational culture is the culture for all kind of organisations, be it an association, a football club, a small institution or a corporation. They are a specific kind of an organisation, customer-oriented and sometimes profit-oriented. They can be either small or extremely large. A corporation is a specific form of an organisation, which is why I do not make a distinction between organisational culture and corporate culture. The purpose or the goal of the organisation defines whether it is organisational culture or corporate culture. They have different goals. The goal influences culture within this organisation, for sure, if there is a difference between organisational culture and corporate culture at all. However, I do not think there is a difference between the two. It deals with culture in different forms of organisations. An NGO also has a culture. An association is also an organisation, one that has another purpose. A corporation however is a profit-oriented organisation and pursuits other goals, but all these forms have cultural elements.

Mod.: Question 2. How do you define the term "corporate culture"?

This is extremely difficult. It has a lot to do with values, attitude, behaviour, and beliefs. It is extremely difficult to define the term corporate culture. It depends on the values, attitude, behaviour, and beliefs of members or people, workers, who work within that organisation. Of course, corporate culture is per se profit-oriented. This shapes the attitudes, behaviours, and values within that organisation. The purpose of the organisation shapes its culture.

Mod.: Question 3. What do you know about corporate or organisational culture?

I know only a little. The term came up in the 1980s; then there was a big wave until 1987/1988. Afterwards, it disappeared. It came up again in the 2000s with OD, organisational development. I think it has also a bit to do with the lifecycle in the economy. All of a sudden, corporate culture appeared; this was customer-oriented, how can one successfully conduct business with specific attitudes, values, and profit and so on. Later, these themes disappeared; maximising profit was the maxim then. The whole story with internet place, new business models, new economy... this is all gone. It comes back to basics. The goals of a company, what kind of employees do we want? This is how I see the waves; I also feel them in my area of responsibility. People talk more about organisational development, about the culture of our organisation. Seemingly, the theme is coming back. It seems to be an issue again.

Mod.: Question 4. Have you ever been involved in organisational culture projects outside Swiss Post?

No, not yet. I was however involved in different reorganisations, where the theme of culture always popped up. How do we treat our employees, what do we want with this new organisation, what do not we want anymore due to difficulties experienced in the old organisation? Then you have to restructure, to reorganise. Moreover, where do we go after the reorganisation, with the new organisational structure? Then, we are regularly affected by cultural themes, attitudes, goals, and purposes. However, I have never been involved in a culture project per se, where culture was the main focus.

Mod.: [→] In project "Ymago" [a large reorganisation at Swiss Post at the end of the 2000s], culture was also an issue?

Ymago was a reorganisation, which had a lot to do with culture. At the end, we had a cultural issue on the table. Nevertheless, we had never said it was a cultural development project. We said it was a classic reorganisation, but we were also confronted with the topic of corporate culture. We designed new forms, structures. I studied at the University of St. Gallen. It is very simple: structure, strategy, structure, and culture. Moreover, the reorganisation project Ymago was centred on strategy and structure. The cultural issue was secondary; it was an add-on. We then felt it; it had not

been on the radar before; it was exciting. At the end of Ymago, it was a cultural issue. Where are we going? What are we going to do with our employees, what kind of staff do we want, what is the goal and purpose of this organisation? Shall we try to convince people about the strategy, can we implement it with these employees or not?

Mod.: [→] This is an important aspect of my thesis

The strategy [of the project Ymago] was okay, the structure was also okay, but how do we say it to every single man and woman in the field? Do they support it? When they do not, implementation of a new strategy is very difficult. However, Ymago was principally not a cultural theme. It was first and foremost a strategy and structural theme.

Mod.: Question 8. How has your knowledge on organisational culture influenced your perception of culture?

Actually... Why had I been involving myself with the cultural theme in the 1980s? It was not a masterpiece, but it was the theme of my diploma thesis. I made my studies in the area of specialisation "organisation". That was the theme, the issue of the day. My professor said: Write something about culture in the western part of Switzerland, French management and so on; but I have forgotten it afterwards. What have we learned about culture from Ymago? At the end, we had the strategy and we had the structure. We had been working a lot with all employees. First with the management, the middle management: we made ESCOLA [a training initiative], a typical instrument for cultural development. The change in culture was to make a leap from an organisation accepting consignments to a marketing and sales organisation. That was the idea or the strategy. I had employees telling me they had not joined the postal service for selling goods... When they said this to me, I think "Oh dear, what am I going to do with the strategy"? When I say, I am a marketing organisation; my goal is to market the logistics and finance products, and I can sell third party goods as well. How do we make it clear to the employees? It is not an organisation accepting consignments; it is a marketing organisation. One that also accepts consignments, but one that tries to sell additional services and goods to customers as well. We first created ESCOLA; this was one instrument. I used it to anchor the mindset of being a marketing organisation in different functions of middle management. For the managers of the post offices, sales trainings

and non-technical sales, and product expertise was provided. How do I satisfy customer needs and how do I sell? How do I finalise the sales process? But not: I advise. After five years, my employees nowadays tell me that we are a sales organisation, our job is to sell, to generate turnover, to sell accounts for PostFinance. Goal accomplished, I do not need anything more. However, we used instruments to implement this strategy. I think ESCOLA and the sales trainings were cultural development instruments. Afterwards, we offered organisational development seminars to our middle managers, but they had to pay a portion of the costs themselves, it was obviously an investment in the organisation, but also for the people. These are instruments with traits of cultural development. We have not declared it as such. I said I do not make culture; I make business first and foremost. However, you need these elements in order to achieve your goals. Management often underestimates this aspect; this is my perception of culture.

Mod.: Question 11. Have you tried to link these aspects with Post CH Ltd?

It not only has to do with Post CH Ltd. I learn it when I am with my employees. I do events from time to time, where they can ask questions. We discuss, you can say it is a cultural element of my business unit. They [the employees] are encouraged to ask questions. Within five years, we received at least 800 questions. When a theme arises, I feel the woes of the employees. At the beginning of the project "Ymago", it was the new structure, the role, and the tasks [of the employees]. In the last 12 months of that project, this was the direction given. They do not talk about Post CH Ltd; my employees are Post. They do not think about PostBus Ltd, Post CH Ltd, or PostFinance Ltd. When you join PostFinance, you only think to get away from Swiss Post. My staff thinks about Post, about integration. In addition, PostFinance Ltd, Post CH Ltd, and PostBus Ltd are just utterly juridical structures for them; I always call their attention to the reorganisation. To have three public corporations has advantages, but disadvantages as well, of course. However, they say: [first name of the interviewee], does Swiss Post stays together? For them, the question is not Post CH Ltd; it is Swiss Post, plain and simple. Therefore, the question of Post CH Ltd is still just a juridical construct for my employees. The questions will arise when the new CEO reveals what she is going to make of Post CH Ltd. Then are the questions of the strategy and the structure of this public company. Does it stay as a division or not? Does she [the new CEO] want another form of the organisation; is she going to shuffle the cards? In addition, she will be confronted with the culture in this "house". It has always been a rather uniform

culture of Swiss Post, with the exception of PostFinance. Employees of PostFinance are somewhat different at times. My staffs however live a postal culture. They may be asking themselves: is there going to be a new culture of Post CH Ltd versus PostBus Ltd or versus PostFinance Ltd, or does a common postal culture remain? In addition, this is going to be a management challenge. If Ms Ruoff [the new CEO] changes the strategy or the structure, she will have to answer the question: what kind of culture do we need? Does she want to have a specific culture for Post CH Ltd, or one of Swiss Post as a whole? This is her job. I do not have any prejudices about culture, nor do I have reflected about it in detail. The CEO is going to define where she is heading to, and this is going to have an immense influence on culture. She is going to make the same journey as I did. In addition, she will be facing up to the question of culture, no matter if she wants or not. Now, I am saying, "Let's see what the new management wants, what is going to come".

Mod.: Question 13. Do you think corporate culture is adaptable, meaning subject to influences with the intention to chance culture?

Yes, one can shape culture. Management, the strategy, the structure shapes culture, and not vice-versa, I am convinced. This is a management approach. Managers come, they define the strategy, they design new structures, and this shapes culture. A strategy however is written in short time. A structure is also built up quickly; it takes a bit more time, but is set up relatively quickly. The culture, timing, is always underestimated. It takes a lot, a lot more time. I had to learn it myself, not only at Swiss Post, but also in other projects. During the project Ymago, I had been waiting five years, telling the employees they are a marketing organisation. Away from an organisation collecting consignments, away from... In French, people say "c'est un usager". The employees nowadays talk about customers, clients. This is very different, "user" to "customer". This is worlds apart. Therefore, I say that a strategy is written quickly. Organisation needs a bit more time to set up until it functions correctly. However, the work with culture and with implementing strategy, this is a fight. You do not get an award. You have to constantly working with it, but you are not alone. When I discuss with my members of the executive board, we all agree it is unbelievable how consistent we are in our statements. When I talk to someone and he says, Mr Franz Huber said this and that, Däniker... [Name of the interviewee] would tell you the same. Then people recognise, they are consistent, they are aligned. There is credibility. If I say something and Huber

and Däniker and Kessler something different, we had chaos; this is culture as well. People must perceive that there is consistency. "Unité de doctrine". Then you gain credibility. However, people test it out first. Are they all on board, the managers? This is nicely said, but is the CEO really convinced what he is saying? You have to demonstrate that you are credible.

Mod.: [→] The role model function?

Yes. People look at it and say, "How do they think"? At the beginning, people tried to play it off against the members of management. However, we had very consistent statements, in different words, of course, but consistent with the statement, consistent with the implementation, and consistent in the consequences of the new strategy. Taking a role model function is easily said, but it is not a show on stage, the role model function is daily business. It is the problem of management. Role model is easily said, but in order to become exemplarily good, it requires discipline.

Mod.: Question 15. How would you describe intended culture of Post CH Ltd?

I ask for an entrepreneurial culture of Post CH Ltd. We are a company. There are still people who do not believe that Swiss Post is a corporation. I get letters from people, internally and externally, saying: "what kind of service public is this"? When we say we are a public limited company, this is an organisational form for a corporation. The purpose of this organisation is to make a profit. The question then is what is being made out from this money? It is not the profit per se; banks, investment bankers also strive for profit. However, what do they make with it? They just collect and cash it in. There are corporations that reinvest the profit in the company, which is also legitimate. I want to be an entrepreneur; I want this corporation to make a profit. I wish to reinvest the profit on the market, of course. We do something for the employees and for the customers. However, it does not have public service [universal service] character. Public service is one aspect of the purpose; it is a minimal standard or mandate we have to comply with according to the Federal Council. For the rest, it is our job to shape this firm. A firm, a public company, is a corporation; it has to be profitable, otherwise it will not survive. If it only has public service character, such firms are always in deficit, always. I do not know any profitable public service company which is focused exclusively on providing public service. Somehow, it spoils it. What does not have a price tag has no value.

When it has no value, you as an employee do not have a value as well. The self-esteem of our employees, may I say, is better than 10 years ago. At the split-up of PTT into Swisscom and Post, those going to Post were the poor. Bad luck you were one of those... Nowadays, 10 years later, 900 million CHF of profit. We then had a deficit of 900 million CHF. Now they are proud to be employees of the Post. We are a corporation, and we have a value. It is 900 million CHF, what do we make with it? However, it is also a kind of self-esteem; my engagement is valued on the market.

Mod.: [→] Identification in a company that is not profitable?

Loser. You are a loser. This is the problem of public servants. They are all losers, although they are generally well educated. They have a loser-mentality and their engagement is not recognised. Value, employees want to have a value. Companies shall produce value. Employees draw from that value, from that self-esteem. Not only monetary, but a feeling of being valued as a person as well. I am proud, I have done something, and the market has recognised this engagement; this lacks a bit at Swiss Post. I always say, "Be proud of the profit we make". Earnings, profit were abusive words at that time. Nowadays people are proud. We can finance the pension funds, not like the Federal Railways. We can bear the financial burden of a salary increase; not like the others. We can decide on our own about our investments, and we pay back money to the Swiss Federation. What do we want more? This is self-worth. I find this notion extremely important.

Mod.: Question 17. Corporate culture is influenced by various basic conditions, factors, or aspects. What do you think influences corporate culture in general?

The influence is first and foremost the purpose of the company. Sense and purpose attract different kind of people. Some managers want to work in a corporation listed on a stock exchange. Others only want to work in a family business, for different reasons. There are people who want to work in an NGO because they have a different image of humanity. Sense and purpose shapes culture. These organisations all have general conditions. Swiss Post has one with the Postal Act, the service public mandate, but the pharmacy industry for example has others. Legislation, this is extremely difficult. NGOs for example also have general conditions, a purpose, as well as general conditions. The purpose of the organisation shapes culture and shapes strategy. It has a direct influence

on the culture and on the employees that you attract. You attract certain employees. As I joined Swiss Post, I was not a post office worker, nor did I come from a family of postal workers, all my colleagues said, "You are not a post office worker". Attitude, everything: market economy, liberal thinking, everything you want. Not to the Post, a government agency! It started with my father. He said: [first name of the interviewee], we do not work for the government. Now, after 10 years, when I talk about the development of Swiss Post, my unit in particular, they find it impressive what we get out of our employees. I say, "It is not a government agency". They are employees, I have managing directors, I have extremely well educated people who go along with me; I can shape the organisation. Why have I joined Swiss Post? I would never have joined PTT, Swiss Post's forerunner. I went to the Post because it is a corporation, you can shape it, and you are involved in interesting topics. There is market liberalisation, we need your skills, which is why I joined. I could have gone to a bank. We became a corporation because we can shape the future; we are in a tremendous transition, not only within this particular organisation, but also within Switzerland. I have an immense impact. I have social impact. I try to convince my customers, our customers that we have changed. The price is always an issue, and the service is an issue. Not everything can be free. Employees have to work, and my people have to perform. However, it is also a culture for a customer. The perception of the Post is not yet there, but many customers say, it is a corporation. Well, perfect: this is quite exciting.

Mod.: Question 19. Please indicate the basic conditions, factors, or aspects you consider as relevant for intended culture of future Post CH Ltd.

It is extremely difficult. It is often neglected at Swiss Post; every organisation has general conditions, which shape its behaviour. This behaviour is based on a common understanding of our conduct, the purpose. When the organisation does not have a common understanding, then you have different cultures, subcultures, the larger the organisation, the more you have. Even within my business unit. Culture of the Schönburg [Swiss Post's headquarters in Berne] is not exactly the same as one of a post office somewhere. A post office in the city is different from one in the countryside. However, at the same time, everybody tell me we are a marketing and sales organisation. I call it a common understanding among employees. This is part of our culture. We have a common understanding. It is minimal, but it is lived, advocated, and passed on to new employees. There are discrepancies, of course. Someone dealing with

processes only is not in marketing or in product management with contribution margin or statistics on number of items.

Mod.: [→] But a common basis?

This is a requirement. We have a mission, the sales and distribution network and the processes must be designed in a way they conform to this mission. They have to define an assortment of goods that sell easily, which entails low process cost. In addition, the people out there must sell, must like the merchandise, and must be confident that these products sell well; but they have different cultures. This is part of it. The larger the organisation is, the larger the differences. I also perceive different behaviours in the different wings of the Schönburg building. We have role allocation; division X has another culture than division Y. At IT for example, they work differently, linked across the projects, with laptops and so on. If I go to the controllers' office, it is differently, quite calm.

Mod.: Question 21. Are there aspects you explicitly consider as not relevant for intended culture for Post CH Ltd?

If management tries to define intended culture, it takes more time for implementation as they think, and Post CH Ltd is even larger than my business unit. Time is relevant [laughter].

Mod.: Question 23. The following outline is a compilation from so-called cultural dimensions from the Denison Organizational Culture Survey, a commercial instrument used in Swiss Post's top management leadership training in 2010 and 2011, and a condensed framework of cultural dimensions identified in the literature from Detert, et al. (2000). Which five aspects from Denison do you consider as important for Post CH Ltd?

I think you need core values. You need values. The organisation must also agree on strategy.
Mod.: Strategic direction and intent?

Yes, but this is very personal. I believe goals and objectives are extremely important in an organisation. Division is probably too abstract. Then, I would say customer focus. Core values, strategic goals. One that I found extremely important is capability development. An organisation is continuously developing. I see, we have a strategy, it is relatively stable, but we continuously adapt structure. We justify it with strategy, and I say, "Five years ago, this task was done there, at another place". We have developed, the interfaces are new, and this is why I change structure. This is going to have a tremendous influence on the culture of the organisations. It is exhilarating. I am aware of the discussions that such changes usually bring along, but at the same time, the strategy is stable. It is a correction within the organisation, change, but it is going to be a cultural shock for all those directly involved. They do not see that the general conditions have changed the past five years. Capability development, or known as organisational learning, this is the right blend for me. I think an organisation has coordination and integration functions. The agreement is given, and the strategy is coherent. This is what I call core values. Empowerment, there are organisations who empower their staff. There are other organisations such as armies, which do not empower their people. However, an army has a strong culture. Police, fire services, they have extremely high cultures, fine. At Post, there was no empowerment earlier. Today I say, "Do it". Police, there is no empowerment, even less than in the army. Weight is distributed differently in organisations.

Mod.: Cultural dimensions according to Detert, et al. (2000). Which of the three terms are most relevant?

Credibility is very important. You have to work with culture in a credible and coherent manner. It has a bit to do with rationality. You must not forget: it takes time. It always gets forgotten. Motivation; I think people are motivated by results, not by workshops. Stability... I personally think that credibility, time, and focus are the three elements that are relevant for culture.

Mod.: Basis of truth and rationality?

Yes; the nature of time and time origin, orientation, and focus. You have to be focused. Probably I am too much of a manager [laughter].

Mod.: Swiss Post's employee survey, which of the five dimensions are important to you?

Alors, in my position, strategy is extremely important. At my level, if I am not on board... for example, a front office employee cannot tell me that I do not agree with the strategy and development. I have to close my post office, but I understand your approach: sales, customer orientation, but not vis-à-vis external stakeholders. He may not understand the solution of post office agencies. At my level, a coherent strategy is extremely important. Then, I think my superior is very important; I have a boss, too. Then, I want to be responsible. This is extremely important to me. Further, my goals are important too. In addition, I think part of every management function is to develop not only oneself, but also the subordinates: therefore, development. You are not joining Swiss Post because of a decent salary; you would rather go to a bank. All my colleagues outside Swiss Post earn better salaries, but I have more room to manoeuvre, I have a higher impact. That's all.

Mod.: Question 24. Why have you chosen these dimensions?

Why strategy? You have to be consistent with the strategy of an organisation when you join it, not only because you are in a position of higher responsibility. When I was younger, after university, I went to a company as a product manager because I liked it; I just wanted to do it. You are mainly concerned with operational tasks at the beginning of a career. With time, when your career develops, the strategic elements become more and more important. From my point of view, strategy is extremely important. When Ms Ruoff would tell me: "No, we are not a marketing organisation, we are going back to an organisation that accepts consignments, and we want to have an infrastructure that mainly serves public service interests, this is all we are going to do", then it is not exciting anymore. However, it is a strategic decision. I had to respect it, but I would draw the consequences. Hence, I say that strategy is extremely important at my level. Then, I mentioned my superior. Why my director or my boss? Everyone has one. With regard to my expectations to my boss, I want to have a competent boss because I want to learn from her/him. Having a competent superior is very important. First, he or she has to be professionally competent, I expect him or her to develop and shape this organisation. I respect a professionally competent boss. A nice, but technically incompetent boss is not interesting to me. Such a person does not contribute to my

development or to the development of the organisation. Then, I selected responsibility, because I have always been looking for jobs with responsibility. I have always been in management positions since I left school. I was a product manager, was responsible for products, I was seeking responsibility. When you strive for a career in management, you have to take on responsibility. It can either be a technical or managerial responsibility... but I want to be responsible. Then, I mentioned development. I think people need goals, orientation, and objectives. You could call it strategy, a frame, a direction of impact. Goals are precise, and they provide orientation. They may be short-term per quarter or per year. This gives orientation; goals support your work. I give goals to ten thousand people. All my employees have objectives, which is good, because they have orientation. They know what to do. Then, I mentioned development. Every manager has to develop himself first. Five years ago, I also did an education, just for me and self-paid. It is not in the interest of Swiss Post, but it was important to me. Managers have to deliver results; however, they also have to invest in staff development, which is often forgotten. This is why we made ESCOLA.

Mod.: [→] Your business unit does a lot in this area

Because we are a sales and marketing organisation; sales has a lot to do with people. You have to develop your staff, in sales and marketing of course. I take care that my employees have the necessary instruments and skills to successfully implement our strategy. When, five years ago, one told he had not joined Swiss Post to sell goods and services, I only had two options back then: either I fire him or I teach him how to sell. This is a measure of development. I believe people have to be developed.... Actually, the best employees are those who are independent from their organisation. Because they know, they can go and they know what they have, what their value is. When they leave, they took a conscious decision. That is fine for me. Employees are independent in this way, which is good. They enjoy more freedom, and they can shape their lives. Our staffs has to be developed, I see it in this way. However, we also enrol measures that are directly linked to strategy. I would never send someone to learn Chinese or to learn Yoga, but to themes that relate to our strategy; they develop themselves. The best employees of PostFinance are those who worked with us before. They are very sales and customer-oriented. Five years ago, PostFinance told me they are looking for bankers and staff from insurance companies, and now they are seeking for sales personnel from the post offices... I am happy with it, because it is a sign of recognition

for the engagement and performance of our employees. Third, I say, "They all come back once"! [Laughter] They know how to handle it; they can achieve their objectives in my business unit as well.

Mod.: Question 28. How would you describe Post CH Ltd (business units PM, PV, PL) current culture?

It is exciting. When I am out at the front with my people, I think the culture is similar. People are strongly oriented towards performance and customer focus, and they help each other. I have been asking myself, what is the reason? Many employees said to me that there are postal workers with long-time tenure, Swiss Post as a family. This is one reason, but is only one dimension. The other dimension is, they are continuously in contact with their customers, every day. They do not have time to dispute. They are perceived as Swiss Post's ambassadors. Customers do not know what PM, what PV is. A customer does not know it. He turns towards us (e.g., with a problem with the delivery of his consignments or because the letterbox was full), or he wants to open a post bank account. This is the postal service. This is why we have a very similar culture in the customer interface. Our people have a very high customer orientation; they may not be aware of it, but they are very customer-oriented. They do a lot for their customers, and it is good that I do not know everything [laughter]. Here, I would not make a difference between PM and PV... Middle management, they have different goals, of course. Take a responsible for a postal area, or a sales representative, or you take an area-responsible for letter distribution from PM. They may be managed differently and have different objectives from their division, but they know that they too work for Swiss Post. At Swiss Post's headquarters in the Schönburg, in management functions, culture is not as coherent. This may be the price we have to pay for Swiss Post's organisation according to business units. However, this form of organisation has many advantages. More focus, performance-orientation, focus on EBIT, being responsible for one's business.... The disadvantage is that cooperation may be a bit more difficult. Building bridges between the divisions is not always easy; people are a bit more egoistic. However, it is okay for me. If I could not stand this culture and if this culture does not fit to me, I would be leaving. Some say that the divisions are fighting each other; in fact, they fight less than some people think. The negotiations are tough, but they are also transparent and okay and I can go for a beer with everybody in this house, despite the hard negotiations. People in line-positions, business cadres, conduct

these negotiations in a tough way, but at the end, they find a solution. Some departments, such as the personnel or the communications department, experience it sometimes like a fight, a loss. This is not correct. No, this is a cultural development process. When you create another form of organisation, a functional organisation for example, you will always have the disputes between marketing and sales; or the dispute between production and product management, a classic. These remain. Hence, it is more: how do you ensure a good result in the negotiations? I had quit Swiss Post a long time ago if this culture would not fit to me.

Mod.: Question 30. What are the cues or indicators you use to decipher current culture of Post CH Ltd (business units PM, PV, PL)?

I perceive culture in my division, because I know that I am influencing it; I am aware of it. It is not arrogance. I know that I am influencing the organisation, and my successor is going to influence it in another way, which is okay. On an upper level, at Swiss Post as a whole, it is more difficult. In executive management, we decided a long time ago to make the distinction between business and individual customers. We realised we have customers with different requirements. We recently decided to implement full costs accounting between PV and PF... This is a milestone in the cooperation. It is also recognition. PV provides a service that has to be rewarded. The investments made allowed PF to develop its business model, but now it is time to be self-supportive. This is an extremely important development. Could be that some divisions have profited from it, but we have been striving for transparency, we said what we wanted, we addressed the customer needs and so forth... Moreover, the other divisions have developed very well, too. I see the developments at PF. PM as well, although they still have a rest of a mail monopoly. At the end, we have a common denominator, which is Swiss Post. If the divisions would go alone [without the umbrella of Swiss Post], I daresay that PL alone would not survive; they would be taken over. PF, in its current constellation, they would also be taken over. Really, they do not have a credit business; a leg is missing in their business model. PM still has a rest of a monopoly. They could survive a bit longer than the others could. PV would fall into the hands of the government, period. There would not be any Swiss Post anymore. PostBus would not survive without Swiss Post. They would be bought up by a travel organisation. This organisation is only strong together. If you want to stay together, you must be prepared to cooperate. That's the thing. There are cultural differences... but not as serious in a

way that Swiss Post as an entity would be in jeopardy. Overall, Swiss Post group has been quite stable. The juridical structures, the will is to have one Post and the will is stronger than the juridical structure of three different public corporations.

Mod.: Question 34. Do you see traits or aspects of corporate culture that are shared among all units of future Post CH Ltd?

Goals and purpose; this must be shared. The basic conditions not, they are different. However, the goal and purpose of this organisation must be commonly supported.

Mod.: Question 35. Please name five aspects you consider particularly typical for current culture of future Post CH Ltd (business units PM, PV, PL)

Swiss Post is very performance oriented. I perceive it in this way. The employees have a very strong identification with Swiss Post; this is always underestimated. When I see how little for example bankers identify themselves with the bank they work for, this is unbelievable. At Swiss Post, when you join from external, you recognise it. The employees keep on saying they have yellow blood [yellow is Swiss Post's company colour]. Identification and performance is very high... Swiss Post is internally... we perceive ourselves as a corporation, and this is very important. It is a quantum leap compared to the situation when I joined; they [the employees] have not said they work in a corporation. That is okay. The owner is the Swiss Federation, but we are a postal corporation. These are relevant aspects to me, wherever I am going, they are postal workers. No matter where I see a postal worker: people run, they work. They are not addled eggs. They work. Continuously they begin to realise, we are a corporation, customer-oriented. I think we are very customer-oriented, too.

Mod.: Question 36. Are there aspects you explicitly consider as not typical for current culture for Post CH Ltd?

Greed.

Mod.: [→] People are not motivated pecuniary?

No. You are not joining Swiss Post for the money. People join because they feel it has sense and purpose. Earlier, the purpose was to provide service public, and nowadays it is to deliver good service. The economic system realises that state-owned enterprises can develop to efficient corporations and that they deliver a good performance. Post however is not greedy. You are not joining Swiss Post in order to become rich. There is much to add for sure, but this is a very typical aspect.

Mod.: Question 38. Do you believe that employees of future Post CH Ltd share the same traits of corporate culture as top management?

If we drift apart, Post, the culture... it would not be good. You have to bring down these values to the bottom; top management underestimates this. A road show and a power point presentation on the internet will not do the job. It is not sufficient. You have to go to the employees; nobody else can take over this role from top management. When staff realises that top management goes in another direction as they tell they are going, then it is over. Should this be the case, there wouldn't be a good corporate culture anymore; alternatively, different sub-cultures would develop. I hope, initially at my business unit, that we can live up to our billings. Furthermore, I hope that staff believes that top management, where I belong to, is credible in what they say they want.

Mod.: [→] Credibility?

Yes, credibility.

Mod.: Question 41. In terms of the sense of belonging: Do you think that staff allegiance is currently on Swiss Post, Post CH Ltd, the business unit, the team, or the group/team they belong?

In the preparation, I noted Swiss Post. Period. And that's it.

Mod.: Question 43. Gaps between top management's intended culture defined by top management and current corporate culture as perceived by staff may be problematic. Where would you see potential problems?
If culture is not aligned, it is problematic. If an existing structure is not properly aligned, it does not work well. In a restructuring phase, when you build up something new, for

example Post CH Ltd, the question is how do we bring our employees to the level of the new organisation? This is a risky business. It is not dramatic. There is going to be a new culture, one of a public company, we will have to show it to our employees. We have to bring our employees on board.

Mod.: To bring strategy and the themes down to the employees?

Yes, why do we do it? Where are we going? How do we go with you? How do we bring it? Do you join us? If it does not work, then we have a serious issue. However, it takes time. I feel it, this is why I mentioned it before, and the question of the new structure arises. We are splitting up, and PostFinance goes away. Does the board of directors want to have <u>one</u> Post? Does politics want a spin-off? Is it the first step towards a sale of Swiss Post, is the next step going to be privatisation? This is a concern for our employees. We have to bring coherent statements to these questions, so that the employees think that top management is consistent and credible.

Mod.: Question 45. In general, do you consider a corporate culture that is aligned with the intended culture to be important for the achievement of a corporation's objectives?

Yes, it is important. Intended and current cultures have to be aligned. If they are aligned, we have a good culture; you can work for the organisation. Then, suddenly, we have a crack, new goals, new strategy, and then we have to develop something new and strive for a new culture. If this gap is not being filled-up quickly, you have problem. If you do not bring a new strategy, a new organisation into the heads of the employees, you have a serious problem.

Mod.: This was question 46.

Yes, exactly.

Mod.: Question 47: To what extent is, according to your opinion, intended culture of future Post CH Ltd as defined by top management aligned with the current culture of Post CH Ltd (business units PM, PV, PL)?
Now, I think we have a good culture. We are relatively aligned in management and within the different divisions; sometimes we express things a bit differently, but this is

rather phraseology. However, I think we are all aware that we have developed to being a corporation, we have to address customer needs, implement performance, and we have to make a profit. This understanding is fine, nowadays in 2012. Not perfect yet, but it is good, when I compare it to the situation in 2003. My god... In 2003, Swiss Post made 350 or 250 million CHF of profit. The main concern of top management was "What are we going to do with this money"? It is brazen to earn money... Are we going to tell the Swiss people and the Federal Council that we did so well? Now, we earn 900 million CHF and we are proud of it and can communicate it. This is a very different self-awareness, at all levels. As you may notice, I do not have a problem with making a profit, only with spending it! [Laughter]

Mod.: Question 49. Do you believe gaps between intended and current corporate culture shall be accepted or do you believe actions are necessary to mitigate these?

The gap must not be too big between intended and current culture in the long run. Such gaps are created by change, internal as well as external. However, such gaps shall not persist over a too long period of time. Furthermore, the differences must not be too big. You cannot live in two different cultures. If you do not practise what you preach, people are noticing immediately. The gap becomes apparent. Gaps can occur, but they must not be open for a period too long.

Mod.: Question 50. How, according to your estimation, can potential divergences between intended and current corporate culture alleviated or mitigated in general?

There are measures that have to be taken. A drastic one is to ask ourselves the question, are we possibly wrong with our strategy? Or is the structure not suitable? We possibly have the wrong employees or so. It is very situational and individual. However, it is always a question top management has to face up. When you are not vigilant for such potential developments, you may have a problem soon. We designed a fine strategy, and we have a new, nice structure. Well, we say, we have to tackle the new path. However, when people do not follow it, I can pack my bags. Really, pack up. Top management underestimates this. There are too many MBAs, Manager of Business Administration. You do not manage a business, you design, you create, and you shape it. The term MBA is a disaster. It conjures up a mechanistic image, and culture is not mechanistic. Culture is something lively. Managers must take care that they do not perform their job like an

engineer. Engineers and MBAs are dangerous; particularly when they studied engineering science... it is very mechanistic. In contrast, designing organisations is extremely dynamic. There are stops and goes of course; it is a dynamic movement. Otherwise, the organisation would not develop itself.

Mod.: Question 51. Which of the aforementioned measures would you implement at Post CH Ltd?

When it does not work, we really have to analyse it and ask ourselves if we have a good set up. What I would not do, is public relations. PR does not work in such situations. However, we have to be conscious, our employees are not stupid; people understand and realise. They become aware of it. It is brutal, yes or no; it is not a "may be". They either follow or they do not; you must never underestimate it. I never make PR. The employees also want to have nice sentences, texts, nice news. However, never PR. Employees want to know the truth. When we have a gap, they need to know that there is one. It is a matter of concern to us, but we take care of it. This is my approach.

Mod.: Question 55, a few questions from Swiss Post's employee survey: Cooperation within my unit (PM, PV, PL) is good.

Within my unit, I think so; I agree, yes. However, I always say, we are not a family of saints. In general, it works well; otherwise, you would not be able to lead such a large division in terms of size, staff, and dispersion all over the country. My business unit performs. Not perfectly, but it works. To the other units [question 56], I would make a distinction between the employees at the front, with regular customer contact. Here, it works well. When I ask my staff how they work with PM, they are satisfied. The postal workers from PM are within the same postal facilities. Are they cooperative? I predominately receive positive replies. With SPS, we have fewer interfaces, of course; but between PV, PM, PL and PF... Out at the front, it works well. At the Schönburg, it really depends on the people and their willingness to cooperate. However, this cooperation is better that its reputation. Some people complained about it, but I perceive it as getting better; my business unit is an interface for everything; you cannot get around us. Hence, cooperation is a prerequisite. When I do not cooperate with another unit, I am going to fail. I think my business unit has made the necessary developments, has made progress, and other units too. It is far from being perfect, but it is better than

its reputation. I believe we are short of a fairy tale when people say that the units do not work together. I have many tough cases with the other business units, hard fights. However, at the end, I can go for a beer with every manager, no matter at what level of hierarchy. I want people to cooperate. Management of my division [question 57], you will have to answer my employees and a few colleagues [laughter]. Goal orientation, question 58? Yes, very goal-oriented. It is good, at last I perceive in this way. Swiss Post as a whole works with objectives, which is very good.

Mod.: [→] Question 58 and 59 ok?

Yes. Question 60, Management of the units (PM, PV, PL) communicates in a credible manner? Yes, we are credible. Ask my staff, they believe it. This does not necessarily mean that they agree 100%, for sure. However, when I say something, they accept my view. The management board is credible in the sense that we are very coherent in what we say, no contradictoriness, as I said before, when we communicate with our employees. Here I say we are credible. Concerning content, whether they all agree, this is another story. Swiss Post has changed for the better during the past two years [question 61]. First, we stabilised our results. Swiss Post is very stable, coherent, and consistent in our achievements. In addition, developed in a positive way, such a large organisation is very difficult to guide; two years is a very short term. However, within the last five years, there has been a positive development. The last 10 years... It is okay. Results have been coherent, consistent; hence, we can say yes, in the right direction. However, the big difference compared to the situation 5 or 10 years ago is obvious. The units are developing in the right direction [question 62]... Ask my boss [laughter]. We are pursuing the right path. The units know what they have to do, and I believe that the units are developing in the right direction. Pace and speed are however different. I think it is okay.

Mod.: Question 63. Overall, how would you answer the statement "Post CH Ltd is shaping up well and is prepared for the future"?

Yes, I think so. Yes, Swiss Post is well positioned; at the end, we deliver on our promises. In terms of financial figures, customer satisfaction, performance... we are in a good situation, knowing that there is never going to be a perfect organisation. Although I have not yet seen the perfect organisation, I know that good people can work in

different organisational settings. I have ever been in organisations that work, but first and foremost, I prefer to have good people. Good people perform in different organisational settings, but bad people, although working in a top-organisational setting, would never advance, develop, and bring this company forward. We are not perfect, but our setting is correct and is good. I am satisfied with the services and the performance we deliver.

Mod.: Final question. Is there anything you would want to say before we end this interview?

No. I just say I was answering honestly and transparent. I would say it in every board, appearances, or whatsoever. In Interlaken for example [a meeting of top and senior management in early 2012], there was a discussion on cooperation between the units or divisions of Swiss Post. I stood up and said in front of the audience that I do not share the views that were discussed. Strange enough, 95% of the people in the audience agreed with me. However, the question [that was discussed at that conference] was a purely theoretical one. This is a wrong question, one that comes from people who are not in the field, who are not involved in daily customer interaction. People working in this organisational setting do not pose such questions. There can be questions on cooperation, on how to ameliorate it, but not: There is no cooperation between the units. I am getting angry when people are arguing in this way.

Mod.: Thank you for this interview.

Appendix XVIII   Interview transcript (sample, German original)

The respective interviewee permitted publication of this interview transcript, which was coded in MAXQDA. The colour ochre was used for codes related to corporate culture in general.

1   Mod.: Frage 1. Organisationskultur, Unternehmenskultur, wo liegen die Unterschiede?

2   *..No difference* Ich sehe keinen Unterschied zwischen Organisationskultur und Unternehmenskultur. Wenn man will, ist Organisationskultur Kultur für alle Arten von Organisationen. Ob ein Verein, ein Fussballclub, eine kleine Trägerschaft oder Unternehmen. Sie sind eine spezifische Art von Organisation, die sind einerseits kundenorientiert und manchmal gewinnorientiert. Sie können auch klein sein wie extrem gross. *..No difference* Eine Unternehmung ist eine Form einer Organisation, deshalb mache ich keinen Unterschied zwischen Organisationskultur und Unternehmenskultur. Der Zweck oder das Ziel der Organisation führt dazu, das eine ist so betrieben und das andere so. Es verfolgt andere Ziele. Das beeinflusst sicher die Kultur innerhalb dieser Organisation. Wenn es überhaupt ein Unterschied zwischen Organisationskultur und Unternehmenskultur gibt. Aber sonst gibt es grundsätzlich keinen Unterschied. Es hat mit Kultur in verschiedenen Formen von Organisationen zu tun. *..Corporation vs. NGO* Man kann eine NGO haben, sie haben auch eine Kultur. Man kann einen Verein haben, das ist auch eine Organisation und sie verfolgen andere Zwecke. Und ein Unternehmen ist eher gewinnorientiert und verfolgt andere Zwecke. Aber alle diese Formen haben Kulturelemente.

3   Mod.: Frage 2. Ihre Definition von Unternehmenskultur?

4   *..Difficult to* Das ist extrem schwierig. *..Behaviour* Es hat viel mit Werten, Verhalten, Benehmen, Glauben zu tun. *..Difficult to* Es ist extrem schwierig, den Begriff *..CorpCulture comes in* Unternehmenskultur zu definieren. Aber er hängt mit den Werten, *..Values/Moral values* Verhalten, Benehmen, Glauben von diesen Mitgliedern oder den *..Behaviour* Leuten, den Arbeitern, die innerhalb dieser Organisation arbeiten. *..Within the organisation* Natürlich, Unternehmenskultur, wenn wir ein Unternehmen haben, das ist profitorientiert. Das prägt das Benehmen, das Verhalten, die Werte innerhalb dieser Organisation. *..Purpose of organisation* Der Zweck der Organisation prägt die Kultur dieser Organisation.

5   *..Scant knowledge* Mod.: Frage 3, Wissen über Unternehmenskultur und

Organisationskultur?

6 Wenig. Es ist ein Begriff, der in den 80ern hochgekommen ist. Und dann gab es eine Riesenwelle bis 1987/1988. Danach ist er wieder verschwunden. Und nachher ist der Begriff wieder gekommen in den 2000er Jahren mit OE, Organisationsentwicklung. Und dann ist wieder das Thema Kultur dabei. Ich glaube das hat dann auch ein bisschen zu tun mit dem Lebenszyklus der Wirtschaft. Plötzlich Unternehmenskultur, das war kundenorientiert, wie kann man erfolgreich durch verschiedene Verhalten, Werte, Kultur, Profit und so wirtschaften. Und nachher waren diese Themen weg. Nachher war es nur Profitmaximierung als Ziel. Die ganze Geschichte mit dem Internet, neue Geschäftsmodelle, neue Wirtschaft. Das ist alles verflogen. Es kommt wieder zur Basic. Die Ziele einer Firma, was für Mitarbeiter wollen wir? So sehe ich ein bisschen die Wellen, ich spüre sie auch in meinem Bereich. Man redet mehr über Organisationsentwicklung, über die Kultur unserer Organisation. Scheinbar kommt das Thema ein bisschen wieder. Es scheint wieder ein Thema zu sein.

7 Mod.: Frage 4. Involvierung in Unternehmenskultur oder Organisationskultur Projekten?

8 Nie. Ich war jedoch in verschiedenen Reorganisationsprojekten beteiligt und dann plötzlich kommt immer das Thema Kultur, wie gehen wir um mit den Mitarbeitern, was wollen wir mit dieser neuen Organisation, was wollen wir nicht mehr weil die alte Organisation Schwierigkeiten erlebt hat? Dann muss man sie sanieren, reorganisieren. Und wohin geht man nach der Reorganisation mit der neuen Form der Organisation? Und dann sind wir betroffen von Kulturthemen, Verhalten, Ziel und Zweck. Aber nie per se in einem Projekt, wo es nur um das Thema Kultur ging.

9 Mod.[→]: Bei Ymago wird man sich auch Gedanken gemacht haben?

10 Ymago war ein Reorg-Thema und das hat viel mit Kultur zu tun

gehabt. Am Ende hatten wir ein Kulturthema auf dem Tisch. Aber wir haben es nie gesagt, es ist ein Kulturprojekt. Wir haben gesagt, es ist eine klassische Reorganisation. Und dann sind wir auch konfrontiert mit dem Thema Kultur. Wir machen neue Formen, Strukturen. Aber ich habe in St. Gallen studiert. Es ist ganz einfach: Struktur, Strategie, Struktur und Kultur. Und Ymago hat sich enorm mit der Strategie befasst, mit der Struktur. Und das Kulturthema war ein bisschen nebensächlich und in der Umsetzung von Kultur aufgepoppt. Das haben wir aber gespürt, das war auf keinem Radar. Spannend. Aber am Ende von Ymago war es eine Kulturfrage. Wohin, was machen wir mit den Leuten, was wollen wir für Leute, welcher ist Ziel und Zweck dieser Organisation? Holen wir die Leute auf die Strategie, können wir diese Strategie mit diesen Mitarbeitern umsetzen oder nicht?

11 Mod. [→]: Das ist das Thema meiner Arbeit.

12 Die Strategie war okay, die Struktur war auch okay, wie sagen wir es jedem Mann oder Frau und tragen sie das mit? Wenn sie es nicht mittragen wird es extrem schwierig in der Umsetzung. Aber Ymago war aus Prinzip kein Kulturthema. Es war wirklich ein Strategie- und Strukturthema.

13 Mod.: Frage 6. Wahrnehmung über Kulturthema beeinflusst?

14 Eigentlich… Warum habe ich mich in den 80ern mit dem Kulturthema beschäftigt? Es war kein Meisterwerk, aber es war Thema meiner Diplomarbeit. Ich habe im Vertiefungsgebiet Organisation gemacht. Das war das Thema, Modethema. Der Prof hat mir gesagt: Mach etwas über Kultur in der Westschweiz, französische Führung und so weiter. Aber ich habe es nachher vergessen. Und was habe ich Ymago von der Kultur mitgenommen? Ich hatte am Ende – wir hatten die Strategie, wir hatten die Struktur, die war gegeben. Wir haben eine grosse Arbeit gemacht mit allen Mitarbeitern. Zuerst mit den Management, vom Middle Management; wir haben zum Beispiel ESCOLA gemacht, ein typisches Instrument für Kultur. Die Kultur

war, wir machen den Schritt vom Annahmenetz zu einem Vertriebsnetz. Das ist die Idee gewesen oder die Strategie gewesen. Und ich hatte Mitarbeiter, die mir gesagt haben, ich bin nicht zur Post gekommen, um zu verkaufen. Und wenn sie mir das sagen denke ich: Oh shit, was mache ich mit der Strategie? Wenn ich sage, ich bin eine Vertriebsorganisation, der Auftrag vom Konzern ist: Du vertreibst die Logistik und Finanzen und darfst noch ein bisschen AMA [Andere Markenartikel] verkaufen. Wie verklickern wir das den Leuten? Es ist kein Annahmenetz, es ist ein Vertriebsnetz mit Annahmemöglichkeit und du holst die Kunden ab und verkaufst da zusätzliche Dienstleistungen. Wir haben zuerst ESCOLA auf die Beine gestellt; das war ein Instrument. Ich habe das benutzt als Instrument, um die Vertriebskultur zu verankern im Middle Management. Das war für LVB, PG-Leiter, Leiter Betrieb. Und für die Poststellenleitung Verkaufsschulungen und nicht technischer Verkauf, Produktkenntnisse, Verkaufsabschluss. Wie hole ich die Bedürfnisse vom Kunden ab und wie verkaufe ich, wie schliesse ich den Verkauf ab und nicht: Ich berate. Und jetzt sagen mir die Leute nach fünf Jahren, wir sind eine Verkaufsorganisation, meine Aufgabe ist, zu verkaufen, Umsatz zu generieren, Konti zu produzieren. Ziel erreicht, mehr brauche ich nicht. Aber wir brauchten Gefässe und Instrumente, um diese Strategie umzusetzen. Ich glaube Escola und die Verkaufgeschichte waren Kulturinstrumente. Nachher haben wir auch unserem Middle Management OE-Entwicklungsseminare angeboten, aber die mussten sich finanziell beteiligen, denn es war natürlich eine Investition für die Firma, aber auch für die Leute. Sie sollten sich auch daran beteiligen. Das sind Gefässe, die am Ende einen Kulturcharakter haben. Wir haben sie nie so deklariert. Ich habe gesagt, ich mache keine Kulturarbeit. Ich mache Business, primär. Aber du brauchst diese Elemente, um das Businessziel zu erreichen. Und das wird oft vom Management unterschätzt. Das ist meine Wahrnehmung von Kultur.

15 Mod.: Frage 11. Versucht, diese Aspekte mit der künftigen Post CH AG verbinden?

16 Es hat nicht nur mit der Post CH AG zu tun. Das lerne ich bei den Mitarbeitern. Ich mache Dialoganlässe und sie dürfen Fragen stellen. Wir reden wirklich, es ist ein bisschen Kultur, wenn du willst, aber für meinen Bereich. Sie dürfen Fragen stellen. Innerhalb von fünf Jahren haben wir mindestens 800 Fragen gekriegt. Ein Thema kommt und dann merke ich die Welle, was die Organisation beschäftigt. Am Anfang von Ymago war Struktur, meine Rolle, meine Aufgaben. Die letzten zwölf Monate war es: Wohin geht die Post? Und sie reden nicht von Post CH AG. Sie reden von der Schweizerischen Post. Deshalb sage ich immer. Wenn ich so spüre, meine Mitarbeiter sind Post. Sie denken noch nicht an PostAuto, Post CH AG oder PF. Wenn du zu PF gehst, denken sie nur an PF AG. Und weg vom Konzern. Meine Leute denken an Post, an eine Integration. Und die PF AG, Post AG oder PostAuto AG ist eine rein juristische Struktur für sie. Und ich mache sie immer aufmerksam. Drei AGs hat Vorteile, Nachteile, natürlich. Aber sie sagen: Patrick, bleibt die Post zusammen? Für sie ist es nicht die Frage der Post CH AG, es ist die Frage der Post. Deshalb ist die Frage der Post CH AG im Moment für meine Mitarbeiter ein juristisches Konstrukt. Die Frage kommt, wenn die neue CEO sagt: Was mache ich aus der Post CH AG. Und dann ist die Frage der Strategie dieser AG, der Struktur dieser AG. Bleibt sie die Division oder nicht? Will sie eine andere Form, will sie die Karten anders mischen? Und sie wird konfrontiert. Ich habe eine Kultur in diesem Haus. Die war sehr eine Postkultur, ausser PF. Und PF-Mitarbeiter sind manchmal anders. Aber meine Mitarbeiter sind Postkultur. Und die werden sich fragen: Gibt es eine neue Kultur der Post CH AG versus der PostAuto AG oder versus PF AG oder bleibt eine Postkultur? Und das wird die Herausforderung vom Management sein. Falls Frau Ruoff etwas ändert an der Strategie, an der Struktur, wird sie die Frage beantworten, was für eine Kultur? Will sie eine Kultur Post CH AG haben oder Post? Das ist ihr Job. Deshalb habe ich kein Vorurteil über die Kultur oder keine grossen Überlegungen. Die Leiterin neu wird es sagen, wohin sie geht und das wird einen immensen Einfluss auf die Kulturfrage haben. Aber erst nachher. Sie wird die gleiche Reise machen wie ich gemacht habe. Und sie wird sich auseinandersetzen mit dieser Kulturfrage, ob

398

sie will oder nicht. Im Moment sage ich: Schauen wir, was das neue Management will, was kommt.

17 Mod.: Frage 13. Unternehmenskultur oder Organisationskultur adaptierbar, sprich beeinflussbar?

18 Ja, man prägt. Das Management, die Strategie, die Struktur prägt die Kultur, bin ich überzeugt. Und nicht umgekehrt. Das ist ein Management-Ansatz. Die Manager kommen, die definieren Strategie, sie bilden neue Struktur und das prägt die Kultur. Aber es ist schnell eine Strategie geschrieben. Eine Struktur ist schnell aufgebaut. Braucht ein bisschen mehr Zeit, aber ist schnell auf die Beine gestellt. Die Kultur, Timing, wird immer unterschätzt. Es braucht viel, viel mehr Zeit. Deshalb habe ich auch selbst lernen müssen, nicht nur bei der Post, auch bei anderen Projekten. Bei Ymago habe ich fünf Jahre Zeit gewartet und den Leuten gesagt: Du bist eine Vertriebsorganisation. Weg von Annahme und weg von… auf Französisch sagt man c'est un „usager". Und die Leute reden von Kunde, client. Das ist ganz unterschiedlich. Postbenutzer zu Kunde. Das sind Welten. Jahre. Und deshalb sage ich, Strategie ist schnell geschrieben. Organisation, da brauchst du ein bisschen mehr Zeit, sie auf die Beine zu stellen, dass es funktioniert. Aber die Kulturarbeit durch die Umsetzung der Strategie, das ist ein Kampf. Da holt man keinen Award. Da muss man konstant daran arbeiten und man ist nicht allein. Jetzt habe ich auch gelernt, wenn ich mit meinen GL-Mitgliedern rede, wir sagen alle, es ist unglaublich, wie stimmig wir sind in unserer Aussage. Wenn ich mit jemandem rede und er sagt, Herr Franz Huber hat mir das gesagt, Däniker… Salamin sagt dir auch das. Und dann plötzlich merken die Leute, sie sind stimmig, sie sind aligned, sie sind einheitlich unterwegs. Dann ist es glaubwürdig. Wenn ich etwas sage und Huber etwas anderes und Däniker und Kessler noch etwas anderes, wären wir nicht stimmig, hätten wir ein Chaos. Und das ist auch Kultur. Die Leute müssen spüren, es gibt eine Einheitlichkeit. „Unité de doctrine". Dann wirst du langsam glaubhaft. Aber zuerst testen die Leute das. Sind sie wieder alle an Bord, die Manager, schön gesagt, aber ist er wirklich überzeugt? Und

The colour red was used for codes related to intended corporate culture.

..Consistency/Pervasiveness

dann musst du zeigen, du bist glaubhaft.

19 Mod. [→]: Rolle der Vorbildfunktion?

..Coherency and credibility of

20 Ja. Die Leute schauen sich das an und sagen: Wie ticken sie? Am Anfang haben sie versucht, die Leute spielen. Und wir hatten extra eine stimmige Aussage. Andere Wörter natürlich, aber stimmig in der Aussage, stimmig in der Umsetzung, stimmig in der Konsequenz. Vorbildfunktion ist schnell gesagt, aber es ist nicht eine Show auf einer Bühne, Vorbildfunktion ist täglich. Es ist das Problem vom Management. Mit Vorbild ist es schnell gesagt, aber um vorbildlich zu werden braucht es Disziplin.

21 Mod.: Frage 15 Soll-Kultur der künftigen Post AG?

..Entrepreneurial

22 Ich wünsche mir eine Post CH AG, die unternehmerisch ist. Wir sind ein Unternehmen. Es gibt noch viele Leute, die glauben es nicht, dass wir ein Unternehmen sind. Intern. Und es gibt Leute draussen. Ich kriege Briefe, die sagen, was ist das für ein Service Public? Wenn wir sagen, wir sind eine AG, das ist eine Rechtsform für ein Unternehmen. Der Zweck eines Unternehmens ist auch, Geld zu verdienen. Die Frage des Unternehmens nachher ist, was mit dem Geld angestellt wird. Es ist nicht der Profit per se. Auch Banken, Investmentbanker wollen Profit. Die Frage ist, was machen sie mit dem Profit? Sie kassieren ihn selbst ein. Und es gibt Firmen, die reinvestieren in die Firma. Und es ist auch legitim. Und ich will ein Unternehmer sein, ich will, dass dieses Unternehmen Geld verdient. Und die Frage ist, was machen wir aus dem Geld? Und ich wünsche mir, dass wir auf dem Markt reinvestieren, natürlich. Wir tun etwas für

..Being a fair employer
...Serving customers

die Mitarbeiter. Und die Kundschaft. Aber es hat nicht per se Service Public Charakter. Service Public ist ein Teil des Auftrags; es ist ein Minimumauftrag, den wir erfüllen. Der Bundesrat sagt: Du musst es machen, das ist eine der Rahmenbedingungen. Wir müssen es erfüllen, aber wir müssen es finanzieren und zahlen dafür. Und der Rest, wir müssen diese Firma gestalten. Service Public hin und her. Eine Firma, eine AG ist ein Unternehmen, das muss profitabel

...No "Service Public"-

bleiben, denn sonst überlebt es nicht. Ob es Service Public Charakter hat oder nicht. Wenn es jedoch nur Service Public Charakter hat, sind diese Firmen immer defizitär. Immer. Ich kenne keine Service Public Firma, welche nur auf Service Public ausgerichtet ist, die profitabel ist. Irgendwie verdirbt das. Es muss alles nichts kosten. Was nichts kostet, hat keinen Wert. Wenn es keinen Wert hat, hast du auch als Firmenmitarbeiter keinen Wert. Das Selbstwertgefühl unserer Mitarbeitern, wage ich zu behaupten, ist besser als vor zehn Jahren. Alte Post, dann bei der Trennung Swisscom, PTT. Die, die bei der Post geblieben sind, waren die armen. Pech, du bist bei der Post geblieben. Heutzutage, zehn Jahre später, 900 Millionen Profit. Wir hatten 900 Millionen Defizit. Die sind stolz, Postmitarbeiter zu sein. Wir sind ein Unternehmen, wir haben einen Wert. Es sind 900 Millionen, was machen wir aus dem? Aber es ist auch ein Selbstwertgefühl, meine Leistung wird vom Markt anerkannt.

23 Mod. [→]: Identifikation in einem Unternehmen, das nicht Gewinn macht?

24 Loser. Du bist ein Loser. Das Problem von den Beamten. Sie sind alle Loser. Und sie sind top ausgebildet. Sie haben eine Loser-Mentalität und man erkennt ihre Leistung nicht an. Wert, Mitarbeiter wollen einen Wert. Die Firmen sollen Wert produzieren. Die Mitarbeiter schöpfen aus diesem Wert, aus diesem Selbstwertgefühl. Nicht nur Geld, aber ein Gefühl. Ich bin stolz, ich habe etwas gemacht, der Markt hat die Leistung anerkannt. Und das haben wir bei der Post zuwenig. Ich sage immer: Seien Sie stolz auf Gewinn. Gewinn, Profit war früher ein Schimpfwort. Heute ist man stolz. Wir können die Pensionskasse finanzieren. Nicht wie die SBB. Wir können diese Lohnerhöhung verkraften. Nicht wie alle anderen. Wir können selber bestimmen, wo wir investieren. Und wir geben dem Bund noch Geld zurück. Was wollen Sie mehr? Das ist Selbstwert. Und das finde ich extrem wichtig.

25 Mod.: Frage 17, Einflussfaktoren auf Unternehmenskultur?

26 Der Einfluss ist zunäct Sinn und Zweck der Unternehmung. Wenn du einen Sinn und Zweck hast, ziehst du gewisse Leute an. Es gibt Manager, die wollen in einem Unternehmen tätig sein, das börsennotiert ist. Andere wollen nur in einem Familienbetrieb tätig sein, aus verschiedenen Gründen. Es gibt Leute, die wollen in einem NGO tätig sein weil sie ein anderes Menschenbild haben. Sinn und Zweck der Organisation prägt schon die Kultur. Und diese Organisationen, man vergisst, die haben alle Rahmenbedingungen. Die Post hat eine mit dem Postgesetz, mit dem Service Public Auftrag, aber die Pharma hat auch Rahmenbedingungen, Gesetze, das ist extrem schwierig. Aber NGO haben auch Rahmenbedingungen, auch einen Auftrag. Und die Rahmenbedingungen, Zweck der Organisation prägen die Kultur. Prägt die Strategie. Aber dann hat es direkten Einfluss auf die Kultur und auf die Mitarbeiter, die du anziehst. Du ziehst gewisse Mitarbeiter an. Als ich zur Post kam - und ich war nicht Pöstler, ich kam nicht aus einer Pöstler-Familie - alle meine Kollegen sagten: Du bist kein Pöstler. Werdegang, Einstellung, alles. Marktwirtschaft, liberales Denken, alles was du willst. Nicht zur Post, bei einem Staatsbetrieb! Und es hat angefangen bei meinem Vater. Er hat gesagt: Patrick, wir arbeiten nicht für einen Staatsbetrieb. Jetzt, nach zehn Jahren, wenn ich erzähle, was wir machen, wenn ich die Entwicklung von der Post erzähle, von meinem Bereich im speziellen, sagen sie, es ist Wahnsinn, was Sie aus Ihren Leuten herausholen. Ich sage: Es sind kein Staatsbetrieb. Es sind Mitarbeiter, ich habe Leiter, ich habe Manager, ich habe extrem gut ausgebildete Leute, die mitziehen. Und ich kann gestalten. Warum bin ich zur Post gegangen? Ich wäre nie zu PTT gegangen. Ich bin zur Post gegangen, weil es ein Unternehmen ist, du kannst gestalten, du bekommst ein spannendes Thema. Es gibt eine baldige Marktöffnung, wir brauchen deine Skills. Und deshalb bin ich gegangen. Ich hätte zu einer Bank gehen können. Wir sind ein Unternehmen geworden, weil wir die Zukunft gestalten, wir gestalten Sachen, wir haben einen Riesenwandel, nicht nur innerhalb dieser Organisation, das ist Kultur, aber wir haben einen immensen Impact auf dieses Land. Ich habe einen sozialen Impact. Ich versuche, meinen Kunden, unseren Kunden der Post

beizubringen, dass wir uns entwickelt haben. Preis ist ein Thema, Service ist ein Thema. Nicht alles ist gratis. Meine Mitarbeiter müssen Arbeiten, meine Leute müssen leisten. Aber es ist auch eine Kultur für einen Kunden. Die Wahrnehmung der Post ist noch nicht so weit, aber viele Kunden sagen, es ist eine Firma. Gut, perfekt; das ist noch spannend.

27 Mod.: Frage 19, relevante Aspekte für die Soll-Kultur der Post CH AG?

28 Es ist extrem schwierig. Man vergisst oft bei der Post, jede Organisation hat Rahmenbedingungen und die prägen das Handeln. Die prägen nachher dieses Handeln und dieses Handeln basiert auf einem gemeinsamen Verständnis des Tuns, des Zwecks. Wenn die Organisation nicht das gemeinsame Verständnis hat, dann hast du verschiedene Kulturen, Teilkulturen. Das ist das Schöne an einer Organisation: je mehr Teilkulturen es hat, desto vielfältiger die Kultur. Auch innerhalb meines Bereichs. Die Kultur der Schönburg [Hauptsitz der Post] ist nicht ganz genau wie in den Poststellen. Und eine Poststelle in der Stadt tickt anders als eine auf dem Land. Aber gleichzeitig sagen mir alle, wir sind eine Vertriebsorganisation. Und das nenne ich das gemeinsame Verständnis und das ist Kultur. Wir haben ein gemeinsames Verständnis. Es ist minimal, aber es ist von allen gelebt, wird vertreten, wird erzählt. Es gibt Diskrepanzen, selbstverständlich. Jemand, der hier nur mit Prozessen zu tun hat, ist nicht im Marketing oder im Product Management mit Deckungsbeitrag oder Stückzahlen.

29 Mod. [→]: Aber eine gemeinsame Basis für die Kultur?

30 Die muss vorhanden sein. Wir haben einen Auftrag, der Vertrieb und die Prozesse müssen so gestaltet sein. Die müssen ein Sortiment bringen, welches sich einfach verkaufen lässt, das weniger Prozesskosten verursacht. Und die Leute [die Postangestellten] draussen müssen verkaufen und finden, diese Artikel sind gut und sie müssen das Vertrauen haben, dass sich wirklich diese Artikel

The colour pink and violet were used for codes related to the predefined cultural dimensions from the Denison Organisational Culture Survey and Swiss Post's employee survey PEU.

..Common

..Differences btwn.

verkaufen lassen. Aber sie haben doch verschiedene Teilkulturen. Das gehört dazu. Je grösser desto mehr. Ich spüre auch verschiedenes Verhalten in den Flügeln [der Schönburg, Hauptsitz Post]. Wir haben die Rollenverteilung, Division fünf ist ein anderes Klima als zwei, als Marketing. Und bei IT arbeiten sie ganz anders, projektmässig vernetzt und so, mit Laptop und so. Und gehe ich zu den Controllern, ist es ganz anders, ganz ruhig.

31 Mod.: Frage 21, nicht relevante Aspekte für die Soll-Kultur?

32 Das Management versucht, die Soll-Kultur zu definieren. Und nachher wird es mehr Zeit brauchen als es glaubt, weil die Organisation Post CH AG noch grösser ist als die meines Bereichs. Zeit ist relevant (Lachen).

33 Mod.: Frage 23. Welche fünf Aspekte aus Denison sind wichtig?

..Core values

34 Ich glaube, du brauchst Core Values. Werte, das brauchst du. Die Organisation muss auch über die Strategie einig sein.

35 Mod.: Strategic Direction und Intent?

..Strategic direction and intent

..Goals & objectives

..Customer focus

36 Ja. Aber das ist sehr persönlich: ich glaube, Goals und Objectives sind extrem wichtig in einer Organisation. Division ist schon zu abstrakt. Dann würde ich sagen, Customer Focus. Core Values, Strategic Goals. Und eine finde ich extrem wichtig: capability development. Eine Organisation entwickelt sich laufend. Ich sehe, wir haben eine Strategie, sie ist relativ stabil, wie die Struktur. Es bleibt in der Strategie, wir begründen es mit der Strategie und ich sage immer, vor fünf Jahren haben wir diese Aufgabe dort und dort platziert. Wir haben uns entwickelt, die Schnittstellen sind neu, deshalb ändere ich die Struktur. Und das wird einen Rieseneinfluss auf eine Kultur von zwei Organisationen haben, von fünf und von eins. Es ist spannend. Ich merke auch die Diskussion, aber gleichzeitig ist die Strategie die gleiche. Es ist eine Korrektur in der Organisation, Anpassung, aber es wird ein riesiger Kulturschock für alle, die direkt betroffen sind. Die

..Capability development

Direktbetroffenen sehen es nicht, sie waren schön dabei, wir haben das vor fünf Jahren gemacht, weil es so war, die Rahmenbedingungen. Jetzt haben sie sich geändert. Man braucht capability development oder, wie man auch sagt, diese organisational learnings; das ist die Mischung für mich. Ich glaube, coordination and integration hast du als Organisation. Agreement ist da, Strategie ist stimmig. Das nenne ich Core Values. Empowerment, es gibt Organisationen, die empowern ihre Leute. Es gibt Organisationen; eine Armee empowert nicht ihre Leute. Aber eine Armee hat eine starke Kultur. Polizei zum Beispiel, Feuerwehr, sie haben extrem hohe Kultur. Passt. Aber die Post war früher null Empowerment. Heute sage ich: Mach es. Polizei, da gibt es kein Empowerment. Militär noch weniger. In jeder Organisation hast du verschiedene Gewichte.

37 Mod.: Zweite Seite, Kulturdimensionen in der wissenschaftlichen Literatur von Detert, et. al. (2000), welche drei Begriffe sind wichtig?

38 Diese Glaubwürdigkeit ist extrem wichtig. Du musst glaubwürdig in der Kultur arbeiten und kohärent. Es hat ein bisschen mit Rationalität zu tun. Du musst nie vergessen, es braucht Zeit. Es wird immer vergessen. Motivation. Ich glaube, Leute motivieren sich durch Ergebnisse und nicht durch Workshops. Stabilty… ich glaube, wenn du die Glaubwürdigkeit und den Zeitfaktor und du musst extrem focused sein. Das sind drei Elemente für mich, die für die Kultur wichtig sind.

39 Mod.: Basis of truth and rationality?

40 Ja. Nature of time and time horizon. Orientation and focus. Du musst focused sein. Vielleicht bin ich zu sehr Manager (Lachen).

41 Mod.: Personalumfrage, welche fünf Dimensionen sind wichtig?

42 Nun, in meiner Position ist die Strategie extrem wichtig. Auf meiner Stufe, wenn ich nicht an Bord bin… zum Beispiel, ein Frontoffice

Mitarbeiter kann mir nicht sagen, ich bin nicht einverstanden mit der Strategie und Entwicklung. Ich schliesse meine Post, ich verstehe deinen Ansatz: Vertrieb, Kundenorientiert, aber nicht beim Dritten. Er versteht die Agenturlösung nicht immer. Aber auf meiner Stufe ist extrem wichtig, dass die Strategie stimmig ist. Dann finde ich extrem wichtig meinen Chef – auch ich habe einen Chef. Dann will ich verantwortlich sein. Das ist mir extrem wichtig. Ich finde extrem wichtig meine Ziele. Und ich finde, es gehört zu jedem Manager, er muss sich entwickeln, er muss seine Leute entwickeln. Development. Du gehst nicht zur Post wegen dem Lohn, sonst gehst du zu einer Bank. Es verdienen alle Kollegen mehr ausserhalb der Post, aber ich gestalte mehr, ich habe einen höheren Einfluss. Und fertig.

43   Mod.: Weshalb Auswahl dieser Dimensionen?

44   Warum Strategie? Du musst, wenn du zu einer Organisation gehst, stimmig sein mit der Strategie. Und nicht nur weil ich in der Position bin. Auch früher bin ich zur Firma nach der Uni, zur Firma mit Produkten wo ich gesagt habe, das sind lässige Sachen, das möchte ich tun, soweit es geht. Mit der Zeit, mit der Entwicklung… du befasst dich zu Beginn mit extrem operativen Sachen. Mit der Zeit, wenn du Karriere machst, kommt immer das strategische Element. Und das ist in meiner Sicht, da ist die Strategie extrem wichtig. Wenn Frau Ruoff mir sagt, nein, wir sind keine Vertriebsorganisation, wir wollen zurück zum Annahmenetz, wir wollen ein Netz wie Service Public, das ist das A und O und wir machen nur das. Das ist nicht mehr spannend. Und dann ist es eine strategische Entscheidung. Ich werde sie respektieren, ich ziehe aber die Konsequenzen daraus. Deshalb sage ich, Strategie ist auf meiner Stufe und für mich extrem wichtig. Dann habe ich gesagt, der Chef. Warum Chef? Jeder hat einen Chef. Und meine Erwartungen an einen Chef, ich will einen kompetenten Chef haben, denn ich will von ihm lernen. Ich werte das extrem hoch, kompetenter Chef. Es gab zuerst eine fachliche Kompetenz. Ich erwarte, dass ein Chef diese Organisation weiterbringt und die soziale… einen Chef, der fachlich kompetent ist, respektiere ich. Ein Chef, der nicht fachlich, aber ein Kumpel mit hoher Sozialkompetenz

ist, interessiert mich nicht. Es ist nett. Er bringt mich und die Organisation nicht weiter. Nachher habe ich Verantwortung, weil ich einen Job mit Verantwortung suche. Ich habe immer Verantwortung gehabt, auch nach der Schule. Ich war Product Manager, ich habe sehr schnell Produkte betreut, ich habe Verantwortung gesucht. Und wenn du dich entwickeln willst im Management oder in der Organisation, musst du Verantwortung übernehmen. Es kann eine fachliche Verantwortung sein, eine Linienverantwortung… Aber ich will Verantwortung übernehmen. Dann habe ich gesagt Entwicklung. Ich glaube, Leute brauchen Ziele, Orientierung, ein Ziel. Wenn du willst, eine Strategie, einen Rahmen, eine Stossrichtung. Ziele sind konkret, du kannst dich orientieren. Sie sind vielleicht kurzfristig per Quartal oder Jahr. Das gibt dir Orientierung. Ziele zu haben unterstützt deine Arbeit. Du fokussierst deine Arbeit, du wirst produktiv. Ich verteile Ziele an Zehntausende. Jeder hat Ziele und das ist schön. Und sie haben eine Orientierung dadurch. Und sie wissen, heute mache ich das, und auf eine bestimmte Art und Weise. Und dann Entwicklung. Jeder Manager muss sich zuerst entwickeln. Ich habe auch vor fünf Jahren wieder eine Ausbildung gemacht, welche ich selbst bezahlt habe. Das interessiert die Post nicht, aber es war mir wichtig. Und ein Ziel für einen Manager, Manager müssen Ergebnisse liefern. Aber sie müssen auch ihre Mitarbeiter entwickeln. Das wird auch vergessen. Deshalb haben wir ESCOLA gebracht.

45 Mod. [→]: Ihr Bereich macht in diesem Bereich sehr viel.

46 Weil wir eine Verkaufsorganisation sind, Verkauf hat mit Leuten zu tun. Und du musst diese Leute entwickeln. Wir entwickeln sie in Richtung Vertrieb, natürlich. Ich sorge dafür, dass meine Leute die Mittel der Politik haben, das heisst, um diese Strategien umzusetzen. Wenn einer mir vor fünf Jahren gesagt hat, er ist nicht zur Post gekommen, um zu verkaufen, dann habe ich nur die Wahl, ihn entweder zu entlassen oder mir zu überlegen, wie ich ihm Verkauf beibringe. Und das ist eine Entwicklungsmassnahme. Und ich glaube, man muss unsere Leute entwickeln. Sie müssen unabhängig… eigentlich sind die besten Mitarbeiter immer die, die unabhängig von

The colour yellow was used for codes related to current culture, dark green for spedific citations.

..Developing employees as a

ihrer Organisation sind. Weil sie wissen, sie können gehen und sie wissen, was sie haben. Und wenn sie gehen, gehen sie bewusst. Das ist gut. So sind die Mitarbeiter unabhängig und es ist schön. Da sind sie viel freier, können gestalten, machen. Man muss unsere Leute entwickeln. Das sehe ich so. Aber wir machen ganz konkrete Sachen der Entwicklung, die zur Strategie passen. Ich schicke niemanden Chinesisch lernen oder Yoga turnen. Sondern Themen, die wichtig sind. Und sie entwickeln sich weiter. Und der Beweis ist, die besten Mitarbeiter von PostFinance kamen aus meinem Bereich. Sie sind vertriebsorientiert, kundenorientiert. Und vor fünf Jahren haben sie mir gesagt, wir wollen Banker und Versicherungen aber keinen Pöstler. Und jetzt holen sie mir die Pöstler. Und ich bin froh, warum? Das ist ein Zeichen der Anerkennung der Leistung unserer eigenen Mitarbeiter. Entwicklungsmöglichkeiten von meinen Mitarbeitern. Und drittens sage ich: Die kommen alle zurück (Lachen). Und sie wissen, wie soll ich mit meinem Bereich… denn sie können damit umgehen, sie können ihre Ziele bei meinem Bereich erreichen.

47 Mod.: Frage 28. Beschreibung aktuelle Kultur der Post?

..28_29_34_Shared traits of
..Performance-
..Customer orientation
..Good cooperation btwn.

..Identification of employees
Zitate_Citations

..Customer orientation

..Good cooperation btwn.

..28_29_34_Shared traits of
..Performance-
..Customer orientation

48 Es ist spannend. Wenn ich draussen bin, haben wir eine sehr ähnliche Kultur. Die Leute sind sehr leistungsorientiert, sie sind extrem kundenorientiert und sie helfen sich sehr. Ich habe mich lange gefragt, was der Grund ist dafür? Viele haben gesagt: Draussen sind langjährige Pöstler, Post als Familie. Das ist ein Grund, aber es ist nur eine Dimension. Die andere Dimension ist, sie haben einen Kunden vor ihrer Nase, tagtäglich. Der Zusteller trifft seine Kunden draussen. Meine Leute treffen ihre Kunden jeden Tag. Und sie müssen… sie haben keine Zeit zum Streiten. Sie werden als Post wahrgenommen. Die Kunden wissen nicht, was PM, was PV ist. Der Kunde weiss es nicht. Er geht zur Post und sagt, ich habe ein Zustellproblem. Der Briefkasten war voll, was ist los? Ich will ein Konto eröffnen, und so weiter. Das ist die Post. Deshalb haben wir draussen an der Front eine sehr einheitliche Kultur, die sehr viel leistet, sehr kundenorientiert. Unsere Leute sind extrem kundenorientiert. Sie wissen es nicht, aber sie sind extrem

kundenorientiert. Sie tun sehr viel für die Kundschaft. Und es ist gut so dass ich nicht alles weiss (Lachen). Da mache ich keinen Unterschied zwischen PM und PV... Middle Management, natürlich haben sie verschiedene Ziele. Du nimmst einen Poststellengebietsleiter bei mir oder einen Verkaufsleiter, Leiter Verkaufsgebiet oder du nimmst einen Leiter einer Briefzustellregion. Sie werden ein bisschen anders geführt, aber sie wissen, dass sie auch für die Post unterwegs sind. Sie haben ein Bereichsziel zu erfüllen, aber am Ende wissen sie, sie sind bei der Post. In der Schönburg [Hauptsitz der Post] im Management ist es nicht im Einklang. Das ist vielleicht der Preis der Divisionalisierung. Die Divisionalisierung hat auch Vorteile gebracht. Fokus, Leistungsorientierung, EBIT-wirksam, verantwortlich für sein Geschäft. Der Nachteil, Zusammenarbeit ist ein bisschen schwieriger, Brücken zu bauen ist schwieriger, die Leute sind ein bisschen egoistischer. Aber im Moment sage ich, es ist okay. Würde ich diese Kultur nicht vertragen, würde ich gehen, wenn es nicht passen würde zu mir. Man sagt, die Divisionen bekämpfen sich. Sie bekämpfen sich weniger als man glaubt. Man führt harte Verhandlungen, aber die sind transparent und okay und ich kann mit jedem in diesem Haus ein Bier trinken gehen, trotz harter Verhandlungen. Leute in wirklichen Line-Positionen, das heisst, Businesskader und so, sie führen diese Verhandlungen hart, aber am Ende trifft man sich wieder. Ich sage, die Fachabteilungen ob Personal, Kommunikation, erleben es wie ein Kampf und einen Riesenverlust. Nein, das ist Kulturbildung. Jeder sagt, die Divisionen arbeiten nicht zusammen. Falsch. Draussen wird zusammengearbeitet. Hier wird hart gekämpft, aber es ist eine natürliche Sache. Du machst eine andere Organisation, du machst eine funktionale Organisation und du wirst auch immer den Streit zwischen Marketing und Vertrieb haben. Du wirst immer den Streit zwischen Produktion und Produktmanagement haben. Klassiker. Die Klassiker bleiben. Deshalb ist mehr: Wie sorgst du dafür, dass es zu einem guten Ergebnis in der Verhandlung kommt? Wenn die Kultur nicht zu mir passen würde, hätte ich längst die Post verlassen.

49 Mod.: Frage 30. Indikatoren für die aktuelle Unternehmenskultur?

50 Ich spüre sie sehr gut in meiner eigenen Division, denn ich präge sie, das weiss ich. Das ist mir schon bewusst. Es ist nicht Arroganz. Ich weiss, ich präge die Organisation. Und mein Nachfolger wird die Post anders prägen, das ist okay. Es ist mir bewusst, das erlebe ich sehr stark und ich bin mit der Strategie und so... nachher auf Stufe Gesamtpost ist es schwieriger. Da lernen wir in der Konzernleitung, auch Sachen zu tun. Und für mich war zum Beispiel ein Wandel diese Trennung Geschäftskunde – Privatkunde. Plötzlich merkt man, man hat Kunden mit verschiedenen Bedürfnissen. Gestern haben wir in der Konzernleitung entschieden, es ist ein Vollkostenansatz zwischen PV und PF [PostFinance]... das ist ein Meilenstein in der Zusammenarbeit und dem Verständnis. Es ist auch Anerkennung. PV bringt Leistung, muss honoriert werden, PF hat ein Geschäft, das muss bezahlt werden. Man hat investiert, PF konnte sich entwickeln durch diese Hilfe, aber jetzt ist es Zeit, sein Geschäftsmodell selbst stimmig zu machen. Das finde ich extrem, diese Entwicklung ist extrem gut. Vielleicht hat PV davon profitiert, es kann sein, aber wir haben an dem gearbeitet, wir haben Transparenz geschaffen, wir haben gesagt, was wir wollen, wir haben die Kundenbedürfnisse adressiert und so weiter. Und die anderen Divisionen haben sich sehr gut entwickelt. Ich sehe die Entwicklung von PF. Aber PM auch. Hat vielleicht ein Restmonopol, aber entwickelt sich. Am Ende haben wir einen gemeinsamen Nenner, es ist die Post. Wenn du allein gehst, ich wage zu behaupten, PostLogistics allein überlebt nicht. Sie werden übernommen. PF in dieser Konstellation können sie nur übernommen werden. Wirklich, sie haben kein Kreditgeschäft, es fehlt ein Bein im Geschäftsmodell. Die werden übernommen. PostMail hat noch ein Restmonopol. Ohne Restmonopol kann sie noch eine gewisse Zeit länger als die anderen. Und PV geht so zum Staat. Punkt. Da gibt es keine Post mehr. Und PostAuto ohne Post überlebt nicht. PostAuto wird übernommen, wenn sie allein auf den Mark gehen. PostAuto mit ihren Strukturen, die übernimmt ein Reiseunternehmen. Fertig, Schluss. Diese Organisation ist nur stark zusammen. Und wenn du zusammenbleiben willst, musst du bereit sein, mit dem anderen zusammenzuarbeiten. Das ist die Sache. Es

gibt kulturelle… aber nicht so gravierend, dass die Sache auseinander geht. Der Konzern ist recht stabil zusammen geblieben. Die juristischen Strukturen, der Wille ist, eine Post zu haben und der Wille ist wichtiger als die juristische Struktur.

51 Mod.: Frage 34. Unternehmenskultur von allen Bereichen geteilt?

52 Ziel und Zweck. Das muss geteilt werden. Die Rahmenbedingungen nicht, die sind unterschiedlich. Aber Ziel und Zweck dieser Organisation müssen gemeinsam getragen werden.

53 Mod.: Frage 35, Was ist typisch für die Post?

54 Die Post ist sehr leistungsorientiert. Ich erlebe sie so. Die Mitarbeiter haben eine sehr hohe Identifikation. Das unterschätzt man immer. Wenn ich sehe, wie wenig die Banker heutzutage sich mit ihrer Organisation identifizieren, das ist unglaublich. Die Post, wenn du von extern kommst, das merkst du. Die sagen: Ich habe gelbes Blut. Sie haben eine hohe Identifikation und die Leistung… die Post wird intern… wir betrachten uns als Unternehmen und das finde ich extrem wichtig. Das ist ein Quantensprung gegenüber als ich kam; die haben nicht gesagt wir sind ein Unternehmen. Heute sagen wir, wir sind ein Postunternehmen. Das ist okay. Der Aktionär ist der Staat, aber wir sind ein Post-Unternehmen. Das sind die Aspekte, die für mich wichtig sind, wo ich merke, ich kann bei der Post überall hingehen, es sind Pöstler. Ob ich einen Zusteller, am Schalter; die Leute laufen. Die Leute arbeiten. Sie sind keine faulen Eier. Sie arbeiten. Langsam merken sie, wir sind ein Unternehmen, kundenorientiert. Ich glaube, wir sind auch sehr kundenorientiert.

55 Mod.: Frage 36, was ist nicht typisch für die Post?

56 Gier.

57 Mod. [→]: Die Leute sind nicht monetär gesteuert?

58   Nein. Du gehst nicht zur Post wegen der Kohle. Die Leute kommen ein bisschen zur Post früher und jetzt kommen sie, weil sie das Gefühl haben, es hat einen Sinn und Zweck; die Organisation hat Sinn. Vielleicht in der Vergangenheit war der Service Public, und heutzutage ist ein guter Service. Und die Wirtschaft merkt, die ganze Theorie dass Staatsbetriebe nicht gut sind; von einem Staatsbetrieb zum Unternehmen kann man sich entwickeln, die machen eine gute Leistung, kundenorientiert. Aber Post ist nicht Gier. Man geht nicht zur Post, um reich zu werden. Es gibt sicher viel mehr, aber das ist sicher sehr typisch.

59   Mod.: Frage 38. Mitarbeiter teilen dieselber Merkmale der Unternehmenskultur wie das Top-Management?

60   Wenn wir auseinanderdriften, geht die Post, die Kultur… geht es nicht gut. Du musst diese Werte runter bringen. Und das Top-Management unterschätzt das. Es ist nicht getan mit einer Road Show und einer Power Point Präsentation auf dem Intranet. Das reicht nicht. Das muss man machen, die Basis; das nimmt uns niemand ab. Wenn sie merken, dass das Top-Management in eine Richtung geht, die anders ist als das was sie sagen, dann ist es ein Drift und dann ist es vorbei. Dann gibt es keine gute Unternehmenskultur; oder verschiedene. Aber ich hoffe, zuerst bei PV, dass wir das bringen können. Und ich hoffe, dass die Mitarbeiter glauben, dass das Top-Management – ich gehöre dazu – dass sie uns auch abnehmen, was wir wollen.

61   Mod. [→]: Glaubwürdigkeit?

62   Ja, Glaubwürdigkeit.

63   Mod.: Frage 41. Zusammengehörigkeitsgefühl der Mitarbeiter?

64   Bei der Vorbereitung habe ich geschrieben: Post. Fertig. Im Moment ist es so.

Lime colour was used for codes related to the degree of cultural alignment.

65 Mod.: Frage 43. Übereinstimmungsgrad der Kultur.

..When out of alignment

66 Wenn sie nicht aligned sind. Wenn in einer bestehenden Struktur, wenn sie nicht aligned sind, funktioniert es nicht gut. Die Frage ist, wenn du eine Restrukturierung, eine Reorg, etwas neu bilden, wie zum Beispiel die Post AG, wie bringen wir dieses "Soll" als eine neue Ausgangslage zum Halt? Wie bringen wir unsere Mitarbeiter auf den Level? Das wird risikoreich werden. Es ist nicht dramatisch. Es wird eine neue Kultur, die AG erlaubt dann das, wir werden das den Mitarbeitern zeigen müssen. Wir müssen die Mitarbeiter abholen.

..Different perception of the

67 Mod. [→]: Abholen, Themen und Strategie runter bringen?

68 Ja, warum machen wir das? Wieso? Wohin wollen wir? Wie gehen wir mit dir? Wie bringen wir das? Kommst du mit und so? Und wenn das nicht funktioniert, dann haben wir ein Thema. Und wir werden Zeit brauchen für das. Ich spüre es, deshalb habe ich dir gesagt, bei den Dialog-Anlässen, die Frage der Struktur kommt. Wir sind getrennt, geht PF weg, will der VR eine Post oder will die Politik eine Trennung? Ist der erste Schritt zum Verkauf, ist der nächste Schritt Privatisierung? Das beschäftigt sehr stark. Und auf diese Antworten müssen wir klare Statements bringen, dass die Leute wieder sagen: Top-Management denkt, wir möchten, dass sie auch so denken.

..Communication: Confer

69 Mod.: Frage 45.

..Agreement

70 Ja, ist wichtig. Die Soll- und Ist-Kultur müssen abgestimmt sein. Wenn sie schön abgestimmt sind, man hat eine schöne Ist-Kultur, kannst du für die Organisation arbeiten. Dann plötzlich kommt ein Bruch, neues Ziel, neue Strategie, dann entwickeln wir eine neue Sache, wir wollen dort hingehen zu einer Soll-Kultur. Wenn der Bruch, der Gap nicht gefüllt wird, dann hast du ein Problem. Wenn du diese neue Strategie, neue Organisation nicht runter in die Köpfe der Mitarbeiter bringst, hast du ein Problem.

..Due to strategy
..Different perception of the

71 Mod.: Das wäre Frage 46 gewesen.

413

72 Ja, genau.

73 Mod.: Frage 47. Übereinstimmungsgrad Soll-Kultur und Ist-Kultur der künftigen Post CH AG?

74 Im Moment finde ich, wir haben eine gute Kultur. Wir sind relativ aligned im Management, wir sind relativ aligned in den verschiedenen Divisionen. Wir drücken sie ab und zu anders aus, aber das ist Ausdrucksweise. Aber ich glaube, wir sind uns alle bewusst, wir sind ein Unternehmen geworden, wir müssen Kundenwünsche aufnehmen, Leistungen umsetzen, wir müssen Geld verdienen. Dieses Verständnis, heutzutage in 2012 ist okay. Nicht perfekt natürlich, aber ist gut. Wenn ich vergleiche mit 2003. Mein Gott... In 2003 hat die Post 350 Millionen Profit gemacht, oder 250. Die grosse Sorge vom Top-Management war, was machen wir mit diesem Geld? Es ist unverschämt, Geld zu verdienen. Sagen wir dem Volk und dem Bundesrat, dass wir so gut gearbeitet haben? Jetzt verdienen wir 900 Millionen und wir können stolz sein und dies dem Volk erzählen. Wir sind stolz und diese 900 Millionen verteilen wir so. Das ist ein ganz anderes Selbstbewusstsein. Das ist auf allen Stufen. Wie du merkst, habe ich kein Problem mit Geld verdienen, nur mit Geld verteilen (Lachen).

75 Mod.: Frage 49. Unterschiede akzeptieren oder Massnahmen ausarbeiten?

76 Grundsätzlich muss der Gap auf die Dauer nicht zu gross sein zwischen Soll und Ist. Und diese Gaps entstehen immer durch Veränderungen, intern, extern. Aber nicht zu lange und nicht zu gross. Du kannst nicht in zwei Kulturen leben. Nachher ist es eine Märchen-Story, Märchengeschichten sind nicht mehr glaubwürdig. Wasser predigen und Wein trinken. Die Leute merken es. Sofort. Der Gap wird sofort wahrgenommen. Es kann ein Gap entstehen, sie müssen nicht zu lange offen sein.

Blue was used for codes related to potential divergences of corporate culture.

..Check and adapt cultural

77 Mod.: Frage 50: Wenn es einen Gap geben sollte, der über längere Zeit bestehen bleibt, wie kann das gemildert werden?

78 Da gibt es Massnahmen. Eine dramatische Massnahme ist, wir sind vielleicht wirklich falsch mit der Strategie? Vielleicht stimmt die Struktur nicht? Vielleicht haben wir die falschen Mitarbeiter oder so. Und es ist sehr situativ und individuell. Aber es ist immer eine Frage, die sich das Top-Management stellen muss. Wenn man nicht wachsam ist für solche Themen, dann hat man ein Problem. Wir haben eine schöne Strategie geschrieben, wir haben eine neue, schöne Struktur. Besser, sagen wir. Wir müssen sie probieren. Aber wenn die Leute nicht mitmachen, kann ich einpacken. Wirklich packen gehen. Und das unterschätzt das Top-Management. Es gibt zu viele MBAs. Business Administration. Business verwaltet man nicht, man gestaltet. Der Ausdruck MBA ist katastrophal. Es wirkt sehr mechanistisch. Und auch eine Kultur ist nicht mechanistisch. Kultur ist lebhaft. Die Manager müssen aufpassen, dass sie nicht ihre Aufgabe wahrnehmen wie ein Ingenieur. Ingenieure und MBA sind hoch gefährlich, denn sie betrachten, besonders wenn sie zuerst Ingenieurwissenschaft studiert haben… es ist sehr mechanistisch. Und die Gestaltung von der Organisation ist extrem dynamisch. Es gibt Stopp and Go's, natürlich. Es ist eine dynamische Bewegung. Sonst entwickelt sich die Organisation nicht.

..Dynamic development of

79 Mod.: Frage 51. Punkte, die du bei der Post CH AG umsetzen würdest?

..Measure culture, detect and

80 Wenn es nicht funktioniert, dann musst du dich wirklich fragen, sind wir richtig aufgestellt? Was ich nicht machen würde, ist PR. PR funktioniert nicht in solchen Situationen. Public Relations. Auf auf eines müssen wir immer aufpassen, unsere Mitarbeiter sind nicht dumm. Also nicht nur unsere, viele. Leute checken. Sie erleben das. Es ist brutal, ja oder nein. Es ist nicht vielleicht. Sie kommen mit oder sie kommen nicht mit. Und das muss man nicht unterschätzen. Eine Massnahme: ich mache nie PR. Sie wollten auch schöne Sätze, schöne Texte, schöne News. Aber nie PR. Mitarbeiter wollen die

..Public Relations

Grey was used for codes related to specific questions from the employee survey.

..Public Relations
..Do's

Wahrheit. Und wenn wir einen Gap haben, müssen sie wissen, dass es einen Gap gibt. Es macht uns Sorge, wir bereinigen das. Das ist mein Ansatz.

81 Mod.: Frage 55. Personalumfrage, Innerhalb Ihres Bereiches (PM, PV, PL, SPS) funktioniert die Zusammenarbeit gut.

..I agree

82 Innerhalb meines Bereichs, innerhalb PV gehe ich davon aus, ja. Aber ich sage immer, wir sind keine heilige Familie. Aber allgemein funktioniert es, denn sonst kannst du so eine grosse Division – rein von der Grösse und von der Verteilung über dieses Land – sie würde nicht funktionieren. PV funktioniert. Nicht perfekt, aber es funktioniert. Zu all den anderen Bereichen, da mache ich einen Unterschied zwischen der Front. An der Front funktioniert es gut. Ich frage immer meine Leute: Ihr arbeitet mit PM, funktioniert die Fachzustellung? Sie sind zufrieden. Die Zusteller sind noch bei uns, im gleichen Gebäude. Sind sie kooperativ? Ich kriege mehrheitlich positiv… und auch bei PM, wenn wir an die Poststellen bei der Basis oder je nachdem… Mit SPS haben wir weniger Schnittstellen natürlich… aber zwischen PV, PM, PL und PF… an der Front funktioniert es. In der Schönburg ist es sehr personenabhängig und die Bereitschaft von allen. Aber es ist besser als ihr Ruf, diese Zusammenarbeit Viele Leute beklagten sich über ihre Arbeit als schlecht und ich betrachte sie als sich entwickelnd, besser. PV ist so eine Schnittstelle für alles. Sie kommen nicht um PV herum. Alles. Und ich bin gezwungen zur Zusammenarbeit. Wenn ich mit dem Bereich nicht zusammenarbeite, erleide ich Schiffbruch. Ich finde, PV musste sich entwickeln, hat Fortschritte gemacht und andere auch. Es ist nicht perfekt, weit weg, aber es ist besser als der Ruf. Ich finde, wir sind auch langsam in einer Märchengeschichte, wenn sie sagen, die Leute arbeiten nicht zusammen. Und ich habe harte Fälle mit PL, harte Fights. Ich habe harte Diskussionen mit PM und PF, aber am Ende kann ich mit jedem Leiter auf jeder Stufe zusammen sitzen und ein Bier trinken gehen. Ich will, dass die Leute zusammenarbeiten. Leitung meines Bereichs, da musst du meine Mitarbeiter und ein paar andere Kollegen fragen (Lachen). Zielorientiert? Ja. Sehr zielorientiert. Finde ich gut. Das

..I agree
..Cooperation depends on

..No clear response
..I agree
..I agree

Green was used for the two final questions.

..I agree

merke ich. Ich merke, die ganze Post arbeitet mit Zielen. Finde ich sehr gut.

83 Mod. [→]: Frage 58 und 59 klar?

84 Ja. Die Leitung des Bereichs kommuniziert glaubwürdig? Ja, wir sind glaubwürdig unterwegs. Frag meine Leute. Das nehmen sie mir ab. Das heisst nicht, dass sie einverstanden sind. Aber wenn ich etwas sage, nehmen sie es mir ab. Die GL ist sehr glaubwürdig in dem Sinne, dass wir, wie ich vorher gesagt habe - wenn wir uns mit unseren Leuten vernetzen - wir sehr stimmig in der Aussage sind, kein Widerspruch. Da sage ich, wir sind glaubwürdig. Und inhaltlich, ob sie alle einverstanden sind, das ist ein anderes Thema. Die Post hat sich positiv verändert. Erstens, wir haben unsere Ergebnisse halten können, stabilisiert, halten können. Als Post sind wir sehr stabil, sehr kohärent, konsistent von den Ergebnissen. Und positiv verändert, so ein Schiff ist extrem schwierig, im Zwei-Jahres-Rhythmus zu steuern. Aber in fünf Jahren hat es sich positiv entwickelt. Und die letzten zehn Jahre… . Zwei Jahre sind sehr kurzfristig für so eine grosse Organisation. Aber es ist okay. Was man sagen kann, die Ergebnisse waren stimmig, konsistent, kohärent. Deshalb kann man sagen, ja, in die richtige Richtung. Aber der grosse Unterschied zu vor fünf oder zehn Jahren, das ist eindeutig. Die Bereiche entwickeln sich in die richtige Richtung. Frag meinen Chef (Lachen). Wir gehen in die richtige Richtung. Ich glaube, die Bereiche entwickeln sich. Sie wissen, was sie tun haben, sie entwickeln sich in die richtige Richtung. Das Tempo ist zwar unterschiedlich. Aber ich finde es okay.

85 Mod.: Post CH AG gut aufgestellt?

86 Ich glaube schon. Ja, wir sind gut aufgestellt, denn am Ende liefern wir die Ergebnisse, die von uns erwartet werden. Finanziell, Kundenzufriedenheit, Leistung. Wir sind gut aufgestellt. Wohl wissend, es gibt nie eine perfekte Organisation. Ich kenne nicht die perfekte Organisation, aber ich weiss, gute Leute können unter

417

...I agree

verschiedenen Organisationen arbeiten. Organisation ist wichtig, aber es gibt keine perfekte Organisation. Ich habe immer eine Organisation, die funktioniert, aber was ich lieber habe, ist gute Leute. Gute Leute vertragen ähnliche Organisationen. Die finden umgekehrt nicht. Schlechte Leute – auch in einer Top-Organisation – die werden diese Organisation nie weiterbringen. Wir sind nicht perfekt, aber wir sind korrekt bis gut aufgestellt. Kunden, Ergebnisse. Das Angebot stimmt, die Leistung auch. Ist schon okay.

87 Mod.: Schlussfrage: Haben Sie noch etwas hinzuzufügen, bevor wir dieses Gespräch beenden?

...Nothing special

...Claims to have answered

88 Nein. Ich sage nur, ich war sehr ehrlich, transparent. Ich würde das Gesagte in jedem Gremium und bei allen Auftritten wiederholen. Zum Beispiel in Interlaken [Kaderkonferenz Post] gab es diese Diskussion zur Zusammenarbeit. Ich bin aufgestanden und habe gesagt: Ich teile diese Sicht nicht. Und merkwürdig, 95 Prozent waren auch einverstanden. Aber es war wieder eine theoretische Frage. Falsche Frage. Leute, die nicht an der Front stehen. Leute, die mit der Organisation arbeiten stellen nicht solche Fragen. Es können Fragen sein über die Zusammenarbeit, kann ich diese verbessern, aber nicht: Es gibt keine Zusammenarbeit. Ich bin allergisch, wenn sie so kommen.

89 Mod.: Vielen Dank für das Gespräch.

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418

Appendix XIX   Interview analysis, screenshot of the code structure

The following screenshot is an excerpt from the interview coding structure in
MAXQDA.
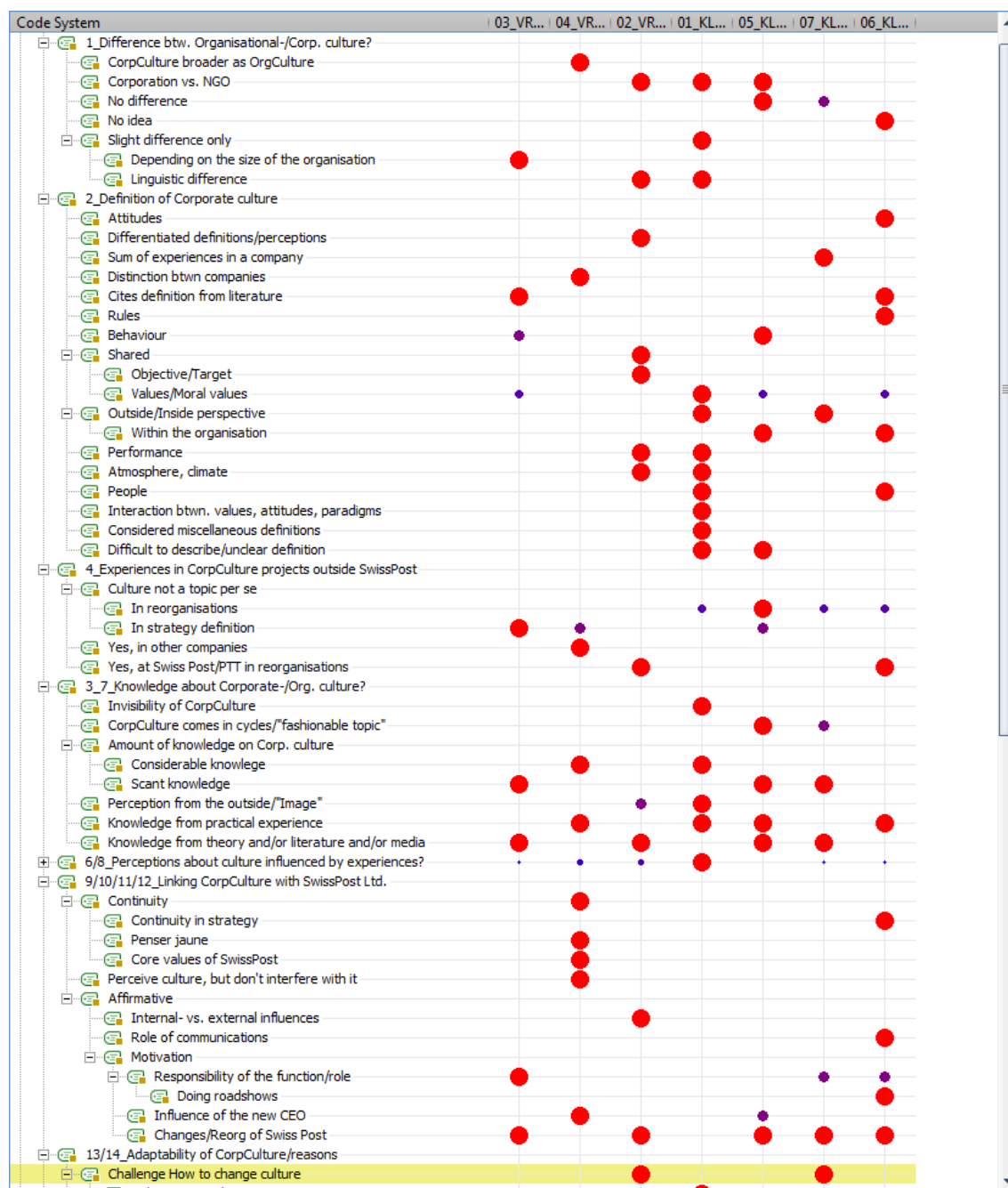
Note: By the researcher

Appendix XX   Sampling frame for data collection

Business unit			Availability of corporate e-mail			Gender			Language			Managing versus non-managing functions			Intended number of valid responses	Number of questionnaires to be distributed*
Category	Number	Percent	Category	Number	Percent	Category	Number	Percent	Category	Number	Percent	Category	Number	Percent		
PM	14,293	56.47	Yes	13,672	54.02	Male	7,662	30.27	German	5,521	21.81	Managing	2,606	10.30	103	257
PV	6,328	25.00										Staff	2,915	11.52	115	288
PL	4,688	18.52							French	1,784	7.05	Managing	821	3.24	32	81
												Staff	963	3.80	38	95
									Italian	357	1.41	Managing	206	0.81	8	20
												Staff	151	0.60	6	15
						Female	6,010	23.75	German	4,358	17.22	Managing	739	2.92	29	73
												Staff	3,619	14.30	143	357
									French	1,381	5.46	Managing	209	0.83	8	21
												Staff	1,172	4.63	46	116
									Italian	271	1.07	Managing	36	0.14	1	4
												Staff	235	0.93	9	23
			No	11,637	45.98	Male	7,998	31.60	German	5,566	21.99	Managing	21	0.08	1	2
												Staff	5,545	21.91	219	548
									French	1,944	7.68	Managing	11	0.04	0	1
												Staff	1,933	7.64	76	191
									Italian	488	1.93	Managing	3	0.01	0	0
												Staff	485	1.92	19	48
						Female	3,639	14.38	German	2,595	10.25	Managing	6	0.02	0	1
												Staff	2,589	10.23	102	256
									French	868	3.43	Managing	2	0.01	0	0
												Staff	866	3.42	34	86
									Italian	176	0.70	Managing	0	0.00	0	0
												Staff	176	0.70	7	17
Total	25,309	100.00	Total	25,309	100.00	Total	25,309	100.00	Total	25,309	100.00	Total	25,309	100.00	1,000	2,500

* = The researcher selected a factor of 2.5 to calculate the number of questionnaires needed for distribution, based on an expected response rate of 40%.

Appendix XXI   Conceptual framework of the cultural questionnaire

The sources of the items in the questionnaire (see Appendix XXII) are outlined below.

Item	Cultural dimension	Source of questionnaire item
1	Identification	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
2	Identification	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
3	Identification	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
4	Identification	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
5	Identification	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
6	Identification	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
7	Identification	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
8	Cooperation with the team	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
9	Cooperation with the team	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
10	Cooperation with the team	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
11	Cooperation with the team	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
12	Cooperation with others	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
13	Cooperation with others	PEU, question 16
14	Cooperation with others	PEU, question 17
15	Cooperation with others	DOCS, question 6
16	Motivation	PEU, question 3
17	Motivation	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
18	Motivation	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
19	Skills development	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
20	Skills development	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
21	Skills development	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis

(continued)

Item	Cultural dimension	Source of questionnaire item
22	Skills development	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
23	Customer orientation	PEU, question 50
24	Customer orientation	DOCS, question 37
25	Customer orientation	DOCS, question 36
26	Customer orientation	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
27	Customer orientation	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
28	Results orientation	PEU, question 30
29	Results orientation	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
30	Results orientation	PEU, question 31
31	Results orientation	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
32	Management	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
33	Management	DOCS, question 16
34	Management	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
35	Management	PEU, question 46
36	Change and innovation	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
37	Change and innovation	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
38	Change and innovation	DOCS, question 32
39	Change and innovation	DOCS, question 34
40	Change and innovation	PEU, question 43
41	Change and innovation	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
42	Communications	DOCS, question 50
43	Communications	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
44	Communications	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
45	Communications	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
46	Strategy	DOCS, question 48
47	Strategy	PEU, question 45
48	Strategy	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis
49	Strategy	Developed by the researcher, based on the interview analysis

Note: By the researcher

Appendix XXII   Cultural questionnaire

Corporate Culture Survey Swiss Post
Questionnaire
Closing date Wednesday, 7 November 2012

Version 08
15 October 2012

Study on corporate culture of Swiss Post: Explanation of the research

Dear employees,

The upcoming reorganisation with the split-up of Swiss Post into PostFinance Ltd, Post Bus Ltd, and Post CH Ltd – encompassing PostMail, Post Offices & Sales, PostLogistics and Swiss Post Solutions – as of 26 June 2013 and the recent change of Swiss Post's CEO makes corporate culture an interesting and important topic for Swiss Post. Do the views of the employees with regards to corporate culture in Swiss Post's communications- and logistics markets differ from those from the Board of Directors and Corporate Management? Are there different perceptions on corporate culture between the operations and the administration? Such issues are at the centre of my study, and this survey therefore represents an important milestone of my research. Your participation is voluntarily, but highly appreciated. This research is independent and not financed by Swiss Post, but is conducted with their approval and their logistics support.

Many thanks for your contribution and your participation!

Konrad Rietmann
Doctoral candidate and PostLogistics employee

Principles of the survey: Anonymity is guaranteed

This survey is conducted anonymously. No conclusions can be drawn about individuals. Please answer the questions honestly and entirely.

Completion time required

Please allow yourself 15 - 20 minutes to read the instructions and to fully complete this survey.

Instructions how to complete the questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of individual statements on which you can give your opinion. When giving your answer, think about your personal situation and your experience at the workplace. Please allow sufficient time to complete the questionnaire. There are no right or wrong answers.

To avoid misunderstandings, the following important terms are hereinafter explained:

- **Post CH Ltd** is to be founded as of 26 June 2013 and consists of PostMail (PM), Post Offices & Sales (PV), PostLogistics (PL), and Swiss Post Solutions (SPS). SPS however does not participate in this survey.
- **Unit** refers to the following business units: PostMail (PM), Post Offices & Sales (PV), and PostLogistics (PL).
- **Team** refers to the organisational unit managed by your direct line manager.
- **Customers** refer to both external and internal customers.
- The **work environment** encompasses all organisational units of Swiss Post with whose employees you regularly have contact as part of your work.
- **Management** stands for the management of your unit (e.g., management of PM, PV, PL).

Use the predefined scale from "I do not agree at all" to "I agree entirely" for your answers.

I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☒	☐

Enter a cross in the box under the opinion that is closest to your own. Please read each question closely to ensure what the implications are before you respond.

Please use a ball-point pen to fill in the questionnaire. To correct a wrong answer, please block out in pen the whole of the box you have marked by mistake (■). Please respond to all questions.

Please return this questionnaire in the enclosed prepaid envelope by **Wednesday, 7 November 2012** to

Konrad Rietmann, Austrasse 2, CH-8604 Volketswil

Many thanks for your valuable cooperation!

Identification

		I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely
1.	I feel like a member of the "Swiss Post family".	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	My identification with Swiss Post is not very high.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	Swiss Post's core value «reliable» is congruent with my own value propositions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	Swiss Post's core value «value-enhancing» is congruent with my own value propositions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	Swiss Post's core value «sustainable» is congruent with my own value propositions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	My identification with the business unit I work for (e.g., PM, PV, PL) is not very high.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	I would be glad to work for this company in future.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Cooperation within the team

		I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely
8.	Cooperation within my team is not good.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	In my team, we solve conflicts in a good way.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	My identification with my team is very high.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	I feel not at ease with my team.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Cooperation with others

		I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely
12.	Cooperation between my team and other teams is not good.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13.	Cooperation within my unit (e.g., PM, PV, PL) is good.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14.	Cooperation with other units of Swiss Post (units PM, PV, PL) is good.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15.	Cooperation across different parts of Swiss Post (units PM, PV, PL) is not actively encouraged.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Motivation

		I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely
16.	When I go home after work I feel like I have done something useful.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17.	Most employees at Swiss Post (PM, PV, PL units) are not motivated to give their best at work.	Question later deleted in the reliability analysis						
18.	I am motivated to give my best at work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Skills development

		I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely
19.	I do not want to develop professionally.	Question later deleted in the reliability analysis						
20.	Swiss Post (units PM, PV, PL) does not support the professional development of its staff.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21.	Skills of employees of Swiss Post (units PM, PV, PL) are constantly improving.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22.	The skills of Swiss Post employees (units PM, PL, PV) are developing stronger than skills of staff outside Swiss Post.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Customer orientation

	I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely
23. Swiss Post (units PM, PV, PL) has a positive image with customers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. Customer input does not directly influences our decisions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. Customer comments and recommendations very rarely lead to changes in my unit (e.g., PM, PV, PL).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26. Most employees at Swiss Post (units PM, PV, PL) do not do everything it takes to provide an excellent service to our customers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27. I do everything it takes to provide an excellent service to customers.	Question later deleted in the reliability analysis						

Results orientation

	I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely
28. My goals are clearly formulated.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
29. My goals are not attainable.	Question later deleted in the reliability analysis						
30. My goals help me to contribute to the success of my unit (e.g., PM, PV, PL).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
31. My goals do not help me to contribute to the success of Swiss Post (units PM, PV, PL).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Management

	I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely
32. Management of my unit (e.g., PM, PV, PL) does not act as role models.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
33. The leaders and managers at all levels of Swiss Post (units PM, PV, PL) do not "practice what they preach".	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
34. The leaders and managers of Swiss Post (PM, PV, PL units) act dutifully based on the best of their beliefs.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
35. I have confidence in the management of Swiss Post (units PM, PV, PL).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Change and innovation

	I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely
36. Our internal processes are not flexible and are difficult to change for new customer needs.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
37. Our products and services are flexible and easy to change for new customer needs.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
38. Swiss Post (units PM, PV, PL) responds well to competitors and other changes in the work environment.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
39. Changes in my work environment are usually not met with resistance.	Question later deleted in the reliability analysis						
40. I usually can adapt well to changes in my work environment.	Question later deleted in the reliability analysis						
41. The upcoming changes at Swiss Post do not make me insecure.	Question later deleted in the reliability analysis						

Communications

	I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely
42. The strategic direction of Swiss Post (units PM, PV, PL) is unclear to me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
43. I feel well-informed about the upcoming split-up of Swiss Post into PostFinance Ltd, PostBus Ltd, and Post CH Ltd (PM, PV, PL units).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
44. I understand the reasons of the upcoming split-up of Swiss Post into PostFinance Ltd, PostBus Ltd, and Post CH Ltd (units PM, PV, PL).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
45. I do not understand why Swiss Post (PM, PV, PL units) has to make a profit.	Question later deleted in the reliability analysis						

Strategy	I do not agree at all	I largely disagree	I tend to disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	I tend to agree	I largely agree	I agree entirely
46. There is <u>no</u> clear vision at Swiss Post (PM, PV, PL units) that gives meaning and direction to my work.	Question later deleted in the reliability analysis						
47. My unit (e.g., PM, PV, PL) is developing in the right direction.	Question later deleted in the reliability analysis						
48. I am sure that the split-up of Swiss Post into PostFinance Ltd, PostBus Ltd, and Post CH Ltd (units PM, PV, PL) is the right thing for the company.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
49. I am confident that the split-up of Swiss Post into PostFinance Ltd, PostBus Ltd, and Post CH Ltd (units PM, PV, PL) is <u>not</u> the right thing for me personally.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Final question

50. If you have any comments, views and/or expectations in relation to corporate culture at Post CH Ltd (business units PM, PV, PL), please indicate them.

Your text/answer to question 50:

_____

_____

_____

Please note the next, last page with the statistics data.

Statistics data

The following personal details are used to identify differences in the answers between various groups of employees. This allows examining, for example, whether there are differences in the assessment of corporate culture between individual age groups or between employees with or without line management functions. Your answers are subject to data protection regulations by the public British University of Gloucestershire. It is guaranteed that it will not be possible to draw conclusions about individuals.

a) **Gender**
☐ Female
☐ Male

b) **Age** (Please select your age group)
☐ Up to 19 years
☐ 20 to 29 years
☐ 30 to 39 years
☐ 40 to 49 years
☐ 50 to 59 years
☐ 60 years and over

c) **Business unit you work for**
(If more than one tenure: please select the unit of Swiss Post for which you work the most)
☐ PostMail (PM)
☐ Post Offices & Sales (PV)
☐ PostLogistics (PL)

d) **Are you a line manager?**
☐ No
☐ Yes

e) **Level of employment?**
☐ 90% or more
☐ 50% to 89%
☐ Less than 50%

f) **In which section do you work?**
☐ Operations (Distribution, postal clerks, sorting centres, warehousing, transportation etc.)
☐ Administration (e.g., Finance, Marketing, HR etc.)

g) **How long have you been working for Swiss Post?**
(Including years of apprenticeship)
☐ Less than 1 year
☐ 1 to 3 years
☐ Over 3 to 9 years
☐ Over 9 to 29 years
☐ Over 29 years

Please return this questionnaire in the enclosed prepaid envelope **until Wednesday, 7 November 2012** to Konrad Rietmann, Austrasse 2, CH-8604 Volketswil.

Should you have any questions, please contact Konrad Rietmann, ph. +41 58 338 35 09, konrad.rietmann@swisspost.ch or konradrietmann@connect.glos.ac.uk

Many thanks for your valuable cooperation!

Appendix XXIII   Risk mitigation procedures for this research

Risk	Consequences	Probability of occurrence	Risk prevention measures	Fall-back scenario/ alternatives
Lack of commitment of important stakeholders	Some data collection and analysis methods may not be possible	Low	As this research's objectives are potentially relevant to decision makers, the risk can be mitigated by highlighting the value-add of this research for the corporation	Select another corporation to conduct this research
Change of Post CH Ltd's CEO	Potential revision of strategy; change of the corporation's intended culture	Low	The researcher had to take the planned handover to a new CEO in 2012 and the consequences of a change in top management into account	Review the research design
Researcher's budget restrictions, high costs	Research methods and instruments exceeding the researcher's budget may not be considered	Medium	Clarification of sponsorship of certain activities such as postage costs by Post CH Ltd, although this could increase dependency. Such a dependency however already exists, being both a researcher and an employee of that organisation	Selection of alternative, less costly methods, such as a limitation to an intranet survey only, accepting less-adequate quantitative data
Job loss	Research at Swiss Post may become restricted	Low	Signing a mutual agreement to be able to finish research after leaving the company	Complete the research as an outsider
Change of strategy during this research	Fundamental market changes may render the strategy obsolete, influencing intended culture	Low	Cannot be influenced by the researcher. An unexpected, rapid deviation of the strategy between collection and analysis of data is however rather unlikely	None. Revise affected parts of the research or focus on those unchanged. Also, consider re-interviews
Major reorganisation	A major reorganisation influencing corporate culture may render some data obsolete	Low	Cannot be influenced by the researcher. Another large reorganisation in addition to Swiss Post's split-up is however considered unlikely	None. Revise affected parts of the research or focus on those unchanged. Also, consider re-interviews

Note: By the researcher

Appendix XXIV   Interview analysis, citations

The following citations are statements made by members of top management during the

interviews. The researcher selected them based on a subjective perception of a better

understanding of Post CH Ltd's culture, as it is seen by top management.

English translation	German original	Explanation
Out there are postal workers with a long tenure; Post as a family	Draussen sind langjährige Pöstler; Post als eine Familie	About the perception of Swiss Post's culture
By interviewing us, you have actually sensitised us about corporate culture	Sensibilisiert haben Sie uns jetzt eigentlich, indem Sie uns befragen	Regarding the relevance of corporate culture
Culture of an organisation cannot be the culture of the elite. The culture of 100 top managers cannot represent the culture of an organisation. Organisational culture is what 50,000 people live and support	Die Kultur einer Unternehmung kann nicht eine Kultur einer Elite sein. Die Kultur von 100 Topkadern kann nicht die Unternehmenskultur sein. Was die 50,000 Leute leben und mittragen, das ist die Kultur eines Unternehmens	About corporate culture in general
Swiss Post was lucky insofar to be able to develop and stabilise its business at times of a full or partial monopoly, where you have a task and decide on your own how fast, and how good you fulfil it. You do not have pressure	Die Schweizerische Post hatte das Glück, ihr Geschäftsmodell entwickeln und stabilisieren zu können zu Zeiten des Monopols; wo man eine Aufgabe hat und diese Aufgabe erfüllt und selbst entscheidet, wie schnell und wie gut man das macht. Man hat keinen Druck	About the difference of Swiss Post compared to other corporations
More important than positive headlines are the absence of negative ones	Wichtiger als viele positive Schlagzeilen ist, keine negativen	About Swiss Post's image
I would say that it is very important that the board of directors and executive management are aligned; I would even say aligned to the millimetre	Ich würde sagen, das ist so wichtig, dass der VR und die KL wirklich auch auf gleicher Linie sind. Millimetermässig, würde ich mal sagen	Referring to the degree of alignment between the board of directors and executive management
The corporation is much more important than the individuals	Das Unternehmen ist viel wichtiger als die einzelnen Leute	About the role of the board of directors to ensure Swiss Post's future

Note: By the researcher

Appendix XXV   Interview analysis, tag cloud

This tag cloud is an excerpt from MAXQDA, showing the most frequently mentioned words from the interviews in German (the language the researcher conducted the interviews). The larger the words appear, the more frequently were they used in the interviews. The most-frequently used word was "Post", followed by "culture" and "people". "Corporate culture" follows then before "employees", "organisation", "Swiss", "strategy", "corporation" and "important" which are on the fifth level, followed by the remaining terms.

arbeiten aspekte beeinflusst bereich bereichen besser change chef dimensionen entwickeln firma gehört geld gleiche heute jahren jeder **kultur** kunden **leute** leuten management menschen **mitarbeiter** mitarbeitern okay **organisation** organisationskultur **post** schweiz soll soll-kultur **strategie** team teil thema **unternehmen** unternehmens **unternehmenskultur** unterschied unterschiede vision werte **wichtig** zeit ziel ziele zukunft zusammen ändern

Appendix XXVI   Response rate of the cultural survey in detail

| | Paper-and-pencil version | | | | | | | | | | Intranet version | | | | | | | | | | Both | |
| | German | | French | | Italian | | Total | Total | | German | | French | | Italian | | Total | Total | | Total | Total |
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		No.	%
Question-naires distributed	827	100	278	100	87	100	1,192	100		975	100	313	100	62	100	1,350	100		2,542	100
Question-naires undelivered	1	.12	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	.01		0	0.0	1	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.07		2	0.08
Question-naires delivered	826	99.88	278	100	87	100	1,191	99.99		975	100	312	99.68	62	100	1,349	99.93		2,540	99.21
Question-naires received	518	62.71	186	66.91	45	51.72	749	62.89		692	70.97	224	71.79	39	62.09	955	70.79		1,704	67.09
Invalid question-naires	13	1.57	3	1.08	3	3.45	19	1.60		0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0		19	0.75
Valid question-naires	505	61.14	183	65.83	42	48.27	730	61.29		692	70.97	224	71.79	39	62.09	955	70.79		1,685	66.34

Note: By the researcher

Appendix XXVII   Employee comments related to cultural dimensions

Main category	Category	Sub-category	Number of codes	Dimension of intended culture
Swiss Post	Cooperation	Cooperation between units	39	Cooperation with others
		Cooperation between headquarters and line organisation	1	Cooperation with others
	Processes		38	-
	Profitability		28	Results orientation
	Corporate culture at Swiss Post in general		21	-
	Management		19	Management
	Image of Swiss Post		12	Customer orientation
	Future of Swiss Post		11	Strategy
	Identification with Swiss Post		10	Identification
	Quality		6	Results orientation
	Strategy		5	Strategy
	Monopoly		2	Strategy
	Reorganisation/split-up of Swiss Post	General comments	27	-
		Information/ communications	27	Communications
		Change in general	18	Change and innovation
		Insecurity	9	-
		New employment conditions	8	-
	Swiss Post in general		9	-
	Economising		9	Results orientation
	Swiss Post in jeopardy		3	Strategy
Line managers			24	Management
Humanity/corporate social responsibility			15	-
Innovation			3	Change and innovation
Suppliers			2	-

(continued)

Main category	Category	Sub-category	Number of codes	Dimension of intended culture
Employees	Stress, Work load		29	Motivation
	Remuneration		14	Motivation
	Motivation		12	Motivation
	Employment conditions	Working hours	5	-
		Full-time/part-time contracts	4	-
		Collective labour agreement versus Swiss Code of obligations	4	-
		Fear of negative consequences	2	-
		Miscellaneous	1	-
	Esteem/appreciation for employees		24	-
	Employee satisfaction		15	Identification
	Personnel development		10	Skills development
	Recruiting, selection and quality of employees		9	-
	Health of employees		9	-
	Employee involvement		8	-
	Team work		8	Cooperation within the team
	Objectives		6	Results orientation
	Maintaining jobs		6	-
	Regional differences		5	-
	Work life balance		3	Motivation
	Flexibility of employees		3	-
Customers	Customer service	In general	15	Customer orientation
		For senior citizens	2	Customer orientation
		For retail customers	2	Customer orientation
	General comments		9	Customer orientation
	Customer information		6	Customer orientation
	Products and services		6	Customer orientation
	Prices		3	Customer orientation
	IT tools for customers		1	Customer orientation

Note: By the researcher

Appendix XXVIII Cultural questionnaire, citations to open question

The following citations are statements from employees of Post CH Ltd from the

questionnaire's open question. The researcher selected them based on a subjective

perception of a better understanding of Post CH Ltd's culture as seen by the employees.

English translation	Original German, French, or Italian
From the paper-and-pencil version	
The focus shall be less on monetary aspects, but rather on customers and employees (closure of post offices and overload of work)	Il faudrait moins penser monétaire et plus penser client et collaborateur (fermeture d'office de Poste et surcharge de travail)
The responses would have been very different 20 years ago, where the Post was still the Post!	Les réponses aurait été totalement différente il y a 20 ans en arrière quant la poste était encore la Poste!
I have confidence in my employer and I love working for it, but this does not exclude having doubts and certain fears about the future	J'ai confiance dans mon entreprise et j'aime y travailler mais cela ne m'empêche pas de redouter le futur et d'avoir quelques craintes
At the times when Swiss Post was PTT… The family was beautiful!	Le temps où on s'appelait PTT… La famille était belle!
It would be very good if it were like in earlier times	C'était très bien si on revient comme c'était avant
I do not think it is economically feasible to centralise the parcel distribution centres far away from the end customers	Non trovo economico centralizzare il carico in basi distanti dal luogo di distribuzione
Swiss Post should be a cost-covering, non-profit oriented service enterprise	Die Post sollte ein kostendeckender Dienstleistungsbetrieb sein
In the majority, the clientele has troubles with the strategy (away from Post's core business to a general merchandise store)	Die Kundschaft hat grossmehrheitlich Mühe mit der Strategie (immer mehr weg von der Kernaufgabe zum Gemischtwarenladen)
There is not enough emphasis on the social competencies of the managers	Der sozialen Kompetenz des Chefs wird zu wenig Gewicht beigemessen
Even after 48 years of tenure, I can say that I chose the right employer!	Auch nach 48 Dienstjahren darf ich sagen, das ich den richtigen Arbeitgeber gewählt habe!
I think it is scandalous that postal workers have to pay for their car parking at the postal facility. I have not experienced this in any other corporation!	Ich finde es eine Frechheit, dass der Mitarbeiter Post, den Autoparkplatz bezahlen muss. Ich habe dies noch in keiner anderen Firma erlebt!

(continued)

English translation	Original German, French, or Italian
From the intranet version	
I think that the employees have not yet satisfactorily been informed about the upcoming changes at Swiss Post. I believe this leads to uncertainty of a number of people	Ich finde, dass die Mitarbeiter über die bevorstehenden Änderungen nicht ausreichend informiert werden. Meiner Meinung nach führt das bei gewissen Personen zu Unsicherheiten
In my view, all employees should have the same contractual work conditions (collective labour agreement or Swiss code of obligations). The actual work contracts are quite different, leading to a disruption between the employees . . .	Aus meiner Sicht sollten alle Mitarbeiter den Arbeitsvertrag in der gleichen Form (GAV oder OR) haben. Die Anstellungsbedingungen sind doch unterschiedlich, was zu einer Spaltung der Mitarbeiter führt . . .
Constructive communications and cooperation between the units (PV, PM, PL) does not work. Rather, power struggles lead to delays in projects	Konstruktive Kommunikation und Zusammenarbeit zwischen den Bereichen (PV, PM, PL) funktioniert nicht. Vielmehr finden Machtkämpfe statt, die oftmals zu Verzögerungen von Projekten führen
Corporate culture for me is more than it is reflected in this questionnaire; a lot goes beneath the surface and is difficult to grasp. A central aspect for me is trust of the management vis-à-vis the employees and a balance between duties, expertise, and responsibilities. This is the case in the departments that I know a bit better, and shows a good corporate culture	Unternehmenskultur ist für mich mehr als diese Fragen spiegeln, doch bei der Unternehmenskultur läuft eben vieles untergründig ab und ist schwierig zu fassen. Ganz wichtig ist für mich das Vertrauen der Führung gegenüber den Mitarbeitenden und eine ausgewogene AKV (Aufgaben, Kompetenzen, Verantwortung). Meines Erachtens ist dies in den Abteilungen meines Bereiches, die ich näher kenne, der Fall und zeigt eine gute Unternehmenskultur
Based on the requirement that PV has to be a cost-covering unit with own profit and loss responsibility, some process are detriment to the business, for example the massive increase in transfer prices between the business units. This leads the business units to working against each other, to the disadvantage of the customers . . .	Durch die Auflage, dass PV ebenfalls selbsttragend sein muss, ergeben sich geschäftsschädigende Vorgänge. Z.B. die massive Erhöhung der Transferpreise. Das führt dazu, dass die Bereiche gegeneinander arbeiten, zu Lasten der Kunden . . .
It is yet an open question for me what kind of corporate culture we are striving. Not before this is clearly communicated, I can ask myself whether I can identify myself with it	Für mich stellt sich die Frage, welche Unternehmenskultur wollen wir überhaupt. Erst wenn diese klar kommuniziert wird, kann ich mich fragen, ob ich mich mit dieser identifizieren kann

(continued)

English translation	Original German, French, or Italian
From the intranet version	
Mentality and attitude of postal workers between the urban and rural areas differ to a large extent, larger than I had expected. In the countryside, identification with the employer is high; everyone does one's best. In the cities, employees come to work for getting their salaries, if at all. There is more process orientation than customer orientation	Mentalität und Einstellung der Postmitarbeiter vom Landgebiet zu Stadtgebiet ist ein sehr grosser Unterschied, grösser als ich erwartete habe. Auf dem Lande identifiziert man sich mit dem Unternehmen und gibt sein Bestes. In der Stadt kommen die Mitarbeiter des Geldes wegen zur Arbeit, wenn überhaupt. Es wird mehr nach Prozess als im Sinne des Kunden gehandelt
In the market sector telecommunications, our supplier Swisscom Ltd does not treat us like a partner. It tarnishes Swiss Post's image if we cannot deliver the equipment to our customers. What a pity	Im Teilmarkt Telematik werden wir von unserem Gerätelieferanten Swisscom AG nicht als gleichwertige Partnerin wahrgenommen. Den Imageschaden tragen wir, wenn wir die Geräte unseren Kunden nicht wie gewünscht ausliefern können. Schade
Since Gygi's (a former CEO) times, there is the saying: It is easy to do business with us. Unfortunately, we ourselves do not live up this promise, especially when two business units are involved	Seit Gygis Zeiten gibt es das geflügelte Wort: Es ist einfach mit uns Geschäfte zu machen. Leider leben wir im Konzern Post diesem Grundsatz zu wenig nach, insbesondere wenn zwei Geschäftsbereiche betroffen sind
It would be nice if staff were internally informed about changes beforehand, and not via the media	Es wäre schön wenn das Personal nicht immer alle Neuerungen zuerst in den Medien lesen müssen bevor intern informiert wird
The business units PM, PV, and especially PV should be unified in order to have a better platform to design the products. This would be enormously beneficial for Swiss Post . . .	Die Bereiche PM, PL und vorallem PV sollten alle zusammengeführt werden um ein einfachere Produktpalette zu gestalten. Diese würden der Post als ganzes enorm helfen . . .
Appreciation is propagated as a very important aspect to ameliorate corporate culture, but it is not sufficiently implemented in daily business	Wertschätzung wird als überaus wichtiger Beitrag zur Verbesserung der Unternehmenskultur propagiert, aber in den Alltagsgeschäften sehr schwach gelebt
I am fine with the current path	Der eingeschlagene Weg stimmt für mich
It is to hope that with the upcoming changes, cooperation between business units can be ameliorated. This shall lead to a better mutual understanding, which can only be positive for Post CH Ltd	Es ist zu hoffen, dass mit den anstehenden Veränderungen die Zusammenarbeit unter den Bereichen verbessert werden kann. Dadurch soll das gegenseitige Verständnis erhöht werden, was für Post CH AG nur positiv sein kann

(continued)

English translation	Original German, French, or Italian
From the intranet version	
I perceive the strategy of PV as plain and credible. The orientation to our customers is lived on a daily basis	Ich nehme die Strategie PV als klar und glaubwürdig war. Auch die Ausrichtung auf unsere Kunden wird gelebt
Many topics such as flexibility, openness to change, further development, and cooperation in the team are aspects of mind over matter. If an employee does not want, then we cannot do anything	Viele Punkte, wie Flexibilität, Veränderungsbereitschaft, Weiterentwicklung und Teamfähigkeit sind Willensangelegenheiten. Wenn ein MA nicht will, dann können wir nichts machen
I see the necessity of change at PostMail distribution. An aspect of personal concern is however that we can offer less and less full-time jobs, leading to a decreased attractiveness for young professionals (logistics specialists)	Ich sehe die Notwendigkeit der Veränderung von PostMail Zustellung. Jedoch bereitet mir Sorge, dass wir immer weniger Mitarbeitenden eine Beschäftigung im Vollzeitbereich bieten können und so nicht mehr unbedingt ein interessanter Arbeitgeber für junge Berufsleute (Logistiker) sind
The sense of cohesiveness is decreasing from year to year	Das "Wir"-Gefühl wird tendenziell geringer von Jahr zu Jahr
One corporate culture of Swiss Post (not from three business units)	Eine Unternehmenskultur der Schweizerischen Post (nicht von drei Bereichen)
I think that our company is on the right track to successfully mastering the new challenges	Penso che la nostra azienda stia facendo i passi corretti per le nuove sfide
I am a strong defendant of this corporate culture, although certain faults exist. Top management has to promote maximal cooperation between the business units, despite the underlying financial restrictions . . .	Je suis un fervent défenseur de cette culture d'entreprise qui, parfois fait défaut. La direction du groupe doit faire en sorte de favoriser au maximum la collaboration entre les différentes unités, tout en tenant compte des impératifs financiers auxquels nous sommes soumis . . .

Note: By the researcher

Appendix XXIX   Descriptive statistics Q1 to Q49

This appendix outlines the descriptive statistics for Q1 to Q49. Q17, Q19, Q27, Q29, Q39, Q40, Q41, Q45, Q46, and Q47 were later deleted in the reliability analysis and are not outlined here. The researcher recoded the negatively worded items in SPSS. Q2 for example: "My identification with Swiss Post is NOT very high" is therefore understood as: "My identification with Swiss Post is very high".

Q1 to Q49	*N* Statistic	Min. Statistic	Max. Statistic	Mean Statistic	*SD* Statistic	Skewness Statistic	Std. error	Kurtosis Statistic	Std. error
Q1: I feel like a member of the "Swiss Post family"	1,683	1	7	4.91	1.40	-.86	.06	.53	.12
Q2: My identification with Swiss Post is NOT very high	1,674	1	7	5.36	1.64	-.87	.06	-.21	.12
Q3: Swiss Post's core value "reliable" is congruent with my own value proposition	1,676	1	7	5.82	1.16	-1.30	.06	2.32	.12
Q4: Swiss Post's core value "value-enhancing" is congruent with my own value proposition	1,677	1	7	5.37	1.15	-.91	.06	1.14	.12
Q5: Swiss Post's core value "sustainable" is congruent with my own value proposition	1,672	1	7	5.41	1.20	-.88	.06	.93	.12
Q6: My identification with the business unit I work for is NOT very high	1,672	1	7	5.47	1.60	-.93	.06	-.10	.12
Q7: I would be glad to work for this company in future	1,675	1	7	6.06	1.20	-1.73	.06	3.53	.12
Q8: Cooperation within my team is NOT good	1,682	1	7	5.66	1.58	-1.20	.06	.46	.12
Q9: In my team, we solve conflicts in a good way	1,683	1	7	5.43	1.40	-1.17	.06	.87	.12
Q11: I feel NOT at ease with my team	1,679	1	7	5.95	1.50	-1.60	.06	1.74	.12

(continued)

440

Q1 to Q49	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. error	Statistic	Std. error
Q12: Cooperation between my team and other teams is NOT good	1,675	1	7	5.26	1.48	-.77	.06	-.13	.12
Q13: Cooperation within own unit is good	1,683	1	7	5.34	1.21	-1.11	.06	1.45	.12
Q14: Cooperation with other units of Swiss Post is good	1,674	1	7	4.79	1.35	-.77	.06	.25	.12
Q15: Cooperation across different parts of Swiss Post is NOT actively encouraged	1,669	1	7	4.22	1.65	-.02	.06	-.86	.12
Q16: When I go home after work I feel to have done something useful	1,682	1	7	5.80	1.14	-1.44	.06	2.89	.12
Q18: I am motivated to give my best at work	1,682	1	7	6.10	1.13	-1.87	.06	4.36	.12
Q20: Swiss does NOT support the professional development of its staff	1,671	1	7	5.22	1.62	-.73	.06	-.30	.12
Q21: Skills of employees of Swiss Post are constantly improving	1,680	1	7	4.83	1.32	-.72	.06	.39	.12
Q22: The skills of Swiss Post employees are developing stronger than skills of staff outside Swiss Post	1,670	1	7	4.16	1.21	-.20	.06	.85	.12
Q23: Swiss Post has a positive image with customers	1,679	1	7	5.50	1.15	-1.31	.06	2.16	.12
Q24: Customer input does NOT directly influence our decisions	1,657	1	7	4.63	1.52	-.31	.06	-.66	.12
Q25: Customer comments and recommendations VERY RARELY lead to changes in my unit	1,670	1	7	4.27	1.59	-.11	.06	-.89	.12
Q26: Most employees at Swiss Post DO NOT DO everything it takes to provide an excellent service to our customers	1,668	1	7	5.22	1.54	-.75	.06	-.34	.12
Q28: My goals are clearly formulated	1,674	1	7	6.00	1.09	-1.65	.06	3.91	.12
Q30: My goals help me to contribute to the success of my unit	1,675	1	7	5.68	1.22	-1.18	.06	1.73	.12
Q31: My goals DO NOT contribute to the success of Swiss Post	1,673	1	7	5.79	1.39	-1.31	.06	1.39	.12

(continued)

Q1 to Q49	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. error	Statistic	Std. error
Q32: Management of my unit DOES NOT act as role models	1,675	1	7	5.30	1.66	-.88	.06	-.14	.12
Q33: The leaders and managers at all levels of Swiss Post DO NOT practice what they preach	1,671	1	7	4.92	1.57	-.51	.06	-.41	.12
Q34: The leaders and managers of Swiss Post act dutifully based on the best of their beliefs	1,672	1	7	5.02	1.34	-.62	.06	.19	.12
Q35: I have confidence in the management of Swiss Post	1,675	1	7	5.21	1.45	-.86	.06	.31	.12
Q36: Our internal processes are NOT flexible and are DIFFICULT to change	1,668	1	7	4.72	1.57	-.32	.06	-.80	.12
Q37: Our products and services are flexible and easy to change for new customer needs	1,670	1	7	4.78	1.36	-.48	.06	-.38	.12
Q38: Swiss Post responds well to competitors and other changes in the work environment	1,671	1	7	5.16	1.20	-.74	.06	.63	.12
Q42: The strategic direction of Swiss Post is UNCLEAR to me	1,672	1	7	4.77	1.61	-.41	.06	-.70	.12
Q43: I feel well informed about the upcoming split-up of Swiss Post into PostFinance Ltd, PostBus Ltd and Post CH Ltd	1,676	1	7	4.38	1.60	-.34	.06	-.72	.12
Q44: I understand the reasons of the upcoming split-up of Swiss Post into PostFinance Ltd, PostBus Ltd and Post CH Ltd	1,676	1	7	4.27	1.66	-.33	.06	-.72	.12
Q48: I am sure that the split-up of Swiss Post is the right thing for the company	1,675	1	7	4.26	1.59	-.23	.06	-.37	.12
Q49: I am confident that the split-up of Swiss Post is the right thing for me personally	1,674	1	7	4.40	1.70	-.14	.06	-.65	.12
Valid N (listwise)	1,518								

Note: By the researcher

Appendix XXX   Descriptive statistics, cultural dimensions

The descriptive statistics for the 11 cultural dimensions (without the items later deleted in the reliability analysis) is depicted here, sorted in descending order according to their average mean.

Cultural dimensions	Rank	N Statistic	Min. Statistic	Max. Statistic	Mean Statistic	SD Statistic	Skewness Statistic	Skewness Std. error	Kurtosis Statistic	Kurtosis Std. error
Total Motivation, divided by the 2 items	1	1,680	1	7	5.95	1.00	-1.55	.06	3.52	.12
Total Results orientation, divided by the 3 items	2	1,664	1	7	5.82	1.05	-1.15	.06	1.58	.12
Total Cooperation within the team, divided by the 4 items	3	1,675	1	7	5.65	1.20	-1.11	.06	.79	.12
Total Identification, divided by the 7 items	4	1,642	2	7	5.48	.95	-.80	.06	.62	.12
Total Management, divided by the 4 items	5	1,663	1	7	5.11	1.25	-.60	.06	.07	.12
Total Customer orientation, divided by the 4 items	6	1,645	2	7	4.90	1.01	-.25	.06	-.31	.12
Total Cooperation with others, divided by the 4 items	7	1,661	1	7	4.90	1.07	-.30	.06	-.08	.12
Total Change and innovation, divided by the 3 items	8	1,662	1	7	4.89	1.16	-.37	.06	-.27	.12
Total Skills development, divided by the 3 items	9	1,661	1	7	4.74	1.06	-.53	.06	.67	.12
Total Communications, divided by the 3 items	10	1,666	1	7	4.47	1.29	-.25	.06	-.28	.12
Total Strategy, divided by the 2 items	11	1,672	1	7	4.33	1.57	-.18	.06	-.36	.12
Valid N (listwise)		1,544								

Note: By the researcher

Appendix XXXI   Descriptive statistics, demographic variables

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Female	634	37.6	38.8	38.8
Valid	Male	1,001	59.4	61.2	100.0
	Total	1,635	97.0	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	50	3.0		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Age group of the respondent

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Up to 19 years	11	.7	.7	.7
	20 to 29 years	167	9.9	10.2	10.9
	30 to 39 years	282	16.7	17.2	28.1
Valid	40 to 49 years	574	34.1	35.1	63.2
	50 to 59 years	513	30.4	31.4	94.6
	60 years and over	89	5.3	5.4	100.0
	Total	1,636	97.1	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	49	2.9		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Mean: 44 years, 8 months

Business unit the employee works for

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	PostMail	870	51.6	53.6	53.6
Valid	Post Offices & Sales	438	26.0	27.0	80.5
	PostLogistics	316	18.8	19.5	100.0
	Total	1,624	96.4	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	61	3.6		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Line managing or staff function

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Employee function	1,246	73.9	76.2	76.2
	Managing function	389	23.1	23.8	100.0
	Total	1,635	97.0	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	50	3.0		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Level of employment (grouped)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	90% or more	1,240	73.6	75.7	75.7
	50% to 89%	393	23.3	24.0	99.8
	Less than 50%	4	.2	.2	100.0
	Total	1,637	97.2	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	48	2.8		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Mean: 86% average level of employment

Section the employee works in

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Operations	1,447	85.9	88.6	88.6
	Administration	187	11.1	11.4	100.0
	Total	1,634	97.0	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	51	3.0		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Length of service/tenure (grouped)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than one year	16	.9	1.0	1.0
	1 to 3 years	75	4.5	4.6	5.6
	Over 3 to 9 years	280	16.6	17.1	22.6
	Over 9 to 29 years	810	48.1	49.5	72.1
	Over 29 years	457	27.1	27.9	100.0
	Total	1,638	97.2	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	47	2.8		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Mean: 21 years 6 months

Language of the questionnaire

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	German	1,197	71.0	71.0	70.1
	French	407	24.2	24.2	94.5
	Italian	81	4.8	4.8	100.0
Total		1,685	100.0	100.0	

Paper-and-pencil or intranet questionnaire

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Intranet	955	56.7	56.7	56.7
	Paper-and-pencil	730	43.3	43.3	100.0
Total		1,685	100.0	100.0	

Appendix XXXII   Frequency distributions, Q1 to Q49

The frequency distributions are summarised here, without the questions that the researcher later deleted in the reliability analysis. Negatively worded questions are hereinafter capitalised.

Q1: I feel like a member of the "Swiss Post family"

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	52	3.1	3.1	3.1
	2 I largely disagree	69	4.1	4.1	7.2
	3 I tend to disagree	128	7.6	7.6	14.8
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	260	15.4	15.4	30.2
	5 I tend to agree	526	31.2	31.3	61.5
	6 I largely agree	513	30.4	30.5	92.0
	7 I agree entirely	135	8.0	8.0	100.0
	Total	1,683	99.9	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	2	.1		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q2 (reversed): My identification with Swiss Post is NOT very high

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	530	31.5	31.7	31.7
	2 I largely disagree	420	24.9	25.1	56.8
	3 I tend to disagree	292	17.3	17.4	74.2
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	149	8.8	8.9	83.1
	5 I tend to agree	152	9.0	9.1	92.2
	6 I largely agree	97	5.8	5.8	98.0
	7 I agree entirely	34	2.0	2.0	100.0
	Total	1,674	99.3	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	11	.7		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q3: Swiss Post's core value "reliable" is congruent with my own value proposition

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	12	.7	.7	.7
	2 I largely disagree	22	1.3	1.3	2.0
	3 I tend to disagree	42	2.5	2.5	4.5
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	93	5.5	5.5	10.1
	5 I tend to agree	375	22.3	22.4	32.5
	6 I largely agree	607	36.0	36.2	68.7
	7 I agree entirely	525	31.2	31.3	100.0
	Total	1,676	99.5	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	9	.5		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q4: Swiss Post's core value "value-enhancing" is congruent with my own value proposition

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	10	.6	.6	.6
	2 I largely disagree	28	1.7	1.7	2.3
	3 I tend to disagree	77	4.6	4.6	6.9
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	187	11.1	11.2	18.0
	5 I tend to agree	517	30.7	30.8	48.8
	6 I largely agree	636	37.7	37.9	86.8
	7 I agree entirely	222	13.2	13.2	100.0
	Total	1,677	99.5	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	8	.5		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q5: Swiss Post's core value "sustainable" is congruent with my own value proposition

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	12	.7	.7	.7
	2 I largely disagree	26	1.5	1.6	2.3
	3 I tend to disagree	80	4.7	4.8	7.1
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	196	11.6	11.7	18.8
	5 I tend to agree	471	28.0	28.2	46.9
	6 I largely agree	607	36.0	36.3	83.3
	7 I agree entirely	280	16.6	16.7	100.0
	Total	1,672	99.2	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	13	.8		
Total		1,685	100.0		

**Q6 (reversed): My identification with the business unit
I work for is NOT very high**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	577	34.2	34.5	34.5
	2 I largely disagree	421	25.0	25.2	59.7
	3 I tend to disagree	273	16.2	16.3	76.0
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	144	8.5	8.6	84.6
	5 I tend to agree	144	8.5	8.6	93.2
	6 I largely agree	89	5.3	5.3	98.6
	7 I agree entirely	24	1.4	1.4	100.0
	Total	1,672	99.2	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	13	.8		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q7: I would be glad to work for this company in future

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	20	1.2	1.2	1.2
	2 I largely disagree	18	1.1	1.1	2.3
	3 I tend to disagree	25	1.5	1.5	3.8
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	107	6.4	6.4	10.1
	5 I tend to agree	218	12.9	13.0	23.2
	6 I largely agree	509	30.2	30.4	53.6
	7 I agree entirely	778	46.2	46.4	100.0
	Total	1,675	99.4	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	10	.6		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q8 (reversed): Cooperation within my team is NOT good

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	665	39.5	39.5	39.5
	2 I largely disagree	484	28.7	28.8	68.3
	3 I tend to disagree	202	12.0	12.0	80.3
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	83	4.9	4.9	85.3
	5 I tend to agree	144	8.5	8.6	93.8
	6 I largely agree	78	4.6	4.6	98.5
	7 I agree entirely	26	1.5	1.5	100.0
	Total	1,682	99.8	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	3	.2		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q9: In my team, we solve conflicts in a good way

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	23	1.4	1.4	1.4
	2 I largely disagree	64	3.8	3.8	5.2
	3 I tend to disagree	132	7.8	7.8	13.0
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	93	5.5	5.5	18.5
	5 I tend to agree	342	20.3	20.3	38.9
	6 I largely agree	695	41.2	41.3	80.2
	7 I agree entirely	334	19.8	19.8	100.0
	Total	1,683	99.9	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	2	.1		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q10: My identification with my team is very high

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	22	1.3	1.3	1.3
	2 I largely disagree	43	2.6	2.6	3.9
	3 I tend to disagree	87	5.2	5.2	9.0
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	151	9.0	9.0	18.0
	5 I tend to agree	324	19.2	19.3	37.3
	6 I largely agree	635	37.7	37.8	75.1
	7 I agree entirely	419	24.9	24.9	100.0
	Total	1,681	99.8	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	4	.2		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q11 (reversed): I feel NOT at ease with my team

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	883	52.4	52.6	52.6
	2 I largely disagree	376	22.3	22.4	75.0
	3 I tend to disagree	161	9.6	9.6	84.6
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	93	5.5	5.5	90.1
	5 I tend to agree	78	4.6	4.6	94.8
	6 I largely agree	59	3.5	3.5	98.3
	7 I agree entirely	29	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	1,679	99.6	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	6	.4		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q12 (reversed): Cooperation between my team and other teams is NOT good

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	363	21.5	21.7	21.7
	2 I largely disagree	533	31.6	31.8	53.5
	3 I tend to disagree	314	18.6	18.7	72.2
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	224	13.3	13.4	85.6
	5 I tend to agree	152	9.0	9.1	94.7
	6 I largely agree	67	4.0	4.0	98.7
	7 I agree entirely	22	1.3	1.3	100.0
	Total	1,675	99.4	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	10	.6		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q13: Cooperation within my unit is good

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	18	1.1	1.1	1.1
	2 I largely disagree	36	2.1	2.1	3.2
	3 I tend to disagree	94	5.6	5.6	8.8
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	154	9.1	9.2	17.9
	5 I tend to agree	498	29.6	29.6	47.5
	6 I largely agree	678	40.2	40.3	87.8
	7 I agree entirely	205	12.2	12.2	100.0
	Total	1,683	99.9	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	2	.1		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q14: Cooperation with other units of Swiss Post is good

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	40	2.4	2.4	2.4
	2 I largely disagree	78	4.6	4.7	7.0
	3 I tend to disagree	166	9.9	9.9	17.0
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	278	16.5	16.6	33.6
	5 I tend to agree	547	32.5	32.7	66.2
	6 I largely agree	475	28.2	28.4	94.6
	7 I agree entirely	90	5.3	5.4	100.0
	Total	1,674	99.3	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	11	.7		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q15 (reversed): Cooperation across different parts of Swiss Post is NOT actively encouraged

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	162	9.6	9.7	9.7
	2 I largely disagree	282	16.7	16.9	26.6
	3 I tend to disagree	252	15.0	15.1	41.7
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	392	23.3	23.5	65.2
	5 I tend to agree	314	18.6	18.8	84.0
	6 I largely agree	188	11.2	11.3	95.3
	7 I agree entirely	79	4.7	4.7	100.0
	Total	1,669	99.1	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	16	.9		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q16: When I go home after work, I feel like I have done something useful

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	13	.8	.8	.8
	2 I largely disagree	24	1.4	1.4	2.2
	3 I tend to disagree	43	2.6	2.6	4.8
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	83	4.9	4.9	9.7
	5 I tend to agree	345	20.5	20.5	30.2
	6 I largely agree	704	41.8	41.9	72.1
	7 I agree entirely	470	27.9	27.9	100.0
	Total	1,682	99.8	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	3	.2		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q18: I am motivated to give my best at work

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	14	.8	.8	.8
	2 I largely disagree	20	1.2	1.2	2.0
	3 I tend to disagree	40	2.4	2.4	4.4
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	45	2.7	2.7	7.1
	5 I tend to agree	224	13.3	13.3	20.4
	6 I largely agree	594	35.3	35.3	55.7
	7 I agree entirely	745	44.2	44.3	100.0
	Total	1,682	99.8	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	3	.2		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q20 (reversed): Swiss Post does NOT support the professional development of its staff

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	453	26.9	27.1	27.1
	2 I largely disagree	411	24.4	24.6	51.7
	3 I tend to disagree	296	17.6	17.7	69.4
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	235	13.9	14.1	83.5
	5 I tend to agree	156	9.3	9.3	92.8
	6 I largely agree	76	4.5	4.5	97.4
	7 I agree entirely	44	2.6	2.6	100.0
	Total	1,671	99.2	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	14	.8		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q21: Skills of employees of Swiss Post are constantly improving

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	37	2.2	2.2	2.2
	2 I largely disagree	67	4.0	4.0	6.2
	3 I tend to disagree	143	8.5	8.5	14.7
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	323	19.2	19.2	33.9
	5 I tend to agree	554	32.9	33.0	66.9
	6 I largely agree	445	26.4	26.5	93.4
	7 I agree entirely	111	6.6	6.6	100.0
	Total	1,680	99.7	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	5	.3		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q22: The skills of Swiss Post employees are developing stronger than skills of staff outside Swiss Post

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	64	3.8	3.8	3.8
	2 I largely disagree	72	4.3	4.3	8.1
	3 I tend to disagree	182	10.8	10.9	19.0
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	841	49.9	50.4	69.4
	5 I tend to agree	286	17.0	17.1	86.5
	6 I largely agree	172	10.2	10.3	96.8
	7 I agree entirely	53	3.1	3.2	100.0
	Total	1,670	99.1	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	15	.9		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q23: Swiss Post has a positive image with customers

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	13	.8	.8	.8
	2 I largely disagree	28	1.7	1.7	2.4
	3 I tend to disagree	99	5.9	5.9	8.3
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	74	4.4	4.4	12.7
	5 I tend to agree	448	26.6	26.7	39.4
	6 I largely agree	783	46.5	46.6	86.1
	7 I agree entirely	234	13.9	13.9	100.0
	Total	1,679	99.6	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	6	.4		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q24 (reversed): Customer input does NOT directly influences our decisions

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	174	10.3	10.5	10.5
	2 I largely disagree	374	22.2	22.6	33.1
	3 I tend to disagree	372	22.1	22.5	55.5
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	337	20.0	20.3	75.9
	5 I tend to agree	245	14.5	14.8	90.6
	6 I largely agree	120	7.1	7.2	97.9
	7 I agree entirely	35	2.1	2.1	100.0
	Total	1,657	98.3	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	28	1.7		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q25 (reversed): Customer recommendations VERY RARELY lead to changes in my unit

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	123	7.3	7.4	7.4
	2 I largely disagree	307	18.2	18.4	25.7
	3 I tend to disagree	371	22.0	22.2	48.0
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	265	15.7	15.9	63.8
	5 I tend to agree	367	21.8	22.0	85.8
	6 I largely agree	173	10.3	10.4	96.2
	7 I agree entirely	64	3.8	3.8	100.0
	Total	1,670	99.1	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	15	.9		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q26 (reversed): Most employees at Swiss Post DO NOT DO everything it takes to provide excellent service to customers

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	366	21.7	21.9	21.9
	2 I largely disagree	523	31.0	31.4	53.3
	3 I tend to disagree	315	18.7	18.9	72.2
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	164	9.7	9.8	82.0
	5 I tend to agree	194	11.5	11.6	93.6
	6 I largely agree	84	5.0	5.0	98.7
	7 I agree entirely	22	1.3	1.3	100.0
	Total	1,668	99.0	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	17	1.0		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q28: My goals are clearly formulated

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	12	.7	.7	.7
	2 I largely disagree	15	.9	.9	1.6
	3 I tend to disagree	35	2.1	2.1	3.7
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	53	3.1	3.2	6.9
	5 I tend to agree	282	16.7	16.8	23.7
	6 I largely agree	656	38.9	39.2	62.9
	7 I agree entirely	621	36.9	37.1	100.0
	Total	1,674	99.3	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	11	.7		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q30: My goals help me to contribute to the success of my unit

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	16	.9	1.0	1.0
	2 I largely disagree	24	1.4	1.4	2.4
	3 I tend to disagree	52	3.1	3.1	5.5
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	146	8.7	8.7	14.2
	5 I tend to agree	366	21.7	21.9	36.1
	6 I largely agree	617	36.6	36.8	72.9
	7 I agree entirely	454	26.9	27.1	100.0
	Total	1,675	99.4	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	10	.6		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q31 (reversed): My goals DO NOT help me to contribute to the success of Swiss Post

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	665	39.5	39.7	39.7
	2 I largely disagree	478	28.4	28.6	68.3
	3 I tend to disagree	249	14.8	14.9	83.2
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	159	9.4	9.5	92.7
	5 I tend to agree	60	3.6	3.6	96.3
	6 I largely agree	38	2.3	2.3	98.6
	7 I agree entirely	24	1.4	1.4	100.0
	Total	1,673	99.3	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	12	.7		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q32 (reversed): Management of my unit DOES NOT act as role models

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	492	29.2	29.4	29.4
	2 I largely disagree	478	28.4	28.5	57.9
	3 I tend to disagree	209	12.4	12.5	70.4
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	223	13.2	13.3	83.7
	5 I tend to agree	141	8.4	8.4	92.1
	6 I largely agree	76	4.5	4.5	96.7
	7 I agree entirely	56	3.3	3.3	100.0
	Total	1,675	99.4	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	10	.6		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q33 (reversed): The leaders and managers at all levels of Swiss Post DO NOT practice what they preach

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	287	17.0	17.2	17.2
	2 I largely disagree	454	26.9	27.2	44.3
	3 I tend to disagree	229	13.6	13.7	58.0
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	421	25.0	25.2	83.2
	5 I tend to agree	159	9.4	9.5	92.8
	6 I largely agree	65	3.9	3.9	96.6
	7 I agree entirely	56	3.3	3.4	100.0
	Total	1,671	99.2	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	14	.8		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q34: The leaders and managers of Swiss Post act dutifully based on the best of their beliefs

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	28	1.7	1.7	1.7
	2 I largely disagree	48	2.8	2.9	4.5
	3 I tend to disagree	114	6.8	6.8	11.4
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	372	22.1	22.2	33.6
	5 I tend to agree	412	24.5	24.6	58.3
	6 I largely agree	499	29.6	29.8	88.1
	7 I agree entirely	199	11.8	11.9	100.0
	Total	1,672	99.2	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	13	.8		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q35: I have confidence in the management of Swiss Post

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	37	2.2	2.2	2.2
	2 I largely disagree	55	3.3	3.3	5.5
	3 I tend to disagree	128	7.6	7.6	13.1
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	225	13.4	13.4	26.6
	5 I tend to agree	387	23.0	23.1	49.7
	6 I largely agree	533	31.6	31.8	81.5
	7 I agree entirely	310	18.4	18.5	100.0
	Total	1,675	99.4	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	10	.6		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q36 (reversed): Our internal processes are NOT flexible and are DIFFICULT to change for new customer needs

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	218	12.9	13.1	13.1
	2 I largely disagree	412	24.5	24.7	37.8
	3 I tend to disagree	330	19.6	19.8	57.6
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	270	16.0	16.2	73.7
	5 I tend to agree	305	18.1	18.3	92.0
	6 I largely agree	94	5.6	5.6	97.7
	7 I agree entirely	39	2.3	2.3	100.0
	Total	1,668	99.0	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	17	1.0		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q37: Our products and services are flexible and easy to change for new customer needs

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	20	1.2	1.2	1.2
	2 I largely disagree	70	4.2	4.2	5.4
	3 I tend to disagree	265	15.7	15.9	21.3
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	230	13.6	13.8	35.0
	5 I tend to agree	526	31.2	31.5	66.5
	6 I largely agree	432	25.6	25.9	92.4
	7 I agree entirely	127	7.5	7.6	100.0
	Total	1,670	99.1	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	15	.9		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q38: Swiss Post responds well to competitors and other changes in the work environment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	15	.9	.9	.9
	2 I largely disagree	28	1.7	1.7	2.6
	3 I tend to disagree	110	6.5	6.6	9.2
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	265	15.7	15.9	25.0
	5 I tend to agree	520	30.9	31.1	56.1
	6 I largely agree	564	33.5	33.8	89.9
	7 I agree entirely	169	10.0	10.1	100.0
	Total	1,671	99.2	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	14	.8		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q42 (reversed): The strategic direction of Swiss Post is UNCLEAR to me

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	246	14.6	14.7	14.7
	2 I largely disagree	418	24.8	25.0	39.7
	3 I tend to disagree	322	19.1	19.3	59.0
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	280	16.6	16.7	75.7
	5 I tend to agree	258	15.3	15.4	91.1
	6 I largely agree	99	5.9	5.9	97.1
	7 I agree entirely	49	2.9	2.9	100.0
	Total	1,672	99.2	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	13	.8		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q43: I feel well informed about the upcoming split-up of Swiss Post into PostFinance Ltd, PostBus Ltd, and Post CH Ltd.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	84	5.0	5.0	5.0
	2 I largely disagree	147	8.7	8.8	13.8
	3 I tend to disagree	296	17.6	17.7	31.4
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	245	14.5	14.6	46.1
	5 I tend to agree	444	26.4	26.5	72.6
	6 I largely agree	340	20.2	20.3	92.8
	7 I agree entirely	120	7.1	7.2	100.0
	Total	1,676	99.5	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	9	.5		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q44: I understand the reasons of the upcoming split-up of Swiss Post into PostFinance Ltd, PostBus Ltd, and Post CH Ltd.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	129	7.7	7.7	7.7
	2 I largely disagree	140	8.3	8.4	16.1
	3 I tend to disagree	263	15.6	15.7	31.7
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	316	18.8	18.9	50.6
	5 I tend to agree	391	23.2	23.3	73.9
	6 I largely agree	317	18.8	18.9	92.8
	7 I agree entirely	120	7.1	7.2	100.0
	Total	1,676	99.5	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	9	.5		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q48: I am confident that the split-up of Swiss Post into PostFinance Ltd, PostBus Ltd, and Post CH Ltd is the right thing for the company

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	124	7.4	7.4	7.4
	2 I largely disagree	107	6.4	6.4	13.8
	3 I tend to disagree	186	11.0	11.1	24.9
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	595	35.3	35.5	60.4
	5 I tend to agree	252	15.0	15.0	75.5
	6 I largely agree	272	16.1	16.2	91.7
	7 I agree entirely	139	8.2	8.3	100.0
	Total	1,675	99.4	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	10	.6		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Q48 (reversed): I am confident that the split-up of Swiss Post into PostFinance Ltd, PostBus Ltd, and Post CH Ltd is NOT the right thing for the company

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 I do not agree at all	254	15.1	15.2	15.2
	2 I largely disagree	244	14.5	14.6	29.7
	3 I tend to disagree	179	10.6	10.7	40.4
	4 Neither agree nor disagree	583	34.6	34.8	75.3
	5 I tend to agree	182	10.8	10.9	86.1
	6 I largely agree	120	7.1	7.2	93.3
	7 I agree entirely	112	6.6	6.7	100.0
	Total	1,674	99.3	100.0	
Missing	99 Missing	11	.7		
Total		1,685	100.0		

Appendix XXXIII Correlation coefficient calculations

This table outlines the correlation coefficients within each dimension, sorted according to the average correlation.

Dimension in the order of the questionnaire	Average correlation coefficient	Highest correlation coefficient within dimension	Highest correlation coefficient with item number	Lowest correlation coefficient within dimension	Lowest correlation coefficient with item number
Cooperation within the team	.61**	.71**	Q9 with Q10	.54**	Q9 with Q11
Management	.60**	.66**	Q34 with Q35	.49**	Q32 with Q34
Strategy	.51**	.72**	Q48 with Q49	.41**	Q46 with Q48
Identification	.49**	.73**	Q4 with Q5	.34**	Q1 with Q3
Results orientation	.49**	.71**	Q30 with Q31	.31**	Q28 with Q29
Cooperation with others	.46**	.60**	Q13 with Q14	.35**	Q13 with Q15
Motivation	.41**	.57**	Q16 with Q18	.31**	Q15 with Q17
Communi-cations	.39**	.54**	Q43 with Q44	.28**	Q43 with Q45
Change and innovation	.29**	.68**	Q36 with Q37	.13**	Q36 with Q39; Q38 with Q39
Customer orientation	.28**	.57**	Q24 with Q25	.07**	Q25 with Q27
Skills development	.26**	.45**	Q20 with Q21	.05	Q19 with Q22

** = Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed). Spearman's rho, missing data pairwise

This table outlines the correlation coefficients between the cultural dimensions.

Dimension		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Identification (total)	Correlation coefficient	—										
	N	1,656										
Cooperation within the team (total)	Correlation coefficient	.50**	—									
	N	1,652	1,680									
Cooperation with others (total)	Correlation coefficient	.47**	.48**	—								
	N	1,647	1,670	1,673								
Motivation (total)	Correlation coefficient	.60**	.50**	.50**	—							
	N	1,652	1,676	1,669	1,680							
Skills development (total)	Correlation coefficient	.53**	.41**	.47**	.47**	—						
	N	1,642	1,665	1,661	1,664	1,668						
Customer orientation (total)	Correlation coefficient	.49**	.42**	.46**	.52**	.45**	—					
	N	1,646	1,668	1,661	1,669	1,657	1,672					
Results orientation (total)	Correlation coefficient	.56**	.50**	.52**	.57**	.47**	.49**	—				
	N	1,644	1,665	1,662	1,665	1,656	1,660	1,668				
Management (total)	Correlation coefficient	.57**	.48**	.57**	.55**	.54**	.52**	.57**	—			
	N	1,646	1,668	1,662	1,668	1,658	1,662	1,662	1,670			
Change and innovation (total)	Correlation coefficient	.47**	.36**	.49**	.42**	.42**	.48**	.51**	.55**	—		
	N	1,639	1,661	1,656	1,661	1,655	1,656	1,655	1,657	1,647		
Communications (total)	Correlation coefficient	.49**	.35**	.43**	.43**	.46**	.42**	.47**	.57**	.47**	—	
	N	1,648	1,670	1,665	1,670	1,661	1,664	1,664	1,666	1,644	1,673	
Strategy (total)	Correlation coefficient	.53**	.40**	.51**	.47**	.53**	.49**	.52**	.65**	.54**	.72**	—
	N	1,644	1,665	1,660	1,665	1,656	1,658	1,658	1,661	1,637	1,663	1,668

** = Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed), Spearman's rho, missing data pairwise

Appendix XXXIV Chi-square calculations

Based on Field's (2009) recommendations for large sample sizes, the researcher used the Monte Carlo method for the significance tests, resulting in the reporting of the exact significance values (two-tailed). Significant values are $p = .05$ or smaller (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2010). Field however (Field & Hole, 2003, quoted in Field, 2009, p. 53) cautions that very small and unimportant effects can turn out to be statistically significant just because a sample was large (which was the case in this research). To analyse effect sizes for two by two contingency tables, the phi coefficient is reported, the most commonly used one for such tables (Pallant, 2010). The researcher used Cramer's V for variables with more than two categories, based on Field's (2009, p. 695) recommendation.

Chi-square test on the categorical variable Gender.

With the categorical variable Age.

There was a significant association between gender and age. $\chi^2 (5) = 55.67$, $p = < .001$, Cramer's V = .19.

With the categorical variable Business unit.

There was a significant association between gender and the business unit. $\chi^2 (2) = 224.18$, $p = < .001$, Cramer's V = .39.

With the categorical variable Line manager.

There was a significant association between gender, and whether the respondents had a line managing function or not. $\chi^2 (1) = 45.12$, $p = < .001$, Phi = .17.

With the categorical variable Level of employment.

There was a significant association between gender and full-time versus part-time employees. χ^2 (1) = 383.38, p = < .001, Phi = -.49. The researcher expected this finding, as women have disproportionally higher part-time employment contracts.

With the categorical variable Section (operations or administration).

There was no significant association between gender and between functions in operations (for example in the distribution of parcels or letters, in the sorting centres, warehousing, post offices, or transportation) or administration (for example in Finance, Marketing, or HR). χ^2 (1) = 1.44, p = .233, Phi = .03.

With the categorical variable Tenure.

There was a significant association between gender and between functions in operations or administration. χ^2 (4) = 94.06, p = < .001, Cramer's V = .24.

With the categorical variable Language.

There was no significant association between gender and the language of the questionnaires. χ^2 (2) = 1.49, p = .475. Cramer's V = .04. See section 4.4.4 for the explanation of the low N for Language.

The findings from the categorical variable Gender are summarised here.

Compared with categorical variable	Pearson's χ^2	Sig. (2-sided)	N	df	Phi	Cramer's V
Level of employment	383.38	.000	1,632	1	-.49	-
Business unit	244.18	.000	1,616	2	-	.39
Tenure (length of service)	94.06	.000	1,631	4	-	.24
Age	55.67	.000	1,631	5	-	.19
Line manager function	45.12	.000	1,627	1	.17	-
Language	1.49	.475	829	1	-	.04
Section (operations or administration)	1.44	.233	1,627	1	.03	-

With the exception of Language and Section, all other categorical variables had significant associations with the variable Gender. The researcher found the highest χ^2 in the variable Level of employment.

Chi-square test on the categorical variable Age.

With the categorical variable Business unit.

There was a significant association between age and Post CH Ltd's business unit. χ^2 (10) = 61.56, p = < .001, Cramer's V = .14.

With the categorical variable Line manager.

There was a significant association between age, and whether the respondents had a line managing function or not. χ^2 (5) = 43.24, p = < .001, Cramer's V = .16.

With the categorical variable Level of employment.

There was a significant association between age and full-time versus part-time employees. χ^2 (5) = 14.48, p = .013, Cramer's V = .09.

With the categorical variable Section (operations or administration).

The researcher found a statistically significant association between the age of the respondents and whether they work in the operations, or in the administration. $\chi^2 (5) = 53.29$, $p = < .001$, Cramer's V = .18.

With the categorical variable Tenure.

There was a significant association between age and the length of service. $\chi^2 (20) = 904.49$, $p = < .001$, Cramer's V = .37. However, eight cells (26.7%) have expected counts less than 5, with a minimum expected count of .11. In such cases, Field (2009) recommends using the Fisher exact test instead of Pearson's χ^2, resulting in a value of 882.62. This finding is not surprising, as Age is strongly linked to Tenure, based on the impossibility that someone in the age group up to 19 years old would fall into a tenure category of over 9 to 29 year.

With the categorical variable Language.

There was no significant association between the age and the language. $\chi^2 (10) = 7.83$, $p = .624$, Cramer's V = .07. Five cells (27.8%) however have expected counts less than 5, with a minimum expected count of .11. The value for the Fisher exact test is 8.45.

The findings from the categorical variable Age are summarised here.

Compared with categorical variable	Pearson's χ^2	Fisher's exact test	Sig. (2-sided)	N	df	Cramer's V
Tenure (length of service)*	904.49	882.62	.000	1,633	20	.37
Business unit	61.56	-	.000	1,618	10	.14
Section (operations or administration)	53.29	-	.000	1,629	5	.18
Line manager function	43.24	-	.000	1,629	5	.16
Level of employment	14.48	-	.013	1,633	5	.09
Language*	7.83	8.45	.646	830	10	.07

* = Violation of the assumption of a minimum frequency of 5 or no expected frequency smaller than 1.

With the exception of Language, where the association was not significant, all other categorical variables had moderate to high associations with the variable Age. The researcher found the highest association in the variable Length of service (tenure).

Chi-square test on the categorical variable Business unit.

With the categorical variable Line manager.

There was a significant association between the business unit, and whether the respondents had a line managing function or not. χ^2 (2) = 20.23, p = < .001, Cramer's V = .11.

With the categorical variable Level of employment.

There was a significant association between business unit and full-time versus part-time employees. χ^2 (2) = 41.59, p = < .001, Cramer's V = .16.

With the categorical variable Section (operations or administration):

The researcher did not find a statistically significant association between the business unit and whether the respondents work in the operations or in the administration. χ^2 (2) = 3.44, p = .179, Cramer's V = .05.

With the categorical variable Tenure.

There was a significant association between business unit and tenure. χ^2 (8) = 39.61, p = < .001, Cramer's V = .11.

With the categorical variable Language.

There was no significant association between business unit and language. χ^2 (4) = 6.46, p = .167, Cramer's V = .06.

The findings from the categorical variable Business unit are summarised here.

Compared with categorical variable	Pearson's χ^2	Sig. (2-sided)	N	df	Cramer's V
Level of employment	41.59	.000	1,618	2	.16
Tenure (length of service)	39.61	.000	1,619	8	.11
Line manager function	20.23	.000	1,617	2	.11
Language	6.46	.167	818	4	.06
Section (operations or administration)	3.44	.179	1,618	2	.05

With the exception of Language and Section, which had no significant associations, all categorical variables had moderate to high associations with the variable Business unit. The researcher found the highest association in the variable Level of employment (part-time or full-time employees).

Chi-square test on the categorical variable Line manager.

With the categorical variable Level of employment.
There was a significant association between line management or staff functions and full-time versus part-time employees. χ^2 (1) = 88.36, p = < .001, Phi = -.23.

With the categorical variable Section (operations or administration).
The researcher did not find a statistically significant association between line management or staff functions and whether the respondents work in the operations or in the administration. χ^2 (1) = .93, p = .335, Phi = .24.

With the categorical variable Tenure.
There was a significant association between line management or staff functions and tenure. χ^2 (4) = 37.81, p = < .001, Cramer's V = .15.

With the categorical variable Language.

There was no significant association between line management or staff functions and language. χ^2 (2) = 1.53, p = .465, Cramer's V = .04.

The findings from the categorical variable Line manager are summarised here.

Compared with categorical variable	Pearson's χ^2	Sig. (2-sided)	N	df	Phi	Cramer's V
Level of employment	88.36	.000	1,629	1	-.23	-
Tenure (length of service)	37.81	.000	1,631	4	-	.15
Language	1.53	.465	829	2	-	.04
Section (operations or administration)	.93	.335	1,627	1	.24	-

Level of employment (full-time or part-time employees) and Tenure had significant associations with the categorical variable Line manager, whereas the associations with Language and Section were not significant.

Chi-square test on the categorical variable Level of employment.

With the categorical variable Section (operations or administration):
There was a slight, but significant association between the level of employment and whether the respondents work in the operations or in the administration. χ^2 (1) = 4.27, p = .039, Phi = -.05.

With the categorical variable Tenure.

There was a significant association between level of employment and tenure. χ^2 (4) = 53.56, p = < .001, Cramer's V = .18.

With the categorical variable Language.

There was no significant association between level of employment and language. χ^2 (2)

= 2.76, p = .251, Cramer's V = .06.

The findings from the categorical variable Level of employment are summarised here.

Compared with categorical variable	Pearson's χ^2	Sig. (2-sided)	N	df	Phi	Cramer's V
Tenure (length of service)	53.56	.000	1,635	4	-	.18
Section (operations or administration)	4.27	.039	1,631	1	-.05	-
Language	2.76	.251	831	2	-	.06

The variables Tenure and Section had significant associations with the categorical

variable Level of employment (part-time or full-time employees). The researcher found

no significant association with Language.

Chi-square test on the categorical variable Section.

With the categorical variable Tenure.

There was a significant association between Section (operations or administration) and

Tenure. χ^2 (4) = 41.38, p = < .001, Cramer's V = .16.

With the categorical variable Language.

There was no significant association between the level of employment and the

respondent's language. χ^2 (2) = 2.76, p = .166, Cramer's V = .07.

The findings from the categorical variable Section (operations or administration) are summarised here.

Compared with categorical variable	Pearson's χ^2	Sig. (2-sided)	N	df	Cramer's V
Tenure (length of service)	41.38	.000	1,632	4	.16
Language	3.59	.166	828	2	.07

The variable Tenure had a significant association with the categorical variable Section (operations or administration), whereas the association with Language was not significant.

Chi-square test on the categorical variable Tenure.

With the categorical variable Language.

The association between Tenure and Language was not significant. χ^2 (8) = 2.25, p = .972, Cramer's V = .04.

The summary of the χ^2 values for all categorical dimensions is outlined here.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Gender	—							
Age	55.67	—						
Business unit the employee works for	244.18	61.56	—					
Line manager function	45.12	43.24	20.23	—				
Level of employment	383.38	14.48	41.59	88.36	—			
Section	1.44	53.29	3.44	.93	4.27	—		
Tenure (length of service)	94.06	904.49[*]	39.61	37.81	53.56	41.38	—	
Language	1.49	7.83[*]	6.46	1.53	2.76	3.59	2.25	—

[*] = Violation of the assumption of a minimum frequency of 5 or no expected frequency smaller than 1.

The significance levels of the chi-square calculations are summarised as follows. Significant associations are prevalent in the categorical dimensions, with the exception of Section and Language.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Gender	—							
Age	.000	—						
Business unit the employee works for	.000	.000	—					
Line manager function	.000	.000	.000	—				
Level of employment	.000	.013	.000	.000	—			
Section	.233	.000	.179	.335	.039	—		
Tenure (length of service)	.000	.000*	.000	.000	.000	.000	—	
Language	.475	.646*	.167	.465	.251	.166	.972	—

* = Violation of the assumption of a minimum frequency of 5 or no expected frequency smaller than 1.

Appendix XXXV   Mann Whitney U calculations

The Mann Whitney U test was calculated without the Komolgorov-Smirnov Z test type, as sample size was large (Field, 2009). The researcher calculated effect size *r* by dividing the z-value by the square root of N. The researcher used the Monte Carlo method for the significance tests for both Mann Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis test. See section 4.6.1 for the findings of the calculation on the overall construct.

Mann Whitney U test with the categorical variable Gender.

On the cultural dimensions.

The researcher found statistically significant differences at the .05 confidence level in the cultural dimensions Identification, Motivation, Customer orientation, Change and innovation, and Communications.

Males ($Md = 40$, $n = 979$) were found to have a higher rank in the dimension Identification than females ($Md = 39$, $n = 618$), $U = 277998.5$, $z = -2.73$, $p = .006$, $r = -.08$.

Males ($Md = 12$, $n = 999$) were found to have a higher rank in the dimension Motivation than females ($Md = 12$, $n = 637$), $U = 286614.5$, $z = -3.2$, $p = .001$, $r = -.08$.

Males ($Md = 20$, $n = 982$) were found to have a higher rank in the dimension Customer orientation than females ($Md = 19$, $n = 620$), $U = 267375$, $z = -4.2$, $p = < .001$, $r = -.10$).

Males ($Md = 15$, $n = 996$) were found to have a higher rank in the dimension Change and innovation than females ($Md = 15$, $n = 625$), $U = 273551.5$, $z = -3.94$, $p = < .001$, $r = -.10$.

Males ($Md = 14$, $n = 995$) were found to have a higher rank in the dimension Communications than females ($Md = 13$, $n = 626$), $U = 285481$, $z = -2.84$, $p = < .001$, $r = -.07$.

On the cultural dimensions.

The researcher found statistically significant differences at the .05 confidence level in 9 of the 11 cultural dimensions.

Significant differences between employees with line managing functions ($Md = 41$, $n = 388$) and staff ($Md = 39$, $n = 1,210$), $U = 177252.5$, $z = -7.28$, $p = < .001$, $r = -.18$ were found in the dimension Identification.

Significant differences between employees with line managing functions ($Md = 20$, $n = 389$) and staff ($Md = 20$, $n = 1,226$), $U = 196102$, $z = -5.48$, $p = < .001$, $r = -.14$ were found in the dimension Cooperation within the team.

Significant differences between employees with line managing functions ($Md = 12$, $n = 389$) and staff ($Md = 12$, $n = 1,242$), $U = 219956$, $z = -2.72$, $p = .005$, $r = -.07$ were found in the dimension Motivation.

Significant differences between employees with line managing functions ($Md = 15$, $n = 388$) and staff ($Md = 12$, $n = 1,226$), $U = 199075$, $z = -4.87$, $p = < .001$, $r = -.12$ were found in the dimension Skills development.

Significant differences between employees with line managing functions ($Md = 21$, $n = 389$) and staff ($Md = 19$, $n = 1,212$), $U = 195231$, $z = -5.12$, $p = < .001$, $r = -.13$ were found in the dimension Customer orientation.

Significant differences between employees with line managing functions ($Md = 18$, $n = 389$) and staff ($Md = 18$, $n = 1,230$), $U = 206027$, $z = -4.17$, $p = < .001$, $r = -.10$ were found in the dimension Results orientation.

Significant differences between employees with line managing functions ($Md = 23$, $n = 389$) and staff ($Md = 20$, $n = 1,230$), $U = 195067.5$, $z = -5.51$, $p = < .001$, $r = -.14$ were found in the dimension Management.

Significant differences between employees with line managing functions ($Md = 15$, $n = 388$) and staff ($Md = 13$, $n = 1,233$), $U = 166524.5$, $z = -7.69$, $p = < .001$, $r = -.19$ were found in the cultural Communications.

Significant differences between employees with line managing functions ($Md = 9$, $n = 388$) and staff ($Md = 8$, $n = 1,237$), $U = 205020.5$, $z = -4.40$, $p = < .001$, $r = -.11$ were found in the dimension Strategy.

Mann Whitney U test with the categorical variable Level of employment.

On the cultural dimensions.

The only statistically significant difference between full-time employees ($Md = 20$, $n = 1,228$) and part-time employees ($Md = 20$, $n = 389$), $U = 210930$, $z = -3.49$, $p = < .001$, $r = -.09$) was found in the dimension Cooperation with others.

Mann Whitney U test with the categorical variable Tenure.

On the cultural dimensions.

The researcher found statistically significant differences at the .05 confidence level in the cultural dimensions Identification, Motivation, Customer orientation, Results orientation, Change and innovation, and Strategy.

Significant differences between employees with length of service up to nine years ($Md = 39$, $n = 358$) and those with more than nine years tenure ($Md = 40$, $n = 1,241$), $U = 204113$, $z = -2.35$, $p = .019$, $r = -.06$) were found in the dimension Identification. The longer serving employees seem to have a higher identification with their employer.

Significant differences between employees with length of service up to nine years ($Md = 12$, n= 370) and those with more than nine years tenure ($Md = 12$, $n = 1,264$), $U = 203996$, $z = -3.81$, $p = < .001$, $r = -.09$) were found in the dimension Motivation. The longer serving employees seem to be more motivated.

Significant differences between employees with length of service up to nine years (Md = 19, n = 354) and those with more than nine years tenure (Md = 20, n = 1,250), U = 199012, z = -3.90, p = .004, r = -.10) were found in the dimension Customer orientation. The longer serving employees seem to have a higher customer orientation.

Significant differences between employees with length of service up to nine years (Md = 18, n = 364) and those with more than nine years tenure (Md = 18, n = 1,258), U = 211913.5, z = -2.183, p = .030, r = -.05) were found in the dimension Results orientation. The longer serving employees seem to have a higher orientation for results.

Significant differences between employees with length of service up to nine years (Md = 14, n = 365) and those with more than nine years tenure (Md = 15, n = 1,254), U = 211398, z = -2.23, p = .026, r = -.06) were found in the dimension Change and innovation. The longer serving employees seem to be less reluctant to change and innovation.

Significant differences between employees with length of service up to nine years (Md = 8, n = 365) and those with more than nine years tenure (Md = 8, n = 1,262), U = 206836.5, z = -3.01, p = .003, r = -.07) were found in the dimension Strategy. The longer serving employees seem to be less informed about the upcoming changes at Swiss Post.

Appendix XXXVI Kruskal-Wallis calculations

For the post-hoc test in the Kruskal-Wallis test, the researcher applied a Bonferroni correction. Jonkckheere-Terpstra test was not selected; Field (2009) recommends it when the groups compared are expected to produce a meaningful order of medians. The researcher used the Monte Carlo method for the significance tests for both Mann Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis test. See section 4.6.2 for the findings of the calculation on the overall construct.

Kruskal-Wallis test with the categorical variable Age.

On the cultural dimensions.

The researcher found statistically significant differences at the .05 confidence level in 3 of the 11 cultural dimensions: Cooperation with others, Motivation, and Customer orientation.

A statistically significant difference between the age groups was observed in the perception of the dimension Cooperation with others, $H(2) = 12.79$, $p = .002$. The researcher conducted three Mann Whitney U tests to follow up this finding, using a Bonferroni correction, so all effects are reported at a .0167 level of significance (up to 29 years, $n = 177$; 30 to 49 year, $n = 845$; 50 years and over, $n = 593$).

Age group up to 29 years ($Md = 20$) recorded higher scores than group 30 to 49 year old ($Md = 19$), $U = 67805.5$, $r = -.08$).

Age group 50 years and over ($Md = 20$) recorded higher scores than 30 to 49 year ($Md = 19$), $U = 224254$, $r = -.09$). The researcher did not find statistically significant differences between the age group up to 29 years old and employees aged 50 years and over.

A statistically significant difference between the age groups was observed in the perception of the dimension Motivation, $H(2) = 21.62$, $p = < .001$. The researcher

conducted three Mann Whitney U tests to follow up this finding, using a Bonferroni correction, so all effects are reported at a .0167 level of significance (up to 29 years, n = 178; 30 to 49 year, n = 854; 50 years and over, n = 600).

Age group 30 to 49 year (Md = 12) recorded higher scores in motivation than up to 29 years (Md = 12), U = 63596.5, r = -.11).

Employees 50 years and over (Md = 12) recorded higher scores than up to 29 years old employees (Md = 12), U = 41743, r = -.16. The difference between age group 30 to 49 year old and those aged 50 years and over was not statistically significant at the .0167 level of significance.

A statistically significant difference between the age groups was observed in the perception of the dimension Customer orientation, H (2) = 11.99, p = .002. The researcher conducted three Mann Whitney U tests to follow up this finding using a Bonferroni correction, so all effects are reported at a .0167 level of significance (up to 29 years, n = 171; 30 to 49 year, n = 841; 50 years and over, n = 589).

Age group 30 to 49 year (Md = 20) hereby recorded higher scores in customer orientation than up age group up to 29 years (Md = 19), U = 60088.5, r = -.11).

50 years and over (Md = 20) recorded higher scores in customer orientation than employees up to 29 years old (Md = 19), U = 42465.5, r = -.11.

The difference between age group 30 to 49 year old and those aged 50 and over was not statistically significant.

Kruskal-Wallis test with the categorical variable Business unit.

On the cultural dimensions.

The researcher found statistically significant differences at the .05 confidence level in 4 of the 11 cultural dimensions, Cooperation with others, Motivation, Customer orientation, and Change and innovation.

A statistically significant difference between the three business units was observed in the perception of the dimension Cooperation with others, $H(2) = 7.52$, $p = .023$. The researcher conducted three Mann Whitney U tests to follow up this finding using a Bonferroni correction, so all effects are reported at a .0167 level of significance (PM, $n = 855$; PV, $n = 438$; PL, $n = 310$). PM ($Md = 20$) recorded higher scores than PV ($Md = 19$), $U = 169644.5$, $r = -.08$). The differences between PM and PL, and between PL with PV, were not statistically significant at the .0167 level of significance.

A statistically significant difference between the three business units was observed in the perception of the dimension Motivation, $H(2) = 50.58$, $p = < .001$. The researcher conducted three Mann Whitney U tests using a Bonferroni correction to follow up this finding, so all effects are reported at a .0167 level of significance (PM, $n = 867$; PV, $n = 438$; PL, $n = 310$). PM ($Md = 13$) recorded higher scores than PV ($Md = 12$), $U = 144833.5$, $r = -.20$). PL ($Md = 12$) had higher scores than PV ($Md = 12$), $U = 56884.5$, $r = -.15$). The difference between PM and PL was not statistically significant.

A statistically significant difference between the three business units was observed in the perception of the dimension Customer orientation, $H(2) = 41.98$, $p = < .001$. The researcher conducted three Mann Whitney U tests to follow up this finding, using a Bonferroni correction, so all effects are reported at a .0167 level of significance (PM, $n = 851$; PV, $n = 438$; PL, $n = 302$). PM ($Md = 20$) recorded higher scores than PV ($Md = 19$), $U = 147753$, $r = -.17$). PL ($Md = 20$) had higher scores than PV ($Md = 19$), $U = 51887$, $r = -.18$). The difference between PM and PL was not statistically significant.

A statistically significant difference between the three business units was observed in the perception of the dimension Change and innovation, $H(2) = 72.88$, $p = < .001$. The researcher conducted three Mann Whitney U tests to follow up this finding, using a Bonferroni correction, so all effects are reported at a .0167 level of significance (PM, $n = 856$; PV, $n = 438$; PL, $n = 311$). PM ($Md = 15$) hereby recorded higher scores than PV

(*Md* = 13), *U* = 139088.5, *r* = -.21). PL (*Md* = 16) had higher scores than PV (*Md* = 13),

U = 47129.5, *r* = -.26). The difference between PM and PL was not statistically

significant.

Appendix XXXVII Item comparison with Swiss Post's employee survey

This descriptive statistics outlines the differences between the mean and the *SD* statistic (second-last and last column from the right) between the data

from Swiss Post's employee survey (PEU) and the recoded data from this cultural survey.

Item	Min. Statistic	Max Statistic	No. of question in PEU	Data from cultural questionnaire converted (x - 1) * 16.67			Data from employee survey PEU			Difference between the cultural questionnaire and	
				N Statistic	Mean Statistic	*SD* Statistic	*N* Statistic	Mean Statistic	*SD* Statistic	Mean Statistic	SD Statistic
Q13: Cooperation within own unit is good	0	100	16	1,683	72.27	20.11	19,942	74.25	19.28	-1.98	0.83
Q14: Cooperation with other units of Swiss Post is good	0	100	17	1,674	63.19	22.49	19,017	68.80	20.97	-5.61	1.52
Q16: When I go home after work I feel to have done something useful	0	100	3	1,682	80.05	18.97	20,467	81.0	19.35	-0.95	-0.38
Q23: Swiss Post has a positive image with customers	0	100	50	1,679	75.04	19.20	19,814	73.94	20.68	1.10	-1.49
Q28: My goals are clearly formulated	0	100	30	1,674	83.41	18.09	20,243	82.45	18.22	0.96	-0.14
Q30: My goals help me to contribute to the success of my unit	0	100	31	1,675	78.00	20.30	20,038	80.00	18.88	-2.00	1.42
Q35: I have confidence in the management of Swiss Post	0	100	46	1,675	70.24	24.17	19,821	69.32	24.81	0.92	-0.64
Valid *N* (listwise)				1,654			16,329				