Chapter 1

Introduction
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This chapter gives idea about the key concepts of this study: higher education, organizational culture, organizational effectiveness and individual readiness for change. It covers the problem statement, purpose of study and research questions of the topic and it ends with chapterization of the thesis.

Background of the Study

Quite often we use the word ‘culture’ in our daily life conversation. Particularly, when an individual, an organization or a country does very well or behaves or is defeated very badly, at that time, we give credit or discredit to the culture. That term ‘culture’ can be understood by tradition maintained, practices followed, behavior observed from the people of the organization. The concept of culture is discussed very widely and it has been focused by many well known authors, such as:

♦ Deal and Kennedy’s (1982) Corporate Cultures: The Rites and Rituals of Corporate Life

The term culture was also emphasized by Agarwal (2013) by saying that Indian higher education is lack of competition and culture; showing the emerging need to understand and work on culture in Indian context. Many studies have taken place to understand the relationship of organizational culture and effectiveness in higher education and have found positive relationship between institutional culture and effectiveness (Anderson, 1995; Faerman, 2009; Jones 2007; West-Moyens 2012). Even Deal and Kennedy also have described the amazing impact of a strong culture on
productivity (1982). This study is an effort in the same direction to understand the relationship of organizational culture and organizational effectiveness at higher education level. Now the key variables of the work are introduced at length in coming part of this chapter.

1.1 Higher Education: Introduction

“The highest education is that which does not merely give us information but makes our life in harmony with all existence”.

– Rabindranath Tagore (Kaur, 2014).

Education has a lot of importance in any individual’s life that can be understood from the quote of Rabindranath Tagore but it also matters about the quality that one gets from that education. This education has many phases to complete its ultimate stage in any country and among them. One stage is higher education and this higher education plays a vital role in the development of any country.

India would have the world’s largest youth population by 2020 and would leave behind China. On the other side, India is facing the challenges in the form of supply-demand gap; low quality of teaching and learning; constraints of capacity on research and innovation; uneven growth and access to opportunity in higher education (British Council, 2014). India has secured 90th position in higher education at international level among 140 countries in the year 2015-16 (Forum, 2015).

Amidst such scenario, India is hoping many dreams for its bright future, but the reality is very different. In such situation, it is very important to think and study some important aspects of higher education to make India’s performance and position better. This section provides a blue print of holistic view of higher education and covers higher education definitions, functions, and structure of higher education in India and latter a bird eye view of higher education in Gujarat.
1.11 Meaning of Higher Education:

There are three different definitions of higher education referred here:

Higher Education refers to the tertiary education sector and mainly to courses of study that prepare students for scientific and research oriented careers, as well as careers’ call for professional qualification (Frog, Flenner, & Gruber, 2009).

Higher education comprises of all post-secondary education, training and research guidance at education institutions such as universities that are authorized as institutions of higher education by state authorities (Japan International Cooperation Agency, 2014).

Higher education in India is defined as education obtained after completing 12 years of schooling or equivalent and is of the duration of at least nine months (full time); or after completing ten years of schooling and is of the duration of at least three years. The nature of education can be General, Vocational, Professional, or Technical education (MHRD, 2013).

Commonness emerges from the above-mentioned three definitions representing three countries, i.e. Japan, Austria and India is:

- Higher education is connected with that learning which a student gets after schooling time or in other words, post-secondary;
- Nature of higher education should be in the direction to educate, train and research among students and degree could be vocational, professional or technical awarded from the university.

1.12 Role of Higher Education:

What is the role played by higher education in any country? Different perspectives of role are identified by different researchers and agencies mentioned here.

According to the World Bank, higher education institutions’ responsibility is to train the country’s professional personnel, which include managers, scientists, engineers,
and technicians who participate in the development, adaptation, and diffusion of innovations in the country’s economy. This can be made possible by teaching of knowledge, research and advanced training. They also noted that where investment in higher education is more, growth of that country is also better. It is said that education, research, and contribution to society are the three major constituents of higher education (Japan International Cooperation Agency, 2014).

Main function of higher education is to add real value to human resources, and produce wealth creators and leaders in all fields (Narayan, 2005). Barnett said four functions of higher education, they are: (1) Higher education as the production of qualified human resources – learning of an individual through process; (2) Higher education as training for a research career; (3) Higher education as the efficient management of teaching provision; and (4) Higher education as a matter of extending life chances (1992).

All the four descriptions of reports and researchers on higher education conclude that the role of higher education has to teach student through appropriate educational process, training, and research; which should be ultimately benefited to the society. So, the basic role in higher education is to prepare the student for all fields with recent development, necessary skill set and nurture with correct values which are needed to extend life chances. All fields cover job, profession, business, even politics, administration and also any creative pursuits.

1.13 Structure of Higher Education in India:

Indian higher education has a long history dating back to institutions such as Takshshila, Nalanda, Vallabha and Vikramshila who were world class universities (Apte, 1924). At the time of independence, India had 20 Universities and 496 colleges (Gupta & Gupta, 2012) and Calcutta, Bombay and Madras were the first universities in India which were established in 1857 (Structure of University Education in India, 1952).

At present, India has one of the largest higher education systems in the world, after United States and China (MHRD, 2014-15). In case of number of students, India is the
second highest after China (CCS). According to annual report of MHRD, there are three regulatory bodies in India for higher education in India. They are: University Grants Commission (UGC); All India Council of Technical Education (AICTE); and Council of Architecture (COA) (2014-15). Indian Council for Social Science Research (ICSSR) – New Delhi, Indian Council for Philosophical Research – ICPR; Indian Council for Historical Research (ICHR), National Council for Rural Institute (NCRI), and Center for Studies in Civilization are the research councils in India (MHRD, 2014-15). There are 16 Indian Institute of Technology (IITs), 30 National Institute of Technology (NITs), 19 Indian Institute of Management (IIMs), and many other reputed institutions which are funded by the Central Government (IITs ; NITs; IIMs- MHRD, 2016). India has also initiated the concept of Open University and at present 14 open universities in India, which is regulated by Distance Educational Council of India (DEC) (Gupta & Gupta, 2012). Commonwealth of Learning (COL) is also a step to encourage the development and sharing of open learning distance education knowledge, resources and technologies to improve quality education and training since 1988 (MHRD, 2014-15). Higher education institutions are divided into three broad categories in India: University, college and stand alone institutions. Their numerical data are shown in the given Table 1:

Table 1

Number of Universities, Colleges and Stand Alone Institutions in India

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Universities</th>
<th>Colleges</th>
<th>Stand Alone Institutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2013-14</td>
<td>712</td>
<td>36,671</td>
<td>11,445</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


1. **Universities**: Very first category among the three is University. University means Universality established and incorporated by or under a Central Act, a Provisional Act, or a State Act, and includes any such institution as may, in consultation with the University Concerned, by the Commission in accordance with the regulations made in this behalf under the University Grants Commission Act, 1956 (UGC, 2015).
All these different types are explained here in brief (MHRD 2012; MHRD, 2014-15):

1.1 Central University: These universities were established or incorporated through central act (Act of Parliament). They are funded by the Central Government only and its jurisdiction is limited to the state.

1.2 Deemed to be: An institution of higher education, other than universities, working at a very high standard in specific area of study, can be declared by the Central Government on the advice (recommendation) of the UGC as an Institution ‘Deemed-to-be-university’. Institutions that are ‘deemed-to-be-university’ enjoy academic status and privileges of a university.

There are two types of deemed-to-be-university – the general category institutions and de-novo category. Those institutions completes 15 years of standing and evidence of excellent academic and research can apply for general category type and new institutions that are subjected to comply with more stringent entry barriers to infrastructural and academic requirements for de-novo category (CCS).

Deemed-to-be-university can have private or government ownership. They are allowed more autonomy in operations, admissions, syllabus and fees than other types of universities. Its jurisdiction can be India or abroad.

1.3 Private University: A State Private University is a university established through a State/Central Act.

There are three patterns for establishing a new private university. In one, there is an umbrella act, which is common for all private universities of the state and in other
pattern; there are separate acts for all private universities. Some states like Rajasthan apply the combination of both the patterns in practice.

Private university can be set at state level and its jurisdiction is also restricted to state. It cannot give affiliation to a college. It can have only in-campus colleges.

1.4 **State University**: State University is established or incorporated by State or Provincial (Central) Act, but in India, all universities are established through State Act only. It can get state or central funding through UGC.

1.5 **Institute of National Importance**: An Institution established by Act of Parliament and declared as Institution of National Importance.

National level data describing the entire picture of types and number in universities are given below in Table 2:

### Table 2

**Types of Universities in India as on 05.07.2016**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Universities</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>State Universities</td>
<td>350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deemed-to-be-Universities</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Universities</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Universities</td>
<td>239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Universities</strong></td>
<td><strong>759</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Second category of the institute in higher education is a college.

1. **College**: Colleges/Institutions which are not empowered to provide degree in its name and therefore are affiliated/recognized with universities. Only affiliated and
constituents of Central and State Universities have been counted as colleges. College awards the degree with the university, it is affiliated. Constituent units of Deemed to be/Private Universities, off-campus centers and recognized centers are not counted as colleges.

Third category of institute in Indian higher education is stand-alone institutions.

2. **Stand Alone Institutions:** Stand alone institutions (not affiliated with universities) which are not empowered to provide degree and therefore run diploma programs.

Stand Alone Institutions can be divided into five different categories, namely: 1. Diploma level technical institutions, e.g. – Polytechnic; 2. Diploma level teacher training institute e.g. DIET – District Institute of Education and Training; 3. Diploma level nursing institutes; 4. Post Graduate Diploma in Management, e.g. IIMs; 5. Institutions directly under the control of various Central Ministries (MHRD, 2012).

Other important facts of Indian higher education: (MHRD, 2013-14)

1. Total number of students who are at under graduate level in India is 2,55,00,325, which are 78.9 % from the total number of students of higher education in India and only 0.34 % , i.e. 1,11,346 are of doctorate level among total students.

2. Pupil-Teacher Ratio (PTR) is 25 in India at higher educational level among Universities and Colleges.

Indian higher education institutions still face system-related challenges, where in case of excellence in higher education, the current picture of India is like this (British Council, 2014):

1. World rankings: Only six Indian higher education institutions are featured among the top 500 global universities and none feature in top 200 in the QS World University Rankings 2014–15;

2. Employability: According to the National Employability Report 2013, 47% of graduates are not employable in any sector in India’s knowledge economy;
3. Accredited institutions (2012–13): Only 27% of universities and 15% of colleges in India are accredited by the NAAC. Of the ones that are accredited, 44% of the universities and 17% of the colleges have been rated in the “A” category;

4. Research publications: The number of research papers published by academics in India is one-fifth of that published in China in 2013;

5. Low citation impact: India’s citation impact of 1.3 is half that of the world average;

6. Patents: India’s patents filed are just 3% of patents filed by China.

1.14 Higher Education in Gujarat:

In case of Gujarat, a good initiative of Knowledge Consortium of Gujarat is taken up by Government of Gujarat but very limited excess of data and information is available for higher education in Gujarat. At present, there are total 59 different types of universities; they are mentioned in Table 3:

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of University</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. State University</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Deemed Universities</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Institute of National Importance</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Central University</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Private Universities</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Private Aided</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Universities, Institutions of National Importance and Research Institutions in Gujarat</strong></td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are 71 government colleges, 357 grant-in-aid colleges and 604 self-finance colleges in Gujarat at present (Higher Education in Gujarat, 2015).

After looking at this scenario in higher education, next section will focus on the main independent variable – organizational culture.

1.2 Organizational Culture: Introduction

When we feel some country or organization does unique and leaves a memorable image in our mind, immediately we react and give credit to their culture. Many times we say that the culture of an organization is different and hence their performances or outcome are better. This section will give the comprehensive understanding of the term organizational culture with its different dimensions. It has covered definitions, characteristics, elements of culture, why to study culture, determinants of culture, culture-climate differences, levels of culture, how culture can be learnt, qualitative and quantitative methods of studying organizational culture and models of culture in higher education.

1.21 Definitions of Organizational Culture:

The term culture can create miracle in the history of a family, organization and on a large scale even in the development of a country. This word culture was first noted in Hawthrown experiments (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939). According to Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohavy, and Sanders (1990) initial use of the term ‘corporate culture’ was found in the article of Silverzweig and Allen, (1976), but the popularity of the term of culture took place after Deal and Kennedy launched a book on Corporate Culture in 1982. Importance of organizational culture is accepted in improving the managerial and organizational performance in best seller books (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Ouchi, 1981; Pascale & Athos, 1981; Peters and Waterman, 1982).

Many authors wrote that the core identity of any organization is through its organizational culture, which is the set of values, beliefs and behavior patterns and there also, strong culture with participation and involvement makes the people as their most important assets.
Apart from the popular books report, many empirical studies noted that organizational culture has tremendous impact on the performance of organization (Cameron & Freeman, 1991; Esposito, 2009; Faerman, 2009; Jones, 2007; Kwan, 2002; Maloney, 2008; Smart & Hamm, 1991; Suhardini, 2005).

Ott (1989) has explained the concept of culture as what exist in the organization, in the form of values, beliefs, assumptions, perceptions, behavioral norms, artifacts and patterns of behavior which are unseen and are unobservable forces behind organizational activities.

The term organizational culture includes as routine ways of communicating through rituals, ceremonies and language; dominant values and norms shared by members; organizational philosophy which guide the management’s policy and decision-making, the feeling to interact and climate of layout and rules of the game particularly for new members (Slocum & Hellriegel, 2007).

Even though Tierney (1988) and Schein (2004) said that the route of culture is based on the shared assumptions of individuals participating in the organization; Schein (2004) mentioned that culture can be described through various categories like, observed behavioral regularities, group norms, espoused values, formal philosophy, rules of the game, climate, embedded skills, habits of thinking, mental models and linguistic paradigms, shared meanings, root metaphors and formal rituals and celebrations based on the opinions of different scholars. So, meaning of organizational culture is explained from different perspectives in the history of organizational history and that’s why various definitions are there to explain the concept of organizational culture and a single common acceptable definition is not available. And therefore, various definitions related to organizational culture are presented and then crux is noted. List of different definitions with time line and different perspective is shown in the Table 4:
Table 4

Various Definitions of Organizational Culture

1. Culture or civilization … is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, law, morals, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society.
   
   Taylor, 1871: 1 cited by Kroeber & Kluckhohn, 1952: 81

2. “Culture is a system of publicity and collectively accepted meanings operating for a given group at a given time. This system of terms, forms, categories, and images interprets a people’s own situation to themselves.”
   
   Andrew Pettigrew 1979: 574

3. Culture… is a pattern of beliefs and expectations shared by the organization’s members. These beliefs and expectations produce norms that powerfully shape the behavior of individuals and groups in the organization.
   
   Schwartz & Davis, 1981: 33

4. A quality of perceived organizational specialness – that it possesses some unusual quality that distinguishes it from others in the field.
   
   Gold, 1982: 571-572

5. Corporate culture may be described as a general constellation of beliefs, mores, customs, value systems, behavioral norms, and ways of doing business that are unique to each corporation, that set a pattern for corporation activities and actions, and that describe the implicit and emergent patterns of behavior and emotions characterizing life in the organization.
   
   Tunstall, 1983:15

6. The culture metaphor points towards another means of creating organized activity: by influencing the language, norms, folklore, ceremonies, and other social practices that communicate the key ideologies, values, and beliefs guiding action.
   

7. Corporate culture is the implicit, invisible, intrinsic and informal consciousness
of the organization which guides the behavior of the individuals and which shapes itself out of their behavior.

Scholz 1987:80

8. Culture refers to the underlying values, beliefs, and principles that serve as a foundation for an organization’s management system as well as the set of management practices and behaviours that both exemplify and reinforce those basic principles.

Denison, 1990: 2

9. Organizational culture refers to the taken for granted values, underlying assumptions, expectations, collective memories, and definitions present in an organization.

Cameron K. & Quinn R., 1999:14

10. A pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.

Edgar Schein, 2004: 17

11. Culture is the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others. ( A group means a number of people in contact with each other and a category consists of people, who without necessarily having any contract, have something in common:479)

Hofstede G., Hofstede J. G. & Minkov M., 2010:6


Many definitions on organizational culture mentioned above talk about shared meaning among organizational members (Schwartz & Davis, 1981). Organizational culture gives a unique identity to the organization, culture of an organization distinguishes it from others, and it is very implicit, invisible, intrinsic and informal consciousness of the organization. The term practices used by Denison (1990) has the same meaning what is labeled as conventions, customs, folklore, ceremonies, norms, habits, metaphors, mores, traditions, capabilities, system, activities, ideologies, actions used by different scholars (Taylor, 1871; Morgan, 1986).
Even though different scholars have explained the term organizational culture differently but the route or the deepest level of organizational culture is a basic assumption.

**Definitions of Organizational Culture in Higher Education:**

There are two definitions specially talked about organizational culture in higher education. They are mentioned here.

“Persistent patterns of norms, values, practices, beliefs and assumptions that guide the behavior of individuals and groups in an institute of higher education and provide a frame of reference within which to interpret the meaning of events and actions on and off campus” (Kuh & Whitt, 1988).

The set of attitudes, beliefs, and values that integrates a specific group of academics (Massen, 1996).

Not much significant difference is there between definitions of culture with reference to organization and institution, but then also Kuh and Whitt (1988) have mentioned that culture is the element which gives meaning of events and actions to on and off campus through norms, values, practices, beliefs and assumptions to students, faculty members and all other constituents and Massen (1996) said that culture holds the group of academics together.

**1.22 Characteristics of Organizational Culture:**

It becomes very essential to mention the characteristics of culture when varied definitions are discussed as a part of organizational culture. There are seven primary characteristics which capture the essence of organizational culture (Schein, 1996):

1. Innovation and risk taking: The degree to which employees are encouraged to become innovative and risk taking.
2. Attention to detail: The degree to which employees are expected to exhibit precision, analysis and attention to detail.
3. Outcome orientation: The degree to which management focuses on results or outcomes rather than on the techniques and processes used to achieve them.
4. People orientation: The degree to which management decisions take into consideration the effect of outcomes on people within the organization.

5. Team orientation: The degree to which work activities are organized around teams rather than individuals.

6. Aggressiveness: The degree to which people are aggressive and competitive rather than easygoing.

7. Stability: The degree to which organizational activities emphasize maintaining the status quo in contrast to growth.

Greenberg and Baron (2009) have also narrated the core cultural characteristics of interest in new ideas, willingness to take risks, the values of people like Schein (1996) but they have also mentioned some other features:

- Sensitivity to others: Nowadays concerned about others is given more emphasis rather than focusing on oneself;
- Openness to available communication pattern: There are different pattern in communication – i.e. either strictly to follow proper channel of communication or free and direct interactive way of communication;
- And Friendliness and Congeniality: A differentiation is based on friendliness or competitive approach in relationship as an additional one.

Schein (2004) concluded four important features of organizational culture: 1. Culture has some structural stability in the group; 2. It is unconscious part of the group and hence less visible than other parts; 3. Culture covers all its functioning of the organization, influence all aspects of how an organization deals with its primary task; 4. Culture is the essence of the integration of rituals, climate, values and behaviours.

Lunenburg (2011) have listed the features in different fashion, even though his base was the definition of Schein:

1) Observed behavioral regularities: Interaction of organizational members shows common language, terminology, rituals, and ceremonies.
2) Norms: Behavior accepted by group members is termed as norms and considered as yardstick or standard.
3) Dominant values: Any organization has its espoused values and expected to share and practice those values.

4) Philosophy: Vision and mission statement of the organization conveys how employees and outsiders—clients should be treated.

5) Rules: Guidelines or ropes that a new member has to learn to become an accepted member.

6) Climate: Overall atmosphere conveyed in the organization through physical layout and interaction of members.

It is very rightly said by Lunenburg (2011) that not a single characteristics mentioned above represent the term culture, it’s a combination of all these characteristics makes the picture of the organization culture more clear.

1.23 Elements of Organizational Culture:

Elements of culture focus what represents the culture of the organization. Three different views for the elements of culture are referred here. Dubrin (1997) said values (foundation of culture), organizational stories (have underlying meanings), myths (dramatic events or imagined events of firm’s history), degree of stability (fast-paced, slow paced or stable), resource allocations and rewards (allocation of money and resources), and rights and rituals (traditions, rites and rituals) are the elements of organizational culture. Deal and Kennedy (1982) have identified four different elements of organizational culture: Values, Heroes, Rites and Rituals and the culture network.

1.24 Why to Study Culture?

It is accepted by many researchers and management gurus that culture has strong association with performance, so it becomes interesting to know that what role is played by culture in the organization.

Tierney (1988) have concluded the significance of organizational culture from practitioners’ perspective and said culture encourages to:

- Consider real or potential conflicts not in isolation but on the broad canvas of organizational life;
- Recognize structural and operational contradictions that suggest tensions in the organization;
- Implement and evaluate everyday decisions with a keen awareness of their role in and influence upon organizational culture;
- Understand the symbolic dimensions of ostensibly instrumental decisions and actions and;
- Consider why different groups in the organization hold varying perceptions about institutional performance.

In the words of Ott (1989), organizational culture gives social energy to members to act, provides meaning, direction and mobilization to members, plays the role of control mechanism, and informal guideline to approve or prohibit the behavior in the organization.

Robbins (2000) has stated four different functions of organizational culture:
1. Culture plays a boundary defining role. It gives differentiation between organization and other organization. 2. It conveys a sense of identity to the members of the organization. 3. Culture facilitates the generation of commitment to something larger than one individual’s self interest. 4. It enhances organization’s social system stability.

Panda and Gupta (2001) said culture – perceived as shared values and beliefs, fulfills important functions: conveys sense of identity, facilitates the generation of commitment; enhances social system stability; and serve as a device that guide and shape behavior.

Desson and Clouthier (2010) feels organizational culture is important because it shapes the right decisions of the organization, what are the appropriate behavior of employees and how do they interact with each other, how they deal with assignment, speed and efficiency to get the work done, capacity and receptiveness of organization to change and attitudes of outside of stakeholders.

So, the above details about significance of organizational culture makes it clear that organizational culture is a factor which holds the people and organization together and guides the behavior of people.
1.25 Determinants of Organizational Culture

Origin of any culture lies in the values, administrative practices, and personality of the founders (Dubrin, 1997), where as Robins, Judge and Vohra (2013) said that culture creation occur through founder’s personality, which becomes embedded in the culture. Company founders and experiences with the external environment play the pioneer role to develop organizational culture in the organization (Greenberg & Baron, 2009). All the three opinions convey that the route of culture is the founder’s personality and philosophy or the basic assumptions play the key role to design the DNA of the company’s culture.

1.26 Culture and Climate:

There are many evidences in the past research, when scholars have used the concept of culture and climate interchangeably (Barker, 1994), but there is a difference between the two terms. Moran and Volkwein (1992) said culture and climate are different terms and they also overlap on some issues; where climate consists of attitudes and values alone – which are implied in nature, on the other hand culture is implied and it has basic assumptions over and above attitudes and values.

Martin said culture is about assumptions, beliefs, meaning, and values, which is studied through qualitative study and climate is about the practices and behaviors through which it is manifested (2002). Gershon, Stone, Bakken and Larson (2004) believed that (Martin, 2002) organizational culture is norms, values and basic assumptions of a given organization; whereas organizational climate is connected with perception, a collective efforts of employees experience with the organization. According to Gershon & et al. (2004) organizational climate is easy to measure through tangibles like policy, procedures and reward systems, where as organizational culture is difficult to measure because of values and beliefs are intangible. Organizational culture and climate both can be identified through qualitative and quantitative methods, but qualitative method is more appropriate for measuring culture and quantitative method is suitable for organizational climate.
1.27 Layers of Organizational Culture:

As Slocum and Hellriegel (2007) said there are four layers of organizational culture, namely: shared assumptions, culture values, shared behaviors, and culture symbols. First layer—route of culture begins from shared assumptions and philosophy of the organization which represents the reality, human nature and the way things are done in that particular organization. Second layer is values which convey collective beliefs, assumptions, and feelings about what things are good, normal, rational, and valuable. Third layer is shared behaviors include norms, which is more visible, and easier to change than values. Most visible layer among all is the forth layer - Culture symbols. It covers words (jargon or slang), gestures, and pictures or verbal physical objects that carry a particular meaning within a culture.

The same concept of layer of culture is explained by Sinha (2008) through five layers. He said the following five layers of organizational culture: Organizational mission, vision, goals, objectives, strategies, and the underlying philosophy of management; Organizational structure, systems, work forms, technology, capital structure, and other physical features of the organization; Group characteristics such as power and authority structure, group dynamics, leadership, and forms of work and social relationships. Work and non-work practices and behavior; Assumptions, beliefs, values and norms regarding work as distinct from non-work domains such as family, community, leisure, religion, etc.

Schein’s level of organizational culture is most accepted by the scholars of organizational culture. Schein (2004) said there are mainly three layers in the organization. He said artifacts are the first level, which anyone come across as a new member and can see, feel and touch easily, but cannot interpret easily. It covers from physical environment, language, technology, products, artistic creation, language, myths and stories, and also visible behavior of people. Second level is espoused beliefs and values, where if perceived value becomes shared perception then it is transformed into shared value or belief and then shared assumption and the third level is basic assumptions. Basic assumptions are non-confront able, non-debatable, non-negotiable
and extremely difficult to change, so considered to be the deepest level of organizational culture.

1.28 How People Learn Culture:

Primarily employees learn culture through socialization – the process of coming to understand the values, norms, and customs essential for adapting to the organization (Dubrin, 1997). Culture in any organization is shifted from one generation to another through stories, rituals, material symbols and language (Robbins & et al., 2013). Greenberg and Baron (2009) have said symbols (objects that say more than meets the eye); slogans (phrases that capture organizational culture); stories (in the old days, we used to…); jargon (the special language that defines a culture); ceremonies (special events that celebrate organization’s basic values and assumptions); statement of principles (defining culture in writing) are the tools for transmitting culture.

Schein (1983) have suggested the following mechanism, which embedded the culture:

1. Formal statements of organizational philosophy, charters, creeds, materials used for recruitment, selection and socialization;
2. Design of physical spaces, facades, buildings;
3. Deliberate role modeling, teaching, and coaching by leaders;
4. Explicit reward and status systems, promotion criteria;
5. Stories, legends, myths, and parables about key people and events;
6. What leaders pay attention to, measure and control;
7. Leader reactions to critical incidents and organizational crisis;
8. How the organization is designed and structured;
9. Organizational systems and procedures;
10. Criteria used for recruitment, selection, promotion, leaving off, retirement and excommunication of people

After referring many such angles, it can be said that organizational culture is communicated in the form of socialization – which is the most basic and most effective tool of communicating organizational culture and in the process of socialization understanding of values, norms, customs, symbols, slogans and statement of principles,
vision and mission statement, jargon and story is transformed to the new entrance. Ceremonies also play a vital role to communicate the rites and practices of the organizational culture to the members.

1.29 Qualitative and Quantitative Measures to Study Organizational Culture:

Denison (1984) reported that study of culture can be done by ethnographic study as a best method, where as other opinion he mentioned was culture can be sensed, could not be measured, but he used survey method in his study of culture-performance for 34 corporate units. It is suggested that a student should begin his study on organizational culture with qualitative orientation and then quantitative approach should be used to verification (Silverzweig & Allen, 1976). Same method of working with mixed approach to study organizational culture is also recommended by Chandler (2011).

Siehl and Martin (1990) have suggested to use qualitative and quantitative methods to study organizational culture. They used qualitative methods like ethnographic observation, in depth interviews, and archival data to determine espoused values and values in use of culture. After collecting this qualitative data in first stage, a questionnaire was constructed in second stage.

Silvia and Simona (2013) said that there is no ideal method for the analysis of organizational culture, so selection of the method is based on the need and context which is to be applied. They said the instruments of organizational culture can be qualitative and quantitative in nature. Qualitative methods include literature review (document analysis) which can be history, development, company policy document, organization, personnel management, planning and control system, and internal & external communication – this type of data can be helpful in preparing questionnaire. Apart from literature review, observation, opinion interview technique, are qualitative data methods, where as questionnaire is a quantitative method. Other complementary investigation instruments are: organizational culture pyramid, organizational stories, list of cultural clues, organizational symbols, archival analysis, organizational mission and statement analysis.
Both qualitative and quantitative approaches have their own benefits and limitations, but quantitative research and methods are more preferred because they are faster in data collection and comparison between different groups and organization.

With reference to higher education, McCaffery (2004) has suggested three different ways to understand the college or university culture. One simple way is to tell the employees to draw their perception about their academic institute. Another way is through asking about structured open-ended questions about images, physical impressions, stories and legends, reward systems, informal conversation, beliefs and values, norms, language, influential people, identifiable sub-cultures and its impact to the employees. And third way is to add a scoring mechanism of organizational culture based on Cameron and Quinn (2011).

1.30 Models of Organizational Culture in Higher Education:

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As such there are many models to study organizational culture. In case of two dimensional approaches Sinha (2008) has mentioned Harison, Deal & Kennedy, Mittroff, Quinn & McGrawth, and Graves, but four models are mainly found to be used in empirical studies for organizational culture in higher education. They are discussed here:

Hofstede's cultural dimensions (2010):

Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory is a framework for cross-cultural communication. His original work covered the employees of IBM in 1960 and 70s. The original theory proposed four dimensions along which cultural values could be analyzed:
1. Individualism-collectivism;
2. Uncertainty avoidance;
3. Power distance (strength of social hierarchy); and

Thereafter, he added the fifth dimension of long term orientation to cover aspects of values. Later, sixth dimension of indulgence versus self-restraint was also added (2010). However, the model of Hofstede (2010) can be a part of empirical study only in cross-cultural communication (Pareek, 2002; Wu, 2006; Yadav, 2014).

**Denison's model of organizational culture (Denison, 1995):**

A model to diagnose the organizational culture is developed by Daniel Denison. Denison has focused more on the four traits of the organization -

1. Involvement;
2. Adaptability;
3. Consistency; and

Core beliefs and values are the heart of any organization’s culture, which are summarized in four culture types and all these four culture types have three indices and then they measure 12 different indices through 60 different items. It is clearly stated that Denison model is designed and created in business environment and uses business language to explore business level issues even though a reference is found in the empirical study “Impact of Organizational Culture and Performance Management Practices” (Ahmed M., 2012). However, there is a limitation of not using this model in academic set up.

**OCTAPACE Culture of Udaipareek (2002):**

“OCTAPACE culture profile” is developed by Pareek (2002). This culture profile indicates 8 (OCTA) steps (pace) to create functional ethos, where ethos are the core values of the organization. This culture profile tries to know that whether and how many particular values are prevailing in the organization. These 8 dimensions are:
1. Openness – indicates how much autonomy prevails to give and receive ideas, suggestions, feedback and feelings;  
2. Confrontation – face and explore issues at hand;  
3. Trust – confidentially of information and simplification;  
4. Authenticity – means what one feels, says and does;  
5. Proaction – conveys an initiative, preplanning and taking preventive action and calculating pay-offs before taking action;  
6. Autonomy – means allowing an individual to plan and act in his own way;  
7. Collaboration – is nothing but to help each other in work;  
8. Experimenting – means developing and encouraging innovative approaches in solving the problems.

The OCTAPACE profile has 40 item instruments. It is used in most of the empirical studies in India for studying organizational culture in different sectors like banking, public sector organizations, FMCG product business, information technology, tourism, BPO, manufacturing organization etc. Apart from these areas, the OCTAPACE formula is also used in higher education (Ahmad & Mir, 2012, Yadav, 2014) but majority use was found in Indian higher education cases.

_Cameron's Model of Higher Education (Cameron & Quinn, 2011):_

This study is based on this model of Cameron and Quinn (2011). In this model, typology of organizational culture is based on competing values framework developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999). The original work is based on the study of statistical analysis of 39 indicators by (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983) to identify the indicators of organizational effectiveness. As mentioned by Cameron and Quinn (2011), two main dimensions emerged with four main clusters.

One dimension emphasize on flexibility, discretion and dynamism from criteria that emphasize on stability, order and control. This dimension indicates that there are some organizations which are changing, adaptable and organic; whereas some are stable, predictable and mechanistic. Its continuum ranges from versatility on one hand and steadiness on the other hand.
Second dimension emphasize on internal orientation, integration, and unity or emphasize on external orientation, differentiation and rivalry. This dimension indicates either they have harmonious internal characteristics or they focus on interacting or competing with others outside their boundaries.

These two dimensions together form four quadrants and represent a distinct set of organizational effectiveness indicators. These indicators of effectiveness represent what people value about an organization’s performance, i.e. what is right, good and appropriate. The four quadrants or clusters define the core values on which judgments about organizations are made. The four core values represent opposite or competing assumptions. The competing or opposite values in each quadrant have given birth to the name for the model, competing values framework.

Each quadrant is given a distinct name – Clan, Hierarchy, Market and Adhocracy – as types of culture, where clan culture is characterized typified by a friendly place to work where people share a lot of themselves. It is like an extended family. Leaders are thought of as mentors and perhaps even as parent figures. The organization is held together by loyalty and tradition. Commitment is high. The organization emphasizes the long term benefit of individual development, with high cohesion and moral being important. Success is defined in terms of internal climate and concern for people. The organization places a premium on teamwork, participation, and consensus.

In case of hierarchy culture, organization is a formalized and structured place to work. Procedures govern what people do. Effective leaders are good coordinators and organizers. Maintaining a smoothly running organization is important. The long term concerns of the organization are stability, predictability, and efficiency. Formal rules and policies hold the organization together.

Market culture indicates result-oriented place of work. Leaders are hard-driving producers and competitors who are tough and demanding. The glue that holds the organization together is an emphasis on winning. The long-term concern is on competitive actions and achieving stretch goals and targets. Success is defined in terms of market share and penetration. Outpacing the competition and market leadership are important.
Adhocracy culture is characterized by a dynamic, entrepreneurial, and creative work place. People stick their needs out and take risks. Effective leadership is visionary, innovative, and risk-oriented. The glue that holds that organization together is commitment to experimentation and innovation. The emphasis is on being at the leading edge of new knowledge, products and services. Readiness for change and meeting new challenges are important. The organization’s long term emphasis is on rapid growth and acquiring new sources. Success means producing unique and original products and services.

The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument is one of the frequently used instruments for studying organizational culture to know the prevailing culture in the organization. This OCAI is used in more than 60 doctoral dissertations and also used in many relationship studies with quality, innovation, physical health, educational and teacher success etc. Moreover, in many industries, like health care, education, community colleges and universities, M.B.A. programmes etc., it is used.

The six dimensions of OCAI cover some of the fundamental manifestations of organizational culture. These six dimensions are:

1. **Dominant Characteristics**: This dimension indicates how the overall organization is like.

2. **Organizational Leadership**: It is a reflection of the leadership style and approach that pervade the organization

3. **Management of employees**: It is the style that characterizes how employees are treated and what the working environment is like.

4. **Organization glue**: Bonding mechanisms that hold the organization together.

5. **Strategic emphasis**: That defines what areas of emphasis drive the organization strategy.

6. **Criteria of success**: It determines that how victory is defined and what gets rewarded and celebrated.
Even though these six dimensions are not comprehensive, they represent all basic assumptions, interaction patterns, and organizational direction of the fundamentals of culture. This instrument can also be used in two steps – current culture and preferred culture, which can be the best guideline for the organization to develop better culture.

According to Cameron and Quinn (2011), OCAI model is used in a number of countries, ranging from Abu Dhabi, Argentina, Canada, China, Dubai, The European Union, France, Germany, Great Britain, Greece, Iran, Iraq, Jamaica, Kenya, Latin America, Netherland, Qatar, Russia, Senegal, Singapore, Slovenia, South Africa, South America, South Korea, Spain, Taiwan and United States. This shows popularity of the model. Not only in education but also is the use of OCAI in health care, religious organizations, national and local governments, community colleges and universities, libraries, data warehouses, military organizations, recreational departments, airlines, ethnic tribes, athletic teams, and national athletic organizations, energy, family businesses, school firms and M.B.A. programmes show the soundness and effectiveness of the model (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Particularly in the area of higher education, the empirical study done by Mohammed and Bardai (2012), Lejeune & Vas (2009), Zammuto and Krakower (1991), Quinn and Spreitzer (1991), Cameron & Freeman (1991) proves more acceptability of Cameron’s model (2011) of higher education.

After referring all four models Hofstede (2010), Pareek (2002), Denison (1995); and Cameron (2011) at length, it seems that the model of Hofstede (2010) is more applicable in the study of higher education in Global context; use of Pareek (2002) model is more found in Indian system, Denison is more focused towards cultural studies in business fraternity, whereas Cameron & Quinn (2011) is found to be more appropriate in higher education because it has found wider acceptance in different countries than others in higher education.

1.3: Organizational Effectiveness: Introduction

Ultimate purpose of any organization is to achieve goals and objectives. Performance is the final parameter of success and in the era of competition it has become
more difficult to achieve, but it is unavoidable as well. Organization refers to the concept of efficiency and effectiveness repeatedly. Efficiency means doing things right and effectiveness means doing right things. This section covers the definition of that effectiveness, factors affecting effectiveness, its approaches, and models of organizational effectiveness.

   Concept of organizational effectiveness is refereed with many other words and phrases. Cameron and Whetten (1983) used the words ability, accountability, efficiency, improvement, performance, productivity and success. Georgeoplus and Tannebaum (1957) used the phrases like organizational success and organizational worth; and Koys (2001) used the phrases of business outcome, organizational outcome and organizational performance.

1.31 Definitions of Organizational Effectiveness:

    The term organizational effectiveness is a latent construct, which cannot be directly measured (Abston & Stout, 2006) and even Kwan and Walker (2003) have also supported that organizational effectiveness is a second order construct in their study of Hong Kong higher education institutions. On other side, organizational effectiveness is such a concept regarding which a consensus about definition is difficult.

    A few definitions given by different authors are discussed here:

    Organizational effectiveness is the proficiency of the organization at having access to be essential resources (Cameron, 1978). Organizational effectiveness is defined as the perception by a strategic constituency of the successful implementation of an activity considered to the mission of a university (Kleeman & Richardson, 1985).

    Organizational effectiveness is the extent to which an organization has met its stated goals and objectives, and how well it performed in the process (Yankey & McClellan, 2003).

    Organizational effectiveness is related to the issue such as the ability of the organization to assess and absorb resources and consequently achieve its aims (Federman, 2006).
1.32 Approaches of Organizational Effectiveness:

There are mainly four approaches which are more popularly used to understand the concepts of organizational effectiveness. They are: Goal approach, Systems approach, Strategic-Constituencies approach and Competing Values approach (Khanka 2009; Rao, 2009).

1) **Goal Approach (Goal Attainment Approach):** Goal attainment is one of the widely used criterions for organizational effectiveness. There are many types of goals in the organization like: profit maximization; high productivity; high morale for employees; providing efficient service etc. In goal attainment approach, achieving the targeted goal is the bottom line in any organizational unit. In this model, effectiveness is measured through accomplishment of outcomes (Etzioni, 1960).

2) **Systems Approach:** It is also known as “Input-throughout-output approach”. In system approach, an organization is judged on its ability to acquire inputs, processing of those inputs; channel of the inputs and maintain stability and balance. According to Yuchtman and Seashore (1967), system model does not ignore the end goals, but emphasize on inputs, acquisition of resources and processes. System approach has the limitations of problem of measurement and means, because how you win the game is counted and not how you play the game.

3) **Strategic-Constituencies Approach:** How much different constituents of the organization are satisfied for its continued survival is measured in the constituents approach. It has the limitation of separating strategic constituents from the larger environment and difficult to tap the information, what are the expectations of strategic constituents.

4) **Competing Values Approach:** Competing values approach is an integrative approach, which combines all – goal, system and constituency approaches. It considers all those criteria, which firm values in the organization. In case of competing values approach, Robbins have suggested three dimensions for the set of values – Flexibility versus Control; People versus Organization and Means versus Ends. Among this sets, means versus ends include goal and system approach;
people versus organization is based on different stakeholder’s needs and control-flexibility is an open debate in organizational culture.

Apart from these four basic models of organizational effectiveness, Cameron (1984) has also mentioned the list of the following models shown in Table 5, with its brief definition and its usefulness:

**Table 5**

**Criteria of Organizational Effectiveness and its Usefulness in Different Models, according to Kim Cameron**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Definition—An organization is effective, if…</th>
<th>Useful—The model is preferred, when…</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.Goal</td>
<td>It accomplishes its stated goals</td>
<td>Goals are clear, time bound, consensual and measurable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.System Resource</td>
<td>It acquires needed resources.</td>
<td>Inputs and outputs are clearly connected.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.Internal Process</td>
<td>It has smooth functioning and no strain.</td>
<td>Processes and performances are clearly connected.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.Strategic Constituencies</td>
<td>All constituencies are minimally satisfied</td>
<td>Constituents have power over/in the organization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.Competing Values</td>
<td>Trade-offs are balanced.</td>
<td>Paradoxical pressures are encountered.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.Legitimacy</td>
<td>It survives by engaging in legitimate activity.</td>
<td>Survival or demise is of interest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.Fault-driven</td>
<td>It has an absence of ineffectiveness indicators.</td>
<td>Mistakes are fatal.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Even though Cameron and Whetten (1996) mentioned that according to Bluedorn, goal model is best; Seashore and Yuthman argued for a resource dependency model; Nedler and Tushman proposed for internal congruence model and Connoly, Conlon and Deutch (1980) and Tsui (1990) maintained that strategic constituency model was best. But in nutshell, when the issue comes to select a single best approach, not a single model or approach is correct, because no approach is a complete approach and covers the comprehensive view in itself (Upadhyay, Upadhyay, & Pinto, 2015), but according to the analysis done by Rojas (2000), CVF is the most viable model for measuring organizational effectiveness between for profit and non-profit organizations and mentioned that CVF model is used in varied studies like organizational culture, leadership styles and effectiveness, organizational development, human resource development and quality of life.

### 1.33 Models of Organizational Effectiveness in Higher Education:

There are many models used by researcher in empirical studies to study the effectiveness in higher education. They are discussed here.

According to Badri et al. (2006), Baldridge was developed for identifying an exemplary quality management practices for world class performance and more used for performance improvement. Performance measure tested by Malclom Baldridge National Quality Award is known as MBNQA model. It has seven dimensions to evaluate performance criteria of education: Leadership; Strategic Planning; Faculty and Staff focus; Student-Stakeholder and Market focus; Process Management; Measurement, Analysis and Knowledge Management and Organizational Performance Results.

According to Cameron (1986), there are nine dimensions to evaluate the organizational effectiveness in higher education. They are: student educational satisfaction, student academic development, student career development, student personal development, faculty and administrator employment satisfaction, professional development and quality of the faculty; system openness and community interaction; ability to acquire resources and organizational health.
Verghese (2007) has used six box model of Weisbord’s six box model to diagnose the education institute. Criterions used by six box model are: purpose; structure; relationships; rewards; helpful mechanism and leadership.

Singh, Grover and Kumar (2008) have used quality function deployment approach to evaluate organizational effectiveness in higher education. According to QFD approach five dimensions are important, namely: organization and governance; financial resources; physical resources; teaching-learning process and supplementary process.

Kleeman and Richardson (1985) have studied university effectiveness through student perception and used 10 domain references. They were: Programmes and services for students, emphasizing minorities and woman, quality of research and teaching, research and knowledge dissemination, offering workshops and counseling, athletics, sponsoring cultural activities, offering graduate programmes, leasing facilities, and increasing standards.

Anita (1976) has given a very appealing model for evaluation of polytechnic institutions through critical success factors. Researcher argues that performance of organizations should cover three dimensions of role effectiveness, efficiency and future capability simultaneously, not in isolation. Those three dimensions were covering seven critical success factors, namely: social tune, cost effectiveness, course development, corporate reputation, investment in human capital, development of physical facilities, student relations, employee relations and public responsibility.

According to Cameron (1986), various criteria have been used to evaluate organizational effectiveness in higher education. He said reputational rankings, citation by faculty members, faculty awards and honors, student’s achievements after graduation (starting salaries, scores on entering students on national exams and institutional resources (e.g. size of the library, expenditures per student) are the six most prevailing methods of evaluating higher education based on 20 years study done by Webster, but after referring many models developed by various research scholar in this study Cameron’s model of evaluating higher education is used.
1.4 Individual Readiness for Change: Introduction:

The concept of readiness for change is very important and precondition for a person to succeed in facing change (Hanpachern, 1997). Evaluation for change gives the idea whether people are ready for change and helps to understand the role of the organization to make the organization successful (Zingheim & Schuster, 1995).

1.41 Definitions of Individual Readiness to Change

Hanpachern (1997) defines the mental attitude of the individual before acting when facing the change process. Barker (1994) said individual readiness for change is involved with people’s beliefs, attitudes and intentions regarding the extent to which changes are needed and their perception of individual and organizational capacity to successfully make those changes. Berneth (2004) explained that readiness is more than understanding and believing in the change, but is a collection of thoughts and intentions toward the specific change effort.

All three definitions have common voice that individual readiness is connected with cognitive level of an individual that what he/she believes, perceives and thinks about the change.

1.42 Models of Individual Readiness for Change:

There are many models talks about different dimensions for individual readiness for change. Holt, Armenakins, Field and Harris (2007) believe individual readiness for change is a multi-dimensional construct, even though some scholars say, it is a one-dimensional construct (Haffar, Al-Karaghouli, & Ghoneim, 2012). Holt used four components in IRFC, namely: personally beneficial, management support, self efficacy and appropriateness with the help of 25 items (Holt, Armenakis, Field, & Harris, 2007), which was used in the study of Hallgrimsson (2008).

Hanpachern (1997) mentions three dimensions of individual readiness for change, namely: Resisting, Participating and Promoting. Resisting is to oppose the change process; participating is to accepting and involving the change process and promoting is the process to support and market it to others about suggesting acceptance of change. In
this study, this model is used, because its reference is found particularly in higher education.

After getting the introductory background of key variable – higher education, organizational culture, organizational effectiveness and individual readiness for change, now an explanation is given about the basic issue which is focused in this study and purpose behind that study.

1.5 Problem Statement:

The following research question will guide the study: What are the relationships of prevailing culture types and effectiveness in undergraduate colleges of Ahmedabad?

1.6 Purpose of Research:

The aim of the research is to evaluate the relationship between perceived institutional culture and institutional effectiveness by the faculty members of the college and effectiveness of the undergraduate institutes, particularly B.Com. and B.B.A. colleges of Ahmedabad. Furthermore, in many empirical studies it is also proved that organizational culture and organizational effectiveness have positive relationship (Esposito, 2009; Kwan, 2002; Suhardini, 2005; West-Moyes, 2013). This study can contribute the literature in two ways. One, it would provide a strategy to evaluate the institutional culture in higher education, which is very untouched sector in Indian higher education and second, the study will also give a bird’s eye view of the scenario in Indian higher education system at undergraduate level and guide management, principals and also to faculty members to evaluate and emphasize on more effective form of cultures.

1.7 Research Questions:

This study includes three important variables in the study: Organizational Culture, Organizational Effectiveness and Individual Readiness for Change in context of Higher Education in India and in that context the major research questions in this study are:

Question 1. What are the perceived culture types (Clan, Adhocracy, Hierarchy and Market) in under graduate colleges of Ahmedabad?
**Question 2.** What is the dominant culture type among the participating institutions?

**Question 3.** What are the relationships of prevailing culture types and effectiveness in undergraduate colleges of Ahmedabad?

**Question 4.** Does individual readiness for change mediate the relationship between organizational culture types and organizational effectiveness in undergraduate colleges of Ahmedabad?

**1.8 Chapterization**

This thesis has the following format of chapterization, which is as follows:

**Chapter One: Introduction**

This chapter one includes the theoretical foundation of the keywords e.g., higher education, organizational culture, organizational effectiveness, individual readiness to change and explain the purpose of the study, problem statement, research questions and chapterization of the thesis.

**Chapter Two: Literature Review**

This chapter two analyses in detail the concepts of culture, effectiveness and readiness to change and provides a review of literature on the relationship between the three major variables. Following from this review an attempt has been made to identify the gap in the existing literature.

**Chapter Three: Research Methodology**

This chapter three discusses research methodology. It has research approach, research design, sample design, research instruments, pre-testing and pilot study.

**Chapter Four: Data Analysis**

This chapter presents the research findings in detail including the presentation and analysis of survey questionnaire data.
Chapter Five: Conclusion

Finally chapter five includes the results and its interpretation from the research, implications of the findings, limitations of this study and areas for future research.

Summing up

To sum up, this chapter has provided a theoretical background of the study, a review of the existing pattern of higher education in India and the relevant models of studying culture, effectiveness and readiness to change.