

Report Part Title: METHODOLOGY

Report Title: IS THE ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE OF THE U.S. ARMY CONGRUENT WITH THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF ITS SENIOR LEVEL OFFICER CORPS?

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Strategic Studies Institute, US Army War College (2010)

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METHODOLOGY

An Overview of the Competing Values Framework (CVF) Model.

The CVF evolved from the work of Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981, 1983) as they attempted to circumscribe the elusive definition for a generally agreed upon theoretical framework of the concept of organizational effectiveness. This framework was chosen for this study because it was experimentally derived and found to have a high degree of face and empirical validity. Additionally, the CVF was identified as having a high level of reliability matching or exceeding that of other instruments commonly used in the social and organizational sciences (Cameron and Ettington, 1988; Cameron and Quinn, 1999; Berrio, 2003). The four quadrants of the framework, representing the four major cultural types: clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy, provide a robust explanation of the differing orientations and competing values that characterize human behavior. The richness provided by the CVF is based on its ability to identify the basic assumptions, orientations, and values of each of the four cultural types. These three elements comprise the core of organizational culture. "The OCAI, therefore, is an instrument that allows you to diagnose the dominant orientation of your own organization based on these core culture types. It also assists you in diagnosing your organization's cultural strength, cultural type, and cultural congruence" (Cameron and Quinn, 1999, p. 33). Through the use of the OCAI and its associated MSAI, this study identifies the cultural type of the U.S. Army, as defined by the study population, and

the managerial/leadership skills of its senior leaders, thereby establishing the level of congruence between culture and professional development as depicted by the building block model graphically portrayed in Figure 4 above.

In their research concerning organizational effectiveness, Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981, 1983) statistically analyzed 39 indicators of organizational effectiveness as identified by Campbell *et al.*, (1974). Quinn and Rohrbaugh's analysis resulted in the bifurcation of the 39 effectiveness criteria between two major dimensions. The first dimension, which is labeled the "Structure" dimension, differentiates the organizational effectiveness criteria between those that emphasize flexibility, discretion, and dynamism and those that emphasize stability, order, and control. The second dimension, which is labeled the "Focus" dimension, differentiates the organizational effectiveness criteria between those that emphasize internal orientation, integration, and unity and those effectiveness criteria that emphasize an external orientation, differentiation, and rivalry (Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1981 and 1983; Cameron and Quinn, 1999). Within each of these two dimensions there is also a third set of values, which produces an emphasis ranging from organizational processes, such as planning and goal setting at one end of the spectrum, to an emphasis on results, such as resource acquisition at the other end. Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981) labeled this third set of values as the organizational "Means-Ends" continuum. The two primary dimensions differentiating between organizational values emphasizing "Structure" and "Focus" produce four clusters of effectiveness criteria as depicted in Figure 5. The "Structure" axis is represented by the "Flexibility-Control" continuum,

while the “Focus” axis in Figure 5 is represented by the “People-Organization” continuum. Within each of these four quadrants the relevant “Means-Ends” values are enumerated.

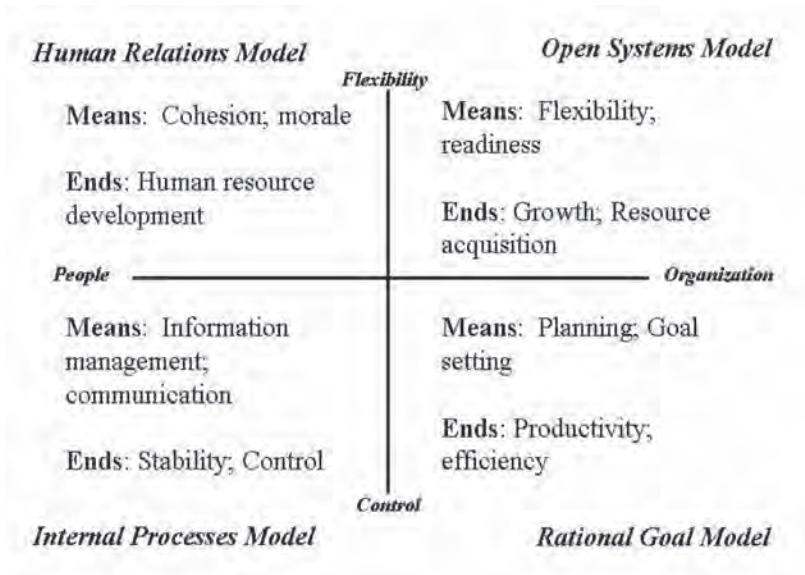


Figure 5. A Summary of the Competing Value Sets and Effectiveness Models (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1981, p. 136).

Cameron and Quinn state that the significance of these clusters of organizational effectiveness criteria is that they “represent what people value about an organization’s performance. They define what is seen as good right and appropriate . . . [and they] . . . define the core values on which judgments about organizations are made” (1999, p. 31). Additionally, these quadrants represent opposite or competing values or assumptions. As you move, from left to right along the “Focus” (People-Organization) continuum or axis of the

chart the emphasis shifts from an internal focus within the organization to that of an external focus outside the organization. As you move from the bottom of the chart along the “Structure” (Flexibility-Control) continuum or axis the emphasis shifts from control and stability within the organization and the environment to that of flexibility and discretion within the organization and the environment. The diagonal dimensions also produce conflicting or competing values. For example, the values in the upper right quadrant emphasize an external focus concerned with flexibility and growth, while the values in the lower left quadrant accentuate an internal focus with control and stability (Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983). Hence, the competing or contradictory values in each quadrant form the basis for the “Competing Values Framework” name of the conceptual model upon which the present study is based.

In their initial study, Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981) also provided a brief review of four competing theoretical models of organizational effectiveness (Literature discussing these four models can be found elsewhere: Georgopoulos and Tannenbaum 1957; Lawrence and Lorsch 1967; Thompson, 1967; Yuchtman and Seashore, 1967; Mott, 1972; Price, 1972; Steers, 1975; Campbell, 1977; Katz and Kahn 1978; Cameron and Whetten, 1983; Pasmore, 1988; Anspach, 1991; Scott, 1992): the rational goal model, the open system model, the human relations model, and the internal process model, and they demonstrated how each of these four models was related to the four quadrants of their CVF model, see Figure 5. In their analyses, Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981, 1983) illustrate the importance that the human relations model places on internal flexibility, cohesion, morale, and human resource develop-

ment and correlate it to the upper left-hand quadrant of their CVF model. The upper right-hand quadrant of the CVF model is correlated with the open systems model, which highlights the significance of external flexibility, readiness, growth, and resource acquisition. The lower left-hand quadrant of the CVF model is correlated with the internal process model, which underscores the significance of internal control, stability, information management, and communication. Finally, Quinn and Rohrbaugh state that the lower right-hand quadrant of their CVF model is correlated with the rational goal model, which underscores the importance of external control, planning, goal setting, productivity, and efficiency. Figure 5 provides a summary of the competing values sets and the four organizational effectiveness models. The significance of these four quadrants is that they represent how “over time, different organizational values have become associated with different forms of organization . . . [and that] . . . each quadrant represents basic assumptions, orientations, and values – the same elements that comprise an organizational culture” (Cameron and Quinn, 1999, pp. 32-33).

Origins of the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI).

In 1985, Quinn and McGrath used the CVF model of organizational effectiveness, outlined above, to develop their theory concerning the transformation of organizational cultures. They stated that their study was “interested in the contradiction, tension, and paradox that leads to transformation” (1985, p. 315). Specifically, they were attempting to develop an analytical scheme based on Janusian⁵ thinking (Rothen-

berg, 1979), which “is a complex process in which two apparently contradictory ideas or concepts are conceived to be equally operative, therefore, paradoxical. It involves the generation of a simultaneous antithesis, the integration of opposites” (Quinn and McGrath, 1985, p. 316). This concept is analogous to “double-loop learning” as described by Argyris and Schon, who indicate that “[d]ouble-loop learning changes the governing variables (the settings) of one’s programs and causes ripples of change to fan out over one’s whole system of theories-in-use” (1974, p. 19). In other words, double-loop learning challenges an organization’s past success and the basic norms, values, and assumptions that underlie that success by continuously evaluating alternatives. As theorized by Quinn and McGrath, such a continuous evaluation of organizational processes and behaviors will eventually generate a shift (a transformation) of organizational culture. Consequently, their cultural transformation theory implies the simultaneous existence of competing values within any organization; hence, their preoccupation with contradiction and paradox (Quinn and Cameron, 1988). This perspective helps to explain why, as will be seen later, the OCAI identifies the relative preference and strength of competing cultural types within organizations. In other words, organizations have predominant cultural types, but they also exhibit at the same time characteristics of the other cultural types but to a lesser degree. Also, organizations may exhibit differing predominant cultural types depending on a given situation in which the organization finds itself.

Using the existing scholarly literature explicating different forms of organization, Quinn and McGrath identified four main organizational forms, which

they believe correlate with key management theories concerning organizational success, leadership roles, quality, and management skills (Cameron and Quinn, 1999). Consequently, they labeled these forms based on the key characteristics of organizational values that have over time become associated with these organizational forms, and they are: clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market (see Table 2, Four Types of Organizational Forms). Table 1, Transactional Expectations or Governing Rules, identifies the characteristics or profiles of four transactional systems or cultural biases: **Rational Culture, Ideological Culture, Consensual Culture, and Hierarchical Culture**, which are deeply held organizational values that determine identity, power, and satisfaction within an organizational setting. For example, in a rational culture, the organizational purpose is the pursuit of objectives. In a hierarchical culture, the organizational purpose is based on the execution of regulations. Quinn and McGrath (1985) found that these four transactional expectations were related to the four types of organizational forms highlighted in Table 2. By reading down the columns, you can see, for example, that the "Market" organizational form is representative of a rational culture, and that the "Adhocracy" organizational form is representative of an ideological culture, and so on. Cameron and Quinn indicate that the four quadrants developed by the CVF model matched "precisely the main organizational forms that have developed in organizational science" (1999, p. 32), as identified by Quinn and McGrath in Tables 1 and 2. The resulting hybrid model has become the foundation of Cameron and Quinn's (1999) OCAI see Figure 6.

Transactional Expectations or Governing Rules				
	Rational Culture	Ideological Culture	Consensual Culture	Hierarchical Culture
Organizational Purpose	pursuit of objectives	broad purposes	group maintenance	execution of regulations
Criteria of Performance	productivity, efficiency	external support, growth, resource acquisition	cohesion, morale	stability, control
Location of Authority	the boss	charisma	membership	rules
Base of Power	competence	values	informal status	technical knowledge
Decisionmaking	decisive pronouncements	intuitive insights	participation	factual analysis
Leadership Style	directive, goal oriented	inventive, risk oriented	concerned, supportive	conservative, cautious
Compliance	contractual agreement	commitment to values	commitment from process	surveillance and control
Evaluation of Members	tangible output	intensity of effort	quality of relationship	formal criteria
Appropriate Motives	achievement	growth	affiliation	security

Table 1. Transactional Expectations or Governing Rules from Quinn and McGrath, 1985, p. 327.

Four Types of Organizational Forms				
	Market	Adhocracy	Clan	Hierarchy
Technology (Perrow, 1967)	Engineering	Non-routine	Craft	Routine
Effectiveness Model (Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983)	Rational Goal	Open Systems	Human Relations	Internal Process
Strategic Orientation (Miles and Snow, 1978)	Analyzer	Prospector	Implementor	Defender
Type (Oliver, 1982)	Task	Professional	Group	Hierarchic
Illustration	Theory A	Stage II	Theory Z	Bureaucracy

Table 2. Four Types of Organizational Forms from Quinn and McGrath, 1985, p. 327.



Figure 6. The Competing Values of Leadership, Effectiveness, and Organizational Theory (Cameron & Quinn, 1999, p. 41).

Cameron and Quinn (1999) emphasize that each of the four quadrants of the OCAI represents basic assumptions, orientations, and values, which as the literature review of this study has identified, represent the same elements that define organizational culture. Figure 7 provides a detailed organizational culture profile for each of the four dominant cultural types as identified in Figure 6. Therefore, Cameron and Quinn state that the OCAI “is an instrument that allows you to diagnose the dominant orientation of your own organization based on these core culture types. It also assists you in diagnosing your organi-

zation's cultural strength, cultural type, and cultural congruence" (1999, p. 33). Using the OCAI and its associated graph as depicted in Figure 9 (discussed in the next section), cultural strength is determined by the resulting score awarded to the four cultural types. "The higher the score, the stronger or more dominant is that particular culture" (Cameron and Quinn, 1999, p. 63). Cultural type is determined by an OCAI profile plot in the quadrant with the highest resulting score. Finally, cultural congruence is determined by an analysis of the various components of an organization.

<p>The Clan Culture.</p> <p>A very friendly place to work where people share a lot of themselves. It is like an extended family. The leaders, or the heads of the organization, are considered to be mentors and perhaps even parent figures. The organization is held together by loyalty or tradition. Commitment is high. The organization emphasizes the long-term benefit of human resources development and attaches great importance to cohesion and morale. Success is defined in terms of sensitivity to customers and concern for people. The organization places a premium on teamwork, participation, and consensus.</p>	<p>The Adhocracy Culture.</p> <p>A dynamic, entrepreneurial, and creative place to work. People stick their necks out and take risks. The leaders are considered innovators and risk takers. The glue that holds the organizations together is commitment to experimentation and innovation. The emphasis is on being on the leading edge. The organization's long-term emphasis is on growth and acquiring new resources. Success means gaining unique and new products or services. Being a product or service leader is important. The organization encourages individual initiative and freedom.</p>
<p>The Hierarchy Culture.</p> <p>A very formalized and structured place to work. Procedures govern what people do. The leaders pride themselves on being good coordinators and organizaers who are efficiency-minded. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is most critical. Formal rules and policies hold the organization together. The long-term concern is on stability and performance with efficient, smooth operations. Success is defined in terms of dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low cost. The management of employees is concerned with secure employment and predictability.</p>	<p>The Market Culture.</p> <p>A results-oriented organization whose major concern is with getting the job done. People are competitive and goal-oriented. The leaders are hard drivers, producers, and competitors. They are tough and demanding. The glue that holds the organization together is an emphasis on winning. Reputation and success are common concerns. The long-term focus is on competitive actions and achievement of measurable goals and targets. Success is defined in terms of market share and penetration. Competitive pricing and market leadership are important. The organization style is hard-driving competitiveness.</p>

Figure 7. The Organizational Culture Profile (Cameron & Quinn, 1999, p. 58).

For example, if the marketing and sales divisions of an organization both produce similar OCAI profile plots then those two organizational sub-units are considered to have cultural congruence. In the case of the Army profession, this study conducts a demographic analysis to see if the various professional sub-components, i.e., branch, sex, source of commission, type of student, etc., reflect organizational congruence or not. The significance of organizational congruence is that “[h]aving all aspects of the organization clear about and focused on the same values and sharing the same assumptions simply eliminates many of the complications, disconnects, and obstacles that can get in the way of effective performance” (Cameron and Quinn, 1999, p. 64).

The OCAI uses an **ipsative** rating scale that requires the respondent to “identify the trade-offs that actually exist in the organization” (Cameron and Quinn, 1999, p. 144). In other words, the ipsative scale allows the respondent to identify the simultaneous existence of the preference for different cultural types. This implies, as indicated in the literature, that a variety of cultural types (competing values) may exist in each organization, but to different degrees or strength. In short, each organization will have a unique cultural profile. The ipsative scale allows the respondent to differentiate between four different alternative responses to a given question by assigning a relative percentage to each of the alternatives. The percentages given to all four alternative responses must total 100, thereby allowing the respondent to indicate the cultural type and strength that exists within their organization. See Appendix A for copy of the OCAI used in the present study.

An Overview of the Management Skills Assessment Instrument (MSAI).

Cameron and Quinn developed the MSAI using the same framework as that of the OCAI in order to help managers and leaders identify the necessary skills and competencies that they must either develop or improve to facilitate an organizational culture change effort. The MSAI can also be used to enhance leadership abilities to improve organizational performance within the context of a current culture if a cultural change is not necessary. Based on an analysis of 15 studies, which researched the managerial leadership skills characteristic of a number of highly effective managers and organizations worldwide, Whetten and Cameron (1998) interviewed over 400 top executives to identify which skills were most important for individual leadership success (Cameron and Quinn, 1999). Cameron and Quinn consolidated the resulting list of successful leadership skills into a set of 12 competency categories which are mainly applicable to mid-level and upper-level managers (1999). See Figure 8 for the 12 competency categories and their associated primary OCAI category. Table 3 provides a detailed list of the 12 critical managerial competency categories and a brief description of the individual characteristics, which comprise these categories.



Figure 8. A Model of the 12 Critical Managerial Competencies and their Related CVF Cultural Types (Cameron and Quinn, 1999, p. 108).

The 12 Competency Categories	
CLAN QUADRANT	CHARACTERISTICS
Managing Teams (MT)	Facilitating effective, cohesive, smooth functioning, high performance teamwork
Managing Interpersonal Relationships (MIR)	Facilitating effective interpersonal relationships including supportive feedback, listening, and resolution of interpersonal problems
Managing the Development of Others (MD)	Helping individuals improve their performance, expand their competencies, and obtain personal development opportunities
ADHOCRACY QUADRANT	
Managing Innovation (MI)	Encouraging individuals to innovate, expand alternatives, become more creative, and facilitate new idea generation
Managing the Future (MF)	Communicating a clear vision of the future and facilitating its accomplishment
Managing Continuous Improvement (MCI)	Fostering an orientation toward continuous improvement, flexibility, and productive change among individuals in their work life
MARKET QUADRANT	
Managing Competitiveness (MC)	Fostering competitive capabilities and an aggressive orientation toward exceeding competitors' performance
Energizing Employees (EE)	Motivating and inspiring individuals to be proactive, to put forth extra effort, and to work vigorously
Managing Customer Service (MCS)	Fostering an orientation toward serving customers, involving them, and exceeding their expectations
HIERARCHY QUADRANT	
Managing Acculturation (MA)	Helping individuals become clear about what is expected of them, what the culture and standards of the organization are, and how they can best fit into the work setting
Managing the Control System (MCS)	Ensuring that procedures, measurements, and monitoring systems are in place to keep processes and performance under control
Managing Coordination (MCo)	Fostering coordination within the organization as well as with external units and managers, and sharing information across boundaries

Table 3. The 12 Critical Managerial Competency Categories and Their Associated Characteristics (Cameron and Quinn, 1999, pp. 108 – 109).

The 12 Competency Categories	
CLAN QUADRANT	MSAI Question Numbers
Managing Teams	12, 18, 21, 22, 49, 61, 76
Managing Interpersonal Relationships	1, 13, 23, 48, 50, 62, 77
Managing the Development of Others	5, 20, 24, 25, 47, 63, 78
ADHOCRACY QUADRANT	
Managing Innovation	2, 8, 9, 26, 51, 64, 79
Managing the Future	14, 27, 28, 45, 46, 65, 80
Managing Continuous Improvement	29, 44, 52, 53, 59, 66, 81
MARKET QUADRANT	
Managing Competitiveness	15, 30, 35, 43, 60, 67, 82
Energizing Employees	3, 6, 7, 31, 42, 68, 83
Managing Customer Service	32, 33, 41, 54, 55, 69, 84
HIERARCHY QUADRANT	
Managing Acculturation	10, 11, 34, 40, 56, 70, 85
Managing the Control System	4, 16, 19, 36, 39, 71, 86
Managing Coordination	17, 37, 38, 57, 58, 72, 87

Table 4. The 12 Critical Managerial Competency Categories and Their Associated MSAI Questions (Cameron and Quinn, 1999).

Methodology of the Study.

As stated at the beginning of this monograph, the primary research question of this study is: **Is the organizational culture of the U.S. Army congruent with the professional development of its senior level officer corps?**

The present study is based upon a quantitative evaluation of the current and preferred culture of the U.S. Army as identified by its senior level leaders. For the purpose of this study, the study population is defined as all U.S. Army lieutenant colonels and colonels who were actively enrolled as students of the U.S. Army War College Master of Strategic Studies program, Classes of 2003 and 2004 as of May 1, 2003. These individuals were chosen as the study population because they were previously identified by competitive U.S. Army evaluation boards as having highly successful command and leadership careers and as having the greatest potential for advancement. Collectively, senior service college graduates, such as these cohorts from the U.S. Army War College represent the pool of officers from which the future strategic leaders of the U.S. Army will be selected. Once selected for promotion to general officer, these officers will be charged with shaping the future culture of the U.S. Army and with adequately posturing the Army as an organization and as a profession for successful performance in a highly turbulent national security environment (Magee and Somervell, 1998).

The purpose of the present study is to explore the relationship between organizational culture and professional development and to extend current theory and empirical knowledge concerning this relationship.

These objectives will be accomplished by answering the primary research question through an analysis of four related hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1: The current organizational culture of the U.S. Army is not consistent with an organizational culture supportive of professional development.

To address the first hypothesis, a quantitative survey instrument, the OCAI, was administered to 952 U.S. Army War College students as described above. For the purposes of this study and in accordance with Schein's (1992) model, the concept of organizational culture is conceptualized as having three levels: artifacts, values, and deep basic underlying assumptions, see Figure 2. Additionally, this study supports the Competing Values Framework (CVF) as identified and described by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981, 1983) earlier in this monograph. The CVF approach has been identified as being highly successful as an "underlying framework, a theoretical foundation that can narrow and focus the search for key cultural dimensions" (Cameron and Quinn, 1999, p. 29). The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI), as established by Cameron and Quinn (1999) and as outlined earlier in this study, is used to operationalize the concept of organizational culture as defined by the CVF. The type of culture as identified by the respondents for both the "Now" and "Preferred" cultures will be plotted on the CVF graph as developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999) and as portrayed in the following sample plot in Figure 9.

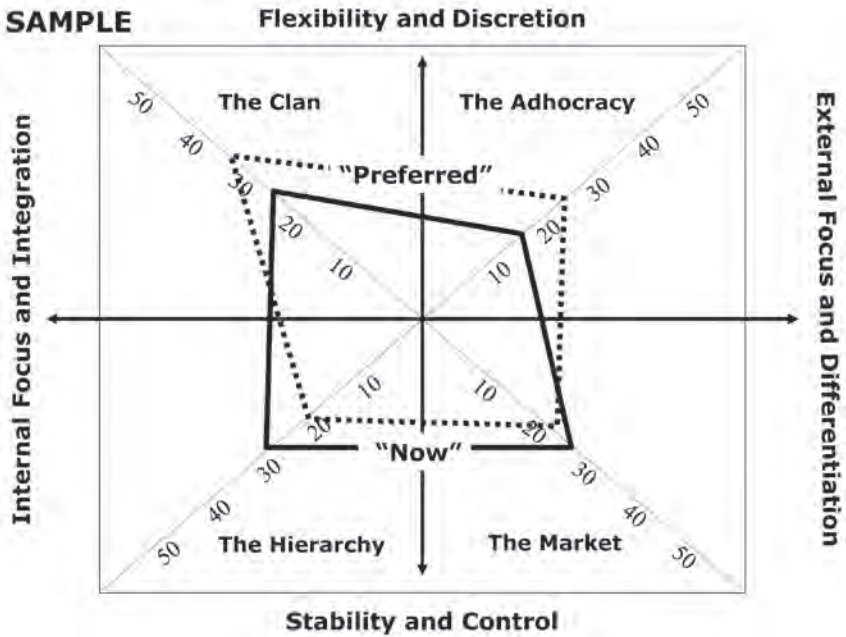


Figure 9. Overall Culture of Sample Organization.

Note: Figure 9 is a graphic representation of the overall culture of "Sample Organization" based on "Now" (solid line) and "Preferred" (dotted line) Respondent Ratings on the OCAI. This plot indicates this organization's cultural archetype is relatively balanced, with the exception of a lower rating in the adhocracy cultural type. Note the preferred ratings clearly indicate that "clan" is the desired culture type (Sample is adapted from Cameron and Quinn, 1999, p. 97).

Professional development is normatively conceptualized by the U.S. Army as the process whereby the leaders of tomorrow are identified, trained, developed, and assigned to increasingly responsible duty positions for the purpose of being prepared to perform duties at the highest levels of the organization. Additionally, the concept of professional development includes the advancement of those skills that support innovative, flexible, risk-taking, visionary, and entre-

preneurial behavior (Argyris and Schon, 1974; Schon, 1983; Mosher, 1982; Huntington, 1985; Freidson, 1986; Senge, 1994; Martin and McCausland, 2002; Wong, 2002; Snider, 2003, 2003a).

For the purposes of this study, a culture that is supportive of professional development is operationalized as being reflective of the “adhocracy” cultural type as indicated by the results of the OCAI on either the “Now” or “Preferred” ratings. As indicated in Hypothesis 1 it is anticipated that the “Now” plot for the study population of this study will not reflect an adhocracy cultural type for the U.S. Army. Additionally, the operationalization of the concept of professional development will be accomplished through the use of Cameron and Quinn’s MSAI, which is specifically pertinent to Hypothesis 4.

Hypothesis 2: The current organizational culture of the U.S. Army is consistent with that of a hierarchical/bureaucratic organization.

The U.S. Army’s Training and Leader Development Panel (ATLDP, 2001) concluded that the gap between the Army’s professed ideals and its actual practices in the areas of training and leader development has spread outside the officer corps’ “band of tolerance.” What this means is that the difference between the Army profession’s “espoused values,” those that they publicly promulgate as organizational principles, and the Army profession’s “theories-in-use,” those values that actually guide behavior, (Argyris, 1976; Argyris and Schon, 1974) are no longer in agreement with each other. Snider and Watkins emphasize the significance of this discrepancy by stating that “[f]rom the members of the Army officer corps, as the commissioned agents of the American people responsible for

the continued stewardship of the profession and for the development of the sons and daughters of America who serve in it, more is expected, legally and morally" (2002, p. 16). The principal thesis of their work is that since "the continual development of military expertise and effective control of an Army operationally engaged on behalf of American society are both essential to the nation's future security, a nonprofessional Army is certainly not in America's best interest" (2002, p. 12). Schon reiterates the need for professional organizations to renew their essence as a profession by being reflective-in-action and by avoiding the pitfalls of embedded organizational knowledge. In other words, successful practices from the past must be continuously challenged, evaluated, and if necessary changed, to ensure success in the future. Consequently, Hypothesis 2 suggests that the current culture of the U.S. Army as indicated by the "Now" plot on the OCAI chart will reflect the hierarchy cultural type. If this is found to be the case, the CVF model indicates that a plot in the Hierarchy quadrant is the antithesis of the adhocracy cultural type, which is the theoretically preferred dominant cultural type for professional organizations as the literature review of this study has demonstrated. See Figure 9 for an example of a "Now" plot on the OCAI chart.

Hypothesis 3: The preferred culture of the U.S. Army is consistent with organizational cultures supportive of innovative, risk-taking, boundary spanning, demanding continuous improvement, reflective-in-action, dynamic, and adaptive behavior.

A review of several significant U.S. Army leadership publications indicates that the Army is acutely aware of the type of values, practical professional

skills, and behavior that are necessary for its senior and strategic level leaders to exhibit for the Army as a profession to be successful well into the future (AR 600-100, 1993; FM 22-100, 1999; Magee and Somervell, 1998; FM 6-22, 2006). Argyris and Schon (1974) state that “espoused values” are those values that individuals and organizations give allegiance to and communicate to others. Therefore, it is expected that the first two hypotheses will indicate that the U.S. Army’s culture is not consistent with that of professional organizations as operationalized by the adhocracy cultural type of theOCAI. Assuming that Hypotheses 1 and 2 are not rejected, therefore providing empirical support indicating that the study population of Army senior leaders perceives the Army’s current culture as being indicative of a hierarchical organization, Hypothesis 3 postulates that the study population of Army senior leaders also realizes how the culture must be transformed to achieve greater organizational performance, success, and survival (Brown and Dodd, 1998; Berrio, 2003). Hypothesis 3 is validated through the “Preferred” plot of theOCAI, which is intended to be an instrument that enables organizational leaders to determine the direction in which cultural change efforts should be directed (Cameron and Quinn, 1999). Cameron and Quinn state that:

A common mistake in organizations desiring to improve is that they do not take the time to create a common viewpoint among employees about where the organization is starting [the “Now” cultural plot of theOCAI] and where it needs to go [the “Preferred” cultural plot of theOCAI]. Unsuccessful organizations often launch right into a new change program without considering the need to develop a consensual view

of the current culture, the need to reach consensus of what change means and doesn't mean, and the specific changes that will be started, stopped, and continued (1999, p. 92).

Consequently, it is postulated that the preferred culture of the U.S. Army, as perceived by the study population and as indicated by the "Preferred" plot on theOCAI chart, will be representative of the adhocracy cultural type, which is the antithesis of the hierarchical cultural type, and is the direction in which the Army senior leaders believe that the Army profession must be moved to guarantee future success. See Figure 9 for an example of a "Preferred" plot on theOCAI chart. As discussed previously, adhocracy cultures are characterized by dynamic, entrepreneurial, creative, risk-taking, and innovative behavior that is dedicated to the long-term emphasis of acquiring new knowledge and practical skills (Cameron and Quinn, 1999). Hierarchical cultures are characterized as being formalized organizational structures, with an emphasis on formal rules and policies, and a long-term commitment to stability, and efficient smooth performance (Cameron and Quinn, 1999). It is anticipated that a "Preferred" plot in the adhocracy quadrant is significant for several reasons. First, it indicates that what the Army's senior leaders say they will do in a given situation is different than what they will actually do in practice (Argyris and Schon, 1974; Schein, 1985; CSIS, 2000; Watkins and Cohen, 2002). Second, a "Preferred" plot in the adhocracy quadrant would indicate that the study population of U.S. Army senior leaders perceives that the current culture of the U.S. Army is not consistent with the type of culture that is supportive of innovative, adaptive, dynamic, flex-

ible, or forward-looking behavior. This would indicate that the Army's culture is out of congruence with the national security environment of the 21st century, which is characterized by volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity (Magee and Somervell, 1998). Finally, if this hypothesis is not rejected, it implies that the potential for a successful cultural intervention is good because the espoused values of the study population of U.S. Army senior leaders are at least consistent with the cultural type most representative of a professional organization and that there is a level of consensus among those who will be responsible in the near future to facilitate that change. Consequently, a "Preferred" plot in the adhocracy quadrant demonstrates an appreciation for innovative behavior and a willingness on the part of the Army's future leaders to embark upon a cultural change effort that would be meaningless without senior leader commitment.

Hypothesis 4: The individual professional skills of the U.S. Army senior level officer corps are not characterized by innovative, risk-taking, boundary spanning, demanding continuous improvement, reflective-in-action, dynamic, and adaptive behavior.

Leader development is an essential component of organizational performance and organizational survival, especially for that of a professional organization (Argyris and Schon, 1974, Schon, 1983; Huntington, 1985; Abbott, 1988; CSIS, 2000; Snider and Watkins, 2002; Martin and McCausland, 2002; Snider, 2003a; Gordon and Sollinger, 2004). As indicated above, and for the purposes of this study, professional development is a process whereby the leaders of tomorrow are identified and prepared to be capable of perform-

ing duties at the highest levels of the organization as their career progresses.

The operationalization of the concept of professional development will be accomplished through the use of Cameron and Quinn's MSAI as outlined in detail earlier in this study. The 12 critical managerial competencies for the study population of Army senior leaders, as identified by the MSAI, will be plotted on a chart similar to the OCAI, see Figure 10.

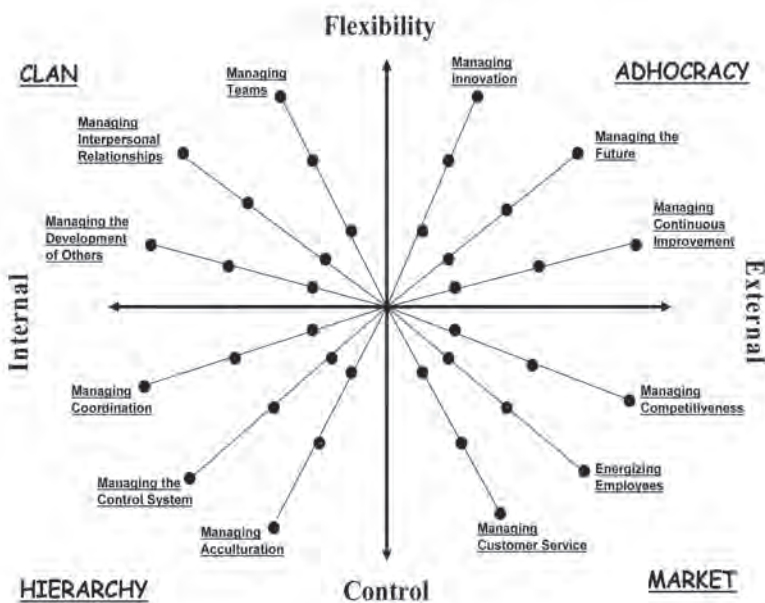


Figure 10. Management Skills Profile Plotting Chart (Adapted from Cameron and Quinn, 1999, p. 207).

Hypothesis 4 suggests that the resulting data as depicted by an MSAI plot will not reflect scores that are consistent with the three critical managerial competencies associated with the Adhocracy quadrant of the OCAI: Managing Innovation, Managing the Fu-

ture, and Managing Continuous Improvement (see Figure 10). If this hypothesis is not rejected, then this analysis provides empirical data suggesting that there is a positive correlation between the Army's existing culture and the type of professional skills that are produced by its professional development training program. It is expected that the respondent scores will be reflective of the three critical managerial competencies associated with the hierarchical cultural type: Managing Coordination, Managing the Control System, and Managing Acculturation, because it is also hypothesized that the hierarchical cultural type will be reflected by the OCAI as the dominant cultural type as identified by the study population.

Additional Analysis. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedures will be used to conduct an in-depth evaluation of the survey instrument response data. Specifically, an evaluation will be conducted to determine if there are any statistically significant differences between the branches of the Army profession (infantry, armor, artillery, etc.), between the three components of the Army profession (active duty, Army National Guard, and Army Reserve), and between key demographic information (sex, rank, age, source of commission, resident student, or distance education student, etc.). See the "Demographic Information" portion of the MSAI at Appendix B. This analysis will help to determine if there is a homogeneous professional Army culture.

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the demographic data provided by the respondents will provide some indication of the impact that sub-cultural influence may have on a homogeneous Army culture. For example, do infantry officers perceive the cultural type to be different than do medical corps officers? Do

women officers perceive the cultural type to be different than do male officers? From a practical perspective it is theorized that if a homogeneous culture does exist within the senior level officer corps, even if those values are not congruent with that of a professional organization, then the potential for a successful cultural intervention is favorable. If it is determined that the Army officer corps is comprised of numerous subcultures whose values and basic underlying assumptions are dramatically different from one another, a cultural intervention would be far more difficult. This difficulty would arise because of the necessity to diagnose the specifics of the underlying differences and to develop a change strategy that addresses each of these differences, as opposed to changing one relatively homogeneous culture. It is interesting to note that Gailbreath *et al.*, in their study using the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), concluded that “in the Army, as in some other organizations, forces toward homogeneity have created limited diversity in top management” (1997, p. 229). The negative aspect of behavioral homogeneity is that the behavioral flexibility of a profession’s senior leaders is restricted and as a result organizational effectiveness suffers (Gailbreath *et al.*, 1997; Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991). Consequently, if a homogeneous culture is desired, it is important to emphasize the development of a culture that has reflexive thinking as a core value and a basic underlying assumption. For the purposes of this study, it is hypothesized that the adhocracy cultural type, as identified by the OCAI, is a culture type that is supportive of continuous improvement and reflexive thinking and is most representative of professional organizations, to include the officer corps of the U.S. Army who represent the Army profession.