The Effects of Downsizing on Organizational Culture in the Newspaper Industry

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Walden University
2016
Abstract
The Effects of Downsizing on Organizational Culture in the Newspaper Industry
by
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MBA, Strayer University, 2005
BSBA, Strayer University, 2004

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Management

Walden University
May 2016
Abstract
The purpose of this case study was to explore the effects of downsizing on organizational culture based on the perceptions of contractors who work for an independent distributor in a large metropolitan city in the southern United States. Organizational culture is important to a company’s overall success. Organizational culture theory was the basis for the conceptual framework of this study. Using a purposeful sampling approach and methodological triangulation of sources, 3 newspaper delivery contractors who experienced downsizing described their lived experiences. Participants completed the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) and a qualitative questionnaire. The OCAI survey results were scored and depicted graphically using organizational culture profiles. Qualitative data were analyzed and coded, revealing 14 themes that described the pre and postdownsizing culture types, the preferred culture type, and the effects of downsizing on organizational culture. The findings of this study revealed that downsizing can affect organizational culture in both positive and negative ways and that contractors’ experiences differed from those of employees. The results of this study may influence positive social change by highlighting the need for leaders to assess the organizational culture before, during, and after a downsizing event to ensure that a preferred culture is created or preserved to minimize the negative effects of downsizing. A preferred culture could promote a more effective working environment, benefiting the company, its workers, and by extension the industry and society.
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Walden University
May 2016
Dedication

To my wonderful Lord; Jesus there is no one like You. I love You!
Acknowledgments

Lord I am nothing without You. The words of this song so echo what my heart shouts: How can I say thanks for the things You have done for me, things so undeserved yet You gave to prove Your love for me. The voices of a million angels could not express my gratitude. All that I am and ever hope to be, I owe it all to Thee. To God be the glory, to God be the glory, to God be the glory for the things He has done.

Lord, the fellowship that I share with You means more to me than the air that I breathe. There is no one like You Jesus. Thank You.

Many thanks to Dr. Donna Brown and Dr. Patricia Fusch, words seem insufficient to describe my thankfulness for getting me through this process amidst the various challenges. You both are simply the very best - first class. Thank you for going above and beyond, for your detailed feedback and instruction, and for the quick turnarounds. Your guidance makes me confident in the work that I have done. I cannot say thank you enough. I would also like to thank Dr. Sandy Kolberg and Dr. Raghu Korrapati for your support and contribution.

Natty it is through fire that we are refined as gold. There have been some fires. Thank you for being there. Special thanks to Dianne, Margaret, Christina, and all the people that stood with me in prayer. Also, thanks to all the participants for sharing their experiences that have contributed to the body of knowledge.
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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Newspaper publishers have faced several challenges over the last decade that resulted in numerous changes where many of the challenges were driven by the growth of the Internet and related factors (Belch & Belch, 2014; Saperstein, 2014). The Internet was the second most used source for news in the United States, with television in first place, both surpassing print newspapers in third place (Saad, 2013). Decisions within the industry for increasing profits also led to problems (Aucoin, 2012). With a desire to grow, several publishers also increased their debt by purchasing other publications (Aucoin, 2012). These changes resulted in large layoffs in the industry (Elgan, 2012, Saperstein, 2014). One facet of the industry that has been affected by these changes is the independent distributor (ID), a main source for distributing the products of newspaper publishers nationwide (Greco, 2015). IDs use contractors called independent contractors for carrying out the ID’s distribution (Zinser, 2015).

The independent contractors, who were participants in this study, work for an independent distribution company that has existed for over 30 years and is one of the longest existing IDs in the southern United States. This ID turned to downsizing as a strategy for remaining viable, a practice that has become an essential part of organizations (Datta, Basuil, & Radeva, 2012). Downsizing can result in positive or negative consequences for a company including possibly affecting the company’s culture (Jivan, 2012). As a consequence of downsizing, this company has experienced several changes, including a possible change to its organizational culture. The independent
contractors’ perceptions of the effects of downsizing on organizational culture were investigated in this study.

A strong organizational culture influences performance and several functions of a company (Wei, Samiee, & Lee, 2014). The results of this study may be valuable for understanding how downsizing affects organizational culture, an underrepresented area of research (Rai & Lakshman, 2014), so that companies can work to create the type of culture that will result in increased performance (Wei et al., 2014).

Rappaport and Richter (2013) defined an organization as a group of individuals who interact together with a common goal through the tasks that are distributed among them and are part of the larger social context. Players within an organization not only interact within that organization’s social context but also in the external social environment (Rappaport & Richter, 2013). Downsizing has social consequences (Gandolfi & Littler, 2012). Knowing the effects of downsizing on organizational culture will help organizations to create and sustain a positive organizational culture which will influence positive social change.

This chapter includes the background of the study, problem statement, purpose of the study, research questions, conceptual framework, nature of the study, definitions, assumptions, scope and delimitations, limitations, and significance of the study.

**Background of the Study**

Newspaper publishers have faced and continue to face challenges (Belch & Belch, 2014). Challenges include the effects of the growing use of the Internet (Belch & Belch, 2014) and declining circulation (Mitchell & Page, 2015). Since 2004, the weekday
circulation of newspapers has fallen 19% (Mitchell & Page, 2015), there has been significant loss in advertising revenue more than half (Chittum, 2013) which was further compounded by the economic crisis (Benavides & Leiva, 2014). Many publishers encountered mounting financial woes forcing buyouts and layoffs (Aucoin, 2012) while several have gone out of business (Soloski, 2013).

As a consequence, many other players in the newspaper industry have been affected (Reinardy, 2013). Journalists, for example, have experienced some of the most extensive layoffs industry-wide (Reinardy, 2013). Downsizing has become a regular practice across many industries (Homburg, Klarmann, & Staritz, 2012; Rodriguez-Ruiz, 2015). The ID used in this study, in an effort to cut expenses and stem losses, turned to downsizing in reducing its total number of contractors. Companies use downsizing as a strategy for cutting cost (Luan, Tien, & Chi, 2013) and for financial reasons (Massey & Meegan, 2013). Downsizing can result in positive outcomes such as how it affects organizational performance (Cheng-Fei Tsai & Shih, 2013) or negative outcomes such as decreased productivity (Hagel, 2013). Many companies are unaware of the possible impact of downsizing on different functions of the organization, especially the effect to organizational culture depending on the type of downsizing strategy that is chosen (Jivan, 2012). Organizational culture is related to satisfaction, effectiveness, and overall success in an organization; therefore, having an undesired organizational culture could result in decreased satisfaction, effectiveness, and performance companywide (Shahzad, Luqman, Khan, & Shabbir, 2012).
There is extensive research on the topic of downsizing dealing mainly with the causes and consequences of it; however, there is a gap in the literature that demonstrates the part that organizational culture plays in the process (Rai & Lakshman, 2014). Homburg et al. (2012) added that most research to date on downsizing focused primarily on the negative outcomes. Datta, Guthrie, Basuil, and Pandey (2010) conducted a review of 91 research studies on downsizing. Although it appeared to be a well-covered topic in the literature they found that there was a significant lack in needed information (Datta et al., 2010). Research is lagging behind due to the rapid growth of the phenomenon in recent years (Datta et al., 2010).

Few researchers have focused on independent contractors. Datta et al. (2010) for example, specifically focused on employee downsizing. Independent contractors now comprise one fifth of the American workforce and are growing quickly (Pages, 2012). Pages suggested that contractors are not a well-known facet of the workforce and more research is needed about this developing group, a group that is expected to become a majority of the workforce in the near future. The needs of contractors also differ from those of employees: Employees, for example, have employer provided benefits whereas contractors provide their own benefits (Fishman, 2014; Parrish, 2013; Thickstun, 2013).

The effects of downsizing on organizational culture based on the perceptions of contractors in the newspaper industry will increase the information about downsizing and organizational culture within the newspaper industry. This information may be applicable across other industries in addition to offering more information about a growing type of worker in the U. S. labor force. Identifying the type of culture pre and postdownsizing
and especially the preferred culture that produces positive organizational outcomes based on the experience of the contractors may help organizations change their culture if necessary to one that is preferred by its workers.

**Problem Statement**

Many newspaper publishers rely on IDs to distribute their products (Greco, 2015). IDs use contractors to perform the functions of the company (Zinser, 2015). Like publishers, IDs have turned to downsizing as an option for cutting cost and increasing revenue. Downsizing can lower costs (Jivan, 2012) and increase revenue (De Meuse & Dai, 2013) but can have negative and unknown consequences (Hagel, 2013), one of which is an undesirable organizational culture because culture affects all areas of an organization (Neagu & Nicula, 2012). Negative outcomes include loss of stability and employee feeling of security (Bayardo, Reche, & Cabada, 2013), increased stress (Modrek & Cullen, 2013), depressive symptoms (Brenner et al., 2014), and decreased job satisfaction (Saif et al., 2013) for those who have experienced downsizing. A preferred organizational culture can result in increased productivity (Moon, Quigley, & Marr, 2012) improved performance (Jacobs et al., 2013), long-term competitive advantage (Dauber, Fink, & Yolles, 2012), more motivation (Hajjawi, 2013), and overall company success (Crews & Richard, 2013).

Neagu and Nicula (2012) also noted organizational culture’s strong influence on performance both in terms of internal performance and economic performance. Cameron and Quinn (2011) linked culture to organizational performance as well and also to effectiveness therefore, understanding culture’s relationship to both is important for
increasing an organization’s performance and effectiveness. Therefore, the general problem of my study was to understand the extent to which downsizing can affect the culture of an organization to minimize its impact.

The specific problem of my study was what effects downsizing has on organizational culture based on the perception of contractors in the newspaper industry. Knowing the specific impact of downsizing on organizational culture through the lived experience of the contractors provided insights which may have implications for companies experiencing downsizing to create or maintain a preferred organizational culture that can produce overall organizational success.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to explore what effects downsizing has on organizational culture based on the perception of contractors in the newspaper industry. This study provided needed information about downsizing and organizational culture in the newspaper industry since previous researchers have not focused on how downsizing may change organizational culture. Organizational culture was analyzed to identify the predownsizing culture type, the postdownsizing culture type, and the preferred culture type. I also explored the lived experiences of independent contractors through interviews. Exploring the effects of downsizing on organizational culture may offer information that is useful to the newspaper industry while also describing the preferred culture type thereby helping to create the optimal working environment for contractors.
Research Questions

The primary research question for this study is: What are the effects of downsizing on organizational culture as experienced by independent contractors in the newspaper industry? Data were collected to answer the following questions:

1. What was the type of organizational culture before downsizing occurred?
2. What is the current type of organizational culture after downsizing?
3. What is the preferred type of organizational culture?
4. What are the perceived effects of downsizing on organizational culture?

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of the study is based on the idea that a preferred organizational culture will result in increased performance, positive outcomes, and overall contractor and organizational success (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Kordnaeij, Danaeeferd, Zali, & Vasheghani, 2012; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Shah, Jatoi, & Memon, 2012), whereas an undesired culture may result in decreased performance, negative outcomes, and decreased overall contractor and organizational success (Schein, 1999).

Downsizing has the potential to change organizational culture to either a desired (Rai & Lakshman, 2014) or undesired culture (Demps & Baker, 2011; Leatt, Baker, Halverson, & Aird, 1997; Reigle, 2001). Organizational culture theory is the foundation of the conceptual framework based on Schein’s (2010) levels of culture model and Cameron and Quinn’s (2011) competing values framework.

Schein’s (1992) platform for organizational culture is rooted in the anthropological concept of culture explained through his levels of culture. Schein (1996)
believed that culture should be studied using more qualitative methods of inquiry and with less abstract methods. Schein defined culture as an organizational phenomenon that should be observed rather than measured and therefore focuses more on the experience of the players that participate in culture (Schein, 1996, 2004, 2010).

Cameron and Quinn’s (2011) competing values framework is also built on a similar culture theory foundation but focuses more on the dimensions of culture of the organization itself and how to diagnose and measure that culture for purposes of improving the overall effectiveness, performance, and success of the company. Organizational culture is categorized into four main types which represent the main behaviors of the organization (Pilch & Turska, 2015).

Organizational culture theory using both frameworks aligns with the focus and concepts of the study. This is explained in further detail in Chapter 2. The competing values framework evaluated the pre and postdownsizing and preferred culture types while the cultural levels facilitated describing the contractors’ perceived effects of downsizing on organizational culture.

The Levels of Culture Model

Culture always exists; it is an idea, a concept and although not tangible it is a phenomenon that human beings are constantly interacting with (Schein, 2004). Humans react to culture while creating it at the same time (Schein, 2004). As personality and character affect individual behavior the same is true in the way culture affects group behavior (Schein, 2004). Since culture is an abstract concept it has to be observable to
begin to create an understanding of it; therefore, inquiry should be built on anthropological models (Schein, 2010).

Schein (2010) defined culture as a shared group experience where basic assumptions are developed over time as members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems. Culture can be understood on a continuum from observable to unobservable which Schein (2010) has divided into three related levels: artifacts, espoused beliefs and values, and basic underlying assumptions. Artifacts are those group structures and processes that are visible such as language (Lester, 2013). Espoused beliefs and values are the individual beliefs and values that group members have of how things should be rather than what they actually are (Aswandy, Suryadini, & Muliati, 2013). Basic underlying assumptions form over time as things become commonplace among group members (Lester, 2013) so that there is hardly any difference between members (Schein, 2010).

**The Competing Values Framework**

Cameron and Quinn (2011) defined culture as the traits or attributes such as the values, shared beliefs, and expectations that form the character of the organization and its members. Like Schein (2010), Cameron and Quinn (2011) also suggested that organizational culture is made up of elements that exist on a range of unobservable to observable, these are: implicit assumptions, conscious contracts and norms, artifacts, and explicit behaviors. Implicit assumptions are at the most unobservable point on the range and are the basic assumptions of human existence while conscious contracts and norms is
one of the more observable elements these are the guidelines that dictate how humans will associate with each other (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Artifacts are the more tangible components in the organization and therefore more observable and explicit behaviors are the most observable element because they are the behaviors that are visibly exhibited by members of the group, a shared understanding of how things are done and the way that they are done (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

To best describe these elements and the dimensions of the elements, Cameron and Quinn (2011) developed the competing values framework (CVF) to narrow the focus on the key dimensions of organizational culture. There are two main dimensions in their model: one dimension involves the flexibility and discretion an organization may have versus stability and control while the other dimension depicts the difference between the internal or external focus and differentiation of the organization (Pilch & Turska, 2015). All attributes of each part of the dimensions describe an organization’s effectiveness based on the behavior that they exhibit (Prenestini & Lega, 2013). These behaviors are classified in the four groups or culture types that represent the two dimensions which are the hierarchy or control culture, the market or compete culture, the clan or collaborate culture, and the adhocracy or create culture (Gurdal & Kumkale, 2014).

Nature of the Study

A qualitative case study was used to explore the effects of downsizing on organizational culture. Qualitative inquiries are inductive in nature allowing researchers to capture the lived experiences of the participants (Malagon-Maldonado, 2014). Yin (2014) suggested that the case study method is appropriate for examining contemporary
events versus historical ones. A case study researcher investigates one or more cases within a specific context or boundary (Yin, 2014). Malagon-Maldonado (2014) noted that qualitative research is especially applicable when information about the subject is unknown and an understanding of the subject’s perception is needed. The perceptions of contractors at one ID were described and analyzed in this study. Contractors who have experienced downsizing completed the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) developed by Cameron and Quinn (2011), answered qualitative questions, and were interviewed via telephone with follow-up questions to further explore any effects to organizational culture because of downsizing. The pre and postdownsizing and preferred organizational culture type were identified. Contractor responses were described and compared.

**Definitions**

*Case*: A case is the object studied in a case study (Stake, 1995).

*Downsizing*: Downsizing is the intentional reduction of a company’s workforce aimed at improving performance (Datta et al., 2010).

*Employee*: An employee is a person that performs services for an employer where the employer controls what will be done and how it will be done (Internal Revenue Service Website).

*Independent contractor*: An individual is an independent contractor if the payer [for services] has the right to control or direct only the result of the work and not what will be done and how it will be done (Internal Revenue Service Website).
Organizational culture: Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010).

Triangulation: Triangulation is the principle of verifying from at least three sources data, a procedure, or to support resulting themes (Yin, 2016).

Assumptions

There were several assumptions in the study. First, it is assumed that the OCAI diagnosed and assessed the culture of the ID based on the contractors’ perceptions identifying the pre and postdownsizing and preferred culture types. Researchers have successfully used the OCAI to diagnose and assess the culture types of organizations across various industries (Demir, Ayyildiz, & Erturk, 2011; Jaeger & Adair, 2013; Pilch & Turska, 2015).

The second assumption was that the participants answered the questions honestly and that the data gathered is a dependable representation of their lived experiences; participants are the authority on what they experienced (Braun & Clarke, 2013). It was also assumed that contractors would have a different perceived experience than employees since the characteristics and needs of both are dissimilar (Thickstun, 2013).

A third assumption is that the responses gathered were enough for accurate data analysis. In qualitative research designs there are no traditional rules about sample size rather the sample size is driven by the informational purpose of the study (Kemparaj & Chavan, 2013). As a result, qualitative researchers are guided by achieving data
saturation, the point at which more participants do not provide new information (Kemparaj & Chavan, 2013). I also assumed that the results would be accurate although respondents answered a set of questions from memory.

**Scope and Delimitations**

My study included only the contractors of one ID in the southeastern United States and cannot be generalized to other organizations. Inclusion criteria were based on the participants’ experience of downsizing as independent contractors in the newspaper industry and willingness to share their lived experiences.

**Limitations**

Participants’ memory was one main limitation of the study because respondents were asked to answer questions about the culture before downsizing occurred; some may not have been able to correctly recall their experiences of the culture prior to downsizing. The sensitive nature of downsizing is another limitation; some respondents may have been unwilling to participate in the study. In addition, the researcher was known by the participants and they may have been cautious in their answers. Another limitation was the participants’ ability to relate the questions of the OCAI to the organizational culture of the ID.

Transferability may also be a limitation because of the sample size and the focus on the newspaper industry. Transferability concerns are addressed through thick and detailed descriptions so that contextual similarities can be assessed (Kemparaj & Chavan, 2013; Malagon-Maldonado, 2014); however, transferability is always left up to the reader to decide (Marshall & Rossman, 2016).
Significance of the Study

Downsizing has become a normal practice for companies as a strategic option for improving efficiency (Datta et al., 2012). Newspaper publishers are not immune to this trend many of the changes in the newspaper industry have resulted in numerous downsizing events (Saperstein, 2014). These changes have affected IDs one of the main channels for distributing the products of publishers (Greco, 2015) and distributors use independent contractors to perform their distribution tasks (Zinser, 2015). Researchers focused on other parts of the newspaper industry such as journalists (Reinardy, 2013), advertising (Chittum, 2013; Benavides & Leiva, 2014), and reasons for the decline in newspaper readership (Belch & Belch, 2014) but few, if any investigate the distribution arm of the industry.

According to Iverson and Zatzick (2011), most of the research on downsizing focused on the effects on organizational performance and the morale of the employees that remain after downsizing. Similarly much of the research on organizational culture is concentrated on organizational performance (Prenestini & Lega, 2013) and organizational effectiveness (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). In addition, most studies on downsizing (Bragger, Kutcher, Menier, Sessa, & Sumner, 2014; Datta et al., 2012; Homburg et al., 2012; Jivan, 2012; Luan et al., 2013; Muñoz-Bullón & Sanchez-Buenio, 2014; Rodriguez-Ruiz, 2015; Svalund, 2015) and organizational culture (Abbaspour & Noghreh, 2015; Florentina & Georgiana, 2012; Gallato et al., 2012; Jerome, 2013; Marchand, Haines, & Dextras-Gauthier, 2013; Masum, Azad, & Beh, 2015; Orta, 2015;
Pilch & Turska, 2015; Shah et al., 2012; Wei et al., 2014) focused on employees and not independent contractors.

**Significance to Practice**

Few studies about downsizing and organizational culture exist (Rai & Lakshman, 2014) and no information exists about downsizing and organizational culture in the newspaper industry related to IDs where independent contractors represent a different type of stakeholder as compared to employees (Pages, 2012). Employees have a different set of characteristics and they relate differently to an organization with the main difference being the control of the organization to dictate what tasks the employee will do and how it will be done, where it will be done, and when it will be done (Thickstun, 2013). Employees are also paid a salary from which legally required taxes are withheld and the organization has various reporting duties to the government which are more time and cost demanding (Miller, 2014). Independent contractors, on the other hand, control the how, where, and when of the tasks performed and contractors are paid a fee for the service(s) performed where the organization is only interested in the result (Thickstun, 2013). The tax reporting frequency and requirements for contractors also differ (Miller, 2014) and employees are given certain legally required benefits and protections that employers are not required to provide for independent contractors such as a minimum wage or medical leave (Sullivan, 2013).

The results of this study provided a detailed description of how downsizing affected organizational culture in the newspaper industry based on the perceptions of contractors. The results provided data that can be compared between companies that hire
employees and companies that use contractors to understand the differences between them regarding downsizing and organizational culture. The results are especially useful for IDs because the scope and frequency of downsizing is a new experience for distributors industry wide.

**Significance to Theory**

This study is significant because it helped to fill the gap in the literature by providing information about organizational culture and downsizing, organizational culture and downsizing in the newspaper industry, and about contractors of IDs and their perceptions of culture and how downsizing affected organizational culture. There has been a significant amount of research done on downsizing especially its causes and consequences (Gandolfi & Hansson, 2011) but there is a lack of information about downsizing and the various ways that organizational culture may relate and vice versa (Rai & Lakshman, 2014). Organizational culture is an unavoidable part of all organizations; every company has a culture and each culture is distinctive in its own way (Gurdal & Kumkale, 2014). Not considering organizational culture in any organizational change plan would possibly prove ineffective (Abbaspour & Noghreh, 2015).

Organizational culture influences many organizational functions internally and externally including but not limited to the following factors: performance in varying ways (Prenestini & Lega, 2013; Wei et al., 2014); efficiency (Neagu & Nicula, 2012); morale (Iverson & Zatzick, 2011); employee satisfaction (Shah et al., 2012); learning (Rappaport & Richter, 2013); leading the result of many organizational change initiatives or introduction of new concepts (Aswandy et al., 2013); the success of business mergers
Downsizing is mostly viewed in a negative light by those affected, that is, those that have been laid off and those that remain (Rai & Lakshman, 2014) but experiences and relationships to other phenomena studied have been those of employees, information about independent contractors, a growing part of the workforce (Pages, 2012), is unknown not only regarding downsizing but downsizing and organizational culture as well (Rai & Lakshman, 2014). The results of this study provided information to fill this gap in the literature.

**Significance to Social Change**

Experiences in the workplace, such as downsizing, continue to impact individuals, among other challenges in their personal lives (Bunker & Wakefield, 2010). When a company downsizes, an individual can become fearful and anxious due to the possibility of losing their livelihood (Bunker & Wakefield, 2010). Iverson and Zatzick (2011) suggested that downsizing impacts all employees negatively. Fear produces stress (Carter, 2010). Stress in turn can lead to burnout, which is a response to the many changes following a downsizing event such as job insecurity and work overload that caused the stress (Cotter & Fouad, 2012). Downsizing is also considered a threat to an individual’s social life (Javed et al., 2013). Often those on the receiving end of a downsizing event are the focus but there are also implications for managers that must make the decision to downsize; managers also experience fears and anxieties about
downsizing and the possible impact to their own jobs and can experience burnout as well (Bunker & Wakefield, 2010; Carter, 2010).

Organizational culture is related to effectiveness and overall success in an organization; therefore, an undesired organizational culture can lead to decreased performance and effectiveness companywide (Cameron & Quinn, 2011) producing a poorly performing employee resulting in termination. Job loss affects the family causing families to lose things that are vital to their existence such as health care and/or housing because of the loss of income (Demps & Baker, 2011). The societal implications are far reaching because they extend to the family (Javed et al., 2013). This dynamic has caused more organizations to embrace the idea that there are benefits to a work-life balance not just for the employee but for the organization and are implementing policies and programs to support this balance of which organizational culture plays a part (Lester, 2013).

Organizational culture plays an important role in the pre and postdownsizing process and is also a vital factor in influencing organizational performance and effectiveness (Shahzad et al., 2012; Wei et al., 2014). A preferred culture carries social implications both internally and externally for organizations, for their workers, and for the family members of workers (Neagu & Nicula, 2012; Javed et al., 2013). A preferred culture promotes improved performance (Jacobs et al., 2013) and creates a working environment that leads to overall organizational success (Crews & Richard, 2013). Understanding how downsizing affects organizational culture based on the perceptions of the contractors will benefit IDs given the large scale downsizing that is happening in the
newspaper industry (Elgan, 2012, Reinardy, 2013; Saperstein, 2014). By knowing the preferred culture type and the effects of downsizing on culture specific to the newspaper industry IDs can be prepared if and when downsizing becomes necessary to protect or change culture so that the most optimal working environment is always pursued (Simamora & Jerry, 2013).

**Summary and Transition**

The newspaper industry in the United States is experiencing multiple downsizing events not unlike other industries (Elgan, 2012, Reinardy, 2013; Saperstein, 2014) due mainly in part to the growth of the Internet (Belch & Belch, 2014) and a poor economy (Benavides & Leiva, 2014). These changes directly affect various sublevels of the newspaper industry. One sublevel affected is IDs who have also turned to downsizing as a means for remaining viable (Datta et al., 2012). IDs use independent contractors to perform their services (Zinser, 2015). Contractors are a different type of stakeholder than employees (Parrish, 2013; Thickstun, 2013).

Downsizing can result in positive and negative outcomes and affect several parts of an organization including the company’s culture (Jivan, 2012). A preferred organizational culture influences several organizational functions (Wei et al., 2014). The association between downsizing and organizational culture is an underrepresented topic in the research literature (Rai & Lakshman, 2014).

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to explore the effects of downsizing on organizational culture in the newspaper industry based on the lived experiences of the contractors. The results of the study may help IDs change their culture
if needed and be prepared and equipped to preserve a preferred culture, not only in the long-term, but also if another decision to downsize becomes necessary. A positive working environment translates to positive societal outcomes as well.

In chapter 2 I review the literature on organizational culture theory based on the levels of culture model and the competing values framework, organizational culture, downsizing, the newspaper industry, and independent contractors.
Chapter 2: Literature Review

The specific problem of my study was what effects downsizing has on organizational culture based on the perception of contractors in the newspaper industry. Knowing the specific impact of downsizing on organizational culture through the lived experience of the contractors provided insights which may have implications for companies experiencing downsizing to create or maintain a preferred organizational culture that can produce overall organizational success. The purpose of this qualitative case study was to explore what effects downsizing has on organizational culture based on the perception of contractors in the newspaper industry. Downsizing has become a frequently used option for managers in reducing costs and a regular part of the organizational dynamics (Datta et al., 2012). There is a need to examine its effects on the various functions and members of the organization (Iverson & Zatzick, 2011). The newspaper industry has been experiencing multiple events of downsizing (Saperstein, 2014), primarily triggered by the growth of the use of the Internet (Belch & Belch, 2014; Saperstein, 2014). Newspaper publishers use IDs to circulate and distribute their products (Greco, 2015). IDs use independent contractors for carrying out the tasks of the company (Zinser, 2015). IDs have also chosen downsizing as a remedy for remaining viable.

Downsizing can result in several positive outcomes (De Meuse & Dai, 2013; Jivan, 2012); but, downsizing can have many negative outcomes (Brenner et al., 2014; Okibo, 2012), including producing an undesired organizational culture (Neagu & Nicula, 2012). Culture exists naturally and permeates all aspects of society and is a natural component of an organization (Schein, 2010). Organizational culture is linked to a
company’s increased performance and competitive advantage (Madu, 2012) making the pursuit of a preferred organizational culture an integral factor to analyze and cultivate (Testa & Sipe, 2013). There is limited information about downsizing and organizational culture in the literature (Rai & Lakshman, 2014). I explored the effects of downsizing on organizational culture based on the lived experiences of independent contractors in the newspaper industry. The results may provide valuable industry information on how downsizing affects organizational culture, how to create the preferred organizational culture type of contractors, and how to manage and minimize the impact of downsizing in the newspaper industry.

In this chapter I provide research that indicates the gap in the literature on downsizing and organizational culture that this study is focused on. I also review the conceptual framework for the study, Schein’s (2010) levels of culture model and Cameron and Quinn’s (2011) competing values framework, and the historical and current literature on organizational culture, downsizing, the newspaper industry, and independent contractors.

**Literature Search Strategy**

I used several sources to find information for the literature review. These sources included local and Walden Library resources, professional associations related to the newspaper industry, and various academic and subject databases. The main databases that I searched were: Academic Search Complete, Business Source Complete, CINAHL Plus with Full Text, Communications and Mass Media Complete, Dissertations & Theses, ebrary, EBSCOhost, Google Scholar, Hospitality & Tourism Complete, ProQuest

I used several terms to search these resources. These terms included: downsizing, organizational culture, newspaper industry, downsizing and organizational culture, downsizing and stress, downsizing and burnout, downsizing, organizational culture, and newspaper industry, layoffs, layoffs and newspaper industry, independent distributors, newspaper carriers, independent contractors, contractors, newspaper publishers and distributors, newspaper publishers and independent distributors, newspaper publishers and contractors, case study method, case study and organizational culture, competing values framework, OCAI, organizational culture assessment instrument, competing values framework and organizational culture, competing values and case study methods, Schein, Schein and organizational culture, Schein and levels of culture, organizational culture and positive outcomes, organizational culture and negative outcomes, and organizational culture and performance. I also used other combinations of these terms.

I limited my search to peer-reviewed journals, books, periodicals, and journal articles. These were no more than five years old. A search of the terms downsizing and organizational culture from 2011-2015 resulted in only two peer-reviewed journal articles and a search of the terms downsizing, organizational culture, and newspaper industry resulted in no articles for the same time period. These two searches may be major indicators of the gap in the literature that this study aims to fill.
Conceptual Framework

All organizations have a culture (Schein, 1990). The conceptual framework of the study relies on the notion that a preferred organizational culture produces more positive outcomes for an organization (Kordnaeij et al., 2012; Shah et al., 2012), whereas an undesired culture results in several negative outcomes (Schein, 1999). Organizational culture theory based on Schein’s (2010) levels of culture model and Cameron and Quinn’s (2011) competing values framework formed the foundation for the conceptual framework. Schein (1996, 2004, 2010) concentrated more on the experiences of the members within the culture. Schein suggested that culture should be observed rather than trying to fit its understanding into a type of measurement. Cameron and Quinn (2011) shared similar views about organizational culture but concentrated more on the dimensions of the culture of the organization itself. Together both concepts presented an in-depth and comprehensive understanding of the culture of the organization and the experience of the members within the culture.

There are four categories of culture: macrocultures, which are larger groups such as an entire country; organizational cultures, which are from varying types of organizations; subcultures, which are groups within organizations; and microcultures, which are Microsystems internal or external to the organizations (Schein, 2010). The main idea is that culture is vast, ranging from a macro to a micro level not just outside of the organization, but to even smaller levels within the organization itself (Schein, 2010). For purposes of this study, organizational culture is the focus. Schein defined culture as shared experiences among group members where values and beliefs become assumptions.
over time affected by external and internal factors that form a basis for how the group members comprehend, think, and feel. Organizational culture is not just an external experience but culture is within each individual as well and the idea of culture can actually help to explain much of the other behavioral phenomena observed and experienced in the world (Schein, 2010). In the managerial literature, there has been much emphasis on organizations attaining the optimal culture to produce different positive effects; but, attaining a preferred culture cannot be understood without addressing the environment in which that culture operates (Schein, 2004, 2010). Schein’s (2010) argument is that culture is understudied at every level; group, organizational, and occupational suggesting that organizations within different industries may have differing culture types and experiences and should therefore be examined accordingly.

Conceptually, culture is an abstraction and to understand an abstraction it has to be observable; those intangible attributes have to be explained in some understandable way. The challenge is observing the unobservable (Schein, 2010). Culture can be studied at different levels from observable or tangible to unobservable (Schein, 2004). Schein (2010) proposed the three levels of culture which are the levels he suggested that are inherent in any analysis of culture. These are artifacts, espoused beliefs and values, and basic underlying assumptions (Schein, 2010).

Artifacts are at the most observable level these are all the things that can be seen, heard, and felt (Schein, 2010). These are not only physical structures or objects but also the observed behavior of the members of the organization. Although this is the most visible level of the culture it is also the most challenging to understand an observer may
be able to describe what is observed and experienced but cannot use those facts to determine what they mean to the members of the organization (Schein, 2004, 2010). Schein (2010) warned that understanding the lived experience of the group’s members cannot be assumed from the observation of the group’s artifacts but rather deeper analysis has to be done by talking to the members within the culture.

Espoused beliefs and values continue on the range to a less observable level (Schein, 2010). They are principles, goals, desires, and ideas of the members which are proposed by a member of the group (Schein, 2010). That member’s beliefs, values, and assumptions influence what is the best or the worst course of action for dealing with any situation (Schein, 2010). This level introduces the person, usually the leader or founder of the group, which can exert influence over the members (Schein, 2010). As members act on the proposed actions of the leader and experience the results the group now has a shared value or belief (Schein, 2010). If the actions result in continual and long-term success then those shared beliefs or values become shared assumptions (Schein, 2010). Espoused beliefs and values are abstract where much of the group’s behavior is not understood; there is a glimpse of the culture but not a complete understanding (Schein, 2010).

At the most unobservable level is basic underlying assumptions (Schein, 2010). Through repetition and continual success the members within the culture begin to take those shared values or beliefs for granted and they become the reality for the members to the extent that there is no obvious difference from one member to another (Schein, 2010). Basic assumptions become embedded in the members and it is the shared way of how to
act and how things should be and is resistant to change (Schein, 2010). Change at this level may even affect members at a cognitive level (Schein, 2010). A disruption of the basic group assumptions will bring instability about those beliefs and values producing anxiety; it is at this point that culture’s pervasive power is recognized (Schein, 2010). At this third level culture controls the members’ behavior; it dictates what to think and how to feel (Schein, 2010). Basic assumptions are the core of culture and not understanding them first, the other levels cannot be interpreted (Schein, 2010).

Much of Schein’s (2010) focus is on the basic assumptions because they are the core of culture itself. Definitions of organizational culture only provide a structure of culture but cannot depict the essence of culture (Schein, 2004). Schein mentioned that many dimensions have been offered by anthropologists and organizational theorists to aid in understanding culture but dimensions are only useful if they are specifically linked to a particular type of group meaning the group must be stated. A certain dimension, for example, being applied to a country will have a different meaning than the same dimension being applied to an organization (Schein, 2010). Although there are many dimensions of culture all organizational cultures must interact with two main dimensions: external and internal processes specifically as an act of external adaptation and internal integration (Schein, 2010). Schein argued that organizational culture should be observed rather than measured because culture is a multifaceted and difficult phenomenon to understand. He suggested that culture is better assessed through an individual or group interview sessions the latter being the optimal choice. An assessment of culture has to be linked to a specific problem the organization is trying to solve and the assessment should
identify the cultural assumptions shared by the group to ascertain the strengths or constraints of those assumptions (Schein, 2010). An assessment of culture serves no purpose if it does not reveal the assumptions shared among that group (Schein, 2010).

Cameron and Quinn (2011) share a similar concept of organizational culture as Schein. Some of Cameron and Quinn’s concept of organizational culture appear to mirror Schein’s (2004, 2010) concept. Cameron and Quinn (2011) defined organizational culture as the values that are taken-for-granted, the assumptions, the expectations, and those attributes that define the members of an organization. Organizational culture is made up of four main elements that build on each preceding element which exist on a range of unobservable to observable where the foundational element is a set of implicit assumptions that reflect the human condition and how it relates to the environment; this element is unobservable (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

The second element, conscious contracts and norms results from the first, a set of rules that directs the relationships (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). From here artifacts, the third element, are observed (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Artifacts are attributes such as the logo of the company, the uniform that employees wear, or the vision of the company (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The fourth and most observable element of culture is the explicit behaviors of the members of the organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Organizational culture has many attributes and several dimensions making the task of organizing and understanding these dimensions challenging because of the complexity of these attributes, the comprehensive interrelationship, and their ambiguousness (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). For these reasons no one theoretical model
can include all factors of organizational culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Because of the many dimensions, Cameron and Quinn proposed using a theoretical model that focuses on finding the main dimensions of culture. To do this Cameron and Quinn created the CVF a theoretical model that can be used to assess organizational culture in areas including, but not limited to: organizational design, stages of development, organizational quality, theories of effectiveness, leadership roles, and management skills. When assessing organizational culture Cameron and Quinn suggested that the most relevant framework should be chosen based on the factors and dimensions of organizational culture being described.

The CVF originated from studies of organizational effectiveness (Cameron, Quinn, Degraff, & Thakor, 2014) of what depicts effective organizations from which two main dimensions divided into four groups were formed (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). One dimension focuses on flexibility and discretion differentiated from stability and control, while the other dimension differentiates internal focus and integration from external focus and differentiation (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The flexibility and discretion of the first dimension indicates organizations are effective if they are flexible and always changing while stability and control, organizations are effective if they are stable and predictable (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The internal focus and integration of the second dimension indicates organizations are effective if they have internal attributes that are coordinated and in accord while external focus and differentiation, organizations are effective if they are competitive and more customized to the external environment (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).
These two dimensions form four categories called quadrants where each quadrant depicts specific sets of factors (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Cameron et al., 2014). Each quadrant is named according to the characteristics of the indicators within each quadrant: clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy representative of four culture types (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The upper left quadrant represents the clan culture type, the upper right quadrant the adhocracy type, the lower left quadrant the hierarchy culture, and the lower right quadrant the market culture (see Figure 1). The names in brackets are alternate titles for nonacademic audiences to more easily understand the characteristics of each type (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

The hierarchy or control culture is one where formal rules dictate what members do (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Such an organization is structured and controlling, predictable outcomes are important; stability is valued (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The market or compete culture is characterized by a focus on the external environment and should not be confused with the marketing role of the organization but operates as the market (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Interaction with outside parties such as customers and suppliers are of primary concern for the market culture and priority is placed on markers like the company’s standing in the marketplace, profitability, competitive edge, and the end results (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The clan or collaborate culture differs substantially from the hierarchy and market cultures (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The name was derived from characteristics that mirror a family (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). In the clan culture the best results are obtained through team work and cultivation of the human resource (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Organizational members view outside
stakeholders as partners and prize employee involvement and loyalty; organizations that exhibit the clan culture type are pleasant places to work (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Figure 1. The competing values framework. Adapted from Diagnosing and changing organizational culture: Based on the competing values framework (p. 39), by K. S. Cameron and R. E. Quinn, 2011, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass. Copyright 2011 by John Wiley & Sons, Inc. Adapted with permission.

The adhocracy or create culture is based on the idea of innovation where leading in business results in success (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The word adhocracy includes the root word ad hoc, which means temporary so this type of organization changes as the environment and circumstances require (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). This organization is adaptable, flexible, and creative looking for new opportunities in the marketplace where members crisscross all levels with focus on individuality and taking risks (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Adhocracy is the quintessential entrepreneurial culture type driven by innovation (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).
Cameron and Quinn like Schein also believed that an assessment of culture had to capture the main dimensions to be able to understand culture. Cameron and Quinn (2011) developed the OCAI from the CVF model; an assessment instrument that has become one of the most widely used instruments for assessing culture worldwide. The OCAI assesses six main dimensions of organizational culture: dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, organization glue, strategic emphases, and criteria of success (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Schein’s (1999, 2004, 2010) and Cameron and Quinn’s (2011) concept of organizational culture both recognize similar attributes of culture. Schein and Cameron and Quinn agree on the levels of culture, that is, on a range of observable to unobservable and on the tenets of shared assumptions as foundational to the understanding of culture. Schein and Cameron and Quinn also acknowledged the constant interplay between external and internal factors and the organization and that these environments help to shape the shared assumptions of the members of the organization and that there are several dimensions of culture.

The uniqueness of this conceptual framework lies in the difference between Schein’s suggestions for assessing organizational culture and Cameron and Quinn’s; Schein (2010) focused on the lived experiences of the individual members of the group of interest for assessing the essence of culture while Cameron and Quinn (2011) focused on the aggregate experiences of the members defined through the six main dimensions of culture. Combining both assessment methods aligned with the purpose of my study to explore and describe the effects of downsizing on organizational culture. As Schein
(2010) noted any assessment of culture must be linked to a problem the organization is trying to solve. The problem was how downsizing impacted organizational culture based on the lived experiences of the contractors. Cameron and Quinn’s (2011) method captured the collective experiences described through the six dimensions of culture and Schein’s (2010) method captured the lived individual experiences of each contractor; both combined to form an extensive and comprehensive understanding of downsizing and organizational culture that described the preferred culture type of the contractors.

Several researchers have used a similar combination to investigate organizational culture, for example, Datuon (2014) used Schein’s three levels of culture concept and Cameron and Quinn’s competing values framework as the conceptual framework for his study of administrators in private colleges. In another study of the effects of organizational culture on business management performance, Hajjawi (2013) also used the competing values framework and Schein’s concept to assess and describe organizational culture. Simamora and Jerry (2013) used Schein’s theory of culture and the OCAI to describe the current and preferred organizational culture of a private university and Müller and Ulrich (2015) chose Schein’s definition of culture over many of the concepts that exist in combination with the competing values framework to describe the hacker culture in the computer industry. These studies are examples of the applicability of combining both concepts which are useful for understanding organizational culture across industries (Kaarst-Brown, Nicholson, von Dran, & Stanton, 2004).
Organizational Culture

The word *culture* was first introduced in the Oxford dictionary in the 15th century (Tharp, 2009). Rooted in anthropology, culture meant to cultivate the soil (Tharp, 2009). In the 19th century culture became linked to the saying *high culture* which meant to cultivate one’s mind, taste, and manners (Tharp, 2009). By the 20th century culture came to mean shared societal behaviors, art, beliefs, and all results of the work and thoughts of human beings (Tharp, 2009). Conceptually much of the beginning of culture is attributed to the scientific discipline of anthropology (Schneider, Ehfhart, & Macey, 2013); but, several other disciplines have also studied the concept of culture namely psychology, economics, sociology, and management (Muscalu, 2014).

Organizational culture found its beginning in culture theory (Dauber et al., 2012). Organizations are considered to be social groups (Rappaport & Richter, 2013) and as such there was interest in the culture of organizations which can be traced back to the 1930s (Tharp, 2009). Much of the interest came from wanting to understand how culture affected behavior (Schein, 2010) since culture’s basic mechanism is the concept of shared behaviors (Schneider et al., 2013; Tharp, 2009) and individuals make up society and individuals also make up organizations (Rappaport & Richter, 2013). By extension, all organizations have a culture (Heckelman, Unger, & Garofano, 2013) and each organization has its own distinctive culture (Garcia, Sanchez, Cuevas, Hernandez, & Vargas, 2012). Societal culture is believed to indirectly and directly influence organizational culture (Ahmadi, Salamzadeh, Daraei, & Akbari, 2012). Referring to the
culture of a company as its DNA has become a popular expression in the organizational culture literature (Crews & Richard, 2013; Eaton & Kilby, 2015).

Organizational culture has been researched across different disciplines and numerous conceptual models have been proposed (Dauber et al., 2012); but, the two main concepts are sociological, organizations have a culture and anthropological, organizations are actual cultures (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The sociological stance is the more widely accepted view (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). As a concept, organizational culture is not easily defined (Muscalu, 2014) and there is no one definition in the literature (Muscalu, 2014; Schneider et al., 2013). A list of 164 definitions of culture was collected by anthropologists Kroeber and Kluckhohn in 1952 (Spencer-Oatey, 2012). Across most definitions of culture and organizational culture, there is one word that remains constant - shared (Schneider et al., 2013).

For purposes of my study, organizational culture is defined as a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). Defining culture has been difficult because conceptually culture is an abstraction with aspects that are unobservable (Schein, 2010). Consequently researchers have faced a challenge in creating a replicable concept of culture that could act as a predictor of organizational outcomes (Moon et al., 2012). It is suggested that the ideas that separate disciplines be relaxed so that an increased understanding of culture can be attained (Rajala, Ruokonen, & Ruismaki, 2012).
It is important to address the relationship that is mentioned in the literature about organizational climate and organizational culture because there is no universal definition of either concept which is causing some confusion (Bitsani, 2013). Some researchers suggested that organizational climate is the same as organizational culture (Bitsani, 2013). Organizational climate is the temporary attitudes of individuals whereas organizational culture is the long-lasting core attribute of an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Organizational climate is better served in conjunction with organizational culture for understanding the work experiences of individuals (Schneider et al., 2013).

Organizational culture is a powerful force able to influence the success or failure of a company (Crews & Richard, 2013). Some argue that culture actually trumps the strategies of an organization because people implement and carry out strategies while culture controls behavior (Eaton & Kilby, 2015). If the shared behavior and beliefs of the individuals do not align with the strategy, then the interests are divided (Eaton & Kilby, 2015). There is a positive relation between organizational culture and strategy implementation (Ahmadi et al., 2012). Organizational culture is a strategic resource (Wei et al., 2014) that influences several functions of a company, all processes, relationships, and results (Neagu & Nicula, 2012) that include but are not limited to: productivity, creativity, and adaption (Moon et al., 2012); employee satisfaction (Abbaspour & Noghreh, 2015); leadership and effectiveness (Mishra, 2012); excellence (Ghinea & Bratianu, 2012); organizational performance (Shahzad et al., 2012); employee performance (Uddin, Luva, & Hossain, 2013); competitive advantage (Madu, 2012); and
innovation (Hogan & Coote, 2013). Understanding how culture affects these outcomes is crucial for improving them (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Organizational culture’s influence on performance is perhaps one of the areas that are investigated the most (Prenestini & Lega, 2013). Culture affects management performance (Hajjawi, 2013). This is important and addressed first because managers are the group members that create, manage, and change culture (Schein, 1992). Managers also direct their subordinates in achieving the performance goals of the company (Prenestini & Lega, 2013). In some instances inconsistent cultures can be created because of the different characteristics of the management team (Datuon, 2014). In this sense organizational culture can have a negative effect (Datuon, 2014). The manager that knows and cultivates the culture to achieve organizational goals will be able to predict outcomes (Madu, 2012). To be effective organizational culture must be understood companywide (Neagu & Nicula, 2012).

Leadership and organizational culture also positively affect the job satisfaction of employees (Azanza, Moriano, & Molero, 2013) and organizational effectiveness (Edwards & Turnbull, 2013). Culture is not only instrumental in achieving employee job satisfaction but employee commitment as well; both are important attributes for overall organizational growth and development and for economic success (Shah et al., 2012). Some ways in which employees perceive satisfaction are based on the relationships within the company, earnings, and the working environment (Belias & Koustelios, 2014).

Organizational culture also gives companies a competitive advantage (Madu, 2012). Job satisfaction is an antecedent for creating a competitive advantage and overall
success (Gallato et al., 2012). It is believed that organizations cannot survive without innovation (Hogan & Coote, 2013). Innovation is needed in a competitive marketplace because it creates exclusivity (Hogan & Coote, 2013; Stoffers, Neessen, & van Dorp, 2015). Organizational culture can foster innovative behavior in employees (Hogan & Coote, 2013) specifically a flexibility-oriented organizational culture (Azanza et al., 2013).

Every action of a company internally or externally is a reflection of its culture (Florentina & Georgiana, 2012). Of particular interest is the concept of the employee’s work-life balance (Lester, 2013). Employees and organizations alike will benefit when there is a balance between the employee’s professional life (internal) and personal life (external) (Lester, 2013). A culture that fosters a work-life balance considers the employee’s external commitments and responsibilities, creates opportunities such as alternative work arrangements, and work to make those arrangements possible (Lester, 2013). Employees that experience a culture where they feel that their well-being is cared about and are included in the decisions that affect them tend to be more committed to the organization (Ekwutosi & Moses, 2013). As such, organizational commitment is one attribute in an organization that is highly valued (Ghorbanhosseini, 2013). Organizations that have loyal and committed employees are considered superior to other organizations (Ghorbanhosseini, 2013).

Assessing culture has been a challenge for researchers (Moon et al., 2012). Some theorists argue that culture as an abstraction cannot be measured but must be observed (Schein, 1996) while others have designed and proven instruments for diagnosing and
assessing culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). There are many organizations where culture is unimportant (Ekwutosi & Moses, 2013). When organizational leaders make decisions without knowing the operational culture of the organization this can result in unexpected and unwanted detrimental outcomes (Schein, 1999).

Several methods have been developed to assess culture of which the CVF created by Cameron and Quinn has been widely used in a significant amount of studies (Grabowski, Neher, Crim, & Mathiassen, 2014). The CVF is considered a lens for capturing those invisible attributes of culture (Kaarst-Brown et al., 2004) and is valued for its complete approach (Kaur & Sharma, 2013). The CVF focuses on the main dimensions of culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Many managers understand the role that culture plays in the overall success of the company but do not know how to determine what the existing culture is and how to achieve the culture that is desired (Eaton & Kilby, 2015).

An important way of understanding culture is through types (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The CVF is perhaps the most popular choice for assessing culture types and diagnosing organizational culture (Cameron et al., 2014). Types focus the dimensions of culture into a model for depicting the attributes within each dimension (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). There are several different types of culture such as a learning culture or a clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, or market culture, the types created from the CVF (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Schmitz, Rebelo, Gracia, & Tomas, 2014).

Organizational culture improves employee job performance and, as a result, the productivity and performance of the company is increased (Shahzad et al., 2012). A
positive culture equals increased organizational performance (Shah et al., 2011). A preferred organizational culture is important for companies because behavior is directly linked to preference (Ekwutosi & Moses, 2013). When employees understand the culture they are easier to lead (Ekwutosi & Moses, 2013). An undesired culture results in disorder and chaos which leads to poor performance (Ekwutosi & Moses, 2013). Managers need to know at least the type of current culture that may exist within the organizations that they lead (Testa & Sipe, 2013).

Although there are many definitions of organizational culture (Ovseiko & Buchan, 2012) all describe a set of shared beliefs common to every member in the organization (Orta, 2015). These values and beliefs form the ties that hold them together (Schein, 2010). Culture influences all levels of the organization and is particularly important to functions such as economic performance and effectiveness, both of which are directly linked to having a competitive advantage and achieving overall success (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). How these values relate within culture is vitally important for understanding how they influence the decisions that companies make (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Schein, 2010).

**Downsizing**

It has become common to hear the word downsizing in business today or downsizing’s alternative term – layoffs (Cascio, 2014). In the literature several studies use the term downsizing interchangeably with the word layoff (Brenner et al., 2014; van Dierendonck & Jacobs, 2012). This prevalence is occurring because downsizing has become a common practice across industries (Rodriguez-Ruiz, 2015) not only in the
United States but globally with layoffs exceeding 50 million worldwide since the latest economic recession (Cascio, 2014). Like other integral components of any organization downsizing is now considered a standard management practice (Homburg et al., 2012). Downsizing has become a strategy of organizations (Ngirande, Terera, & Mutodi, 2014; Gross, 2015) and an unescapable issue for managers today (Cascio, 2014). Some researchers believed that downsizing is a new concept (Jivan, 2012) while most maintained that downsizing is not a new phenomenon (Datta et al., 2012; van Dierendonck & Jacobs, 2012). Regardless of the prevailing stance some researchers suggested that there is insufficient information about the concept of downsizing (Reynaud, 2012) while others believed that there is a significant amount of information about downsizing (Kawai, 2015). Despite these opposing views there is consensus that the findings are inconsistent and varied in the current literature (Kawai, 2015; Reynaud, 2012).

There is no overarching definition of the term downsizing due to the fact that the word is informed by so many organizational and management theories (Agwu, Carter, & Murray, 2014). As mentioned at the onset, downsizing is also referred to as layoffs; but, there are many other terms also used to refer to concept of downsizing; as many as 40 other terms (see Appendix A) have been identified (Cameron, 1994; Javed et al., 2013; Miller, 1998). There are also less flattering terms: corporate amputation, corporate anorexia, or corporate Alzheimer’s all suggestive of the type of traumatic event downsizing can be (Miller, 1998). Although they are all meant to refer to downsizing, each term can have a different meaning based on the context in which they are used by
organizations (Javed et al., 2013). These varying terms are believed to cause a problem in defining downsizing (Ashayeri & Sotirov, 2014).

Generally downsizing is defined as a decrease in the size of the workforce of a company (Agwu et al., 2014) and of importance because it is a planned reduction in the size of the workforce (Cascio, 2014) since an organization’s size can be reduced by other factors such as worker resignations (Hallock, Strain, & Webber, 2012). Downsizing is primarily undertaken to improve the company’s performance (Datta et al., 2010). Much of the definitions of downsizing typically include words such as reduction (Reynaud, 2012) contraction or shrinkage (Agwu et al., 2014), and decrease (Wolff, 2012). Casio (2014) argued that the meaning of downsizing should be differentiated from the meaning of layoffs. Downsizing, he maintained, is a broad term that can be applied not just to a reduction of the human component but it can also be the reduction of the company’s assets such as a reduction in cash or stocks or a reduction of the physical structure. Layoffs, conversely, refer only to a reduction of the human asset (Cascio, 2014).

Casio’s (2014) position highlighted the need to declare the meaning of the downsizing initiative being undertaken since the definition of the terms are dependent on the context in which they are used as Javed et al. (2013) suggested. Casio’s belief also supported the confusion that may occur according to Ashayeri and Sotirov (2014) because of the different terms used interchangeably for a downsizing event. For the purposes of this study downsizing is defined as the intentional reduction of a company’s workforce (Agwu et al., 2014; Cascio, 2014).
The Causes and Effects of Downsizing

Organizations choose to downsize for various reasons primarily to increase the bottom line and there are two primary ways to accomplish this, lower cost or produce more revenues (Cascio, 2014). Companies initiate a downsizing strategy as a reaction to an internal or external condition or they can be proactive by preparing for expected changes (Cascio, 2014). A reaction is also considered a defensive stance while companies that are proactive are considered to have taken an offensive position (Reynaud, 2012).

Cascio (2012) identified 15 factors that cause downsizing, 11 external factors and 4 internal factors. The external factors are: (a) declining demand, (b) cutting costs, (c) increasing earnings, (d) imitation of competing firms, (e) removal of customary practices such as lifelong employment, (f) globalization and global competition, (g) differences in labor costs, (h) differences in industry conditions, (i) workforce pool, (j) technological improvements, (k) stock market incentives, and the internal factors are: (a) horizontal mergers or acquisitions, (b) corporate governance practices, (c) CEO demographic characteristics, and (d) human resource policies. The reasons companies choose to downsize can be summarized to include but are not limited to improving performance (Gandolfi & Hansson, 2015), economic reasons (Agwu et al., 2014), improving productivity (Jivan, 2012), reducing costs (Luan et al., 2013), improving efficiency (Monteros & Bravo, 2012), gaining a competitive advantage (Saif et al., 2013), and achieving continued overall success (van Dierendonck & Jacobs, 2012).

Among these reasons improving performance has received the most attention in the downsizing literature (Datta et al., 2012). Financial performance can be considered
both an antecedent and outcome of downsizing; it initiates downsizing and also results from downsizing at the same time (Chhinzer & Currie, 2014). Organizations can use different financial markers for measuring economic performance such as return on assets, profit margin, earnings per share, revenue growth, and market capitalization (De Meuse & Dai, 2013). Comparisons of downsizing and nondownsizing companies using similar financial markers found that nondownsizing companies had higher levels on more of the indicators than those that downsized (De Meuse & Dai, 2013). As such, downsizing companies may not reap an immediate increase in financial performance (De Meuse & Dai, 2013).

Companies have different rationales for choosing to downsize (Chhinzer & Currie, 2014) and downsizing can vary by size (Brauer & Laamanen, 2014). Rationales can be predictors of financial performance and can take different forms such as the explanations for downsizing (Chhinzer & Currie, 2014). The rationales that a company uses for downsizing can increase productivity predownsizing and increase performance postdownsizing (Chhinzer & Currie, 2014). The size of the downsizing can be small-scale, medium scale, or large-scale and can impact firm performance (Brauer & Laamanen, 2014). Downsizing and firm performance is considered to have a direct relationship (Brauer & Laamanen, 2014). Both medium and large-scale downsizing can affect various organizational functions but large-scale downsizing is more beneficial than medium-scale downsizing (Brauer & Laamanen, 2014).

Firms initiate downsizing for increasing efficiency or because of a decline in the business but ultimately to improve performance (Goesaert, Heinz, & Vanormelingen,
As a consequence companies can experience some short term effects to operational and financial performance because in the short term downsizing does not improve productivity (Goesaert et al., 2015). In addition, companies may risk ruining the morale of the employees instead (Goesaert et al., 2015). Here again the immediate expected benefit of downsizing is unrealized (Goesaert et al., 2015; De Meuse & Dai, 2013).

Downsizing has been referred to as a “weapon of mass cleansing” (p. 2) which is wielded by those companies that are in decline (Agwu et al., 2014). This description is similar to the suggestion made by Goesaert et al. (2015) but is in conflict with the idea that organizations choose to downsize as a reaction to some problem or to be proactive meaning an act to avoid decline (Cascio, 2012). Regardless of the stance downsizing can be used as a strategic tool for effective organizational management (Agwu et al., 2014). Managers may view employees as a cost and not an asset and will choose downsizing as an immediate fix to the problems of the organization but might not consider the consequence to surviving employees that are burdened with the remaining workload (Agwu et al., 2014). Therefore, managers should consider the effects of downsizing on the remaining employees and take steps to minimize the consequences by providing resources such as counseling and retraining if downsizing is to have a successful outcome (Agwu et al., 2014). As such, varying resources within an organization should be subjected to different levels of downsizing (Palasinski, 2013).

Employee performance is another aspect that has been investigated concurrently with other organizational functions such as organizational climate and organizational
commitment and their relationship to downsizing (Navalino, Nimran, Astuti, & Hamid, 2014). Research showed that downsizing not only negatively affects employee performance but also negatively affects organizational climate and organizational commitment (Navalino et al., 2014). Some other effects of downsizing on employee performance are decreased loyalty and decreased job security (Rehman & Naeem, 2012). Organizational commitment is important since downsizing causes a loss of trust between the management and the employees (Jivan, 2012). It is important to note that employee performance is not always achieved in the short or long term (Rehman & Naeem, 2012).

Most consequences of downsizing affect the internal processes of an organization but downsizing also has an effect on external stakeholders as well, such as the customers of an organization (Homburg et al., 2012). Customers can become uncertain about a company’s product(s) or service and the overall stability of the company (Homburg et al., 2012). This can translate into a loss of customer satisfaction affecting the relationship between the company and its customers (Homburg et al., 2012).

A concern now evident from the downsizing literature is the fact that most companies have not carried out downsizing effectively (Jivan, 2012). As such, there have been several suggestions about minimizing the negative effects of downsizing (Jivan, 2012). Some of the problems are caused by the employees’ lack of knowledge about the downsizing (Jivan, 2012) and no plan in place by management to deal with the after effects that would be experienced by the remaining employees (Agwu et al., 2014).

One suggestion is that management informs and explains to employees the reasons for downsizing before downsizing starts so that those reasons are known by all
the members of the organization (Jivan, 2012). In addition, the company would reap the benefit of their feedback which can only improve the success of the downsizing initiative and employees would be more cooperative if they knew the why and what of the downsizing plan (Jivan, 2012). It is also suggested that companies include the transformational leader, if possible, as the facilitator to realize a successful downsizing endeavor because the transformational leadership style has been shown to lessen the negative impact of downsizing (Navalino et al., 2014).

Although some researchers are outspoken about using downsizing as a successful management strategy for beneficial outcomes (Bragger et al., 2013), much of the discussion on downsizing in the literature focuses on whether downsizing is actually achieving the results intended (Datta et al., 2012). This is due to the conflicting results in the literature which points to the need for more comprehensive inquiry into the relationship between downsizing and the factors it is believed to benefit (Datta et al., 2012). As such, there is evidence of studies being undertaken to analyze the results of downsizing and to offer best practices or strategies for carrying out downsizing in a more successful way (Gandolfi, 2013). It is even being suggested that downsizing has become a part of the management landscape and should be considered a part of organizations now and in the future (Gross, 2015). In fact, it is believed that research must investigate downsizing as a strategy that organizations will use repeatedly (Gross, 2015).

It is suggested that performance-based downsizing should be influenced by employee focused performance management (Bragger et al., 2013). Although performance management factors: employee-organization trust, manager-employee
communication, goal setting, reinforcement contingencies are damaged by downsizing it is argued that poorly run performance management systems actually fuel the need for downsizing but jeopardizes the use of performance-based downsizing at the same time (Bragger et al., 2013). In this sense, performance management systems should be used to plan and conduct productive downsizing outcomes so that a well-planned productive downsizing can be used to increase the management of performance (Bragger et al., 2013). Companies can also adopt a responsible downsizing strategy for increasing firm performance and achieving a more successful outcome when downsizing because downsizing is more an act of managing resources rather than an act of cutting cost (Cheng-Fei Tsai & Shih, 2013).

From a global perspective, downsizing causes and effects are similar worldwide (Datta & Basuil, 2015; Gandolfi & Hansson, 2015) supporting the argument that downsizing is here to stay and is perhaps now an accepted part of the organizational makeup (Gross, 2015). Managers across countries are choosing downsizing as a strategy for improving overall organizational success despite the overwhelming evidence to the contrary and the multiple players affected negatively by downsizing (Gandolfi & Hansson, 2015). The literature is demonstrating that downsizing is not producing the benefits desired and that managers are overlooking the need to understand and plan for the postdownsizing environment especially the effects to the human resource (Gandolfi & Hansson, 2015). Gandolfi and Hansson’s argument provides support for the purpose my study.
Communication can act as a mediator in achieving a successful downsizing outcome by increasing job satisfaction and by extension, organizational commitment (Bayardo et al., 2013). This idea aligns with the suggestion that downsizing may realize greater results if employees are informed about the objectives of downsizing in advance (Jivan, 2012). Internal communication about the downsizing beforehand positively affects job satisfaction and can act as a predictor of organizational commitment (Bayardo et al., 2013). Communication can avoid many of the unnecessary consequences of downsizing such as stress and uncertainty because employees are well informed of the downsizing process pre, during, and postdownsizing (Bayardo et al., 2013).

Drawing from the downsizing literature Gandolfi (2013) proposed six strategies he called tactics that firms should consider when undertaking a downsizing event. First, the human resource should be viewed as assets rather than costs since they are in fact the most important asset the company has. Second, a properly thought out long term plan for downsizing that includes all parts of the organization should be in place. Third, all members of the organization should be incorporated by allowing them to participate in the planning stage. Fourth, leadership involvement should be evident through their support as organizational members will look for leadership during the downsizing process. This support helps employees to feel more confident that management cares about how they are affected in the process. Fifth, communication must be open and honest. Employees feel they have greater buy in when they are aware of the reasons and plans for attaining the goals of the company (Gandolfi, 2013). Finally, those that remain after downsizing as well as those downsized, need support (Gandolfi, 2013).
Another area in the downsizing literature that received a great deal of attention is the effects of downsizing on the human resource: the victims, the survivors, and even those that must make the decision to downsize much of which involve the survivors (McMahan, Pandey, & Martinson, 2012). This term found its roots in the idea of the survivor’s syndrome (Talwar, 2015) and was suggested by the psychiatrist W. G. Niederland studying survivors of the Holocaust; the experiences of surviving employees after downsizing are likened to Holocaust survivors (Guiniven, 2001). Survivor’s syndrome is the physical and psychological effects caused by downsizing that may affect those workers that were not laid off (Talwar, 2015). Many times the survivors are not considered because it is believed that attention tended to focus on those employees that were losing their jobs (Talwar, 2015); however, managers are concerned about the survivors because that is the workforce that they will continue to work with (Sunitha, Jahangir, & Kumar, 2015). Regardless of the position of the management, managers should seriously consider the needs of those employees that remain since most downsizing efforts fail to realize their goals because of neglecting the effects to survivors (Talwar, 2015). Downsizing itself is not what causes the issues but it is the execution of the downsizing (Talwar, 2015). It is also believed that survivors experience the same feelings as those that have been laid off; in some cases the feelings are even worse (Qureshi, Memon, & Tahir, 2014).

There are 14 symptoms of the survivor syndrome: (a) anger, (b) depression, (c) fear, (d) guilt, (e) job insecurity, (f) unfairness, (g) reduced risk-taking, (h) reduced motivation, (i) resentment, (j) distrust, (k) helplessness, (l) stress, (m) fatigue, and (n) low
morale (Noer, 1993). It comes as no surprise that there are many psychological and health consequences experienced by the survivors of downsizing (Modrek & Cullen, 2013; Talwar, 2015). Much of the research on the effects of downsizing focuses on the postdownsizing environment with very few about the predownsizing phase and during downsizing as is the case with downsizing and depression and causes of stress in all three stages (Brenner et al., 2014; Smollan, 2015).

Depression is one of the most prevalent health conditions in the workforce (Brenner et al., 2014). After downsizing the displaced, the survivors, the internally redeployed, and the reemployed all exhibit depressive symptoms (Brenner et al., 2014). Depressive symptoms are reduced however when they felt informed beforehand and perceived the process to be fair and transparent but greater if confusion abounded (Brenner et al., 2014). Poor handling of the downsizing process also made them more emotionally distressed and depressed (Brenner et al., 2014). This problem reinforces the suggestion that organizations should include all members of the organization at every stage of the downsizing plan (Gandolfi, 2013).

One negative result of downsizing is the increased workload (McManus & Mosca, 2015). After downsizing the unexpected change caused by increased workloads results in decreased productivity and unknown possible effects and one of the main causes of stress is the increased workloads that the remaining workers carry (Hagel, 2013). Feelings of frustration and job insecurity are also present as well as a drop in employee morale and damage to trust (McManus & Mosca, 2015). Managers should strive to handle downsizing in a responsible way so as to build trust and foster employee engagement
when downsizing is unavoidable (Brenner et al., 2014; Gandolfi, 2013; McManus & Mosca, 2015).

The victims, the survivors, and the managers also called agent survivors that experience downsizing are subjected to high levels of stress (Hargrove, Cooper, & Quick, 2012). Researchers have investigated work stress for almost 50 years (Spurgeon, Mazelan, & Barwell, 2012) and especially after a downsizing event (Modrek & Cullen, 2013). Job stress has no single definition but is considered a worker coping with the pressures of the job (Spurgeon et al., 2012). Stress negatively impacts individuals, organizations, and even extends socially (Hargrove et al., 2012). Individual costs fall into three main groups of symptoms: emotional, behavioral, and physical while organizations face problems such as high absenteeism, turnover, and low motivation (Spurgeon et al., 2012).

Downsizing is an organizational change (Akhtar, Long, & Nazir, 2015). There are different causes of stress before, during, and after organizational change (Smollan, 2015). Causes of stress before downsizing are external and internal relationships, limited resources, workload, and responsibility (Smollan, 2015). The predownsizing stage causes the least amount of stress (Smollan, 2015). During downsizing stress levels are increased greatly which is caused by uncertainty, unclear roles or compensation, lack of participation, internal relationships, and the stress caused by others (Smollan, 2015). After downsizing stress is extremely high at first as employees adapt to new roles and organizational structures (Smollan, 2015). Causes of stress after the change were: (a) workload, (b) continual uncertainty, (c) short-term contract roles, (d) inadequate
resources, (e) inadequate office location, (f) internal relationships, and (g) the idea of change with no extra benefit (Smollan, 2015).

Additionally, the power of stress can be seen in one of the by-products of stress, burnout, which is a psychological syndrome produced by prolonged stressors of the job (Cotter & Fouad, 2012). Burnout is positively related to job insecurity and work overload (Cotter & Fouad, 2012). Burnout negatively affects an employee’s health and performance and is an antecedent of depression (Brown & Quick, 2013). Burnout also affects organizations through decreased performance (Brown & Quick, 2013). It is important to note that burnout also affects those that must make the decision to downsize, the managers (De Beer, Pienaar, & Rothmann, 2013). Downsizing can also affect individuals socially and economically (Javed et al., 2013) and as such society by extension. An individual’s social economic position is directly related to being employed; loss of a job jeopardizes his or her survival in society (Javed et al., 2013). Those who have lost their jobs lose not only their economic resources but benefits such as healthcare coverage vital to themselves and their families (Demps & Baker, 2011).

Downsizing can have unknown consequences (Hagel, 2013), one of which is an undesirable organizational culture which affects all areas of an organization (Neagu & Nicula, 2012). Several of the negative consequences of downsizing have been reviewed such as increased stress (Modrek & Cullen, 2013), depressive symptoms (Brenner et al., 2014), decreased job satisfaction (Saif et al., 2013), and decreased employee performance (Navalino et al., 2014). A preferred organizational culture, on the other hand, produces increased productivity (Moon et al., 2012) improved performance (Jacobs et al., 2013),
long-term competitive advantage (Dauber et al., 2012), more motivation (Hajjawi, 2013), and overall company success (Crews & Richard, 2013) all positive and the opposite of the effects caused by downsizing. Organizational culture is influential on internal and economic performance (Neagu & Nicula, 2012). The intentions of downsizing are clear and in most cases well intentioned mainly aimed at cutting costs for economic improvement (Cascio, 2014).

**The Newspaper Industry**

The newspaper industry is one of the few industries that have been in existence for decades (Herndon, 2012). Newspapers have been an integral facet in society and one of the industries that survived even the Depression era (Herndon, 2012). Newspapers are printed every day of the year and continue to provide a variety of information that consumers desire (Greco, 2015). Although still a relatively inexpensive commodity for users, publishing a newspaper comes at a high cost and requires a large labor force (Greco, 2015). The newspaper industry employs and contracts with hundreds of thousands of individuals in the United States (Herndon, 2012) and almost all of the U.S. newspaper markets are monopolies (Greco, 2015). Newspapers are also still considered a tool for influencing public opinion (Greco, 2015). Worldwide 2.7 billion people read a print newspaper (Kilman, 2015).

Newspapers function through four main divisions, namely (a) advertising, (b) editorial, (c) production, circulation, and distribution, and (d) business and legal (Greco, 2015). Advertising handles the creation, marketing, and sales of ads while editorial creates and designs the newspaper (Greco, 2015). Production handles the printing of the
paper and circulation and distribution delivers the finished product to subscribers and retail stores in addition to the marketing and sales of the products produced by the publisher (Greco, 2015). Business and legal handles all the financial and legal aspects of the company (Greco, 2015).

For purposes of my study, the circulation and distribution division of the industry is the focus. The main function of the circulation and distribution department of newspaper publishers is to sell and deliver the products of the publishers (Greco, 2015). The “circ” department as it is called markets, promotes, and sells the newspaper through subscriptions that are delivered as well as to single copy locations like newsstands for individual sale (Greco, 2015). The latter function, the distribution, is accomplished through one or a combination of three methods (Greco, 2015). One method utilizes IDs who purchase the papers at a reduced rate and then resells them to other locations such as a newsstand (Greco, 2015). Another method publishers use are contracted distributors or agents that are paid a flat rate for delivering to the publisher’s subscribers and/or servicing single copy locations (Greco, 2015). The third method is employees of the publisher who can be compensated hourly or by a set salary are used to deliver the papers (Greco, 2015).

Revenue in the newspaper industry comes from two main sources, advertising sales and circulation (Fan, 2013; Greco, 2015) with advertising revenue accounting for more than half of the income (Brock, 2013). In the U.S. market, advertising revenue and circulation revenue are in the billions of dollars (Mitchell & Page, 2015; Newspaper Association of America, 2014). In the newspaper industry, advertising and circulation
share an interconnected relationship; higher circulation drives higher advertising prices (Greco, 2015). Globally newspaper circulation and advertising revenue reached US$179 billion exceeding the music, film, and book publishing industries in 2014 (Kilman, 2015).

The birth of the Internet and the growing Information Age presented new challenges for the newspaper industry (Brock, 2013; Herndon, 2012). At the onset, some industry sources heralded the possible negative effects to the industry (Herndon, 2012). Others viewed it as an opportunity, the beginning of a great phase for the industry; the industry’s trade journal even touted the idea that the newspaper industry would be the builders of the Information Age (Herndon, 2012). A recent study showed that the Internet was the second most used source for news in the United States (Saad, 2013). Television was in first place and print newspapers in third place (Saad, 2013).

Newspapers built their on-line presence through websites as they adapted to the changing demand of their customers (Xu, 2014). Globally over 770 million people read the news on a digital format (Kilman, 2015). Some have referred to this digitizing as the digital revolution (Green, 2014). The U.S. industry’s digital audience is growing (see Figure 2), with trends indicating a steady increase in individuals accessing newspaper digital media (Conaghan, 2015). The newspaper digital audience represents a cross-section of men and women of varying ages and they use different devices for accessing the news on the Internet such as mobile phones (Conaghan, 2015). Newspapers with the largest digital audience are also the ones with the highest U.S. circulation with only a few exceptions (Barthel, 2015).
Despite the industry’s attempt to capitalize on the online age, as the use of the Internet grew, newspapers were forced to change their standard business model and transform to meet the new demands of the Age (Karimi & Walter, 2015). Publishers are accustomed to the two-sided market model for generating revenue where news content attracts sales and sales attracts advertisers (Barland, 2013). The traditional revenue model has proven difficult to transfer into the digital marketplace (Barland, 2013). Consequently, the increased use of the Internet has also caused advertising and circulation numbers to decline (Herndon, 2012). Research has shown that the Internet negatively affects what advertisers spend on newspaper advertising (Zentner, 2012). Recent results showed that newspapers lost over half their advertising revenue (Chittum, 2013), which is also compounded by the last economic recession (Benavides & Leiva,
In a ten-year period, from 2004 to 2014, newspaper advertising revenue went from $46.7 billion U.S. dollars to $16.4 billion U.S. dollars in print revenue and from $1.5 billion U.S. dollars to $3.5 billion U.S. dollars in digital revenue; a substantial growth for the digital market place and a heavy decline in the print market (Newspaper Association of America, 2014).

Circulation numbers have suffered a similar fate (Belch & Belch, 2014). Over the past decade, newspaper circulation showed a steady decline then plummeted sharply in 2010 (Barthel, 2015). A rebound was immediate with numbers climbing, which in 2013 exceeded the 2004 circulation numbers but has started downward again since 2014 (Barthel, 2015). Although digital revenue has increased and continues to increase, the gain is insufficient to replace the loss in print revenue (Barthel, 2015). As a consequence newspapers had to resort to cutting costs to remain viable (Herndon, 2012; Reinan, 2013). This effort to reduce costs resulted in massive layoffs in the industry (Elgan, 2012, Saperstein, 2014) with several newspapers going bankrupt (Soloski, 2013). Downsizing was one of the strategies for dealing with the decline in the industry (Saperstein, 2014).

In the last few years there has been a conversation about government intervention through the use of subsidies for preserving the newspaper industry (Greenberg, 2012). The idea is one similar to structure used by public radio where direct funding and tax-based incentives for newspapers could bring some stability to the industry (Greenberg, 2012). The argument focuses on the relationship between the press and the American democratic society rooted in the idea that newspapers are still the main contributor of information and ideas; without newspapers the marketplace is in jeopardy and so is
democratic self-governance (Greenberg, 2012). Newspapers (the press) are believed to affect four societal underpinnings: (a) setting public dialog, (b) connecting readers with their communities, (c) citizen oversight of elected officials and reducing those costs, and (d) providing investigative and local news reports (Greenberg, 2012). The call is on Congress to stabilize the industry (Greenberg, 2012).

Journalists would be in agreement with the call to action by Congress to save the industry as journalists have suffered greatly in the industry’s decline (McChesney, 2012); journalists have experienced some of the most extensive layoffs industry-wide (Reinardy, 2013). The journalism argument is just as forceful, how will there be democratic governance without journalistic oversight (McChesney, 2012)? Journalists also believe in the use of subsidies to stabilize the newspaper industry (McChesney, 2012).

The newspaper industry should be encouraged by the fact that different generations are choosing different news sources for news (Rosenstiel et al., 2014). The topics that interest people drives where they choose to get the news and they are also using multiple devices and sources for accessing it (see Figure 3; Rosenstiel et al., 2014). Newspapers still dominate for topics such as local and city news, art and culture, and schools and education (Rosenstiel et al., 2014). Younger adults called millennials believe they are more informed by traditional media sources due in part to how traditional media collects the news and that the local news content is more in-depth (Martinez, 2015). Of particular interest in the industry is the fact that globally newspaper circulation revenues are for the first time in the current century higher than newspaper advertising revenues.

Despite the predictions of doom for the newspaper industry as Internet usage boomed (Aucoin, 2012; Elgan, 2012), the industry is quickly transforming its business model to a more multi-dimensional one (Kilman, 2015) to increase its audience and through diversification increase revenues (Newspaper Association of America, 2014). The industry is accomplishing this by capitalizing on new technology and customizing its offerings to reader and advertiser preferences (Newspaper Association of America, 2014). To that end, newspapers still offer several advantages over other media (Greco, 2015). The printed newspaper is not to be counted out as yet since worldwide print revenues currently account for over 93 per cent of all newspaper revenues and is predicted to continue as such for many years (Kilman, 2015).
Independent Contractors

The newspaper industry relies on independent contractors for distribution of its printed products (Greco, 2015). Independent contractors can be contracted directly by the publisher or by an ID (Greco, 2015). By the year 2020, independent contractors are expected to make up over 40% of the U.S. workforce (http://about.intuit.com/futureofsmallbusiness/) and unlike the employment rate, which has been increasing slowly, the contractor workforce is growing in large percentages (Neuner, 2013). Also referred to as the 1099 Economy (Pages, 2012) or freelancers (Neuner, 2013), contractors currently represent approximately one fifth of the U.S. workforce, over 40 million Americans (Pages, 2012). Being called the workforce evolution, in the next several years it is estimated that over 80 percent of large companies will increase their contractor workforce (Neuner, 2013; http://about.intuit.com/futureofsmallbusiness/).

Newspaper contractors enjoy several benefits: (a) flexibility, (b) opportunities for creativity, (c) greater control, (d) being their own boss, (e) protection of a written contract, (f) cannot be terminated at will without notice, (g) can provide service for competitors, (h) can hire subcontractors to perform the work, (i) may qualify for certain tax benefits, (j) improved cash flow, (k) availability of business related tax deductions, and (l) retirement savings (Pages, 2012; www.dispatch.com) while employers realize: (a) increased efficiency, (b) agility, (c) flexibility, (d) reduced labor cost, (e) employment expenses become variable costs rather fixed costs (http://about.intuit.com/futureofsmallbusiness/), and (f) reduced legal liability such as facing a wrongful termination lawsuit (Fishman, 2014). Figure 4 depicts a monetary example of the increase in take home

The benefits for both parties are obvious, but there are also some risks (Elliott, 2013; Newton & Borstorff, 2012). This type of alternate employment arrangement differs from the traditional at will employment arrangement in the United States (Cappelli & Keller, 2013). It is uncharted territory with many unknowns, which has led to problems of misclassifications of workers as independent contractors (Agostino & Krieger, 2015). As the contractor workforce grows the government’s scrutiny of companies to ensure that
workers are properly classified has also grown (Agostino & Krieger, 2015) due to the government’s loss of revenue from payroll income and unemployment taxes (Gardner, Daff, & Welch, 2013).

Proper classification rests in the idea of control (Agostino & Krieger, 2015; Veal & Lingenfelter, 2012). In the employer-employee relationship, the employer controls and directs the person that performs the work whereas in the employer-contractor relationship the employer can only dictate the result of the work and not how to accomplish it (Agostino & Krieger, 2015; Recor, 2012). This problem of potential misclassification is the root of several risks that the employer may face (Elliott, 2013). Independent contractors face numerous risks as well: (a) no benefits are included as part of their compensation, (b) they must provide the tools that they need to perform the work, (c) there is little job security, (d) they make their own decisions and are responsible for the results of those decisions, (e) they have to file and pay their own state and federal taxes, which is normally done by the employer, and (f) they can be held responsible for unpaid taxes and any resulting penalties and even be charged criminally depending on the circumstances (Newton & Borstorff, 2012).

Although the independent contractor segment of the labor force is growing not much is known about this type of worker (Cappelli & Keller, 2013). They have been relatively invisible to policy makers, economic creators, and researchers (Pages, 2012). A greater understanding of this part of the labor force is needed (Pages, 2012).
Summary and Conclusions

Organizational culture is a part of all organizations; every company has a culture and each culture is distinctive in its own way (Gurdal & Kumkale, 2014). Organizational culture influences all organizational functions internally and externally (Schein, 2010). Culture positively impacts functions such as: leadership (Orta, 2015); performance (Wei et al., 2014); efficiency (Neagu & Nicula, 2012); morale (Iverson & Zatzick, 2011); employee satisfaction (Shah et al., 2012); and learning (Rappaport & Richter, 2013). Culture is integral to any change effort a company may make (Aswandy et al., 2013). To make decisions without knowing the culture of the company may result in negative outcomes (Schein, 1999). A preferred organizational culture can have several positive outcomes such as increased productivity (Moon et al., 2012), improved performance (Jacobs et al., 2013), and overall company success (Crews & Richard, 2013).

Downsizing has become commonplace for companies and is used for improving overall success (Datta et al., 2012). Although downsizing can reduce costs (Jivan, 2012) and increase a company’s revenue (De Meuse & Dai, 2013) it can have severe consequences (Hagel, 2013). Some of downsizing’s negative effects are decreased employee stability and security (Bayardo et al., 2013), decreased job satisfaction (Saif et al., 2013), and numerous health effects such as increased stress (Modrek & Cullen, 2013) and depressive symptoms (Brenner et al., 2014). Downsizing can also produce an undesirable organizational culture because culture affects all areas of an organization (Neagu & Nicula, 2012).
The newspaper industry has been experiencing numerous downsizing events (Saperstein, 2014). These changes have affected IDs whose companies distributes the products of publishers (Greco, 2015) and distributors use independent contractors to perform their distribution tasks (Zinser, 2015). Independent contractors are different from employees and they relate differently to an organization (Thickstun, 2013). IDs may have an undesired culture because of downsizing (Neagu & Nicula, 2012).

Numerous studies focused on other parts of the newspaper industry such as journalists (Reinardy, 2013) and the reasons for the declining readership (Belch & Belch, 2014) but few, if any investigate the distribution arm of the industry. In the same way, much of the research on organizational culture is concentrated on organizational performance (Prenestini & Lega, 2013) and organizational effectiveness (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). In addition, most studies on downsizing (Bragger et al., 2014; Homburg et al., 2012; Rodriguez-Ruiz, 2015) and organizational culture (Abbaspour & Noghreh, 2015; Gallato et al., 2012; Jerome, 2013; Wei et al., 2014) focused on employees and not independent contractors.

There are few studies about downsizing and organizational culture (Rai & Lakshman, 2014). There is no information about downsizing and organizational culture in the newspaper industry related to independent contractors, who represent a different type of stakeholder as compared to employees (Pages, 2012). Information about organizational culture and downsizing, organizational culture and downsizing in the newspaper industry, and the contractors’ perceptions of culture will increase the information about downsizing and organizational culture in the literature. I found from
the literature review that there were more quantitative research about organizational
culture and downsizing especially downsizing than there were qualitative ones. I found a
limited amount of studies that used a qualitative approach with both a qualitative and
quantitative data collection method which offers a more detailed description of the lived
experience.

In Chapter 3 I present the methodology of my study. Also included in Chapter 3
are the research design, rationale for the design, the role of the researcher, methodology,
procedures for recruitment, participation, and data collection procedures, data analysis
plan, and issues of trustworthiness.
Chapter 3: Research Method

Organizational culture is impacted by change (Schein, 2010), and downsizing is a major change within an organization (Agwu et al., 2014; Cascio, 2014). In studying organizational culture and change, case study research is the optimal approach for investigating relationships within a contemporary social context (Yin, 2014). The purpose of this qualitative case study was to explore what effects downsizing has on organizational culture based on the perception of contractors in the newspaper industry. Most studies on downsizing do not focus on how downsizing may affect organizational culture (Rai & Lakshman, 2014). This study provided needed information about downsizing and organizational culture in the newspaper industry and how downsizing may affect organizational culture. I identified the predownsizing, the postdownsizing, and the preferred organizational culture types. I also explored the lived experiences of independent contractors. Understanding the effects of downsizing on organizational culture may offer information useful to the newspaper industry, while describing the preferred culture type thereby helping to create the optimal working environment for contractors.

This chapter presents the research design and rationale, role of the researcher, methodology, participant selection logic, instrumentation, procedures for recruitment, participation, and data collection, data analysis plan, and issues of trustworthiness.
Research Design and Rationale

The primary research question for this study is: What are the effects of downsizing on organizational culture as experienced by independent contractors in the newspaper industry? Data was collected to answer the following questions:

1. What was the type of organizational culture before downsizing occurred?
2. What is the current type of organizational culture after downsizing?
3. What is the preferred type of organizational culture?
4. What are the perceived effects of downsizing on organizational culture?

Organizational culture is the phenomenon of interest. Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors (Schein, 2010). This forms a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). A preferred organizational culture can result in more positive outcomes such as increased performance and overall organizational success (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Shahzad et al., 2012) while an undesired culture may produce opposite outcomes (Schein, 1999). Organizational culture can be affected by downsizing (Neagu & Nicula, 2012). Downsizing is the intentional reduction of a company’s workforce (Agwu et al., 2014; Cascio, 2014). Downsizing could change a company’s culture to a desired or an undesired culture (Demps & Baker, 2011; Rai & Lakshman, 2014).

A qualitative case study design was used to explore the effects of downsizing on organizational culture. Qualitative research allows for a deeper understanding of social
phenomena (Kemparaj & Chavan, 2013). The qualitative approach explores, interprets, or describes the social world and its relationships (Kemparaj & Chavan, 2013). There are five attributes of qualitative research that define its ability to investigate social phenomena: (a) investigating people in their real-world roles, (b) representing the experience of people from their own point of view, (c) reflecting the natural setting (d) explaining social behavior and the way people think using past and new concepts, and (e) incorporating multiple sources of evidence for establishing those concepts (Yin, 2016). A qualitative approach is also useful when there is minimal information known about the phenomenon of interest (Malagon-Maldonado, 2014).

Qualitative research has several specialized types (Yin, 2016). A case study is one specialized type of qualitative research (Yin, 2016) and is considered one of the main research approaches in the qualitative tradition (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). A qualitative case study design was chosen for this study because the qualitative approach was the best method for answering the research questions (Yin, 2014). Case study research is the most inclusive method because it can include varying fundamental procedures that are indispensable to all types of research methods (Yin, 2014) and can be applied to individuals, organizations, groups, or any specific phenomenon (Cronin, 2014). The foremost strength of case studies is the ability to use different data collection methods including methods that produce quantitative data (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). The case study approach is preferred when seeking to understand social phenomena at a deeper level and within its current context (Yin, 2014) or simply when needing to study everything about those phenomena (Cronin, 2014). Case studies are also usually used
when studying the culture of an organization (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). The most
powerful feature, however, of the qualitative case study is its ability to cause readers to
apply understanding and meaning from the study to their own individual circumstances
(Taylor, 2013).

As mentioned earlier researchers can choose from among several qualitative types
for studying a subject of interest (Yin, 2016) or other research methods. I considered
some of these other approaches for answering the research questions namely: mixed
method, quantitative, ethnography, grounded theory, phenomenology, and narrative
inquiry. A mixed methods or purely quantitative approach could have been chosen. A
mixed methods approach uses both a qualitative and a quantitative method to investigate
the phenomenon of interest (Hayes, Bonner, & Douglas, 2013). Some researchers have
suggested that combining qualitative and quantitative methods is necessary for
understanding human phenomena (Houssemand & Meyers, 2013). The phenomenon of
interest is best investigated using the case study method because of its ability to combine
more than one source of data collection, for example, qualitative sources and quantitative
sources (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). This combination of data collection sources is
called methodological triangulation and is a common practice in qualitative research
(Patton, 2015). A purely quantitative method would only show if there was a change in
organizational culture because of downsizing but it could not describe the actual effects.
A mixed method approach is not to be confused with triangulation (Sandelowski, 2003).

Ethnography is, perhaps, the approach that is considered the symbol of the
qualitative tradition (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). Rooted in anthropology and sociology,
ethnography focuses on society and culture and seeks to understand how groups within society form and how their culture is sustained (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). Ethnography takes a more longitudinal path where the researcher becomes a part of the setting for extended periods of time (Buch & Staller, 2014) primarily collecting data through participant observation (Marshall & Rossman, 2016) and participating in activities, if possible, to better understand the behavior of the subjects (Gooberman-Hill, 2015).

The ethnographic approach would appear to be an obvious choice for my study, but the ethnographic method is not the best suited for answering the research questions in this study. My study does not aim at understanding how the culture of the contractors was formed or how the culture can be maintained but rather what is the type of culture pre and postdownsizing, the preferred culture type, and how downsizing affected organizational culture based on the experience of the contractors. Although downsizing can be small-scale, medium scale, or large-scale downsizing is usually undertaken as an action to expected changes or a reaction to an internal or external condition (Brauer & Laamanen, 2014; Cascio, 2014) and typically not planned for the long-term. Companies downsize to improve productivity predownsizing and improve performance postdownsizing (Chhinzer & Currie, 2014).

Grounded theory is a more explanatory approach than an exploratory one (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). The intent of grounded theory is to create theories for explaining the setting and the interactions within that setting (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). Researchers generate theories from scientifically collected data (Zarif, 2012).
Theory therefore is ‘grounded’ in the data (Charmaz, 2014). Grounded theory offers an explanation of why things happen but not a description of how it was experienced by the people in the event (Corbin & Strauss, 2015). Theory development was not my goal but rather the exploration of the lived experiences of the contractors.

Phenomenology is the search for meaning (Grossoehme, 2014). Phenomenology aims to understand the lived experiences of individuals of a common phenomenon or event through exploration, description, and analysis (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). Data is gathered by conducting numerous long and detailed interviews with the individuals that have experienced the event of interest (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). Indispensable to the method is gathering data about the lived experiences of many (Bristowe, Selman, & Murtagh, 2015). Phenomenological studies are optimal for understanding emotional human experiences and typically investigate deep, personal, human phenomena such as love and anger (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Although a phenomenological approach could be used for my study it does not allow the flexibility of the case study method and does not suit the phenomenon of interest.

Story telling or stories are at the heart of the narrative approach (Patton, 2015). It is believed that human beings recount their experiences as stories (Breheny & Stephens, 2015). Those experiences are also understood by the researcher as stories as well (Breheny & Stephens, 2015). The narrative is produced from people narrating their stories (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). In a narrative approach the participant is the story teller (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). As such, there is more focus on the individual rather than the context in which the experience occurred (Marshall & Rossman, 2016).
Examples of narrative analysis are biographies and autobiographies (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). A narration tells about life more so than life as lived (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). Lived experiences and the context in which they occur are important to my study therefore a narrative approach would not be suitable. Researchers choose the best method for answering the research questions (Yin, 2014). The case study approach using methodological triangulation provides detailed, in-depth, and rich information about the effects of downsizing on organizational culture.

Role of the Researcher

In qualitative research the role that the researcher plays is a crucial one because the researcher is the primary data collection instrument (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). The researcher also analyzes the data to describe social phenomena (Collins & Cooper, 2014) and can assume several roles throughout a research study (Unluer, 2012). Much of the credibility of a qualitative research study is tied to an explanation of the researcher’s role (Unluer, 2012). Credibility is predicated on the fact that data was collected and interpreted in an appropriate fashion (Yin, 2016). For all the reasons aforementioned the researcher’s identity, voice, biases, and any ethical issues are declared (Marshall & Rossman, 2016).

Researchers can be insiders or outsiders in relation to the subjects of their inquiry (Greene, 2014). A researcher who is also a member of the group, organization, or culture which is investigated is considered an insider (Greene, 2014). Investigating inside the researcher’s work environment is a type of insider research (McDermid, Peters, Jackson, & Daly, 2014). There are advantages as well as disadvantages to being an inside
researcher (Paechter, 2013). Advantages include ease of access to participants, camaraderie, a level of trust, and knowledge of the culture (Kim, 2012) all of which may unearth confidential information (Cumming-Potvin, 2013). There are two main disadvantages to the insider position (Greene, 2014). These are the potential of the researcher being overly subjective and biased (Greene, 2014). This position also poses some methodological concerns such as threats to objectivity, validity, and confidentiality (Greene, 2014). Despite these there are several practices that inside researchers can employ to address these concerns (Greene, 2014).

My role as the researcher meets the criteria of the inside researcher. I have been in the newspaper industry for over 21 years, all of which has been in the circulation and distribution arm of the industry. I am an ID and an independent contractor. I have worked as an employee and/or contractor for several major newspaper publishers in the United States and the Caribbean. I am a contractor for the organization where the research for my study was conducted.

As an inside researcher, I have taken steps to maintain research integrity (Yin, 2016) by addressing issues of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability and employing tools to mitigate bias (Greene, 2014). As an ID, a contractor, and an inside researcher my research design and analysis plan could have been influenced by my professional and personal experiences. To mitigate this possible bias I engaged in bracketing. Bracketing lessens the possibility of biases that may affect the research study (Tufford & Newman, 2012). By bracketing a researcher sets aside or brackets his or her own beliefs about the phenomenon (Dowling, 2007) so that the
participants’ understanding of the phenomenon is not prejudiced by the researcher (Chan, Fung, & Chien, 2013). I also practiced the indispensable research technique of reflexivity (Greene, 2014). Reflexivity is the constant interplay between my self-evaluation in light of my ideology and the participants of the study (Patton, 2015).

Researchers can offer incentives to study participants as a means of eliciting a higher response rate to participating in a study (Perez, Nie, Ardern, Radhu, & Ritvo, 2013). Although incentives may lead to higher response rate the use of incentives also introduce several issues (Sánchez-Fernández, Muñoz-Leiva, & Montoro-Ríos, 2012). The main problem of offering incentives is the possibility of biasing the study (Göritz, 2006). Participants may, for example, fill-in any kind of data to finish the survey to be able to collect the prize (Göritz, 2006). I did not offer any incentives to the participants for participating in my study.

**Methodology**

Qualitative research design is an intricate process (Kramer-Kile, 2012). There are no specified procedures for making the decision about what method to employ in a research study (Patton, 2015). For this reason qualitative researchers have greater flexibility in research design but a greater responsibility for detailing the decisions that craft their decision (Bansal & Corley, 2012). The researcher drafts the best plan for answering the research questions which can include both qualitative and quantitative data (Patton, 2015). Since qualitative research methods are not marked by an established controlled structure, investigators have greater flexibility (Patterson & Morin, 2012). This flexibility allows researchers to make changes as the study progresses (Patterson &
Morin, 2012). Ultimately researchers aim for methodological alignment throughout the study; that is, the relationship between concepts, methods, and analysis (Kramer-Kile, 2012).

**Participant Selection Logic**

The population of my study included independent contractors that work for an ID in the southeastern United States. All contractors within the population have experienced downsizing. Population selection is important because the results obtained are based on the population that is studied (Patton, 2015). Participants should be qualified and have the frame of reference needed to address the research questions (Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson, & Spiers, 2002). The sampling decision is significant because it plays a part in the trustworthiness of the study particularly addressing the study’s credibility and transferability (Marshall & Rossman, 2016).

Four participants were selected using purposeful sampling. Purposeful sampling is also referred to as purposive sampling and is a strategy for selecting specific cases to investigate that will offer in-depth information about the phenomenon of interest (Patton, 2015). Purposeful sampling is considered a strength in qualitative sampling (Patton, 2015). All participants were contractors in the newspaper industry and have worked for the ID for over five years.

In the qualitative tradition other than selecting the research topic and the best design, an appropriate sample size is paramount to a study (Marshall, Cardon, Poddar, & Fontenot, 2013). The sample size is typically smaller in the qualitative tradition than in the quantitative tradition (Dworkin, 2012). In fact, a sample size could be as small as a
case of one (Patton, 2015). In qualitative research there are no set criteria for sample size (Yin, 2016). As such, adequacy of sample size rather than the actual size of the sample is of importance (Bowen, 2008). To determine adequacy qualitative researchers rely on the concept of saturation (O’Reilly & Parker, 2013). Data saturation is the point at which no new information is emerging from the data and the information has become redundant (El Hussein, Jakubec, & Osuji, 2015).

There are no rules that govern when saturation has been achieved (Marshall et al., 2013) due in part to the fact that the design of each study differs one from the other (Fusch & Ness, 2015). Although showing data saturation is not required for some qualitative studies (O’Reilly & Parker, 2013) it is powerful for establishing the quality of the study (El Hussein et al., 2015) regarding credibility, reliability, transferability, and validity of the study results. There are different ways to demonstrate saturation: using the recommendation of other methodologists, statistically showing saturation within the data set (Marshall et al., 2013), or using data triangulation (Fusch & Ness, 2015). I used data triangulation, specifically methodological triangulation, to reach data saturation for my study. Methodological triangulation uses several data collection methods to investigate the topic of inquiry (Patton, 2015). Data triangulation achieved data saturation (Fusch & Ness, 2015).

After receiving approval from the ID and Walden’s Institutional Review Board (IRB), I contacted the participants by telephone where I briefly introduced the study and made arrangements to meet in person so that I was able to extend the invitation to participate in the study, explain the purpose of the study, and answer any questions that
the participants had. I prepared study packets and gave a packet to each participant. Packets included the informed consent form (see Appendix B) and the survey (see Appendix D), and information about when the results would be available and where to access the results.

**Instrumentation**

Two data collection instruments were used in my study: I was the primary qualitative data collection instrument (Marshall & Rossman, 2016) and the OCAI developed by Cameron & Quinn, 2011) was the quantitative data collection instrument. Data collection should be a creative process with the ultimate goal of gathering data that will best explain the phenomenon of interest (Patton, 2015) and answer the research questions. This creative process may require adapting traditional ways in a new way (Patton, 2015), a concept that is in line with the evolving nature of qualitative research (Jacob & Furgerson, 2012). I obtained qualitative data using qualitative interviews (Yin, 2016). Some methodologists refer to this type of interviewing as the informal conversational interview (Patton, 2015) and as such qualitative interviews are relaxed and casual (Yin, 2016). This type of interview is unstructured (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009).

Unstructured interviews are also referred to as in-depth or nonstandardized interviews (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009). Compared to structured interviews where researcher and participant interaction follows a more planned format, qualitative interviewing allows for a more flexible format (Yin, 2016). Questioning can follow a combination of asking prepared questions across all participants and unplanned questions that are context dependent and evolving (Yin, 2016). This flexibility allows the
researcher to ask probing questions as the need arises and elicit clarification from the participants about previous responses (Patton, 2015). As such, planned qualitative questions were asked of all participants followed by planned and emergent probing and clarification questions that were participant specific. The initial questions were included at the end of the survey instrument (OCAI) followed by probing and clarifying questions over the telephone with each participant. Expert validation by a panel of academic and professional experts was used to confirm the reliability and validity of the questions. Expert validation can be used in qualitative studies as an approach for addressing credibility, transferability, and dependability (Simon & Goes, 2013).

The OCAI developed by Cameron and Quinn (2011) was used for assessing the contractors’ perception of the type of organizational culture pre and postdownsizing and the preferred organizational culture. The OCAI has been used extensively for scholarly research (van Eijnatten, van der Ark, & Holloway, 2015) and is used worldwide for assessing organizational culture (Nazarian & Atkinson, 2015). Six main dimensions of culture are assessed by the OCAI: dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, organization glue, strategic emphases, and criteria of success where each dimension presents four choices for which respondents assign points that must total 100 (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The description that most closely describes the organization within that dimension receives the highest points and the remaining points continue to be divided for the other three descriptions using the same criteria until all four total 100 points (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).
A respondent, for example, could assign one item 40 points because that item is the closest description of the organization for that dimension, 30 points to the next closest, 20 to another and 10 to the other, totaling 100 (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The OCAI is scored to reveal the dominant culture type of the organization, that is, hierarchy, market, clan, or adhocracy culture type (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The scores are further plotted on a worksheet that shows a graphical picture of the company’s culture called the culture profile (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Identifying the culture types and portraying the culture profiles was one of the values for my study because the profiles described and visually depicted the pre and postdownsizing and preferred culture types based on the perceptions of the contractors.

Cameron and Quinn (2011) cited several studies that tested the reliability of the OCAI: Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) administered the OCAI to 796 executives representing 86 utility firms. Cronbach alpha coefficients were calculated for each culture type and were found to be statistically significant; coefficients for all four types were greater than .70. Another study of 10,300 executives representing 1,064 companies, many of them Fortune 500 companies, conducted by Yeung, Brockbank, and Ulrich (1991) also found the OCAI reliable with the following reliability coefficient for each culture type: clan was .79, adhocracy was .80, hierarchy was .76, and market was .77. Reliability coefficients in both studies far exceeded the normal standards of reliability (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

The OCAI was also found to have validity (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). In a study conducted in 334 higher education institutions with 3,406 participants, a sample of the population of four-year colleges and universities in the United States, Cameron and
Freeman (1991) supported the validity of the OCAI. Differing dominant cultures were evident within each college and university; no institution depicted any one culture type and the domain of effectiveness in which an institution excelled, along with its decision making, structure, and strategy employed, matched the culture type assessed by the OCAI providing evidence of the instrument’s validity (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

The OCAI uses an ipsative rating scale (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). An ipsative measure is made up of a list of choices that describe behaviors, tasks, and other pertinent factors where a respondent chooses the item that is preferred strongly to the one that is least preferred (Hicks, 1970). Cameron and Quinn (2011) purposely chose this scale for the OCAI because of the advantages that an ipsative scale offers. The main advantage is the ability to identify and differentiate the uniqueness of the culture of an organization; the OCAI’s 100-point scale versus the Likert’s 5- or 7-point scale allows more differentiation in ratings (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Another advantage of an ipsative scale is the ability of respondents to choose the alternatives to the dominant characteristics of the organization instead of a range of the highest or the lowest for all areas as with a Likert scale (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Many studies have successfully used the OCAI for assessing and analyzing organizational culture (van Eijnatten et al., 2015). The OCAI identified the pre and postdownsizing culture types as well as the preferred culture type based on the perceptions of the contractors and provided a visual portrayal of the types and their dimensions.

Although there are several advantages to using both types of instruments there are also some disadvantages. The main concern for the researcher as the instrument is the
possibility of researcher bias (Chenail, 2011). There are, however, several techniques that a researcher can employ to manage possible bias such as through triangulation (Aguirre & Bolton, 2014). The OCAI as a survey instrument has the limitations that all survey instruments face: surveys limit respondents to selected answers and the data collected is subject to the accuracy of the survey instrument and the appropriateness to the inquiry (Simon & Goes, 2013). Triangulation of methods can be used to lessen the possible deficits that each instrument may present (Cronin, 2014).

**Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection**

Recruitment of participants for a research study is one of the most important aspects of a study (Jessiman, 2013). It is important because of its relationship to the trustworthiness and dependability of the data collected (Jessiman, 2013). As such, in qualitative research the site(s) that are chosen for collecting data has to be representative of and in line with the topic of inquiry (Kemparaj & Chavan, 2013). My study population included independent contractors that work for an ID all of whom have experienced downsizing. The ID where my study was conducted has been in business for over 30 years. Population selection is important because the results obtained are based on the population that is studied (Patton, 2015). Participants should be qualified and have the frame of reference needed to address the research questions (Morse et al., 2002). Four participants were selected using purposeful sampling. The sampling decision is important because of its relationship to the trustworthiness of the study (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). Purposeful sampling is a strategy for selecting specific cases to investigate that will offer in-depth information about the phenomenon of interest (Patton, 2015). All
participants have worked for the ID for over five years and were contractors in the newspaper industry.

In the qualitative tradition selecting an appropriate sample size is vital to a study (Marshall et al., 2013). The sample size is typically smaller in the qualitative tradition than in the quantitative tradition (Dworkin, 2012) and could be as small as a case of one (Patton, 2015). There are no set criteria for sample size in the qualitative tradition (Yin, 2016). As such, adequacy of sample size rather than the actual size of the sample is of importance (Bowen, 2008). Adequacy in qualitative research is based on the concept of saturation (O’Reilly & Parker, 2013). Data saturation is the point at which no new information is emerging from the data and the information has become redundant (El Hussein et al., 2015).

I used two data collection instruments in my study: I was the primary qualitative data collection instrument (Marshall & Rossman, 2016) and the OCAI developed by Cameron and Quinn (2011) was the quantitative data collection instrument. I obtained qualitative data using qualitative interviews (Yin, 2016). Some methodologists refer to this type of interviewing as the informal conversational interview (Patton, 2015). This type of interview is unstructured (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009).

After receiving approval to conduct the study at this ID and approval from Walden University’s IRB, I contacted the potential participants by telephone to briefly introduce the study and to setup a time to meet in person to extend the invitation to participate in the study, explain the purpose of the study, and to answer any questions the potential participants may have. These contractors were motor carriers that delivered
various products for the ID and worked between 2am and 7am each day. The potential participants and I agreed to meeting at the distribution center between the hours stated above.

I prepared study packets for each potential participant which included the informed consent form (see Appendix B) and the survey (see Appendix D). I placed the study packets in 9” x 12” brown postage paid envelopes that were self-addressed to me. As each potential participant arrived, I gave the study packet and explained the purpose of the study, explained each section of the packet, and stressed confidentiality given the sensitive nature of the topic. Although there is trust and rapport due to the pre-existing peer relationship, self-disclosure and confidentiality is crucial for maintaining ethical conduct (McDermid et al., 2014). All potential participants were clear about the purpose and asked questions about how to complete the OCAI. Each interaction lasted between five to fifteen minutes. I distributed four study packets.

Within one week I received one survey packet. After waiting three more weeks with no other packets returned, I determined that a second round of distribution may be needed since it was typical for newspaper contractors not to take action on non-essential functions until receiving several reminders. After receiving IRB approval I distributed the same study packet again with the addition of a cover page stating “Invitation Reminder”. I also included an electronic option for completing the OCAI and the qualitative questions in addition to the pen-and-paper option. Three participants responded using the pen-and-paper option and mailed their responses while one participant emailed the responses. I assured the participants that they would have access to the results of the
study and that I would contact them once the results were available and inform them about where and how to access them.

**Data Analysis Plan**

Data analysis is the procedure for converting the collected data into results (Patton, 2015). The overall goal of data analysis is to identify relationships and patterns from the data that will describe the phenomenon and to ultimately provide a captivating visual that transports the reader into the reality of the phenomenon (Tong, Winkelmayer, & Craig 2014). Although there are no overarching techniques (Yin, 2016) or established rules for qualitative analysis (Patton, 2015), there are structures that have been identified for guiding this stage of a study (Yin, 2014). Much of the analysis plan is related to the researcher, that is, the researcher’s style and thinking, depicting the data with impartiality, and reporting the results discovered (Patton, 2015; Yin, 2014). Analyzing qualitative data typically includes a five-phased progression: compiling, disassembling, reassembling, interpreting, and concluding (Yin, 2016). It is important to note that there can be an alternating and repeating relationship among these five phases meaning, that the data could be disassembled then reassembled then disassembled again if needed (Yin, 2016). This approach was used for analyzing the data.

Much of the first two phases apply to the qualitative portion of the data collected because the quantitative data collected using the OCAI by virtue of its design has already performed these steps leaving only the reassembling, interpreting, and concluding stages to be completed. As such, compiling the qualitative data started informally during the actual data collection process where I considered the amount of data to collect so that I
could gather data that would unearth a deeper understanding of the phenomenon (Yin, 2016). The total amount of qualitative data collected was then assembled for the next phase (Yin, 2016). This was done by transcribing precisely the recorded data from the interviews, which is considered the best way to gain the most in-depth information (Malagon-Maldonado, 2014). The transcriptions were also checked several times for accuracy.

The complied qualitative data was then disassembled by first assigning non-identifiable labels for each participant specifically P1, P2, P3, and P4. Then the data was divided into smaller parts based on emerging themes through the process of coding (Yin, 2016). Coding assigns labels to the data as a means of separating the data into categories or themes (Malagon-Maldonado, 2014). These labels are derived from using actual participant words or by assigning representative names to words (Malagon-Maldonado, 2014). Codes were developed based on answers to the research questions using the initial qualitative questions then the subsequent clarifying and probing questions for each participant. To aid in analyzing coded qualitative data researchers can use Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis (CAQDAS) software such as ATLAS.ti or NVivo (Zamawe, 2015). I used NVivo for identifying themes in the coded data. NVivo is one of the more widely used software programs for analyzing coded qualitative data (Marshall & Rossman, 2016) while preserving the quality and rigor of the study (Bhattacharya, 2015).

The results from the NVivo program allowed for the reassembling of the data. Reassembling brings the data back together after identifying relevant emerging themes
(Yin, 2016). In this phase the data can be shown graphically or in table form (Yin, 2016). For the qualitative data from the NVivo results I used content analysis to identify repeating words. Repeating words depict patterns and from the resulting patterns, themes can be identified (Patton, 2015). NVivo captured the words that were repeated and produced the frequency of them. I related the emerging themes back to the literature and conceptual framework.

For the quantitative data, I used organizational culture profiles to graphically depict the data collected using the OCAI. The organizational culture profile creates a picture of the organization’s culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Visualizing data and results is a powerful form of analysis (Patton, 2015). The organizational culture profile is a plotted graph that is formed from the individual and average scores that resulted from all the items on the OCAI (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The resulting image looks like a kite (see Figure 5) and will represent the dominant culture type of the organization for each environment, that is, pre and postdownsizing and preferred culture types.

This picture allows for several comparisons: (a) the type of culture that dominates the company, (b) discrepancies between the current and preferred culture, (c) the strength of the dominant culture type, (d) the congruence of the culture profiles generated on different attributes and by different individuals in the company, and (e) a comparison of the company’s profile against other profiles internally and externally (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The dominant type of culture, for example, is indicated by the quadrant that has
In Figure 5, the hierarchy culture type is dominant. Culture profiles not only identified and visualized the type of culture pre and postdownsizing and preferred but they also identified how culture can be changed or improved (Cameron and Quinn, 2011).

At this point I brought the qualitative and the quantitative data back together. This blending of methods is a form of triangulation (Patton, 2015). Triangulation is the use of multiple methods for gathering data to answer the research questions (Heale & Forbes, 2013). It is recommended for case studies that the use of methodological triangulation would strengthen the validity of the study (Yin, 2013). This recommendation is based on the idea that no one method can give as ample an account of the phenomenon of interest.
as the use of multiple methods could (Torrance, 2012). There are four main types of triangulation: (a) data triangulation, (b) investigator triangulation, (c) theory triangulation, and (d) methodological triangulation (Denzin, 2009). Of the four types, data triangulation and methodological triangulation are considered the best approach for strengthening the validity of case studies (Yin, 2013). I used methodological triangulation.

Methodological triangulation is the merging of multiple methods to investigate a phenomenon aimed at strengthening the conclusion(s) drawn about that phenomenon (Heesen, Bright, & Zucker, 2014). Methodological triangulation is the most commonly used form of triangulation (Wilson, 2014). There are two types of methodological triangulation, within-method and across-method (Gorissen, van Bruggen, & Jochems, 2013). Within-method uses multiple data collection techniques within one method either quantitative or qualitative (Bekhet & Zauszniewski, 2012) while across-method uses both qualitative and quantitative data collections strategies (Gorissen et al., 2013). I used the across-method type by combining quantitative data collected from the OCAI and qualitative data from the qualitative questions.

The fourth phase of the analytical process was to interpret the reassembled data (Yin, 2016). Interpreting is explaining the meaning of the results (Patton, 2015) and is one of the most important parts of a research study (del Río Carral & Santiago-Delefosse, 2015). Of importance is achieving a comprehensive interpretation of the findings (Yin, 2016). To do this I endeavored to realize five characteristics of a good interpretation: (a) completeness, (b) fairness, (c) empirical accuracy, (d) value-added, and (e) credibility
Interpretation allowed me to interpret the findings based on my own meaning (Yin, 2016). Interpretation should also present a link to the conceptual framework of the study and incorporate confirmation from the data to support the analysis (O’Brien, Harris, Beckman, Reed, & Cook, 2014). To accomplish this I paraphrased participant quotes where applicable that related to the research questions while connecting the findings to the conceptual framework. This analysis described the effects of downsizing on organizational culture based on the perceptions of the contractors.

During the interpreting stage researchers must also identify and present any discrepant data also called negative cases (Maxwell, 2013). Discrepant data are those that cannot be conformed to match a particular concept or data that does not suit the conceptual foundation of the study (Lewis, 2009). Whether the data supports or does not support the premise of the study researchers must report all data collected in a study (Lewis, 2009). There were no discrepant data found.

The final phase, concluding, draws all of the analysis together to address the overarching reason for the study (Yin, 2016). Concluding is not a restating of the findings but rather the answers to the purpose and importance of the study (Yin, 2016). There are no set rules about how researchers should draw conclusions (Yin, 2016). Conclusions can be researcher formulated or they can follow any one of or a combination of five types of formats: (a) calling for new research, (b) challenging conventional social structures, (c) offering new concepts or discoveries, (d) generalizing, or (e) taking action (Yin, 2016). My conclusions represented the meaning of the contractors’ experience before
downsizing occurred, after downsizing occurred, and their perceptions about how downsizing affected organizational culture. My conclusions also described the culture that the contractors preferred as well as recommendations for the newspaper industry and the implications to research.

**Issues of Trustworthiness**

**Credibility**

Credibility weighs the validity of the conclusions made by the researcher against the real world environment of which those conclusions were made (Mabuza, Govender, Ogunbanjo, & Mash, 2014). There are several criteria that can be used to achieve credibility in a study (Mabuza et al., 2014). These include using detailed participant quotes (Cho & Lee, 2014), rich, thick descriptions (Moon et al., 2013), adequate engagement with the phenomenon of interest, peer debriefing, member checking, and triangulation (Mabuza et al., 2014). I employed four of the aforementioned techniques for realizing credibility.

I incorporated paraphrased participant quotes, when appropriate, throughout the interpretation and conclusion stages. I used rich, thick descriptions within the study to describe all aspects of my study. I also utilized peer debriefing, which was performed by a team of specialists versed in qualitative research and a professional with several years of experience in the newspaper industry as recommended by Kemparaj and Chavan (2013). Last, I used methodological triangulation. Methodological triangulation uses a combination of methods to counteract the deficiencies of using a single method, which strengthens the trustworthiness of the interpretations (Cronin, 2014). Triangulation also
reduces researcher bias (Cho & Lee, 2014) and saturated the data (Fusch & Ness, 2015).

Data saturation is the point at which additional data is no longer producing new information (Guest, Bunce, Johnson, 2006). It is similarly important to mention the credibility of the researcher as well because the researcher is the main data collection instrument and the person that performs the analysis of the data (Kemparaj & Chavan, 2013). As such, my qualifications, training, and experience also contributed to the credibility of the study (Kemparaj & Chavan, 2013). From my qualifications and experience as an ID and contractor I am able to understand, for example, some of the subtleties that the participants used to describe their experiences during the data collection phase.

**Transferability**

Transferability is the ability to transfer the findings of the study to other similar environments (Mabuza et al., 2014). Thick description and the type of sampling strategy specifically purposeful sampling are vital to achieving transferability (Mabuza et al., 2014). Thick description requires detailed documentation of the study setting, how participants are selected, and the findings of the study (Mabuza et al., 2014). The detailed descriptions not only aim at taking the reader into the situation (Lewis, 2009) but it also allows the reader to assess the reliability of the interpretations made based on the data (Moon et al., 2013). In addition, the reader makes the final decisions as to the transferability of the findings (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). Data saturation through methodological triangulation also supported transferability. I used thick description, a purposeful sampling strategy, and methodological triangulation to address transferability.
Dependability

Dependability involves the constancy of data in a different setting in the long-term (Elo et al., 2014). The research process should be fully documented and have a proper flow (Porritt, Gomersall, & Lockwood, 2014) so that the study can be repeated (Mabuza et al., 2014). This detail that would allow for repetition is called an audit trail (Mabuza et al., 2014). An audit trail is, in essence, a paper trail that includes all records associated with the study such as raw data, personal notes, and findings and reports (Greene, 2014). Dependability can also be accomplished using methodological triangulation (Mabuza et al., 2014). Methodological triangulation realized data saturation (Fusch & Ness, 2015). When other researchers are able to follow the paper trail of a research study, dependability is considered to be significant (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). Both methodological triangulation and an audit trail were used to achieve dependability.

Confirmability

Confirmability is the impartial and unbiased presentation of the data provided by the participants and interpretations that have not been influenced or created by the researcher in any way (Elo et al., 2014). Confirmability involves the objectivity of the research findings (Malagon-Maldonado, 2014). One technique that researchers can use to realize confirmability is through the process of reflexivity (Petty, Thomson, & Stew, 2012). Reflexivity is a form of self-debriefing (Sherry, 2013) where the researcher constantly assesses his or her presumptions, personal feelings, and biases and any influence they may have on the research study (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). Reflexivity is particularly important for the inside researcher (Greene, 2014). An audit trail is another
strategy for enhancing confirmability (Houghton, Casey, Shaw, & Murphy, 2013). Further, confirmability is also achieved when a study has credibility, transferability, and dependability (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). I practiced reflexivity throughout the study. I did this by describing, for example, my role as an inside researcher, my qualifications, my occupation, my relationship to the participants, and through constant self-criticism (Mabuza et al., 2014).

**Ethical Procedures**

Ethics in qualitative research involves the moral considerations that a researcher makes throughout the study (Edwards & Mauthner, 2012). Ethics are reflected in the decisions and the responsibility that the researcher takes (Edwards & Mauthner, 2012). This is important because the investigator is the instrument in the inquiry (Gordon & Patterson, 2013). A researcher must make ethical choices from the inception of the study to the conclusion of it (Edwards & Mauthner, 2012). The ethical underpinning of the study is the vehicle for achieving qualitative excellence (Tracy, 2010).

To strive for qualitative quality, I followed four practices that are used in qualitative research to address ethics. These are: procedural ethics, situational ethics, relational ethics, and exiting ethics (Tracy, 2010). Procedural ethics concerns the actions that are required by those that govern the research process such as a university’s IRB (Tracy, 2010). These requirements are designed to protect the participants in a study including protection from harm, the right to know the benefits and consequences of participating, and the right to participate or not (Tracy, 2010). A part of safeguarding participants also includes protecting the data collected and the participant’s identity
There is also consideration for the ‘ethical management of data’ where the researcher weighs the value or harm in reporting participants’ experiences during the study (Cassidy, 2013). Practicing procedural ethics also garners data credibility (Tracy, 2010).

To ensure procedural ethics no potential participant was contacted or any data collected until the required approval was received from Walden University’s IRB, approval number 12-16-13-0144559. All study packets that were distributed included a consent form (see Appendix B) which detailed the purpose, confidentiality, the benefits and risks of participating in my study and the option to withdraw from the study at any time. This allowed each participant to properly consider the benefits and risks of participating in the study and choosing to participate or not. To protect the identity of the participants, each participant was assigned a non-identifiable label and I used the same throughout the study namely: P1, P2, P3, and P4 to represent them. Each participant was informed that they may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. Further, during data collection I was constantly aware of not violating the rights of the participants; their moral rights always took precedent over any social benefits that could be derived from the study (Ahmed & Ahmed, 2014). The collected data was stored both electronically on my personal computer and the written format in a locked cabinet drawer and will be deleted and destroyed after five years.

Researchers can offer incentives to study participants as a means of eliciting a higher response rate to participating in a study (Perez et al., 2013). Although incentives may lead to higher response rate the use of incentives also introduce several issues
(Sánchez-Fernández et al., 2012). The main problem of offering incentives is the possibility of biasing the study (Göritz, 2006). Participants may, for example, fill-in any kind of data to finish the survey to be able to collect the prize (Göritz, 2006). I did not offer any incentives to the participants for participating in my study.

Situational ethics addresses unforeseen situations that may arise during data collection and the best course of action to take with constant consideration of the moral implications (Tracy, 2010). The researcher must be reflective not only about the methods chosen but also how to handle sensitive data and the possible repercussions to the participants (Tracy, 2010). I addressed all unexpected situations by carefully weighing the benefits to the participants and making the best decision for preserving their rights. I followed the guidelines of The Belmont Report to ensure the ethical treatment of my participants such as Vollmer and Howard (2010) discussed.

Relational ethics primarily involves the moral actions of the researcher, his or her character, decisions made, and how those decisions will affect others (Tracy, 2010). Relational ethics is the ethics of the relationship between the researcher and the researched (Tracy, 2010). Although the goal of the researcher is to advance knowledge, proper handling of the researched is of importance to the relational ethic (Tracy, 2010). Virtues such as caring, keeping promises, and mutual respect are some of the character traits of the relationally ethical researcher; participants are not just used then discarded (Tracy, 2010). I benefited from my position as an inside researcher which allowed me to easily practice relational ethics.
Exiting ethics involve how the researcher interacts with the participants after the study is completed (Tracy, 2010). This includes the actual exit from the researcher-participant interactions and the sharing of the findings (Tracy, 2010). I practiced exiting ethics by assuring the participants that they would have access to the results of the study and that I would contact them once the results were available and inform them about where and how to access them.

Ethical considerations also make it important for me to address my role as an inside researcher. An inside researcher is one who is a member of the organization in which he or she conducts research (Greene, 2014). Ethical issues that could arise as an inside researcher can be answered based on the concept of ethics itself. The ethically conscious researcher participates in a constant interplay between the moral decisions made and the ultimate benefit to the participant(s) and advancing knowledge (Edwards & Mauthner, 2012; Tracy, 2010). As an inside researcher I considered the advantages and disadvantages of being an inside investigator and found the advantages to far outweigh the disadvantages. Advantages include, knowledge of the setting, interaction (Greene, 2014), ease of access to the participants, camaraderie, a level of trust (Kim, 2012), and the possibility of unearthing confidential information (Cumming-Potvin, 2013) and disadvantages include being too subjective and biased (Greene, 2014).

Summary

All organizations have a culture (Heckelman et al., 2013). A preferred organizational culture results in overall company success (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Shahzad et al., 2012) whereas an undesired culture may result in an opposite outcome
(Schein, 1999). Downsizing is an organizational change (Cascio, 2014) and organizational culture can be affected by downsizing because culture affects all areas of an organization (Neagu & Nicula, 2012). A qualitative case study approach was the best option for describing the effects of downsizing on organizational culture based on the perceptions of the contractors. I presented all aspects of the research method: (a) research design and rationale, (b) role of the researcher, (c) methodology, (d) participant selection logic, (e) instrumentation, (f) procedures for recruitment, participation, and data collection, (g) data analysis plan, and (h) issues of trustworthiness along with the rational for all the decisions and selections made. Throughout the design for investigating the phenomenon of interest, qualitative rigor and trustworthiness overshadowed the decision making process (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). As suggested by Bansal and Corley (2012) I used steps to not only describe the data but to also portray the data so that the reader could make the connection between the raw data, the analyzed data, and the conclusions drawn from the analysis. In Chapter 4, I present the results of the data collection process. The findings and implications follow in Chapter 5.
Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this study was to explore what effects downsizing has on organizational culture based on the perception of contractors in the newspaper industry. Through a qualitative case study approach, I provided information about how downsizing may affect organizational culture based on the lived experiences of independent contractors. The results addressed the overarching research question and sub-questions. The main question was:

What are the effects of downsizing on organizational culture as experienced by independent contractors in the newspaper industry?

1. What was the type of organizational culture before downsizing occurred?
2. What is the current type of organizational culture after downsizing?
3. What is the preferred type of organizational culture?
4. What are the perceived effects of downsizing on organizational culture?

The results may offer leaders in the newspaper industry information that will assist them in creating a more effective working environment for contractors. This chapter includes the research setting, demographics, data collection, data analysis, evidence of trustworthiness, and study results.

**Research Setting**

My study was conducted at an ID located in the southeastern United States. A purposeful sampling strategy was used to select the participants. All interaction with participants occurred at the ID’s distribution center and via telephone. The distribution center is separate from the main office location of the ID and used for product pickup for
delivery by the contractors. Contractors typically arrive between 2am and 5am each morning to pick up their route(s) for delivery. The distribution center is an open air, commercial loading dock. As such, the setting did not allow me to meet with participants in a separate location within the building. I interacted with the potential participants as they arrived either by the loading dock or at their cars whichever each potential participant preferred. Both meeting at the distribution center and talking by telephone allowed for privacy and confidentiality. There were no changes in the setting throughout the data collection phase, nor did the participants experience any adverse conditions or situations that interfered or influenced the results.

**Demographics**

My study population included independent contractors who have experienced downsizing. The participants have the qualification for addressing the research questions. All contractors within the population have experienced downsizing. The population that is selected is important because the results obtained are based on the population that is studied (Patton, 2015). Participants should be qualified and have the frame of reference needed to address the research questions (Morse et al., 2002). Four potential participants received a study packet. One participant did not complete the study. The final sample size consisted of three participants. There are no set criteria for sample size in qualitative research (Yin, 2016). Adequacy of sample size rather than the actual size of the sample is of importance (Bowen, 2008). To determine adequacy qualitative researchers rely on the concept of saturation (O’Reilly & Parker, 2013). Although showing data saturation is not required for some qualitative studies (O’Reilly & Parker, 2013) it is powerful for
establishing the quality of the study (El Hussein et al., 2015) regarding credibility, reliability, transferability, and validity of the study results. Data saturation was reached when there was no new information emerging from the data and the information had become redundant (El Hussein et al., 2015).

The independent contractors at the time of the study were in the newspaper industry for at least 14 years and worked for the ID for at least five years. One participant was in the industry for over 30 years, one for 21 years, and the other two for over 14 years. Their ages were estimated to range between 40 and 55 years of age. One participant had a bachelor’s degree in history and another was a lawyer in the country from which the participant emigrated. Participants represented a cross section of races: One participant was Caucasian, one participant was Hispanic, and one participant was mixed race. One participant had some supervisory functions. Two of the participants worked for other companies, one in the newspaper industry and the other was a contractor for a delivery service company. One participant worked for a major newspaper publisher before coming to this ID.

Data Collection

Participant recruitment is one of the most important aspects of a research study because of its relationship to the trustworthiness and dependability of the data collected (Jessiman, 2013). As such, in qualitative research the site(s) that are chosen for collecting data has to be representative of and in line with the topic of inquiry (Kemparaj & Chavan, 2013). The ID where my study was conducted has been in business for over 30 years. After receiving permission from the ID and approval from Walden University’s IRB, I
contacted the potential participants by telephone to introduce the study and to setup a
time to meet in person so that I could extend the invitation to participate in the study,
further explain the purpose of the study, and to answer questions that they may have.
These contractors were motor carriers who delivered various products for the ID and
worked between 2am-7am each day. I met with the four potential participants at the
agreed upon location, the ID’s distribution center. The distribution center is where the
contractors pick up their routes for delivery each day. The distribution center is a large
warehouse that has a large bay with a loading dock. I met with each potential participant
in the parking lot of the distribution center.

Before these meetings, I had prepared study packets for each potential participant
which included the informed consent form (see Appendix B) and the
survey/questionnaire (see Appendix D). I placed the study packets in 9” x 12” brown
postage paid envelopes that were self-addressed to me. As each potential participant
arrived, I gave the study packet and explained the purpose of the study, explained each
section of the packet, and stressed confidentiality given the sensitive nature of the topic.
Although there may be trust and rapport due to the preexisting peer relationship, self-
disclosure and confidentiality is crucial for maintaining ethical conduct (McDermid et al.,
2014).

During these recruitment meetings, I answered several questions for each
potential participant. Questions asked mainly involved understanding how to complete
the OCAI. All potential participants seemed clear about the purpose of the study and
what was required to complete the study. I assured the participants that they would have
access to the results of the study and that I would contact them once the results were available and inform them about where and how to access them. Each interaction lasted between five to fifteen minutes. I distributed four study packets.

Within one week I received one survey packet. After waiting three more weeks with no other packets returned, I determined that a second round of distribution may be needed since it was typical for newspaper contractors not to take action on non-essential functions until receiving several reminders. After receiving IRB approval I distributed the same study packet again with the addition of a cover page stating “Invitation Reminder”. I also included an electronic option for completing the OCAI and the qualitative questions in addition to the pen-and-paper option. Three participants responded using the pen-and-paper option and mailed their responses while one participant emailed the responses. One participant wrote a note stating, “Have read the survey however cannot complete same because I don’t understand its contents sorry.” I subsequently contacted the participant to help explain the contents so as to facilitate completion.

The final sample size and the data collected still met the requirements for data saturation, evidence of trustworthiness, and were sufficient for answering the research questions. There were no deviations from the data collection plan outlined in Chapter 3. I did not encounter any unusual circumstances during the data collection phase.

**Data Analysis**

After compiling the qualitative data I assigned nonidentifiable labels to each participant namely P1, P2, P3, and P4. Next, I subsequently removed P3 because this participant had left the company. I started coding the data manually to become familiar
with possible themes, to determine the best approach for categorizing emerging themes, and to have a basis for comparison between my manual coding and the analysis derived from NVivo. I used NVivo 11 to analyze the qualitative data to identify categories, emerging themes, common words used by the participants, and the frequency of those words. Through comparison analysis of my manual coding and the coding from NVivo I found similarities between the two. I decided from this comparison and the research questions, emerging themes should be placed into categories. There were 14 emerging themes. This coding configuration aligned the results with the conceptual framework and research questions.

Themes were grouped within the four categories: (a) predownsizing culture, (b) postdownsizing culture, (c) preferred culture, and (d) downsizing effects on culture. The predownsizing culture themes (see Figure 6) were (a) sense of family, (b) job security, (c) attitude towards the company, (d) motivation, and (e) well-being. The postdownsizing themes (see Figure 7) were (a) sense of family, (b) attitude towards the company, (c) job security, (d) money (income), (e) workload, (f) well-being, and (g) motivation. The preferred culture themes (see Figure 8) were (a) less bureaucracy, (b) preference, performance, potential and opportunity, and (c) family setting. The downsizing effects on culture themes (see Figure 9) were (a) attitude, (b) change in culture, (c) contractor versus employee (d) guilt as a survivor, (e) job security, (f) money and perks, (g) relationships, (h) self-preservation, (i) well-being, and (j) workload.
Figure 6. Predownsizing culture themes.

Figure 7. Postdownsizing culture themes.

Figure 8. Preferred culture themes.
Figure 9. Downsizing effects on culture themes.

For the quantitative data analysis, the OCAI survey responses were scored for each participant and the resulting scores were entered into Microsoft Excel to calculate the averages required for plotting the culture profiles. The scores and averages (see Appendix E) were used to create the culture profiles. Culture profiles were plotted for the pre and postdownsizing culture types and the preferred culture types. In addition, culture profiles were plotted for each of the six dimensions of culture which will allow for several comparisons: (a) the type of culture that dominates the company, (b) differences between the current and preferred culture, and (c) the strength of the dominant culture type.

Both the qualitative and quantitative analyses were then combined to report the results based on the emerging themes. Through the combination of both analyses, methodological triangulation, the data was saturated as described by Fusch and Ness (2015) and provided in-depth and detailed information about the effects of downsizing on organizational culture. There were no discrepant data.
Evidence of Trustworthiness

Credibility

Credibility can be established in a variety of ways (Mabuza et al., 2014). To enhance credibility I employed four practices. I incorporated, as appropriate, paraphrased participant quotes. I paraphrased to ensure confidentiality of the participants. I used thick and in-depth descriptions throughout the study. Through peer debriefing, a team of qualitative research specialists and a professional with years of experience in the newspaper industry reviewed my study. The qualitative research specialists were able to confirm proper alignment of my study and the use of the appropriate protocols for each part of my design. The professional with years of experience concurred with the information presented about the newspaper industry and past contractor experience. Last, I used methodological triangulation. Methodological triangulation saturated the data, which is important for the credibility of a study. Methodological triangulation also helped to reduce my bias by providing two lenses for viewing the phenomenon as suggested by Gorissen et al. (2013). The use of two data sources worked to address the possible deficiencies of using only one source and increases the credibility of the study results.

Transferability

To establish transferability I used thick description and the type of sampling strategy. Through thick description I detailed every aspect of the study especially detailed documentation of the study setting, participant selection, and the results of the study. In addition, a purposeful sampling strategy also addressed transferability. The participants were qualified to represent the topic of inquiry and they provided honest, detailed
information regarding their lived experiences. One participant, for example, spoke openly about being concerned that the newspaper industry was declining. Data saturation through methodological triangulation also promoted transferability. Ultimately the reader determines the transferability of the study results (Marshall & Rossman, 2016).

**Dependability**

The constancy of data in a different setting in the long-term describes the dependability of the study results (Elo et al., 2014). Proper documentation and flow (Porritt, Gomersall, & Lockwood, 2014) so that the study can be repeated (Mabuza et al., 2014) are important steps for enhancing dependability. An audit trail provides the detail that would allow for repetition (Mabuza et al., 2014). An audit trail is, in essence, a paper trail that includes all records associated with the study such as raw data, personal notes, and findings and reports (Greene, 2014). Dependability can also be accomplished using methodological triangulation (Mabuza et al., 2014). Methodological triangulation realized data saturation (Fusch & Ness, 2015). Dependability is considered to be high when other researchers are able to follow the paper trail of a research study (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). I used both methodological triangulation and an audit trail to enhance dependability. All research processes and procedures were documented in detail throughout the study. This detail allows for repetition in other settings and the consistency of data. The constancy of the data is further supported through methodological triangulation.
Confirmability

Confirmability is similar to dependability as a process (Houghton et al., 2013). Confirmability is the impartial and unbiased presentation of the data provided by the participants and interpretations that have not been influenced or created by the researcher in any way (Elo et al., 2014). One technique that researchers can use to realize confirmability is through the process of reflexivity (Petty et al., 2012). Reflexivity is a form of self-debriefing (Sherry, 2013), a researcher’s self-criticism to avoid exerting any influence on the research study based on his or her presumptions, personal feelings, and biases (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). An audit trail is another strategy for enhancing confirmability (Houghton et al., 2013). Further, confirmability is also achieved when the study results have credibility, transferability, and dependability (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011).

I practiced reflexivity throughout the study. I did this by describing, for example, my role as an inside researcher, my qualifications, my occupation, my relationship to the participants, and through constant self-criticism as described by Mabuza et al. (2014). I constantly considered my assumptions and personal experience and feelings to mitigate any influence they may have on influencing the study. I endeavored to remain objective throughout all aspects of the study. My self-debriefing and self-criticism were constant. I also used an audit trail to enhance confirmability. Realizing credibility, transferability, and dependability also ensures confirmability (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011).
Study Results

From the qualitative data analysis 14 themes emerged that I categorized based on relevance to the research inquiry. These categories are (a) predownsizing culture, (b) postdownsizing culture, (c) preferred culture, and (d) downsizing effects on culture. The results are presented based on these themes while combining the qualitative and quantitative findings.

Predownsizing Culture Category

The predownsizing environment depicted participants’ experience of the culture before downsizing occurred. Five primary themes emerged: (a) attitude towards the company, (b) job security, (c) motivation, (d) sense of family, and (e) well-being. Of the five themes, attitude towards the company and sense of family garnered the most references. Table 1 lists the five themes with the total participants and references for each theme and Figure 10 shows a picture of how each participant related to each theme by comparison.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude towards the company</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job security</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sense of family</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well-being</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Emergent Theme One: Attitude Towards the Company

There was a sense that the company was a good company. Contractors enjoyed an amicable relationship with the company and there was no feeling of ill will. P2 felt comfortable enough in knowing that the company valued the job being performed and that P2 had the company’s interest at heart, so P2 was not concerned about job loss and did not feel worried. There was enormous confidence in the company’s ability to recognize the contribution of one contractor versus another. P1 felt that there was equality across all contractors in terms of the work performed, the compensation for that
work, and equal opportunity. P1 also felt happy and thought that the culture before downsizing was motivating.

Participant responses suggested that the atmosphere was comfortable and no one felt controlled. It was more of an environment of collaboration. P2 experienced cooperation from management given even personal circumstances that may arise. In fact, the environment was so comfortable that P4 did not necessarily recognize any adverse situation that related specifically to the culture of the company. P4 did note however that this ID was not different from a newspaper publisher that was 50 times the organizational size where P4 had previously worked as an independent contractor.

These findings aligned with the idea that all companies have a culture (Schein, 1990). Participant descriptions about their attitude towards the company’s depicted what both Schein and Cameron and Quinn (2011) termed as the values and attributes that define the members of an organization. All the participants felt that the company was a good company. All the participants felt that the atmosphere of the company was comfortable. These findings also represented the organization glue characteristics of a possible culture type within organizations. In a certain type of culture, the clan culture, the bond that keeps the company together is mutual trust and loyalty that fosters high commitment (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Participants’ responses suggested a high commitment to the ID. Organization glue is one of the six dimensions of culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). All participants had a good attitude towards the company before downsizing occurred.
Emergent Theme Two: Job Security

The reactions to job security before downsizing occurred was mixed, and in one instance unexpected. There was a sense that the company did not make decisions based solely on the bottom line but considered the contractors in making those decisions. P2 felt the company cared and considered the effect, good or bad, that may happen from decisions and that management knew that P2 was doing the best job possible and that P2 wanted the company to succeed. This not only bolstered P2’s confidence in the company but made P2 feel secure. Although there was an overall sense of job security, this feeling was not shared by all participants. P1 felt insecure and related it to downsizing. It is unclear if this insecurity was related to pre or postdownsizing environment but P1 made the statement when responding to the predownsizing environment.

These characteristics are similar to those in the management of employees dimension of a possible type of organizational culture, the hierarchy culture type (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Management style in this type of culture is concerned about job security. Participants’ feelings about job security suggested that the company exhibited characteristics of the hierarchy culture; predictability, security, and stability (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Their responses also show as Schein (2010) suggested that group members react to the actions of the leader and that shared experience becomes a shared value or belief. Although contractors had mixed feelings about job security before downsizing there was still some consensus that the actions of management provided a fairly secure environment.
Emergent Theme Three: Motivation

Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). Organizational culture is the values that are taken-for-granted, the assumptions, the expectations, and those attributes that define the members of an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Participants felt motivated. The motivation experienced was influenced by the belief that contractors were treated equally. Consistent with Schein (2010) members of the group have a shared belief. This shared belief formed based on their perceptions of being treated equal. Equality was important. For P1 equality in work expectations and pay was the motivation. Because P1 experienced this equality, P1 was more motivated to go the extra mile, to do extra work, to make an extra effort to accomplish tasks. Motivation was also driven by job security and a sense of integrity. P2 was motivated to do whatever was possible to ensure that the other contractors were able to continue in their positions. This stance is descriptive of the clan culture type. Members share the same goals and look out for the well-being of each other; a family setting (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The clan culture type is also called the collaborate culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). This collaboration was evident in the motivation among the contractors to help each other and to go the extra mile. Organizations exhibiting the clan culture attributes are marked by teamwork, shared values and goals; they are cohesive and depict a high level of participatory behavior (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).
Emergent Theme Four: Sense of Family

Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). Organizational culture is the values that are taken-for-granted, the assumptions, the expectations, and those attributes that define the members of an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). One-hundred percent of the participant responses included a sense of family. Already from the three previous themes this sense of family is obvious. Camaraderie was evident. In terms of themes, the word family was the second most frequently used word. Participants were relaxed and experienced an atmosphere of friendship, cooperation, care, and teamwork. This sense of family was not just perceived to be happening between contractors but also between the management and contractors as well. P1 felt like a part of the team just because of the many years working for the company. P2 had a high sense of family referring to the family experience more often than any other participant. Similar to an actual family, P2 sought to protect the interest of all members within the company. In every reference, P2 mentioned protection for the group and mutual benefit for the group.

These experiences are representative of one type of organizational culture, the clan culture. The participants, in their responses, described the core attributes of the dominant characteristics dimension of this culture type, that is, the setting is personal, there is a sense of family, and sharing among members (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Organizations that depict a clan culture act like an extended family (Cameron & Quinn,
The atmosphere is friendly and the glue that holds the members of the organization together is loyalty (Camron & Quinn, 2011). In the clan culture environment, members have a high commitment to the company (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Organizational commitment was evident from the participants’ experiences predownsizing. This finding is supported by Ekwutosi and Moses (2013) suggestion that employees that experience a culture where they feel cared about tend to be more committed to the company. This organization could also be considered superior to other organizations according to Ghorbanhosseini (2013) because contractor commitment and loyalty to the company are evident. With the exception of the attitude towards the company theme, the sense of family theme was the second primary emergent theme in the predownsizing environment.

**Emergent Theme Five: Well-being**

Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). Organizational culture is the values that are taken-for-granted, the assumptions, the expectations, and those attributes that define the members of an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The majority of the participants felt that the company cared about their well-being. They seem to measure that care based on how the company treated them. P2 believed that the company’s decisions, for example, were not purely driven by increasing profits but that the company genuinely cared about the well-being of contractors. Well-being is also evident in the
happiness that participants experienced and a mutual care. A culture where employees feel that their well-being is considered and where they are included in the decisions that affect them are usually more committed to the company (Ekwutosi & Moses, 2013). The feeling of well-being is also linked to their feeling of job security and a family setting.

The six dimensions of culture that represent the clan type of culture as developed by Cameron and Quinn (2011) effectively apply to how the participants perceive their well-being. The clan culture attributes represented in these six dimensions are: (a) a personal extended family marked by an atmosphere of sharing, (b) a management team that nurtures and guides their members, (c) leadership that promotes teamwork, (d) there is mutual loyalty, trust, and commitment among the members, (e) concern for the welfare of each group member is evident, and (f) without all the aforementioned attributes success is not realized (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Leadership and organizational culture are positively related to job satisfaction (Azanza et al., 2013). Organizational culture influences not only job satisfaction but commitment as well; both are needed for overall success (Shah et al., 2012). This is important because worker perceptions of satisfaction are linked to their experience relationally within the company, their earnings, and their working environment (Belias & Koustelios, 2014).

**Quantitative Findings - Predownsizing**

The quantitative results strongly supported the qualitative findings. Plotted survey scores depicted that before downsizing occurred the culture type was evenly split between the clan and hierarchy culture type. Both had an average score of 31 for all participants. Figure 11 shows this split and the high emphasis on the internal focus and
integration with some flexibility and discretion and stability and control. The clan culture
type suggests a more family type organization where members have shared values and
goals and are more cohesive (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Contractors felt that they were
like a family and that there was equality where all members shared similar benefits
including all ups and downs. The equally strong emphasis on the hierarchy culture type
also suggested that although there is collaboration there is still a strong presence of
control; members feel they still follow set rules and are accountable to the company
(Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Both the clan characteristics and the hierarchy characteristics
were the dominant culture types. Participant qualitative responses supported and
described the results depicted by the culture profile but tended to describe in more detail
the clan attributes. These are interaction as a family, nurturing relationships, teamwork,
mutual loyalty and trust, and caring among group members (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).
Figure 11. Predownsizing culture profile.

**Postdownsizing Culture Category**

Seven primary themes emerged in the postdownsizing category: (a) attitude towards the company, (b) job security, (c) money (income), (d) motivation, (e) sense of family, (f) well-being, and (g) workload. Of the seven themes, attitude towards the company and well-being was referenced the most. Table 2 lists the seven themes with the total participants and references for each theme and Figure 12 shows a picture of how each participant related to each theme by comparison. One-hundred percent of the participants had references to every emergent theme.
Table 2

*Postdownsizing Culture Themes*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude towards the company</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job security</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Money (income)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sense of family</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well-being</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workload</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 12. Postdownsizing culture participant comparisons per theme.*
Emergent Theme One: Attitude Towards the Company

Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). Organizational culture is the values that are taken-for-granted, the assumptions, the expectations, and those attributes that define the members of an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The attitude of the participants towards the company was remarkably positive after experiencing downsizing. The company was still considered to be a good company. Despite downsizing the majority of participants had no ill will towards the company. It was acknowledged that downsizing was a difficult decision but regardless there was no sense that the results of the downsizing were meant to be harmful to any person, those downsized or those that remained. Participants did not feel that the downsizing decisions were personal in any way. This may have been a result of how the company executed the downsizing. Most of the issues that occur after downsizing are not caused by downsizing itself but by how the downsizing is carried out (Talwar, 2015).

The results were expected in terms of organizational culture itself but not in terms of how downsizing can affect different aspects of an organization. According to Navalino et al. (2014) downsizing negatively affects employee commitment. Rehman and Naeem (2012) suggested that downsizing would cause decreased loyalty. Participant experiences seem to suggest otherwise. There is a mixed consensus on how things were overall. One participant was not taking any particular side although feeling that there was still
equality, another felt that things were much better than they were before, interestingly enough, this participant felt better about the company now after downsizing than before downsizing. And the other participant thought that things were still the same but that contractors were closer than before.

There was a heightened awareness of the fragility of the job. Job insecurity is a possible symptom of survivor syndrome (Noer, 1993). P2 believed that everyone wanted to do the best job and were even protective of not losing any more customers that could possibly lead to more downsizing. The backdrop of the declining newspaper industry became the forefront of the thinking and even received the blame for the reason the company had to downsize. There was also an increase in the willingness to work with the company. P2 felt that contractors were much more willing to work with the company, more flexible. P4 had a better attitude towards the company because things were improved as compared to the predownsizing environment. Primarily things were better for P4 because of the increased opportunity, being able to capitalize from the new opportunities to make more money; P4’s effort was now more maximized.

These findings which are similar to the predownsizing environment also represented the organization glue characteristics of the clan culture type. It appears that the bond of mutual trust and loyalty was still high. This fostered high commitment to the company (Cameron & Quinn, 2011) postdownsizing. Even with downsizing, the overall attitude of the participants towards the company was favorable. Although some skepticism, the majority thought things were at least the same. Participants had a good attitude towards the company after downsizing. P4’s comments about planning to die in
this job, hoping not to have to find another job, and confidence in the company based on
years of experience summed the situation best. This comment is a good example of
Schein’s (2010) definition of organizational culture as a shared group experience where
basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve
problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members
should understand, think, and feel about those problems. The confidence in the company
was formed as a basic norm because of the many years that the participant interacted
within the group and by experience they worked together to solve problems. It also
demonstrates that basic assumptions are embedded in the members and are resistant to
change as Schein proposed. Despite downsizing the participant still had confidence in the
company.

Emergent Theme Two: Job Security

Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are
developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result
from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand,
think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). Organizational culture is the values
that are taken-for-granted, the assumptions, the expectations, and those attributes that
define the members of an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Job insecurity is a
possible symptom of survivor syndrome (Noer, 1993). The majority of the participants
felt secure after downsizing. P2 believed that the company will do everything possible
not to cut more jobs and, therefore, does not have any concern about losing the job. P4 is
hoping to retire from this job.
P1, however, was much more insecure and uncertain because of downsizing. Much of the security that the majority of participants felt was related to the experience of working with the company for many years. It seemed that the job security was rooted in the character of the company. This feeling supported Schein’s (2010) and Cameron and Quinn’s (2011) concept of organizational culture in that culture is the assumptions and the expectations that members develop over time and these interactions form the basis for how they think and feel. Typically survivors of downsizing feel more insecure in their jobs (Bayardo et al., 2013) rather than secure. Although feelings of frustration, job insecurity, decreased morale, and a loss in trust are expected (McManus & Mosca, 2015) the participants did not seem to have most of these experiences postdownsizing. Contrary to the literature, the majority of participants felt more secure in their jobs.

This effect of downsizing on culture is in line with the type of culture that the participants perceived to be more dominant postdownsizing, the hierarchy culture type. In the management of employees dimension of the hierarchy culture type, management is concerned about job security (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Participant feelings about job security suggested that the company exhibited characteristics of the hierarchy culture; predictability, security, and stability (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). This result also showed as Schein (2010) suggested that group members react to the actions of the leader and that shared experience becomes a shared value or belief.

Emergent Theme Three: Money (Income)

References to the theme of money (income) was one of the more referred to themes. The experience of participants regarding money was an interesting one which
appeared to be linked to the fact that they were contractors and not employees. The frequent mention of money or income was not surprising since contractors enjoy several monetary benefits as a contractor as compared to an employee (www.dispatch.com). Contractors, for example, enjoy a higher take home pay than employees do (Newton & Borstorff, 2012). The majority of participants had an increase in their income after downsizing. This was due to the fact that their workload had increased; as contractors, they were paid more because they were working more. In the same way, when there was a decrease in work, income was also decreased.

Although the income of the majority of participants may have increased, the net result was not necessarily an increase. P1 had an increase in pay but the additional costs to perform the added tasks decreased the net increase in money thereby decreasing overall profits. P4 also had an increase in pay but the added cost of performing the extra tasks did not decrease the net result. P2 had a decrease in pay because of a decreased workload. Independent contractors are paid a fee for the work that they perform and not a set salary as in the case of employees (Thickstun, 2013). These findings are in contrast to the literature. Some of the factors identified by Casio (2014) as reasons why companies downsized were to cut their costs and increase their earnings. The literature does not suggest any monetary increases for employees after downsizing. Most of the discussion mentions other increases such as the increased workload (McManus & Mosca, 2015). In fact, Smollan (2015) determined that stress was one of the results after a downsizing event because survivors did not receive any extra benefits. Although downsizing can
result in an increase or decrease in workload, the independent contractor will also realize
an increase in income if tasks increase.

Emergent Theme Four: Motivation

Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are
developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result
from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand,
think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). Organizational culture is the values
that are taken-for-granted, the assumptions, the expectations, and those attributes that
define the members of an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). One-hundred percent
of the participants were still motivated after downsizing. There was no decreased
motivation. For example, P2 continued to be motivated to help the company and the
customers. P4 was fully motivated with much of the motivation attributed to the
possibility of gaining even more work thereby increasing income. Downsizing was a
positive experience for P4. P1 seemed motivated by the continuousness of the job.

The results were not consistent with the literature. Motivation for survivors is
normally decreased after a downsizing event (Noer, 1993) rather than remaining the same
or increasing. There was no indication as to why motivation increased other than a desire
to sustain the job as long as possible and the probability of increasing income. The results
may be an indication of how the basic assumptions embedded in the members are
resistance to change (Schein, 2010). If the basic assumptions are disrupted then those
beliefs and values can become unstable (Schein, 2010). The increased motivation may
suggest that downsizing did not disrupt any basic assumptions embedded in the contractors.

**Emergent Theme Five: Sense of Family**

Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). Organizational culture is the values that are taken-for-granted, the assumptions, the expectations, and those attributes that define the members of an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Here again as in the predownsizing environment, one-hundred percent of the participant responses included a sense of family. Most feel that the features of a family are still the same but contractors are closer. Camaraderie is still high. Participants seem to care more about each other wanting to help however they can. There is much more of a sense of teamwork; confidence that everyone is working together to make things go smoothly.

These experiences shared between the participants are a direct description of the dominant characteristics dimension of the clan culture type as proposed by Cameron and Quinn (2011). The experience is one where members feel that fellow members are an extended family (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Organizations that depict a clan culture act like an extended family (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The atmosphere is friendly and the glue that holds the members of the organization together is loyalty (Camron & Quinn, 2011). In the clan culture environment, members have a high commitment to the company (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). There was no sense of distrust, resentment, or low
morale as suggested by Noer (1993) rather the participants seem to experience relationships that have become stronger.

**Emergent Theme Six: Well-being**

Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). Organizational culture is the values that are taken-for-granted, the assumptions, the expectations, and those attributes that define the members of an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). A culture where employees feel that their well-being is considered are usually more committed to the company (Ekwutosi & Moses, 2013). Well-being was the second most referenced theme in the postdownsizing environment. Participants’ perceptions of their well-being were more positive than negative. The overwhelming consensus was the belief that they were chosen to stay because they did the best job, they were important. Downsizing decisions although they may have been predicated to some extent on longevity, they were ultimately chosen for far more reasons than how long they may have been contractors with the company. This thinking bolstered their feeling that the company cared about them. Over time as Schein (2010) suggested, the members through their interaction together to solve prior problems, seemed to form the basis for believing that they survived downsizing because they did the best job and for other embedded reasons that had become a part of how they thought and felt.
One participant had an interesting positive outcome as a result of downsizing. P4 had a good health result. The increased workload led to increased wages but it also led to more physical activity. This in turn led to weight loss for the participant, a better health outcome. P4 attributed this positive healthy outcome to downsizing although this result may have been indirectly related to downsizing, that is, downsizing caused an increased workload and the extra tasks happen to include more physical activity. There was no mention in the literature about positive health results after downsizing.

Another participant experienced a different health outcome, more stress. Stress is one of the negative consequences of downsizing (Cotter & Fouad, 2012). There were also some negative effects to the family of one participant. The increased workload reduced the time available to spend with family members and the increased overall expenses resulted in less money to support the family. Despite some of the negative outcomes experienced after downsizing, the majority of the participants felt that the company cared about their well-being.

The six dimensions of culture that represent the clan type of culture as developed by Cameron and Quinn (2011) also apply in the postdownsizing environment as to how the participants perceive their well-being. The clan culture attributes represented in these six dimensions are: (a) a personal extended family marked by an atmosphere of sharing, (b) a management team that nurtures and guides their members, (c) leadership that promotes teamwork, (d) there is mutual loyalty, trust, and commitment among the members, (e) concern for the welfare of each group member is evident, and (f) without all
the aforementioned attributes success is not realized (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Contractors still perceived that the company cared about their well-being.

**Emergent Theme Seven: Workload**

The workload theme was one of the most referenced themes by one-hundred percent of the participants. The majority of the participants experienced an increase in their workload. Although an increased workload is one of the negative results of downsizing (McManus & Mosca, 2015), one participant had a decrease. Another participant’s workload doubled. Most comments were mainly regarding more work and more time. Because they are contractors, there was also mention of more money. Contractors enjoy several monetary benefits as a contractor as compared to an employee (www.dispatch.com). For contractors the increased workload resulted in increased earnings because contractors are paid a fee for the work that they perform and not a set salary as in the case of employees (Thickstun, 2013). The increased workload after downsizing is usually related to burdening the remaining workers (Agwu et al., 2014), but the participants did not express being burdened by the additional work.

Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). Organizational culture is the values that are taken-for-granted, the assumptions, the expectations, and those attributes that define the members of an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). An increased
workload is one of the negative results of downsizing (McManus & Mosca, 2015). Increased workloads also result in decreased productivity and are one of the main causes of stress (Hagel, 2013). After a downsizing event stress is extremely high (Smollan, 2015).

**Quantitative Findings - Postdownsizing**

The plotted survey scores from the quantitative data depicting the current organizational culture profile shows a strengthening of the clan culture type but a shift towards the hierarchy culture type. This gave the hierarchy culture type dominance although by a small margin (see Figure 13). The clan score increased from an average of 31 to an average of 36 supporting the qualitative findings of still a sense of family but now drawn closer from the shared experience of downsizing. The hierarchy score also increased from an average of 31 to an average of 40. Participants did not seem to focus on this in describing their lived experiences in the postdownsizing environment. The adhocracy and market culture types decreased in importance from the predownsizing setting to the postdownsizing setting. These findings supported the seven emerging themes.
Preferred Culture Category

Three primary themes emerged for the preferred culture category: (a) family setting, (b) less bureaucracy, and (c) preference, performance, potential, and opportunity. Of the three themes, family setting was referenced the most. Table 3 lists the three themes with the total participants and references for each theme and Figure 14 shows a picture of how each participant related to each theme by comparison.
Table 3

*Preferred Culture Themes*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family setting</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less bureaucracy</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preference, performance, potential, &amp; opportunity</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 14. Preferred culture participant comparisons per theme.*
Emergent Theme One: Family Setting

Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). Organizational culture is the values that are taken-for-granted, the assumptions, the expectations, and those attributes that define the members of an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). A preferred organizational culture can result in increased productivity (Moon et al., 2012) improved performance (Jacobs et al., 2013), long-term competitive advantage (Dauber et al., 2012), more motivation (Hajjawi, 2013), and overall company success (Crews & Richard, 2013).

One-hundred percent of the participants preferred a family setting. Most of their references suggested that they seemed to take the family setting as a given, meaning it is undeniably a family environment; we are a family. As such, more time was spent on how the family dynamic could be improved. P1 wanted the preferred culture to remain like the postdownsizing culture. There is definitely a desire for more autonomy, more cooperation, more inclusion, and more openness. P1 believed that there should be more cooperation whenever changes are being made given the commitment to the company by way of loyalty and gratitude. P1 seemed to suggest that there would be loyalty and gratitude regardless of the type of culture. P1 also wanted mutual loyalty and gratitude. Equality was still also desired.
One participant was adamant about having more openness not just between contractors but between the management and contractors. It was understood that the management could not necessarily reveal every decision made but they could share more. P2 felt that if management shared information with contractors and contractors with each other maybe there are ideas that each may have that the other did not consider. P4 wanted to be included in the decision making process when it came to the division of work. There is also a strong desire for the truth, said in the same vain as openness.

The need for teamwork was also reinforced especially now after downsizing and given the state of the newspaper industry. Contractors should work together to not lose any more customers while trying to find new ones so that the jobs can continue. Although a family setting is preferred and participants valued the benefits of a family setting there was also a new dynamic surfacing when describing the preferred culture. There was an emphasis on self. The thought was, we work together and help each other as much as possible but ultimately we are also making decisions that benefit ourselves. In essence, I will choose the best option for me individually. One participant wanted more opportunity and at the same time would not want it to cause someone else to be out of a job but if that had to be the choice then the participant would choose to save the participant’s job. There is still an atmosphere of friendship, cooperation, care, and teamwork.

Much of what the participants desired relate to the suggestions made by Jivan (2012) for minimizing the effects of downsizing. One suggestion was for management to inform and explain to employees the reasons for downsizing before it starts so that all organizational members are aware (Jivan, 2012). This is in line with P1’s desire for more
openness and cooperation when changes are being made. Management could also reap the benefit of the feedback from the employees (Jivan, 2012) as P2 mentioned. Gandolfi (2013) proposed even including organizational members in the planning stage and having more openness and honesty.

Participant responses for the culture that they would prefer described all of the attributes of the clan culture type. These are: (a) desiring a personal family setting with openness and sharing, (b) continued and even more care from management, (c) more teamwork, (d) more loyalty and trust, (e) caring about the welfare of each group member, and (f) cooperation (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Participant preferences reinforced what Schein (2010) argued, that any assessment of culture must reveal the assumptions shared among the group otherwise that assessment served no purpose. The assumptions described by the participants clearly showed their preferred culture type.

**Emergent Theme Two: Less Bureaucracy**

Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). Organizational culture is the values that are taken-for-granted, the assumptions, the expectations, and those attributes that define the members of an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). A preferred organizational culture can result in increased productivity (Moon et al., 2012) improved performance (Jacobs et al., 2013), long-term competitive advantage (Dauber et al., 2012),
more motivation (Hajjawi, 2013), and overall company success (Crews & Richard, 2013).

Contractors preferred less bureaucracy. This preference for less bureaucracy seemed expected as the postdownsizing culture profile showed that participants perceived an increase in bureaucracy. It was also expected since organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time (Schein, 2010). These norms are expected and assumed (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Because of downsizing the perception was, here is the new task with no options. Management decided what each contractor can do or not do. A disruption of the basic group assumptions will bring instability (Schein, 2010). Downsizing as a change may have created a disruption of the basic group assumptions in terms of the increased perceived bureaucracy.

Creating a bureaucracy was the earliest form of organizing in companies (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Also called the control culture, organizations that are dominant in the hierarchy culture type are formal and structured in their processes and functions; a controlling environment (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). These organizations are stable, predictable, and effective (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Contractors perceived a far more controlling environment after downsizing.

Participants preferred to have a culture that was opposite to the hierarchy culture type. One-hundred percent of participants wanted cooperation, honesty, and choice. P1 wanted cooperation. P2 believed it would be better if contractors knew why downsizing was necessary which will foster openness. Here again Jivan’s (2012) suggestion that management share the reasons for downsizing beforehand to gain more cooperation
during the process is valid. P4 wanted to be given the right of first refusal. Management should not just assume how much each contractor may or may not be able to handle but should allow contractors to choose. Since there are far less contractors than before teamwork is even more important but there seemed to be more concern for what each contractor can handle. Regardless, allow the contractors a part in the decision making. Organizational culture is related to satisfaction, effectiveness, and overall success in an organization; therefore, having an undesired organizational culture could result in decreased satisfaction, effectiveness, and performance companywide (Shahzad et al., 2012). Overall participants preferred less formality and control and more autonomy and choice.

**Emergent Theme Three: Preference, Performance, Potential, and Opportunity**

Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). Organizational culture is the values that are taken-for-granted, the assumptions, the expectations, and those attributes that define the members of an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). A preferred organizational culture can result in increased productivity (Moon et al., 2012) improved performance (Jacobs et al., 2013), long-term competitive advantage (Dauber et al., 2012), more motivation (Hajjawi, 2013), and overall company success (Crews & Richard, 2013).
One of the reasons companies choose to downsize is to improve their performance (Gandolfi & Hansson, 2015). Downsizing, however, negatively affects employee performance (Navalino et al., 2014). Participant responses were in conflict with the latter; performance was increased. The majority of the participants were outspoken about decision making based on their performance and potential. Although those that remained at the company felt that they were chosen to stay based on being the ones that did the best job and not based on longevity, the majority of participants now more than ever desired that decisions would continue to be made on those criteria. It seemed that this thinking may also be motivating them to perform at an optimal level in the event downsizing occurred again. P4 believed that the contractor that performs the best should be given the opportunity first when more work becomes available. Preference should be given to the better performer. P1 valued loyalty and gratitude and preferred cooperation when changes are needed. P1 believed preference should be given based on loyalty and gratitude. P4 also wanted to be used to the fullest potential. P4 felt under-utilized.

It does not appear that the contractors’ morale was affected in any way. According to Goesaert et al. (2015) when companies try to realize increased performance by choosing to downsize, they risk ruining the morale of their employees. There was also no evidence of decreased loyalty and decreased job security in regards to employee performance as suggested by Rehman and Naeem (2012). Overall participants seem interested in more work because as contractors the only way to increase income is to do more work.
Quantitative Findings - Preferred Culture Type

The quantitative survey results supported the qualitative findings. Plotted culture scores showed a desire for more of the clan culture type and less of the hierarchy culture type (see Figure 15). There was also a small but noticeable move towards the adhocracy and market culture type reflective of the slightly more competitive atmosphere that was apparent after downsizing. Participant responses aligned and supported the graphical profile of the preferred culture type. The preference for cooperation, openness, inclusion, gratitude, and equality are all matched to the attributes of the clan type of culture. In a family setting, cooperation and gratitude, for example, are shared experiences between the group members and even an expectation. Gratitude is returned to signal acceptance and appreciation of the work performed and cooperation keeps the team together. These experiences foster high commitment to the organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Culture is a shared experience among group members (Schein, 2010).
The plotted culture profile for each culture attribute: (a) dominant characteristics, (b) organizational leadership, (c) management of contractors, (d) organization glue, (e) strategic emphasis, and (f) criteria of success depicted in-depth the type of culture participants preferred. These profiles show how each attribute corresponded to the dominant culture type. They also depict the strength of the dominant culture type and the congruence of the culture profiles. Participants preferred a clan culture type in the dominant characteristics (see Figure 16). This reflects a preference for a family setting. They also preferred a clan culture type for the organizational leadership, that is, a caring management team (see Figure 17). Regarding how participants preferred to be managed, the hierarchy culture type was dominant (see Figure 18). Although a family setting was preferred, participants wanted job security and permanence.
As revealed in the qualitative data, there was a strong preference for the clan culture type in the organization glue attribute (see Figure 19). Participants prefer an atmosphere of loyalty and mutual trust. The clan and hierarchy culture types were almost even in the strategic emphases dimension with a slight edge to the hierarchy culture type (see Figure 20). This indicated that the participants preferred both care for their well-being, participation, and openness as well as stability and constancy. The hierarchy culture type was also dominant for the criteria of success attribute (see Figure 21). Participants recognized that the company valued efficiency and reliability. The plotted profiles of the six dimensions of the preferred culture type strongly supported the qualitative findings. Participants preferred a clan type of organizational culture.

*Figure 16.* Dominant characteristics preferred culture profile.
Figure 17. Organizational leadership preferred culture profile.

Figure 18. Management of employees preferred culture profile.
Figure 19. Organization glue preferred culture profile.

Figure 20. Strategic emphases preferred culture profile.
There were ten emergent themes for the downsizing effects on culture category: (a) attitude, (b) change in culture, and (c) contractor versus employee, (d) guilt as a survivor, (e) job security, (f) money and perks, (g) relationships, (h) self-preservation, (i) well-being, and (j) workload. Of the ten themes, attitude, relationships, and well-being were referenced the most. Table 4 lists the ten themes with the total participants and references for each theme and Figure 22 shows a picture of how each participant related to each theme by comparison.

*Figure 21. Criteria of success preferred culture profile.*

**Downsizing Effects on Culture Category**

There were ten emergent themes for the downsizing effects on culture category: (a) attitude, (b) change in culture, and (c) contractor versus employee, (d) guilt as a survivor, (e) job security, (f) money and perks, (g) relationships, (h) self-preservation, (i) well-being, and (j) workload. Of the ten themes, attitude, relationships, and well-being were referenced the most. Table 4 lists the ten themes with the total participants and references for each theme and Figure 22 shows a picture of how each participant related to each theme by comparison.
Table 4

*Downsizing Effects on Culture Themes*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change in culture</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor versus employee</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guilt as a survivor</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job security</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Money and perks</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-preservation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well-being</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workload</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 22.* Downsizing effects on culture participant comparisons per theme.
Emergent Theme One: Attitude

Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). Organizational culture is the values that are taken-for-granted, the assumptions, the expectations, and those attributes that define the members of an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Downsizing can have unknown consequences (Hagel, 2013), one of which is an undesirable organizational culture because culture affects all areas of an organization (Neagu & Nicula, 2012). Some of the negative consequences of downsizing are increased stress (Modrek & Cullen, 2013), depressive symptoms (Brenner et al., 2014), decreased job satisfaction (Saif et al., 2013), and decreased employee performance (Navalino et al., 2014). A preferred organizational culture, on the other hand, produces increased productivity (Moon et al., 2012) improved performance (Jacobs et al., 2013), long-term competitive advantage (Dauber et al., 2012), more motivation (Hajjawi, 2013), and overall company success (Crews & Richard, 2013).

The attitude of the participants after downsizing was overwhelmingly positive. In all interactions with them, there was never a sense of doom and gloom, sadness, or pessimism. One-hundred percent of the participants were optimistic in some way. The majority of participants had no ill-will towards the company. They did not feel that the actions of the company were personal. It was understood that it was a business decision that had to be made. In most cases motivation was increased. No participant was less
motivated after downsizing as suggested by Noer (1993) or any indication of low motivation that companies could experience due to job stress (Spurgeon et al., 2012), a possible symptom after a downsizing event (Hargrove et al., 2012).

All participants believed that they were chosen to stay in their jobs because they did a good job, they were the best performers, they had the best attitudes, and they were more flexible than those that were downsized. P2 does the best job always, willingly, to avoid as much the possibility of another downsizing event. It was an attitude that said I will do everything within my power to keep this job going. There was no evidence of lowered morale among the participants, a possibility Goesaert et al. (2015) had suggested could happen but rather increased motivation. The increased motivation is an unexpected result because motivation for survivors is normally decreased after a downsizing event (Noer, 1993) rather than remaining the same or increasing.

Downsizing has been found to negatively affect organizational commitment (Navalino et al., 2014) but downsizing increased the participants’ commitment to the company, a contrary finding to the literature. In some ways participants felt obligated to preserve what was left. In the same way, it was believed that the company would do everything possible to keep the remaining contractors in a job. There was a more willing attitude after downsizing. Although participants may be doing things they may not want to do, there was a willingness to compromise for the overall benefit of the company and those that remained. This attitude is an example of the power of culture to influence several functions of a company, all processes, and relationships as mentioned by Neagu and Nicula (2012) and especially adaptation noted by Moon et al. (2012). It appears the
shared behavior and beliefs of the contractors aligned with the strategy of the company therefore the interests were united and not divided (Eaton & Kilby, 2015).

Some of this willingness seemed driven not only by the fact that the job was needed but there is a consciousness of not wanting anymore downsizing. Much of the compromise was also related to a feeling of gratefulness for not being one of the contractors that were downsized. The comment by one participant summarized the attitudinal situation best about how downsizing is perceived to have affected culture: there is more fear of the awareness of the greater culture, the fact that the newspaper industry is slowly declining. This participant’s comment demonstrated the existence one of the four categories of culture that Schein (2010) determined, a macro culture. In this case the macro culture was the newspaper industry. Culture is vast, ranging from a macro to a micro level both outside and inside of the organization (Schein, 2010). A complete understanding of culture within an organization is invariably linked to the macro environment in which it exists (Schein, 2010).

**Emergent Theme Two: Change in Culture**

Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). Organizational culture is the values that are taken-for-granted, the assumptions, the expectations, and those attributes that define the members of an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Downsizing can have unknown consequences (Hagel, 2013), one of which is an undesirable organizational
culture which affects all areas of an organization (Neagu & Nicula, 2012). Some of the negative consequences of downsizing are increased stress (Modrek & Cullen, 2013), depressive symptoms (Brenner et al., 2014), decreased job satisfaction (Saif et al., 2013), and decreased employee performance (Navalino et al., 2014). A preferred organizational culture, on the other hand, produces increased productivity (Moon et al., 2012) improved performance (Jacobs et al., 2013), long-term competitive advantage (Dauber et al., 2012), more motivation (Hajjawi, 2013), and overall company success (Crews & Richard, 2013).

Organizational culture is impacted by change (Schein, 2010). Downsizing is a major change within a company (Agwu et al., 2014; Cascio, 2014). Downsizing affected organizational culture because culture affects all areas of an organization (Neagu & Nicula, 2012). One-hundred percent of participants believed that there was a change in the culture. The experience of all the participants reinforced Schein’s idea that culture is impacted by change. This change was perceived as being much better after downsizing, a positive outcome for the company since it is important for strategy to be in alignment with the shared behavior and beliefs of the workers (Eaton & Kilby, 2015). Although it was not the optimal culture that was preferred, several aspects of it were aspects of the preferred culture. One participant believed that the change in culture from the predownsizing environment to the postdownsizing environment was a significant one. Another participant felt that the culture was stronger than it was before. These results also demonstrate that the basic assumptions that are embedded in the members are resistant to change (Schein, 2010). In this possible disruption culture was thought to have been
strengthened. Participants had varying reasons for why the culture changed as seen from the themes in pre and postdownsizing, and preferred culture categories. Downsizing affected the culture in a positive way. Culture is in each individual (Schein, 2010); therefore, if the individual experiences a change then the people that the individual interacts with and the environments that the individual interacts within may also experience a change.

**Emergent Theme Three: Contractor versus Employee**

Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). Organizational culture is the values that are taken-for-granted, the assumptions, the expectations, and those attributes that define the members of an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Newspaper contractors enjoy several benefits: (a) flexibility, (b) opportunities for creativity, (c) greater control, (d) being their own boss, (e) protection of a written contract, (f) cannot be terminated at will without notice, (g) can provide service for competitors, (h) can hire subcontractors to perform the work, (i) may qualify for certain tax benefits, (j) improved cash flow, (k) availability of business related tax deductions, and (l) retirement savings (Pages, 2012; www.dispatch.com).

How participants felt about their perceptions of downsizing as a contractor were mixed. P2 believed that being a contractor versus being an employee did not affect how downsizing was experienced only to the extent that longevity did not trump attitude or in
essence performance. In worker as employee situations much of the decisions to lay off workers revolve around seniority. As a contractor P2 believed that although seniority may have played a role in the decision making, much of whom each person was or what each person could do far outweighed his or her years of service. Independent contractor-employer relationships are typically governed by contracts (Fishman, 2014). Whereas an employee could bring a lawsuit for wrongful termination against an employer, an independent contractor cannot file a wrongful termination lawsuit (Fishman, 2014). Participants were not concerned about those things that would typically affect the employee-employer relationship because legally certain requirements do not apply to the independent contractor.

Independent contractors do not receive benefits such as healthcare, vacation time, or pensions whereas employees usually do (Fishman, 2014). P4 was quite outspoken about the benefits of being a contractor versus an employee: employees get benefits such as medical, retirement, and vacation time. Contractors do not. Employees are not as industrious as contractors because they can depend on a check even with lackadaisical work. A contractor must perform the tasks to be compensated. Contractors are self-employed and, therefore, have more control over the how the job is performed whereas an employee has less control. If an employee gets more work there is no guarantee of increased pay. If a contractor does more work there must be more pay. A contractor is disciplined. Rain or shine, snow or sleet, storm or even being sick, the contractor must perform the job contracted to do. Failure to do so typically resulted in immediate termination. P4 also believes that a contractor is judged based on performance and not
longevity. In fact, contractors expect all decisions to be made on merit and not on years of service. They believed that years of service are factored into the decision making but performance received the most weight.

There is a clear difference between contractors and employees based on the responses of the participants. Most of the responses aligned with the literature about contractors. How they experienced downsizing was to a certain extent predicated on being a contractor and not an employee. There are benefits and risks for contractors and the company alike (Elliott, 2013; Newton & Borstorff, 2012) but unlike the evidence from the literature, contractors seem to experience downsizing in several different ways. There were undoubtedly far more positive outcomes than negative outcomes. There is a level of security in being a contractor during a downsizing event.

**Emergent Theme Four: Guilt as a Survivor**

Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). Organizational culture is the values that are taken-for-granted, the assumptions, the expectations, and those attributes that define the members of an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Downsizing can have unknown consequences (Hagel, 2013). Guilt is a symptom of survivor syndrome (Noer, 1993). Participant responses were in contrast to the literature. The majority of the participants did not feel guilty because they were not the ones downsized. They were emphatic in declaring that there was absolutely no guilt for having survived downsizing
and claimed no responsibility for causing others to lose their jobs. In fact, there was almost disdain for having asked the question.

This experience is in line with Cameron and Quinn’s (2011) concept of organizational culture specifically that there are expectations that define the members of an organization. It also aligns with Schein’s (2010) idea that basic norms are developed over time as the group interacts together. The results tie in to the attitude theme because based on the experience of the contractors over time with the company, their basic beliefs and expectations formed from what they perceived to be the reasons that the company chose to keep them. Not feeling guilty may have been influenced by these expectations.

**Emergent Theme Five: Job Security**

Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). Organizational culture is the values that are taken-for-granted, the assumptions, the expectations, and those attributes that define the members of an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Job insecurity is a possible symptom of survivor syndrome (Noer, 1993). Job security was affected in both a positive and a negative way by participants. The majority of participants did not feel insecure. One participant felt uncertain and more insecure because of downsizing. P4 believed that the job was more secure now because there were fewer contractors so the company needed those contractors that remained now more than before. It appeared there may have been more insecurity before downsizing because with more contractors the
work could easily be distributed among several contractors. Now with a smaller workforce, the job is considered more secure.

This effect of downsizing on culture is in line with those in the management of employees dimension of the hierarchy culture type (Cameron & Quinn, 2011), which was the type of culture that the participants perceived to be more dominant postdownsizing. Management style in this type of culture is concerned about job security. Participant feelings about job security suggested that the company exhibited characteristics of the hierarchy culture; predictability, security, and stability (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Their responses also show as Schein (2010) suggested that group members react to the actions of the leader and that shared experience becomes a shared value or belief.

Here again participants as contractors were not experiencing yet another symptom of survivor syndrome. The majority of participants felt more secure after downsizing. This feeling supported Schein’s (2010) and Cameron and Quinn’s (2011) concept of organizational culture, in that, culture is the assumptions and the expectations that members develop over time and these interactions form the basis for how they think and feel. Typically survivors of downsizing feel more insecure in their jobs (Bayardo et al., 2013) rather than secure. Although feelings of frustration, job insecurity, decreased morale, and a loss in trust are expected (McManus & Mosca, 2015) the participants did not seem to have most of these experiences. Contrary to the literature, the majority of participants felt more secure in their jobs. One participant felt so secure it is hoped that this will be the participant’s last job in life.
Emergent Theme Six: Money and Perks

Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). Organizational culture is the values that are taken-for-granted, the assumptions, the expectations, and those attributes that define the members of an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Newspaper contractors enjoy several benefits: (a) flexibility, (b) opportunities for creativity, (c) greater control, (d) being their own boss, (e) protection of a written contract, (f) cannot be terminated at will without notice, (g) can provide service for competitors, (h) can hire subcontractors to perform the work, (i) may qualify for certain tax benefits, (j) improved cash flow, (k) availability of business related tax deductions, and (l) retirement savings (Pages, 2012; www.dispatch.com).

One of the reasons that organizations choose to downsize is to increase their bottom line, that is, money (Cascio, 2014). As such, an increase in the bottom line of the contractors would be unexpected; however, not only did one-hundred percent of the participants mentioned money but income for the majority of the participants increased and did not decrease because of downsizing. For contractors, there are no limits on a financial gain as in the case of an employee that receives a set salary (Parrish, 2013); more work results in more pay. There is no suggestion in the literature that survivors of downsizing received an increase in income as was the experience for the majority of the participants. For one participant, although income was increased the costs of performing
the job also increased thereby decreasing the overall profit. This is an expected result because independent contractors are responsible for their own business expenses (Parrish, 2013). Another participant had the opposite experience, income increased because of an increased workload but the increased costs did not offset the gain. One participant’s income was reduced because the participant’s tasks decreased. These experiences were all expected based on the characteristics of the independent contractor (Fishman, 2014; Parrish, 2013).

There was also a heightened awareness that losing any customer now would have a greater impact on income in the long-term. Contractors are self-employed (Parrish, 2013) and therefore a business themselves, which may explain why there was this heightened concern for losing customers and how that loss could impact their own bottom line. There was also mention of a loss in perks and less gratuities that were enjoyed before downsizing. Although those perks were as simple as something like getting donuts sometimes, they were missed. There are no laws that dictate certain perks or gratuities that companies must offer their workers but the loss of them, if provided, was evident after downsizing. In general, companies initiate downsizing to lower costs or produce more revenues (Cascio, 2014). The negatives in terms of perks, however, were inconsequential in comparison to the gain in income because of the increased workload. The majority of participants had an increase in their income after downsizing. This was due to the fact that their workload had increased; as contractors, they were paid more because they were working more. In the same way, when there was a decrease in work, income was also decreased.
Emergent Theme Seven: Relationships

Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). Organizational culture is the values that are taken-for-granted, the assumptions, the expectations, and those attributes that define the members of an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). At the heart of culture itself are the people that form that culture. Culture is in every individual (Schein, 2010). Without them there is no culture. Members of any organizational group understand, think, and feel based on the experiences that they share together (Schein, 2010). Relationships, therefore, between the members of that group must also contribute to the experiences shared that form the way the group thinks, feels, and comprehends. Relationships are one of the more observable levels of culture, what Schein (2010) called artifacts. Although some aspects of artifacts are observable Schein cautioned that artifacts cannot be used to understand the lived experiences of the members but rather talking to the members of the group to gain a deeper understanding.

Overwhelmingly participants still felt like a family. Having shared this experience of downsizing there is a level of understanding and cooperation not just between the company and the contractors but between contractors as well. P1 thought that there was more unity. P2 felt the relationships were the same but closer. And P4 felt there was much more teamwork because of the confidence in the ability and reliability of those that remained. P2 summed it best, “we all kind of like each other.” This shared experience
between the contractors reflect in certain ways some of the four main elements of culture that build on each other from unobservable to observable as described by Cameron and Quinn (2011). At the most unobservable level, the assumptions show how individuals react to the environment; there was a level of understanding and cooperation. These result in conscious contracts and norms that direct the relationship; relationships remained the same but the contractors were closer and there was confidence in the ability and reliability of those that were not downsized. Teamwork as a behavior of the members represented the most observable level of culture.

**Emergent Theme Eight: Self-Preservation**

Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). Organizational culture is the values that are taken-for-granted, the assumptions, the expectations, and those attributes that define the members of an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Culture is in every individual (Schein, 2010). Given the family atmosphere and great relationships, there was an unexpected characteristic that emerged after downsizing. The majority of participants, as a backdrop to their answers, talked quite a bit about protecting themselves. It was an interesting balance between protecting the other “family” members while guarding personal interests at the same time. The view is that ultimately we are human beings so it is our instinct to protect ourselves first, to survive. Human beings will choose to help
themselves first in dire situations. There was no mention of this experience in the literature in regards to the effects of downsizing.

The self-preservation thought also extended to the company as well. If downsizing was known about beforehand, contractors would probably act to save themselves, meaning, finding another job as quickly as possible. This conflicted with the suggestion in the literature by Jivan (2012) to inform workers about downsizing before it occurs as a way of lessening the negative effects of downsizing and possibly reaping the benefits of their feedback. Both the company and the worker could potentially lose. Participants genuinely cared about their fellow workers and the company but would make decisions that are most beneficial for them as individuals.

This emergent theme could be an example of the birth of a shared experience that produces a shared value or belief which is the foundation for both Schein’s (2010) and Cameron and Quinn’s (2011) concept of organizational culture. As members of the group act on the actions of the group leader and they experience the results, the group now has a shared value or belief (Schein, 2010). The company initiates downsizing, members and the company experience the results of the downsizing, and the group members form a new value or belief, self-preservation.

Emergent Theme Nine: Well-Being

Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). Organizational culture is the values
that are taken-for-granted, the assumptions, the expectations, and those attributes that define the members of an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). A culture where employees feel that their well-being is considered are usually more committed to the company (Ekwutosi & Moses, 2013). Well-being was one of the second most referenced themes tied with relationships in the downsizing effects on culture category. Overall the participants’ well-being was affected both positively and negatively. The most important aspect of their well-being that was impacted was their health.

The effects to the human resource are one of the areas in the literature on downsizing that has received the most attention (McMahan et al., 2012). Although there are many psychological and health consequences experienced by those that remain after downsizing as noted by Modrek and Cullen (2013) and Talwar (2015), in one instance, downsizing improved the health condition of one participant through weight loss. It was hard to determine if the improvement could be attributed to downsizing itself since an increased workload might not have included increased activity. Without the increased activity there may not have been any decrease in weight. It is possible to say however that even with the weight loss the participant could still experience other health issues caused by downsizing but no such issues were mentioned. There was no mention in the literature about positive health results after downsizing.

The survivors of downsizing are subjected to high levels of stress (Hargrove et al., 2012). Stress is existent through all phases of downsizing: pre, during, and postdownsizing (Smollan, 2015). The predownsizing environment causes the least amount of stress, which increases during downsizing (Smollan, 2015). Postdownsizing,
stress is extremely high (Smollan, 2015). One participant did experience increased stress. Stress is one of the negative consequences of downsizing (Cotter & Fouad, 2012). There were also some negative effects to the family of one participant. The increased workload reduced the time available to spend with family members and the increased overall expenses resulted in less money to support the family. This result is inherent for the self-employed, although a financial gain can be immediate as compared to an employee, a loss can also be immediate (Parrish, 2013).

In general, there was a belief that the company still cared about the well-being of the contractors. The six dimensions of culture that represent the clan type of culture as developed by Cameron and Quinn (2011) effectively apply to how the participants perceive their well-being. The clan culture attributes represented in these six dimensions are: (a) a family setting marked by an atmosphere of sharing, (b) a nurturing management team that guides their members, (c) leadership that promotes teamwork, (d) there is mutual loyalty, trust, and commitment among the members, (e) care and concern for the welfare of each group member is evident, and (f) without all the aforementioned attributes success is not realized (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Participants, as evidenced in preceding themes and especially in the preferred culture category related their well-being to the family setting that they experienced, their perception of how management cared about them, their relationships, and overall care and loyalty to and from the company and between each other. Much of the clan culture attributes are reflective of how the contractors perceived their well-being after downsizing. Contractors still perceived that the company cared about their well-being.
Emergent Theme Ten: Workload

An increased workload was one of the most echoed theme postdownsizing. The majority had an increase in workload. The increase seemed to be offset by the increased income that contractors realized. If they were employees the reaction may have been different. The additional work also resulted in increased time to do the work. Usually an increased workload is thought to burden those that remain after downsizing (Agwu et al., 2014) but there was no evidence of participants being burdened by the extra work. In fact, one participant wanted more work mainly to make more money. In one instance the workload decreased. Although an increased workload is usually considered a negative effect of downsizing (McManus & Mosca, 2015) and linked to increased stress (Hagel, 2013), the increased workload experienced by the majority of the participants was not viewed as a negative result nor was there any indication of it causing increased stress.

Quantitative Findings - Downsizing Effects on Culture

Quantitative results showed only that the dominant culture types increased in dominance from the predownsizing to the postdownsizing environments. Participants perceived a stronger clan culture type after downsizing occurred but also that the hierarchy culture type also strengthened in the postdownsizing setting (see Figure 23). Both culture types changed but the hierarchy culture type became more dominant. Quantitative analysis showed that downsizing changed the strength of the culture types supporting the qualitative findings.
Figure 23. Pre and postdownsizing culture profile.

For further in depth analysis the profile of each culture attribute: (a) dominant characteristics, (b) organizational leadership, (c) management of contractors, (d) organization glue, (e) strategic emphasis, and (f) criteria of success depicts how each culture attribute corresponded to the dominant culture type. Comparisons of these profiles from the predownsizing to the postdownsizing environments helped to describe graphically the strength of the dominant culture type. In Figure 24 the dominance of the clan culture type is evident in the pre organizational characteristics attribute but there is a large increase in the strength of the hierarchy culture type in the postdownsizing results. Contractors may have perceived the downsizing decision as a controlling move of the management reflected in the resulting shift.
Figure 24. Dominant characteristics pre and postdownsizing culture profiles.

The organizational leadership attribute supported the dominance of the clan culture as well in the predownsizing environment (see Figure 25). In fact, from the pre to post setting the strengthening of the clan culture type is significant. Unlike the dominant characteristics profiles, the organizational leadership profile shows a decrease in the hierarchy strength. In the postdownsizing environment, participants scored the clan culture type higher than the predownsizing setting while scoring the hierarchy culture the same. Although participants perceived a family setting they also observed some stability and control when leading them.
Figure 25. Organizational leadership pre and postdownsizing culture profiles.

There was a dramatic shift for the management of employees attribute from a dominant hierarchy culture type in the predownsizing setting to a clan culture type in the postdownsizing setting (see Figure 26). Again, participants perceived a higher atmosphere of teamwork and harmony and a less bureaucratic culture. This shift perhaps signified the willingness of management to work with participants postdownsizing.
There was another dramatic shift from the pre to the postdownsizing environments for the organization glue component (see Figure 27). The hierarchy dominance and the clan dominance were scored the same predownsizing but changed significantly to hierarchy dominance postdownsizing. The results suggested that the participants may have perceived loyalty and mutual trust between themselves and the organization predownsizing but a much more controlling behavior from management postdownsizing.
The strategic emphasis attribute is perhaps the component that showed a significant change in the adhocracy culture type from pre to postdownsizing (see Figure 28). The clan and hierarchy quadrants decreased slightly signaling a minimal change in the perception of a family setting along with steady control from management. This perceived increase in the adhocracy culture attribute postdownsizing may be suggesting that the participants see management as trying to create new opportunities for the company.
Participants’ average scores were exactly the same for the clan and hierarchy culture types in the postdownsizing environment for the criteria of success attribute (see Figure 29). The management was perceived to be fostering teamwork, commitment, and a greater concern for the well-being of contractors while still expecting a certain level of efficiency for achieving overall success. In most dimensions, there seems to be a constant interplay yet balance between the clan and hierarchy culture attributes an observation consistent with the foundation that the competing values framework was built on; these competing values are representative of human behavior (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).
Figure 29. Criteria of success pre and postdownsizing culture profiles.

Summary

The results from both the qualitative responses and the quantitative responses aligned with the conceptual framework and addressed the researched questions. The qualitative responses described the lived experiences of the participants as Schein (2010) suggested while the survey scores and plotted culture profiles described those experiences in aggregate using pictures (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Culture is in every person (Schein, 2010). Culture is a part of every organization (Gurdal & Kumkale, 2014). The pre and postdownsizing and preferred culture types were identified as well as the effects of downsizing on organizational culture based on the lived experiences of the contractors.
Participants perceived a primarily clan culture type before downsizing occurred but perceived a shift to a more dominant hierarchy culture type after downsizing. A clan culture setting was overwhelmingly preferred by one-hundred percent of the participants. The effects of downsizing on organizational culture were varied. Several aligned with prior research findings while other effects were conflicting. The case for how contractors’ perceived downsizing and organizational culture compared to employees was strong. Identifying the birth of a shared value or belief provided supportive evidence for how the underlying beliefs or values form based on the conceptual framework. In Chapter 5 I present an interpretation of these findings, the limitations of my study, and recommendations and implications for further research.
Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Downsizing can affect organizational culture in a positive and/or a negative way (Jivan, 2012). A preferred organizational culture can produce overall organizational success (Crews & Richard, 2013). The purpose of this qualitative case study was to explore what effects downsizing has on organizational culture based on the perceptions of independent contractors in the newspaper industry. A preferred organizational culture will result in more positive outcomes for an organization (Kordnaij et al., 2012; Shah et al., 2012).

There is a significant amount of research on the causes and consequences of downsizing (Gandolfi & Hansson, 2011); but, a limited amount of information about the relationship between downsizing and organizational culture (Rai & Lakshman, 2014). I explored this gap by providing data to identify the pre and postdownsizing and the preferred culture types of contractors in the newspaper industry and it also described the effects of downsizing on organizational culture based on the contractors’ perceptions. The data addressed four research questions:

1. What was the type of organizational culture before downsizing occurred?
2. What is the current type of organizational culture after downsizing?
3. What is the preferred type of organizational culture?
4. What are the perceived effects of downsizing on organizational culture?

Independent contractors at an ID in the Southeastern United States participated in my study.
Several major themes emerged which described the lived experiences of the contractors and their perceptions about the pre and postdownsizing and preferred culture setting and the effects of downsizing on organizational culture. The results indicated that both the clan and hierarchy types of culture were equally dominant before downsizing occurred. Postdownsizing, both dominant culture types were strengthened with the hierarchy culture type becoming more dominant. Downsizing strengthened the predownsizing culture types but changed the dominant culture at the same time. The preferred culture was identified as the clan culture type. Downsizing had both positive and negative effects on organizational culture and there were differences in how contractors experienced downsizing as compared to employees. A preferred organizational culture will result in more positive outcomes and overall success for companies that downsize.

**Interpretation of Findings**

The results supported the idea that a preferred organizational culture will promote increased performance and positive outcomes. Culture is in every individual and as such all organizations have a culture (Schein, 1990, 2010). Organizational culture is a shared group experience where basic norms are developed over time as group members interact together to solve problems that result from external and internal factors forming a basis for how members should understand, think, and feel about those problems (Schein, 2010). Organizational culture is the values that are taken-for-granted, the assumptions, the expectations, and those attributes that define the members of an organization.
(Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The study results supported this concept of organizational culture and the research from the literature.

The experience of the participants supported the idea that culture exists on a range from macro cultures to micro cultures called categories of culture and from observable to unobservable as Schein (2010) determined. The newspaper industry, the macro culture, exerted significant influence on each facet of the industry and throughout all levels. The decisions of the larger players such as the publishers affected the lowest level and smallest entity within the industry. Participant responses demonstrated this interaction between the ranges of macro to micro. Schein’s (2010) idea of these categories show influence in one direction, that is, from macro to micro but no indication of the micro culture exerting any influence upward to the larger culture. The results of my study supported this direction. Although participants recognized culture at their own level they were also aware of the greater culture of the newspaper industry.

Schein (2010) discussed the observable attributes of culture to the unobservable attributes whereas Cameron and Quinn (2011) described culture from unobservable to observable. The direction is unimportant for understanding culture since the characteristics are similar at any point on the range from either unobservable to observable or vice versa. The emergent themes based on the responses of the participants reflected attributes of each level of culture. At the most unobservable level are the basic assumptions which are the shared beliefs and values that dictate how members of the group act, think, and feel (Schein, 2010). Participants described feeling that the company cared about their well-being based on a shared belief about how the company valued
them. Unless the participants had described this feeling it would not be known since this basic assumption is unobservable. The majority of participants expressing these same experiences also supported Schein’s (2010) notion that the basic underlying assumptions, the most unobservable level of culture, can be seen when all the members of a group act and think in the same way. These embedded shared beliefs and values are resistant to change (Schein, 2010). Cameron and Quinn (2011) also suggested that the most observable level is the behaviors of the members of the group. Participants described the relationships shared between each other and the management. They also noted the teamwork experienced. Both relationships and teamwork are observable dimensions of culture. The results of my study supported both the concept of culture as operating from a macro culture to a micro culture and that the dimensions of culture do exist on a range from observable to unobservable and vice versa.

Organizational culture affects several functions of a company, all processes, and results (Neagu & Nicula, 2012). The relationship between organizational culture and performance is perhaps the one that is studied the most (Prenestini & Lega, 2013). The literature pointed to culture’s influence on employee satisfaction (Abbaspour & Noghreh, 2015) and employee performance (Uddin et al., 2013). Much of the descriptions by the participants of the predownsizing environment supported this claim. Contractors were satisfied within the culture predownsizing and wanted to perform at an optimal level. The contractors also echoed feelings of a high commitment to the company also a result of culture as suggested by Shah et al. (2012).
The study results supported Cameron and Quinn’s (2011) concept that one way of understanding culture is through types. The OCAI did identify the pre and postdownsizing and the preferred culture types of the contractors. The quantitative results supported the qualitative findings and were a good representation of the strength of the conceptual framework. Schein (2010) believed that culture as an abstraction cannot be measured but has to be observed. Cameron and Quinn (2011) focused on the aggregate experiences of the members defined through the six dimensions of culture. In each instance both data sources strengthened each other and offered a complete picture of the effects of downsizing on organizational culture.

The identification of the culture type for the pre and postdownsizing environments and the preferred culture type were in line with the definition of organizational culture as a shared set of values and beliefs that are experienced by all members of the group as noted by Orta (2015). These values and beliefs are the bond that unites the members (Schein, 2010) and define who they are (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The experiences of the contractors supported Schein’s idea that understanding the specific environment in which a culture exists is needed for cultivating a preferred culture. The experience of workers in the newspaper industry, for example, will be a different experience for workers in another type of industry going through the same set of circumstances. This idea also extends, based on the findings, to different types of workers as well; a contractor’s experience of downsizing is different from an employee’s experience. The feelings of the contractors about motivation postdownsizing, for example, differed from the literature. Noer (1993) described 14 symptoms of survivor
syndrome one of which was reduced motivation. The participants, however, had increased motivation or motivation that was unchanged. There was no experience of reduced motivation. Schein’s (2010) concept for understanding organizational culture is the most defining for arguing the need to understand the experiences of different types of workers; the experience of a contractor may not be the same as an employee.

Downsizing can change organizational culture to a desired culture (Rai & Lakshman, 2014) or an undesired culture (Demps & Baker, 2011; Leatt et al., 1997). A preferred organizational culture is especially important because preference affects behavior (Ekwutosi & Moses, 2013). The results of this study supported these concepts. I also found that downsizing strengthened the desired culture type while making the undesired culture type dominant. This finding reflected the competing values seen in human behavior that Cameron and Quinn (2011) referred to. These values depict the competing nature of human behavior where attributes of one culture type may be desired while attributes of another culture type are also desired at the same time (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The values that are preferred are reflected in the dominant culture type (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Downsizing is a change within a company (Agwu et al., 2014; Cascio, 2014). Downsizing effectively strengthened the two dominant culture types and created a dominant culture at the same time. Although downsizing was a change that may have disrupted the basic group assumptions, downsizing did not produce the level of instability Schein (2010) suggested when such interference occurs. The effect did not impact all group members in the same way. Health effects, for example, differed from the literature.
Stress is a symptom of survivor syndrome (Noer, 1993) but the majority of the participants did not experience any stress. Guilt is another symptom suggested by Noer (1993) but no participant felt guilty postdownsizing. These results again support that there is a difference between the type of worker.

Culture influences all processes, relationships, and results (Neagu & Nicula, 2012). A preferred culture increases performance (Wei et al., 2014). Culture controls behavior (Schein, 2010); how much more would a preferred culture. Analysis at the dimension level allowed for a deeper and more detailed understanding of culture. These results demonstrated many of the suggestions made within the literature for understanding culture and how it affects the processes of a company. Analyzing the preferences at a dimension level allows for a customization not possible otherwise (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Organizational culture is related to satisfaction, effectiveness, and overall success (Shahzad et al., 2012). A preferred culture can increase productivity and result in more satisfied workers (Hajjawi, 2013; Moon et al., 2012). Many of these positive outcomes of a preferred organizational culture were evident from the experiences of the participants.

Based on the results, participants believed that the downsizing was a planned reduction in the workforce and not a reduction due to workers voluntarily leaving. The participants believed that the decision to downsize was driven by economic reasons. This finding is consistent with the literature that downsizing is typically planned and is primarily undertaken for improving performance (Cascio, 2014; Datta et al., 2010). The literature showed that downsizing has mainly negative effects (Bayardo et al., 2013;
Brenner et al., 2014; Modrek & Cullen, 2013) and some positive effects predominantly experienced by the organization (Jivan, 2012; De Meuse & Dai, 2013). Participants had both positive and negative experiences postdownsizing. Downsizing changed culture as perceived by the participants to a less preferred dominant culture while strengthening the preferred culture type at the same time. Much of the effects of downsizing on organizational culture can be seen through the effects to the human resource (McMahan et al., 2012). Brenner et al. (2014) maintained that all persons affected by downsizing, that is, the displaced, the survivors, those internally redeployed, and the reemployed showed depressive symptoms postdownsizing. No participant was depressed after downsizing.

According to McManus and Mosca (2015), one of the negative effects of downsizing is an increased workload, which can cause a decrease in employee morale and affect trust. Although the majority of the participants did have an increased workload it was not necessarily viewed as a negative outcome because the increased workload also resulted in an increase in income. No participant had less morale or a loss in trust with fellow contractors or the company. There were both a positive and a negative effect of the increased income. The effects extended socially as well as suggested by Javed et al. (2013). Participants enjoyed the increased earnings but each change within the working environment extended to the external environment.

Downsizing can have unknown outcomes as Hagel (2013) suggested. One outcome that was not mentioned in the literature was the emergence of a basic human instinct, self-preservation. Participants mentioned protecting self often. It was an
interesting interplay between genuine care for fellow contractors and the company but attempting to ensure their own self-preservation at the same time; this finding reinforces the competing values that depict human behavior suggested by Cameron and Quinn (2011).

Many of the differences that were experienced by the participants seemed linked to the fact that they were contractors and not employees, which may explain why several of the findings differed to the findings of the literature. Researchers referred to employees or workers in the literature. In the case of workers it is not specified whether those workers were employees or contractors. The contractor workforce is growing and it is believed that over 80% of large companies will increase their contractor workforce in the coming years (Neuner, 2013; http://about.intuit.com/futureofsmallbusiness/). The findings showed that contractors viewed many of the outcomes of downsizing differently from employees. Although there was an increase in workload, for example, the contractors realized an immediate increase in their earnings as well. Contractors must receive increased compensation for additional work unless their contracts stipulate otherwise. Employees have no guarantee of an increase in pay if their workload increases. This difference influences the way the increased workload is perceived.

Participants also believed that in a downsizing situation decisions about which contractors to retain and which ones to let go, are made on merit rather than longevity. As such, they believe that there is a different level of job security in being a contractor. Employers also cannot terminate contractors that have a written agreement without notice (Pages, 2012; www.dispatch.com), giving contractors an even higher level of job
security. Participants’ feelings about job security were in stark contrast to Newton and Borstorff’s (2012) suggestion that individuals who work as contractors have little job security. It was recognized that contractors did not enjoy some of the benefits mentioned by Newton and Borstorff but the tradeoff for things like being self-employed and having greater control over how the work was performed was more beneficial for contractors.

Team work and care of the human resource foster a successful working environment (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Although most of the descriptions of culture in the literature can effectively apply to contractors, I noted from my analysis of the results that not all descriptions can be applied because of the type of worker that a contractor is as compared to an employee. One such example: Lester (2013) suggested that both employer and employee benefit when there is a culture that fosters a work-life balance between the employee’s work and personal life. Work-life balance can be accomplished through alternate work arrangements (Lester, 2013). Such a result could not be realized with a contractor because of the working relationship between a contractor and the company. Employers exert greater control over employees and have the power to set a specific work time but employers cannot control the hours of a contractor (Parrish, 2013). The type of human resource must matter in fostering a successful working environment if the types can be different.

**Limitations of the Study**

There are several limitations that should be noted when considering the results of this study. Steps taken to ensure trustworthiness helped to lessen the possible impact of the limitations mentioned in Chapter 1. The participants did not seem to have a problem...
recalling their experiences when answering the questions about the culture before downsizing occurred. By ensuring confidentiality for the participants, they were willing to participate in the study despite the sensitive nature of downsizing.

Because I was an inside researcher participants may have been cautious in their answers. An inside researcher has access, camaraderie, trust, and knowledge of the culture (Kim, 2012). All of these help to unearth confidential information (Cumming-Potvin, 2013). By assuring confidentiality, participants were more at ease in answering honestly. Inside research also presented the potential problem of subjectivity and bias (Greene, 2014). I took several steps to avoid being subjective and biased primarily practicing reflexivity.

Another limitation was the participants’ ability to relate the questions of the OCAI to the organizational culture of the ID. Some participants were unclear about how to complete the OCAI. I explained in detail, answered all their questions, and gave examples to facilitate understanding.

Because of the sample size and the focus on the newspaper industry, transferability may also be a limitation. I used thick and detailed descriptions throughout to address concerns about transferability as suggested by Kemparaj and Chavan (2013) and Malagon-Maldonado (2014) so that related comparisons can be made. A purposeful sampling strategy and data saturation also promoted transferability. The final decision on transferability rests with the reader (Marshall & Rossman, 2016).
Recommendations

All organizations have a culture (Schein, 1999). Culture is an abstraction that exists on a range with observable to unobservable attributes and vice versa (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Schein, 2010). The challenge is as Schein (2010) determined - how to observe that which cannot be seen. There is consensus in the literature that all organizational cultures although they are made up of many dimensions must operate within two main dimensions, an external dimension and an internal dimension (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Schein, 2010). There is some disagreement, however, about how to assess organizational culture. Schein suggested that culture should be observed and Cameron and Quinn believed that culture can be assessed in the aggregate on the main dimensions of culture. There are no disagreements about how difficult it is to define culture and that many definitions exist for this reason (Muscalu, 2014; Schneider et al., 2013).

My study was a qualitative case study design that included a quantitative data collection method. The quantitative method was adequate for assessing the pre and postdownsizing and the preferred culture types of the contractors. However, beyond the summarized descriptions within the content of the OCAI itself, no lived experiences could be captured. The qualitative method obtained in detail the lived experiences of the contractors. The qualitative method was able to unearth a deeper understanding of those unobservable basic assumptions that both Schein (2010) and Cameron and Quinn (2011) determined are a part of all organizational cultures. Future research involving organizational culture should seriously consider a qualitative approach using
methodological triangulation for capturing what Schein (1994) called the essence of culture.

The complexities of understanding organizational culture also require that culture be investigated at every level (Schein, 2010). Schein’s argument is that from a macro level to a micro level, all levels must be studied accordingly because each level may have a different culture. As such, across industries the culture may be different. Within each industry the culture may be different across every level of the industry. Therefore, within the newspaper industry, for example, the circulation and distribution arm of the industry may have a different culture than the production arm of the industry. Within each arm the culture among employees may be different than the culture of contractors. The expanse of the investigation needed is as complex as it is wide. Further studies might explore the effects of downsizing on organizational culture within the newspaper industry on a wider context to include as many other stakeholders as possible or even on a micro level within sections since downsizing has impacted certain sectors of the industry more intensely than others. Additionally, an exploration of the preferred culture of workers in the industry will help companies cultivate and maintain cultures that are conducive to increasing both worker and company performance and effectiveness.

Further, the need to understand culture at varying levels as well as among the different types of workers in the workforce was evident from my study. Independent contractors are a growing sector of the U.S. workforce (Neuner, 2013). This trend may be related to the different benefits that both contractors and employers enjoy. I have also seen the recent problems such as misclassification that employers face as this population
grows and government interest in ensuring proper classification as noted by Agostino and Krieger (2015). The results of my study also revealed differences between contractor experiences and experiences found in the literature such as increased motivation rather than decreased motivation after downsizing. The literature does not specify the type of worker except in instances where employees are specifically referred to. In the same way that assessing the type of culture a company has is necessary for understanding that culture, so assessing how differing types of workers perceive that culture has to be differentiated. It cannot be assumed that an employee with dissimilar things at stake than a contractor would experience anything in the same way that a contractor does. This stance opens the gate to a myriad of potential studies and even the need to reinvestigate topics where the contractor workforce has been introduced or increased.

Downsizing has become a common practice (Rodriquez-Ruiz, 2015) not just in the United States but globally (Cascio, 2014). The printed newspaper is still a viable entity worldwide (Kilman, 2015). I would recommend that several comparative studies be done that focus on the newspaper industry worldwide. Comparisons could be made between the newspaper industry in the United States and the newspaper industry in other countries. In addition, comparisons about the effects of downsizing on organizational culture and the preferred organizational culture within the industry worldwide as an aggregate may be useful for identifying strengths that the newspaper industry can capitalize on for remaining strong.

One other recommendation for further research is a comparison with other industries that are considered to be declining. The United States Postal Service (USPS),
for example, is an industry considered to be in decline (Laird, 2015). Workers for the USPS have also experienced downsizing (Katz, 2014). The USPS also uses different types of workers (https://about.usps.com). Comparing industries with similar conditions may indicate areas for improvement and innovation that could help both industries to remain attractive especially to all types of workers in the workforce.

**Implications**

**Social Implications**

Downsizing has become a standard management practice (Homburg et al., 2012) and is considered a strategy (Ngirande et al., 2014). Workplace experiences, such as downsizing, impact individuals and their personal lives (Bunker & Wakefield, 2010). The literature pointed to many possible outcomes of downsizing (Brenner et al., 2014; De Meuse & Dai, 2013; Jivan, 2012; Okibo, 2012). After downsizing, individuals may experience issues such as anxiety and fear which can result in various consequences such as the possibility of losing their livelihood (Bunker & Wakefield, 2010). Fear causes stress (Carter, 2010) and stress can lead to burnout (Cotter & Fouad, 2012). Stress can also be a result of the increased workload and job insecurity that follow a downsizing event (Cotter & Fouad, 2012). These are just some of the many consequences that can be caused by downsizing (Brenner et al., 2014; Okibo, 2012). There are also social consequences caused by downsizing (Gandolfi & Littler, 2012). Downsizing is considered a threat to an individual’s social life (Javed et al., 2013).

Organizational culture is related to effectiveness and overall success in an organization; therefore, an undesired organizational culture can lead to decreased
performance and effectiveness companywide (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Organizational culture plays an important role in the pre and postdownsizing process and is also a vital factor in influencing organizational performance and effectiveness (Shahzad et al., 2012; Wei et al., 2014). A preferred organizational culture has the potential to result in several positive outcomes such as increased performance, increased productivity, more motivation and overall organizational success (Crews & Richard, 2013; Hajjawi, 2013; Jacobs et al., 2013; Moon et al., 2012). Downsizing can affect organizational culture producing an undesired culture (Neagu & Nicula, 2012) which may result in decreased performance and companywide success (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Downsizing affects both the victims and the survivors of downsizing (McMahan et al., 2012). A worker that has been displaced loses income and other benefits such as health care, which in turn affects the family of that worker (Demps & Baker, 2011). This extension to the family suggests the far reaching implications to society (Javed et al., 2013). This dynamic has caused more organizations to embrace the idea that there are benefits to a work-life balance not just for the employee but for the organization and are implementing policies and programs to support this balance of which organizational culture plays a part (Lester, 2013).

A preferred culture carries social implications both internally and externally for organizations, for their workers, and for the family members of workers (Neagu & Nicula, 2012; Javed et al., 2013). Understanding how downsizing affects organizational culture based on the perceptions of the contractors will benefit IDs given the large scale downsizing that is happening in the newspaper industry (Elgan, 2012, Reinardy, 2013;
Saperstein, 2014). By knowing the preferred culture type and the effects of downsizing on culture specific to the newspaper industry IDs can be prepared if and when downsizing becomes necessary to protect or change culture so that the most optimal working environment is always pursued (Simamora & Jerry, 2013).

Organizations are a group that is a part of the larger social environment (Rappaport & Richter, 2013). As such, members of an organization not only interact within the organization but also within the larger external context (Rappaport & Richter, 2013). Knowing the preferred organizational culture within an organization and awareness of the possible effects of downsizing on organizational culture, companies can change an undesired culture to a desired culture. Companies can work to cultivate and sustain a culture that produces positive outcomes for their workers and influences positive social change.

**Implications for Theory**

Organizational culture is a part of all organizations and each company has its own unique culture (Gurdal & Kumkale, 2014). In any change initiative ignoring the role that culture plays could render the goals of the change ineffective ( Abbaspour & Noghreh, 2015). Downsizing is a change within a company (Agwu et al., 2014; Cascio, 2014). The results of my study showed that downsizing affects organizational culture. My study helped to fill a gap in the literature by providing information about organizational culture and downsizing, organizational culture and downsizing in the newspaper industry, and about independent contractor perceptions regarding how downsizing affected organizational culture.
The results of my study showed that downsizing does affect organizational culture. The findings also showed that several experiences of the participants were in conflict to the findings in the literature and that some of the results were related to the type of worker, that is, a contractor versus an employee. It is recommended that in future studies researchers specify which type of worker they are studying so that a more accurate judgement can be made for the application of the findings of those studies. Further, my study revealed that using multiple sources for data collection provided the most in depth analysis for understanding the effects of downsizing on organizational culture. A quantitative method could only show that a change occurred but could not describe the change that had taken place. Researchers should seriously consider a qualitative approach using methodological triangulation for understanding organizational culture.

There is no one definition in the literature for organizational culture (Muscalu, 2014; Schneider et al., 2013). Despite this fact, organizational culture scholars agree on one word in regards to the definition of organizational culture, shared (Schneider et al., 2013). Organizational culture is a shared experience and there are dimensions of culture that are observable but the majority of those dimensions are unobservable (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Schein, 2010). There is much debate about how to see the invisible attributes of culture. I agree with both points of view but given the results of my study, I agree with Schein (1996, 2004, 2010), culture has to be observed; human experiences cannot be measured.
Significance for Practice

The newspaper industry continues to face many challenges (Belch & Belch, 2014). Many of the challenges are attributed to the growth of the Internet and related factors (Belch & Belch, 2014; Saperstein, 2014). Newspaper publishers have experienced a significant loss in advertising revenue (Chittum, 2013), declining circulation (Mitchell & Page, 2015), and challenges caused by the economic crisis (Benavides & Leiva, 2014). The mounting financial problems have forced publishers to downsize (Aucoin, 2012). Downsizing has become a standard practice across industries (Homburg et al., 2012; Rodriguez-Ruiz, 2015). Although downsizing can lower costs (Jivan, 2012) and increase revenue (De Meuse & Dai, 2013), downsizing can have unknown consequences (Hagel, 2013) such as producing an undesired culture because culture affects all areas of a company (Neagu & Nicula, 2012). A preferred organizational culture produces increased productivity (Moon et al., 2012), improved performance (Jacobs et al., 2013), and overall company success (Crews & Richard, 2013).

There are few studies in the literature addressing the relationship between downsizing and organizational culture (Rai & Lakshman, 2014). There is also no information about downsizing and organizational culture in the newspaper industry and about independent contractors, a different type of worker (Pages, 2012). Contractors differ in many regards to an employee in the workforce (Thickstun, 2013). In the case of the employee, the company controls the how, where, and when of the job performed; whereas in a contractor relationship, the contractor controls the how, where, and when of the same tasks (Thickstun, 2013). Employees are paid a salary (Miller, 2014) while
contractors are paid a fee for the service(s) performed (Thickstun, 2013). Employees receive several benefits such as paid vacation; independent contractors do not (Fishman, 2014). Some differences are even emotional and can be negative or positive (Parrish, 2013). On the positive side, for example, employees work for one employer while enjoying the interaction with other people whereas the contractor is his or her own boss (Parrish, 2013). These differences influence how each type of worker perceives their experiences of different things in the workforce (Parrish, 2013).

The results of my study showed that contractors perceived some effects of downsizing in contrast to the literature. Motivation was increased postdownsizing not decreased, for example. Because there are differences between an employee and an independent contractor, it is important to understand how each type of worker, both of which are a part of the newspaper industry’s workforce, perceives different functions and processes of the industry. The detailed description of how downsizing affected organizational culture provided by my study offered information that can be used to help companies within the industry cultivate, change, if needed, and sustain the culture preferred by contractors. This information is vitally important as the contractor workforce increases. The results also provide a basis for comparison not just between industries or between departments within an industry but also between employees and contractors.

Conclusions

Worldwide 2.7 billion people read a print newspaper and over 770 million people read the news on a digital format (Kilman, 2015). The newspaper industry in the United States faces many challenges due mainly to the growth of the Internet (Belch & Belch,
2014) compounded by the poor economy (Benavides & Leiva, 2014). Many of the stakeholders within the industry such as IDs not unlike other industries have turned to downsizing for cutting cost and improving the bottom line (Datta et al., 2012).

Organizational culture is not only a part of every company (Gurdal & Kumkale, 2014) but culture is in every individual (Schein, 2010). IDs use contractors to perform their services (Zinser, 2015). Contractors are a different type of worker in the workforce (Thickstun, 2013) because their risks and benefits are different from the risks and benefits of employees.

The results of my study showed that downsizing affects organizational culture and that downsizing can have both positive and negative outcomes. The lived experiences of the contractors demonstrated that organizational culture influences all functions of a company as Neagu and Nicula (2012) suggested making organizational culture an important aspect of a company to consider. A preferred culture will result in better outcomes for the company (Kordnaeij et al., 2012; Shah et al., 2012) and by extension the workers. Contractors are different from employees so they perceive their experiences differently than employees because their work risks and benefits are different (Parrish, 2013). An undesired organizational culture results in several negative outcomes (Schein, 1999); therefore, organizations should strive to create and maintain a preferred organizational culture so that they can realize overall worker and company success.

Organizational culture and the power it exerts on every organization make this endeavor paramount (Crews & Richard, 2013). I realized the purpose of the study by describing the
pre and postdownsizing types of culture, the preferred type of culture, and by describing the effects of downsizing based on the lived experiences of the contractors.

As the contractor workforce increases not just within the newspaper industry but within the United States, it is important to consider how all work processes are perceived by those who perform those tasks. The results of my study highlighted the need for companies to pursue a preferred organizational culture and to understand how the different types of workers in the workforce perceive different things. Much of the current literature in management does not differentiate the type of worker except in cases where employees are mentioned specifically. Some studies refer to workers which could be assumed to mean any kind of worker. Since there is a difference between the type of workers and their relationships to the company, it stands to reason then, that their experiences and perceptions of varying concepts may also differ. As the results of my study has shown some experiences of the contractors differed from the experiences described in the literature about the effects of downsizing. Because of the increase of the contractor in the workforce, I believe management scholars will have to differentiate the type of worker that is being studied. As such, this needed information may revolutionize some aspects of the management literature or even some management theories themselves.
References


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Cumming-Potvin, W. (2013). "New basics" and literacies: Deepening reflexivity in...


downsizing: The effects of extent of downsizing and open communication.  

*Journal of Marketing, 76*(3), 112-130. doi:10.1509/jm.09.0486


Katz, E. (2014, July 3). USPS will shed 3,000 employees by 2015, through retirements or


doi:10.1080/09585192.2011.616525


http://www.europeanjournalofeconomicsfinanceandadministrativesciences.com/


### Appendix A: Other Downsizing Terms

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<td>slivering</td>
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(Cameron, 1994; Javed et al., 2013; Miller, 1998)
Appendix B: Informed Consent Form

The Effects of Downsizing on Organizational Culture in the Newspaper Industry

You are invited to participate in a research study being conducted to understand the effects of downsizing on organizational culture in the newspaper industry. You were invited to participate in the study because you are a contractor for a company that has gone through downsizing. This form allows you to understand the study before deciding to participate.

This study is being conducted by Marcella Sweeney, a student researcher, who is a doctoral student at Walden University. You may already know the researcher as a contractor at XXX, Inc., but this study is separate from that role.

Procedures:
If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to:

- Complete a survey and answer four questions that will take approximately 30 minutes

Voluntary Nature of the Study:
Your participation in this study is voluntary. This means that everyone will respect your decision of whether or not you choose to be in the study. No one at XXX, Inc. will treat you differently if you decide not to be in the study. If you decide to join the study now, you can still change your mind during or after the study. You may stop at any time.

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study:
Your participation will be anonymous. No identifiable information will be collected about you. There are no anticipated conflicts of interest involved with this study and your answers will not impact your position as a contractor. The benefit of participating in this study will provide an understanding of the effects of downsizing on organizational culture and the preferred culture type of contractors in the newspaper industry.

Compensation:
No compensation will be given for participating in this study.

Privacy:
Any information you provide will be kept anonymous. No identifying information will be collected about you. Data will be kept secure by a password protected file and kept for a period of at least 5 years, as required by the university.

Contacts and Questions:
You may ask any questions you have now. Or if you have questions later, you may contact the researcher via telephone at xxx-xxxx-xxxx or the researcher’s committee chair Dr. Donna Brown at xxx-xxxx-xxxx. If you want to talk privately about your rights as a
participant, you can call Dr. Leilani Endicott. She is the Walden University representative who can discuss this with you. Her phone number is 1-800-xxx-xxxx, extension xxxxxxx. Walden University’s approval number for this study is 12-16-13-0144559 and it expires on December 16, 2014.

To protect your privacy no consent signature is required. Instead, your completion of this survey and participation in the interview will indicate your consent, if you choose to participate. Please feel free to keep this copy of the consent form.

Your time and help are greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Marcella Sweeney
College of Management & Technology
Walden University
Appendix C: Permission to Use the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument

---------------------------------------
Original E-mail
From: "Cameron, Kim"
Date: 10/13/2010 08:03 AM
To: 'Marcella Sweeney'
Subject: RE: Permission to use the OCAI

Dear Marcella,
Thank you for your inquiry about using the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI).
The OCAI instrument (Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument) was copyrighted by Professor Kim Cameron in the 1980s, but because it is published in the Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture book, it is also copyrighted by Jossey Bass.

The instrument may be used free of charge for research or student purposes, but a licensing fee is charged when the instrument is used by a company or by consulting firms to generate revenues. Because you fall into the first category, Dr. Cameron grants you permission to use the OCAI free of charge. You may also include it in your appendix with the appropriate attribution and indication of copyright. He would appreciate it if you would share your results with him when you finish your study.

Please let me know if you have other questions.

Best regards,
Meredith Mecham Smith
Assistant to Kim Cameron
Kim Cameron
William Russell Kelly Professor
Ross School of Business
and Professor of Higher Education
School of Education
University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48109
xxx-xxx-xxxx
xxx_xxxxxxx@xxx.edu

From: Marcella Sweeney
Sent: Tuesday, October 12, 2010 5:52 PM
To: xxx_xxxxxxx@xxx.edu
Subject: Permission to use the OCAI

Dear Dr. Cameron,

I am a doctoral candidate at Walden University and I am seeking your permission to use the
Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) in my dissertation and a pilot study on the relationship between downsizing and organizational culture. In addition, may I include the instrument in the appendix of my dissertation? If any other information is needed, please feel free to contact me.

Thank you for your time and consideration,

Marcella Sweeney
Walden University
College of Management and Technology
Appendix D: Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument

1. Dominant Characteristics

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<td>A</td>
<td>The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.</td>
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<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>The organization is a dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>The organization is very results orientated. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.</td>
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<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.</td>
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Total points must equal 100

2. Organizational Leadership

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<td>The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovating, or risk taking.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency.</td>
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Total points must equal 100

3. Management of Employees

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<td>A</td>
<td>The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.</td>
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<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.</td>
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<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.</td>
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Total points must equal 100
4. Organization Glue

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<td>A</td>
<td>The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important.</td>
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5. Strategic Emphases

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<td>A</td>
<td>The organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control, and smooth operations are important.</td>
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6. Criteria of Success

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<td>A</td>
<td>The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>The organization defines success on the basis of having unique or the newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>The organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.</td>
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<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical.</td>
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The competing values framework. Adapted from *Diagnosing and changing organizational culture: Based on the competing values framework* (pp. 30-32), by K. S. Cameron and R. E. Quinn, 2011, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass. Copyright 2011 by John Wiley & Sons, Inc. Adapted with permission.
### Appendix E: OCAI Scores

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