An Integration of Organisation Climate Research

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This paper examines the development of theory and conceptual and research work in the area of organisation climate since 1958. Early attempts examined the interplay between organisation culture, organisation climate and psychological climate. Subsequently there were many attempts at developing instruments to measure organisation climate. A very large body of work examines various global indices describing single strategically focussed climates. Yet another stream of research examines the intersection of organisation climate with other constructs such as leadership, personality, etc., while the recent work examines the cross-cultural aspects of organisational climate. Taking into account all the earlier researches, this paper attempts to build a holistic model of organisational climate.

Keywords: Organisational Climate, Organisation Culture, Psychological Climate, Personality, Measurement, Organisational Change, Business Results

1. Introduction

1.1 Concept of Organisation Climate

There is a rich body of work in Organisation climate research, associated areas such as psychological climate research and in the development of frameworks for the measurement of organisation climate. Numerous definitions of organisation climate have been offered (Argyris, 1958; Guion, 1973; Hellriegel and Slocum, 1974; Howe, 1977; James and Jones, 1974; Powell and Butterfield, 1978; Schneider, Parkington, and Buxton, 1980). Climate has lately been defined (Moran and Volkwein 1992) as: a relatively enduring characteristic of an organisation which differentiates it from other organisations and (a) embodies members' collective perceptions about their organisation with respect to such dimensions as autonomy, trust, cohesiveness, support, recognition, innovation and fairness; (b) produced by member interaction; (c) serves as a basis for interpreting the situation; (d) reflects the prevalent norms and attitudes of the organisation's culture; and (e) which acts as a source of influence for shaping behaviour.

Burke and Litwin (1992) define climate in terms of perceptions that individuals have of how their local work unit is managed and how effectively they and their day-to-day colleagues work together on the job. The level of analysis, therefore, is the group, the work unit. Climate is much more in the foreground of organisation members' perceptions, whereas culture is more in the background and defined by beliefs and values. The level of analysis is the organisation. Climate is, of course,

affected by culture, and people's perceptions define both, but at different levels (Burke and Litwin, 1992,).

The fact that many definitions were inconsistent with each other and did not aid theory building and measurement led Glick (1985) to advocate the use of the organisation as the unit of theory for organisation climate and the individual as the unit for psychological climate. Glick attempted to clarify five issues - the units of theory; the determinants of climate; the composition rules relating organizational climate to psychological climate; the interpretation of perceptual agreement; and, the domain of climate dimensions.

1.2 Organisation Climate and Psychological Climate

The relationship between organisation climate and psychological climate has been examined by many researchers. Initially organisation climate was approached as an objective construct, consisting of organisational attributes such as structure, context and processes. It was believed that an accurate and objective measure of the degree of these attributes in an organisation could be obtained based on the assumption that these attributes affected the employees indirectly. The objective approach of organisation climate has been defined as: "… the set of characteristics that describes an organisation and that (a) distinguish the organisation from other organisations, (b) are relatively enduring over time, and (c) influence the behaviour of people in the organisation" (Forehand and Gilmer, 1964: 362).

However the perceptual approach holds that individuals are greatly influenced by their perceptions, or the psychological meaning they attach to organisational attributes. Schneider (1973) states that "…the concept of climate in the present research may best be described as personalistic; climate is an individual perception. There was no attempt to restrict the climate definition to perceptions shared by members of a work group or organisation" (Schneider, 1973: 254). Organisation climate is also defined by West *et al*. (1998) as the "…perceptions that organisation members share of fundamental elements of their organisation" (West *et al*., 1998: 262). Koys and DeCotiis (1991) suggest that organisation climate perceptions summarise the individual's description, rather than the evaluative reaction of his or her organisational experience; is relatively stable over time and are widely shared by the members of the organisational unit. The controversy around organisation climate has been aggravated by the fact that the aggregated scores of the participating individuals in a climate survey, were considered to be an indication of the degree to which everyone in the organisation experienced a specific dimension in the climate. This operationalisation of organisation climate has been criticised by Guion (1973), questioning whether climate was organisational if the individual participants did not agree to what the organisation climate was. Individuals within the same organisation could view climate dimensions quite differently (Tustin, 1993).

A great deal of attention has been devoted to distinguishing between the objective versus perceptual nature of climate (cf. Glick, 1985; James, Joyce and Slocum, 1988) and between psychological and organizational climate (e.g. James and Jones, 1974; Jones and James, 1979) as well as to methodological issues pertaining to the aggregation of individual climate perceptions to represent organizational climate (e.g. Chan, 1998; Klein et al., 2000). The controversies surrounding these issues have largely been resolved (Schneider, 2000). However, little attention has been directed at how best to capture climate as a system-wide variable in an organization.

The notion that multiple climates exist within an organization has been widely accepted (e.g. Schneider, 2000). Yet, empirical research has tended to examine a single climate dimension or examine the relative importance of several dimensions of climate in a single study (Biswas, Soumendu and Varma, Arup, 2007). Ostroff and her colleagues (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004; Ostroff et al., 2003) have suggested that a configural approach (Doty, Glick and Huber, 1993; Meyer, Tsui and Hinings, 1993) might be fruitful in this context. Configurations can broadly be defined as 'conceptually distinct characteristics that commonly occur together' (Meyer et al., 1993, p. 1175); they allow for examining multiple characteristics simultaneously while accounting for the interrelationships and interactions among them. Applied to the study of organizational climate, organizations or work units would be characterized by several distinct profiles across multiple climates. In this case, the focus of measurement shifts from examining independent climate dimensions to patterns or systems of interrelated climate dimensions.

James and Jones (1974) differentiated *organisational climate* from *psychological climate*. They use the term *organisational climate* when climate is regarded as an organisational attribute, and *psychological climate,* when climate is regarded as an individual attribute. Psychological climate is studied at the individual level of analysis, referring to the individual's descriptions of organisational practices and procedures, while organisation climate is most often assessed through the average perceptions of the members of the organisation, referring to a collective description of the same environment (Joyce and Slocum, 1982). Hellriegel and Slocum (1974) pointed out another aspect. They stated: "Organisational climate refers to a set of attributes which can be perceived about a particular organisation and/or its subsystems, and that may be induced from the way that the organisation and/or its subsystems deal with their members and environment" However one must examine whether individual and position variables of interest qualify as determinants of individuals' perceptions of their work environment (psychological climate). A criterion of within-unit perceptual agreement was suggested and used, in addition to the more conventional association criterion of across-units aggregate difference in a study by Moussavi, Jones and Cronan (1989) in an attempt to establish within-unit perceptual agreement as a condition for a variable to qualify as a determinant of psychological climate. The findings, based on American employees, implied that research using only across-units difference criteria may have overestimated the extent of the relationship between psychological climate and various individual or position variables. Within-unit perceptual agreement may be a necessary criterion for establishing determinants of perceptual variables

Psychological and organizational climate are conceptually related to one another. Psychological climate pertains to how organizational members perceive and make sense of organizational policies, practices and procedures in psychologically meaningful terms (Schneider and Rentsch, 1988). Such perceptions can be idiosyncratic, even when individuals are exposed to the same work context and situation (James and Tetrick, 1986). Organizational climate emerges from these idiosyncratic interpretations of the work environment when individuals within a particular unit (e.g. group, organization) share similar perceptions of the situation. Only when individuals agree on their perceptions of the work environment can their individual perceptions be meaningfully aggregated to represent unit or organizational-level climate (James, 1982; Klein et al., 2000). Therefore, the

relationship between psychological and organizational climate can be described as compositional in that both constructs reference the same content but describe qualitatively different phenomena at the individual and unit levels of analysis (Chan, 1998; James, 1982). Psychological climate is a property of the individual, but when shared across individuals within a unit or organization, the aggregate of the responses represents the construct of unit or organizational climate (Glisson and James, 2002). As such, organizational climate is purported to be an emergent property because it originates in the cognition and perceptions of individuals, and is amplified through interactions and exchanges with other unit members to manifest as a higher-level collective phenomenon (Kozlowski and Klein, 2000).

1.3 From Psychological Climate to Organisation Climate

Different explanations have been offered about how individuals' interpretations of the organizational environment emerge and are transformed into shared perceptions (cf. Ostroff et al., 2003; Schneider and Reichers, 1983). From a structural perspective, it has been suggested that unit or organizational characteristics such as size and structure (e.g. Payne and Mansfield, 1973) as well as consistency, clarity and salience in policies, practices and procedures (e.g. Bowen and Ostroff, 2004) can establish a common reality that provides the basis for shared perceptions. Further, through the process of attraction, selection and attrition (Schneider and Reichers, 1983) an organization is likely to comprise people with similar views and attributes so that individuals tend to perceive and experience the work environment similarly. Communications and repeated social interactions among members of the same unit or organization influence individual views and can also contribute to the evolvement of shared perceptions and meaning (e.g. Klein, Conn, Smith, and Sorra, 2001; Morgeson and Hofmann, 1999). The notion of within-group agreement as a precondition for unit or organizational climate does not necessarily mean that there is perfect agreement among individuals on climate. In fact, most studies that have investigated group or organizational climate have found that there is still some variability in perceptions within groups (e.g. Gonzalez-Roma, Peiro, and Tordera, 2002; Lindel and Brandt, 2000; Schneider, Salvaggio, and Subirats, 2002).

The controversy concerning organisation versus group versus individual climate was clarified by Joyce and Slocum, (1982).who held that all climates are perceptions that individuals have of their environment determined by the quasi-physical, quasi-social, quasi-conceptual facts and inter-subjectivity which an individual is aware of. Other attempts to define organisation climate include *nature* - a global impression of one's organization and seething personal impact of the work environment and *effect* - tendency to influence employees' work behaviours and perceptions towards organization thereby linking their work performance and job related attitudes (Pritchard and Karasick 1973, Litwin and Stringer 1968). It also reflects workers' emotional responses to the characteristics of the work environment (Glisson and James 2002, James and Sells 1981). Climate is a dimension of organizational characteristics that influence employees' attitudes either directly or through some medium of organizational processes (Aarons and Sawitzky 2006, Carmazzi and Aarons 2003, Glisson and James 2002). The various approaches that have defined organizational climate comprises several schools of thoughts such as structuralist, objectivist, subjectivist, interactivist etc. (Moran and Volkwein 1992, Forehand and Gilmer 1964, Powell and Butterfield 1978, Schulte et al, 2006)

Climate has therefore evolved from being an exclusive organisational attribute to an attribute that may be subsystem specific (i.e. either the group or the individual). While being defined at three levels of analysis in the organisation, the common elements are that climate has measurable, enduring qualities, which influence the behaviour of individuals in the organisation (Field and Abelson, 1982).

2. Instrument Development

2.1 Single Effect Measurement

Apart from the works on issues relating to organisation climate and psychological climate, another aspect which has received considerable attention is the development of instruments to measure organisation climate. Bohn (2010) found that although many instruments have been developed to measure organizational constructs such as citizenship, climate, and organization-based esteem, to date no scale has been designed specifically to measure efficacy at the organizational level. Bohn developed an instrument to assess organizational efficacy, an extension of the theory of self-efficacy and group-level efficacy in two studies. The first study tested divergent and convergent validity of the Organizational Efficacy Scale with existing instruments. The second study validated the instrument statistically. The scale demonstrated appropriate levels of convergent and discriminant validity with existing instruments. The final scale displayed high reliability and supported a three-factor solution predicted by efficacy theory around the factors of collaboration, sense of mission, and sense of resilience.

Thumin (2011) describes the development and application of a new organizational climate instrument, the Survey of Organizational Characteristics (SOC). The final instrument consisted of 8 relatively independent scales – organisational flexibility, consideration, job satisfaction, structural clarity, future with the organisation, organisational honesty, community involvement and reward system with alpha coefficients based on the combined sample ranging from .77 to .98, and with 6 coefficients that were higher than .90. Validity hypotheses based on a priori knowledge about the 3 medical groups were for the most part well substantiated, although the small sample of postdoctoral students was a limitation. Glick (1985) and Ashkanasy, Broadfoot, and Falkus (2000) have called attention to the importance of establishing the reliability and validity of climate measures. The latter's review of 18 climate instruments published from 1975 through 1992 showed that only 5 reported reliability information.

On the basis of a step-by-step procedure (see T. R. Hinkin, 1998), Bouckenooghe, Devos and Van den Broeck (2009) discuss the design and evaluation of a self-report battery (Organizational Change Questionnaire–Climate of Change, Processes, and Readiness; OCQ–C, P, R) that researchers can use to gauge the internal context or climate of change, the process factors of change, and readiness for change. The information obtained from the analyses yielded 5 climate-of-change dimensions, 3 process-of-change dimensions, and 3 readiness-for-change dimensions. Apart from the tridimensional measurement of readiness for change (i.e., emotional, cognitive, and intentional readiness for change), the instrument encompasses the following seven dimensions: (a) quality of change communication, (b) participation, (c) attitude of top management toward organizational change, (d) support by supervisors, (e) trust in leadership, (f) cohesion, and (g) politicking.

Several other frameworks have been developed for the measurement of organisation climate (Forehand and Gilmer 1964, Campbell, et al. 1970, Schneider and Hall 1972, Pareek 1989, Patterson, et al. 2005, Sparrow, et al 1996). The framework of Motivational Analysis of Organisations - Climate (MAO-C), developed by Pareek (1989) incorporates the following climate motives:

1. **Achievement**, which promotes quality, excellence, and attainment of organisational goals.
2. **Expert Influence**, which promotes the use of expertise for facing organisational challenges, solving organisational problems and improving organisational working.
3. **Extension** climate emphasises making oneself relevant to others in the work group, work team, section, department and organisation,
4. **Control** climate, which emphasises consolidation of personal power,
5. **Dependency** climate, that promotes excessive dependence on others, seeking direction or approval before taking action, and
6. **Affiliation** climate, which emphasises maintaining friendly personal relationship even when it comes in way of attainment of goals.

Nerstad, Roberts and Richardsen (2010) describe the development of a scale measuring employees' perception of the motivational climate at work. The findings of their pilot study supported the two factor structure, and indicated adequate psychometric properties of the questionnaire. In order to further test the psychometric rigor of the scale, another study was conducted among 8282 engineers and technologists working within both the private and public sector.. Again findings supported the two factor structure of the Motivational Climate at Work Questionnaire (MCWQ), and provided evidence of content validity, criterion-related validity, construct validity, and internal consistency. The scale is designed to determine the perception of the predominant criteria of success inherent (mastery or performance) in the workplace.

2.2 Global Index Development

Organisation climate research has increasingly examined a global index representing a single strategically focused climate (e.g. a climate for service or a climate for safety) or has focused on a set of climate dimensions (Ostroff et al., 2003). Climate level has been defined as "the proximity of the group mean to the positive endpoint of the response scale" Lindell and Brandt (2000) (p. 333). Climate strength has been defined as the dispersion of respondents' climate ratings (Lindell et al., 2000). Schneider (1990) defined a climate for service while Zohar (2000) defined a climate for safety. Each of these 'climates for something' reflect the view that climate is a specific construct that must have some particular referent (Schneider, 1975). Kopelman *et al (*1990); Koys and DeCotiis, (1991); Tordera, González-Romá, and Peiró. (2008) described four important facets of team climate: support from the organization (the extent to which team members believe the team is supported by the organization and their managers); innovation (the extent to which new ideas about work are implemented in the team): goal achievement (the extent to which team members invest effort in the achievement of team goals); and enabling formalization (the extent to which team norms and procedures are designed to enable team members to master their tasks and improve team functioning).The relationship

between climate and performance has been of considerable interest to researchers and managers for a number of years (e.g. Schneider, 1990). In particular a link between climate for service and service quality has been confirmed. However, a limited number of studies on relationships between climate for service and financial performance produced mixed findings (Borucki and Burke, 1999).

3. Climate, Personality and Mechanistic Organisations

Interest in climate as potentially interacting with personality to predict job performance stems from Schneider's (1983, 87) *attraction-selection-attrition* (ASA) framework for understanding the aetiology of organisational behaviour. Schneider proposed that people select and leave organisations based on a perceived 'fit' between their own personalities and relevant organisational attributes (psychological climate).

Field investigations of climate strength and level as well as various global indexes have yielded several interesting results. In a longitudinal study González-Romá, Fortes-Ferreira and Peiró (2009) tested the hypothesis that the relationship between team climate and team performance is moderated by climate strength. Four team climate facets (support, innovation, goal achievement and enabling formalization) were measured. Seven out of the 12 interaction effects tested were statistically significant and showed the expected sign. When financial team performance was the criterion, only the interaction term was significant. This suggests that only strong climates are related to financial team performance over time. Generally, all the interaction effects were as expected: when climate strength was high, the team climate-team performance relationship was enhanced, whereas when climate strength was low, the relationship was weakened. The fact that they found the expected interaction effect when distinct work team performance measures were used, and that Colquitt and colleagues (2002) found a similar interaction effect in their study of procedural justice climate and supervisors' ratings of team performance, provides strong support for the moderator influence of climate strength in the relationship between team climate and team performance. Climate level for HRM practices was found to be associated with aggregated work-unit outcomes, an association moderated by climate strength for HRM practices. Trust in management and leader informing behaviour were significant predictors of climate level, and leader informing behaviour was a significant predictor of climate strength. (Knight-Turvey 2005).

Dickson, Resick and Hanges (2006) using data from the GLOBE Project hypothesized that they would find greater climate strength in organizations with climates reflecting mechanistic as opposed to organic organizational forms. Although such a trend was found, they also unexpectedly uncovered significant and strong nonlinear effects, such that climates that are clearly mechanistic *or* clearly organic have strong climates, with weaker climates emerging for organizations with more ambiguous climates. Of the three primary outcomes of interest, two relate to climate strength and one relates to the ASA model and the organizational fit literature:

1. Strongest climates appeared in mechanistic organizations;
2. Climates are strongest at the extremes of the mechanistic–organic continuum, where they are most noticeably defined, and they are weakest in the middle of continuum, where organizational practices are more

ambiguous, resulting in climate perceptions that are less obviously delineated; and

3. In most cases, organizations' climates are congruent with the shared values of their members, and climates are stronger when they are congruent (this is consistent with the argument that people seek out organizations in which they "fit").

Regulatory focus mechanisms (promotion focus and prevention focus) were described by Higgins, (1997, 2000). Wallace and Chen conducted a multi-level test whether such mechanisms can help explain how group safety climate and individual differences in conscientiousness relate to individual productivity and safety performance. Results showed that safety climate and conscientiousness predicted promotion and prevention regulatory focus, which in turn mediated the relationships of safety climate and conscientiousness with supervisor ratings of productivity and safety performance.

4. Organisation Climate and Relationship to Organisational Change, Leadership and Teamwork

An area of research that has seen much attention is the intersection of organisational change, especially transformational change, leadership and organisation climate. Steinhage, Michaelis, Parks and McDonald (2010) studied how transformational leadership climate relates to unit effectiveness through unit organizational commitment and examined the affective context conditions upon which the enhancing link between unit organizational commitment and unit effectiveness depends. It was found that the link between unit organizational commitment and unit effectiveness was stronger when negative affective tone in the work unit was high. The counterintuitive finding demonstrates that negative affective tone influences the impact of unit organizational commitment on unit effectiveness, therewith representing a boundary condition of transformational leadership climate. Earlier, Michaelis had, in an unpublished dissertation delivered at Ruprecht-Karls University Heidelberg, investigated two different performance outcomes (task and innovation performance) two linking mechanisms (unit cohesion and commitment to change) as well as two distinct boundary conditions (positive affective tone and climate for initiative). Here climate for initiative is defined as "which refers to formal and informal organizational practices and procedures guiding and supporting a proactive, self-starting, and persistent approach toward work" - conceptualized by Baer and Frese (2003). It was demonstrated that unit cohesion functions as a linking mechanism in the relationship between a transformational leadership climate and units' task performance depending on positive affective tone as a boundary condition. Further, transformational leadership is seen as an antecedent of commitment to change and its positive effect on followers' innovation performance depends on a climate for initiative. A transformational leadership climate, for instance, is characterized by followers who perceive their leaders as commonly engaging in transformational leadership behaviours. While exploring charismatic leadership the relative importance of trust in top management in influencing followers' innovation performance it was found that trust in top management has a stronger indirect effect through commitment to change on followers' innovation performance than charismatic leadership.

In India, Shanker and Sayeed's (2012) findings revealed unequivocal influence of transformational leadership styles over organizational climate dimensions suggesting theoretically a manoeuvring capability of organizational climate with its backward influence over transformational leadership behaviour.

Factors that predict employees' commitment to and support for organisational change were studied by Machin, Fogarty, and Bannon (2009). The three components of Herscovitch and Meyer's (2002) commitment to organisational change model were hypothesised to mediate the relationship between organisation climate and behavioural support for organisational change. Results showed that organisation climate, commitment to change, and behavioural support for change variables were all significantly related. Structural equation modelling demonstrated that affective, normative, and continuance commitment to change were all predictors of behavioural support for organisational change. Positive work climate also contributed directly to the prediction of behavioural support for change over and above the indirect influence through commitment to organisational change, indicating a partial mediation effect. These findings support Herscovitch and Meyer's (2002) three-component model of commitment to organisational change and extend their nomological network by showing the relevance of two types of organisation climate to the core components of the model. Affective commitment to organisational change is a positive influence on employees' behavioural support for change and also reflects healthy aspects of the organisation climate. However, continuance commitment to organisational change is detrimental influence on employees' behavioural support for change and is linked with unhealthy dimensions of the organisation climate.

Organisation climate has been studied with respect to its influence upon as well as its dependence on a host of other organisational parameters. The interaction between collectivism, organizational climate, and employee engagement was studied using Australian and Philippine samples (Presbitero and Langford 2010). Results supported the hypothesis that there is a significant and positive correlation between collectivism and employee engagement. The interaction of collectivism with the higher-order factor of organizational climate associated with involvement was also supported. However, the interaction of collectivism with the higher-order factor associated with teamwork was not supported. Implications for research and practice were discussed.

Perception of climate across the qualification levels within the same organization was found to be not uniform (Srivastav, 2008). Six motives of organizational climate—achievement, expert influence, extension, control, dependency, and affiliation—were measured across low, medium, and high qualification levels in a public sector industry, using the MAO-C instrument. While 'dependency–affiliation' climate prevailed in the low and high qualification levels, 'dependency–control' prevailed in the medium qualification level. In low qualification level, 'expert influence and extension' were stronger and 'control' was weaker, making climate more functional, as compared to medium qualification level. 'Extension' was the weakest climate motive across the qualification levels. Investigating the relationship between two important constructs for organisations, namely leader emotional intelligence and psychological climate, Klemand Schlechter (2008) conducted an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) on both the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT) and the Organisational Climate Questionnaire of Koys and

DeCotiis (1991). Both scales were found to be valid and reliable. Stepwise Discriminant analysis provided evidence that a single psychological climate existed in the organisation. The results of a Pearson correlation analysis and Hierarchical Multiple Regression further indicated that leader emotional intelligence is significantly positively related to the psychological climate.

Examining the relationship between organizational learning culture, learning transfer climate, and organizational innovation, Bates and Khasawneh (2005) showed that organizational learning culture predicted learning transfer climate, and both these factors accounted for significant variance in organizational innovation. Srivastav (2009) investigated the nature of organisation climate by measuring six climate motives on 453 executives in a large Indian public sector industry using motivational analysis of organisation climate. The sample was partitioned into groups representing lower, middle, and higher age; junior, middle, and senior management levels; low, middle, and high qualification levels; and R and D, quality, production, and miscellaneous functions to reveal significant differences in the perception of climate across the groups formed within the organisation and demonstrated the heterogeneous nature of organisation climate.

On a different but related note, Dastmalchian (1986) had earlier found that different environmental characteristics have different associations with organizational climate. Also, the relationships between organizational environments and climate are not similar to those found between environments and structure. It was suggested that the creation of appropriate climates and structural design as responses to environmental pressures may be considered as complementary strategies in an attempt to maintain administrative control. These results also provide support for the suggestion that, in order to improve understanding of the dynamics of organizational climate, characteristics of organizational environments should be incorporated into future research designs.

5. Organisation Climate and Business Results

Finally, there is also a body of research into the influence of organisation climate on business results. MacCormick (2010) investigated the moderating effect of market volatility on the relationships between different organizational climates and business performance. She proposed that flexible climates will be more important for business performance when the environment is more uncertain. Using a sample of 620 business units, from multiple companies across different industries and countries, it was found that a climate for involvement, reflecting internal flexibility was positively associated with perceived business performance, but only when market volatility was high. However, contrary to expectations, the other flexible climate, a climate for adaptability also related to business performance, regardless of how uncertain the external environment was, reflecting the importance of a climate for adaptability in certain and uncertain markets. This was consistent with the relationship between climates that reflected stability (climate for consistency and climate for mission) and business performance. This research identifies an important boundary condition that influences the relationship between how the work environment is perceived and business unit performance.

An investigation into the relationship between managerial intentions to create a positive emotional climate in an organization and company performance found that both revenue and outcome growth were positively affected by intentions to create a

positive emotional climate, but, surprisingly, not with intentions to motivate employees with material rewards. (Ozcelik, Langton and Aldrich, 2001, Schneider et al, 1996). Previous studies identified two ways in which a positive emotional climate might contribute to higher organizational performance: by improving employees' affective commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1997), and by strengthening management's leadership role (Bass, 1998; Shamir, 1991). Subsequent studies have found that transformational leadership is positively related to higher levels of followers' actual and perceived performance, extra effort, and satisfaction, as compared to transactional leadership (Sosik and Megerian, 1999); it appears that the most important way to gain more from employees is to provide them with a positive emotional climate rather than material rewards and opportunities. This finding is consistent with Kohn's notion that employees are punished by rewards (Kohn, 1993) who advocated providing a better climate rather than focusing on rewards.

A consistent association between climate and performance was discovered by Kangis, Gordon and Williams (2000). Independently of sector, companies performing above average showed higher values on climate dimensions than those performing below average. Biswas and Varma (2007) found that an individual's perception of the psychological climate in the organization has a significant positive impact on his/her willingness to engage in Organisational Citizenship Behaviour as well as on his/her job satisfaction levels. Further, OCB and job satisfaction levels have a significant impact on individuals' performance.

Consistent with a growing number of models about affect and behaviour and with recognition that perception alone provides no impetus for action, it was predicted that associations between company climate and productivity would be mediated by average level of job satisfaction. In a study of 42 manufacturing companies, subsequent productivity was significantly correlated in controlled analyses with eight aspects of organizational climate (e.g. skill development and concern for employee welfare) and also with average job satisfaction (Patterson, Warr and West, 2004). The mediation hypothesis was supported for separate aspects of climate. In addition, an overall analysis showed that company productivity was more strongly correlated with those aspects of climate that had stronger satisfaction loadings. Managers' assessments of most aspects of their company's climate were significantly more positive than those of non-managers.

Of 19 aspects of company climate examined, (involvement, autonomy, supervisory support, integration, concern for employee welfare, skill development, effort, reflexivity, innovation and flexibility, outward focus, goal clarity, pressure to produce, quality, performance feedback, efficiency, formalisation, tradition, employee affect – overall job satisfaction, organisational commitment) eight were found to predict productivity in the following year, controlling for previous productivity, company size and industrial sector: supervisory support, concern for employee welfare, skill development, effort, innovation and flexibility, quality, performance feedback, and formalization(Patterson, Warr and West, 2004). The longitudinal and controlled nature of the analyses suggests that these associations may be viewed as causal; a company's subsequent productivity was influenced by the level of those eight aspects of its climate. Other studies include Gelade and Mark, (2003); Van De Voorde et al. (2007); Barry and Patzig, (1987) and Day and Bedeian (1991).

6. Organisation Climate and Parent-JV Relationship

Fey and Beamish examined how organizational climate dissimilarity between parent firms and the joint venture organization (JVO) affects joint venture performance. Data were obtained from interviews with the general manager of 40 international joint ventures (IJVs) and questionnaires were completed by top-level managers from both parents and the JVO (6 people / IJV). Results indicate that to have the best chance of success, it is important for a firm starting a joint venture to select a partner with an organizational climate similar to its own. Results also indicate that it is important to create an organizational climate at the JVO that is similar to the foreign parent's organizational climate. The study highlights the importance and appropriateness of clearly differentiating between organizational climate, organizational culture, and national culture. It has also shown that, to achieve IJV success, it is important to minimize the dissimilarity in organizational climate between the JVO and the foreign parent and between the Russian parent and the foreign parent. Further, it appears that dissimilarity in organizational climate between parent firms is more important in determining IJV success than dissimilarity in national culture.

7. Organisation Climate and Cross Cultural Research

An emerging area of research is the examination of cross-cultural aspects of organisation climate. Balakrishnan and Koles (2011) studied the similarities and differences in organisation climate across an emerging, a post transitional and a developed economy across Europe and Asia. Using a comprehensive multi-dimensional scale to measure organisation climate, the study explored factors accounting for differences across three levels – the individual, the firm level and the global societal. Of the other studies one which has had the greatest impact has been the earlier GLOBE study which included, though not explicitly, some aspects of organisation climate.

8. An Integration

Figure 1 below is an integration of the fields that intersect with the study of organisation climate.

We recognise that organisation climate can be viewed as subsumed by the larger organisational attribute of organisation culture. We recognise the interrelationship between both culture and climate on business performance, leadership and organisation change. We further recognise that both culture and climate can impact and in turn be impacted by interrelationships with certain organisations as well as the need for cross-cultural adaptations that arise as a consequence.

While the above are organisational attributes that mediate organisation climate, at the individual level, perception, psychological climate, job performance and retention are the immediate objects of the influence of organisation climate.

The model postulates which set of constructs have a bi-directional relationship and which have a unidirectional one. We also show that measurement is a common theme across the various organisational behaviour constructs

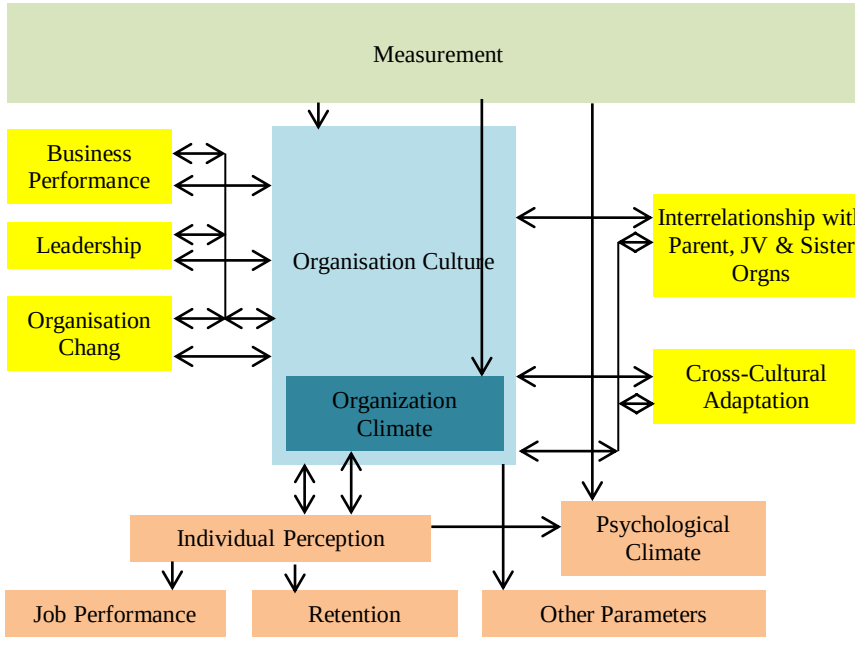

Figure 1 *An Integration of Organisational Climate Concepts*

9. Areas of Future Research

Each of the authors cited in the paper have listed areas for further research. Among the most promising and emerging areas is the research leading to an understanding of the influence of national culture on organisation climate both in terms of similarities and differences, of stages of economic development as well as of varying relationships between organisational entities across cultural borders. One area that seems comparatively under-researched is the influence of varying national political systems on organisation climate both directly as well as mediated by varying national economic systems. Finally, the study of organisation climate in not-for-profit organisations is almost a virgin field still to be explored at great length.

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