

**EMPLOYEE ACCULTURATION IN TIGHT VERSUS LOOSE ORGANIZATIONAL
CULTURES**

by

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Abstract

Organizational Acculturation is a process through which new and existing employees may adapt and internalize the organizational culture. It is proposed that acculturation is impacted by the interaction between the individual and the environment. A questionnaire was compiled to measure how the Need for Organizational Identification - NOID (individual-level variable) and the perception of Tightness vs Looseness of the Organizational Culture (situational-level variable) may affect employees' Organizational Acculturation. The study did not find person x environment interaction, but the main effects were found. These main effects showed, individuals with high NOID are more likely to exhibit an Integration and individuals in a loose organizational culture are more likely to exhibit a Separation strategy of Organizational Acculturation. The study contributes to existing body of literature by, highlighting the contextual differences between acculturation on societal and organizational levels, and by synthesizing organizational literature to propose an alternative approach to Organizational Acculturation.

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Chapter One: Introduction

The term “acculturation” was first coined by J. W Powell in 1880, defining it as “psychological changes induced by cultural imitations”. Park (1928) observed the subsequent psychological changes that may occur in individuals living in two diverse cultural groups. His notion of America as a “melting-pot” society gained significance and “assimilation” was referred to as, the successful and perhaps the only acculturation strategy. Acculturation literature mainly developed in the context of mass immigration triggered by the industrial revolution and political instabilities, mostly from Europe to North America. It was expected of newcomers to adapt to the new cultural values and norms as quickly as possible to become part of a progressive society. As the cultural diversity of immigrants increased, and political scenarios changed, the body of literature also grew but mostly remained under the domains of sociology, social psychology, and anthropology. As globalization enabled the business to tap markets overseas, organizational researchers also acknowledged the importance of studying how national/ethnic cultures may influence business processes and how can organizations benefit from developing a unique organizational culture of their own. Similar to acculturation in national/ethnic cultural settings, the question arises how this process unfolds in organizational settings. In this study, the national culture is referred to the larger national culture of host or dominant community and ethnic culture refers to the culture of new comer or immigrant minority. Throughout this thesis, the national/ethnic culture or national/ethnic acculturation refers to the concept of culture and acculturation in national culture or ethnic cultural context. Terms of employee acculturation, organizational culture, and organizational acculturation refer to the culture and acculturation in strictly organizational context.

Social psychology research of acculturation has grown into, and through many models and theories, the details of which are presented in the following chapters. Despite growing body of literature in the field of organizational culture, organizational or employee acculturation still demands attention from organizational researchers. Even though, theoretically parallel concepts have been discussed under different terminologies but strictly testing acculturation in an organizational context remains unaddressed. This study attempts to bridge this gap.

Acculturation was initially perceived as a linear process (Park, 1928; Gordon 1964) or a curvilinear process (Portes and Zhou, 1993), a process in which newcomers gradually give up their original cultural values and assimilate into the dominant or host culture. Berry (1980, 1997) emphasized that there are two dimensions to this process and it unfolds in four different orientations. Bidimensional view of acculturation generates these four outcomes through the interplay of individuals' likelihood to retain their original cultural patterns versus their likelihood to adapt to new cultural values. Bourhis, Moise, Perreault, & Senecal (1997) presented an interactive view of acculturation that considers the impacts of acculturation not only on newcomers, but also on host or dominant group, and subsequent relational outcomes that may result from this interactive acculturation. Bourhis et al., (1997) labelled their model as "interactive acculturation"; however, most of the acculturation literature is produced in interactionist psychological perspective. Interactional psychology maintains that behaviours cannot be determined solely by the person or situational variables, behaviour rather is a function of the interaction between these two (Bowers, 1973).

Samnani, Boekhorst, & Harrison (2012) proposed a conceptual framework to explain varying levels of psychological well-being of acculturated individuals in organizational settings. In another study, Samnani et al., (2013) predicted a strong relationship between salience of

cultural values and acculturation and further proposed that this relationship is moderated by the desire for economic rewards and relational pressures. Both of these studies adopted Berry's (1980, 1997) fourfold acculturation typology to explain acculturation. However, both of these studies discussed acculturation in national/ethnic cultural context and its impacts on organizational settings. In addition, the findings of these studies were confined to conceptual frameworks without any empirical evidence. This study extends the concept of acculturation to organizational acculturation, and by doing so it highlights the key contextual differences to be considered while trying to implement theoretical models across disciplines.

Contemporary research acknowledges the importance of an effective organizational culture and its contribution to organizational success. Kilmann, Saxton, & Serpa (1985) considered organizational culture to be an integral component of an organization as personality is to an individual. Barney (1986) linked organizational culture with organizational competitiveness. Linnenluecke & Griffiths (2010) emphasized that business leaders should deploy resources in developing a sustainability-based organizational culture to effectively pursue Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) values. Many organizations advocate different social values, not only to target particular segments of consumers but also to attract potential talent that finds it possible to align their personal values with organizational values. Important interventions and changes that complement strategic objectives are often introduced through a dynamic organizational culture. Organizations have become very important social systems of our daily lives and an individual spends a significant amount of time at work. Therefore, the acculturation that takes place between the individual and the organizational culture is a question worth investigating.

This study was designed to extend the research on acculturation from the national/ethnic level to organizational settings. Redfield, Linton, & Herskovits (1936) defined acculturation in national/ethnic context as “...those phenomena which result when groups of individuals having different cultures come into continuous first-hand contact with subsequent changes in the original culture patterns of their or both groups”. This study is built under assumptions that: (1) a counterpart to the acculturation to national/ethnic culture occurs at the organizational level; (2) understanding organizational acculturation requires a complex approach which anticipates an interaction between worker characteristics at the individual level and organizational practices at the macro level; and (3) person-situation interactions effects found in the psychology literature will generalize to acculturation of workers to organizational circumstances.

A detailed literature review of acculturation and similar concepts under organizational settings are presented in the next chapter. Chapter three explains the research methodology, hypotheses development, different statistical techniques used and their justifications. Chapter four presents results obtained from analyses and Chapter five contains discussion, conclusion, contribution, limitations and possible future areas of research.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

The literature review for this thesis is divided into five sections. The first section discusses the relevant literature on national/ethnic acculturation, definition and explanation provided earlier and explained further in the following subsection. The second section presents the literature bearing on the directionality of the influence between the acculturating newcomer and extant societal conditions from the national/ethnic perspective. Contextual differences between national/ethnic acculturation and organizational acculturation are discussed in the third section. The fourth section discusses organizational literature relevant to acculturation or conceptually similar phenomena. Finally, the fifth section relates the developments in the previous sections to a well-established literature on person x situation interaction.

Relevant Literature on National/Ethnic Acculturation

Study of acculturation also referred to as a process of cultural adaptation (Berry, 1997; Berry et al., 2006), has gained significance in cross-cultural management and relevant literature. But the concept of acculturation emerged from the fields of sociology, social-psychology and anthropology. Scholarly investigation about acculturation grew in the late 20th century. This was the time when immigration to the United States from many European countries tremendously increased. According to Park (1928, 1937), acculturation mainly happens through assimilation, in a way that, emphasize on original home country culture gradually fades away while the new dominant culture becomes more prominent. The classical definition of acculturation was presented by Redfield et al., (1936), “acculturation comprehends those phenomena which result when groups of individuals having different cultures come into continuous first-hand contact with subsequent changes in the original culture patterns of their or both groups”. Early views considered assimilation the only way

through which acculturation occurred. Further developments (Gans, 1973; Sandberg, 1973; Portes and Zhou, 1993; Gans, 1997) added that assimilation may not be just a linear process and may have different types, for example, assimilation into the mainstream, assimilation into one's own ethnic enclave and other forms of segmented assimilation. Fourfold Acculturation Model (Berry 1980, 1997, 2002) is one of the most discussed in contemporary acculturation literature, which is built on two independent dimensions: (1) newcomers' desire to maintain their own culture, (2) newcomers' desire to adopt the values of the dominant culture. Bourhis's et al., (1997) Interactive Acculturation Model states how acculturation strategies of the majority and minority groups interact with each other and produce various relational outcomes. Most of the acculturation literature differentiates in according to the directionality of influence between the acculturated newcomer and the dominant culture. Details of different acculturation theories in terms of this directionality are presented in the next section.

The Directionality of Influence Between the Acculturated Newcomer and the Dominant Culture

Ngo (2008) classified historically presented theoretical acculturation models into three categories: unidirectional acculturation, bidimensional acculturation, interactive acculturation. Next three subsections discuss the acculturation models from these three schools.

Unidirectional Acculturation

This view represents that acculturation successfully occurs through assimilation. In the lives of the newcomers, who migrate to a new culture, the original culture gradually loses its importance while the dominant or host culture gains significance. Park (1928, 1937) described the process through which ethno-racial groups “apparently progressively and

irreversibly” experience contact, competition, accommodation, and assimilation. It was the time when industrial revolution and the foundations of the sophisticated financial system made it possible that, migrants from many various parts of the world came to the United States, to settle and prosper. Park (1928) introduced the metaphors of “marginal man” and “melting-pot”. He described that immigrants who escape the ghettos of Europe and come to the United States, may develop a “divided self”, including the old and the new, and this may further lead them to psychological marginality. In this view, the metropolitan cities and large societies that are embracing people from diverse cultures are more or less successful “melting-pots”, where all the different cultures modify themselves to be coherent with a much larger culture.

Gordon (1964, 1978) further developed on Park’s ideas and proposed an assimilation model, describing assimilation as the gradual process of absorption of immigrants and members of ethnic minorities into the dominant culture at the individuals and groups levels. Gordon classified assimilation into 7 types and their sub-processes. According to Gordon, cultural assimilation and acculturation (the first step) would take place first and would indefinitely continue even if no other type of assimilation happens. However, if once “structural assimilation” (2nd step) has occurred, all other types will follow. Gordon made it clear that “core culture” in the American context, that represents the direction and eventual outcome of the assimilation is the “middle-class cultural patterns of, largely white Protestant, Anglo-Saxon origins (Gordon, 1964, p.72)”.

Gans (1973) and Sandberg (1973), addressed Gordon’s somewhat static formulation of assimilation with their explicit elaboration of the notion of “straight-line assimilation”. In which, immigrants/ethnic minorities will be involved in a sequence of intergenerational steps,

progressively stepping away from ethnic “ground zero” and moving toward assimilation (Alba & Nee, 1997). Acknowledging the socioeconomic factors in immigrant adaptation, Portes & Zhou (1993) challenged the notion of homogenous acculturation and presented segmented assimilation theory. They asserted that the United States is a stratified and unequal society and therefore different “segments” of society are available to which immigrants can assimilate into. Portes and Zhou (1993) delineated three possible paths of assimilation that immigrants may take: (1) acculturation and integration into the white middle class, (2) assimilation into the underclass, (3) preservation of ethnic cultural traditions and close ethnic ties through social networks in the community.

Bidimensional Acculturation

Criticisms on unidirectional acculturation theories led to the development of bidimensional acculturation school of thought (Ngo, 2008). Even though Phinney (1990) and Bourhis et al., (1997) have also presented their ideas about bidimensional acculturation but Berry’s (1980, 1997, 2003) Fourfold Acculturation Model is the most prominent model in this category. This model was developed on national/ethnic identity salience framework that acculturation orientations result from the interplay of two dimensions of “ethnic identity salience” and “cultural identity salience” (Ting-Toomey et al., 2000). Ethnic identity salience refers to the likelihood of maintaining the original ethnic culture, cultural identity salience refers to the likelihood of adapting host or dominant culture (Phinney & Ong, 2007). Cultural minorities in multicultural societies confront two essential questions: whether they become more involved in the mainstream culture or they should emphasize on their own ethnic cultural heritage more and these two questions conjointly determine acculturation orientation (Kang, 2006). Since these constructs of identity saliences also emerge from the identity and social identity theories, hence Fourfold Acculturation Model greatly builds on self-identification,

and the willingness to be identified with a particular cultural group or segment. Ethnic Identity Saliency is referred to as the willingness to be identified with the original or ethnic culture, whereas Cultural Identity Saliency means the desire to be identified with the larger host or dominant national culture (Kouli & Papaioannou, 2009). Built on National/Ethnic Identity Saliency framework, Fourfold Acculturation Model outlined by Berry (1980, 1997, 2003), presents following acculturation orientations;

- Assimilation:** when the dominant or host culture is adapted over original culture
- Separation:** when the original culture is retained and host or dominant cultures are rejected
- Integration:** the ability to adopt the cultural norms of host/dominant culture while maintaining the original culture
- Marginalization:** when both (host/dominant and original) cultures are rejected

A visual presentation of Berry's fourfold acculturation model is given in Figure 1;

Figure 1: Fourfold Acculturation Model

		Dimension 1: Is it considered to be of value to maintain cultural identity and characteristics?	
		YES	NO
Dimension 2: Is it considered to be of value to maintain relationship with other groups?	YES	Integration	Assimilation
	NO	Separation	Marginalization

Fourfold acculturation model (Berry, 1980; 1997)

The model views the process of acculturation through two distinct dimensions and then outlines four ways through which this process unfolds. These dimensions are the theoretical

constructs of ethnic cultural identity as Dimension 1 and cultural identity salience as Dimension 2. Samnani et al. (2012) studied the relationship between Berry's (1997) Fourfold Acculturation Model and employees' wellbeing and concluded that "integration" leads to the highest levels of employee wellbeing, while "marginalization" is an undesirable state of depression. However, the adaptation of acculturation strategy greatly depends on cultural identity salience of individuals (Samnani et al., 2012). For this study, a revised version for Berry's Fourfold Acculturation Model that can be replicated in organizational settings but still holds similar theoretical foundations as of Berry's original model, was presented and tested. The hypotheses proposed include assimilation, integration, and separation as possible acculturation orientation outcomes under organizational settings. Marginalization was included for exploratory purposes but excluded in the substantive analysis. Because of the contextual differences between a society and an organization, Marginalization cannot function in an organization. Discussion of these contextual differences is presented in the latter sections. Schein (1965) described that an individual and an organization have a variety of expectations from each other and these expectations are powerful determinants of behaviour. In organizational settings, marginalization cannot function as an acculturation strategy because individuals are required to perform certain tasks to continue the employment relationship.

Interactive Acculturation

According to unidirectional school, acculturation happens through a straight-line of assimilation into the dominant or host cultural patterns. Bidimensional approach states that acculturation occurs through two dimensions and their juxtaposition results into four acculturation outcomes. Unidirectional and bidimensional models of acculturation viewed this process from the standpoint of host/dominant culture and mostly imply as if changes

occur only among newcomers. Although, unidirectional and bidimensional classes of acculturation acknowledge the environmental factor that influences newcomers' acculturation strategies, but do not highlight the need to study the changes in environment or the dominant culture. Interactive Acculturation Model (IAM) emphasizes that it is important to understand acculturation from both host and dominant perspectives. The acculturation occurs and reshapes as a consequence of the individual (immigrant) and the host community relationship of interactive nature, and it is also affected by the state integration policies (Bourhis et al., 1997). In view of this model, acculturation process depends on the degree to which immigrant group and the host community consent or dissent to a particular acculturation orientation (Oerlemans & Peeters, 2009). The acculturation orientations, as outlined in Figures 2 and 3, are parallels to those in Berry's (1997, 2003) Fourfold Acculturation Model. Three components are central to Bourhis's et al., (1997) Interactive Acculturation Model framework:

1. acculturation orientations adopted by immigrant groups
2. acculturation orientations adopted by the dominant culture towards specific groups of immigrants
3. interpersonal and intergroup relational outcomes that represent combinations of immigrants' and the dominant culture's acculturation orientations

Interactive acculturation in many ways is an extension to Berry's Fourfold Acculturation Model but it also considers the acculturation process from the dominant cultural group's perspective. Figures 2, 3, and 4, given in the next pages, visually explain this model.

Figure 2 depicts almost identical design as of Fourfold Acculturation Model (Figure 1), except that the Marginalization orientation is also labelled as Anomie, meaning lack of usual social or ethical standards in an individual or group.

Figure 2: Interactive Acculturation for New Comers

		Dimension 1:	
		Is it considered to be of value to maintain cultural identity and characteristics?	
		YES	NO
Dimension 2:	YES	Integration	Assimilation
	NO	Separation	Anomie / Marginalization

Bourhis et al., 1997

Figure 3 is another identical depiction of the same typology as Figure 2 and Figure 1 but the acculturation orientations of the host or dominant culture towards new comer or minority culture are investigated. Marginalization is also referred to as Exclusion, meaning the process or state of excluding or being excluded.

Figure 3: Interactive Acculturation for Host Groups

		Dimension 1: Is it considered to be of value to maintain cultural identity and characteristics?	
		YES	NO
Dimension 2: Is it considered to be of value to maintain relationship with other groups?	YES	Integration	Assimilation
	NO	Separation	Exclusion / Marginalization

Bourhis et al., 1997

The relational outcomes resulting from the interaction between the host community and the immigrant are labelled as Conflictual, Problematic, and Consensual. Figure 4 outlines the acculturation orientations and subsequent relational outcomes.

Figure 4: Interactive Acculturation Relational Outcomes

		Immigrant Community			
		Integration	Assimilation	Separation	Marginalization
Host Community	Integration	Consensual	Problematic	Conflictual	Problematic
	Assimilation	Problematic	Consensual	Conflictual	Problematic
	Separation	Conflictual	Conflictual	Conflictual	Conflictual
	Marginalization	Conflictual	Conflictual	Conflictual	Conflictual

Relational outcomes of acculturation orientation
The interactive acculturation model (Bourhis et al, 1997)

Despite outlining relational outcomes stemming from the immigrant and host community acculturation attitudes, Bourhis et al., (1997) did not elaborate these possible outcomes in any detail. Furthermore, these assignments of relational outcomes were rather arbitrary, vague, and inconsistent (Ngo, 2008). Practical limitations of this model in empirical research is the difficulty of measuring acculturation orientation of the host community, or the organizational culture in an organizational context. For example, participants can be asked to rank the organizational culture on a scale, but it will be the subjective perception of respondents about the organizational culture. Conceptual visualization of three classes of acculturation is visualized in Figure 5 given on the next page.

Figure 5: Conceptual visualization of three classes of acculturation models

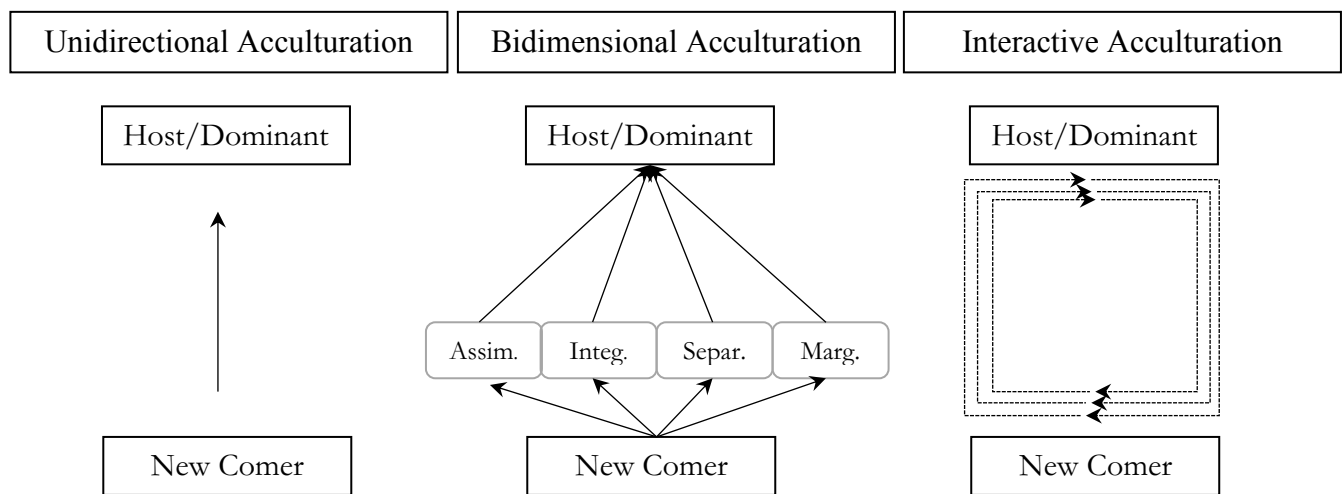


Figure 5 depicts how the flow of the directionality of influence between the new comer or immigrant culture and host or dominant culture. Unidirectional acculturation maintains that acculturation occurs through a linear process of assimilation into host or dominant culture. Berry's (1990, 1997, 2003) Fourfold Acculturation Model outlines that acculturation attitude is determined by the newcomers' willingness to retain an old culture and adopt a new one

(Sakamoto, 2007). Bourhis et al., (1997) further propose an interactive acculturation model, which assumes acculturation is a result of ongoing interaction between the newcomer and the host. Individuals' willingness to adapt to new cultures is an integral aspect of "integration" orientation, also referred to as "biculturalism" (Berry, 1997; Rudmin, 2003; Sakamoto, 2007). Acculturation theories presented under other domains of social sciences than organizational behaviour follow a much explainable coherent flow, but the concept is relatively diluted when discussed under organizational context. The concepts of Organizational Socialization (Maanen & Schein, 1979), Organizational Assimilation (Myers & Oetzel, 2003), discuss similar concepts but very often assimilation and integration are used interchangeably. Samnani et al., (2012; 2013) discussed Berry's (1997, 2003) Fourfold Acculturation Model on conceptual levels and made theoretical propositions how these acculturation orientations are impacted by various aspects of organizational and individual behaviour. Despite many conceptual differences, one common feature in all acculturation ideas is that acculturation occurs when newcomers are confronted with such a situation, that entails modification in their existing cultural ways. In a national/ethnic culture, it occurs when an individual interacts with the new cultures. In an organization, it occurs when an individual is newly hired or because of changes introduced in and through organizational culture. The situational differences between these two contexts are discussed in the next section.

National/Ethnic Acculturation and Organizational Acculturation

It is important to note that the nature of the relationship between an individual and the society/culture is different from the relationship between an individual and the organization.

An individual's acculturation into an original national or ethnic culture is *a priori* because the

process occurs as the individual grows in it, hence acquires a perspective through which he or she learns about everything. On the other hand, acculturation into an organizational culture is *a posteriori* for multiple reasons: (1) an employment relationship is often established through a formal agreement and the employee must in advanced consent to the terms and conditions as outlined by the organization, (2) unlike societal membership, an individual has the opportunity to exercise his or her free decision, whether to accept the offer to start the employment and stay in employment relationship or not. Distinction of *a priori* and *a posteriori* propositions are derived from the philosophical literature discussing human observation and reasoning. *A priori* proposition refers to the reasoning or knowledge that exists independent of experience. *A posteriori* proposition refers to the reasoning or knowledge obtained through observable facts or experience.

Furthermore, national/ethnic culture is developed with the passage of long periods of time and is influenced by traditions, norms, religious beliefs, historical progression, language, and many other factors. It can be argued that both are formed collectively but an organizational culture flourishes in a relatively controlled environment. There are set benchmarks, objectives, vision, mission and goals that an organization must pursue in order to remain profitable, sustainable and hence employable. Therefore, “marginalization” is such an acculturation orientation that may be exercised by certain minority groups in a larger culture but cannot function in organizations.

Researchers suggest that a “stable ethnic identity” leads to psychological well-being and the failure to do so results in role confusion and inability to make progress towards meaningful commitments (Phinney & Ong, 2007). Stability in ethnic identity need when an individual is consistent in using the same ethnic or cultural identity for a long periods of time. This

stability also brings the predictability, hence controllability. In an organizational setting though, “unstable” identity does not necessarily lead to role confusion or the inability of meaningful commitments. It can rather provide an individual with a fluid experience of understanding and managing different situations from different perspectives, so a broader level of understanding is developed. Stable identities can also lead to narrow thinking when exposure to alternatives is very limited; hence it harms the behavioural flexibility, a much-needed quality in today’s dynamic world. Like organizations, individuals can also have multiple identities in different contextual requirements. This trait hence becomes an asset rather than a liability. Discussion of the importance of acculturation related studies in an organizational context is given in the next section.

Relevant Literature Related to Acculturation in Organizational Settings

Studying acculturation in organizational context became increasingly important with the evolution of the concept of organizational culture. The impact of organizational culture on the performance and long-term organizational effectiveness is acknowledged by most organizational scholars (Quin & Cameron, 2006). In order to attract and retain top talent, organizations often market their distinct organizational culture based on corporate ethos and values. This contributes to their image of a corporate brand as an attractive employer.

Therefore, under the organizational realm, it is not only the national/ethnic cultural diversity that floats but also organizational cultural diversity. This poses a dual challenge for human resources managers worldwide: (1) managers must deal with the national/ethnic cultural diversity among their workforce, (2) managers must also deal with the organizational cultural diversity. Ultimately, organizations strive to develop an organizational culture in which

employees may easily acculturate and adhere to an acculturation strategy favorable to both the organization and the employees.

Samnani, Beokhorst, & Harrison (2012) emphasized that organizations are becoming more and more diverse with the intensification of globalization, and this change presents challenges, as well as opportunities for human resources managers. The opportunities brought by globalization include access to larger pools of resources, cost-effectiveness, diverse ideas, and market expansion. The challenges are to retain existing talent, maintain competitiveness, political/social unpredictability, and cultural conflicts. Organizations often exercise measures to boost employee job satisfaction, motivation, commitment, and to strengthen loyalty by triggering their motivation through extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. Extrinsic rewards can be bestowed by strategically deploying monetary resources. These rewards can be in the shape of wage increases, bonuses, and other benefits. Understanding intrinsic motivation can be much trickier because all the employees as individuals have diverse cultural and social backgrounds and unique personality characteristics. Organizations attempt to articulate a clear vision, organizational values, and mission so employees can internalize organizational vision by aligning their personal values with the organizational values. Organizations also take part in various CSR (Corporate Social Responsibility) initiatives and try to establish an organizational culture that is inclusive and embraces all types of diversity. These CSR initiatives may include environmental concerns, humanitarian welfare, charitable investments in education and/or health sectors, etc. While these measures are important in developing and maintaining a strong organizational culture, it is also equally important to examine the way employees acculturate into the organizational culture. The

guiding question to this study is, “how do employees acculturate into an organizational culture?”.

Myers & Oetzel (2003) quoted Jablin’s (2001) definition of Organizational Assimilation, which refers to “the process by which individuals become integrated into the culture of an organization”. Although Myers & Oetzel (2003) acknowledged the fact that some scholars refer to “assimilation” as a process in which individualities have to be given up in order to become an effective member of an organization but maintain that it is nonetheless a useful aspect of newcomer’s entry because successful assimilation involves both the individuals and the organization. While partially Myers & Oetzel’s (2003) research builds on the concept of Organizational Socialization, however, by “acculturation”, they mean the process of learning and accepting the organizational culture. Samnani et al., (2012) presented a conceptual framework by blending different theoretical perspectives on social identity and Fourfold Acculturation Model. They proposed that cultural identity salience and acculturation is moderated by the desire for economic rewards and relational pressure. To fulfill their economic needs, individuals may need to adapt to certain values and practices that are not consistent with their original culture (Samnani et al., 2012). Their research concluded that assimilation and integration are the most positive acculturation outcomes and lead to positive psychological well-being, whereas separation and marginalization are depressive states and lead to negative psychological well-being. The focus of the research has been on how individuals’ acculturation strategy, adapted in societal context influences their behaviour at workplace and vice versa. However, these are just theoretical propositions and the discussion does not include the acculturation process purely within the organizational culture. Although, Samnani et al’s., (2012, 2013) research does initiate the discussion of Berry’s (1997, 2003)

fourfold model under organizational context but it does not discuss how those acculturation outcomes (assimilation, integration, separation, marginalization) as defined by Berry can function in an organizational culture in their original configuration.

Unlike societies, organizations are internally structured groups located in complex networks of intergroup relations characterized by power, status, and prestige differentials (Hogg & Terry, 2000). An individual and an organization form a contractual relationship, in which expectations and rewards are clearly outlined and the continuity of this relationship is conditioned upon both parties ensuring the fulfilments of their obligations. Therefore, “marginalization” or even “separation” cannot be the suitable acculturation orientations. Moreover, in most employment relationships, it is the employee that vows to abide by the rules, regulations, and standards set by the organization; hence practically the “integration” orientation also cannot function because this orientation requires both parties to retain some aspects of their own original culture and adapt some aspects of the other culture. Integration may take place on employee to employee level, that employees with diverse national/ethnic and organizational cultural backgrounds integrate with each other. Organizations may further support this integrational process through organizational socialization. However, “integration” in its original configuration is not compatible between the individual and the organizational culture because such cultures are established as per directions, given by the apex management, not per democratic ideals of the larger society. While all the other orientations (assimilation, separation, marginalization) are triggered by a deliberate effort carried out by the individual, integration has to be freely chosen by non-dominant groups without any compulsion of exterior motives (Berry, 1997).

In order to effectively utilize their dynamic and multicultural human resource, organizations frequently adopt different socialization strategies. Organizations use “onboarding” to speed up socialization of newcomers. Empirical research has shown various benefits resulting from effective onboarding practices (Klein, Polin, & Sutton, 2015). Maanen & Schein (1979) identified six major tactical dimensions of Organizational Socialization. Jones (1986) further investigated in those six dimensions, divided them into two categories, Institutionalized and Individualized Socialization. Similar researches generally support the notion that organizations should deploy adequate resources in employee socialization management. Since different organizations run different types of organizational cultures so the transition of an employee from one organizational culture to another should also be given due attention. Myers & Oetzel (2003) introduced and validated a measure of Organizational Assimilation and identified six dimensions to this process. Parallel to these concepts, Samnani et al., (2012) presented a theoretical framework for organizational acculturation based on Berry’s (1997, 2003) acculturation model. There is a great theoretical resemblance between the two dimensions central to Berry’s Fourfold Acculturation Model and the Identity Theory, which discusses about different identities that individuals may assume under different situations. Building on Identity Theory (Stryker & Serpe, 1982) and Social Identity Theory (Tajfel, 1972), the concept of Organizational Identification is discussed in the latter subsections. Identifying oneself with a particular social group is an important component of acculturation (Ting-Toomey et al., 2000). Organizational Identification refers to the ways different people define themselves in terms of the relationship they have with their organization. To better explicate the construct of Organizational Identification, related constructs of Identity

Salience, Identity Theory, and Social Identity Theory are now discussed. The constructs of Organizational Identification and Organizational Culture are then further developed.

Identity Salience

The construct of identity salience emerged from social psychological literature, mainly from the theories that discuss the concepts of self and identity. Most of the contemporary research in this area stems from the Identity Theory (Stryker & Serpe, 1982) and the Social Identity Theory (Tajfel, 1972). Both of these theories are two remarkably similar perspectives on the mediation between socially constructed self, individual behaviour and social structure (Hogg, Terry, & White, 1995).

Callero (1985) studied the role-identity salience of blood donors and found a positive relationship between high blood donor role-identity and defining oneself as a regular blood donor. Callero (1985) also noted that individuals with high role-identity salience as blood donors evaluate other blood donors in more extreme terms, have a greater number of friendships linked to blood donation, perceive expectations from other blood donors, and donate blood more often. Contributing to the literature on the interplay of social identity and consumption, Carvalho and Luna (2013) studied the effect of national identity salience on responses to ads and concluded that ads that explicitly pair the advertised product with the national identity symbol or rhetoric gain more favourable evaluations and stronger intention to purchase. Matin, Ruiz, & Rubio (2009) examined the linkage between corporate social responsibility (CSR) and consumer loyalty. Their findings suggest that a company's CSR initiatives are strongly linked with loyalty because the consumer develops a more positive company evaluation and because the consumer identifies more strongly with the company (Matin et al., 2009). These are few examples from the literature that highlight the importance

of the salience given to a particular identity. Next section discussed the antecedent concept of Identity Theory.

Identity Theory

Identity Theory's roots can be found in the concept of "symbolic interactionism", which can be traced back to Scottish moral philosophers, Adam Smith, Hume, Ferguson and Hutchinson (Stryker & Serpe, 1982). The fundamental theoretical proposition of symbolic interactionism is that, the structured role relationship impacts the self and through the self, on social behaviour, and that there is a reciprocity in the direction of this impact (Stryker et al., 1981). Identity Theory was partially developed to explain the central tenets of symbolic interactionism into an empirically testable set of propositions (Hogg et al., 1995). The theory explains social behaviour in the context of a reciprocal relationship between the self and society. According to Stryker & Serpe (1982), the underlying ideas of symbolic interactionism reflected in the thinking of American pragmatic philosophers, George H. Mead, William James, and John Dewey. Mead (1934) argued that social psychological analysis must begin with the ongoing interaction and the social processes, for it is from the social process that mind, self, and society derive. Stryker & Serpe (1982) referred to the concept of Identity Salience as a particularization of the larger concept of the self. For example, a person's role identities may include the fact that she is a mother, a wife, a daughter, a social worker, a blood donor, an employee etc., and any of these identities can become salient given a particular context or situation (Hogg et al., 1995). Mead (1934) and Cooley (1902) considered the self to be a product of social interaction, meaning that people realize who they are through their interactions with others. People simultaneously interact with various groups, which results into developing many distinct selves as there are distinct groups whose opinion matter to them. These ideas come together in Identity Theory, which

views self not as a completely independent psychological entity but as a multifaceted social construct (Hogg et al., 1995). Identity Theory proposes that the salience of an identity will be determined by the person's commitment to that role (Hogg et al., 1995). The theory also maintains that people gradually develop many identities, which can be activated in specific contexts. This argument is consistent with Mead's (1934) and Cooley's (1902) views about individuals developing many distinct selves to fit in different roles and different situations.

Social Identity Theory

Tajfel (1972) discussed the concept of "social identity", referring to an individual's knowledge about his/her belonging to a certain social group (Miles, 2012). Social Identity Theory (Tajfel, 1972; Tajfel & Turner, 1979), states that individuals place and categorize themselves into social groups. Being affiliated with the social groups also affects individuals' self-esteem and self-image. Therefore, sometimes individuals exercise prejudices so affiliated social groups can be ranked higher when compared to others (Miles, 2012). Social Identity Theory intends to be a social psychological theory and the basic idea is that a social category (e.g., nationality, political, religious, sports team, etc.), into which one falls, and to which one feels one belongs, provides a definition of who one is (Hogg et al., 1995). The theory refers to the aspects of an individual's self-image derived from the social categories to which they perceive themselves as belonging (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Some assumptions of Social Identity Theory are: (1) people strive to maintain and improve their self-esteem and a positive self-concept, (2) social group, or category, membership can enhance or lower someone's self-esteem and self-concept, (3) people evaluate the positive/negative attributes of groups to which they belong compared to those they do not belong, such as for status and prestige (Miles, 2012).

Identity salience, social identity and similar concepts become very important in cross-cultural management, employee onboarding, employee socialization, organizational culture, and employee acculturation. Randel (2003) examined cultural identity salience in multinational teams and its impact on team citizenship behaviour. He identified, that team members with the similar country of origin to either visible majority or clear minority of the fellow team members, view culture as being salient. Ting-Toomey et al., (2000) conducted a brief study to examine ethnic/cultural identity salience and conflict styles in four US ethnic groups, European Americans, African Americans, Asian Americans, and Latino Americans. Phinney & Ong (2007) examined the conceptualization and measurement of ethnic identity as a multidimensional, dynamic construct that develops over time. According to Phinney and Ong (2007), the psychological study of ethnic identity development has its roots in the ego identity model of Erik Erikson (1968). For Erikson, “identity” refers to a subjective feeling of sameness and continuity that provides individuals with a stable sense of self and serves as a guide to choices in key areas of one’s life. Consistent with the literature on “self” and “identity”, it is proposed that Organizational Identification is a central component to Organizational Acculturation.

Organizational Identification

In an organizational context, the subjective feeling of sameness with the organizational culture can be the key to triggering employees’ intrinsic motivation. Mael & Ashforth (1992) defined Organizational Identification as the perception of oneness or belongingness to an organization where a member defines him or herself in terms of the organization. Organizational members that at least in partial terms, define themselves what the organization intends to represent, are the ones that identify themselves with the organization (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004). To fulfill their inner need of meaning and connectedness in

social contexts, employees may question the relevance of their organization for the purpose of self-categorization (Rockmann & Ballinger, 2017). Organizational Identification results from this process, it's the degree to which individual includes the organization as a part of his or her self-concept (Mael & Ashforth, 1989). Large corporations often align their core values with prevailingly acceptable ethical and moral social standards. This alignment enables them to attract not only the target market segment but also potential employees who share the same values. Organizational Identification may further enhance or lower their self-esteem and affect their self-concept.

In this study, the focus will be on the salience of individual's organizational identification, the extent to which individuals identify themselves with an organization. Ashforth, Harrison, and Corley (2008) summarized that the development of Organizational Identification is based on cognitive and evaluative components. Awareness of category membership contributes to the cognitive component; whereas, the evaluative component is the realization that this category membership has some value proposition (Tajfel, 1982). Research has shown that need for identification (Glynn, 1998; Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004) may predict bottom-up identification.

Glynn (1998) presented a 7-item scale to test the Need for Organizational Identification (NOID). The scale was incorporated and tested in Kreiner & Ashforth's (2004) expanded model of Organizational Identification with a reported alpha of 0.75. NOID will be included in this research as an independent variable, to investigate the extent to which individuals consider it to be important to be identified with an organization. It is hypothesized that the Need for Organizational Identification has an effect on individuals' acculturation orientations.

Organizational Culture

According to Hofstede et al., (1990), among managers, consultants and even academics, “culture” has become a fad; fads pass with some differences and this one is no exception. Jahoda (2012) argued that term “culture” comes from “civilization” as in agriculture and for many centuries it merely meant producing or developing something and it was only 18th century France that single term *culture* was used, referring to the refinement of the mind and the taste. “Culture” is commonly combined with various adjectives to indicate some undefined categories, such as “adolescent culture”, “consumer culture”, “literary culture”, “tabloid culture” and so on; it has, therefore, become a part of our everyday vocabulary just like many others Freudian terms (Jahoda, 2012). Hofstede (2011) defined culture as “...the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others”. The concept of culture in organizational analysis has gained increasing importance over the last decades (Mills, 1988). Hofstede et al., (1990) further argued that organizational culture has acquired somewhat similar meanings to structure, strategy, and control. Most researchers agree on the following characteristics of organizational culture;

- It is holistic
- Historically determined
- Related to anthropological concepts
- Socially constructed
- Soft
- Difficult to change

(Hofstede et al., 1990)

Quinn & Cameron (2006) defined organizational culture as shared assumptions, rituals, beliefs, and norms that are present in an organization. They propose four types of organizational cultures, Clan, Adhocracy, Hierarchy, and Market. These four types emerge from the interplay of “internal focus & integration” vs. “external focus & differentiation” and “flexibility & discretion” vs. “stability and control”, and this model’s theoretical grounds can be found in Campbell’s (1974) Competing Values Framework (CVF). Building on this CVF framework, Linnenluecke & Griffiths (2010) studied what formulates a sustainability-oriented culture and found that rather driving a purely economical paradigm, leaders should implement a balanced culture coherent with socially and environmentally responsible values. Failure to implement organizational change programs successfully is often said to be caused by inadequate organizational culture (Linnenluecke & Griffiths, 2010). Research suggests that such failures occur despite the availability of modern tools and techniques to support the strategies because the fundamental culture of the organization remains the same (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Successful implementation of change programs through organizational culture can have big impacts on business processes improvement. Martinez, Beauleu, Gibbons, Pronovost, & Wang (2015) emphasized how an intervention through organizational culture can benefit the organization and its stakeholders. Martinez et al., (2015) cited a 1990 study, conducted by a team at John Hopkins to investigate Central Line-Associated Bloodstream Infections (CLABIs) in Intensive Care Units (ICUs). The study proposed a checklist of five evidence-based practices to reduce CLABIs and a Comprehensive Unit-Based Safety Program (CUSP). The CUSP program had several steps including the assessment of internal culture and educating staff. The proposed programs have been implemented in more than 1800 hospital units and the intervention saved estimated 290-605 lives and US\$36-40 million in averted costs. In addition to following the checklists, an important proposed and

implemented change among others was empowering nurses to stop procedures if proper guidelines were not followed (Martinez et al., 2015). Barney (1986) stated that organizational culture can be a source of sustainable competitive advantage and superior financial performance if it satisfies three conditions: (1) it is valuable, (2) it is rare, (3) it is not imitable. Gained competitive advantage and financial performance further reinsures the sustainability of organizational culture. Organizational culture, in many ways, is shaped by the society or country in which the organization is situated. There is much research available that how pre-existing external culture may impact the organizational culture (Hofstede, 1990). However, Martinez et al., (2015) further complemented the research by exploring how organizational culture can be developed and managed internally, despite the effect of the larger culture.

The literature seems to support the argument that organizational culture, in addition to affecting sustainability and performance, is also affected by sustainability and performance. However, there may be differences between intended and prevailing organizational culture. Therefore, it is also important to find out what is the perception of the organizational culture among its employees. This study hypothesizes that the way employees perceive their organizational culture combined with their need for organizational identification can be a strong determinant of acculturation styles. For example, an ambitious and heavily career oriented individual may attach high importance to the organizational culture and thus favours a relatively competitive or tighter culture. Hofstede et al., (1990) conducted a brief study to explore dimensions of organizational cultures. First, they conducted qualitative in-depth interviews of a stratified random sample of 20 units from 10 different organizations in

Denmark and the Netherlands. Second, the quantitative measures showed that a large part of the difference among these 25 units could be explained through six dimensions.

1. Process-Oriented vs. Results-Oriented

2. Employee-Oriented vs. Job-Oriented

3. Parochial vs. Professional

4. Open System vs. Closed System

5. Loose Control vs. Tight Control

6. Normative vs. Pragmatic

Most of these dimensions refer to some specific organizational components. The first dimension distinguishes an organizational culture into the importance given to the business processes versus importance given to obtaining desired results. The second dimension identifies cultures that are more concerned with employee development and well-being in contrast to those that are strictly concerned with how the job gets done. The third dimension talks about those cultures in which employees derive most of their identity from the organization versus those cultures where a particular profession is a stronger part of the employees' identity rather than an organization. Open vs. Closed systems refer to the extent of secrecy in operations and how easy or difficult it is to join or leave.

Hofstede's et al., (1990) distinction of Tight vs. Loose organizational cultures refers to the degree of overall internal structures of the organization (Bos, Dauber, Springnagel, 2011). Theoretical roots of this dimension can be traced back to Hofstede's work on culture (Hofstede, 1967). A brief study conducted by Gelfand et al., (2011) further extended this

dimension onto 33 nations. They identified that institutions in tight nations have narrow socialization, restricting the range of permissible behaviour. Institutions in loose nations encourage broad socialization that affords a wide range of permissible behaviour. They also assert that individuals with high situational constraint (tight orientation) will have self-guides that are more prevention-focused and individuals with lower situational constraint (loose orientation) have more promotion-focused self-guides. But unlike the tightness versus looseness in societal cultures, in Hofstede's et al., (1990) study, this dimension was measured through four aspects; cost-consciousness, punctuality, employee grooming, and seriousness at work. Therefore, under the scope of this study, a loose organizational should be viewed as having loose internal structuring on these four dimensions. A culture that does not actively encourage cost efficiency and seriousness; where employees can afford a casual appearance and task delays may be expected. To organizational competitiveness and growth, a tight culture may be more conducive than a loose one. For this study, Tightness vs Looseness dimensions are included to measure the perception of tightness or looseness of the organizational culture among its employees. This is the situational level variable and an interaction between the situational and individual-variable is hypothesized.

Related Literature on Person X Situation Interaction

The construct of acculturation has greatly evolved over time. According to early 20th century ideas of acculturation, immigrants gradually give up on their original cultural patterns and adopt host cultural patterns as they interact with the new social environment. This view was further extended that immigrants may interact with different level of social environments depending on their social and economic status. Berry's Fourfold Acculturation Model also builds on the question that how much of the original is to be maintained versus how much

new is to be adopted. Interactive Acculturation Model clearly magnifies that interactive nature of acculturation process.

This interactionist view is not only limited to acculturation but also many other organizational theories are presented under this perspective. For example, Actor-Network Theory (Callon, 1986) states that all entities derive their features through their interaction with other entities in the environment in which they are located. Social-Cognitive Theory emphasizes that human actions are caused by behaviour, cognitive/personal factors, and external environment and these three factors may interact but do not influence each other simultaneously or instantly (Miles, 2012). Considering both trait-oriented and situation-oriented factors, the interactionist view is becoming more prevalent across disciplines.

Interactionist psychology maintains that behaviour is a function of the interaction between the person and the environment (Bowers, 1973). Person-environment interaction is also highlighted in Jones (1986) “individualized” vs “institutionalized” dimensions of organizational socialization. Social Identity Theory operates on similar foundations, highlighting how individuals derive their self-image from society.

Consistent with these interactionist views, organizational acculturation should also be affected by the interaction between the individual and the situational factors. Therefore, it was considered important to incorporate both the individual and contextual level predictors in order to identify the acculturation outcome. Chapter three synthesizes the developments in the literature review into a model that generates testable hypotheses concerning the interactive effect of an important individual-level construct (Need for Organizational Identification) and an organizational-level construct (Tightness vs Looseness of Organization Culture) on organizational acculturation of employees.

Chapter Three: Research Methodology

The study investigated how individual's acculturation orientations are impacted by the need to be identified with an organization, and the perception of tightness vs looseness of their existing organizational culture. Building on the literature presented in the previous chapter, a survey questionnaire was compiled that measured participants' Need for Organizational Identification, Tightness vs Looseness of their organizational culture and the subsequent acculturation outcomes. The study is guided by a simple research question "how do employees acculturate into an organizational culture". Since there were no existing studies that empirically tested acculturation in organizational settings, four hypotheses based on theoretical propositions derived from the existing research, were proposed. Theoretical support and rationale for the hypotheses are presented in the next few sections. The study was unfolded in two phases. In the first phase, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was applied on Berry's Fourfold Acculturation Model. Results obtained from phase 1 reflected that there may be two acculturation orientations at play when it comes to organizational acculturation. To further test this, Principal Component Analysis and Multidimensional Scaling were performed on the acculturation scale.

Model Development and Hypotheses

Scholars agree that identifying oneself with the culture of a particular social group is an important aspect of acculturation (Padilla & Perez, 2003; Samnani et al., 2012, 2013; Berry et al., 1989), and organizational assimilation (Myers & Oetzel, 2003). It is hypothesized that the extent to which individuals feel the need to identify themselves with the organization plays a key role in adopting a particular acculturating orientation. Moreover, this process will be moderated by the perception of tightness or looseness of their organizational acculture.

While identity theory builds on the notion of salience (Morris, 2013), social identity theory centers on the idea that individuals self-categorize themselves with a particular social group for self-enhancement (Rockmann & Ballinger, 2017) and they may also exercise prejudice, so their social groups are ranked higher than others (Miles, 2012). Positive perception of the social group may further reassure the continuity of this process by strengthening individuals' organizational identification. The overall success of an organizational culture that employees may find desirable to be identified with, conveys a positive feedback. Under the scope of this study, organizations with tight organizational cultures: are cost-conscious, emphasize punctuality, promote proper work attire, and encourage serious attitudes.

Berry's (1980, 1997, 2003) fourfold acculturation typology specifies four possible acculturation outcomes;

Assimilation (adaption of existing organizational culture over pre-existing work patterns)

Integration (adoption of organizational culture and keeping existing work behaviour intact)

Separation (rejection of organizational culture but keeping existing work patterns intact)

Marginalization (rejecting both)

Assimilation oriented individuals place greater significance on the need to be identified with the organizational culture. A tight organizational culture may provide them with this opportunity to earn such identification by becoming a part of the well-organized professional environment. It is hypothesized that High NOID (Need for Organizational Identification) individuals will be willing to assimilate in a tight organizational culture to fulfil their need for organizational identification.

Hypothesis 1: Individuals scoring high on Need for Organizational Identification in a Tight Organizational Culture will rely on an Assimilation strategy of Organization Acculturation.

Contrary to tight control organizational culture, loose organizational culture refers to flexible internal structuring in the formal control system of the organization (Hofstede et al, 1990).

Considering that Tightness vs Looseness is measured on four aspects of punctuality, cost-consciousness, grooming, and seriousness, organizations with loose cultures are assumed to have loose controls in these categories. While this type of culture may be more flexible but individuals reporting high on NOID will not have the opportunities of self-fulfilment and a strong perception of identification in such cultures. A loose organizational culture also lacks strictness in compliance and business processes and therefore may not be able to become desirable for the individuals that signify the need for organizational identification.

Hypothesis 2: Individuals scoring high on Need for Organizational Identification in a Loose Organizational Culture will rely on a Separation strategy of Organizational Acculturation.

Regardless of the preferred acculturation strategy, tight organizational cultures will require individuals to assimilate into it. Such cultures would leave no room for flexibility and would require employees to align their work styles in accordance with the organization's, not the other way around. Individuals with low NOID, even though not signifying the need for organizational identification, but may derive meaning if acculturated or assimilated successfully in the longer run.

Hypothesis 3: Individuals scoring low on Need for Organizational Identification in a Tight Organizational Culture will rely on an Assimilation strategy of Organizational Acculturation.

According to Berry (1980), integration is an acculturation outcome that should happen freely. In this orientation, the newcomer and the dominant culture both accommodate each other by showing flexibility and willingness to integrate from both sides, without any pressure. Even though some employees may report very low on NOID, but it does not necessarily mean that they would be less productive or motivated. A loose organizational culture would not pressurize employees to assimilate and therefore will be more desirable for the low NOID individuals. Hence, it is hypothesized that such an organization will give the opportunity to integrate for the employees that do not consider organizational identification very important.

Hypothesis 4: Individuals scoring low on Need for Organizational Identification in a Loose Organizational Culture will rely on an Integration strategy of Organizational Acculturation.

These four hypotheses were developed a priori based on the theoretical developments reported earlier in this thesis and they assumed that the four factors of Berry's Fourfold Acculturation Model at the societal level would extend to acculturation in organizational settings. As subsequent empirical findings in this thesis will show, fourfold acculturation typology was not replicated in this study; instead, only two factors of Organizational Acculturation were found. Analyses to study the underlying structure of the acculturation scale found two distinct dimensions.

There was a strong correlation between Assimilation and Integration; and Separation and Marginalization. Therefore, Assimilation and Integration were combined into one factor and Separation and Marginalization into another. Rationale on technical and conceptual levels are presented in the next chapter. These two factors were labelled Integration of Organizational Acculturation (comprised of some items measuring integration and assimilation in Berry's model) and Separation of Organizational Acculturation (comprised of some items measuring

marginalization and separation). A survey questionnaire consisting of 39 items was compiled. Next section talks about questionnaire compilation in detail.

Questionnaire Development

The 39 question items were divided into four sections. Section 1 had 5 demographics related questions. Section 2 asks participants to rank their need to be identified with an organization. Section 3 has 4 items measuring how tight or loose the participants' existing organizational culture might be. Finally, section four contains 23 items that measure four acculturation orientations, assimilation, integration, separation, and marginalization.

Demographics (Section 1)

Age: Will help the researcher to learn if “Age” has an effect on acculturation strategies

Industry: Acculturation orientations may vary from industry to industry

Experience: Professionals with more experience may demonstrate different preference as compared to new entrants

Work tenure: Time spent with the current organization may also have an impact

Work role: Employees higher in the hierarchy may be different than those at a lower hierarchy

Independent Variable 1 – NOID (Section 2)

Kreiner & Ashforth (2004) tested an expanded model of Organizational Identification by testing the operationalizations of four dimensions of the expanded model: Identification, Disidentification, Ambivalent Identification, and Neutral Identification. Kreiner & Ashforth (2004) also tested Glynn's (1998) Need for Organizational Identification (NOID) construct.

NOID has 7 items ($\alpha=0.75$), testing the extent to which employees perceive their Organizational Identification to be salient. NOID is one of the two independent variables included in this study to measure individual characteristics that may influence acculturation in organizations. Seven measurement items are as follows;

1. I'd like to work in an organization where I would think of its successes and failures as being my successes and failures.
2. Without an organization to work for, I would feel incomplete.
3. An important part of who I am would be missing if I didn't belong to a work organization.
4. Generally, I do not feel a need to identify with an organization that I am working for.
(R)
5. Generally, the more my goals, values, and beliefs overlap with those of my employer, the happier I am.
6. I would rather say 'we' than 'they' when talking about an organization that I work for.
7. No matter where I work, I'd like to think of myself as representing what the organization stands.

These 7 items measure individuals' need to be identified with an organization on a singular linear continuum through 7-point Likert-scale (1-Strongly Disagree to 7-Strongly Agree). Item 4 (item 9 in survey package) is reverse coded. Individuals reporting a higher than median value were labelled as "High NOID", whereas individuals with lower than median values were categorized as "Low NOID".

Independent Variable 2 – OC Tightness/Looseness (Section 3)

The measure of Tightness vs Looseness of organizational culture has four items developed by Hofstede et al., (1990) cost-consciousness, punctuality, grooming, and seriousness on a 7-point Likert-scale. Individuals with higher than median values perceive their organizational culture to be tight; organizational culture is considered to be loose if values are less than the median. While the Need for Organizational Identification (NOID) measures individual differences and preferences, this construct measures contextual aspects of the work situation. Four items comprising this scale are as follows;

1. Everybody is cost-conscious in my organization.
2. Punctuality in all aspects is extremely important.
3. A typical member of my organization is well-groomed.
4. We always speak seriously of our organization and job.

Scaling of the Independent Variables

Both of the independent variables were dichotomized through median splits. Need for Organizational Identification – NOID ($Mdn = 4.71$) and Tightness vs Looseness of the Organizational Culture ($Mdn = 5.25$) were coded by assigning value 1 to scores higher than the median and 0 to scores lower than the median. Responses that produced 1 for NOID were labelled as High NOID and 0 as Low NOID. Similarly, Tightness of the organizational culture was assigned the value of 1 and Looseness with the 0. Although the practice of median split is not uncommon in social sciences research, some researchers have casted their doubts on this practice. Taking into account the strengths and limitations of the median split approach discussed in the next section it was decided that the median split of the independent variables was the most appropriate scaling for this study. The next section discusses this

matter in some detail and provides justification for why this median split approach was used in this study.

Dichotomization of Variables (Median Split)

Dividing a sample into two groups based on reported median values on a continuous variable, above or below mean is commonly referred to as median split (Iacobucci, Posavac, Kardes, Schneider, and Popovich, 2014). Researchers have argued that median split in many cases may produce spurious results (DeCoster, Iselin, and Galluci, 2009) and sometimes it may dramatically increase the probability of a Type I error (Maxwell and Delaney, 1993). Other common arguments are that it may result in the loss of valuable information, statistical power and reduced variability. For example, in a median split, a barely above cut-off value is treated equally to a maximum value and so the variance is reduced in the dichotomized variable.

Maxwell and Delaney (1993) indicated when two dichotomized independent variables are used to predict a dependent variable (as in this study), the analysis can lead to spuriously weak results and inflated Type I error rates for the interaction term. But in order for this to be true, the two dichotomized independent variables have to be correlated. DeCoster et al., (2009) interviewed 66 researchers who used this approach in their published papers and found following reasons to why researchers prefer to practice median split: it makes analyses easier to conduct and interpret, simplifies the presentation of results, and allows the use of ANOVAs. Research discussing groups differences may be more easily interpreted if median splits are used; it also provides greater clarity in communicating the research findings. (Iacobucci et al., 2014). Median split helps simplify groups differences because of the discrete dichotomization of the data; whereas without this split the statistical analysis

generates a long exhausting list of group differences on continuous levels, which are extremely hard to interpret and explain.

The Pearson correlation between two IVs in this study was found to be .23 and as discussed further in Chapter 4, the major analysis for this study did not find the interaction but only main effects. Multivariate analyses conducted on both dichotomized and continuous predictors offered similar, if not identical results. Therefore, to aid in interpretation and communication of the study results, the independent variables were median split between “High NOID” vs “Low NOID” and “Tight OC” vs “Loose OC”.

Dependent Variable – Dimensions of Acculturation

Ting-Toomey et al., (2000) tested Berry’s (1980) Fourfold Acculturation Model on four ethnic groups (African-Americans, Asian-Americans, European-Americans, Latino-Americans) containing 662 respondents. Berry’s (1980) acculturation typology was tested by using Ethnic/Cultural Identity Dimensions (EID) scale and four clear factors emerged from the factor analysis (Ting-Toomey et al, 2000). Since this model has been introduced and tested in purely national/ethnic cultural settings, only the items from EID scale that can be replicated under organizational settings were selected. However, the Ting-Toomey et al., (2000) scale cannot be fully utilized to measure all the four outcomes in organizational context. Therefore, this scale was modified to provide a dependent variable for this study.

There is a key difference between national/ethnic and organizational culture that makes it necessary to develop a scale of organizational acculturation for this thesis. Under national/ethnic cultural context, there are two distinct groups that the respondents can gravitate towards, one being their own ethnic culture and other the greater national culture. For an employee, acculturating in an organizational culture is not a choice between two

facets of culture corresponding to the ethnicity and nationality, but only the degree to which employees perceive themselves acculturated toward their organization. Hence there is likely a single direct relationship between the person and the organization, individual attachment to the organization will determine the type of acculturation strategy employed.

Question items measuring Assimilation, Marginalization were selected from Ting-Toomey's et al., (2000) EID scale. Integration comprises of two items from Kreiner & Ashforth's (2004) "Identification" scale and seven from Ting-Toomey's et al., (2000) EID scale. Kreiner & Ashforth's (2004) "Disidentification" was selected to measure Separation because the disidentification items strongly correspond to the same construct and the items do not need any modification. To assist the reader in understanding the changes that were made when translating the EID scale into a corresponding scale of organizational acculturation, the original Ting-Toomey items and the modified items included in the organizational acculturation scale, developed for this thesis are presented side-by-side in Tables 1, 2 and 3. In order to test Berry's fourfold acculturation model in organizational settings, it is very important to consider contextual differences between a national/ethnic culture and a culture of an organization. Therefore, a short rationale for the items conversions is given after each of Tables 1 through 3.

Assimilation

Five items measuring Assimilation dimension were selected from Ting-Toomey's et al., (2000) EID scale. Assimilation is the dimension that refers to complete abandonment of original culture values and adoption of dominant cultural values and norms (Samnani et al., 2012). As shown in Table 1, Assimilation items of original scale attempt to measure the willingness of the respondents to identify strongly with the US or dominant culture.

Similarly, the modified items ask the respondents to report their preference for organizational culture and its values.

Table 1: Assimilation – Scale Items Development

Original Items from Ting-Toomey et al., (2000) EID scale:	Modification to replicate in organizational setting
I believe that the best way for members of different ethnic groups to get along is to assimilate to the overall US culture.	I believe the best way of getting along for employees is to assimilate in the culture of my organization.
It is important for me to identify closely with the overall US culture.	It is important for me to identify closely with my organization.
I generally identify strongly with overall US culture.	I generally identify strongly with my organizational culture.
I usually go by the values of the overall US culture.	I generally go by the values of my organization.
It is important for me to internalize the overall US cultural values.	It is important for me to internalize the values of my organization.

Integration

As per Berry's (1997, 2003) model, Integration is the process in which both cultures (newcomer/non-dominant and host/dominant) retain some aspects of their original cultures while at the same time, acquire some aspects of each others' cultures. Organizations, unlike larger societies, are relatively closely controlled with specific objectives. Willingness to pursue shared organizational goals is imperative for both new and existing employees. Therefore, in the case of conflicting values, it is the employee who must give up his or her original working style and adapt an approach that is more aligned with the existing

organizational values. The items included to measure Integration are slightly modified versions of those used in Ting-Toomey et al., (2000) EID scale. One recurring pattern in these items is that unlike items used to tests Assimilation, items testing Integration investigate individuals' transactive relationship with each other. For example, in Assimilation, all the items attempt to examine the relationship between the organization and the individual, whereas Integration items explore the relationship that employees have with each other. It is not only the organizational culture, structure and norms that an individual acculturates into but also sub-acculturative processes that occur among employees of different backgrounds. Integration is measured through six items from Ting-Toomey et al's., (2000) EID scale and two items from Kreiner & Ashforth's (2004) Identification scale.

Table 2: Integration– Scale Items Development

Original Items from Ting-Toomey et al., (2000) EID scale:	Modification to replicate in organizational setting
I am involved in activities with people from other ethnic groups.	I am involved in activities with people from my workplace.
I enjoy being around people from ethnic groups other than my own.	I enjoy being around my colleagues.
I feel unable to involve myself in activities with members of the other ethnic group(s).	I feel unable to involve myself in activities with my colleagues.
I often find myself referring to members of the other ethnic group(s) in a negative way.	I often find myself referring to my fellow colleagues in a negative way.
I have many friends from the other ethnic group(s).	I have many friends in my organization.

I generally do not trust members of the other ethnic group(s).	I generally do not trust other employees in this organization.
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Kreiner & Ashforth (2004) – Identification Measure
When someone criticizes my organization, it feels like a personal insult.
When I talk about my organization, I usually say “we” rather than “they”.

Separation

Items in the Kreiner & Ashforth’s (2004) Disidentification scale were used as items that measure Separation for Organizational Acculturation scale of this study. Disidentification is an active separation from the organization (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004). Items linked to “separation” in EID scale measure individuals’ belongingness with their ethnic/native culture. However, in an organizational context, employees may separate themselves from the organization by disidentifying themselves with the organization.

Disidentification

1. I am embarrassed to be part of this organization
2. This organization does shameful things
3. I have tried to keep the organization I work for a secret from people I meet
4. I find this organization to be disgraceful
5. I want people to know that I disagree with how this organization behaves
6. I have been ashamed of what goes on in this organization

Marginalization

Marginalization refers to the avoidance of one's original culture as well as the dominant culture resulting in isolation from both (Samnani et al., 2012). Because of the contextual differences between a national/ethnic and an organizational culture, this strategy cannot successfully function in an organizational setting. However, it is an important component of the Fourfold Acculturation Model and therefore, it was included in the questionnaire for exploratory purposes.

Table 3: Marginalization – Scale Items Development

Original Items from Ting-Toomey et al., (2000) EID scale:	Modification to replicate in organizational setting
I often feel lost about who I am as an ethnic being.	I often feel lost about my role as an employee in my organization.
I often feel “left out” when others around me talk about ethnic identity issues.	I often feel “left out” when other employees discuss organizational issues.
I often feel “suspended” and “lost” as far as ethnic group membership is concerned.	I often feel “suspended” and “lost” as far as organizational membership is concerned.
I feel like I live on the “fringe” in terms of my ethnic group belongingness.	I feel like I live on the “fringe” in terms of my affiliation with my organization.

Research Design

First phase of the study tested four hypotheses proposed earlier. The objective was to investigate the effect of NOID and Tightness vs Looseness of organizational culture in deciding Organizational Acculturation orientation. Since there are two independent variables (NOID and Tight/Loose OC) and four dependent variables (Assimilation, Integration,

Separation, Marginalization), Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was applied for statistical analysis.

For the second phase, Principal Component Analysis and Multidimensional Scaling were performed on the acculturation scale, which identified two clearly distinct dimensions for organizational acculturation. Based on the results, Assimilation and Integration were combined into one dimension of Integration, whereas Separation and Marginalization were combined into Separation. The model did not identify the predicted interaction but the main effects with some interesting patterns were detected, which are discussed later in Chapter five.

Justification of Approach

Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) is the extension of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), in a study when there are multiple dependent variables (Field, 2009). MANOVA has a greater power than ANOVA in detecting the effects because it takes into account the correlations between the dependent variables (Huberty & Morris, 1989). Using many ANOVAS to incorporate many dependent variables can inflate familywise and Type I error and the potential relationship between the dependent variables may be ignored (Field, 2009). In this study, there are four outcome variables but all of them contribute to the same construct, Organizational Acculturation. Some of the outcome variables may be correlated. A Multivariate Analysis of Variance is typically followed by Linear Discriminant Analysis (Field, 2009; Huberty & Morris, 1989; Pohar, Blas & Turk, 2004). Purpose of Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDS) is to study the relationship between the outcome variables. However, Pohar et al., (2004) suggest LDS is useful when there are more than two categories

of the dependent variable and in case of two categories, Logistic Regression yields better results followed by MANOVA.

Operationalization

Faculty at the University of Northern British Columbia's Business School was contacted to allow the researcher to visit the classrooms for data collection. Consent from the instructors was obtained prior to class visits. Survey package consisted of six pages in total. In addition to presenting information about the study, the first two cover pages of the package addressed data confidentiality, privacy, and other rights of the participants. Last four pages were the actual questionnaire. Participants were allowed to retain the cover pages to learn more about the study and contact the researcher to know about the findings, if they wished. It was emphasized that participation in the study is completely voluntary and participants do not need to mention their name, student number or any other mean through which they can potentially be identified. There were no signatures required by the participants and their consent to participate in the study was assumed by the participation, as suggested by the Research Ethics Board and outlined in the cover pages. During the class visits, the first few minutes were taken to pitch the research to the class and then the survey packages were handed out. On average, the entire data collection process took 12-15 minutes. Data was coded into Microsoft Excel 2016 for further statistical analyses. Item 9, 24, 25, and 27 were reverse coded. First data collection class visit was also utilized as a "pre-test" and the participants were asked to report the researcher if the questionnaire had any ambiguities. All the participants found no difficulties in understanding the questionnaire and responding to it.

Chapter Four: Results

Statistical analyses unfolded in two phases. In this chapter, results obtained from the statistical analyses are discussed.

Phase 1 – MANOVA and Logistic Regression

Data were obtained from 129 participants, enrolled in 3rd and 4th-year undergraduate degree program at the School of Business. IBM SPSS v24 was used to perform data analyses.

Descriptive statistics are given in Table 4.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics of Data Collected

Variable		Count	Percentage
Age	19 or less	8	6.2
	20-29 years	104	80.6
	30 or more	17	13.2
Industry	(Blank)	5	3.9
	Retail	22	17.1
	Hospitality	12	9.3
	Education	21	16.3
	Finance	39	30.2
	Other	30	23.3
Professional Experience	(Blank)	2	1.6
	2 years or less	76	58.9
	3 – 5 years	26	20.2
	6 years or more	25	19.4
Work Tenure in Current Organization	(Blank)	4	3.1
	2 years or less	85	65.9
	3 – 5 years	30	23.3
	6 years or more	10	7.8
Position	(Blank)	10	7.8
	Entry Level	88	68.2
	Junior Management	18	14.0
	Middle Management	13	10.1
	Senior Management	0	0.0

All the items in their subsequent scales were found to be internally consistent, except following;

Item 17: I believe the best way of getting along for employees is to assimilate in the culture of my organization.

Item 32: I have tried to keep the organization I work for a secret from people I meet.

Item 35: I have been ashamed of what goes on in this organization.

Item 17 was in Assimilation and items 32 and 35 were in Separation scale. An item indicating corrected item-total correlation less than .3 means that the item does not correlate well with the scale overall (Field, 2009). Item 17 reported an item-total correlation of .262 and removing items 32 and 35 resulted in better alpha for the overall scale. In addition, the scales of NOID, Tightness/Looseness OC, Assimilation, Integration, Separation, and Marginalization were also found internally consistent with Cronbach's Alpha .820, .651, .875, .771, .927, and .885 respectively. Table 5 represents the means and standard deviations for all of the variables included in the study.

Table 5: Means – Standard Deviations of Data Collected

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
NOID	129	4.7231	1.05202
Tightness	129	5.0329	.94651
Assimilation	129	4.5872	1.36239
Integration	129	4.9707	.94490
Separation	129	2.1899	1.46335
Marginalization	129	2.4180	1.30977

As shown by Table 5, NOID, Tightness, Assimilation, and Integration have a mean of 4.72, 5.03, 4.58, and 4.97 respectively. However, Separation and Marginalization reported fairly low mean scores of 2.18 and 2.41. This is due to positive skewness of the data for these two variables. One-third of the participants reported the value of 1 or below on Separation, the same percentage reported the values between 1 and mean score of 2.19, and exactly one-third were above the mean score. On the Marginalization scale, 56% were reported to be 2 or below while 38% scored above the mean value of 2.4.

Sample Size and Power

The question may arise whether the sample size provided sufficient statistical power to detect a statistical effect under the assumption that the null hypothesis is rejected. Power analysis helps researchers determine the required sample size to detect an effect under a given level of statistical power. Collecting data from too many participants may not be necessary, whereas insufficient data may fail to provide adequate power. Since data collection can be a costly and lengthy process, it is important for a researcher to learn whether their study has sufficient statistical power and to evaluate this information. A power analysis can be conducted on a priori (before data collection to determine sample size) or on post-hoc basis (after data collection to find if statistical power was achieved). Data collection process for this study required the researcher to obtain written consents from each of the instructors prior to the class visit. It was not known beforehand that how many faculty members will actually provide timely consent and how long would it take. Therefore, instead of setting up a sample size target, it was decided to conduct a posteriori power analysis as the data is collected.

Cohen (1998) described four statistical parameters relevant to the estimation of statistical power that are mutually determining: power ($1-\beta$), the criterion for statistical significance (α),

sample size, and effect size. These parameters are so closely related that if any three of them are fixed, the fourth is completely determined (Cohen, 1998 p.14). Software package G*Power was used to conduct the power analysis for this study, using an alpha of 0.05, setting $\alpha = .05$ the effect size ($f = .33$) for NOID and ($f = .062$) for Tightness vs Looseness, and the sample size ($N = 129$). The values of the effect size were obtained through MANOVA, with a medium effect for NOID and small effect size detected for Tight/Loose OC. Observed power of 0.99 and 0.89 was obtained for NOID and Tightness vs Looseness respectively. Therefore, a sample size of 129 provided sufficient power to study the hypotheses developed for this study.

Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)

MANOVA was conducted using SPSS software package v24. Participants were assigned to four experimental conditions on two predictors NOID (High vs low) and Tight/Loose OC (Tight OC vs Loose OC). Multivariate and univariate results obtained from the analyses are discussed below. Box's M value of 44.2 was associated with a p value of .082, thus the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are not equal across groups.

Using Pillai's trace, significant effect of NOID was detected, $V = .33$, $F(4, 122) = 15.07$, $p < .05$. But the Tightness of the Organizational Culture $V = .062$, $F(4, 122) = 2$, $p > .05$, and the interaction were not found significant $V = .03$, $F(4, 122) = .94$, $p > .05$. These results are not in agreement with the prevalent view of acculturation regarding the interaction between the individual and the situational factor. Multivariate tests results are given in Table 6.

Coefficients of significant relationships have been highlighted with thicker borderlines.

Table 6: Multivariate Tests Results with Four Dependent Variables

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
NOID	.331	15.07	4	122	.000
Tight/Loose OC	.062	.062	4	122	.094
Interaction	.030	.945	4	122	.440

Following univariate analysis identified that NOID's effect is significant on Assimilation $F = 66.7, p < .05$ and Integration $F = 14.3, p < .05$; and not significant on Separation $F = 2.4, p > .05$ and on Marginalization $F = 3.2, p > .05$. Tightness of the Organizational Culture was found to be significant only with Assimilation $F = 2.4, p < .05$.

Univariate Analysis of Variance

Multivariate analysis indicated a nonsignificant interaction between NOID and Tightness.

Through univariate analysis, it can be studied if any of these predictors have the main effect independently. Homogeneity of variance assumption was considered satisfied in Levene's F tests with $p > 0.05$ across all dependent variables except Assimilation. Univariate test statistics are given below in Table 7;

Table 7: Test of Between-Subjects Effects with Four Dependent Variables

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
NOID	Assimilation	66.73	1	66.73	51.51	.000
	Integration	14.34	1	14.34	19	.000
	Separation	2.12	1	2.12	1	.316

	Marginalization	3.28	1	3.28	2	.153
Tightness	Assimilation	2.42	1	2.42	1.86	.174
	Integration	1.79	1	1.79	2.37	.126
	Separation	8.50	1	8.50	4.05	.046
	Marginalization	11.91	1	11.91	7.49	.007
NOID*Tightness	Assimilation	1.01	1	1.01	.784	.378
	Integration	.195	1	.195	.258	.612
	Separation	.048	1	.048	.023	.880
	Marginalization	2.81	1	2.81	1.77	.186

The analysis found no significant interaction between NOID and Tightness of the Organizational Culture. Therefore, null hypotheses cannot be rejected. However, the study did find significant main interactions that are explored to further analyze how NOID and Tight/Loose OC independently affect organizational acculturation. Field (2009) recommended that after significant MANOVA and Univariate analyses, following up the results with discriminant analysis provides a better understanding of data. However, Pohar, Blas, and Turk (2004) stated that LDS (Linear Discriminant Analysis) should be used when there are more than 2 groups for the dependent variable, for dependent variables with binary outcomes, Logistic Regression is more robust. Discriminant Analysis finds that linear combination of dependent variables that best discriminate the groups (Field, 2009), whereas logistic regression finds the best fitting and most parsimonious model to explain the relationship between a set of continuous predictors and categorical outcome variable (Pohar et al., 2004).

Multivariate results obtained from MANOVA found NOID to be significant ($p < 0.05$) and Tight/Loose OC to be non-significant ($p > 0.05$). The univariate analysis further revealed that NOID was significant on Assimilation and Integration ($p < 0.05$). Tight/Loose OC was found to be significant with Separation and Marginalization ($p < 0.05$). Therefore, it can be concluded that even though NOID and Tightness do not interact while impacting employees' acculturation into their organizational culture, but these two variables independently demonstrate the main effects. The estimates table for these two variables is given in Table 8;

Table 8: Estimates for NOID and Tightness with Four Dependent Variables:

	NOID	Mean	SD	Tightness	MEAN	SD
Assimilation	Low	3.782	.162	Loose OC*	4.398	.126
	High	5.304	.137	Tight OC*	4.688	.171
Integration	Low	4.619	.123	Loose OC*	4.847	.096
	High	5.325	.105	Tight OC*	5.096	.130
Separation	Low*	2.264	.205	Loose OC	2.400	.160
	High*	1.993	.175	Tight OC	1.857	.217
Marginalization	Low*	2.506	.179	Loose OC	2.658	.139
	High*	2.168	.152	Tight OC	2.015	.189

* $p > 0.05$

Logistic Regression

Table 8 indicates high score for Assimilation and Integration for individuals reporting high on NOID. Individuals reporting high on NOID are more likely to adapt Assimilation and/or Integration as their acculturation strategy. Separation and Marginalization were not found significant with NOID. Individuals who perceive their organizational culture to be loose are

more likely to fall in Separation and Marginalization quadrants. Assimilation and Integration do not seem to be impacted by Tightness or Looseness of OC. These results were further tested by performing Logistic Regression and by including NOID as the categorical outcome variable, Assimilation and Integration as continuous predictors. The output from logistic regression is presented in Table 9;

Table 9: Variables in the Equation – Logistic Regression Results

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Assimilation	1.074	.237	20.461	1	.000	2.926
Integration	.695	.331	4.416	1	.036	2.004
Separation	.495	.243	4.151	1	.042	1.640
Marginalization	-.258	.252	1.047	1	.306	.773

Results of logistic regression suggest a significant relationship between NOID and both, Assimilation, Integration, and Separation ($p < 0.05$). The overall percentage row of the classification table also indicated that this prediction approach is correct 78.3% of the times. The results reflect that in addition to triggering Assimilation and Integration, the Need for Organizational Identification (NOID) is also affected by these two acculturation orientations plus Separation. As discussed earlier, Assimilation and Integration differ in a way that the Assimilation investigates the synergy of the relationship between the employees and the organization, whereas Integration tests the social relationship that employees have with each other. Logistic Regression performed on the data reflects that these two (Assimilation and Integration) contribute further to strengthening the Need for Organizational Identification. Although Separation was not found significant with NOID in MANOVA but seemed to be affecting it in Logistic Regression results.

Phase 2

Results in Phase 1 experiments found a positive significant relationship between NOID and Assimilation/Integration; Tight/Loose OC and Separation/Marginalization. Participants overall reported high mean scores on the orientations of Assimilation and Integration and mean scores were low on Separation and Marginalization. Data shows that these four acculturation orientations can potentially be clustered into two themes, one for Assimilation and Integration and other for Separation and Marginalization. Low mean scores reported on Separation and Marginalization also suggest that these two undesirable and depressive acculturation states are not very active under organizational settings, at least among the sample size of this research. In order to study the underlying latent structure of acculturation, the techniques of Principle Component Analysis and Multidimensional Scaling (MDS) were performed on the items included in acculturation scales. An overview of both these techniques is presented in the next section.

Principal Component Analysis and Multidimensional Scaling (MDS)

Even though factor analysis is one of the most widely used methods for examining the underlying variable interrelations but Multidimensional Scaling (MDS) can provide visual representations by highlighting the continuous nature of relationships among variables (Tucker-Drop & Salthouse, 2010). According to Mantha (1999), Factor Analysis (FA) is a variable-directed approach, and Principal Component Analysis (PCA) produces an orthogonal transformation of the variables and does not depend on an underlying model, while MDS helps us understand the similarities in the data set by visually representing the distances among data nodes in a multidimensional space. MDS visually represents variables as points in space in a way that highly related variables are spatially closer (Tucker-Drop & Salthouse, 2010). It is a mathematical technique that allows the distances between nodes in a

high dimensional space mapped into a lower dimensional space (Mantha, 1999). PCA is based on angles among vectors while MDS method is based on distances among points (Lacher & O'Donnell, 1988). FA is often used to create new variables by summarizing the information available in original variables, whereas PCA is used to study the relationship that might exist among the measured variables in the data set (Mantha, 1999). Multidimensional Scaling is a very flexible exploratory data analysis technique that is not bound by the assumptions associated with General Linear Models (Jaworska & Anastasova, 2009). Both of these techniques were applied to study the acculturation scale. There are opposing and supporting arguments available in the literature for both of these techniques. Lacher & O'Donnel (1988), state that MDS may result in a lower dimensional solution than PCA. It was confirmed when a Principal Component Analysis was run on the acculturation scale. Four factors indeed were extracted that reported eigenvalues higher than 1 and collectively explained 69.3% of the variance. Based on the assumption that these four categories may correlate with each other, direct oblimin rotation was used. Table 10 shows KMO and Bartlett's test results;

Table 10: KMO and Bartlett's Test Results for Principal Component Analysis

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.817
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1462.646
	df	190
	Sigma	.000

Bartlett's test of sphericity measures significance of the correlations in a correlation matrix.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin of sampling adequacy shows a strong relationship between variables (KMO=.850), $p < .05$. Pattern matrix generated by the analysis is given in Table 11.

Table 11: Principal Component Analysis Pattern Matrix

Q No.	Scale Items	Components			
		1	2	3	4
39	I feel like I live on the “fringe” in terms of my affiliation with my organization.	0.907			
38	I often feel “suspended” and “lost” as far as organizational membership is concerned.	0.896			
37	I often feel “left out” when other employees discuss organizational issues.	0.891			
36	I often feel lost about my role as an employee in my organization.	0.800			
33	I find this organization to be disgraceful.	0.729			
34	I want people to know that I disagree with how this organization behaves.	0.674			
31	This organization does shameful things.	0.630			
30	I am embarrassed to be part of this organization.	0.582			
19	I generally identify strongly with my organizational culture.		0.843		
20	I generally go by the values of my organization.		0.808		
18	It is important for me to identify closely with my organization.		0.806		
29	When I talk about my organization, I usually say “we” rather than “they”.		0.716		
21	It is important for me to internalize the values of my organization.		0.622		
28	When someone criticizes my organization, it feels like a personal insult.		0.597		
22	I am involved in activities with people from my work place.			0.774	
23	I enjoy being around my colleagues.			0.742	
26	I have many friends in my organization.			0.691	
25	I often find myself referring to my fellow colleagues in a negative way.				0.741
24	I feel unable to involve myself in activities with my colleagues.				0.613

Factor loadings of .5 or greater are displayed in Table 11. Component 1 has 8 loading items, 4 from the Marginalization and 4 from the Separation orientation. Component 2 has 6 items. Out of which, 4 are from Assimilation and 2 from Integration quadrants. Component 3 has 3

items and Component 4 has 2 items. All items in Component 3 and 4 are from Integration orientation. As we can see that even though four factors have been retained by the model, but the conceptual dynamics are greatly different. In an organizational context, these cannot be labelled as four distinct factors because of many items overlapping across components.

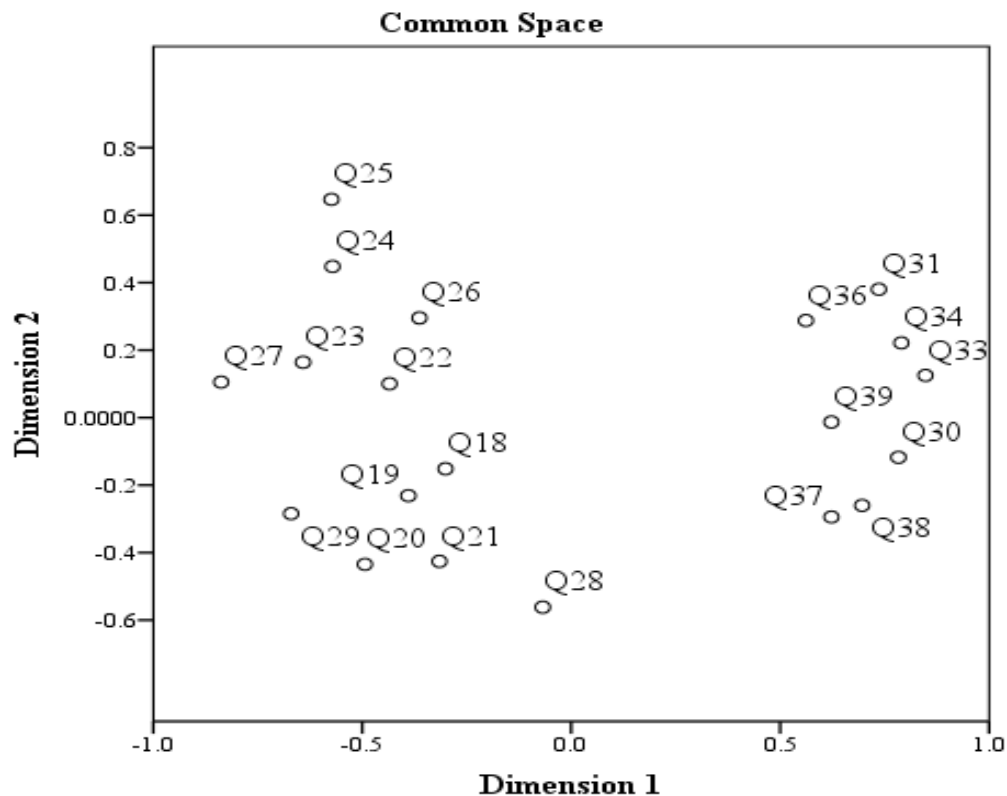
Resulting Factors 1 and 2 suggest that respondents did not seem to differentiate between Assimilation-Integration and Separation-Marginalization. Item loadings in Factor 1 and 2 are the ones that seem to measure the acculturative relationship of the employees with the organization, whereas Factor 3 and 4 have the items investigating acculturation with the co-workers. Results suggest that Assimilation and Integration can be combined into one factor; Separation and Marginalization into another. Multidimensional Scaling was applied to gain more clarity and understanding of the data.

Dugard, Todman, & Staines (2010 p.275) suggested S-Stress value below 0.15 represent a good fit, Dispersion Accounted For (DAF) and Tucker's Coefficient of Congruence values should be close to 1. As Table 12 demonstrates, results satisfy these conditions. Figure 6 presents the visualization of variables in accordance with their proximities to each other.

Table 12: Stress and Fit Measures for Multidimensional Scaling Analysis

Normalized Raw Stress	.02513
Stress-I	.15854
Stress-II	.34738
S-Stress	.03605
Dispersion Accounted For (D.A.F.)	.97487
Tucker's Coefficient of Congruence	.98735

Figure 6: Multidimensional Scaling Output



Results obtained by Multidimensional Scaling (Figure 6) reduce these four orientations into two dimensions. Univariate analyses had found Assimilation and Integration significant with NOID, whereas Separation and Marginalization with Tight/Loose OC in a way that individuals high on NOID are more likely to adapt Assimilation/Integration and individuals that view their organizational culture to be loose are more likely to fall in Separation/Marginalization orientations. Findings of Logistic Regression following MANOVA had further demonstrated the reciprocal relationship between the Need for Organizational Identification (NOID) and Assimilation/Integration.

Based on Principal Component Analysis and Multidimensional Scaling results, it was decided to combine these four constructs into two. Variable combining Assimilation and Integration was labelled as Integration; whereas, Separation and Marginalization were

combined as Separation. New variable of Integration contains the items that measure employees' acculturative relationship with the organization as well as with the fellow co-workers. Separation contains those 8 items (from Separation and Marginalization) that loaded onto Factor 1 in PCA. After combining these four variables into two, another Multivariate Analysis was conducted to examine if the model has improved.

Multivariate Analysis of Variance on Revised Model

Both NOID and Tight/Loose OC were found to be significant in multivariate tests, Pillai's trace $V = .27$, $F(2, 124) = 23.9$, $p < .05$ and $V = .05$, $F(2, 124) = 3.39$, $p < .05$ respectively. However, there was no significant interaction effect detected. Univariate statistics identified NOID to be significant with Integration, $F = 42.90$, $p < .05$, whereas the effect of Tight/Loose OC was significant on Separation, $F = 6.54$, $p < .05$. Individuals reporting high on NOID are more likely to exhibit integrative behaviour at work and individuals that perceive their organizational culture to be loose are more likely to adopt Separation. In the original acculturation model with four acculturation outcomes, Tight/Loose OC did not seem to have an effect. After combining four acculturation variables in two, Separation became significant and Tight/Loose OC also demonstrated the effect. Table 13 represents Multivariate and Table 14 Univariate test results;

Table 13: Multivariate Tests Results with Two Dependent Variables

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
NOID	.279	23.946	2	124	.000
Tight/Loose OC	.052	3.390	2	124	.037
Interaction	.006	.392	2	123	.676

Table 14: Test of Between-Subjects Effects with Two Dependent Variables

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
NOID	Integration	27.59	1	27.59	42.90	.000
	Separation	2.68	1	2.68	1.72	.191
Tightness	Integration	1.99	1	1.99	3.10	.081
	Separation	10.16	1	10.16	6.54	.012

Table 14 suggests a significant relationship between NOID and Integration and between Tightness and Separation. This relationship is further explored by studying the estimated marginal means given in Table 15;

Table 15: Estimates for NOID and Tightness with Two Dependent Variables

	NOID	Mean	SD	Tightness	MEAN	SD
Integration	Low	4.34	.114	Loose OC	4.69*	.088
	High	5.31	.097	Tight OC	4.96*	.120
Separation	Low	2.38*	.177	Loose OC	2.52	.138
	High	2.07*	.150	Tight OC	1.93	.187

* $p > 0.05$

Integration orientation combines Assimilation and Integration and these two differ in ways that Assimilation is conceptualized as the likelihood of individuals understanding and internalizing organizational norms/values, whereas Integration is the likelihood of individuals

being social and hospitable towards their fellow co-workers. Individuals who perceive their organizational culture to be loose are more likely to fall in Separation, which is the combination of Separation and Marginalization orientations. Mean scores for Integration is higher in High NOID, and Separation in Loose OC. These results suggest that Need for Organizational Identification and perception of Tightness vs Looseness of the Organizational Culture are two distinct processes, affecting Organizational Acculturation on their own but not interactively. In the main effect, Integration is influenced by a higher Need for Organizational Identification, whereas employees who perceive their organizational cultures to be Loose may find themselves in Separation orientation. Conversely, the Need for Organizational Identification does not impact Separation and perceived Tightness or Looseness of the Organizational Culture does not affect Integration. These effects are represented in Figure 7 for both Integration and Figure 8 for Separation variables.

Figure 7: Effect graph for Integration

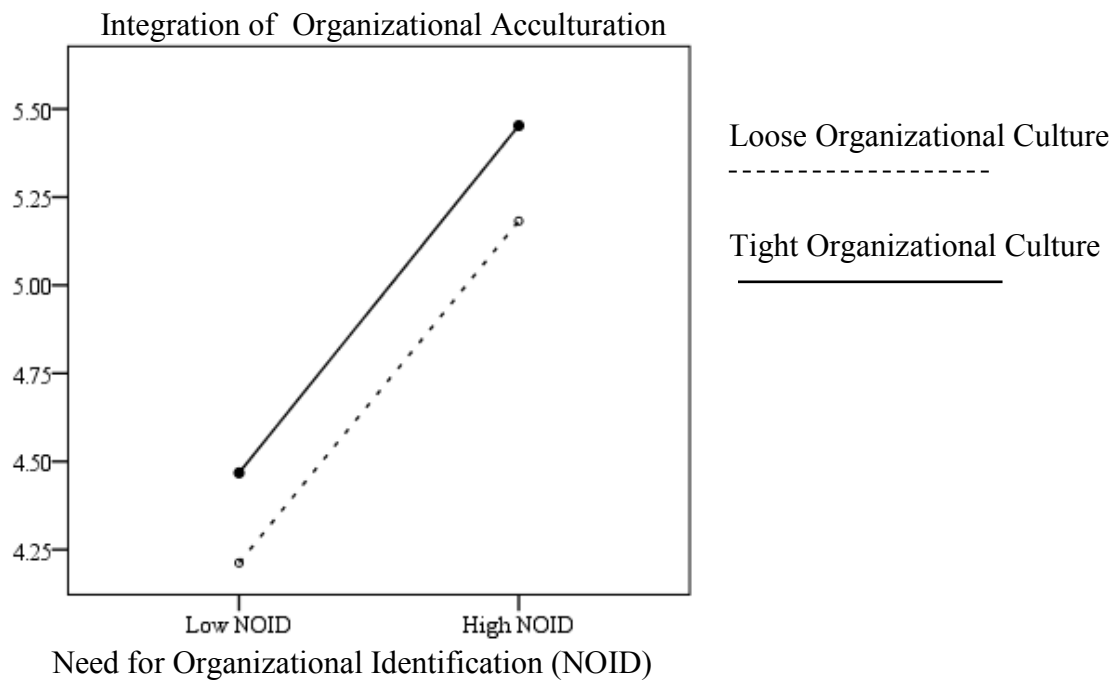


Figure 8: Effect graph for Separation

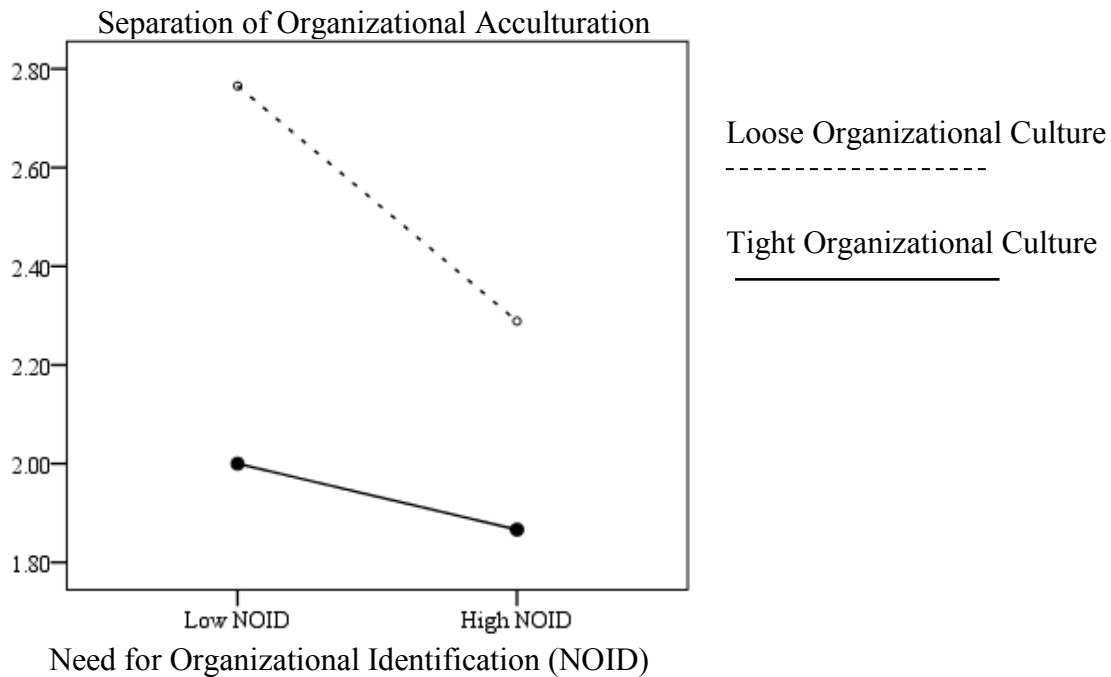


Figure 7 shows a significant increase in Integration at higher NOID levels. Lines for both Tight and Loose Organizational Cultures have an identical slope, so the mean variation remains the same through the slope. However, Tight Organizational Culture reports slightly higher mean scores. Figure 8 displays higher mean scores for Separation for low NOID and the mean scores reported for Separation are higher in Loose organizational culture. Results suggest that higher Need for Organizational Identification is associated with greater Integration and Loose Organization Culture is associated with greater Separation.

Results were further verified by applying Logistic Regression. NOID was included as the dependent variable, Integration and Separation as the independent variables. Table 16 represents logistic regression output;

Table 16: Variables in the Equation – Logistic Regression Results

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Integration	1.828	.353	26.819	1	.000	6.224
Separation	.352	.207	2.909	1	.088	1.422
Constant	-9.456	2.008	22.169	1	.000	.000

Classification table demonstrated 74.4% of the data is correctly classified. Classification table is a method to evaluate the results of a Logistic Regression. Logistic Regression by including Tight/Loose OC as the dependent variable did not yield significant results. There seems to be no effect of acculturation strategies on the perception of Tightness or Looseness of the Organizational Culture. While the perception of tightness versus looseness may impact the organizational acculturation in a way that individuals viewing their organizational culture to be loose will more likely to adopt separation but there is no reciprocity in this relationship. On the other hand, higher NOID associates with Integration and Integration also positively affects the Need for Organizational Identification.

Chapter Five: Discussion and Conclusion

Discussion

This study contributes to the knowledge of acculturation in multiple ways. No existing studies have: (a) attempted to test Berry's Fourfold Acculturation Model in an organizational context, (b) investigated how the Need for Organizational Identification, and (c) Tightness of Looseness of an Organizational Culture impact Organizational Acculturation. Regarding (a), this study demonstrated that a meaningful and adequate measurement of Organizational Acculturation could be developed as a study (independent) variable. Pursuant to (b) and (c) it was demonstrated that, at least for the independent variables incorporated into this study, the interaction between the individual-level variable and the organizational-level variable, was not obtained. Results produced by Multivariate and Univariate analyses, clearly indicate no interaction between the individuals' need to identify with an organization and the tightness vs looseness of the organizational culture, while affecting employees' acculturation strategies. This finding also contradicts the prevalent view of acculturation that maintains that acculturation is affected by the ongoing interaction between the individuals and situations (Portes & Zhou, 1993; Berry, 1997, 2005; Bourhis et al., 1997). However, NOID and Tight/Loose OC had main effects on the dependent variable of Organizational Acculturation. The interpretation of these results is discussed in the next two sections.

Interaction effect (not found)

Need for Organizational Identification and perception of Tightness vs Looseness of the Organizational Culture seem to be different mechanisms impacting acculturation, independent from each other. Conversely, Integration and Separation are influenced by different antecedents. Integration appears to be determined by the individual-level factor of NOID, whereas Separation is determined by the situational factor of Tightness vs Looseness of the Organizational Culture. This finding can also be interpreted that where high NOID leads individuals to feel integrated with the organizational culture, a loose organizational culture pushes the individuals towards separation.

The findings of this study suggest that, despite having some common components, Organizational Acculturation is a different process than societal acculturation. There may be four acculturation orientations (Assimilation, Integration, Separation, Marginalization) functioning on the societal level but due to contextual differences, all these four cannot function in organizational settings. For example, Portes & Zhou (1993) noted that Haitian immigrants into the United States that do not attempt to assimilate into mainstream culture confine to the ranks of ethnic lower or lower middle class but nonetheless adapt what they called “segmented assimilation” into those “marginalized” or in Berry’s view “separated” likeminded groups. A democratic society allows people of diverse cultural backgrounds to maintain their cultural traditions, norms and beliefs and assimilating into the mainstream dominant culture may not be necessary. However, the assimilation may be favorable as an assimilated individual may have better chances of career advancement. Individuals and organizations, on the other hand, have very different sets of expectations from each other and the fulfillment of these expectations further ensures the continuity of their relationship.

One recurring criticism on acculturation literature is the fixed focus of minorities being acculturated into majority and dominant people are somehow immutable (Rudmin, 2003). While this can be a valid criticism in a social context but unlike societies, organizations have a much narrower range of accommodation due to their much more limited goals, e.g. profitability, growth, and increase in shareholder value. Acculturation (in national/ethnic societies) not only induces psychological changes into newcomer or minority experience but also impacts the mainstream or dominant culture that shapes and reshapes with the rise of multiculturalism (Bourhis et al., 1997). Societal membership is often acquired at birth or a slow gradual process that begins after the individual is exposed to an alien culture. But organizational membership is achieved after passing through criteria set in recruitment and selection processes. Individuals also have various motivators or agencies that favour certain types of professions, companies, pay scales, job and other factors. As discussed in previous chapters, acculturation into the national or ethnic culture is *a priori* membership, meaning that it is presupposed because the existence of such culture precedes the observation, whereas acculturation into an organizational culture is *a posteriori* because its concept is derived by reasoning and observable facts. An employee typically has a clear role in an organization, which is predetermined but, in a society, the role assignment is multiple and dynamic. Both types of cultures, societal and organizational, have different sources, purposes, and existential aspects. Membership of a societal culture is more like a random assignment, but employee-organization relationship requires careful considerations. Bowers (1973) noted similar issue with the laboratory experiments, maintaining that at least in western societies, human beings do not randomly assign themselves with different situations and they select proper settings for themselves. Thus, individuals typically seek employment at an organization that is favourable for specific reasons important to them. Schneider (1987) further developed on this

proposition and presented The Attraction-Selection-Attrition (ASA) Framework. Built on interactional, vocational, I/O psychology and organizational theory, the ASA framework argues that individuals attract to favourable situational settings. Organizations then apply formal and informal selection processes and some individuals may leave over time if they realize it was not a good fit. This cycle continues to repeat itself and eventually the individual who find equilibrium between individual and situational factors tend to stay longer. These individuals then become the determinants of the organizational behaviour.

A national or ethnic culture might be able to sustain despite many different underlying acculturation orientations that prevail in its population. It is also because a society is typically confined by democratic system, human rights regulations, and rights of free speech, and it does not exist only for the purposes related to profit generation, profit maximization and sustainable growth. National culture also affects organizational culture because an organization is supposed to adhere to prevailing values of its target market. As Hofstede (1967) stated, the balance between organizational control and individual autonomy cannot be viewed separately from the democratic ideals of the larger society. However, an organization, in spite of having social values based on corporate social responsibility initiatives, still exists for the primary purpose of profitable growth. Therefore, its culture cannot allow its employees to exercise many diverse strategies of acculturation. Employees also become the members of an organization by consenting to certain rules and regulations that they must abide by, and diligently contribute by being a productive member, to ensure the continuity of their employment relationship. The prospects of survival and growth within the organization are also conditioned upon the abidance and internalization of organizational principles. On the organizational levels, collective efforts of its employees result into the effective pursuit of

organizational mission, vision, goals, and objectives. This scenario demands some level of tightness to be present in organizational culture.

Situational factors, at least in terms of cost-consciousness, punctuality, seriousness, and grooming, appear to be independent of individual factor of organizational identification. This is partly due to the contextual difference of acculturating in these two types of cultures, national/ethnic and organizational; and because of the limitation posed by Hofstede's et al., (1990) construct of Tight vs Loose organizational culture, which is to be discussed in the next section of "main effect". Contextual differences fundamentally arise from the different objectives and goals of an organization and a society. While a nation or ethnic society has a much broader spectrum of objectives, goals and the means to achieve them; organizations are much more specific and narrower. In a society, being cost-conscious, punctual, nicely dressed, and serious may be desirable characteristics, but nonetheless are more likely the matters of individual discretion. Schneider's (1987) ASA model also emphasizes that the entire mechanism of Attraction-Selection-Attrition relates to organizational goals, and these goals are often determined by the founders or other decision makers. Therefore, it is extremely important to consider these contextual differences when discussing social sciences theories under business administration domains. While there is nothing wrong with disciplines borrowing concepts from other disciplines, but the dangers of these concepts either becoming stereotyped or distorted should not be ignored (Meek, 1988).

Main effect

Schein (1985) argued that strong cultures are somehow more likely to be associated with effectiveness as compared to weak cultures. Strength and weakness of the culture are associated with uniqueness and inimitability and Schein (1985) stated that strong cultures can

be deliberately created. Considering that 60% of the respondents in this study reported work experience of 2 years or less, and 74% reported to be working on entry-level positions, and all the participants were undergraduate students; it is apparent that individuals at these stages seek direction and clarity in their prospects. Bauer, Erdogan, Bodner, Truxillo, & Tucker (2007) conducted a meta-analytic study to identify antecedents, outcomes, and methods of newcomer's adjustment during organizational socialization, and found that role clarity, self-efficacy, and social acceptance are three important indicators of newcomer adjustment. Maanen and Schein (1979) considered Organizational Socialization as a process of uncertainty reduction leading to clarity about the role, job, and workplace. A tight organizational culture provides newcomers with clear information about specific duties, timelines, targets, code of conduct and proper work attire. On the contrary, a loose organizational culture can push individuals to separation because of insufficient information and clarity. Opposite to role clarity is role ambiguity, described by Abramis (1994) as "uncertainty about how to carry out the work role". Abramis (1994) conducted a detailed meta-analysis of the studies investigating role ambiguity, and its effects on job satisfaction and job performance. He identified a moderate and negative correlation between role ambiguity and job satisfaction. Positive relationship between role clarity and newcomer adjustment and negative relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction is also consistent with workplace empowerment literature. Spreitzer and Doneson (1999) presented three perspectives of empowerment: social-structure perspective, psychological perspective, and critical perspective. They found that providing necessary information and resources are crucially important to reduce uncertainty and hence empower the incumbents to effectively perform their duties.

Majority of the respondents in this study were new entrants to the job market, still completing their studies and seeking clarity. Therefore, perceived tightness of the organizational culture seems to be providing a sense of direction, at least in terms of cost-consciousness, punctuality, seriousness and proper work attire. One may argue that conceptually a loose organizational culture should be more conducive to innovation and employee participation. However, it appears that respondents experienced, perhaps greater role ambiguity in loose organizational cultures, further resulting in separatist attitude. The scale of Tightness vs Looseness of Organizational Culture measured this distinction on four components of cost-consciousness, punctuality, seriousness and well-grooming. Including only these four aspects to measure a variable that has been labelled in such broad terms does pose a serious limitation. It was initially included in this study because of its generalizability as compared to the specificity of Hofstede's et al., (1990) other organizational culture dimensions. However, the measurement limitation requires reconsidering the label of this construct. This distinction may have more conceptual similarities with the "Autocratic" vs "Laissez-Faire" styles of leadership. Three leadership styles of: autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire were rolled out resulting from an extensive study conducted by Kurt Lewin and colleagues in 1939. Autocratic leaders tend to retain absolute decision-making powers without taking any input from the followers. Democratic leaders appreciate input from followers but can overweigh others' opinions to reach a consensus. Laissez-Faire refers to the leadership style in which individuals have complete autonomy for self-direction. Laissez-Faire style is regarded as being favourable to innovation and motivating people because of the sense of freedom, autonomy and empowerment that it brings. However, for this to be true, individuals must also be capable and equipped with the information, resources, and the direction needed to function effectively in their roles.

As explained the section of Identity Theory, individuals can simultaneously develop distinct selves according to situational factors. According to Social Identity Theory, individuals may favour or even demonstrate prejudice towards the social groups they feel attached to.

Organizational Identification in these terms is the identity invoked by the organization.

Consistent with Identity Theory and Social Identity Theory, high Need for Organizational Identification associates with the Integrative approach. Likelihood to Integrate for higher NOID individuals and to Separate for individuals in Loose or Laissez-Faire Organizational Cultures can also be viewed in terms of approach-avoidance conflict. Ancient Greek philosophers introduced the pursuit of pleasure and avoidance of pain as primary motivators of human behaviour, approach-avoidance conflict arises when individuals come across a situation that is attractive but also involves undesired elements (Ehrlich & Fasbender, 2017).

For example, such a situation may occur when an individual is offered a lucrative job offer, but the role requires frequent travels hence disrupting the work-life balance. For this study, integration is an approach orientation that is invoked by individual-level factor (NOID) and separation is an avoidance approach invoke by laissez-faire or loose organizational culture, the situational factor. According to Lewin (1935), three factors influence the dynamics of approach-avoidance conflict, magnitude of valence, state of tension and psychological distance. Magnitude of valence may translate into approach behaviour if attraction is stronger than avoidance tendencies, the state of tension occurs between two conflicts (e.g. appetite or hunger vs desire to lose weight), and psychological distance refers to tension variation of these conflicts depending on the closeness to the event (Ehrlich & Fasbender, 2017). These three characteristics can also be associated with Schneider's (1987) ASA model in a way that if the magnitude of valence favours the approach orientation, individuals will feel attracted.

Selection process of the organization can trigger psychological distance dynamic of conflict

resolution, in which the time lapse taken between recruitment, onboarding, and start date may result in different levels of approach-avoidance conflict. State of tension is the ongoing process that leads individuals to attrition if separation occurs or retention if integration is adopted.

Conclusion

This study began by asking the question “how employees acculturate into an organizational culture”. In order to answer this question, theoretical roots of the construct “acculturation” were traced in scholarly literature. The phenomenon originated and mainly remained in social psychology, anthropology, and sociology related disciplines until scholarly literature in the fields of organizational culture, cross-cultural management, and organizational socialization started growing. Ngo (2009) classified acculturation related theories and model into three classes, unidirectional acculturation, bidimensional acculturation, and interactive acculturation. These three classes of acculturation differ in terms of the directionality of effect, between the individual and the situation. Similar phenomena under organizational settings have been discussed, but in different linguist terminologies, e.g. employee socialization, employee onboarding and organizational assimilation.

Myers and Oetzel (2000) identified six dimensions of Organizational Assimilation and these six dimensions were found to be positively correlated with job satisfaction and organizational identification, and negatively correlated with the propensity to leave (Myers and Oetzel, 2000). Acculturation was included as a dimension to Organizational Assimilation and was defined as “the process by which individuals become integrated with the culture of the organization. (Jablin, 2001, p. 755)”. According to Berry’s (1980, 1997, 2003) Fourfold Acculturation Model, Assimilation, as well as Integration, are two of the four dimensions of

acculturation and Samnani et al., (2012, 2013) further proposed conceptual frameworks of this model under organizational contexts. Arbitrary selection of constructs to explain a specific phenomenon is apparent in such studies. However, this study considered the prevailing view of acculturation in social sciences literature that maintains that Assimilation is one of the acculturation's orientations, not the other way around. Because of situational difference between national/ethnic culture and an organizational culture, it may be the case that "assimilation" is what counts as "integration" in an organizational context.

Contextual differences between societal and organizational acculturation have been discussed in previous sections. It is mainly because many of the existential aspects for both an organization and a society are different. For example, the concept of a society is conceived either at birth or through a slow gradual process and has a much larger set of parameters to operate within. An organization has much narrower focus and an individual becomes part of an organization after consenting on certain terms and conditions, which supposedly are clearly understood and internalized by the individual. Additionally, an organizational structure comprises of different management layers and a board etc., a society's structure typically resides in its political and legal system. An employee has a specific role to play in an organization with pre-determined responsibilities and expectations; an individual can assume multiple and dynamic roles in a society. Table 17 given on the next page, was compiled to show the differences between the existential aspects from a micro organizational level and a macro societal level.

Table 17: Difference in Locus of Power Between Societal and Organizational Culture

Existential Aspects	From Organizational Perspective	From Societal Perspective
Induction / Concept Realization	<i>A posteriori</i> , Shorter Exposures, Concrete	<i>A priori</i> (at birth/primary), Longer Exposures, Abstract
Role Assignment	Singular, Pre-determined	Multiple, Dynamic
Governance Structures	Management, Board	Political, Legal
Points of Decision-Making	Management, Co-Workers, Self	Community, Family, Self
Work Involvement	Task, Job	Occupation, Career
Income Determination	Management	Government (taxes, pensions), Unions
Sources of Information and Persuasion	Management, Co-Workers	Government, Media, Advertisers, Family, Friends
Control Over Time Scheduling	Management (for low discretion jobs), Management plus Self (for high discretion jobs)	Self
Control Over Cost Consciousness	Budget and Audit controls. Higher flexibility and discretion in higher hierarchy	Self
Choice of Attire	Workplace Regulations, HR	Self
Seriousness in Behavior	Organizational Culture, Code of Conduct, Discipline	Self

Table 17 outlines the differences between the locus of power for both types of cultures, societal and organizational. As the locus shifts more toward the organization in an organizational culture, it limits the ability of a free interaction between the self and the

environment. Last four aspects (bold border line), are the components of “Tightness vs Looseness of Organizational Culture” construct, all these four are somehow influenced by the organization in an organizational culture, but self-governed in a societal culture.

With respect to the assumptions of this study presented in Chapter One, related to Assumption (1), there is a counterpart of national/ethnic acculturation at the organizational level but with different dynamics. Organizational Acculturation takes place through much narrower parameters as compared to the acculturation in a society. Integration of Organizational Acculturation includes the likelihood of an individual to adapt to organizational values and establish a strong relationship with the fellow colleagues. This integrative approach is affected by the Need for Organizational Identification and there is a reciprocity in this relationship. Separation of Organizational Acculturation refers to the negation of organizational values and an avoidance in work relationships. Individuals that think of their organizational cultures to be loose are more likely to adapt Separation, but Looseness of the Organizational Culture does not affect Separation. For Assumption (2), there was no interaction detected between individual-level factor of NOID and contextual-level factor of Tight/Loose OC. Consequently, for Assumption (3), it is concluded that person-situation interaction in the psychology literature cannot generalize to acculturation of workers in organizational settings.

Contributions, Limitations and Areas for Future Research

No prior researches were found that attempted to empirically test Berry’s Fourfold Acculturation Model into organizational settings. Therefore, the hypotheses proposed were also deeply rooted in acculturation theories. However, it was important to empirically test these hypotheses in organizational settings before an alternative could have been proposed.

Extending this field of literature by testing Berry's model in a purely organizational cultural context is the novelty of this study. Findings of this study also suggest a different approach to viewing acculturation in organizational cultural settings. Two distinct dimensions of Organizational Acculturation are proposed. Conceptual and theoretical support for these two dimensions from the relevant literature is discussed. It is concluded that before applying the Fourfold Acculturation Model to organizational culture, the situational differences in both environments should be considered. Findings of this study are useful for further research as well as applied purposes.

Employees now seek opportunities and follow wherever they may reside, whereas in the past employees tended to stay with the same company for sustainability. Voluntary turnover is increasing in most parts of the world, and the trend is on the rise especially among Generation Y employees (Elkjaer & Filmer, 2015). It is not only the employees that must perform to prevail and prosper but also the organizations face the challenge of attracting and retaining top talent. As Schneider (1987) specified in ASA framework that the equilibrium between Attraction-Selection-Attrition is moderated by individual and organizational goals. Organizations are increasingly modelling and marketing their organizational cultures to project a perception that is congruent with prevailing social norms and values. This also helps them attract the type of human resource, that can easily align their personal values with the organizational values. Studying acculturation in organizational context becomes important with the emphasis given on organizational culture. According to, Randstad - a Dutch multinational human resources consulting firm, finding and retaining top talent, appealing to workers looking for cultural fit, overcoming high employee turnover rates, and lack of leadership planning are some of the biggest HR challenges faced by Canadian employers in

addition to keeping up with high compensation demands (Smalley, 2017). Barney (1986) had reported that companies like IBM, Hewlett-Packard, Proctor and Gamble, and McDonald's have capitalized on the values and beliefs that embody their organizational culture.

Organizational culture can become a source of competitive advantage and can have significant positive economic value for an organization (Barney, 1986). In recent times, Google is known for marketing its image as an attractive employer by projecting its unique workplace styles, where employees can rest, entertain, exercise, and do many fun activities while being at work. Uber CEO, Dara Khosrowshahi, in his recent TV commercial appearance presented the vision of “moving forward” and it will be achieved by reinventing Uber’s organizational culture. Companies like CNL Bank, Darden Corporation, Walt Disney World, have developed strategic measures within their organizational culture to ensure the attraction and retention of multicultural employees by acknowledging the need of their diverse customs (Stone et al., 2007).

This study can have significant managerial implications in areas when managers attempt to bring strategic changes within their organizational cultures to respond to the employee as well as consumer market needs. As Myers and Oetzel (2003) outlined that Organizational Assimilation is not a linear process as it varies over time due to environmental changes, hierarchical changes, experience, unmet expectations and other factors. Therefore, Organizational Acculturation is not just a process that takes place only for new hires, but it is a continuous process that shapes and reshapes organizational culture. Employees’ NOID and perception about the environment may also differ over time and the model presented in this study can help managers bridge the gap between intended and prevailing structures.

Therefore, the model presented in this study can be potentially helpful for the HR managers

interested in learning about the preferred acculturation orientation of employees, their need for organizational identification and perception of the organizational culture. The process of recruitment, selection, training and onboarding is often too costly. In addition to developing a distinct and marketable organizational culture, it is crucially important for modern and future HR managers to identify the individual personality characteristics of their employees that might have an effect on the acculturation process. Furthermore, there may be differences between an intended and prevailing organizational culture and how it is perceived by the employees. The study can help in bridging that information gap, so the management is able to make informed decisions.

One of the key limitations of the study is that the data was collected from the students enrolled in undergraduate courses at the University of Northern British Columbia's Business School. Therefore, reflects the variations demonstrated by the individuals with more or less same dynamics. Majority of the participants (81.2%) were between 20-29 years, 60% had professional experience of 2 years or less, and 67% were on entry-level positions. Collecting the data from more diverse participants by replicating the study on a bigger level may provide more variation and richer results. Not including gender, ethnicity, and educational level were also pointed out as some of the key limitations. Incorporating these demographic variables may yield richer results and may help explain acculturation patterns more clearly. Another limitation was that only one dimension was measured on the situational level (Tightness vs Looseness of Organizational Culture) and it had only four items. These were the items that reported factor loadings of .6 or more in Hofstede et al., (1990) original study. More factors can be included to measure the organizational culture environment. There may be other environmental factors interacting with NOID while affecting Organizational

Acculturation. In addition to Tightness vs Looseness of OC, Hofstede et al., (1990) have identified five more dimensions of organizational culture. Tightness vs Looseness of OC was included due to its generalizability, but other dimensions can be included to enrich the data obtained to measure contextual aspects. Further research may also uncover those environmental factors in organizational contexts that potentially interact with individual-level variables. On the multidisciplinary level, it could also be worthwhile investigating if organizational acculturation orientation has an impact on the societal acculturation, and vice versa. Individuals spend a major amount of their time at work. In a multicultural society such as Canada, multicultural interaction in the organizations is inevitable. Therefore, Organizational Acculturation can also have strong effects on societal acculturation and the other way around.

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APPENDIX I: Survey Questionnaire

Section 1 - Demographics

1. **Age** 19 years or less ☐ 20 – 29 years ☐ 30 years or more ☐
2. **Industry** Retail ☐ Hospitality ☐ Education ☐ Finance ☐ Other _____
3. **Professional Experience** 2 years or less ☐ 2 – 5 years ☐ 6 years or more ☐
4. **Work tenure in current organization** 2 years or less ☐ 2 – 5 years ☐ 6 years or more ☐
5. **Position** Entry level ☐ Jr. Mgt. ☐ Mid. Mgt. ☐ Sr. Mgt. ☐
-

Section 2 - Need for Organizational Identification

- | | | Strongly Disagree | | | | | Strongly Agree | |
|-----|---|-------------------|---|---|---|---|----------------|---|
| 6. | I'd like to work in an organization where I would think of its successes and failures as being my successes and failures. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7. | Without an organization to work for, I would feel incomplete. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 8. | An important part of who I am would be missing if I didn't belong to a work organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 9. | Generally, I do not feel a need to identify with an organization that I am working for. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 10. | Generally, the more my goals, values, and beliefs overlap with those of my employer, the happier I am. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 11. | I would rather say 'we' than 'they' when talking about an organization that I work for. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 12. | No matter where I work, I'd like to think of myself as representing what the organization stands. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
-

Section 3 - Organizational Culture

1. Everybody is cost-conscious in my organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<i>Strongly Disagree</i>						<i>Strongly Agree</i>

2. Punctuality in all aspects is extremely important.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<i>Strongly Disagree</i>						<i>Strongly Agree</i>

3. A typical member of my organization is well-groomed.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<i>Strongly Disagree</i>						<i>Strongly Agree</i>

4. We always speak seriously of our organization and job.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<i>Strongly Disagree</i>						<i>Strongly Agree</i>

Section 4 - Acculturation

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
13. I believe the best way of getting along for employees is to assimilate in the culture of my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. It is important for me to identify closely with my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I generally identify strongly with my organizational culture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I generally go by the values of my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. It is important for me to internalize the values of my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I am involved in activities with people from my work place.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I enjoy being around my colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I feel unable to involve myself in activities with my colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I often find myself referring to my fellow colleagues in a negative way.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I have many friends in my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. I generally do not trust other employees in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. When someone criticizes my organization, it feels like a personal insult.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

25.	When I talk about my organization, I usually say “we” rather than “they”.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	I am embarrassed to be part of this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	This organization does shameful things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	I have tried to keep the organization I work for a secret from people I meet.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29.	I find this organization to be disgraceful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	I want people to know that I disagree with how this organization behaves.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.	I have been ashamed of what goes on in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32.	I often feel lost about my role as an employee in my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33.	I often feel “left out” when other employees discuss organizational issues.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34.	I often feel “suspended” and “lost” as far as organizational membership is concerned.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35.	I feel like I live on the “fringe” in terms of my affiliation with my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Thank you very much for your time and participation!