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Title: The Impact of Virtual vs. Traditional Work on Organizational Culture_____

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The purpose of this paper was to conceptualize organizational culture using Cameron and Quinn's Competing Values Framework to explore the differences between traditional and virtual work environments. In review of the literature, organizational culture was defined and the framework was laid out to discuss clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market cultures in traditional and virtual workplaces. I conceptualized that clan and hierarchy cultures would be best suited for a traditional workplace while the adhocracy and market culture would be best suited to a virtual workplace.

Keywords: Virtual Workplace, Traditional Workplace, Competing Value's Framework, Culture

THE IMPACT OF VIRTUAL VS. TRADITIONAL WORK

ON ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction and Literature Review

Working in a technological age, the workplace is always changing and adapting to new advances to survive and stay competitive (Berry, 2011). Advancements in technology have brought a transformation to the workplace and created an emergence of new organizational structures where it is no longer necessary for employees to work in a traditional work environment (Koehler, Philippe, & Pereira, 2013). With technology, companies are now becoming virtual—such as having remote employees or where the entire company operates online. Working virtually can allow organizations to be more flexible, adaptive, and responsive (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002). By being flexible and adaptive it could be beneficial to working parents, individuals with disabilities, workers with long commutes and help create a work-life balance. The same could be said about classrooms becoming virtual, as there has been an increase of online and hybrid classes or programs across the globe over the past couple of decades. The Internet has changed how organizations and people communicate and how we conduct business. It connects people from home, work, and school. Virtual working is becoming a part of daily life and employees or students can be physically remote from face-to-face communication by operating from a computer, tablet, or mobile device. Millions of workers now use those portable electronic tools to work away from the traditional office (Hill, Miller, Weiner, & Colihan, 1998).

Organizations can conduct business via a teleconference call, chat room, e-mail, or programs linking computer networks together to message, chat, listen, and/or view the same information (i.e., Skype for Business and Jabber). These are some examples of how

employees can work away from the office. The traditional way of physically showing up to work alongside other employees for a set period of time is changing. Bell and Kozlowski (2002) discussed how organizational structures have changed to become flexible to adapt to virtual teams. For example, employees can still maintain their normal labor hours, either a full or half shift, but now have the option of not having to physically be present within a traditional workplace. The worker can conduct business as usual from virtually anywhere as long as internet access is available. This could be beneficial in the way that employees can focus without the everyday distractions that happen in the workplace.

As technology advances, employees are looking for more reasons to stay at home and work. Working from home changes how they view their organization compared to a co-worker who physically comes to work every day. This is essential because organizations may not know whether the virtual or traditional employees view the organization differently. The first virtual office study to include both quantitative and qualitative analyses (Hill et al., 1998) examined the differences between virtual and traditional employees. It was found that the virtual workers had fewer distractions, increased productivity, enjoyed greater flexibility of work, better technology, a more comfortable work environment, and the ease of working during non-scheduled times compared to the traditional worker.

An important social characteristic in any organization is how organizational culture influences the meaning of work and employee behaviors at all levels within the organization. Schein (1996, p. 236) defines organizational culture as "the set of shared, taken-for-granted implicit assumptions that a group holds and that determines how it

perceives, thinks about and reacts to its various environments." The culture of any organization is a key characteristic that influences behavior within the organization (Ostroff, Kinicki, & Tamkins, 2003). Values and beliefs that affect members of a work-group are characteristics to consider when thinking about organizational culture (Hartnell, Ou, & Kinicki, 2011; Ostroff et al., 2003; Schein, 1996). While various models exist for measuring culture, this paper focuses on Cameron and Quinn's (2006) Competing Values Framework. It serves as a taxonomy of cultural types to examine how traditional and virtual individuals within the same organization possibly perceive the organization's culture.

The virtual workplace will be operationally defined for this paper as a workplace that is not tied to one, if any, physical workplace that is collocated with other colleagues, but instead is networked technologically via the Internet anywhere. Lipnack and Stamps (1997) observed that the work of virtual teams across time, space, and other organizational boundaries is strengthened by the various forms of communication technology.

The traditional workplace will be operationally defined as a workplace with a geographical physical location, where an individual works a set amount of hours in that physical location. An example would be an individual who works nine-to-five during the weekdays. Traditional workers typically work in close proximity to one another which is also known as being co-located. Traditional work environments have been described as immediate physical access to coworkers and management (Hill, Ferris, & Martinson, 2003 as cited in Koehler et al., 2013) and "inclusive of policies, a perceived hierarchy,

work roles, and underlying administrative support structure" (Rapert and Wren, 1998 as cited in Koehler et al., 2013).

These boundaries can sometimes blur because traditional workers also use technology to communicate with one another (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002). Nilles (1994 as cited in Hill, Hawkins, & Miller, 1996) observed that telecommuting could replace the daily commute to work, which has already happened. Jackson, Gharavi, and Klobas (2006, p. 219) defined virtual organizing as "the inclusion of employees (and sometimes other organizations and contractors) in different locations as members of the organization in a range of structures from partially collocated to totally dispersed." Sometimes traditional workers organize virtually with others.

The purpose of this conceptual thesis will be to examine the differences that exist in the values and culture experienced by individuals in the virtual workplace compared to those in the traditional workplace. This paper will contribute to the literature in that the competing values framework will be examined to study organizational culture that is mixed with traditional and virtual components.

Organizational Culture

    Definitions. A recognizable definition of culture is Schein's (1990) definition:

    Culture can now be defined as (a) a pattern of basic assumptions, (b) invented,

    discovered, or developed by a given group, (c) as is it learns to cope with its

    problems of external adaptation and internal integration, (d) that has worked well

    enough to be considered valid and, therefore (e) is to be taught to new members as

    the (f) correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. (p.

    111)

As previously defined by Schein (1996), culture is the norms, values, and assumptions that define how an organization functions. This definition is similar to Barney's (1986) definition that organizational culture is defined by the values, beliefs, assumptions, and symbols in which organizations conduct their business. Knowing how an organization defines its "products and markets, what financial goals it sets, how it chooses to raise money, manufacture and distribute its products, and what kind of information and control system it uses all reflect its culture" (Schein, 1986, p. 31).

In Schein's (1996) definition of organizational culture, he describes three levels: values, assumptions, and artifacts. Values are reported as fundamental principles by management, but may not be reflected by all organization members because management's values may not reflect the reality of the organization. This is because there are two types of values, espoused and enacted. Espoused values are those endorsed by management or the organization, while enacted values are those exhibited or converted into employee behavior (Ostroff et al., 2003). For example, an organization may espouse quality values in its mission statement and in its company speeches, but implicitly reward efforts that produce quantity over quality. The employees soon learn that quantity, not quality, is the unspoken but truly enacted value.

Assumptions, Artifacts and Values. Assumptions, similar to values, are both unobservable and the core of the culture (Schein, 1996). Assumptions help organizational members make day-to-day work decisions. Some assumptions start out as values but get ingrained so deeply they become an assumption (Ostroff et al., 2003). Organizations that tend to value behaviors that are stern and assertive in nature will often use fear as a form of employee motivation. Managers will then assume the best course of action based on

the organization's firmer culture. Disciplinary action or employee motivation via yelling and threats are not uncommon. A manager devolving a critical situation will not see favorable results if they have made the wrong assumption in how the employee accepts the response and tone presented. This assumption helps managers when they have a difficult situation because they know they will need to yell a little louder or issue more threats to keep employees working hard. It may become a self-fulfilling prophesy because managers will reason, "If I don't get on them, they will goof off." The assumption does not allow for experimentation with alternative motivational techniques, and managers who do not use fear as a motivator may be seen as soft and prodded to get with the program. In time, the assumption becomes part of the culture and it helps make and drive the culture.

Lastly, cultural artifacts are considered to be an outer layer of culture (Ostroff et al., 2003). They are the products of culture, such as the myths, rituals, language, dress, and the organization of space. Autonomously, the artifacts are ambiguous to individuals not within the organization because outsiders would not understand the underlying meaning of the organization's artifacts (Schnieder, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2013). An open floor plan is indicative of family values (the office as a family around the kitchen stove sharing ideas and working together). Inversely, open floor plans could carry negative connotations to employees and indicate employer's mistrust based on the assumption that an employee that is not under surveillance or in a micro-managed environment will be less productive and essentially shirk duties in favor of slacking off. The casual observer will just see an open work-space and not know how it is a manifestation of underlying cultural values and assumptions.

While an outsider would have difficulty understanding an organization's culture from a cursory view of its artifacts, new employees entering an organization for the first time soon learn how the organization is thought of by the tenured employees. Organizational culture is learned through group members who pass it on to new group members (Ostroff et al., 2003). The socialization of new employees helps organizations build strong cultures, sometimes for better, sometimes for worse. Because "Culture is morally neutral; different societies and groups develop different notions of what is right and moral. The same is true of organizations. If we take culture seriously, we must face the possibility that our own assumptions and values will not fit every situation (Schein, 1986, p. 33)." One reason an organization might want to examine its own culture is so it can reexamine its assumptions about its environment and its responses to that environment. Are they providing the best results for the organization's employees, customers, shareholders, and other stakeholders? And what are the values driving those assumptions? Maybe they are also in need of reexamination.

Trust. Technology impacts the workplace and communication. A phenomenon that Stephenson (2011) discussed is "the office," where it is routine and common knowledge that people show up to work, get fired, move on, and/or retire from. The arrival of the computer mobilized employees to work anywhere and anytime. Whether one is a traditional or virtual employee, the computer is now a fixed part of the organization. "The office" is now changing into a modern office where technology plays a huge role in reaching out to current and future employees. People can view connections via the Internet, such as the website LinkedIn or a company's internal communications network. Although organizations can connect to employees electronically, there still

needs to be a psychological connection between the employee and organization to gain trust, because, without trust, an organization loses an important human asset. People are social creatures who need to feel that they belong to a social network. Even virtual employees still need the recognition and validation that they are valuable, that they belong. As Stephenson wrote, "trust trumps technology" (p. 280).

A topic that repeatedly appeared throughout the literature is trust (Lee-Kelly & Sankey, 2007). In a study by Dani, Burns, Backhouse, and Kochhar (2006), perceived levels of trust, specifically swift trust on temporary teams, was measured on whether there would be a relationship using Cameron and Quinn's model of organizational culture. The authors found a relationship between trust and cultural orientation; swift trust was observed when group members had common goals and believed in the integrity of the team. Koehler, Philippe, and Pereira (2013) studied the effects of two different working environments within the same organization on employee perceived trust and predicted that traditional work environments would perceive higher levels of trust than a telecommuting environment. There was no significant difference between the two working environments as both traditional and virtual employees' perceived trust similarly. Thus, it appears that contemporary organizational leaders can expect perceptions of employee trust to not significantly vary when employees work in either work environment. In an exploration of the literature, Symons and Stenzel (2007) stated that virtual teaming is different from face-to-face workplaces and that virtual teaming relies on trust and recognizing cultural differences. It "offers a richer cultural diversity as conventional borders disappear and project teams are formed across time and

space…team members need to remain vigilant for signs of cultural dissonance which can corrode and diminish the advantages of virtual teaming (p.15)."

Barney (1986) suggested that three conditions must be met for an organization's culture to have a sustained competitive advantage. The first condition is the culture must be valuable, the second condition is that the organizational culture must be rare, meaning that the characteristics and attributes must not be common, and finally, the culture must be imperfectly imitable. In other words, the culture would not be able to be replicated by another organization. With technological advances such as cell phones, tablets, smartwatches constantly changing, organizations must be adaptable, and if an organization is able to modify its culture, then others can as well. Organizations must prepare to be open to new ideas to remain competitive and survive.

Schein provided a starting definition of the construct of culture. However, Cameron and Quinn's (2006) competing values framework provides organizational culture researchers with a framework for measuring and diagnosing aspects of the organization's culture. The framework has allowed researchers to explore the relationship between organizational culture and organizational performance. The competing values framework will be used to examine organizational culture in this paper because of these advantages.

The Competing Values Framework

The competing values framework is used widely in research (Hartnell et al., 2011) and has been administered to thousands of organizations (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). The reliability and content validity of Cameron and Ettington's (1998) measure of the framework has been empirically supported (Hartnell et al., 2011; Quinn & Spreitzer,

1991). This framework was originally derived from Quinn and Rohrbaugh's 1983 research on the many ways organizational success criteria are operationalized. In this study, management theorists were asked to compare success criteria (how similar or dissimilar were each pair). Then using multidimensional scaling, they found that the success criteria varied on three dimensions: structure, focus, and goals, as seen in Figure 1. The structural dimension separates organizations interested in flexibility and change from those interested in stability and control. This vertical axis emphasizes flexible criteria such as human capital development or stable criteria such as productivity. The focus dimension separates organizations focused internally on their people from those focused externally on customers and competitors. This horizontal axis emphasizes either internal criteria, such as employee development and consistency of rules, or external criteria, such as resource acquisition or gains in market share. The goals dimension distinguishes between end goals and goals that are means to an end.

This initial categorization of different measures of organizational success was further developed by Cameron and Quinn (2006) into the competing values framework for understanding organizational culture. In addition to success criteria, they examine five other aspects of organizational culture: dominant characteristics, organizational glue, leadership philosophy, management practices, and strategic emphases. In every area, Cameron and Quinn explore whether the company is more flexible or stable, more internal or external. The results help diagnose organizational culture and cultural consistency. Regarding the latter, some companies may have leadership and management approaches that are more flexible but strategies and success criteria that are more stable. This could be potentially disruptive.
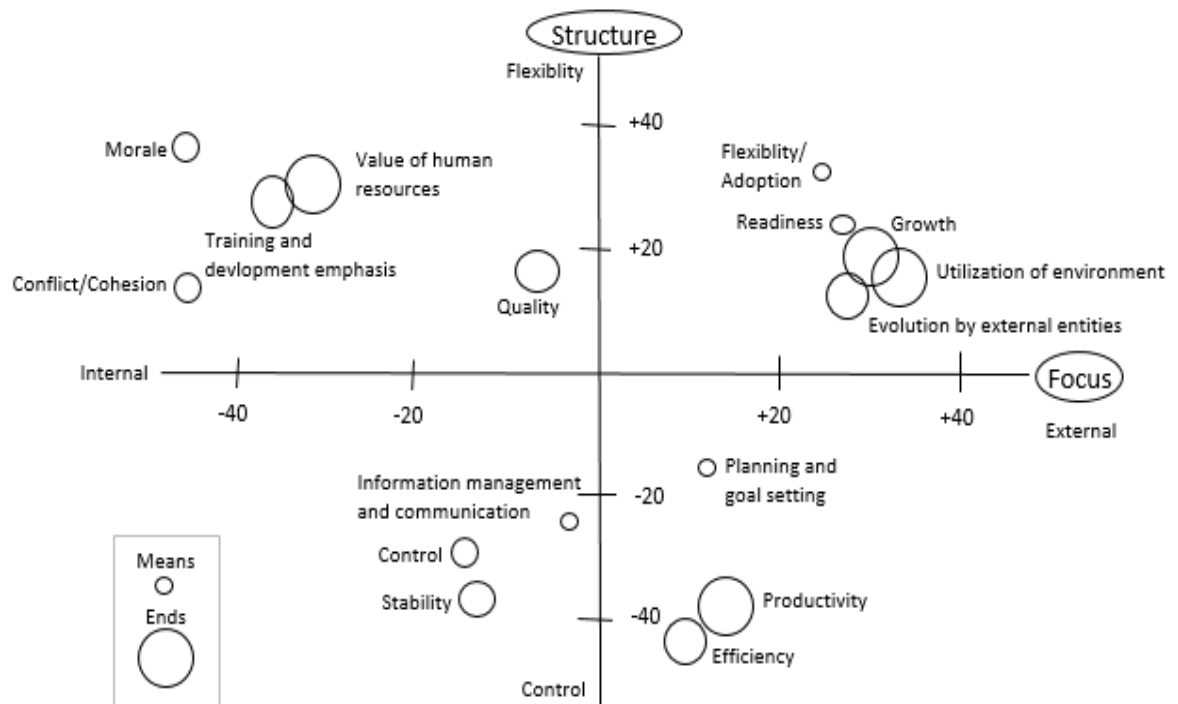
Figure 1. Competing Criteria

From Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983)

The four types of organizational cultures. The intent of the cultural assessment developed by Cameron and Quinn (2006) is to help identify an organization's current culture. Based on the two main dimensions of structure and focus, four culture types emerge: hierarchy, market, clan, and/or adhocracy. The four cultural types are depicted in Figure 2. Each organization will have varying relationships within the four types (Hartnell et al., 2011). For example, one organization might be high on two quadrants and low on two quadrants, another organization might have a balance of the four quadrants, while a third organization might focus predominantly on a single quadrant.

Cameron and Quinn (2006) described the four culture types in their pure form, starting with the hierarchy culture, high on the internal and the stability poles of the two dimensions. The organizational culture compatible with this culture type can be characterized "by a formalized and structured place to work. Procedures govern what people do. Effective leaders are good coordinators and organizers." (p. 38). It is internally oriented and supported by control mechanisms, such as procedures. Organizations with this culture assume that stability, control and predictability drive success and they value communication, routine, formalization, and consistency (Quinn & Kimberly, 1984). Normative behavior within this culture is conformity and predictability and there is a belief that employees will behave appropriately when their roles are stated clearly and procedures are properly defined by regulations and rules (Hartnell et al., 2011). The effectiveness criteria for this cultural type are timeliness, efficiency, and smooth functioning (Cameron & Quinn, 2006; Hartnell et al., 2011).

Flexibility and Discretion

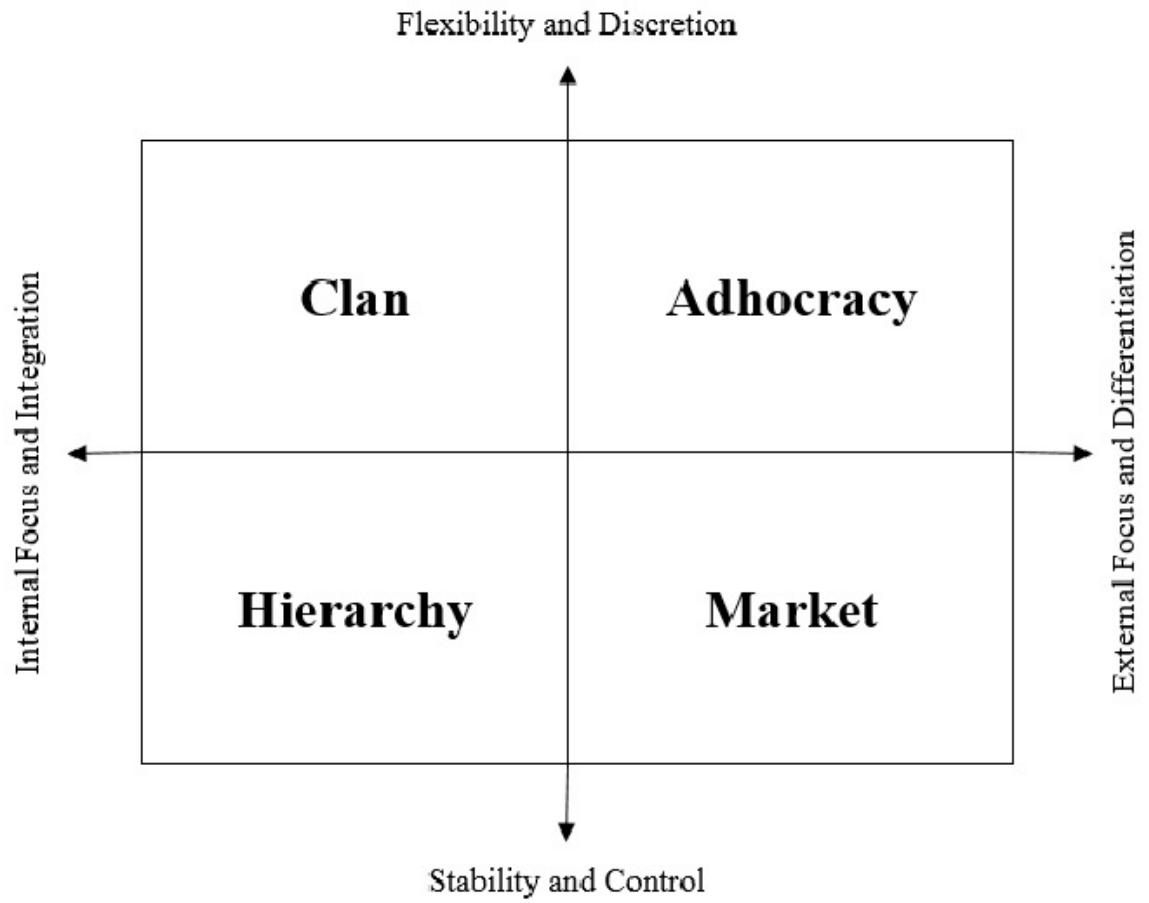|	Clan	Adhocracy	
Internal Focus and Integration			External Focus and Differentiation
	Hierarchy	Market	

Stability and Control

Figure 2. Competing Values Culture Types

From Cameron and Quinn (2006)

Another cultural type is the market culture, which is high on the external and stability poles of the two dimensions. This type of culture focuses on the external environment and transactions with suppliers, customers, unions, regulators, and contractors, for example. Market culture is also more results-oriented, maintained by rules, specialized, focused on winning, tough, demanding, competitive, goal achieving, and market leading. An assumption that underlies this cultural type is that achievement demands aggressiveness and competitive nature with a focus on productivity. These organizations usually value meeting short term goals. A belief in this culture is that clear goals and contingent rewards motivate employees to perform and meet expectations. Competition, competence, and achievement are valued attributes. Behavioral norms include goal setting, planning, a task focus, aggressiveness, competitiveness, gathering information on customer needs and on the competition, and enhancing market share and profitability (Cameron & Quinn, 2006; Hartnell et al., 2011).

The clan culture, high on the internal and the flexibility poles of the two dimensions, is a cultural type that is characterized as being more family oriented. It is a friendlier place to work. People are more willing to share. Leaders are mentors. Both employees and the organization are loyal to one another. An assumption is that organizations will succeed because they hire, develop, and retain their employees (Cameron & Quinn, 2006), which leads to positive affective attitudes towards the employer. These organizations value affiliation, membership, and attachment. Behavioral norms focus on participation, teamwork, employee involvement, and open communication. The effectiveness criteria of the clan culture focus on employee

satisfaction and commitment and employee development (Cameron & Quinn, 2006; Hartnell et al., 2011).

The adhocracy culture, high on the external and the flexibility poles of the two dimensions, is focused on innovation and constant change. For example, the adhocracy organization may be found in "industries such as aerospace, software development, think-tank consulting, and filmmaking" (Cameron & Quinn, 2006, p. 43). This culture does not have centralized power or authority relationships. Power is from individual to individual or from team to team with risk-taking and anticipating the future playing critical roles (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). These organizations usually have flexible organizational structures. An assumption is that change creates or garners new resources. A fundamental belief in an adhocracy culture is the necessity of taking risks, adapting, and having a novel or idealistic vision to provide creative opportunities for employees. These organizations value variety, autonomy, growth, attention to detail, and stimulation (Cameron & Quinn, 2006; Quinn & Kimberly, 1984).

The competing values framework is the main framework for this study in determining the company's current culture from the employees' perspective and in determining the culture the employees would prefer. The competing values framework suggests that each organization is a unique combination of the four types because each organization has its own set of values, beliefs, behaviors, and assumptions that make it distinct (Hartnell et al., 2011).

Measuring organizational culture. Cameron and Quinn (2006) use the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI); the OCAI has been found to be useful and accurate in diagnosing important aspects of an organization's underlying

culture. More than a thousand organizations have used this assessment. While some cultural theorists argue that there is no right or wrong answer nor right or wrong culture, as all organizations are unique, a meta-analysis by Hartnell, Ou, and Kinicki (2011) found that balanced cultures best predict organizational performance. The OCAI assesses six key dimensions of organizational culture: (1) dominant characteristics, (2) organizational leadership, (3) management of employees, (4) organization glue, (5) strategic emphases, and (6) criteria of success. Each dimension has four alternatives that will be given a number on the extent to which each alternative is similar to the employee's organization. Once the employees within an organization have completed the assessment, there will be a clear depiction of the organizations fundamental assumptions on which it operates as well as clear identification of the organization's values. An organization that is assessed will be categorized in all of the cultural types, but perhaps one or two cultural types will dominate.

The Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI) is another frequently used survey that is based on the competing values framework and theoretically based. Twelve sets of normative beliefs are assessed and are categorized into three types of organizational cultures; constructive, passive-defensive or aggressive-defensive culture. The constructive culture is focused on achievement, affiliation, self-actualization and has a humanistic approach. A passive defensive culture reinforces values that relate to avoiding accountability, seeking approval, and following convention. The last culture is the aggressive defensive culture that is categorized as perfectionistic, competitive, and power oriented (Ostroff et al., 2003). More than one competing values taxonomy exists, but the

one put forth by Quinn seems to have garnered the most respect (Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2013).

The Age of the Virtual Office and Virtual Community

Today, almost all work-related interactions and communications are partially supported by electronic media, making organizations "virtual" on some level. For example, those who meet face-to-face may use electronic media to send out meeting minutes, use e-mail to confirm a discussion or decision made in the break room or hallway, or use electronic media to communicate a project (Berry, 2011). This globalization of work processes has introduced many organizations to "virtual teams," where work is predominantly used by electronic technologies. These virtual teams are a new and an exciting work formation with various opportunities for organizations, hence, the rising popularity for organizations to create these individual roles and virtual teams (Berry, 2011; Hertel, Geister, & Konradt, 2005; Hoch & Kozlowski, 2014). The use of virtual roles and teams are helping organizations become cost-efficient and increase their competitive edge. Virtual teams offer other advantages such as savings on travel and related costs by hosting meetings through video conferencing (Lee-Kelley & Sankey, 2007). Organizations are more likely to continue to use or adopt a virtual worker for future use (Berry, 2011; Purvanova, 2014). Universities are another example of using this technology to their advantage in creating online courses, programs, or online colleges. The rapid development of various electronic devices and programs has distributed work to become more efficient, faster, and easier to use. Along with this advancement, organizations have different degrees of "virtual" workers; these can range from teleworkers, to virtual groups and teams, and virtual communities. A necessary note to

consider is that some existing virtual teams have some face-to-face contact, such as video conferencing, meetings and/or training that require face-to-face interaction.

Beer, Walton, and Spector (1985, as cited in Hertel, Geister, & Konradt, 2005) discussed that virtuality can be evaluated on three levels: individual, organizational, and societal. The individual level has more flexibility and time control "together with higher responsibilities, work motivation, and empowerment of the team members" (p. 71). At the organizational level, the virtuality of the work is more strategic, such as getting a group together based on their expertise or having an "around the clock" team that works in different time zones. For the societal level, virtuality can decrease environmental strains by reducing commuting traffic and air pollution, offer individuals a suitable employment arrangement due to family duties or mobility due to a handicap, help develop regions with low infrastructure, and improve the employment rate. The levels of virtuality need to be assessed and updated periodically so that expectations match up with the reality of the evolving working climate in organizations.

Technological developments have created a blurred line between work and private times or spaces. Google glasses, e-mail, smartphones, tablets, wireless Internet, the cloud network, and the ability to work or go to school from home has impacted expectations about availability and response time. Our current technological achievements are predecessors for new norms. The advances of networking environments have led to interactions over a variety of communications network via handheld electronic devices (Driskell, Radtke, & Salas, 2003) that can be taken anywhere. Norms are one of the aspects of virtual collaboration, such as remote work environments, partially distributed

or co-located, and it impacts all levels of work-life including the cultural level (Moser & Axtell, 2013).

The virtual office is now a reality. Driskill, Radtke, and Salas (2003) used the term *virtual team* "to refer to a team or group whose members are mediated by time, distance, or technology" (p. 297). It is a flexible work environment (Hertel et al., 2005) where people can work anywhere with a wireless Internet connection. Work that was once confined to a singular physical location within an office is now being done in coffee shops, restaurants, airports, or a private home office. Hill, Hawkins, and Miller (1996) discussed that the *virtual office* is increasing with flexibility, control of location, and timing of work that alters the traditional office hours of 8-to-5. The study showed that many are not using that flexibility to increase availability for family time. Teleworkers need to receive virtual training to help optimize their time and demands of their work and family situations. Individuals need to communicate that information to their employer to create a work-life balance that benefits both the employee and their organization. This view about work is different from other individuals who want to work the traditional job and have that face-to-face interaction. These individuals have a focus of wanting to work their way up the company and further their career. Thus, for teams to be considered "virtual," members must have more technological media interactions and more time displaced (Krumm, Terwiel, & Hertel, 2013).

In a quantitative and qualitative study, Hill et al. (1996) focused on the influence of family life of teleworkers compared with a group of office workers at the same corporation, IBM. The mobile teleworkers were not reported to have had more sufficient family time than traditional workers. One exception to this was mobile teleworkers with

young children who viewed the flex work from home more favorably, which is not surprising. Some mobile teleworkers have a hard time balancing work and personal life (Hill et al., 1996; Moser & Axtell, 2013). Working in cyberspace is an "all-the-time-everywhere office" with employees answering e-mail via a cellular device, computers/laptops, tablets, answering a work cell phone or from home anytime, leaving an e-mail, phone messages, and writing at any time during the day or night. Virtual teams that are created, managed, and implemented effectively can complete work or solve problems on a 24/7 schedule (Berry, 2011). This means that flexibility can also create an environment where an individual works all the time via technological devices.

Face-to-face interaction allows more personability than tech devices for individuals who share the same physical location, can see or hear others, and listen or see messages as they are produced. Individuals can see other body cues or gestures for nonverbal communication, which is hard to communicate electronically. In face-to-face settings, individuals can make eye contact, observe facial expressions and posture, listen to their tone of voice, knowing who is talking and receiving information in real time to have that interaction of being physically present and responding immediately (Driskell et al., 2003).

Driskell, Radtke, and Salas (2003) examined the effects of technological mediation on team processes and how performing on a virtual team may impact a team process. The authors concluded that distance matters; being mediated by technology has an impact on team performance, such as a negative impact on task commitment and blocking observable indicators such as cues and expressive behavior. Technological mediation could make it more difficult for communication, such as sending, receiving,

and interpreting that information; this impairs interaction mainly for text-only communication but time and experience can brace virtual teams against the damaging effects of technological mediation Technological mediation is an important consideration when examining employee viewpoints on the organization.

When examining employee viewpoints, such as face-to-face or virtual employees, another consideration is how employees may feel working remotely. Hertel, Konradt, and Orlikowski (2004) focused on effective management practices within virtual teams. The implications from the study can be a consideration for organizations to help bring in the remote individual, such as making them feel welcomed or included. When people are spatially and/or temporally distributed, it is more difficult to implement and maintain a common goal.

Structural management is critical at the beginning of virtual teamwork. Hertel et al. (2004) suggested that to overcome motivational challenges "due to lower spatial and temporal connectedness in virtual teams, managers should maintain the psychological connectedness or interdependence by (1) assuring high quality of goal setting processes, (2) creating high task interdependence in the beginning of the virtual teamwork, and (3) using team-based rewards to maintain high perceived outcome interdependence within the teams (p. 24)". Organizations can help members by providing timely information and facilitating a monitoring or self-management process towards the beginning with interspersed training or check-ups.

To help with management on virtual workers, organizations can provide continuous support of awareness, informal communications, social cues with performance feedback and information about the working situation for each virtual

worker (Hertal et al., 2005; Hoch & Kozlowski, 2014). In a meta-analysis by Purvanova (2014), virtual teams were more likely to contribute equally to team discussions compared to face-to-face teams and were more task-focused. Purvanova's meta-analysis did not shed a positive light on virtual teams, such that virtual teams perform less effectively and less efficiently, reach less accurate decisions, communicate less, share less knowledge, and take longer to complete tasks. Some positive notes were that virtual teams created more ideas and had more equal participation in discussions. The negatives still outweighed the positives, such as employees were less agreeable on decision making. Once organizations work out the kinks, virtual teams may be cost-effective and become a vital part of any organization. If organizations do not take the time to see what is going awry with the development and effectiveness of virtual employees, then that may create a resistance to adopt virtual teams. With the technological advancements and competitiveness of other organizations, this may create a negative impact on organizations that do not look into reaching out to virtual employees.

Krumm, Terwiel, and Hertel (2013) found that virtual members need to embrace the knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSA's) of the job to working conscientiously in work environments to counteract challenges of ambiguity and uncertainty. Employees must use KSA's to counteract challenges of (1) cue deprivation that hamper collaboration due to lower awareness of the cultural background of collaborators, (2) have a heightened need for self-regulation as colleagues and supervisors have fewer opportunities to monitor compliance with norms, and (3) time displaced communication as collaborators do not have immediate interactions. Counteracting these challenges is vital because it impacts the formation of virtual teams and its norms. By working conscientiously, a useful norm

is to hold team member's accountable for the team's tasks and not only for team member's own specific tasks. Lee-Kelley and Sankey (2007) concluded from their case study that "virtual teams are useful for projects that require cross-functional or cross-boundary skilled inputs and the key to their value creation is to have a defined strategy in place to overcome issues (p. 61)" such as culture issues, time zones, over communication, and unclear roles and/or responsibilities. A strategy to overcome those issues is to "raise cultural awareness and empathy through (1) careful team selection so that every global team will have at least some members who have prior distanced-working experience and who can help other global members new to virtual projects deal with possible language, accent or attitudinal differences and (2) tailored personal development programmes and team-building exercises (p. 61)".

A Focus on Field Studies. In Purvanova's (2014) meta-analysis of field and lab studies, Purvanova established that the effectiveness of virtual teams can be dramatically different in experimental research compared to field literature. Purvanova argues that practitioners and academics must look toward field studies when looking at virtual teams rather than lab studies for a more accurate source of knowledge, and suggested three factors in favor of field (virtual) teams. The first factor to account for the success of virtual teams is when organizations create virtual teams to accomplish specific goals with employees who were motivated to help make their team a success. The second factor is that virtual teams can have a long life span, which gave virtual teams' time to acclimate to the experience and develop tactics and strategies to successfully work with other team members compared to the 60 minutes participants had in lab studies. The third factor is that virtual teams communicate in a non-synchronous way that gives virtual employees a

chance to process and adequately respond to new information. In summation of the various meta-analyses in the article, virtual teams are a viable alternative to face-to-face teams and organizations can confidently utilize virtual teams to complete projects in a successful, profitable, and timely manner.

Employee commitment to virtual organizations. Studies have been conducted to compare virtual and collocated teams on team effectiveness in the different environments due to the increase of virtual teams in organizations (Powell, Galvin & Piccoli, 2006). The socialization that occurs during face-to-face communication between co-workers, both within and outside meetings, strengthens organizational and team commitment (Dodd-McCue & Wright, 1996). Socialization is more difficult for virtual teams because there is a dependency on technology for the coordination and control for communication (Ahuja & Galvin, 2003).

The research study by Powell, Galvin, and Piccoli (2006) was to determine commitment between collocated and virtual teams, because the organization valued committed employees. Virtual teams are defined as "geographically, organizationally, and/or time dispersed individuals brought together by information and telecommunication technologies to accomplish a common goal" (p. 300). While employees who work virtually rely on information technology to communicate, collocated employees can meet face-to-face and have chance encounters that virtual employees cannot. The authors found that collocated teams took advantage of face-to-face communication and were more likely to use personal e-mail accounts, while virtual team members were more likely to use a team distribution e-mail. Perceived member effort in trust development played no part in virtual teams but did in collocated teams.

The strength of work processes was stronger in virtual teams on the trust relationship because virtual workers have to resolve uncertainties in other ways. Factors in the development of team commitment operate differently depending on technology and type of communication used between employees in the virtual or a collocated work environment (Powell et al.). This is notable to examine because there are differences between being a virtual or traditional employee that may influence their perceptions of employee culture.

Communication

Driskell et al. (2003) defined communication as a process that includes aspects of both verbal and non-verbal components. Communication, both virtual and face-to-face, is essential in any organization to get work done, and it provides the building blocks for people to collaborate, make decisions, and achieve any objective (Berry, 2011). Communication issues arise when employees are remote due to problems of social and cultural integration. Robb (2002, as cited in Lee-Kelley & Sankey, 2007) referred to web-enabled shared workspaces via the internet as a third generation technology that employees use for communication. First and second generation technology can be known as e-mails and conference calls to online discussions boards, presentations, and video/meeting tools respectively. Jacobs (2006) investigated how communication influences organizational commitment in remote workers and found that remote workers form an organizational attachment with frequent e-mail communication being a major factor. The implication for this is paramount because communication systems help build a network and a sense of belonging within the organization. In Jacobs' study, the organization's positive values and attitudes were perceived by workers based on the

effort made by management to reach out and reciprocate commitment. In collocated teams, vague or unclear issues can be clarified more in casual conversation, whereas virtual teams need more structure (Berry, 2011). This needs to be considered by management in developing unique ways to reach out to their remote or virtual workers and to their traditional workers.

Akkirman and Harris (2005) investigated levels of communication satisfaction between traditional and virtual employees. The authors found that virtual workers were more satisfied with organizational communication than traditional workers and this was due to how the organization reached out to their virtual office workers. This study went against previous theories and empirical research which had found that virtual workers experience lower levels of communication satisfaction than traditional workers. Reaching out can make a difference in how the organization is viewed by both traditional and virtual workers. Organizations need to be careful in how a virtual office is implemented and how trust is established between managers and workers—which depends on supportive communication. Interestingly, research suggests that computer-mediated groups may offer more negative feedback from others than face-to-face groups (Driskell et al., 2003). This could impact the culture of an organization in different ways for virtual versus traditional workers.

Purvanova (2014) discussed some challenges associated with communication media that organizations should be concerned about. The use of e-mail and any kind of chat program may cause some challenges due to different physical locations and the inability to see or hear one another. E-mail users may receive e-mails later than when the e-mail was actually sent due to slow connections and networks or users not being online

at the same time. These time differences can destroy the flow of communicating. Virtual workers may find it hard to overcome some of those difficulties and may experience different outcomes than face-to-face workers who share the same physical space. This is important for organizations to consider when there is a mixture of the traditional face-to-face workers and virtual workers to see if there is a need for improvement. Other challenges are coordinating activities, misunderstandings, poor team leadership, and isolation from others.

Online Community

E-learning is emerging in developed countries, such as the United States, and is now working alongside traditional modes of training. This type of learning offers many benefits to geographically dispersed organizations in which employees or students can learn when they are unable to use a more traditional mode of classroom instruction. Organizations can relay information faster or have it at the touch of a fingertip. Some organizations see e-learning and the use of technology as a way to engage and communicate to younger employees that they are keeping up with the latest trends. It is necessary to note that even though the younger generations entering the workforce are growing up tech-savvy, it does not mean they know how to use the technology effectively. To remain at an advantage and to continue the use of e-learning, organizations must train employees and colleges must train students how to appropriately use the technology available to them. This type of learning and training mode does not always offer the best solution to deliver the required training. In other words, organizations need to be aware of what would work best, either a virtual, traditional, or mixed training module, to effectively train and develop their employees. With baby

boomers retiring, millennials and generation Z are entering the workforce and there is going to have to be some adapting for both employee and employer for this next workforce who grew up and are taught in different modes of technology. The adoption of e-learning is becoming popular amongst educational institutions and private and public organizations, but these organizations need to know how to effectively facilitate learning that will result in a return on investment. Also, organizations need to continuously train and re-train employees or students with new virtual products, services, and technologies that become available (Becker, Fleming, & Keijsers, 2011).

Similar to the virtual workplace, the virtual classroom or training program is rising in popularity which would help prepare a future virtual employee by working online. The virtual learning environment is making a huge impact on how students receive their education and how faculty or training staff teach. An online learning community offers convenience and flexibility, which are especially valued by adult learners (Billings, Connors, & Skiba, 2001). Elements of the learning setting are altered drastically for the online environment. Interaction is one change that is vastly different from the traditional classroom. Teachers have to carefully plan their dialog to make a more meaningful connection in the virtual classroom than when a teacher is in the traditional classroom. LaPointe and Reisetter (2008) looked at student perceptions of communication in online environments and suggested that for productive engagement we need to reassess. The online environment is challenging and different from the traditional environment.

E-learning has evolved from the 20th century and has grown increasingly popular in the 21st century. Billions of dollars are now being spent on training and teaching

individuals online. As cited in Barnes and Blackwell (2004), Peter Drucker was quoted, "Universities won't survive. The future is outside the traditional campus, outside the traditional classroom. Distance learning is coming on fast" (p. 4). Because online learning environments are becoming popular with each passing day, organizations must focus on creating a culture that is effective for both traditional and virtual employees.

Barnes and Blackwell (2004) have identified ten issues that they believe will aid in online situations. The ten issues are: keeping technology friendly, deciding on asynchronous or synchronous delivery, transforming content for the online environment, planning the role of instructor, building a sense of online community, planning student communications, achieving the right tone and degree of personalization, pacing students through the course, delivering effective feedback, and assessing student learning. Addressing these issues can help organizations create a culture that would benefit them, the stakeholders, the customers, and their employees. Online learning is part of the future and organizations that work hard to create an effective technological culture will be rewarded with increased opportunities.

Research Questions

Research Question 1. How do virtual employees view the organization differently than traditional employees?

It is worth mentioning again that Ostroff, Kinicki, and Tamkins (2003) indicated that the outer layer of culture, such as cultural artifacts, may be seen by employees who are physically in the workplace and not by remote workers. Perceptions may differ based on the daily activities of the business in the organization.

As previously stated, organizational culture is learned through group members who pass it on to new group members (Ostroff et al., 2003). Traditional employees may see the organizational culture differently through socialization, relationship building, and/or more family oriented within the unit as they continue to work in that environment compared to virtual employees. The virtual employee may not even have the same interaction when they started as a remote worker, so they will see the culture values differently.

Research Question 2. How does the employee's perception of organizational diversity change based on their work environment? There will be four parts to this question for each of the four types of culture.

Schnieder, Ehrhart, and Macey (2013) mentioned that artifacts can be considered ambiguous to individuals not within the organization. Therefore, the virtual employee may view the organization differently since they are not able to physically witness the variety of artifacts an organization has in the workplace. On the other hand, traditional employees may have a more consistent view of organizational culture because they are in it every day.

These questions tie into the main purpose of this thesis, to examine the relationship, if any, that exists between the values and culture that individuals experience in the virtual workplace compared to individuals in the traditional workplace. This paper provides insightful information to the existing literature as it is an important and understudied topic that I/O research can inform practitioners and be used by researchers to study the topic.

CHAPTER 2

Conceptual Argument

The conceptual core of this paper is based on an examination of culture types of the competing values framework and tying it into the differences between the traditional and virtual workplace. The following sections will detail how some culture types are better suited to traditional and others better suited to virtual. Employees identify with different organizational cultures based on their mode of engagement with the workplace i.e., through trust, commitment, and communication. Clan and hierarchy cultures would be best suited for a traditional workplace while the adhocracy and market culture would be best suited to a virtual workplace.

Traditional Versus Virtual Workplaces

Virtual teams are described as geographically dispersed members that communicate through various means of technology (Lipnack & Stamps, 2000; Davis, 2004 as cited in Lee-Kelly & Sankey, 2007). As operationally defined previously, a traditional workplace is where employees conduct work in their designated work area such as stationary physical location, such as a plant or office building, employees show up to work on time, and work face-to-face with their colleagues and management. Employees are co-located in the same area.

Virtual teams often fall into different places within an organization's competing values model (Duarte & Snyder, 1999). Duarte and Snyder mentioned in their book, "The model examines a team's organization culture and can be used to determine whether the culture is aligned with the team's task. If there is a mismatch between existing culture and demands of the task, the team may decide to develop new norms or to add new

members who represent the culture it is trying to represent" (p.63). Bell and Kozlowski (2002) concluded that virtual teams are different from traditional teams and urged a focus on relational issues that could impede team development and performance as virtual teams rely on technology for communication. Focusing on alternative strategies for effective communication techniques and building a repertoire with virtual employees are necessary to compensate for what occurs in structured and conventionally located teams. Communication, trust, commitment, leadership and cultural artifacts play a huge role in how employees perceive their organization (Dani, et al., 2006; Cameron & Quinn, 2006; Lee-Kelly & Sankey, 2007; Schnieder, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2013; Purvanova, 2014).

Clan

  Traditional. Teamwork (a sense of "we-ness"), consensus, loyalty, tradition, shared values, participation, and commitment are what permeate clan-type organizations (Cameron and Quinn, 2006). Traditional workplaces could rate higher in this culture type due to the ability to be able to work closely with co-workers, having that face-to-face connection, higher accessibility to build professional relationships, and become a cohesive unit where employees can be themselves. For the clan environment, employees would have a high commitment towards the organization and share the same values. At the individual level, commitment in the workplace impacts the team's effectiveness with the individual identifying and attaching the organization's goals or tasks that would reflect the individual's psychological state towards continuing their work behaviors (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001 as cited in Powell et al., 2006). Team members who are committed to their team have been found to engage in more pro-social behaviors toward their team (Becker and Billings, 1993 as cited in Powell et al., 2006). Sak's (2006) study

suggested that employees who perceive higher organizational support are more likely to

reciprocate with higher levels of engagement. This would fit in with the clan culture as

employees are more likely to have a high-quality relationship with their employer as

leaders could be mentors and are concerned about the wellbeing of their employees.

Having human affiliation produces positive affective employee attitudes directed toward

the organization, meaning that organizations succeed because they hire, develop and

retain their employees (Harnell, Ou & Kinicki, 2011; Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Low

turnover and a high employee retention rate illustrate the point that employees are an

asset and not a liability. Hiring managers need to take the necessary steps in welcoming

and introducing all new employees to the company's operating norms, so that employees

can conform to the company culture and develop their own sense of belonging within the

organization.

Cultural artifacts that are ambiguous to those outside the organization would have

a different meaning for those within the organization (Schnieder, Ehrhart & Macey,

2013). The open office space indicates family values where the office acts as a mirror of

the family unit due to easily accessible social interactions that build colleague

relationships. On the other hand, open office spaces could be perceived as an indication

of mistrust due to the employee's perception of constantly being monitored and having

no privacy. High trust in employees is associated with a clan organization and is in line

with lean thinking (Dani et al., 2006), which indicates that the organization is willing to

learn, adapt, become more efficient, try new ideas and listen to their employees. A

traditional workplace has the potential to rate higher in other cultures, such as hierarchy.

One would propose based on the previous information that the traditional environment is

best suited for the clan culture. This environment is best suited for the clan culture due to the ability to be close with colleagues, build relationships that create loyalty and build trust.

  Virtual. The literature review highlighted that team dynamics can fail in virtual teams if poorly designed and managed. Organizations have to consciously create conditions to a virtual team's effectiveness or the failure of the virtual team can be due to poor management (Berry, 2011). Although organizations can connect to their employees through technology, there still needs to be a psychological connection to the organization to gain trust. Without trust, organizations lose a fundamental human factor because people are social creatures who feel the need to belong to some type of social networking. Regardless of an employee's work arrangement, virtual or traditional, the worker must experience value, trust, and believe in their organization's culture and goals. Feelings of despondency and apathy cause the employee to be less driven and negatively impact the organizational culture if these emotions fester. Turnover is likely to occur if the employee does not develop good rapport with others within the organization or feel that their contributions are validated

  The virtual environment's dependency on technology for coordination and control reduces communication cues and creates a more difficult environment for socialization (Ahuja & Galvin, 2003; Lipnack & Stamps, 2007 and Chidambaram, 1996 as cited in Powell et al., 2006). This would make it tougher to have a clan-type culture in virtual teams because it is hard to relate to someone you do not see and are unable to pick up non-verbal cues from. These teams may become lost in the crowd, while traditional workers get noticed more if they contributed less in a meeting (Pullan, 2016). Virtual

members may prefer to have the clan-type culture to feel connected with their

organization, such as the case in the study by Dani et al. (2006). It is proposed that the

virtual environment is not the best suited for a clan culture as the virtual environment is

the worst due to the social disconnect and management design that would fit this culture

type.

Summary. The clan culture relies heavily on closeness, tradition and

commitment. The virtual environment cannot compete with a traditional environment in

this regard. The traditional environment would benefit more in the clan culture but should

not disregard that virtual teams cannot have a clan-type culture. In a traditional

environment, there is an opportunity for open office spaces, having that close-knit

community with colleagues, higher chances of engagement, and commitment with the

team that creates an environment that fits the clan culture. The virtual environment is

more socially disconnected and does not have the full effect of the human factor that

defines the clan culture.

Adhocracy

Traditional. A creative environment, entrepreneurship, experimentation,

innovation, growth, and being on the leading edge describe the adhocracy culture. In

today's world, for example, this could be the aviation industry, NASA, technology and

research firms, the arts and startup businesses who are developing new products. For the

traditional workplace, this would fall into line with advanced technology and/or science

firms. Cameron and Quinn (2006) emphasized individuality and risk-taking, such as

focusing on client demand in a consulting firm as an independent project that can be

temporarily designed to accomplish the tasks.

A team that describes the adhocracy culture is the story about the successful failure of the Apollo 13 space mission, which showed frequent leadership changes due to the different problems that arose at hand (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). There was no organizational structure, leadership shifted due to the different tasks to complete the problems that arose, piloting the spacecraft jumped from one astronaut to another as team members stepped up to the plate to face various challenges that were in their expertise and it was all temporary in nature. Problems were solved 'in the moment' as they had to think outside of the box and bring forth new ideas. The Apollo 13 space mission is an example of what adhocratic organizations value in growth, autonomy, stimulation and attention to detail because it fosters individuals to experiment with ideas, solve problems, and become risk-takers which tie into adhocracy cultural artifacts of experimentation, risk-taking, and problem-solving. This could be said for the aviation industry as well, as there are research and design teams to test out new ideas for engines, part repairs, plane designs, and fuel efficiency Resources and new businesses stem from processes of change, and since innovation is a criterion for success in this culture, creativity and risk-taking are significant (Hartnel et al, 2011).

On the individual level, it may be harder for individuals to keep a project under wraps until it is ready to be presented. There would be competition amongst colleagues on presenting the next best idea that the organization would select to focus their resources on, such as allowing further research or making a product marketable. In an adhocracy culture, individuals could thrive in this environment because they could focus on their own research or become a leading expert in their field by specializing in a specific area. On the team level, it could be beneficial if people were an expert on a specific task or

duty like the Apollo mission (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Team projects would have a specialized focus, such as research and design teams. It is proposed that the traditional work environment is not the best suited for the adhocracy culture.

Virtual. Relies on a flexible organizational structure that fosters change, creation of new resources, autonomy, and adaptability (Hartnell et al., 2011; Cameron & Quinn, 2006). As Hill et al. (1996) discussed, the *virtual office* is increasing with flexibility, control of location, and timing of work that alters the traditional office hours of 8-to-5. Virtual teams can work 24/7, especially globalized teams, who are committed and want to succeed. As Berry (2011) mentioned, virtual teams that are created, managed, and implemented effectively can complete work or solve problems on an around the clock schedule, which could be tougher for collated teams if there are no shift schedules.

Working virtually can allow organizations to be more flexible, adaptive, and responsive (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; Johnson, 2001). Adhocracies are similar to temporary, as the root of the word 'adhocracy' is 'ad hoc,' suggesting that something is dynamic, specialized and temporary (Cameron and Quinn, 2006). Often seen in globalized teams, virtual teams potentially rate higher in this type of culture since they are temporary in nature and members bounce between different teams to get work done. Koehler et al. (2013) found that perceptions of employee trust do not significantly vary when employees are in a traditional work environment or work online. Online workers could possibly appreciate the confidence that management has in them to work independently and give them free reign to work on their own projects. The level of trust is reciprocal.

Since adhocratic culture involves autonomy, flexibility, innovation, and individuality, these characteristics are similar to antecedents of satisfaction (Cameron & Quinn, 2006; da Silva, et al, 2018). Da Silva, et al (2018) found that adhocratic culture is associated with commitment when mediated by satisfaction. This potentially infers that virtual workers are satisfied and committed to their organization that values their autonomy and willingness to work with the organization. The characteristics of this culture are prone to generating commitment since the exchange is what the individual makes with the organization. Virtual workers set their own schedules due to the flexibility, which in turn could increase commitment and satisfaction that would develop their self-interest and individuality. It is proposed that the virtual environment is best suited for this culture because of the flexibility, anonymity, a focus on individuality, and the ability to adapt to whichever environment they are in since the workplace could be set anywhere.

Summary. While both environments could thrive in an adhocracy culture, the virtual workplace would be suited best compared to the traditional workplace. The adhocracy culture relies on entrepreneurship, a creative place to work, risk-taking, innovation, and the organization encouraging initiative and freedom. Virtual workers have the flexibility and adaptability to carry their workplace where they need to go to be creative. The virtual worker can head to a place that would bring out their innovativeness, thus bringing that level of trust the employee can perceive from the organization. For the traditional workplace, the individual would have less freedom as they are working in one place. There are successes in a traditional environment in this culture but the virtual environment would have more of an advantage.

Hierarchy

  Traditional. Cameron and Quinn (2006) described this cultural type as a formalized and structured place to work with procedures and effective leaders. An employee's job is specific in nature and mostly standardized. Examples of this would be the military, aviation engine repair shops, most jobs in the service industry sector and organizations that have a structured setup such as line operators in a factory. In traditional environments, a worker would be able to physically see and mentally know where the line is drawn due to internal processes. It would be a structured environment to work in and basically come in and do your job as there is an efficient and consistent way to do the job. At a team level, employees would likely be working as a cohesive unit for smooth-operations that creates dependable delivery (Dani, et al., 2006).

  Using Schein's (1996) definition of organizational culture, the hierarchy culture could easily describe an organization's cultural type by the values, assumptions, and artifacts. Examples would be uniforms, processes, and physically seeing the difference between employee's roles. As pointed out previously by Ostroff et al. (2003), the outer layer of culture may be seen by employees who are physically in the workplace and not by remote workers. Remote workers do not have the advantage of seeing other behavior in order to mimic the norms set in place and thus can become an outlier in their own organization. If you never knew what behavior was expected of you, then how can you even know that you are supposed to emulate it? Even if one is given hand written instructions or the dos and don'ts checklist, that does not mean that it will still translate well. Every person is different and how their brain processes and translates the same information will vary simply based on the person's prior life experiences and how they

learned and progressed from said experience. Thus, it is proposed that a traditional workplace would be best suited for the hierarchical type culture. This environment is the best suited due to the formalized and structured workplace.

Virtual. Hoch and Kozlowski (2014) found the hierarchical leadership on team performance is weakened but structural supports exhibited positive performance. Virtual team leaders would need more time and resources to lead a virtual team compared to a face-to-face team but having a shared team leadership could be beneficial in a virtual team's performance. In this type of environment, being more transparent in communication, having a fair and reliable rewards system, and information management could help motivate virtual team members performance.

This culture type is more difficult for a virtual worker, as there would need to be a clear definition of boundaries, such as structure (Berry, 2011) and communication. For example, the virtual worker may feel obliged to work longer hours if there is no clear boundary set. It would be more difficult to see the cultural artifacts that could easily be seen in a more traditional workplace (Ostroff et al., 2003). The virtual worker would necessarily not have ties to the organization in such manner and there could be a chance of overstepping boundaries if there is miscommunication. With rule enforcers being a factor of hierarchy, the virtual workers are not in the line of sight of management or making sure rules are enforced, which falls on the coordination and organization traits of the leader. It is proposed that the virtual environment is not suited for this culture due the nature of not having a formalized and structured workplace.

Summary. A hierarchy culture relies on a formalized, structured place to work with procedures that hold the organization together, so a virtual workplace cannot

compete with the traditional workplace in this regard. In the traditional workplace, the artifacts are easily recognizable and employees know where the line is drawn due to the structure and procedures that govern the organization. In a virtual environment, this is not as easily seen as there are no clear boundaries and the individual is not in sight of management. For the hierarchy culture, having an efficient and smooth operation is better suited in the traditional compared to the virtual.

Market

  Traditional. Results, being goal oriented, competiveness, and measurable goals such as quantity describes a market oriented culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). This environment focuses more on the external environment and less on the internal affairs of the environment. A potential hazard for the traditional workplace is espoused values (Ostroff et al., 2003). For example, when an organization espouses quality values but implicitly rewards efforts that produce quantity over quality, employees learn what truly matters to the company. In a traditional workplace, this can be detrimental to the communication, socialization and commitment an employee may have toward the organization as those values are not the primary focus on a market-oriented culture.

  People with dominant self-enhancement values, such as hedonism, achievement, and power, will be inclined to control people and resources as well as seek personal success through demonstrating competence (Schwartz, 1992 as cited in Gao, 2017). Thus, leaders with efficiency-minded values are more likely to develop a market culture, which emphasizes competitive advantage and market superiority. This environment is beneficial to those in sales or those who negotiate deals with other companies. Depending on the characteristics of the individual, this may be a more difficult environment to navigate on

a daily face-to-face basis. Gao (2017) found that the adhocracy culture is positively related to market culture; a strong adhocracy culture sought new markets for new direction and growth, thus encouraging a market orientation. The values of the leaders influence how the culture is perceived by its employees. As Gao mentioned, there needs to more research in regards to market orientation and organizational values. An individual would be goal oriented and focused on results, so at the team level this could be a team who succeeds by hitting their marks or quotas; it would be competitive in nature with other individuals or teams. A market culture would be a stressful and demanding environment. It is proposed that the traditional environment is not the best suited for the market culture in comparison to the virtual environment.

Virtual. Market organizations value communication, a focus on achievement that produces competitiveness and aggressiveness that results in productivity with rewards that motivates employees (Hartnell, Ou & Kinicki, 2011; Cameron & Quinn, 2006). For virtual workers, the results-oriented mindset is valued due to the personal disconnect with other workers and the success of measureable targets and goals. To evaluate the individual, organizational and society levels (Beer et al., 1985, as cited in Hertel et al., 2005) of virtuality, the individual has more time control, flexibility and motivation to get work done. At the organizational level, the virtual work is more strategic in nature such as planning a globalized team to work "around the clock." For the societal level, the virtual team can develop programs to sell products. A virtual worker can navigate smoothly through virtual connections and compete against others more easily because they do not have that personal connection with their fellow colleagues. Some cons are that the virtual employee has the ability to avoid other colleagues due to being a virtual

worker, which can put a delay on communication as they rely on e-mail or support networks.

The advances of networking environments, such as social media apps and file sharing sites, are leading interactions over a communications network via handheld electronic devices (Driskell et al., 2003) that can be taken anywhere, a product can be advertised and easily promoted with just a click of finger into social media. "Market culture is adopted by organizations when the external environment is hostile, consumers are choosy and value-oriented, the organization focuses on enhancing competitive position, productivity, sales and profits" (pg. 3, Madhani, 2014 as cited in Madhani, 2018). A good example of this culture type could be pyramid schemes where individuals work independently to sell their product for sales gains and reaches out to others via social media. Philosophy of the market culture puts customer's satisfaction first and outpacing the competition (Cameron & Quinn, 2006; Madhani, 2018). In a study by Reid (1993, as cited in Johnson, 2001), it was found that between 30 and 100 percent that teleworkers were more productive than their counterparts in the office. Removing the stress of commuting, flexible working hours and responsibilities that come with teleworking are possible reasons why there is an increase in productivity (Huws, Korte, & Robinson, 1990 and Burch, 1991 as cited in Johnson, 2001). In society today, the virtual market is competitive and possibly see results in real time due to the age of social media as virtual workers have a more comfortable work environment, flexibility of work, and fewer distractions that can create an increase in productivity compared to a traditional worker (Hill et al., 1998; Johnson, 2001). Based on this information, the virtual environment is best suited for the market culture.

Summary. The market culture relies heavily on success, aggressiveness, competitiveness and getting the job done. A virtual environment is the best suited compared to a traditional environment, in that the virtual worker has the personal disconnect to other colleagues that they can focus on getting results. Social media is a huge construct in a present-day market culture, because a virtual worker can work anywhere and anytime to get results. It would be stressful for a traditional worker to constantly be in a competitive environment. Both environments can work in the market culture, but a virtual worker would best suited.

Chapter Three

Discussion

Organizations have shifted to a diverse workforce and shown an increase in virtual teams and workers as society continues moving forward in this era of technological advances in the workplace. As digitization is becoming the norm for organizations and the digital generations, Millennials and Generation Z are paving the way into the current workforce and attitudes toward the virtual workforce will gradually shift as those in who grew up with the latest technology are taking over the workforce (Purvanova, 2014). It is important to understand the values, time and effort put forth to help these team members and the organization succeed in today's world.

This paper contributes to expanding the theoretical knowledge of organizational culture and conceptualizing the Competing Values Framework (Cameron & Quinn, 2006) on traditional versus virtual work environments. The two environment types affect which preferred culture is the best for the type of worker. A clan and hierarchy culture are best suited for the traditional worker while the adhocracy and market culture are best suited for the virtual worker.

The traditional work environment is best fit for the clan and hierarchy culture as organizational and team commitment is strengthened due to the socialization that occurs in face-to-face communication (Dodd-McCue & Wright, 1996). The close-knit culture and a culture that is governed by procedures would work best in a traditional workforce when employees are able to view the cultural artifacts that define the organization.

As organizations are likely to continue to use and/or adopt the virtual worker for future use (Berry, 2011; Purvanova, 2014), the virtual environment is best suited for the

adhocracy and market culture. A virtual work environment is useful for projects that require cross-functions or boundaries that lead members to help other members overcome distance issues for projects to succeed. Virtual teams rely on trust and recognizing cultural differences (Symons and Stenzel, 2007) when working together. They would have to trust their organization and colleagues for projects to be successful and that their team members are reliable to finish their portion of the project. The virtual environment includes a diverse set of people, than your typical local face-to-face members, thus there is an increase in experience, knowledge, skills, and culture when dealing with customers around the world (Pullan, 2016). This is a topic to consider for future research when there is a social disconnect for virtual workers.

Future Research

Future research should focus on the differences of disconnect between the two types of workers, traditional and virtual. Studying how the two types of workers view the organization, differences in communication, types of leadership, and commitment to the organization will amplify what current and future employers and employees will be or are experiencing. While virtual teams are designed to be short-term, long-term teams are increasing and more studies are needed on commitment (Lipnack & Stamps, 2007; Powell et al., 2006). Practitioners should focus on leadership, communication, values, artifacts, commitment, training, and structure of the organization. Leadership plays a role in how workers see the organization, such as whether the leader is actively involved by coordinating and organizing or being absent. Focusing on effective management practices within virtual teams should be considered for including the virtual worker into the organization (Hertel, Konradt, & Orlikowski, 2004).

Research is still focused on traditional face-to-face teams in regards to development, teams and team building (Berry, 2011). Duarte and Snyder (2000, as cited in Symons & Stenzel, 2007) "recommend that virtual team leaders reflect on their own cultural biases and how those affect their personal assumptions and behaviors towards their employees and that they invest time to become acquainted with the members of their teams" (pg 11). As inferred by Symons and Stenzel (2007), as technology improves, the differences between the traditional and virtual environments will slowly diminish and virtual teams will eventually behave similarly as face-to-face teams. As the world advances in technology, technology is becoming a standard practice, if not already, in the traditional workplace. Not only are there traditional or virtual workers in an organization but we are seeing mixed teams of virtual workers working on teams with traditional workers. Employees may see the organization's culture differently than their colleagues who work in a different environment because of variables in their own working environment. They are only able to encounter a one-sided viewpoint.

Recommendations for Practice

In the literature review, organizations have to consciously create conditions to a virtual team's effectiveness or the failure of the virtual team can be due to poor management (Berry, 2011). Poor management can be disorganization, no coordination, and miscommunication. In order to accommodate their employees, an organization has to conform to the standard or modify their practices. The culture would need to adapt or identify the necessary steps for a successful transition, such as an organization wanting to change their virtual workforce to clan or hierarchy environment. For a transition to the clan culture in the virtual environment, a focus on communication would help make the

virtual worker feel part of the organization. A recommendation is for leaders to offer virtual team leaders training on collaborative technology that would improve communication, build team productivity, and increase the team's collaborative effectiveness (Wright, 2015). Another technique for management to consider in global virtual teams is to shift a focus onto shared leadership.

Nordbäck and Espinosa (2019) found that through the team's ability to coordinate leadership through implicit and behavior leadership, shared leadership can help virtual teams overcome task coordination problems that lead to satisfaction amongst team members. This helps the market and hierarchy culture in terms that individuals views of leadership are related to cultural values, such as a distance, are more likely to accept unequal power distribution (Carl, et al., 2004 and Hofstede, 1980 as cited in Nordbäck & Espinosa, 2019) and accept their status as followers, which would be facilitated in a hierarchy culture. For the hierarchy culture, the virtual worker would have to accept the power imbalance which would require trust. Hoch and Kozlowski (2014) reasoned further that shared leadership creates stronger bonds among team members, facilitates trust, cohesion, and commitment and help members overcome communication challenges (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; Pearce & Conger, 2003 as cited in Nordbäck & Espinosa, 2019).

Another recommendation for practice is to build trust, because it takes longer for trust to be built in virtual teams (Pullan, 2016). Pullan suggested providing an environment for open communication, such as instant messages, one-on-one phone calls and video conferencing if a face-to-face meeting is not possible. Building a project team space, such as file sharing tool like the Box, which can include a space for people who

work on a virtual team from different organizations, can help with real-time communication and data. A factor to consider is job satisfaction; if the employee is satisfied with their job, they are more likely to trust their employer.

Lastly, a recommendation for practitioners to focus on is online situation aids that focused on academia but could align for organizations as well. Barnes and Blackwell (2004) recommended (1) keeping technology friendly by keeping it simple and accessible, (2) asynchronous delivery which allows the user to have flexibility on when and where to do work, (3) transforming in-house content for the online environment meaning that in-house experts develop the online materials, (4) planning the role of the instructor such has having an organizational trainer play an active role online by developing a training tracker and being available to coach employees, (5) building an online community by having employees go through a training course together, (6) planning communication by creating an environment that engages others to seek feedback, (7) achieving tone and personalization by creating a light approach to communication between informality and formality but this often depends on the organizational environment, (8) pacing by setting deadlines throughout a project time frame, (9) effective feedback by critiquing, making suggestions and feedback on strengths and weaknesses, and (10) assess learning by having a self-evaluation, a training transcript and that evaluation techniques relate directly to on-the-job performance. Practitioners can work with their team leaders on these to aid in the cultural type they are aiming for. For the competing values framework, these work in alignment with the organization's values and artifacts that would help the traditional or virtual worker. Practitioners would need to focus on commitment, communication, trust, achieving the

tone/personalization for sharing the values and cultural artifacts of the organization,

effective leadership and feedback, and being aware of the continuous changes in the

digital world and have the ability to adapt to those changes to be successful in creating a

preferred cultural environment.

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