

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

**ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE IN HIGHER EDUCATION: THE CASE OF
OUR LADY OF APOSTLE (OLA) COLLEGE OF EDUCATION**



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OUR LADY OF APOSTLE (OLA) COLLEGE OF EDUCATION**



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and Management, submitted to the School of Graduate
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MAY, 2020

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, **Jonathan Ebo-Quagraine**, declare that this dissertation, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

Signature:

Date:

SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of thesis/ dissertation/ project work as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

Professor Hinnieh Kusi (Principal Supervisor)

Signature:

Date:

Professor Samuel Asare-Amoah (Co-Supervisor)

Signature:

Date:

DEDICATION

To my mother, Madam Adjoa Demtsiwa and to my late father, Opanyin Moses Quagraine.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

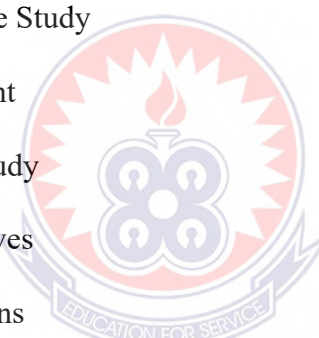
This thesis would not have come to fruition without the guidance and support of some individuals. I thank my supervisors Professor Hinneh Kusi and Professor Samuel Asare-Amoah most sincerely for their invaluable contributions towards the production of this thesis. The meetings and discussions and I had with them during which, they made lots of critical comments and useful suggestions went a long way to bring this thesis to its final form.

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ABSTRACT

The study investigated organisational culture (OC) in higher education at OLA College of Education in the Central Region, Ghana. The study employed sequential explanatory mixed methods design. A sample of 392 (342 students and 50 staff) was selected using purposive, simple random and convenience sampling techniques. Questionnaires and interviews were used for data collection. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the quantitative data. The qualitative data were analysed in themes. The study found that students and staff had positive perceptions towards the prevailing OC. Further, the environment, leadership, management practices, formal socialisation process and informal socialisation process were key factors that influenced the OC at OLA. It was concluded that among other types of culture, bureaucratic was seen to have been used the more. Moreover, students and staff had optimistic perceptions towards the prevailing type of OC. Also, OC was without the influence of some factors. Again, OC contributed to the organisational effectiveness (OE). It was recommended that in selecting and appointing management personnel at OLA College of Education, in-service training should be run for them on the need to use more of bureaucratic culture. Also, management should run workshop for students and staff had on the need to embrace the prevailing types of OC. Again, management at OLA College of Education should take keen interest in the factors affecting the OC of the institution. Furthermore, in selecting or appointing management personnel at OLA College of Education, they are to be oriented through in-service training on how OC can contribute to the OE.

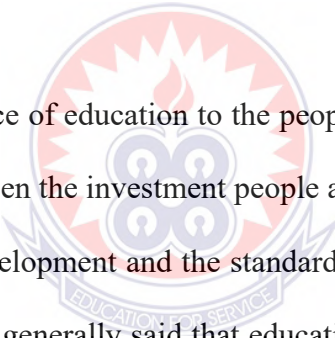


CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Education is the bedrock of national development. Through education, nationals become informed citizens. Decision making, industry, social processes and sanitation are not left out when it comes to the benefits derived from education. All spheres of life are better understood and developed as a result of education. This was what Tozer and Carver (2012) saw when they mentioned that education equips learners with the skill to modify beliefs, customs and practices. They continued by saying that education reduces poverty, diseases and ignorance and paves the way for modernity, civilisation and good governance.



In confirming the relevance of education to the people, Antwi (1992) stated that there is a high correlation between the investment people and nations make in education and the level of economic development and the standard of living which the people enjoy in life. It can therefore be generally said that education opens the eyes of educands to hidden treasures of life. Hence, if one gets education, he /she would find success in life. It must be noted that all educational programmes revolve around the teacher, making him/her pivot of success in all situations. This behooves that all efforts to train the teacher must be geared towards achieving quality. It is in line with this that teacher training in this country has received boost severally towards meeting the ever-changing society and demands for better delivery.

Currently, Colleges of Education in Ghana had been uplifted in their status from diploma to degree awarding institutions in order to pave way for training of teachers in a more academic and professional competitive environment. Colleges of Education

though have the same mandate over the years to produce teachers for basic education, there can be changes in aspects of their operations according to reform policy guidelines at any point in time.

Tertiary educational institutions operate according to their mandates as spelt out in the Acts establishing them. Colleges of Education had the mandate to produce qualified and professional teachers for the basic education system of Ghana. Colleges of Education act, Act 847, stated that the Colleges of Education are established to offer admissions to suitably qualified students who are to be trained to acquire the necessary professional and academic competencies for teaching in pre-tertiary institutions and non-formal education institutions. This implies that a change in any aspect of an organisation affects many parts of its operations. This could be apparent with Colleges of Education. The administrative structure, qualification of personnel recruited, the physical plant (infrastructure), and other aspects of Colleges of Education needs to be appreciated so as to support delivery in the new system.

Organisational culture has emerged as a topic of central concern within the business community for the last ten years (Samson & Waiganjo, 2015). Accordingly, the number of studies on organisational culture is increasing. Fleury (2014) pointed out that culture is fairly a well-known topic in the academic agenda, being discussed in day-to-day debates within organisations. Understanding culture is important for the employees, the stakeholders, and the organisation in general. Desson and Clouthier (2010) stated that culture shapes what the organisation considers to pass a right decision; what employees consider behaving appropriately and how they interact with one another; and the attitude of outside stakeholders towards the organisation.

Moreover, understanding of culture will assist administrators in spotting and resolving potential conflicts and in managing change more effectively and efficiently (Chandrasekar, 2011). Like other organisations, the importance of culture in higher education institutions is critical. To this end, Chandrasekar (2011) clarified that studying the cultural dynamics of educational institutions and systems helps understand and, hopefully reduce adversarial relationships. However, further studies are always needed as human beings are dynamic and therefore their beliefs and experiences are changing and should be regularly studied accordingly (Muthanna, 2011). The study of an organisation's culture is important for the implementation of an organisation's strategies (Bashir, Jianqiao, Abrar & Ghazanfar, 2012).

Organisational culture is, most of the time, the element that drives the organisation forward. It creates an operational environment in which every employee strives to achieve the goal set by the organisation (Tănase, 2015). Some authors like Antić and Cerić (2015) mentioned that it is almost impossible to analyse modern organisations without mentioning their organisational cultures. However, various authors define 'culture' differently.

As a result, organisational culture faces many challenges and it is not an easy task to define this term (Antić & Cerić, 2015). Although organisational culture is a widely used term, it seems to give rise to a degree of ambiguity in terms of assessing its effectiveness on changing variables in an organisation (O'Donnell & Boyle, 2015). To truly understand the term of 'culture', we need to understand the beliefs of those organisation's affiliates (Schein, 2010). Schein characterises culture as the learned values, beliefs, and assumptions that become shared and taken for granted as the organisation continues to be successful.

The study of organisational culture has become an area of growing inquiry over recent decades, with a lot of articles having been published on the topic since 1980 (Hartnell, Ou & Kinicki, 2016). Yet, there has been ostensibly little consideration of organisational culture relevant to institutions of higher education. One exception is Tierney's (1988) highly-cited article regarding organisational culture at Colleges and universities.

According to Tierney (1988), organisational culture results from the internal dynamics within an organisation that derive from the values, processes, and goals held by those most intimately involved in the organisation's workings (p. 3). It is an open, dynamic system characterised a learned set of shared basic assumptions (Schein, 2013, p. 705). As such, organisational culture in higher education is not monolithic (Association for the Study of Higher Education, 2005).

Colleges and universities vary in location, size, and mission, each of which can have a potentially profound influence on the internal dynamics of the organisation. It was upon this bedrock that this study sought to investigate organisational culture in OLA College of Education in the Central Region, Ghana.

1.2 Problem Statement

Anecdotal evidence from OLA College of Education suggests that the leadership do not act promptly to pressing needs of students and staff. For example, informal interactions the research had with some students and staff of this institution revealed that management do not act promptly when there is the need for spoiled facilities such as lecture halls to be replaced. At other times too, teaching and learning resources are not provided to the lectures. Again, some staff and students indicated that the way and manner management respond to crisis at OLA College of Education is very slow.

Besides, some lectures revealed that they had been given more credit hours while their colleagues are given less credit hours to handle though such lecturers do not have additional responsibilities. These situations therefore seem to have negative influence on the organisational culture at OLA College of Education. However, conclusion cannot be drawn based on informal interactions and anecdotal evidence.

Although there have been some studies on organisational culture in higher education, much of the published work on organisational culture were mostly geared towards the technical aspects of higher education and also concentrated on effective course delivery mechanisms, funding and quality of courses and teaching (Roberts, 2011; Athiyaman, 2014; Bourner, 2015; Cheng & Tam, 2014; McElwee & Redman, 2013; Soutar & McNeil, 2016; Varey, 2013; Yorke, 2012).

Moreover, Nkonsah (2013) investigated the influence of organisational culture and organisational climate on organisational effectiveness in Ghana. The results showed that organisational culture was significantly and positively related to organisational effectiveness. Though Nkonsah's study was conducted in Ghana, it was among employees in the manufacturing industry while the current study would be among employees in the educational sector. Also, Annor (2016) explored organisational culture in selected Ghanaian senior high schools. The results indicated that although the Ghana Education Service managed both schools and the schools were similar in some ways, they each demonstrated some unique characteristics.

This implies that it looks as if there is scanty literature available in Ghana which adequately answers the issues raised above. In order to bridge this knowledge gap, a study on organisational culture in OLA Colleges of education cannot be overemphasised. Moreover, higher education like the Colleges of Education has become competitive and

costly. As a result, students (local and international students) have high expectations from Colleges of Education, due to the considerable investments that they make whilst studying in Colleges of Education (Ayliff & Wang, 2006). Yet, in Ghana, it seems little is known on organisational culture in higher education especially at the colleges of education.

Although organisational culture is such an important component of schools and very crucial to College performance and realisation of outcomes, it has been minimally researched and reformists have not considered it as having the potential to influence change initiatives for College improvement in Ghana. College reforms programmes in Ghana have only focused on the political and technical approaches to affect structural initiatives and strategies (Quist, 2013; Akyeampong, 2009; Ahiable-Addo, 1989).

That is to say because these change strategies are ubiquitous and do not regard the peculiarities of individual Colleges, they mostly do not produce the expected results (Tonah, 2009). Some researchers posited that change programmes that require people to change their method of doing things, must make such people part of the strategy (Kruse & Louis, 2016; Miles, Thangaraj, Wang & Ma, 2012; Nickols, 2010). If strategies must be effective, members of the College need to own them. There are numerous studies on the organisational culture of schools in developed countries such as the United States (Hoy & Miskel, 2010; Kruse & Louis, 2016; Maslowski, 2011; Stolp & Smith, 2014) and similar studies done in few sub-Saharan African countries (Harber & Mncube, 2011; Martins & Martins, 2012). However, it looks as if there have been scanty studies that have focused on organisational culture in higher institutions like the Colleges of Education. Therefore, the study aimed at investigating organisational culture in OLA College of Education in the Central Region, Ghana.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate the organisational culture in OLA College of Education in the Central Region, Ghana.

1.4 Research Objectives

The study sought to:

1. Identify the prevailing types of organisational culture at OLA College of Education.
2. Investigate factors that influence organisational culture at OLA College of Education.
3. Determine the relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education.
4. Find out whether there is a statistically significant relationship between the means of dimensions of organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at the OLA College of Education.

1.4 Research Questions

The study was guided by the following questions:

1. What are the prevailing types of organisational culture at OLA College of Education?
2. What are the factors that influence organisational culture at OLA College of Education?
3. Is there a relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education?

4. What is the statistically significant relationship between the means of dimensions of organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at the OLA College of Education.

1.5 Research Hypotheses

The study sought to test the following hypotheses:

- H₁: There is a statistically significant relationship between the means of dimensions of organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at the OLA College of Education.
- H₀₁: There is no statistically significant relationship between the means of dimensions of organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at the OLA College of Education.
- H₂: Is there statistically significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education.
- H₀₂: Is there no statistically significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The outcome of the present study would have theoretical and organisational relevance. Theoretically, it would add to existing literature by broadening the scope findings in the area of organisational culture and effectiveness to include empirical evidence from the Ghanaian context. A number of organisational benefits can be reported. First, the environment of an organisation can impact positively on behaviour, and behaviour whether positive or negative has significant implications on the effectiveness of organisations. Thus, the outcome of the study would help organisations create the right

culture capable of encouraging positive behaviours that would impact positively on the effectiveness of the organisation.

In addition, findings of the study would help organisations to enforce relevant aspects of organisational culture in order to guarantee a constant organisational effectiveness. Similarly, relevance of the various dimensions of organisational culture and their impact on organisational effectiveness would be manifested in the study. This would inform the kind of attention organisations would give to the various aspects of their culture in an attempt to maintain an effective organisation. Again, findings of the study can be used by policy makers in designing policies at the higher education in relation to organisational culture. Besides, findings of the study can be used by future researchers as a baseline for further studies.

1.7 Delimitations of the Study

The study was delimited to organisational culture in higher education, precisely OLA College of Education in the Central Region, Ghana. Themes for the study were: Prevailing types of organisational culture, factors influencing organisational culture, relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness and relationship between the means of dimensions of organisational culture and organisational effectiveness. Furthermore, students (Levels 100, 200 and year 3) and staff (teaching and non-teaching) were used for the study. Structured questionnaires and semi-structured interview guide were used for data collection.

1.8 Limitation of the Study

The scope of the study was a College of Education in the Central region of Ghana. Therefore, the findings could not be generalised to other Colleges in the country.

1.9 Definition of Terms

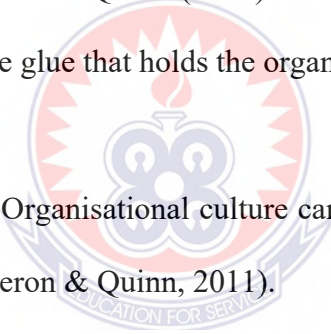
Adhocracy Culture: Cameron and Quinn (2011) defined an adhocracy culture as a dynamic, entrepreneurial, and creative place to work. The glue that holds the organisation together is commitment to experimentation and innovation.

Clan Culture: Cameron and Quinn (2011) defined a clan culture as a very friendly place to work where people share a lot of themselves. The organisation is held together by loyalty or tradition.

Hierarchy Culture: Cameron and Quinn (2011) defined a hierarchy culture as a very formalised and structured place to work. Formal rules and policies hold the organisation together.

Market Culture: Cameron and Quinn (2011) defined a market culture as a results-oriented organisation... The glue that holds the organisation together is an emphasis on winning.

Organisational Culture: Organisational culture can be defined as a clan, adhocracy, market, or hierarchy (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).



1.10 Organisation of the Study

The study report comprises five chapters. Chapter one involved the introduction which covered the background to the study, problem statement, purpose of the study, research objectives, research questions and research hypotheses. It also presents the significance of the study, delimitations of the study and limitations of the study, definition of terms and organisation of the study. The chapter two focuses on the review of existing literature in relation to the topic under investigation. Specifically, the literature is reviewed in three main blocks namely: Theoretical framework, conceptual framework, the conceptual review, and empirical review.

The methodology that was used in the study is captured in the chapter three. The chapter provides a description of the research paradigm, research approach, research design, population of the study, sample and sampling techniques and data collection instruments. The chapter also captures validity and reliability of the questionnaire, dependability of the interview guide, data collection procedures, data analysis and ethical issues. Chapter four presents the results and discussion of results while chapter five focuses on the summary, conclusion and recommendations and suggestions for further studies.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The chapter presents literature review of the study. Themes to be covered are as follows:

1. Theoretical Framework,
2. Conceptual Framework,
3. Meaning of an Organisation,
4. Meaning of Culture,
5. The Concept of Organisational Culture,
6. Differences between Organisational Culture and Organisational Climate,
7. Types of Organisational Culture,
8. Factors Influencing Organisational Culture,
9. Relationship Between Organisational Culture and Organisational Effectiveness,
10. Dimensions of Organisational Culture,
11. Relationship Between Dimensions of Organisational Culture and Organisational Effectiveness and
12. Relationship Between Organisational Climate and Organisational Effectiveness

2.1 Theoretical Framework

This study was grounded on two theories, namely: the internal process and goal attainment theories. Next is the explanation to these theories.

2.1.1 Internal Process Theory

This theory stressed that an effective organisation is one with a strong internal environment. Culture and climate are variables that affect the internal environment of organisations. Specifically, organisational culture informs the kind of behaviour employees exhibit because it constitutes the values, norms and beliefs of the organisation. Similarly, the prevailing atmosphere in the workplace has the power to encourage positive behaviours. This makes the internal process theory relevant in accurately explaining the predictors of organisational effectiveness. Specifically, the theory posits that, a harmonious and efficient internal working environment is directly responsible for the attainment of superior organisational results (Steers, 1977).

In the view of scholars, this theory reflects the conversion of organisation's inputs into appropriate outputs using the human and other resources in the organisation (Pfeffer, 1977; Steers, 1977). Thus, the nexus between internal processes and organisational outcome like an effective organisation is the underlying central position of this theory. This theory is relevant for the current study because a strong internal organisational environment is as a result of a strong and positive culture and climate.

Thus, a strong and positive organisational culture is likely to increase employees level of satisfaction, commitment which in tend will lead to maximum productivity in the organisation. Similarly, the kind of internal climate created has the force to encourage the exhibition of positive behaviours which contributes significantly to the attainment of organisational goals and objectives. Thus, the effectiveness of an organisation is influenced largely by the kind of culture and climate created and the extent to which the culture and climate encourage behaviours that lead to the attainment of organisational goals.

2.1.2 Goal Attainment Approach

The view that organisational effectiveness relates to the accomplishment of organisational goals is the central position espoused by the goal attainment theory of organisational effectiveness (Price, 1972; Scott, 1977). Every organisation exists for a purpose and organisations that accomplish its mission are said to be effective organisations. This is consistent with the position taken by researchers that, this theory measures the effectiveness of an organisation in terms of goal accomplishment or realisation (Pratt & Eitzen, 1989). Given that, goal accomplishment is typical of every organisation irrespective of its sector of operation, the goal attainment theory of organisational effectiveness has been acknowledged as the most logical theory to study organisational effectiveness (Chelladurai & Haggerty, 2011).

Though relevant in organisational effectiveness studies, this theory is not without limitations. According to scholars, organisations have several goals some of which may conflict and that organisational goal especially short-time operative goals may shift over time (Weese, 2014; Pratt & Eitzen, 1989). Additionally, when organisational goals are unclear, unstable and conflicting, it becomes difficult to assess organisational effectiveness using the goal criteria (Chelladurai & Haggerty, 2011). Despite these limitations, the goal attainment theory still remains useful as a measure of organisational effectiveness. With respect to the present study, the goal attainment theory is very relevant because the effectiveness of OLA College of Education can be determined by the quality of teachers it produces.

2.2 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of this study was designed in line with the concepts and variables obtained from the literature reviewed on organisational culture. The main aim

was to find out the prevailing types of organisational culture, factors that influence organisational culture, relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness and statistical significance relationship between dimensions of organisational culture and organisational effectiveness.

Conceptual framework of the study was construction based on Tierney's (1998) conceptualisation of organisational culture. Tierney (1998) reported that researchers need to consider which cultural concepts to utilise when they study a College or university. Tierney identified environment, mission, leadership, information, strategy and socialisation as essential concepts of College culture. Figure 1 displays the conceptual framework of the study.

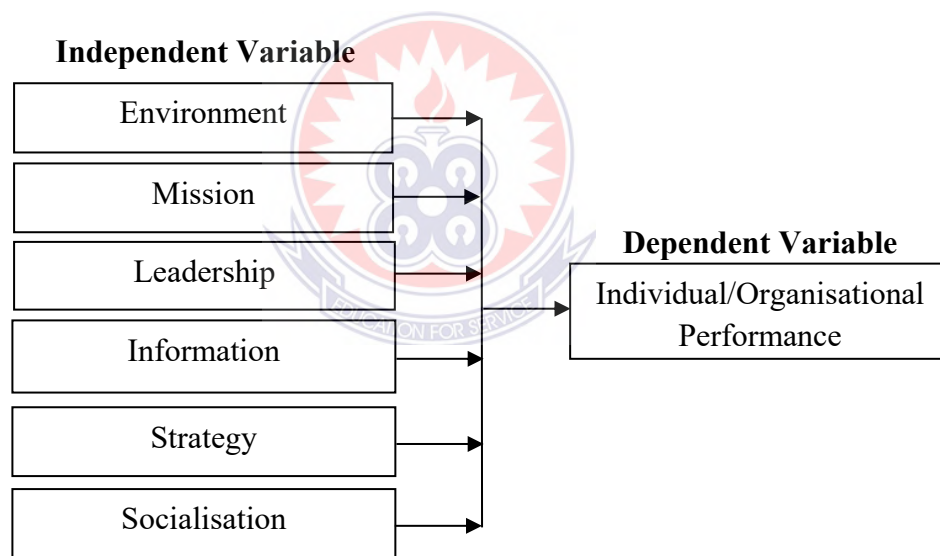


Figure 1.1: Conceptual Framework
Source: Adopted from Tierney (1998).

From Figure 1.1, there are six perceived factors under the independent variable. They are: environment; mission; leadership; information; strategy; socialisation. Also, the Figure show that this is one dependent variable; thus, individual or organisational performance. Explanation to Figure 1 is discussed next.

Environment

The World Health Organisation (WHO) (2003) classified school environment as physical and psychosocial environment. WHO asserted that among others, warm, friendly, and supportive environment is important for enhancing the psychosocial environment. On the other hand, furniture, ventilation, lighting, protective equipment, and many others, wherein Chandrasekar (2011) referred to as the physical environment. The psychosocial work environment is the result of an interaction between the work organisation and the individual. It is determined by the relationship among employees in a workplace (Karlsson, Björklund & Jensen, 2012).

The study conducted by Samson and Waiganjo (2015) confirmed that psychosocial aspects were an important factor in increasing the performance of employees while compared to physical environment. In turn, the employee's performance has repercussion on organisational effectiveness. Tierney (1998) suggested diagnostic questions to assess environment. Among these questions, one is 'what is the attitude toward the environment? Hostility? or Friendship? It seems that Tierney's organisational environment refers to the psychosocial environment. Similarly, this article is limited to the psychosocial environment.

Mission

Mission and vision statements have been accepted as an indispensable part of the strategic management and planning for all types of organisations (Darbi, 2012). Similarly, Dermol (2012) emphasised that the mission statement has a potential to direct the behaviour in an institution, serving as a managerial tool. He described that mission and vision statements impact on strategy and most other aspects of the organisational

performance. The literature has depicted the impact of these organisational statements on organisational cultures, both positively and negatively (Fayad, 2011).

In the positive sense, Tierney (1998) recognised the organisational mission as a dimension to understand the organisational culture. To this end, Tierney suggests certain diagnostic questions to assess organisational mission as one dimension of culture. These are: How is mission defined? How is it articulated? Is it used as a basis for decisions? How much agreement is there between mission and practice? These questions are important for studying mission and vision statements.

Leadership

Based on the university case studied by Tierney (1998), the role of the symbolic communication reinforced by tangible, constructive change, provides valuable clues about the effectiveness and the organisational culture. Vickrey (n.d.) stated that communication is the process by which leadership is exercised and it is not merely a tool of erstwhile leaders or something leaders do or do not have at their disposal, such as their IQs, heights, personalities, or skills with word-processing equipment. With communication and symbolic interaction, leaders should also work with employees to realise the implementation of what they communicated.

It is imperative for employees to witness leadership [which] “walking the talk”. In doing so, the people process culture will be established which is characterised by formation of a strong, positive belief in people and sustained a high level of performance and profit over an extended period of time (Kersten & Walter, 2013). Hence, “People Process Culture leaders at all levels create environments that foster communication, build trust, and facilitate teamwork” (Carr, 2013, p. 75; Schnacky, 2014, p. 15). What does the organisation expect from its leaders? Who are the leaders?

Are there formal and informal leaders? These are diagnostic questions proposed by Tierney (1998) to assess the leadership dimension of organisational culture. Therefore, in relation to the leadership dimension of culture, this article puts more emphasis on a leader's symbolic interaction with the people around them and the availability of tangible and constructive changes in the organisation as perceived by students and faculty members.

Information

Tierney (1998) suggested three diagnostic questions to assess information as a dimension of the organisational culture, namely: 'What constitutes information? Who has it? And how is it disseminated?' Some authors explicitly call this dimension as 'Information Culture' (Brown, 2010; Choo, Bergeron, Detlor & Heaton, 2014). According to Choo et al. (2014), the information culture as a dimension of the organisational culture represents "the assumptions, values, and norms that people have about creating, sharing, [and] using information" (p. 776). He points out that it would have its own effect on the organisational behaviour and effectiveness. Although the information culture is a concept that is open to different interpretations, the focus of this article is on students and faculty members' perceptions on the types of information being disseminated, the ways of information dissemination, and the ones who have information at the university sample case.

Strategy

According to Ulwick (2013), strategy is "... a plan that describes what an organisation proposes to do to achieve a stated mission" (p. 4). He emphasised the importance of an effective strategy formulation process to enable an organisation to generate strategies and solutions that would support its strategic position. Further, Skøien (2014) argued

that the biggest portion of the organisation strategy focuses on strategy formulation processes, but not that much on how employees in the organisation perceive the strategy and strategy formulation processes. However, people's perceptions of reality have a greater influence on their behaviour than the reality itself (Phasinsaksith, 2014).

This implies that employees' perceptions on the strategy and its formulation processes have a strong impact on the actors' behaviour. To this end, Alvesson (2012) recommended a cultural view of strategy in order to understand the organisational strategy and to consider the strategy as a cultural manifestation. Some organisational culture theorists (Tierney, 1998) include strategy as a dimension of the organisational culture, and recommend researchers to investigate peoples' perceptions on "how are decisions arrived at?"; "which strategy is used?" and "who makes decisions?"

Socialisation

Organisations have their own ways of doing things and it is imperative to introduce them for the newcomers of the organisation. Socialisation is referred to as a process of supporting individuals in finding ways to become members of a social group in order to be acquainted with how things work in that social group and contribute to the success of the group (Arnett, 2015). The organisational socialisation is a course of action to enable new employees to get organisational knowledge and skills and it is a process by which new employees get information of the norms and roles essential to work within a group or organisation (Njegovan & Kostic, 2014). Therefore, the organisational socialisation helps newcomers to adjust to the new task, the work group, and the organisation.

The organisational socialisation is receiving more attention by the organisational researchers. Saks and Ashforth (2014) stated that "... resurgence of interest in

organisational socialisation has resulted in more published studies than in any previous ... period” (p. 121). Tierney (1998) argued that socialisation should be studied as one dimension in studying the organisational culture and he proposes the following diagnostic questions: “how do new members become socialised?”, how is [socialisation] articulated? and what do we need to know to survive/excel in this organisation?”. These diagnostic questions are used to investigate socialisation as one dimension of the organisational culture in this research.

2.3 Meaning of an Organisation

Although researchers are looking to find a formal definition of organisation to corroborate the essential features of it, others consider that there isn't a specific or valid definition for all organisations (Pfeffer, 1977). Organisations have a major role in our daily lives and therefore, successful organisations are a key element for the development of a nation. Thus, many economists consider the organisations and institutions as a driving force in determining economic, social and political progress. Organisations can be perceived as a system composed of interrelated subsystems (Bursalioğlu, 2012). Thus, the impact of any factor in an organisation such as structure, leadership, culture, etc. should not be considered independently of others. For this reason, the interdependence between these factors and the need for their diagnostic methods has been the subject of numerous investigations.

Organisation can be defined as a group of people working together to achieve a goal or a set of common objectives. Viewed as a system, organisations are composed of a set of integrated subsystems to achieve organisational efficiency and effectiveness. Like any system, organisations use inputs that are subject to a process of transformation to

obtain outputs (tangible results of the transformation process embodied in goods and services).

Also, an organisation is a social set up, which has a boundary that separates it from its environment, pursues its own collective goals, and controls its own performance (Hicks and Gullet as cited in Tozer & Carver, 2012). In a formal organisation, interactions are rationally coordinated and directed through time on a continuous basis. The person at the helm of affairs is usually the leader. Thus, organisation can be described as developing a frame work where the total work is divided into manageable components in order to facilitate the achievement of objectives or goals. In a static sense, an organisation is a structure or machinery manned by group of individuals who are working together towards a common goal.

According to Bolman and Deal (2013), organisations are living, screaming political arenas that host a complex web of individual and group interests. There are enduring differences among coalition members in values, beliefs, information, interests, and perceptions of reality. Goals and decisions emerge from bargaining, negotiation and jockeying for position among competing stakeholders.

2.4 Meaning of Culture

The origin of culture is the Latin word *cultura*. It is a derivative of the verb *colo* (infinitive *colere*), meaning “to tend,” “to cultivate,” and “to till,” among other things (Trice & Beyer, 2013). It can take objects such as *ager*, hence agricultural, whose literal meaning is “field tilling.” Another possible object of the verb *colo* is *animus* (“character”). In that case, the expression would refer to the cultivation of the human character. Consequently, the Latin noun *cultura* can be associated with education and refinement. The etymological analysis of “culture” is quite uncontroversial. But in the

field of anthropology, the situation is much more complex. Definitions of culture abound and range from very complex to very simple.

For example, a complex definition was proposed by Kruse and Louis (2016): “transmitted and created content and patterns of values, ideas, and other symbolic-meaningful systems as factors in the shaping of human behaviour” (p. 583). An even less easily comprehensible definition was provided by Williamson (2013): “By culture we mean an extrasomatic, temporal continuum of things and events dependent upon symboling” (p. 3). Often cited is also a definition by Wiewiora, Murphy, Trigunarsyah and Brown (2014):

Culture consists in patterned ways of thinking, feeling and reacting, acquired and transmitted mainly by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiments in artefacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (thus, historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values (p. 186).

But that is not all. Gerber (2013) noted sarcastically that “in some twenty-seven pages of his chapter on the concept, Wiewiora et al. managed to define culture in turn as . . . [what follows is 11 different definitions]; and turning, perhaps in desperation, to similes, as a map, as a sieve, and as a matrix” (p. 5). This lack of clarity and consensus about anthropologists’ main object of study may be one of the reasons that, in the words of Choo et al. (2014), the social sciences and especially anthropology “haven’t exactly covered themselves in glory” (p. ix). It also explains why to many researchers and practitioners, culture is “the c-word, mysterious, frightening and to be avoided” (Bayhan, 2011, p. 144). Some have even denied the utility of the concept (Berson, Oreg & Dyrir, 2015). At the other extreme is a well-known simple and narrow definition: Culture is shared mental software, “the collective programming of the mind that

distinguishes members of one group or category of people from another” (Hofstede, 2011, p. 132).

The group or category can be a national society but Hofstede believes that his definition applies also to other collectives, such as regions, ethnicities, occupations, organisations, or even age groups and genders. According to Jean-Lee and Yu (2014), “culture” is the most elusive term in the vocabulary of the social sciences and the number of books devoted to the topic would fill many library shelves. A practical solution was proposed by Schein (2014), who believed that it was not worth the effort to enhance the concept’s clarity or attempt to articulate a universally acceptable definition. In his view, cultural analysts should abandon the struggle to conceptualise culture. Instead, they should “turn to the real business at hand,” which is to “intensify the search for whatever ecological, sociological and cultural variables might link with established variations in human behaviour” (p. 154).

Schein’s (2012) call for pragmatism in cross-cultural analysis is laudable. Theoretical debates about the meaning that “should” be attributed to the concept of culture are pointless. There is no absolute reason why one abstract theoretical concept of it should be better than another. However, disagreements have been voiced not only with respect to abstract definitions of culture but also concerning specific matters, such as whether artefacts should or should not be considered part of culture (Schein, 2012; Schnacky, 2014). The answer to a question of this kind can have practical consequences: It may determine what should or should not be studied for the purpose of a dissertation on culture or be published in a journal devoted to culture.

Culture can be pragmatically defined by the contents and boundaries of the interests of the scholars who study it. Even better, we should look at what is in the focus of their

interests. A culturologist may study climatic differences (O'Donnell & Boyle, 2015), although climate is unlikely to be viewed by anybody as part of culture. Yet, that researcher would not be interested in climate per se, but in how it affects variation in values, beliefs, and behaviours, which could be considered elements or expressions of culture. In furtherance, culture is a model of norms, values, beliefs and attitudes which affects organisational behaviour. The definition of the organisational culture exists in many versions.

Defining the contents and boundaries of culture may also be necessary for the purposes of clarity and avoidance of confusing statements. According to O'Donnell and Boyle (2015), if culture is seen as including behaviours, it is incorrect to say that culture causes behaviour because that would be a circular explanation. Likewise, Fey and Denison (2013) discussed the question of whether culture determines values. This makes sense only if values are not viewed as part of culture; otherwise the debate would be like the question of whether light produces photons.

Therefore, it might be useful that those who present cultural analyses explain how they conceptualise culture, specifying its contents and boundaries. This could help avoid a situation described by Fleury (2014), who pointed out that there is a danger of inferring culture as a national phenomenon from virtually any contrasts that emerge from a comparison of organisations in different countries: "Even if such contrasts are unambiguously national in scope, they could possibly be due to other non-cultural phenomena such as national wealth, level of industrialisation, or even climate" (p. 328).

A comment by Fleury (2014) illustrated another practical reason to define culture. In his view, if researchers do not focus on the shared aspect of culture, there is no need to investigate agreement among the members of a national culture who provide

information to a researcher. But if one adopts a definition of culture in which sharedness is emphasised, such an investigation becomes necessary. George and Jones (2012) discussed two approaches to culture: holistic and causal. The first approach is taken by those who view culture as consisting of inseparable phenomena that cannot cause each other.

Those who prefer the second approach may say that one cultural characteristic shapes another. If this is so, cultural researchers may need to explain how they conceive of culture: holistically or causally. There are also other reasons for defining culture. Some methodologists working in the domain of cross-cultural psychology have treated culture as a variable resembling some kind of noise that needs to be reduced or eliminated.

Keynejad (2015) suggested a procedure for explaining measured differences between societies by introducing various relevant variables, each of which explains part of the observed variance, until the effect of culture disappears: “The consequence of our argument is that a cross-cultural psychologist is not interested in the variable culture per se, but only in specific context variables that can explain observed differences on some dependent variable” (p. 272), and “In the ideal study the set of context variables will be chosen in such a way that the remaining effect for culture will be zero” (p. 272).

This begs the question of what variables can explain differences between groups of people but are not part of their cultures. Some of the clearly external variables with respect to culture—also known as “exogenous” or “extraneous”—are climate, geographic location, and pathogen prevalence. But what about national wealth, main type of economy, or degree of democracy? Are these cultural variables or not? According to Keynejad (2015), gross national product, educational systems, and even health care institutions are culture-related variables (p. 4). Is this position acceptable?

Khazanchi, Lawis and Boyer (2014) described two possible views: that a society's wealth should not be confused with its culture and that wealth is an integral part of its culture. The position that we adopt may determine our research methodology. If wealth is an extraneous variable, a researcher may decide to partial it out of cultural measures using statistical tools. If wealth is viewed as an integral part of culture, there is no need to control for it when cultural variables and the relationships between them are measured. Thus, the solution is a matter of subjective choice.

Cultural activities in organisations are becoming an influential force in many organisations. McMurray (2013) opined that culture is undividable from the notion of human society and that; the study of the concept of organisational culture is extensively used to abet the study of management and organisations (p. 324). Culture becomes a liability when the collective ideals do not have the same opinion with those that will augment the effectiveness of organisations (Robbins, 2013, p. 234). According to Robbins (2011) culture is transmitted to workers in a number of forms such as stories, rituals, symbols and languages (p. 525).

Also, despite the growing importance and popularity cultural research has gained over the years in anthropology, sociological and various other applied disciplines, scientific approaches towards culture appear genuinely difficult and particularly contested. Defining culture and measuring it have been the two major challenges to the academic community of cultural research.

One of the major challenges of cultural research is to define the content and limits of its research object. Conceptions of culture may indeed considerably differ between researchers and research projects, which is the reason why a discussion of the term is vital for every culture-related academic work. It was shown above how the meaning of

the term “culture” has changed over the years. Until now a universally accepted definition does not yet exist. The lack of agreement in academic literature on defining the meaning of the term culture has been pointed out by a number of authors. In 1961, Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck counted 164 different definitions (as cited in Robbins, 2016). It can be assumed that by today their number has increased by far.

Nevertheless, we want to acknowledge that over the years a number of semantic cores have recurred in the works of the majority of authors. Contemporary anthropological views seem to have agreed on describing culture as descriptive, inclusive, and relativistic (Berson, Oreg & Dyr, 2015). “Descriptive” refers to a collection of various characteristics of the physical and social world that does not assign judging value, “inclusive” “ascribes cultural significance to whatever [...] has empirically demonstrable significance” and “relativistic” indicates the comparative character (Jianwei, 2010). The most important definition nuclei as defined by Berson, Oreg and Dyr (2015) are listed in Table 2.1.

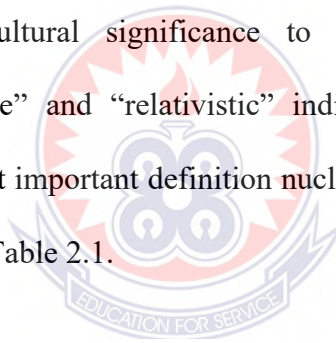


Table 2.1: Semantic Nuclei of a Definition of Culture

Category	Definition
Topical	Culture consists of everything on a list of topics, or categories, such as social organisation, religion, or economy
Historical	Culture is social heritage, or tradition, that is passed on to future generations
Behavioural	Culture is shared, learned human behaviour, a way of life
Normative	Culture is ideals, values, or rules for living
Functional	Culture is the way humans solve problems of adapting to the environment or living together
Mental	Culture is a complex of ideas, or learned habits, that inhibit impulses and distinguish people from animals
Structural	Culture consists of patterned and interrelated ideas, symbols, or behaviours
Symbolic	Culture is based on arbitrarily assigned meanings that are shared by a society

Source: Adopted from Berson, Oreg and Dyr (2015)

From these semantic cores can be inferred that the concept of culture cannot be applied to individuals. The historical and behavioural facets of culture, the fact that values and behaviour are transmitted from one generation to the next, and the fact that they are shared all emphasise that culture is specific, constitutive and distinctive for a group of people. A cultural group is accordingly defined as individuals who share a common culture, including common values and beliefs. The definition of what a group is can however differ as elaborated later in this section. In recent cross-cultural research the notion of a context-dependent cultural paradigm starts to prevail, taking the co-existence of different forms of cultural groups into account.

2.5 The Concept of Organisational Culture (OC)

Organisational culture can be defined as the shared basic assumptions, values, and beliefs that characterise a setting and are taught to newcomers as the proper way to think and feel, communicated by the myths and stories people tell about how the organisation came to be the way it is as it solved problems associated with external adaptation and internal integration (Schein, 2010; Trice & Beyer, 2013; Zohar & Hofmann, 2012). Handy (2013) defined OC involving four types: ‘Power Culture’ (symbolised as a ‘web’ and described as power that is unfolded from the core to the rest of the organisation), ‘Role Culture’ (symbolised as a ‘Greek temple’ focusing on procedures and rules, work and responsibilities, offering the possibility for specialist expertise), ‘Task Culture’ (symbolised as a ‘net’ where teams are formed to solve problems and power is derived as a result of expertise) and ‘Person Culture’ (symbolised as a ‘cluster’, an uncommon type of culture where employees believe they are superior to the organisation) (p. 1191).

Schein (2012) defined OC in terms of ‘Artefacts’ (referring to the physical attributes and structures of the organisation such as furniture, language and dress code), ‘Espoused Values’ (relates to what individuals within the organisation determine to be important, including strategies and objectives of the organisation) and ‘Basic Underlying Assumptions’, referring to perceptions, thoughts and feelings that may be taken for-granted but are normally quite consistent within the group (as cited in Williams & Schein, 2013, p. 138).

Moreover, organisational culture is the set of important assumptions-often unstated-that members of an organisation share in common. There are two major assumptions in common; beliefs and values. Beliefs are assumptions about reality and are derived and reinforced by experience. Values are assumptions about ideals that are desirable and worth striving for. When beliefs and values are shared in an organisation, they create a corporate culture (Azhar, 2013).

Robbins (2016) defined organisational culture as a relatively uniform perception held of the organisation, it has common characteristics, it is descriptive, it can distinguish one organisation from another and it integrates individuals, groups and organisation systems variables. Organisational culture refers to a set of some commonly experienced stable characteristics of an organisation which constitutes the uniqueness of that organisation and differentiates it from others. Organisational culture has been defined as the specific collection of values and norms that are shared by people and groups in an organisation and that control the way they interact with each other and with stakeholders outside the organisation (Fey & Dension, 2013).

Organisational values are beliefs and ideas about what kind of goals members of an organisation should pursue and ideas about the appropriate kinds or standards of

behaviour organisational members should use to achieve these goals. From organisational values develop organisational norms, guidelines, or expectations that prescribe appropriate kinds of behaviour by employees in particular situations and control the behaviour of organisational members towards one another (Brubakk & Wikinson, 2016).

Schein (2014) defined organisational culture as a pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, which has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way they perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. Organisational culture is generally considered to be, at its deepest level, a cognitive phenomenon, “the collective programming of the mind” (Hofstede, 2015) and “the basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by members of an organisation, that operate unconsciously” (Schein, 2013). However, though organisational culture may reside in the collective minds of organisational members, it is manifested in tangible ways, such as behaviours, throughout the organisation (Deal, 2015).

In an effort to understand the full complexity of organisational culture, researchers have attempted to identify the components that comprise an organisation’s culture. One component that recurs in descriptions of organisational culture is the values that are held by the members of the organisation. Hofstede (2012) pictured organisational culture as an onion, containing a series of layers, with values comprising the core of the onion. Trice and Beyer (2013) believed that values are part of the substance of organisational cultures, or the basic ideology undergirding a culture. It is believed that it is possible to examine the values that are held within an organisational culture (Hofstede, 2011).

It has been nearly two decades since the theorists and scholars of management and organisations, especially experts and specialist in the field of organisational behaviour and organisational transformation proposed an issue in the organisation that is not concrete and tangible. This issue was surveyed mostly by Warren Bennis, Edgar Shein and William Ouchi and has been manifested by Peters and Waterman's book "in the search of excellence". This important issue was called "organisational culture" and has been surveyed as the nontangible aspect of organisational studies (Jean-Lee & Yu, 2014).

Organisation concepts including organisation culture is difficult to define and like many of the terms in humanities renders no unified and clear-cut meaning. Available definitions of culture are so various and numerous that there are more than 200 definitions of culture (Hatch & Cunliffe, 2010; Keynejad, 2015). However, its understanding is more difficult than defining it (Brubakk & Wikinson, 2016). Martin (2011) and Wallace, Popp and Mondore (2016) also have presented various definition of culture (Jean-Lee & Yu, 2014). This point is true about culture definition in national level, too. The beginning of formal writing on the concept of organisational culture started with Pinho, Rodrigues and Dibb (2014). He introduced the anthropological concept of culture and showed how related concepts like "symbolism", "myth", and "rituals" can be used in organisational analysis. Deal and Kennedy (2012) showed how the study of these myths and symbols aid in revealing the "deep structure" of an organisation (Jean Lee & Yu, 2014).

Factors Influencing OC

Many authors have comprehensively studied the significance of organisational culture in organisations (Martin, 2011; Alvesson, 2012; Fey & Denison, 2013; Cameron &

Quinn, 2011). Organisational culture can be defined as a compilation of morals, laws, beliefs and customs that forms the behaviour of employees in a particular work environment. Fleury (2014) defined culture as a set of values, norms and attitudes that shape human behaviour as well as the artefacts, or products of that behaviour as they are transmitted from one generation to the next. It basically explains that, believe systems and customs become one's culture based on the environment within which the person finds him or herself.

According to Schein (2012), organisational culture is “A pattern of shared basic assumptions that a group learns as it solves its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members of the organisation as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems” (p. 12). Hofstede (2011) also defined organisational culture as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one organisation from another” (p. 6). Organisational culture affects various employees and organisation related outcomes (Abu-Jarad, Yusof & Nikbin, 2010, p. 34). In the current study organisational culture is explained as the norms, values and traditions that characterise the behaviour of employees in an organisation.

Organisational culture can influence how people set personal and professional goals, perform tasks and administer resources to achieve them. Organisational culture affects the way in which people consciously and subconsciously think, make decisions and ultimately the way in which they perceive, feel and act (Hansen & Wernerfelt, 1989; Schein, 2010). Deal and Kennedy (2012) and Peters and Waterman (2012) have suggested that organisational culture can exert considerable influence in organisations particularly in areas such as performance and commitment.

Researchers on organisational cultures have also proposed different forms or types of cultures. For example, Goffee and Jones (2015) identified four forms of organisational cultures (i.e. networked, mercenary, fragmented and communal). Martin (2012) viewed organisational culture from three perspectives (thus, integration, differentiation and fragmentation). Wallach (2013) suggested that there are three main types of organisational cultures (for example, bureaucratic, supportive and innovative). Since individuals bring their personal values, attitude and beliefs to the workplace, their levels of commitment to the organisation may differ.

Values, attitudes and beliefs are reflected in different national cultures. How personal values fit in with the existing organisational culture and the influence of national culture on personal values could be a major difference in the difference in how firms in the east and west are managed. In cross-cultural research, it is acknowledged that there are significant differences in national culture characteristics between the eastern and western cultures (Chen, 2011; El Kahal, 2011; Hofstede, 2011). For example, the existence of high power distance values and a bureaucratic culture in Chinese firms is well acknowledged (Chen, 2011; Pye, 2015). Since organisations in Hong Kong are mainly managed by ethnic Chinese, their relative high power distance preference and Confucian values can make significant influence on the organisational culture. Confucian values are often associated with obedience, respect of authority and loyalty (Chen, 2011; El Kahal, 2011).

Kilmann (2015) stated that organisational culture as “shared philosophy, ideology, value, assumption, beliefs, hope, behaviour and norms that bound the organisation together”. Robbins (2016) mentioned it as “Common perceptions which are held by the members of an organisation; a system of common meaning”, while George and Jones

(2012) mentioned it as “Informal design of values, norms that control the way people and groups within the organisation interact through each other’s and with parties outside the organisation” (Berson, Oreg & Dyr, 2015).

The pattern of shared values and beliefs that help individuals understand organisational functioning and thus provide them with norms for behaviour in the organisation (Berson, Oreg & Dyr, 2015; Deshpande & Webster, 2016). Organisational culture could be a strategic asset for the organisation in that it increases the adaptability of and fit between an organisation and its environment (Kotter & Heskett, 2012). Members continuously interpret aspects of their work environment and these interpretations, as well as the ways in which they are enacted, from the culture of the organisation (Martin, 2012). Among the manifestations of culture are rituals, group norms, habits of thinking and espoused values (Trice & Beyer, 2013; Schein, 2012; Deal & Kennedy, 2012).

2.6 Differences between Organisational Culture and Organisational Climate

2.6.1 Organisational climate explained

In the 21st century, organisations are confronting more difficulties than ever before. These obstacles are not one of a kind to a particular industry or organisation, but rather influence all organisations, regardless of their structure or size. Organisational climate specifically is always challenged by the increasing number of changes affecting organisations nowadays (Nair, 2016). To survive and compete their rivals, organisations are continually looking to enhance their execution. Brown and Leigh (2016) believe that organisational climate is ending up more imperative than ever before due to organisations need to guarantee that those people who increase the value to the standard will need to remain in the organisation and will need to keep pouring their exertion into their work to the advantage of the organisation.

Organisational climate can be viewed as an illustrative idea that mirrors the regular view and understanding of all individuals with respect to the different components of the organisation, for example, structure, frameworks and practices (McMurray, 2013). Hence, organisational climate essentially basically alludes to the experience of employees in the organisation. The idea of organisational climate centres bases on discernment. Brown and Brooks (2012) described climate as the “feeling in the air” and the “atmosphere that employees perceive is created in their organisations due to practices, procedures and rewards” (p. 330). Based on these clauses, obviously the individual view of employees in the organisation affects the climate. Despite the fact that people contrast in the method they perceive, analyse and interpret information, the climate introduce in the organisation is an aggregate view or recognition (Dormeyer, 2013) as climate is the individual’s perceptual or psychological description (Al-Shammari, 2012).

Moreover, organisational climate may be defined as the shared perceptions of and the meaning attached to the policies, practices, and procedures employees experience and the behaviours they observe getting rewarded and that are supported and expected (O’Reilly, Caldwell, Chatman & Doerr, 2014; Schneider & Reichers 2013, Schneider et al., 2011). Organisational culture includes the norms that the members of an organisation experience and describe as their work settings (Schneider, Parkington, & Buston, 2013). Such norms shape how members behave and adapt to get results in the organisation. Organisational culture is how the members of an organisation interact with each other and other stakeholders (Smets, Morris & Greenwood, 2012).

Organisational culture is a set of values, beliefs, and behaviour patterns that differentiate one organisation from other organisations (Sok, Blomme & Tromp, 2014).

Schneider, White and Paul (2015) defined organisational culture as a system of values that subconsciously and silently drives people to make each choice and decision in the organisation. Business managers use organisational culture and corporate culture interchangeably because both terms refer to the same underlying phenomenon (Chacko, 2016).

Over the decades, a range of wide researches has been developed and published on organisational climate. Two concepts exist in the organisational climate which is perceptual and descriptive. McMurray (2013) claimed that the opinions and agreement of employees on different organisation elements such as system, structure and practices show the descriptive concept in it. While, climate is defined as the “feeling in the air” and the “atmosphere that employees perceive is formed in their organisations based on procedures, practices and rewards” (Brown & Brooks, 2012, p. 330). The organisational climate can be seen as the collective perception of employees although it subject to change anytime (Dormeyer, 2013; Al-Shammari, 2012).

The climate in an organisation is influenced by occasions and attributes significant to the organisation, which thus apply a strong impact on the members of organisation behaviour. Organisational climate and the route in which people react to it consistently associate. After some time, the organisational climate has the ability to bring out the general psychological atmosphere of an organisation, and subsequently, may influence the behaviour, fulfillment and inspiration of people in the work environment (Martin, 2011).

Organisational climate is the generally persisting characteristic in an organisation which recognises it from different organisations: and (1) typifies members collective perceptions about their organisations as for such measurements as self-sufficiency,

confide in, cohesiveness, innovation, acknowledgment, fairness and support; (b) collaboration among the members; (c) fills in as a reason for interpreting the circumstance; (d) reflects the culture for predominant standards, qualities and attitudes of the organisation; and (e) serves as an impact for molding behaviour (Mohralizadeh, & Atyabi, 2014).

According to Wallace, Popp and Mondore (2016), collective perceptions of organisational individuals and characterise climate as the outline view of how an organisation manages its individuals and condition. West and Anderson (2016) also indicated the shared perceptions of the basic components of people's specific organisation are viewed as the organisational climate. Welch, Plakoyiannaki, Piekkari and Paavilainen-Mäntymäki (2013) hypothesised that organisational climate is illustrative of organisational individuals' collective perceptions as well as emotions about the organisation. McMurray (2013) referred the organisational climate as an affective event that the emotions where lead to information-processing behaviours of employees and interaction among themselves or with outsiders.

In the study of Ahmed (2015), the expression "climate" generally begins from the theorists of organisational for example Douglas McGregor and Kurt Lewin, who utilised the term to allude to climate of social and organisational separately. The climate of the organisation depends on its employees' sentiments and view of the organisation's practices, methods and reward frameworks. Organisational climate can be characterised in various ways. Definitions of Lewin, Lippitt and White (2014) which is the most broadly accepted characteristic of organisational climate as an arrangement of the work environment quantifiable properties that is perceived by the general population who

live and work in a specific situation and is expected to impact their behaviour and performance.

A few studies have been conducted to analyse the theoretical relationship between climate and performance. The outcomes show that where view of employees was positive as expanded interest in basic leadership, more prominent data sharing and management support, there was expanded corporate viability (Lewin et al., 2014). Based on the empirical studies carried out in the past, from the wide ranges of industries, the outcomes demonstrated that there is factual connection between organisational climate and performance.

In a review of studies investigating organisational climate and employees' performance, the study of Parhizgari (2015) found that organisational climates exhibited the clear role. Also, clarity dimensions resulted in a higher satisfaction and performance of employees. Peek (2013) explained the characteristics of organisational climate, for instances having a high level of self-governance, giving opportunities for employees, sustaining connections among employees, concerning and demonstrating enthusiasm for employees, perceiving workers' achievements also, holding them in high respect result in more fulfilled employees.

Role clarity was considered as one of the dimension of organisational climate in the study of Poortman and Schildkamp (2011). Poortman and Schildkamp found that there is a positive relationship between the clear vision and tasks in the future with the outcome of employee's performance. Nair (2016) defined clarity as the feelings of the organisation members concerning the fact that employees should exactly know what the expectations from their work and them are. Without having clear role clarity, conflict in organisational goals and objectives and ambiguity of organisational structure

and roles, would happen which may lead to poor communication from management and lack of interdepartmental cooperation (Nair, 2016).

Jianwei (2010) agreed that the organisational climate in career development of the employees is important for the employee to perform better in work as providing necessary and related trainings are required. Good communication among the employees and upper management form a good organisational climate to boost up the satisfaction of employees in work (Roberts, 2011). Alvesson (2012) emphasised the relationships between the employee and organisational such as the employee wellness, priority for minority people etc. have directly affected the perception of employee as well as their performance.

Organisational climate creates a clear direction of the organisation to the employees in term of the future objectives and goals. The employees are always being in the cognitive stage of understanding the structure of organisation and in the state of readiness for change based on the planning of the organisation (Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler & Weick, 1970). The leadership of upper management is playing a role in how good they deliver the aims of organisation and manage the employees to the reach the goals. By having a clear directions and objectives, the organisation would eventually become an employer of choice and well known in the market with high rating. (Campbell et al., 1970).

2.7 Types of Organisational Culture

According organisational culture scholars, organisations are characterised by four different subcultures (Hartnell, Ou & Kinicki, 2011). The present research subscribed to the subculture dimensions developed and used by Ogbonna and Harris (2010) in their study. These culture dimensions namely; innovative culture, competitive culture,

bureaucratic culture and community culture are similar to the dimensions reported by Hartnell et al. (2011) which are bureaucratic culture; clan culture; entrepreneurial culture; and market culture. Specifically, innovative culture, competitive culture, bureaucratic culture and community culture by Pearce and Robinson (2014) related to entrepreneurial culture, market culture, bureaucratic culture and clan culture respectively as reported by Hartnell et al. (2011). The types of organisational culture are discussed next.

2.7.2 Bureaucratic culture

An organisation that values formality, rules, standard operating procedures, and hierarchical coordination has a bureaucratic culture. Long-term concerns of bureaucracy are predictability, efficiency, and stability. Its members highly value standardised goods and customer service. Behavioural norms support formality over informality. Managers view their roles as being good co-coordinators, organizers, and enforcers of certain rules and standards. Tasks, responsibilities, and authority for all employees are clearly defined. The organisation's many rules and processes are spelled out in thick manuals and employees believe that their duty is to go by the book and follow legalistic processes.

According to Weber as cited in Pearce and Robinson (2014), a bureaucratic culture ensures that there is a fixed division of labour, a hierarchy of positions and authority, administration based on written documents and adherence to general rules and full-time commitment to official activities. This type of culture is rigid and therefore restricts the creative potential of employees in organisation.

2.7.1 clan culture

Clan culture also called community culture is characterised by tradition, loyalty, personal commitment, extensive socialisation, teamwork, self-management, and social influences which reflects the way of doing things in the organisation. The organisational membership sees their obligation beyond the concept of exchange such as labour for salary which often reflects employer-employee relationship in organisations. Specifically, members of the organisation understand that their contributions to the organisation may exceed any contractual engagement or agreement between them and the employer. Thus, the employee's long term commitment to the organisation is exchanged for the organisation's long term-commitment to the individual.

Also, the individuals in such an organisation believe that the organisation would treat them fairly in terms of salary increases, promotions, and other forms of recognition. They therefore, hold themselves accountable to the organisation for their actions. This implies that, members of the organisation view the organisation as their own because of the sense of belongingness and oneness characterizing the core principles of the organisation. This type of culture creates fertile ground for the performance of organisational citizenship behaviours (Peters & Waterman, 2012). According to Peters and Waterman, employees tend to engage in OCB when they find the work environment conducive.

Moreover, clan or supportive culture contains an employee-oriented leadership, cohesiveness, participation, and teamwork (Han, 2012). Adhocracy or an entrepreneurial culture includes innovative, creative, and adaptable characteristics (Güven, 2010). Schein (2016) defined hierarchy culture as a combination of rules and

regulations to control activities in the organisation. Market culture includes competition and organisational goal achievement (Gray, 2014).

The assumption and values of clan culture include human affiliation, collaboration, attachment, trust, loyalty, and support (Griffin, 2016). In a clan culture, managers need to act in a democratic manner to inspire and motivate employees to establish a culture of excellence in the organisation (Mohralizadeh & Atyabi, 2015). An interpersonal relationship is active in the effective organisational culture. Organisation members behave appropriately and develop a sense of ownership when they have trust in, loyalty to, and ownership in the organisation (Norman, 2011).

Clan culture includes teamwork, participation, employee involvement, and open communication (Pinho et al., 2014). In a clan culture, business managers encourage teamwork and employee empowerment (Yirdaw, 2014). The ultimate goal of clan culture is improving employee performance through commitment, sense of ownership, and responsibility (Han, 2012; Morrison, 2014).

Research findings in the area of organisational culture showed how clan culture positively relates to organisational performance (Han, 2012; Morrison, 2014). By contrast, Poulis, Poulis and Plakoyiannaki (2013) argued that clan culture includes employee relation issues instead of improving efficiency and effectiveness in the organisation. Kotter and Heskett (2012) compromised both views, supporting the clan culture's indirect role in improving performance and they acknowledge the clan culture's direct role in improving efficiency and effectiveness. In a clan culture, business managers encourage employee engagement and commitment to the organisation because committed employees may perform their task efficiently and deliver their responsibility effectively (Schurink, Fouche & De Vos, 2011).

2.7.3 Entrepreneurial culture/innovative culture

Organisations characterised by this type of culture favour or encourage high level of risk taking, dynamism, and creativity from the workforce. The organisation commits to experimentation, innovation and leading edge attitude as the attributes of members in the organisation. In the view of Hellriegel and Slocum (2011) with an entrepreneurial culture, organisations do not easily react to changes in the environment it creates. Individual initiative, flexibility and freedom which is the hallmark of this culture is encouraged and rewarded in the organisation.

2.8 The Impact of Organisational Culture (Dimensions of OC)

Additionally, in adhocracy or an entrepreneurial culture, organisation members may require clarification for their job assignments including the importance and impact of the assignment to achieve organisational goals (Veisesh, Mohammadi, Pirzadian & Sharafi, 2014). The values and assumptions of adhocracy culture include (a) growth, (b) risk taking, (c) creativity, (d) diversity, (e) independence, and (f) adaptability (Hartnell, Ou & Kinicki, 2011). In adhocracy culture, business managers allocate more resources for research and development, and they encourage employees' involvement in creative and innovative research activities (Sok, Blomme & Tromp, 2014).

In ahocracy culture, innovation and creativity are important to enhance productivity and to improve services in the organisation. The ultimate result of adhocracy culture is innovation and change (Givens, 2012). Research evidence in the area of organisational culture shows the existence of a positive relationship between adhocracy culture and innovative entrepreneurial orientation (Eukeria & Favourate, 2014). Other research findings also showed the existence of a positive relationship between adhocracy culture and financial effectiveness in the long-term (Hartnell et al., 2011).

2.8.1 Market culture/competitive culture

This type of culture is characterised by the achievements of measurable and demanding goals, especially those that are financial and market-based. Additionally, hard driving competitiveness and a profit orientation prevail throughout organisations where this type of culture is being practiced. Like community/clan culture, market culture also involves a contractual relationship between individual employees and the organisation. Specifically, a rewarding relationship exists between the individual and the organisation to the extent that the individual is responsible for some levels of reward in the engagement.

According to Hellriegel et al. (2011), market culture does not exert much informal, social pressure on an organisation's members. They do not share a common set of expectations regarding management style or philosophy. The absence of a long term commitment by both parties results in a weak socialising process. These four subcultures have different impact on organisations and employee behaviour and largely reflect management philosophies or styles.

In a competition culture, organisational members have clear objectives to increase their reward through market achievement (Han, 2012). Competition culture includes (a) gathering customer and competitor information, (b) appropriate goal setting, planning and decision-making, and (c) task focus leadership. Competition culture also contains market aggressiveness and achievement. The competition culture includes open communication, competition, competence, and achievement (Miguel, 2016).

In competition culture, business managers focus on external effectiveness through market control and secure competitiveness through market achievement. Gershon and DeJoy (2016) noted that business managers must have knowledge of their clients and

market priority to survive in the competitive market. In a competition culture, business managers must maintain customer-driven leadership because the priority in competition culture is customers' satisfaction (Han, 2012).

The other priority for business managers in competition culture is to satisfy the owners of the company. The ultimate goal of competition culture is high market share, revenue, high profit, growth, and productivity (Hartnell et al., 2011). In an effective organisational culture, business managers use the organisation member's values, priorities, and behaviours to make the company's business journey easy and competitive in the marketplace (Gorden, 2015). The proper alignment of fair competition and stakeholders' satisfaction is important for organisational culture effectiveness.

Previous empirical studies in the area of organisational culture showed that the existence of cultural acceptance variation in various geographical locations (Gorden 2015). For example, Gratto (2011) found the existence of more hierarchical and clan cultures in Southern Korean companies than organisational culture in the United States and Japan. The other study findings also showed that the existence of more collaborative culture in Southern Korean companies than in the United States and Japan. By contrast, Shim and Steers found risk takers, innovative, assertive, and future-oriented business managers in the United States, rather than in Korea companies.

2.8.2 Hierarchy culture

In hierarchy culture, business managers give priority in establishing effective control systems throughout the organisation. In hierarchy culture, organisation members follow the rules and regulations, and each activity set with pre-defined procedures and rules (Hartnell et al., 2011). Hierarchy culture includes clear communication channels, stability, consistency, and reinforcement (Gratto, 2011). The final goal of hierarchy

culture is efficiency and effectiveness. Study findings showed the existence of a negative relationship between hierarchy culture and financial performance (Han, 2012). Other research findings also showed the existence of a negative relationship between hierarchical culture and customer integration (Choo, 2013).

Every organisation is governed by a culture and this culture is the main driver of productivity and progress. Within organisational behaviour literature, the construct organisational culture has been variously defined. Some scholars have defined culture from the point of view of its connection with behaviour in organisations. For instance, researchers have expressed the view that, within any human society and most importantly organisations, members engage in rituals, pass along corporate myths and stories, use jargons, though informal practice they have the capacity to facilitate or hinder management's goal for the organisation (Deal & Kennedy, 2012; Peters & Waterman, 2012).

There is no universally acceptable definition of organisational culture despite the extensive research carried out on the construct. Thus, several definitions for the construct have been provided by different authors based on their theoretical position on the variable (Alvesson, 2012; Skøien, 2014). For instance, Skøien (2014) intimated that, organisational culture ensured that people's behaviour in the organisation was purposeful and goal-directed. Thus, culture shapes the behaviour of the workforce. Culture has also been characterised as an important feature of excellent organisations (Ahmed, 2016; Peters & Waterman, 2012). Organisational culture has also been referred to as the genetic blueprint of an organisation which has the capacity influence all aspects of the organisation (Alvesson, 2012).

According to Schein (2010), organisational culture represents the basic assumptions invented, discovered or developed by a group of people to adjust to problems of external adaptation and integration and therefore good enough to influence the way people in the organisation think and feel about problems in the organisation. This definition is consistent with Deal and Kennedy (2010) who defined organisational culture simply as the way things are done in the organisation. In the view of Nickels (2010), organisation involves values which are representative of the organisation and provide an important source cooperation, harmony and coordination of efforts with the purpose to achieve organisational goals. Thus, culture binds people together in organisations.

Marguardt (2012) offered the definition of culture as the values, beliefs, practices, rituals and customs specific to an organisation. Schein (2010) stated that organisational culture consists of two layers of concepts, namely, visible and invisible characteristics. The visible layer means external building, clothing, behaviour modes, regulations, stories, myths, language, and rites. On the other hand, the invisible layer means common values, norms, faith, and assumptions of business organisational members.

In the management literature on organisational culture (Deal & Kennedy, 2012; Peters & Waterman, 2012) which includes the work of Schein (2010), culture is widely understood as an instrument to be used by management to shape and control in some way the belief, understandings, and behaviours of individuals, and thus the organisation to reach specified goals. Therefore, a number of definitions for any organisational culture have been proposed (Saks & Ashforth, 2014; Arnett, 2015). Many studies have been conducted about the impact of organisational culture on different variables in the organisational setting.

For instance, the relationship between organisational culture and several important employee and organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction (Njegovan & Kostic, 2014), individual learning (Ulwick, 2013), organisational effectiveness (Skøien, 2014), leadership (Schein, 2010), organisational problem-solving (Brown, 2010), creativity (Choo, Bergeron, Detlor & Heaton, 2014), organisational commitment (Lock & Crawford, 2016), organisational performance (Choo, 2013), TQM (Vickry, n.d) communication and information (Fayad, 2011). Culture is a ubiquitous concept and the culture of an organisation is referred to as organisational culture. It determines members' lifestyles, provides an organisation with its identity, and a framework for how things must be done. The originators of the term 'culture' were social anthropologists who wanted to describe and understand primitive societies (Samson & Waiganjo, 2015; Darbi, 2012).

Applying the concept of culture in the organisational context resonated in the 1980s when it was examined in corporate organisations to explain their differences. One of the pioneers of this initiative, Anteby and Molnár (2012) examined corporate cultures in Japanese and American companies and found that the success of effective companies was due to their distinctive corporate cultures (Hoy & Miskel, 2015). The study further revealed that the difference between companies of the two countries was that Japan had a highly motivated workforce that shared values, beliefs, and assumptions (Fayad, 2011; Hoy & Miskel, 2015; Darbi, 2012). Many other scholars gave attention to the study of organisational culture in that period (Alvesson, 2012; Deal & Kenney, 2012; Hoy & Miskel, 2015).

As with any societal culture, organisational culture consists of shared belief systems, values, assumptions, norms, artifacts, and patterns of behaviour (Hoy & Miskel, 2015).

Some researchers indicate that although some aspects of organisational culture cannot be observed or seen, it supports obvious organisational activities (Kruse & Louis, 2016). In related studies, researchers posited that organisational culture consist of tangible and intangible elements (Wiewiora, Murphy, Trigunarsyah & Brown, 2014; West & Anderson, 2016). These works pointed out that the tangible culture communicates the intangible culture while the intangible culture provides guideline for behaviour patterns.

Schein (2010) pointed out that the differences in the definitions of culture stem from the ambiguity in the concept of organisation. Some researchers define culture as “a system of shared orientations that hold the unit together and give it a distinctive identity” (Hoy & Miskel, 2015, p. 177). Stolp and Smith (2014) defined it as “the set of shared meanings, collective norms, and views on interactions and collaborations” (p. 17). From Martins and Martins’ (2012) perspective, culture is “the set of important assumptions (often unstated) that members of a community share in common” (p. 10).

For Schein (2010), culture is “a) a pattern of basic assumptions, b) invented, discovered, or developed by a given group, c) as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, d) that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, e) is to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems” (p. 111). He explained that culture is what a group learns over time as member’s attempt to solve the problems of internal integration and survival in an external adaptation. These definitions present culture as something that is shared by members of a unit and because it bonds them, violation or observance could attract punishment or reward respectively. Thus, without a unified

culture to regulate behaviour, life within an organisation would be full of chaos and confusion.

Organisational culture has several functions, making it paramount to the progress of an organisation. Some scholars indicated that it socialises new members about “the way we do things around here” (Barth, 2012, p. 7; Bashir, Jianqiao, Abrar & Ghazanfar, 2012, p. 133). Other authors posited that organisational culture defines and sustains an organisation’s borders, identifies its stakeholders, and initiates collective patterns of cognitive interpretations and perceptions that create awareness among stakeholders about accepted ways to act, feel, and think (Barth, 2012; Bashir, Jianqiao, Abrar & Ghazanfar, 2012).

In a related study, Hoy and Miskel (2015) state: “Organisational culture guides and shapes the attitudes and behaviours of an organisation’s members” (p. 182). In other words, organisational culture determines the kind of behaviour that is acceptable within an organisation. It provides the normative glue that holds the organisation together. Its ability to unite is what provides direction for members and gives them a unified purpose. Culture covers every aspect of the organisational life. When it is described using a typology, it does not provide the right representation of all the variables contained in a culture (Schein, 2010). Irrespective of the size of a group or an organisation, they are all faced with tasks or challenges that it must learn to cope with (Ahmed, 2016; Schein, 2010).

In the process of time, the way an organisation responds to these tasks and challenges becomes its organisational culture. Schein explains that, to be able to interpret what really goes on in a particular organisation, one needs to inductively understand the pertinent dimensions on the basis of the organisation’s history. This author explains

that although it is easy to identify the artefacts of an organisation, it is not easy to know what they actually mean. The most appropriate way to understand an organisation's culture is to interview its members (insiders), who can provide rich information pertaining to the organisation (Schein, 2010).

2.9 Factors Influencing Organisational Culture

In assessing the nature of an organisation's culture, it is important for one understand the factors which underpin and influence culture. The most frequently cited groupings of factors according to Schein (2011) include the following.

2.9.1 The business environment

The general business environment in which an organisation operates helps to determine the culture. Society at large will influence opinions about work, money, status and different types of jobs. The writings of sociology and anthropology highlight the differences in cultural attitudes between geographical regions as well as differences between different levels of social strata. These differences will affect commitment, respect for managers, attitudes towards service and the customer. The traditions of a particular industry will also have an impact; airlines have "a combination of military-establishment and pioneering enthusiast spirit" (Chien, 2012, p. 164). Banks and bankers have a risk-averse nature, whereas stockbrokers have a deal-oriented culture. These societal aspects provide the foundations upon which the corporate culture is developed.

Overlaid on these foundations is the specific market environment within which the organisation is operating. Within a market, the speed of change, the level of competitiveness, the value placed on people vis-a-vis technology and the demands of the customer will also influence the values, norms and behaviour of those who work

within it. Many of the companies who have had greatest need for a culture change have been those who have lost their monopolistic position (privatised companies such as British Telecom) or where an industry-wide cartel had broken down (ICI) as the non-competitive market environment had impacted on employees and their attitudes (Deal & Kennedy, 2012).

2.9.2 Leadership

Leadership is thought by authors such as Deal and Kennedy (2012) and Schein (2010) as having some influence on the culture of an organisation. However, there is no empirical evidence to suggest that it has the totally overpowering and guiding hand suggested by these authors. Where there is evidence of a link between leadership and culture, it is in young newly created organisations. In new organisations, Denison (2015) believed that the entrepreneur or founder influences the culture through his own ambitions, the interactive processes between entrepreneurs and their followers and the more general processes through which purpose and commitment are generated and sustained.

Schein (2011) saw the founder as having a critical role in reducing anxiety within a new group situation. As the founder's prescriptions of how things are to be done help to set standards of acceptable behaviour and best practice, they also help to structure the initially unstructured relationships among the new group members. If the founder is surrounded by colleagues and employees who are not willing to accept his initial assumptions, the process of culture development would involve conflict, negotiation, compromise, and in some cases, the removal of members from the group.

Because of the power of a founder, the emerging culture may then reflect not only the founder's assumptions, but the complex internal accommodations created by

subordinates to run the organisation “in spite of” or “around” the leader. When the founder steps down or dies, his or her successor is often faced with intransigence if there is a desire to change things in response to new circumstances. This may be due to the influence and respect given to the previous leader or it may be due simply to people's general inertia and unwillingness to change.

2.9.3 Management practices and the formal socialisation process

The manner in which a company is managed is likely to influence either positively or negatively the beliefs, attitudes and behaviour of the employees. Before considering management practices, there is a need to distinguish between management and leadership. Kotter and Heskett (2012) summarised many authors' definitions of leadership by stating that it is involved in the long-term direction of the company through the development of a vision and strategies for the future. The leader is then responsible for communicating through words and deeds this vision to internal and external audiences while motivating and inspiring the individuals who have to deliver it.

Management, on the other hand, is generally described as being about the detailed planning, budgeting, organising, controlling and staffing of the organisation as well as ad hoc problem solving. Within these management tasks, managers have control over a range of factors that apparently affect cultural transmission. The most important of these as highlighted by Lewin, Lippitt and White (2014) are recruitment, formal socialisation procedures and the turnover of employees. The types of people recruited can help to perpetuate a cultural orientation as recruiters will tend to find attractive those candidates who resemble present members in style, assumptions, values and beliefs.

This form of cultural embedding operates unconsciously in most organisations. Recruitment decisions will not always lead to a perfect match, because of the personnel available on the labour market and the information that is missed or remains hidden during the interviewing process. Therefore, formal socialisation activities are undertaken to reinforce acceptable attitudes and behaviour within the organisation (Schein, 2011; O'Reilly, Caldwell, Chatman & Doerr, 2014). These activities include training, and particularly induction training, which is geared towards providing explicit orientation for employees.

Other techniques include systems of employee participation that rely on processes of incremental commitment, reliance on groups for control of members and comprehensive reward systems that use recognition and approval (O'Reilly et al., 2014). In a less explicit manner, employees learn from their own experience as to what the organisation values for promotions and salary increases as well as what the organisation punishes. Rewards and control systems reinforce behaviour that is deemed pivotal to success in the organisation. The design of the organisation with its hierarchies and reporting structures is also seen as having an impact on the norms and values of individuals at different points within it (Schein, 2011).

Schein (2011) considered the impact of different organisational forms, such as Japanese-style, governmental-bureaucratic form and collectivist-democratic form in their cultural transmission model. The findings are relatively inconclusive and tend to reflect national traits (for example, the Japanese providing a stable corporate culture) rather than the design of the organisation. However, aspects such as decentralisation, empowerment of employees and recognition of unions all seem to have an impact on the elements of corporate culture.

2.9.4 The informal socialisation process

As all of the definitions of corporate culture identify the critical element of sharing within a group, it is important to consider how an individual behaves within the group context. From group dynamic theory, the individual in a group setting has basically three primary needs (Schein, 2011). The first of these is to feel part of the group by developing a viable role and being recognised by other members of the group. This involves a compromise of maintaining a distinct and separate identity at the same time as being seen as a group member. Second, there is a need to feel powerful, able to influence and control whilst accepting the needs of others to do the same. This can lead to conflict but can also help to formulate the roles to find individuals within the group.

Third, there is a need to feel accepted by the group and to achieve the basic security and intimacy that comes with that. These factors are important whether it is a totally new group that is being formed or where a new member is entering an existing group. Schein (2011) saw these needs as reflecting the basic human needs for security, mastery of the environment (influence and control) and love (acceptance and intimacy). As a result of efforts to stabilise these needs and the personalities of the different group members, norms and standards arise and, ultimately, are consensually accepted and enforced.

This takes time as people with different interpersonal styles and emotions cannot be expected to build shared meanings out of immediate interaction. Through working together, the group members gradually learn through interaction what each other's style is and how to accommodate it. To be accepted, new members will also attempt to behave in a manner which is generally consistent and congruent with the established norms. This socialisation process is supported by the telling of what has been termed

myths, stories and legends (Schein, 2010; Schein, 2011) about specific situations and how they were handled (thus, why certain people were sacked and why some were promoted). This reinforces patterns of acceptable and unacceptable behaviour, and it can also become a means of spreading a counter-culture or of revealing inconsistencies or absurdities in the main culture.

In furtherance, the culture and structure of an organisation develop over time and in response to a complex set of factors. There a number of key influences that is likely to play an important role in the development of any corporate culture. According to Peek (2013), these include: History. The reason and manner in which the organisation was originally formed, its age, and the philosophy and values of its owners and senior managers will affect culture.

2.9.5 Primary function and technology

The nature of the organisation's "business" and its primary function have an important influence on its culture. This includes the range and quality of products and services provided, the importance of reputation and the type of customers. The primary function of the institution will determine the nature of the technological processes and methods of undertaking work, which in turn also affect structure and culture.

2.9.6 Strategy

The organisation must give attention to objectives in all its key areas of operations. The combination of objectives and resultant strategies would influence, and may itself be influenced by culture.

2.9.7 Size

Usually larger institutions have more formalised structures and cultures. Increased size is likely to result to separate departments and possibly split-site operations. A rapid expansion, or decline, in size and rate of growth, and resultant changes in staffing will influence structure and culture.

2.9.8 Location

Geographical location and physical characteristics can have a major influence on culture. For example, whether an institution is located in a quiet rural location or a busy city centre can influence the types of customers (students) and the staff employed. Location can also affect the nature of services (courses) offered by an institution.

2.9.9 Management and leadership

Top executives can have considerable influence on the nature of corporate culture. However, all members of staff help shape the dominant culture of an institution, irrespective of what senior management feels it should be. Culture is also determined by the nature of staff employed and the extent to which they accept management philosophy and policies or pay only “lip service”.

2.9.10 The environment

In order to be effective, the institution must be responsive to external environmental influences. In order that leaders can develop, manage and change their culture for better performance, Peek (2013) referred to the use of three managerial tools:

1. Recruitment and selection-hire people who fit the company’s culture.
2. Social tools and training-develop practices that enable new people to understand the values, abilities, expected behavioural and social knowledge in order to participate fully as an employee and to create strong bonds among members.

3. Reward system-culture is an organisation's informal reward system but it needs to be intricately connected to formal rewards. Example includes payment of commissions in front of customers/students and parents other staff to good performing employees.

2.10 Relationship between Organisational Culture and Organisational Effectiveness

Researchers have generally agreed that, organisational culture is a significant predictor of organisational effectiveness. The large categories of research in this area were reported in the western cultures. Empirical study involving 759 firms revealed that organisational cultures that stress higher risk tolerance tends to encourage radical innovations (Bolman & Deal, 2013). This culture which facilitates risk taking, willingness to experiment, initiative taking and fast moving character tends to promote adaptability and learning (Bolman & Deal, 2013). This study which was quantitative in nature utilised culture scale which is different from that being used in the present study (Brief, 2015). Again, though their study looked at culture from a dimensional angle, the labels of culture (i.e. community, innovative, competitive and bureaucratic) are quite different from that used by them.

The nexus between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness has also been found in the school setting. A correlational research design was employed to study the relationship between organisational culture and the effectiveness of principals of secondary schools in the Lorestan State in the Islamic Republic of Iran. The study involved a random sample of 800 teachers from a population of 4403 teachers and 300 principals from a total of 512 principals in the province of Lorestan secondary schools. Questionnaire was used to collect data from the participants. The researchers utilized

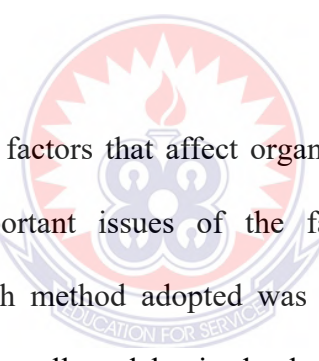
Pearson Correlation and Regression analysis (Enter and stepwise) to test the hypotheses in the study. It was observed that, a significant positive correlation exists between organisational culture and principal effectiveness ($r=.85$, $p=0.05$). Using the stepwise regression method, it was also observed that, components of organisational culture such as transparency, communication, supportive and reward system predicted about .85 of the total variance of principal effectiveness in Lorestan State (Mehralizadeh & Atyabi, 2016).

Researchers have broadened the base of organisational effectiveness research to compare effectiveness between public and private sector organisations. Parhizgari (2015) carried out a study in which a comprehensive measure of organisational effectiveness was utilised to assess differences in performance between public and private sector organisations. Nine measures of organisational effectiveness were empirically derived and validated for the study was used. A total of 11,352 participants were selected from 28 private sector organisations and 41 public sector organisations. Test result after statistical analysis showed that, private sector organisations significantly and more effective than public sector organisations on all the measures of organisational effectiveness. However, Schneider, Gunnarson and Niles (2014) provided empirical evidence which showed that, there was no significant difference in organisational effectiveness between private and public sector organisations in the UK.

Kangs and Williams (2010) sought to determine the effect of organisational culture on organisational effectiveness between public and private sector organisations in the United Kingdom. The study involved 1,143 participants from the two sectors (public and private). The researcher's operationalised culture as constructive or destructive in

which they indicated that constructive cultures were related to organisational effectiveness and destructive cultures were not related to organisational effectiveness.

The result showed no significant difference in organisational culture between private and public sector organisations. In addition, there was no significant difference in organisational effectiveness between private and public sector organisations. These contradictory findings on organisational effectiveness between private and public sector organisations only strengthened the point that the need for further studies is a clarion call. It is also clear from the findings that the study was based on western culture and the need to conduct such a study in the collectivist culture was necessary. The present study is different from what has been reported because it is based on only one College of education.



Chien (2015) investigated factors that affect organisational effectiveness. The study was to explore the important issues of the factors that affect organisational effectiveness. The research method adopted was the case study of the qualitative research and the data was collected by in-depth interviews. In the process of the research, the author interviewed with 30 employees, including ten managers and twenty private and public workers. According to the analysis of the research data, there were seven factors effecting organisational effectiveness: (1) personal characteristics, (2) leadership styles, organisational culture, (4) working environment, (5) model of organisational operation, (6) flexibility, (7) organisational commitment. All these factors were found to favour private organisations compared to public organisations.

Wambugu (2014) assessed the relationship between organisational culture, organisational climate and managerial values as predictive factors of organisational effectiveness. The paper begins with a comprehensive review of the management

literature on culture, and demonstrates close parallels with research and writings on organisational climate and values. The paper then reported the findings from an empirical investigation into the relationship between the organisational culture, climate, and managerial values of a large Australian public sector agency. The relative strengths of four dimensions of culture in this organisation were measured using Hofstede's (2015) instrument.

Added to this were items from a questionnaire developed by Ryder and Southey, derived from the Jones and James instrument measuring psychological climate and providing scores across six specific dimensions of organisational climate. Measures of managerial values, drawn from a questionnaire by Flowers and Hughes, were also incorporated. Results show that levels of culture within this particular organisation are at variance with those reported by Hofstede from his Australian data. Findings indicated a strong link between specific organisational climate items and a number of managerial values dimensions. Additional relationships between particular dimensions of culture, climate and managerial values were also found to promote organisational effectiveness.

Comparison of public and private sector managerial effectiveness in China: A three-parameter approach was conducted by Chanzi (2016). The study sought to explore the similarities and differences in terms of managerial effectiveness between public-and private-sector organisations from the dimensions of motivation, constraints and opportunities. The research was undertaken in the form of case studies targeting senior managers in four multinational corporations (MNCs) Chinese subsidiaries. Data were collected through survey and semi-structured interviews. The analysis of the public sector was referred to previous research conducted by Analoui.

Findings indicated that there were a number of common themes applicable to both sectors. The level of effectiveness between public and private sectors was also not significant. This study should have considered using Chinese public sector to complete a comparative analysis since private and public sector organisations from two different countries cannot serve as a good comparison group. Additionally, this research was conducted at one point in time, making it difficult to draw robust conclusions when the selected MNCs are in the developing or transitional phase of their company policies and practices.

Organisational culture has also been found to affect economic performance (i.e. financial performance) firms. In an over three year's longitudinal study involving five French companies, Calori and Sarnin (2011) examined the relationship between corporate culture and economic performance. They observed that cultural profile of the firms was associated with the company's growth. Specific cultural values like personal fulfillment, listening to others, team spirit, responsibility, trust, quality, and consistency were found to be positively and significantly related with the firm's relative growth performance. However, they reported a negative relationship between duty, experience, authority and performance of the firms. This longitudinal study has confirmed that, not all aspects of organisational culture impacts significantly on performance or effectiveness in the organisations.

Clearly, the outcome of the longitudinal study has shown that organisations that emphasise togetherness, teamwork, quality, high level of trust and the culture of listening to others reaps significant benefits from the workforce compared to organisations where these values are encouraged. Other evidence gathered in their study revealed that very few values and management practices were significantly associated

with profitability. It was indicated that the firm's relative performance on return on investment and return on sales, both seemed to be related to five values like openness to the environment, participation in local activities, societal contribution, solidarity and flexibility.

Calori and Sarnin (2011) intimated that strong cultures were strongly associated with high growth performance of firms. In addition, they submitted that the intensity of company's culture was positively correlated with its relative growth and that culture seems to influence growth of firms more than profitability. Their findings are consistent with earlier research finding which revealed that, strong cultures and particularly those with widely accepted beliefs within the organisation, performed better than those with lack of shared values (Schlechty, 2014). However, other researchers have indicated that strong could lead to stagnation and reduced ability to adapt to changes in the environment (Burke, 2015).

2.11 Dimensions of Organisational Culture

To understand the organisational culture, researchers have different ways to prompt a discussion. In this thesis, the researcher discussed Reynold's, Schein's and Hofstede's dimensions of organisational culture. These three (Reynold's, Schein's and Hofstede's) ways to approach organisational culture show a wholly view of the issue.

2.11.1 Reynolds' dimensions of organisational culture

Reynolds (1986) argued that the dimensions of organisational culture from previous researchers such as Hofstede, Ansoff, Deal and Kennedy and many others had overlapped and the author also presented 14 independent dimensions of organisational culture:

1. External vs internal emphasis: External emphasis focus on satisficing customers or any external stakeholders, while the internal emphasis focus on internal activities, such as committee meeting or reports
2. Task vs. social focus. This dimension shows the degree to which the organisation views the task accomplishment or social needs of employees' as more important
3. Risk vs safety. This measures how much the organisation willing to change or adopt different program or procedure
4. Conformity vs. individuality: the degree to which the employees' distinctive and idiosyncratic behaviour in work and social life is tolerated
5. Individual vs. group rewards: The organisation would reward all the members in the unit or individually based on one's contribution
6. Individual vs collective decision making: The degree to which decisions are made, by individual or by the input of various individual who are affected
7. Centralised vs. decentralized decision making: The decisions are made by those in key position in the organisation or those who are in charge of the task
8. Ad hockery vs planning: the organisation develops ad hoc for all change or has intricate plans that forestall most future situations.
9. Stability vs innovation: The degree to which the organisation open to adopting novel and distinctive goods, services, and procedures
10. Cooperation vs. competition: It is about the individual member's attitude to their work, either for internal competition for rewards with each other or for external competition with outsiders
11. Simple vs. complex organisation: The degree of complexity of the formal and informal structure as well as the organisational internal political process

12. Informal vs. formalise procedures: The level of tendency to have a formal tool for all procedures and decision-making. The more formalized it is, the more extensive, detailed rules and procedures and elaborate forms and written documents are used to justify any and all actions. The most informal would comprise oral discussions and approval on main subjects, even very little or no discussion for insignificant issues
13. High vs. low loyalty: The degree of loyalty work in the organisation in comparison with other relevant groups
14. Ignorance vs. knowledge of organisational expectations: The level of employees' awareness of their job, what they are expected to do and to contribute to the common goal of the organisation (Reynolds, 1986, pp. 234-236).

This way to dimensionalise organisation is very detailed and it covers all the elements of organisational culture. However, this framework is more useful in evaluate an organisation's performance and to compare with other ones.

2.11.2 Hofstede's dimensions of organisational culture

Hofstede (2011) used a framework of six dimensions to describing organisational culture:

1. Process-Oriented Vs. Results-Oriented (Means-Oriented vs. Goal-Oriented)

This dimension is most closely associated with the effectiveness of the organisation. A process-oriented culture focus on HOW the work is done, it concerns more about technical and bureaucratic routine while results-oriented culture concerns about the outcome, where employees are asked about WHAT to be done. The two sides of the dimensions are also different in level of risk taking. As Process-oriented culture

emphasise on the assurance during working process, employees avoid risks and even make limited effort in the task. By contrast, employees in results-oriented tend to take more risk in order to achieve specific internal goals.

2. Job-Oriented Vs. Employee-Oriented

This dimension relates to management philosophy. The job-oriented culture assumes responsibility for the employees' job performance only, it even heavily presses employees to perform the task. In opposite, employee-oriented culture takes into account also the employees' wellbeing; it cares about individual issues too.

3. Professional vs Parochial (Local)

In professional culture, employees are identified with their profession or content of their job. In the local culture, the identity of members is determined by the team or unit they work in.

4. Open System vs. Closed System

This dimension reflects the level of the accessibility of an organisation. It refers to the internal and external communication style and how easily newcomers are welcome. In open system, a member is open to both insiders and outsiders as they believe everyone can fit the organisation.

5. Tight vs. Loose Control (Easy going work discipline vs. strict work discipline)

This dimension deals with the amount of internal control, structuring and discipline. It expresses the formality and punctuality level of the organisation. In a tight culture, members are expected to be punctual, serious and cost-conscious while loose culture exposes less control and discipline.

6. Pragmatic vs Normative (External Driven vs. Internal Driven)

This dimension is about customers' satisfaction, or in general, it defines the principal way of dealing with the environment. The pragmatic culture (external driven), mostly existing in units such as selling or customer services, focus on fulfil the customers' requirement. On the other side, normative culture (internal driven) emphasis on business ethics and honesty issues, which appears in units involving in laws and regulation.

More recent, in his website, Hofstede (2015) added two more dimensions: degree of acceptance of leadership style and degree of identification with your organisation. Degree of acceptance of leadership style implies how the leadership style of employee's direct boss is aligned with their preferences. Degree of identification with your organisation tells us the degree to which one identifies with the organisation, such as internal goals, clients, direct boss, team and many others.

2.11.3 Schein's dimensions

Schein (2012) used five questions to study organisational culture. They are:

1. The organisation's relationship to its environment
2. The nature of reality and trust, which is the basis for making decisions
3. The nature of human nature
4. The nature of human activity
5. The nature of human relationship.

However later on, Schein (2010) has developed the dimension of organisational culture into more details. This is presented in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Dimension of organisational culture

From External Adaptation:	Mission Strategy Goals Means Measurement Correction Common language Group boundaries
From Internal Integration:	Power, authority and status Norms of Personal Relationships Rewards and Punishments Myths and Stories Reality and Truth
Macro-culture Assumptions concerning	Nature of Time Nature of Space Human Nature, Activities and Relationships

Source: Adopted from Schein (2010, pp. 69-175)

2.12 Relationship between Dimensions of Organisational Culture and Organisational Effectiveness

The effectiveness of an organisation somehow can be traced to its culture. Despite this, it is reasonable to conjecture that, each of the dimensions of organisational culture would have different impact on organisational effectiveness (Ogbonna & Harris, 2010). The connection between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness has also be demonstrated empirically from manufacturing organisations. Khazanchi, Lewis and Boyer (2014) in a study involving 271 manufacturing plants revealed that aspects of organisational culture especially those that emphasise greater value congruence among members, respect for flexibility and control were significantly associated with the successful implementation of technology. They intimated flexibility and control encourage organisational empowerment and creativity respectively.

Denison (2014) found in his study of organisational culture, that companies with a participative culture reaped a return on investment, which averaged nearly twice that of

firms with less efficient cultures. His conclusion was that cultural and behavioural aspects of organisations were intimately linked to both short-term performance and long-term survival. Petty et al. (2015) conducted a study amongst 3977 employees across a United States company to assess whether there was a relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance.

The results of the study indicated that organisational performance was linked to organisational culture. The authors affirm that there was a strong link evident in the correlation between teamwork and performance. This correlation indicated that teamwork, being the major aspect of culture, was significantly related to performance. The authors also contend that such behaviours as helping others, sharing of information and resources, and working as a team seemed to enhance performance in the organisation studied.

In a study done by Gordon (2015) of an electric utility company, it was discovered that cultures affect organisational effectiveness. The study revealed four factors that differentiated financially successful companies from less successful companies. These four factors were: successful companies had greater horizontal coordination; they possessed more affective internal communications; they encouraged their those that emphasise greater value congruence among members, respect for flexibility and control were significantly associated with the successful implementation of technology. They intimated flexibility and control encourage organisational empowerment and creativity respectively.

Researchers among themselves have different opinions of performance. Performance, in fact, continues to be a contentious issue among organisational researchers (Barney, 2014). For example, according to Barney (2014), performance is equivalent to the

famous 3Es (economy, efficiency, and effectiveness) of a certain program or activity. However, according to Daft (2010), organisational performance is the organisation's ability to attain its goals by using resources in an efficient and effective manner. Quite similar to Daft (2010) and Richardo (2011) defined organisational performance as the ability of the organisation to achieve its goals and objectives. Organisational performance has suffered from not only a definition problem, but also from a conceptual problem. Hefferman and Flood (2010) stated that as a concept in modern management, organisational performance suffered from problems of conceptual clarity in a number of areas. The first was the area of definition while the second was that of measurement.

The term performance was sometimes confused with productivity. According to Ricardo (2011), there was a difference between performance and productivity. Productivity was a ratio depicting the volume of work completed in a given amount of time. Performance was a broader indicator that could include productivity as well as quality, consistency and other factors. In result-oriented evaluation, productivity measures were typically considered.

Ricardo (2011) argued that performance measures could include result-oriented behaviour (criterion-based) and relative (normative) measures, education and training, concepts and instruments, including management development and leadership training, which were the necessary building skills and attitudes of performance management. Hence, from the above literature review, the term "performance" should be broader based which include effectiveness, efficiency, economy, quality, consistency behaviour and normative measures (Ricardo, 2011).

The next issue that was always asked about organisational performance was what factors determine organisational performance. According to Hansen and Wernerfelt (1989), in the business policy literature, there were two major streams of research on the determinants of organisational performance. One was based on economic tradition, emphasising the importance of external market factors in determining organisational performance. The other line of research was built on the behavioural and sociological paradigm and saw organisational factors and their fit with the environment as the major determinant of success. The economic model of organisational performance provided a range of major determinants of organisational profit which included: Characteristics of the industry in which the organisation competed, the organisations position relative to its competitors, and the quality of the firm's resources.

Organisational model of firm performance focused on organisational factors such as human resources policies, organisational culture, and organisational climate and leadership styles. Another study by Chien (2014) found that there were five major factors determining organisational performance, namely: Leadership styles and environment, Organisational culture, Job design, Model of motive, and Human resource policies. Organisational culture and competitive intensity in addition to organisational innovativeness are used in the current study. The economic factors and organisational factors model was supported by many researches including

Hansen and Wernerfelt (1989) who found in their study that economic factors represented only 18.5 % of variance in business returns, while organisational factors contributed 38 % of organisational performance variance. This research focused more on organisational factors that determine organisation's performance. Organisational factors were found to determine performance to a greater extent than economic factors

indicated by Trovik and McGivern (2014). Firm's performance is widely measured through the financial success of the organisation.

Financial stress for most profit-oriented firms can be assessed both in terms of top-line (for example, sales) as well as bottom-line (for example, profitability) measures (Davis et al., 2010). The profitability of an organisation is an important financial indicator to reflect the efficiency of the organisation and the owners/managers ability to increase sales while keeping the variable costs down (Davis et al., 2010). Profit margin, return on assets, return on equity, return on investment, and return on sales are considered to be the common measures of financial profitability (Robinson, 2012).

Furthermore, according to the study conducted on the Malaysian SMEs, sales, sales growth, net profit, and growth profit are among the financial measures preferred by the SMEs in Malaysia (Abu Kasim et al., 1989). Sales growth is measured based on the average annual sales growth rate for three consecutive years from (2006-2008) (Hashim, 2010). On the other hand, profitability is analyzed by three financial ratios, which are return on sales (ROS), return on investment (ROI) and return on asset (ROA)-incurred during the last three years from 2006 to 2008.

The three consecutive years „financial ratios (ROS, ROI and ROA) are averaged out and incorporated into a Business Performance Composite Index (BPCI) similar to the measurement used in the study by Hashim (2010). The BPCI is a common index used by researchers to measure profitability since it provides the complete measurement of firm's profitability (i.e., combination of ROS, ROA and ROI). Hence, the use of BPCI could be the best measurement of profitability. Furthermore, the inclusion of the three financial ratios as components of BPCI provides a comprehensive and fair view of the firm's financial performance as compared to using only one measurement alone such

as ROS or ROA or ROI. ROS is derived by dividing net income of the fiscal year with total sales. ROA is derived by dividing net income of the fiscal year with debt and equity. ROA is derived by dividing net income of the fiscal year with total assets.

2.13 Relationship between Organisational Climate and Organisational Effectiveness

According to Schneider and Bowen (2015) when the general spirit and feelings of organisations make employee's feel that there is a reward for the accomplishment of individual and organisational goals, then, psychologically that become the climate perceived by the employees in the organisation. It is this climate which would govern the behaviour of all the members of the organisation.

It has been acknowledged by scholar's that, the organisational climate of an organisation is not felt by only employees but also customers of the organisation through such things as inter-activities with frontline employees (Schneider, 2010) and this awareness of the prevailing organisational climate by customers affects their opinions and level of satisfaction with the services of the organisation (Bitner et al., 2010; Kao, 2015; Parasuraman, 1987). Against this backdrop, the researcher takes the position that the perception of organisational climate by employees would strongly affect the relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness.

Schneider et al. (2015) posited that, managerial efforts combined with the internal work environment related to the services of the organisation will inform the exhibition of customer service related behaviours by employees. This means that, to be effective, an organisation must create and maintain organisational climate that suits the services it provides. It is only by doing this that the organisation can accomplish the task of service excellence (Schneider & Bowen, 2012). An organisation with high organisational

climate have employees with a caring attitude and a high sense of appreciation for the provision of quality service and also have high appreciation for customer satisfaction and their implications for organisational success. This means that, a good climate generates automatically a reciprocal relationship between the organisation, employees and customers. This is because as the organisation demonstrates support for the prevailing climate, it means that employees will continue to demonstrate positive behaviours as the byproduct of the climate and these in turn will impact positively on customers of the organisation.

In effect, the customers will continue to patronize the services of the organisation because of the climate (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Hsu et al. (2010) pointed out in an empirical study, that the OC of an international airline company had positive effects on the service-oriented OCBs of the flight service crews. Dimitriades (2014) also found in his empirical study: organisational climate sensed by frontline contact employees of the service industries has positive effect on customer-oriented OCBs. Work experiences under the socialised structure and the social cues conveyed by the sociointerpersonal environment also have certain influence on employees' definition of work role and OCBs (Morrison, 2014).

Organisational climate also represents organisational values sensed by employees (Schneider, 2010) and the messages are sent from the environment of the organisation to the perception of each individual member. These messages convey the organisations' expectations for employees' behaviours and imply the possible consequences linked to these behaviours. Therefore, employees of an organisation develop self-expected work behaviours based on this information. Schneider, Ehrhart, Mayer, Saltz and Niles-Jolly (2015) supported this theory. They believe that employees detect how much the

organisation values services based on organisational strategies and relevant information they received, and when employees identify to the value of “service first”, they are more likely to perform service-oriented OCBs. Other researchers have also verified that a safety climate in an organisation balances the relationship between leader-member exchange and safety citizenship behaviours (Hofmann, Morgan & Gerras, 2013).

Hsu, Lin and Chang (2010) also pointed out in an empirical study that the OC of an international airline company has no effects on transformative leadership and service-oriented OCBs. Similarly, to the service industries, when the frontline contact employees sense the company’s value in pursuing service excellence, such a message may change employees’ cognitive categorisation; that is, changes in the definitions and expectations of personal roles. And such changes expand beyond the official role definition to include extra-role behaviours that facilitate achievement of customer satisfaction. Employees who have a stronger sense of OS often build an open exchange to give official feedback for the work and have a higher tendency to perform service-oriented citizenship behaviours as a means to repay the support from the organisation (Morrison, 2014).

Therefore, when an organisation has a stronger organisational climate, the effect of OS, as sensed by employees, on service- oriented OCBs would also be reinforced. The effectiveness of an organisation lies solely in the hands of employees and management of those organisations. Organisational climate provides accurate information about commitment, performance, and satisfaction and also indicate to a large extent the meaning employees attach to the organisational situation and understanding employee attitudes and behaviour (James et al., 2010; Schneider et al., 2010).

Organisational climate has been reported to be a significant predictor of important work-related outcomes from individual, group, and organisational levels. These include leader behaviour (Rousseau, 1988; Rentsch, 2010), turnover intentions (Rousseau, 1988; Rentsch, 2010), job satisfaction (Mathieu, Hoffmann & Farr, 2013; James & Tetrick, 1986; James & Jones, 1980), individual job performance (Brown & Leigh, 2016; Pritchard & Karasick, 1973), and organisational performance (Lawler, Hall, & Oldham, 1974; Patterson, West, Lawthom, & Nickell, 1977).

Brown and Leigh (2016) demonstrated that perceptions of a motivating and involving organisational climate were positively related to supervisory ratings of performance. Organisational climate has also been shown to relate to group process variables across organisational levels (Griffin & Mathieu, 2014). Day and Bedeian (2011) also showed that employees performed better (as rated by their supervisors) in organisational climates they perceived as structured (unambiguous) and supportive of risk.

It has also been demonstrated that service climate is related to customer perceptions of service quality (Schneider, 1980; Schneider, Parkington & Buxton, 1980; Schneider, White, & Paul, 2015). Safety climate has also been significantly linked with safety behaviours and accidents teams (Hofmann & Stetzer, 2016), and safety compliance in the health sector (Murphy, Gershon & DeJoy, 2016). Research in the area of innovation also suggests that group climate factors influence levels of innovative behaviour in health care and top management teams (West & Wallace, 2011; West & Anderson, 2016).

A plethora of empirical studies have been conducted. In a study to determine the relationship between perceived organisational climate and organisational effectiveness among 46 employees of Lithuanian Government, the researchers utilized questionnaire

in collecting the data. The sample comprised 27 females and 19 males with the majority of them having university education; more than 50 percent had extensive working experience in organisations as counsellors, experts and heads of departments of the Lithuanian Government. Bivariate analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between dimensions of organisational climate and organisational effectiveness.

It was observed that, a significant correlation exists between organisational effectiveness and well-defined, achievable tasks ($r=0.426$, $p=0.003$), comfortable work environment ($r=0.443$, $p=0.002$), enough communication within organisation ($r=0.372$, $p=0.011$), tolerance for individual differences ($r=0.378$, $p=0.009$), and pride in work and organisation ($r=0.592$, $p=0.000$) (Aleksandras & Aiste, 2013). This result is a reflection of the relationship between organisational climate and effectiveness in a public sector-oriented organisation. However, the climate created in private sector-oriented organisations sometimes differs significantly from public sector organisations. This makes investigations in private sector organisations a necessity to establish whether the findings can be generalised across these two sectors globally.

Yücel (2016) did a study on organisational climate as predictor of organisational effectiveness among 149 managers across 49 private and public sector organisations in India. The researchers used qualitative approach where 63 participants took part in the study. The results showed the dimensions of organisational climate are a predictive of some of the factors of organisational effectiveness. Griffin (2016) found that organisational climate model accounts for at least 16% single-day sick leave and 10% separation rates in one organisation. The study sought to understand the nature of interdependence between organisational culture and climate on learning perception of organisational members. Organisational culture was measured using Wallach

Organisational Culture Index (OCI) and a 20-item Likert scale (developed by the author based on the Litwinian perspective).

The employees of an insurance company, and a functional unit (marketing department) of a textile company were selected for the sake of homogeneity and making comparisons. Research findings, to an extent, indicated that there was a match between certain cultural attributes and corresponding climatic elements apart from the idiosyncratic features of the organisations. The assessment of culture-climate (OC–OCT) fit is of help for both senior managements of organisations and HR departments to take necessary measures prior to the implementation of change strategies as well as the betterment of organisational productivity.

Organisational climate has also been found to be a significant predictor of organisational performance. The performance of an organisation may not broadly capture the concept of organisational effectiveness, but it is definitely an important aspect of the measurement of organisational effectiveness. It has been reported that, perceived positive organisational climate was significantly associated with increased participation in decision making; greater information sharing and management support, and hence improved corporate effectiveness (Kangis & Williams, 2010). This finding was based on an empirical study involving industries ranging from manufacturing to hosiery and knitwear. Rigorous statistical analysis revealed a significant statistical index between organisational climate and performance.

Work climate has also been reported as an enforcer of positive workplace behaviours like employee satisfaction, commitment and performance. Organisational climate and job satisfaction have been viewed as related but distinct constructs and therefore it is possible to test the relationship between them (Al-Shammari, 2012; Weese, 2014).

While organisational climate stresses perception of organisational attributes perceived by the rank and file in the organisation, job satisfaction deals with perceptions and attitudes people have towards work. Specifically, Wambugu (2014) provided empirical justification why climate is different from satisfaction by conducting a field experiment. In the experiment, different climates were created and tested on employee satisfaction. The result showed that each of the created climates had different effects on levels of employee satisfaction.

The effectiveness of an organisation is attributed to the workforce. Thus, an organisation populated with a large number of highly satisfied employees is likely to be an effective organisation because it is the contribution of the workforce that leads to the attainment of organisational goals. Climate has been demonstrated to significantly impact on employee job satisfaction among western samples. For instance, Friedlander and Margulies (as cited in Peek, 2013) reported that organisational climate was significantly and positively related to employee job satisfaction. They further reported that individuals with different work values were more satisfied in different work climates and that individuals' satisfaction with various aspects of their work was a function of the work climate in the organisation in which they work.

In a study involving 15 different organisations, researchers confirmed that organisational climate cause employee satisfaction. The study which was conducted by Taylor and Bowers comprised 284 workgroups (as cited in Uddin, Luva & Hossian, 2013). Similarly, Hand, Richards and Slocum (cited in Aaboen, Dubois & Lind, 2012) also corroborated the organisational climate-job satisfaction relationship reported earlier. They observed that managers with positive perception of the prevailing

organisational climate demonstrated high level of acceptance of self and others than those with less positive view of the climate.

People come to work with specific attitudes, needs and aspirations which are unique to them, but the impact of the work climate on these attitudes cannot be underestimated as it can influence them positively or negatively. Also, though people may find themselves working in different units, departments, with different teams, the degree to which the work environment affects them is crystal clear (Gini as cited in Kersten & Walter, 2013).

Interest in understanding the effect of perception of workplace environment on employee's attitude continue to engage the minds of scholars after the earliest study by Aaboen, Dubois and Lind (2012) at Western Electric. Humans generally feel comfortable in organisations where they are given a good amount of space to operate. In a study, Bisconti and Solomon (as cited in Hsu, Lin & Change, 2010) observed that organisational climates that allowed a high degree of autonomy and nurtured relationships between peers, supervisors and subordinates resulted in high level of satisfaction among the workforce.

Similarly, Hackman and Suttle (as cited in Peek, 2013) found that, organisations with good/positive climates were those that generally were interested in their employees, provided them with opportunities and recognized their achievements. Such organisations have a highly satisfied workforce. In a study among industrial engineers, Ford (as cited in Peek, 2013) identified organisational climate characteristics such as concern for the feelings of others as a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Similar results were found in a study conducted by Hopkins (as cited in Peek, 2013), where a high regard for the feelings of others increased satisfaction.

Employees feel comfortable with work environments that are not characteristics by ambiguities relating to their career progression and development. Such climates provide fertile grounds for job satisfaction and commitment in organisations. In the opinion of Schlesinger (as cited in Peek, 2013), a work environment that encourages continuous learning and provides new opportunities influences job satisfaction.

Similarly, Brief (2015) found that salary, benefits and advancement opportunities were components of organisational climate that had a direct influence on job satisfaction, while Freeman and Rodgers (as cited in Peek, 2013) found that people desire plenty of opportunities for advancement in addition to an environment that is not political and encourages open communication. Recent studies have also found similar results for the climate-satisfaction relationship, where various organisational climate characteristics can lead to the satisfaction of organisational members (Allwood, 2012; Peek, 2013). It can be deduced from the literature that, an effective organisation is one with highly satisfied workforce and satisfaction of employees largely influenced by the prevailing workplace climate.

According to Gray (2014), a supportive work environment is related to employees' performance. He argues that a positive environment will result in motivated employees who enjoy their work. It therefore comes as no surprise that work climate is an excellent predictor of organisational and employee performance. IBM recognises the importance of workplace climate and the role it plays in the success or failure of organisations. A recent study at IBM showed that 25% variance in business results was directly attributable to variance in climate (Nair, 2016).

Results from various surveys conducted at IBM reveal that there is a relationship between climate and the attraction and retention of employees, productivity and

effectiveness which, when translated into results, shows growth in sales and earnings, return on sales and lower employee turnover. IBM views climate as the key to business results, stating that motivated employees will be more productive, more passionate and more engaged, thus resulting in significant and cost-effective output.

In an extensive study of manufacturing companies conducted by Williams in the UK, the relationship between climate and performance was investigated. The results showed that the majority of the dimensions were positively and significantly related to each other as well as to organisational performance with positive correlations on nearly all climate and performance measures (Gray, 2014). In similar research, Watkin (as cited in Gray, 214) found in his study of bottling plants, that the manufacturing plants with the most favourable working environments were in fact, the most profitable. Patterson, Warr and West (as cited in Gray, 2014) found positive correlations of productivity with dimensions of organisational climate in their research on manufacturing companies.

According to Kersten and Walter (2013), climate assists managers to understand the relationship between the processes and practices of the organisation and the needs of employees. By understanding how different practices and initiatives stimulate employees, managers will be able to understand what motivates employees to behave in a manner that leads to a positive climate and results in the organisation's success. Noordin, Omar, Sehan and Idrus (2010) designed a study to investigate the influence of organisational climate on organisational commitment of employees at ABC Company.

The study involved 150 employees comprising executive and non-executive level employees who volunteered to participate in the study. A response rate of 72% was recorded as 108 questionnaires were duly completed and returned out of the 150

administered. The findings of the study indicate that employees perceived the organisational climate of their organisation to be at a moderate level. The mean values for the organisational climate ranged from the lowest of 3.38 to the highest of 3.77 of the 5-point likert scale. In terms of the commitment variables, continuance commitment appeared to be the lowest of the three components with a mean of 3.22.

The correlation results revealed a no significant relationship between continuance commitment, organisational design, teamwork and decision making. All the other variables showed significant positive correlations. Overall, the findings of the study showed that there is a need to improve the current situation at ABC Company with respect to all the components of the organisational climate and organisational climate.

The link between organisational climate and organisational variables was also studied by researchers. For instance, Liu and Zhang (2010) conducted a study involving 419 participants of different educational levels, job position and length of service to determine the effect of organisational climate on human resource management effectiveness such as turnover intention, job satisfaction and work efficacy.

Their findings showed that, educational level, job position, organisational tenure had significant main effects on organisational climate; specialty, enterprise character and enterprise size also had significant main effect on organisational climate. It was also revealed that, organisational climate had a significant main effect on human resource management effectiveness such as turnover intention, job satisfaction and work efficacy. In addition, organisational climate had significant main effect on organisational effectiveness like staff members' organisation commitment and collective identity.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

The chapter presents the methodology of the study. Themes discussed are: Research paradigm, research approach, research design, population, sample and sampling techniques. It also discusses the data collection instruments, validity and reliability of the questionnaire, dependability of the interview guide, data collection procedures, data analysis and ethical issues.

3.1 Research Paradigm

The study used pragmatism paradigm. Creswell and Creswell (2018) contended that, pragmatism is not committed to any one system of philosophy and reality, thus, makes it possible for researchers to draw from both quantitative and qualitative assumption. Additionally, Creswell and Creswell (2018) stated that pragmatists do not see the world as an absolute unity which is comparable to mixed method researchers looking to many approaches for collecting and analysing data rather than subscribing to only one way. Creswell and Creswell further explained that pragmatism brings to the forefront multiple methods, different worldviews, different assumptions as well as different forms of data collection and analysis. The combination of both quantitative (survey) and qualitative methods which lends itself to a mixed method approach was underpinned by the pragmatic philosophical assumption about social reality. The study was located in this philosophical stance as it applied different approaches in data gathering and analysis to achieve the set purpose and objectives of the study.

3.2 Research Approach

The study used mixed methods research approach. Creswell and Creswell (2018) argued that mixed methods research approach is where the researcher gathers quantitative and qualitative data in the same study. That is the researcher uses say questionnaires to gather quantitative data and interviews to gather qualitative data so as to answer the research questions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). This was because quantitative approach helped to quantify the problem by way of generating numerical data or data from the field and transform them into useable statistics. Qualitative approach helped to study attitudes, opinions, behaviours and other defined variables of the population of the study. Hence, qualitative research approach helped to generate a rich understanding of a phenomenon as it existed in a real world. This was because it involved the collection of data in the actual situation or area of study. Also, mixed methods approach involved blending together different data collection strategies as suggested by Bell (2010).

Furthermore, in using the quantitative research approach, the voice of the participants could not be directly heard. On the contrary, in using qualitative research approach, findings of the study cannot be generalised since the sample was not sufficient for generalisation. Likewise, in using quantitative research approach, participants did not have the opportunity to express their views which were apart from the one captured on the questionnaire. However, in using the qualitative research approach, participants were given the chance to freely express their views in relation to the subject under investigation which might not have being captured on the questionnaire.

Therefore, mixed methods approach was used so as to use the strengths of one approach to compensate the potential weaknesses of the other approach. In short, the strengths of one approach was used to overcome the weaknesses of the other approach. This is

confirmed by Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) who opined that multiple sources or methods of data gathering increased the credibility and dependability of the data since the strengths of one source compensate for the potential weaknesses of the other.

To add to the above, the study gathered data through triangulation of data collection methods. That was, the researcher used questionnaires and interview guide as data collection instruments. This affirms what Hawtin and Percy-Smith (2017) posited. According to Hawtin and Percy-Smith, using multiple methods to collect data is likely to increase the credibility of the findings.

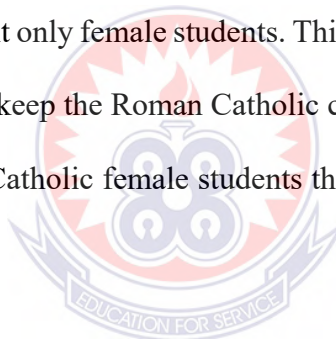
3.3 Research Design

The study employed sequential explanatory mixed methods design. According to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), the fundamental principle of mixed research design is that, researchers should collect multiple data using different strategies, approaches and methods in such a way that the resulting mixture or combination is likely to result in complementary strengths and non-overlapping weakness. They further argue that the effective use of this process is a major source of justification for mixed methods research because the product will be superior to mono-methods studies. Additionally, the sequential explanatory mixed research approach allows the researcher to explore the meaning of construct or phenomenon from more than one perspective (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). In the study, quantitative data were first collected and analysed followed by the collection and analysis of the qualitative data. The qualitative data were designed in such a way that it followed from the findings of the quantitative data gathered. Much more emphasis was placed on the quantitative data than the qualitative data. This was because there was the need for the qualitative data to be used to further explain significant and insignificant findings in the study.

3.4 Population of the Study

Identifying the population of a research is sine qua non since no research is carried out in a vacuum. It is imperative therefore to know the target population in order to decide on what sample size to use for the research. According Yin (2013), classified population into target and accessible. Therefore, the target population being all members of a specified group to which the investigation is related, while the accessible population is defined in terms of those elements in the group within the reach of the researcher.

The population of the study comprised all students and tutors at OLA College of Education in the Cape Coast Metropolis. Therefore, the population for the study was 1,021. It comprised 860 female students and 161 staff (38 males and 123 females). OLA College of education admit only female students. This was because it was meant to keep nuns and only females to keep the Roman Catholic church values. But as time went on they accepted other non-Catholic female students thereby making the College a single sex College.



3.5 Sample and Sampling Techniques

Sampling is the process of selecting a portion of the population to represent the entire population. It enables the researcher to study a relatively small number in place of the target group and to use the data obtained to represent the whole target group. For the quantitative phase of this study, a sample of 392 was selected, comprising 342 female students and 50 staff (13 males and 37 females). This sample was based on Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) sample size criteria that the recommended sample for a population of 1,021, at the confidence level of 95 percent, and a margin of error (degree of accuracy) of 0.05 percent was 392.

The study used purposive, simple random and convenience sampling techniques to select participants. Purposive sampling technique was used to select 50 staff at OLA College of Education for the administration of the questionnaires. This sampling technique helped in selecting information-rich participants for the study. Thus, the purposeful sampling method helped the researcher to narrow the population into the representative sample. This was because the purposive sampling technique was appropriate for the case study design (Poulis et al., 2013; Yin, 2014). The purposive sampling technique was appropriate to select participants who have adequate knowledge about the subject matter (Yirdaw, 2016).

Moreover, the selection criteria for purposively selecting the staff included experience, position and seniority in the study area. Staff with senior experience in the study area were appropriate to answer the research question and to represent the population. Lee (2014) noted that in a case study, the number of participants might determine the sufficiency of the sample that is adequate to satisfy the research question. In a case study, participants must have the experience and knowledge in the study topic to address the research question sufficiently (Eukeria & Favourate, 2014). The participants in the study must have relevant information on the study topic (Poortman & Schildkamp, 2012).

Also, simple random sampling was used to 342 students. Thus, words such as “Involve” and “Not Involved” were written on pieces of papers, folded and placed in a basket. Students were requested to select only one of the papers from the basket. Those who selected pieces of papers having the word “Involve” were made to respond to the questionnaires. This sample technique was deemed reasonable because it gave a fair chance to all the students from the study area. This sampling technique also helped in

reducing biasness in selecting students for the study since it gave almost a fair chance to all the students to be selected for the study.

Again, convenience sampling technique was used to select six students and five staff for the interviews. In distributing the questionnaires, consent of students and staff was sought and those who agreed were programmed for the interviews. Fusch and Ness (2015) indicated that how adequate sample size is important to determine the data saturation level in the study. For interviews, an average of 11-16 informants is often adequate to reach the saturation level (Marshall et al., 2013). Similarly, Creswell and Creswell (2018) opined that 5-25 individuals can be used for interviews. The sample of 11 (6 students and 5 staff) informants allowed the study to reach the data saturation level. Yin (2014) indicated that researchers must determine adequate sample to ensure the saturation of data in the study.

Adequacy of the sample for the interviews include a determination based on the quality of the data (Cleary et al., 2014; Lee, 2014). The study chose senior staff and level 200 and third year students in the study area to obtain relevant and quality data for the study. The quality of the data was relevant to reach the data saturation point (O'Reilly & Parker, 2013). The concept of saturation is essential to determine the sample (Dworkin, 2012; Fusch & Ness, 2015).

3.6 Data Collection Instruments

Structured questionnaire and semi-structured interviews were used for data collection for the study for the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study respectively.

3.6.1 Questionnaire

A structured questionnaire was used to collect data for the quantitative phase of the study. Questionnaire according to Creswell and Creswell (2018), is a methodical data gathering technique that is employed based on a sample. Bell (2010) also stated that questionnaire is one of the data collection instruments that has been extensively used to solicit professional opinions in research. Questionnaire comprised five sections: Section A, B, C, D, and E. Section A had 5 statements that focus on demographic information of participants such as gender, age, current classification, level and working experience.

Section B had 27 statements that solicited data on the prevailing types of organisational culture at OLA College of Education. Data from Section B were used to address research question 1. Moreover, Section C had 6 statements that focus on factors that influence organisational culture at OLA College of Education. Responses from Section C were used to address research question 2.

Again, Section D had 5 statements that focus on relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education. Data from Section D were used to address research question 3. More so, Section E had 5 statements that focus on whether there is a relationship between the means of dimensions of organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education. Data from Section E were used to test hypothesis one. Besides, data from Section D were used to test hypothesis two which sought to find out whether there is a statistically significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education.

Participants were requested to respond to statements under Sections B, C, D, and E using 5-points likert scale and will be weighed as: Strongly Disagree=1, Disagree=2, Uncertain=3, Agree=4 and Strongly Agree=5. However, negative statements were weighed as: Strongly Disagree=5, Disagree=4, Uncertain=3, Agree=2 and Strongly Agree=1.

3.6.2 Semi-structured interviews

This instrument was used to gather data for the second phase of the study. The interview, specifically semi-structured was used for students and staff. Interview guide allowed for interaction between the researcher and informants. The advantages were; while they were reasonably objective, they also permitted a more thorough understanding of the participants' opinions and reasons behind them. Interview guide had only one section which focused on questions that helped in addressing the research questions. Open and close-ended questions were used for the interviews. The use of the semi-structured interviews helped to expand, clarify, and explain initial quantitative findings of the study.

3.7 Validity and Reliability of the Questionnaire

3.7.1 Validity of the questionnaire

Validity of the questionnaire was established through face and content validity procedures. Face validity of the questionnaire was checked by giving the prepared instrument to the researcher's colleague students pursuing same programme to vet it. The content validity of the questionnaire was confirmed by the research supervisor who examined the research questions alongside with each item of the statements on the questionnaire in order to determine whether the questionnaire actually measured what they were supposed to have measured. Comments from the colleague students and the

research supervisor on the questionnaire were used to effect the necessary corrections before the questionnaire were administered on participants.

3.7.2 Reliability of the questionnaire

The reliability of the questionnaire was checked by piloting the questionnaire. Afterwards Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient was checked. Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient was selected because it is a much more reliable way of checking the internal consistency of the instrument (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). In pilot testing the questionnaire, 80 participants (60 students and 20 tutors) from Holy Child College of Education were used. Participants used for the pilot testing of the questionnaire were not be part of those used for the main study.

These participants were selected because they had similar characteristics as compared to those to be used for the main study. After the pilot testing the questionnaire, Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient value was calculated and a value of 0.89 was obtained. This therefore suggested that the questionnaire was reliable. This is because according to Creswell and Creswell (2018), if a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient value of 0.7 is obtained, then, the instrument is reliable.

3.8 Dependability of the Interview Guide

Interviews would be taken to credibility, dependability, transferability and confirmability as suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985).

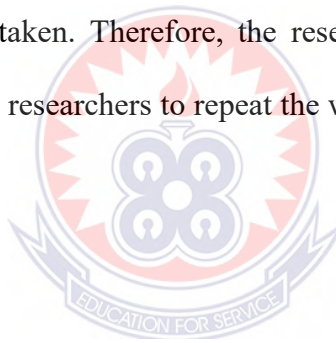
3.8.1 Credibility

One way to check the credibility of an interview is through member checks. In this study, the researcher sought permission from the participants to record the interviews. After each interview, recordings of the interviews were played to participants for their

confirmation. This helped participants to confirm the information they had shared. However, participants who did not allow the researcher to record the interviews, field notes which were taken and read to them. In this sense, these participants also confirmed the information they had shared.

3.8.2 Dependability

For the study to ensure the dependability, reports from the study was presented in detailed. The study provided a detailed description of the research design and its implementation, describing what was planned and executed on a strategic level; the operational detail of data gathering, addressing the minutiae of what was done in the field; and reflective appraisal of the thesis, as well as evaluating the effectiveness of the process of inquiry undertaken. Therefore, the researcher believed that the detailed report would enable other researchers to repeat the work, if not necessarily to gain the same results.



3.8.3 Transferability

In this study, since a sufficient thick description of the phenomenon under investigation was provided, the researcher believed that it would allow readers to have a proper understanding of research, thereby enabling them to compare the instances of the phenomenon described in the research report with those that they had been seen emerge in their situations.

3.8.4 Confirmability

The researcher took steps to help ensure as far as possible that the study's findings were the result of the experiences and ideas of respondents instead of the perceptions, ideas and beliefs of the researcher. To this end, beliefs underpinning decisions made and methods adopted were acknowledged within the research report. Also, the study gave

tangible reasons for favouring one approach when others could have been taken and weaknesses in the techniques actually employed were admitted. The study also provided in-depth methodological description to allow integrity of research results to be examined.

3.9 Data Collection Procedures

Permission from College authorities was sought using an introductory letter from the Head, Department of Educational Administration and Management, University of Education, Winneba. Two weeks from the day of presenting the permission letter was agreed upon by the researcher and College authorities for the administration of the instruments. After securing the permission, preparations were made to administer the instruments on the agreed date.

On the day of administration of the questionnaires, the researcher reported to the College around 8:30 am. The researcher was introduced to the students and staff by College authorities. Verbal consent was obtained from the participants. Participants were briefed on the purpose of the study and its educational implications. Explanation on how to respond to the questionnaires were given to participants. Three hundred and ninety-two questionnaires were distributed to students and staff respectively with the help of some tutors. Participants were given three days to respond to the questionnaires. This strategy gave them opportunity to take their time and respond to the statements on the questionnaire. Questionnaires were retrieved after the third day. Out of the 492 (342 for students and 150 for staff) questionnaires administered, all of them were retrieved. This implied that the return rate for the questionnaire was 100%.

Questionnaires were analysed and issues that came up were used to formulate questionnaires for the interviews. This implied that interviews did not follow

immediately after the administration of the questionnaire. The reason had been that in using sequential explanatory mixed methods, the researcher has to first analyse the quantitative data and issues that would come out would be used to formulate questions for the interviews (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

Sample for the interviews was based on data saturation. At a point in the interviews, it was realised that respondents were sharing almost the same information. The researcher then realised that there was no new information coming forth. For that reason, the number of interviews conducted so far was recorded as the sample for the interviews. Thus, six students and five staff become the sample for the interviews at which data saturation was obtained. This implied that the sample of 11 in-depth interviews allowed the study to reach the data saturation level.

This was in line with what O'Reilly and Parker (2014) opined. O'Reilly and Parker defined data saturation as an adequacy point in a data collection process that occurs when the researchers achieve in depth and a breadth of information for their study. Marshall, Cardon, Poddar and Fontenot (2013) used an average sample size of 1-17 interviews to reach the saturation level of the data. The researcher used follow-up questions to obtain in-depth information for the study and to reach the data saturation point for each question. Dworkin (2012) noted the importance of follow-up questions to expand the initial question and to reach the data saturation point for each interview question.

3.10 Data Analysis

Quantitative data was collected for the first phase of the study. There was the need for coding to ensure that the data were stored and to make them possible for analysis. Statistical Package for Service Solution (SPSS) software version 26.0 was used to code

the data. Data were entered into the SPSS software in a coded numeric form with each representing a particular variable such as gender, age and working experience. Further screening was carried out to ensure that errors that came as a result of human slips while entering the data were checked before the analysis. Descriptive (simple frequency counts, percentages, means and standard deviations) and inferential (Pearson product moment correlation) statistics were used to analyse the data. Specifically, descriptive statistics of simple frequency counts, and percentages were used to analyse the demographic information of participants. Means and standard deviations were used to analyse research question 1. Also, simple frequency counts and percentages were used to analyse research questions 2 and 3.

Moreover, one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test research hypothesis 1. The reason was that this question sought to find out whether there was a relationship between the dependent (organisational effectiveness) and independent (dimensions of organisational culture) variables. Likewise, Pearson product moment correlation was used to test research hypothesis 2. The reason was that that hypothesis sought to establish whether there was a statistically significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education. Results from the research questions and hypotheses were presented in Tables in Chapter Four.

Additionally, the role of the interview data in this study was to explain, clarify and expand the initial qualitative data. Relevant quotes were used to explain the qualitative data, where necessary. To attribute quotes to the interviewees, student interviewees were assigned ST: 1 to ST: 6 while the staff were assigned SF: 1 to SF: 5.

3.11 Ethical Issues

Ethical considerations for the study took the following procedures: access, informed consent, confidentiality, anonymity and plagiarism.

3.11.1 Access

An introductory letter from the Head, Department of Educational Administration and Management, University of Education, Winneba was obtained to enable approval from gate keepers and participants. Thus, a copy of the introductory letter was sent to the gate keepers to seek approval for data collection. After permission was granted by the gate keepers, dates, time and venue were fixed for data collection.

3.11.2 Informed consent

Participants need to be furnished with accurate and complete information on the goal(s) and procedures of the investigation so that they fully understand and in turn decide whether to participate or not (Bryman, 2012). This makes informed consent a necessary prerequisite to any research in which human beings are involved as participants. In this study, the researcher clearly spelt out the purpose, the intend use of the data and its significance to the participants. Each of the participants willingly decided to take part in the study.

3.11.4 Confidentiality

According to Bryman (2012), confidentiality “indicates the handling of information in a confidential manner” (p. 67). In keeping with jealousy guarded all the pieces information from the participant so that only the researcher had access to them. Before the commencement of data collection, participants were assured that data would be kept confidentially. In doing so, codes were assigned to the various questionnaires and were kept from the reach of other individuals.

3.11.5 Anonymity

Research participants' well-being and interests were protected. Participants' identified in the study were masked or blinded as far as possible (Speziale & Carpenter, 2011). The people who read the research and the researcher should not be able to "identify a given response with a given respondent" (Bryman, 2012, p. 65). Participants were encouraged not to write any identifiable information (participants' name, email address, house number and contacts) on the questionnaire. Besides, codes were assigned to the interview data during the data analysis. For example, students (ST) were coded: ST: 1 to ST: 6 and staff (SF) were coded: SF: 1 to SF: 5.

3.11.6 Plagiarism

Plagiarism refers to presenting someone else's work or ideas as one's own, with or without his/her consent, by incorporating it into one's work without full acknowledgement. All published and unpublished materials, whether in manuscript, printed or electronic form, is covered under this definition (Rubin & Rubin, 2003). Again, plagiarism is the unethical practice of using words or ideas (either planned or accidental) of another author/researcher or one's own previous work without proper plagiarism (Madugah & Kwakye-Nuako, 2016). The study acknowledged all in-text and end-of-text. Furthermore, it was sources ensured that no information was cited in the work without acknowledging its source.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

4.0 Introduction

The chapter focused results and discussion of results. It first presents the results on demographic information results of participants. This is followed by the analysis of the research questions. Again, testing of hypotheses is presented and finally, the chapter presents discussions of findings and chapter summary.

4.1 Results on Demographic Information of Participants

Demographic information of participants was gathered using statements 1-4 and 1-5 under section A of the questionnaires for students and staff respectively. They included: gender, age, classification, working experience and level/year. Simple frequency counts and percentages were used to analyse the data. Tables 4.1 and 4.2 show the results for students and staff respectively.

Table 4.1: Demographic Information of Students

	Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Female	342	100
Age (in years)	15-19	12	4
	20-24	50	15
	25-30	130	38
	31-35	80	23
	36-40	70	20
	41-45	0	0
	46 and above	0	0
Level	100	110	32
	200	142	42
	Year 3	90	26

Source: Field data, (2020)

(Total Number of Students=342)

From Table 4.1, the results revealed that all (342 representing 100%) the students are females. This connotes that there was no male student in Ola College of Education. The reason why all the students in Ola College of Education are females since that Ola College was meant to keep nuns and only females to keep their church values as catholic. But as time goes on they accepted other non-Catholic females thereby making the College a single sex College.

From Table 4.1, the results further explain that 130 represents 38% of the students were within the ages of 25-30. Also, 80 representing 23% of the students fall within 31-35 years of age. Another one was 70 of them representing 20% was between the ages of 36-40. From Table 4.1, the results show that 142 representing 42% of the students were in level 200. Furthermore, 110 representing 32% of them were in level 100 and lastly 90 representing 26% were in year 3. Table 4.2 presents the results on demographic information of staff.

Table 4.2: Demographic Information of Staff

	Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	13	26
	Female	37	74
Age (in years)	15-19	0	0
	20-24	0	0
	25-30	0	0
	31-35	4	8
	36-40	18	36
	41-45	8	16
	46 and above	20	40
Working Experience	1-10 years	3	6
	11-20 years	16	32
	21-30 years	25	50
	31 years and above	6	12

Source: Field data, (2020)

(Total Number of Staff=50)

Results from Table 4.2 shows that, most of the staff were females (27, representing 74%) and the rest (13, representing 26%) were males. These results suggest that there was biasness on the path of the researcher in selecting more female than male staff. However, the results further show that opportunity was given to male and female in this study.

Results from Table 4.2 further suggest that, majority 20 (representing 40%) of the staff were between the ages of 46 years and above. Furthermore, 18 (representing 36%) of the staff used in this study fell between the ages of 36-40 years. For the ages 41-50 years, there were 8 (representing 16%) of them. Also, for ages 31-35 years, there were 4 (representing 8%) of the staff under this range.

Again, results from Table 4.2 indicate that, majority 25 (representing 58%) of the staff had 21-30 years of working experience. Also, 16 (representing 32%) had 11-20 years of working experience. Besides, 6 (representing 12%) of them had 31 years and above working experience. Also, 3 (representing 6%) had 1-10 years of working experience. The results indicate that staff have advanced years in their profession and this is likely to influence their working experience positively.

4.2 Results of the Research Questions and Discussions

4.2.1 Research Question 1: What are the prevailing types of organisational culture at OLA College of Education?

The objective of this question was to investigate the prevailing types of organisational culture at OLA College of Education. Responses from students and staff to statements 1-27 under section B of the questionnaire were used to answer this research question. Means and standard deviations were used to analysed the quantitative data. Tables 4.3 and 4.4 present the quantitative results for students and staff respectively.

Table 4.3: Results by Students on type of Organisational Culture

S/No.	Type of organisational culture	Mean	Standard Deviation
1	Bureaucratic	6.67	2.52
2	Clan	6.43	2.61
3	Entrepreneurial	4.82	2.33
4	Market	5.73	2.53
	Total	23.65	9.99

Source: Field data, (2020)

(Total Number of Students=342)

The results from Table 4.3 reveal that the type of organisational culture practiced most at OLA College of Education was Bureaucratic (M=6.67, SD=2.52). The results further show that Clan culture (M=6.43, SD=2.61) was next to Bureaucratic. Again, the results indicate that Market culture (M=5.73, SD=2.53) was seen at OLA College of Education. Lastly, the results show that Entrepreneurial (M=4.82, SD=2.33) was the least type of organisational culture seen at OLA College of Education. In general, the results from Table 4.4 shows the grand mean=23.65 and standard deviation of 9.99. Table 4.5 presents the results by staff on the prevailing type of organisational culture at OLA College of Education.

Table 4.4: Results by Staff on Prevailing Types of Organisational Culture

S/No.	Prevailing types of organisational culture	Mean	Standard deviation
1	Bureaucratic	2.43	.45
2	Clan	2.28	.39
3	Entrepreneurial	1.75	.30
4	Market	2.50	.41
	Total	8.96	1.54

Source: Field data, (2020)

(Total Number of Staff=50)

The results from Table 4.5 shows that the type of organisational culture experienced greatest at OLA College of Education was Bureaucratic (M=2.43, SD=.45). The results continued to display that Clan culture (M=2.28, SD=.39) was followed the Bureaucratic. Once more, the results point out that Market culture (M=2.50, SD=.41) was displayed at OLA College of Education. Last but not least, the results confirmed that Entrepreneurial (M=1.75, SD=.30) was the lowest type of organisational culture practiced at OLA College of Education. In general, the results from Table 4.5 illustrate the grand mean=8.96 and standard deviation of 1.55. It could be realised from the results as indicated in Table 4.3 and 4.4 that Bureaucratic was the prevailing type of organisational culture that existed in OLA College of Education.

Also, questions 1-2 under section A of the interviews for both students and staff were used to address research question one. Results from the interviews indicated that different types of organisational culture prevailed at OLA College of Education. However, Bureaucratic culture was seen to have prevailed the more as compared to the clan, entrepreneurial, market and hierarchy culture. This was evident from the interview data when one of the informant said:

“One thing I have observed about this institution is that the follow channel of communication. What this means is that if I need some information and I go straight to the administration for it, the one I will contact will direct me to first go and discuss it with my course representative. From these, the tutor in-charge of my class will be informed. This will continue till it gets to the administration” [ST: 6].

The comments from student interviewee 6 suggests that the order in which information spread is followed at the College. Thus, it starts from the least person to the highest person. Another student shared a similar view by saying:

“Activities that go on in this College is done in s systematic order. What I mean is that you cannot spike one and go to the next. If you

do so, you will be referred to come back and do the right thing” [ST: 4].

Comments from student interviewee 4 infer that protocols are observed at OLA College of Education. The comments further imply that things are done methodically. The comments from student interviewee 4 was not far from what staff 1 said:

“I have been in this school for quite a long time. One thing I have noticed here is that the institution as a whole value standard. What I want to say is that if am at the top, I can’t use my power to do anything unless I consult the one at the bottom” [SF: 4].

The comments from staff interviewee 4 denote that there are laid down procedures one has to follow in order to achieve an expected goal. The comments further infer that if these procedures are not well followed, it would be difficult for one to accomplish his or her goals. Furthermore, staff 3 was of a different view when she said:

“In this institution, tasks are given out to staff after they have been officially informed. Thus, before one is asked to perform any duty, he/she will receive a notice. However, in very few instances, some members of staff will be asked to perform a role without a prior notice” [SF: 3].

It could be inferred from the comments from staff member 3 that tasks and responsibilities for staff at OLA College of Education are clearly defined for them. The comments further signify that on few occasions, members of staff are not given prior notice before embarking on tasks and responsibilities.

Student interviewee 2 shared the experience by saying:

“I remember during the orientation service for first year students, the rule and regulation of this institution was well explained to us and copies were also give to us. This suggests that things in this institution are done in an orderly manner” [ST: 2].

The comments from student interviewee 2 infer that students were made aware of the rules and regulations of the College as soon as they were admitted. The comments again

signify that for students not to forget these rules and regulations so easily, they were given copies of the rules and regulations. Staff interviewee 1 also said:

“I have not been here for long. In fact, this is my second year. There is one unique thing I have realised in this institution and that is work is assigned to individual lecturers/tutors based on their abilities”
[SF: 1].

Comments from this informant infer that there is division of labour at the OLA College of Education. This same comment signifies that management of OLA College of Education is aware of the abilities of its staff and for that reason assign them responsibilities. Another student had this to share:

“Students are sometimes given the opportunity to comments on what lecturers and management do. For example, we have open forum where students are given the chance to comment or criticise what lecturers and management are doing that we think should stop. Such forums help management and lecturers to always be on their toes”
[ST: 2].

Staff interviewee 2 also said:

“Management and staff here have listening ear. What I mean is that whenever one tables them with a petition, they have time to sit on it and come out with the needed support if only that petition will help the institution” [SF: 2].

The comments connote that staff and management do not pay deaf ears to suggestions given to them. However, the comments further signify that they go all out to find out how possible those suggestions can be effectively implemented, if only it would bring progress to the institution. Based on these results from the interviews, it could be deduced that bureaucratic was the prevailing organisational culture at OLA College of Education. Therefore, based on the quantitative and qualitative results it was concluded that bureaucratic, clan, entrepreneurial, market and hierarchy were the prevailing types of organisational culture at OLA College of Education. However, bureaucratic was seen to have prevailed the more at OLA College of Education.

4.2.2 Research Question 2: What are the factors that influence organisational culture at OLA College of Education?

The objective of this question was to investigate factors that influence organisational culture at OLA College of Education. Responses from students and staff to statements 1-6 under section C of the questionnaire were used to answer this research question. Simple frequency counts and percentages were used to analyse the quantitative data. Tables 4.5 and 4.6 present the quantitative results for students and staff respectively.

Table 4.5: Responses by Students on Factors Influencing Organisational Culture

Factors influencing organisational culture	Strongly Agree		Agree		Uncertain		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	F	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
The location of this institution is an influencing factor	120	35	13	4	6	2	13	4	23	7
Leadership influences this College	170	48	143	42	9	3	16	5	4	1
Management practices and the formal socialisation process influence this institution	186	54	116	34	4	1	13	4	23	7
How individuals behave in this institution is a key issue to management	152	45	128	37	19	6	11	3	32	9
Rewards and control systems reinforce behaviour is paramount in this College	166	49	143	42	4	1	16	5	13	4
Students and staff are accepted by the institution	215	63	98	29	8	2	7	2	4	1

Source: Field data, (2020)

(Total Number of Students=342)

Results from Table 4.5 indicate that 215(63%) of the students strongly agreed that students and staff are accepted by the institution. Also, 98(29%) of them also agreed to this statement. Besides, only 8(2%) were not sure to this claim. But 7(2%) disagreed and the rest 4(1%) strongly disagreed to this same statement.

The results from Table 4.5 further show that 186(54%) of them strongly agreed that management practices and the formal socialisation process influence this institution. This statement was confirmed by 116(34%) of the students when they agreed to it. However, 4(1%) were uncertain to this statement. Also, 13(4%) disagreed and 23(7%) strongly disagreed to this same statement.

Moreover, the results from Table 4.5 show that 170(48%) of them strongly agreed that leadership influences this College. Also 143(42%) of them agreed to this claim. Again, 9(3%) were uncertain to this statement. Besides, 16(5%) of them disagreed and only 4(1%) strongly disagreed to this statement.

More so, the results from Table 4.5 demonstrate that 166(49%) strongly agreed that rewards and control systems reinforce behaviour is paramount in this College. This was endorsed by 143(42%) of them also supported when they agreed to it. However, 4(1%) were uncertain, 16(5%) disagreed and 13(4%) strongly agreed to this same proclamation. In addition, the results from Table 4.5 display that 152(45%) of the students strongly agreed that how individuals behave in this institution is a key issue to management. This statement was embraced by 128(37%) students who supported this statement by agreeing to it. Meanwhile, 7(2%) were uncertain, 11(3%) of them disagreed and the rest 32(9%) strongly disagreed to this same declaration.

Also, the results from Table 4.5 show that 120(35%) of the students strongly agreed that the location of this institution is an influencing factor. This statement was embraced by 13(4%) students who supported this statement by agreeing to it. Meanwhile, 6(2%) were uncertain, 13(4%) of them disagreed and the rest 23(7%) strongly disagreed to this same assertion. The results from Table 4.5 indicate that some factors influence organisational culture at OLA College of Education. They included: The environment, leadership, management practices, formal socialisation process and informal socialisation process. Table 4.6 presents the results from staff on the factors influencing the organisational culture at OLA College of Education.

Table 4.6: Results by Staff on Factors Influencing Organisational Culture

Factors influencing organisational culture	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
The location of this institution is an influencing factor	8(5)*	12(8)	15(10)	40(27)	75(50)
Leadership influences this College	15(10)	11(8)	9(6)	35(23)	80(53)
Management practices and the formal socialisation process influence this institution	8(5)	21(14)	4(3)	40(27)	77(51)
How individuals behave in this institution is a key issue to management	18(12)	5(3)	10(7)	22(15)	95(63)
Rewards and control systems reinforce behaviour is paramount in this College	12(8)	9(6)	17(11)	30(20)	82(55)
Students and staff are accepted by the institution	10(7)	5(3)	9(6)	41(27)	85(57)

Source: Field data, (2020) *Percentages are in parenthesis Total Number of Staff=150

Results from Table 4.6 indicate that almost one third 95(representing 63%) of the staff strongly agreed to the statement “how individuals behave in this institution is a key issue to management”. This was confirmed by 23(representing 15%) of the staff when they agreed to this statement. Only 10(representing 7%) were not sure. But very few 5(representing 3%) of them disagreed to this claim and the rest 18(representing 12%) of the staff strongly disagreed to this statement.

Also, the results show that 85(representing 57%) of the staff strongly agreed that students and staff are accepted by the institution. This statement was supported by 41(representing 27%) of the staff when they agreed to it. However, 9(representing 6%) were not sure, 5(representing 3%) disagreed and the rest 10(representing 7%) strongly disagreed to this claim.

Moreover, 82(representing 55%) of them strongly agreed that rewards and control systems reinforce behaviour is paramount in this College. This item was endorsed by 30(representing 20%) of the staff when they agreed to this fact. But, 17(representing 11%) of the staff were uncertain. Only 9(representing 6%) disagreed to this statement and 12(representing 8%) strongly disagreed to this claim.

Moreover, 80(representing 53%) of them strongly agreed that leadership influences this College. This statement was confirmed by 35(representing 23%) staff who agreed to this assertion. Only 9(representing 6%) were uncertain. However, 11(representing 8%) disagreed to this statement while the rest 15(representing 10%) strongly disagreed to this statement.

Again, the results indicate that 75(representing 50%) of the staff strongly agreed that there was proper place for keeping of books of accounts. Again, 40(representing 27%)

of them supported this idea when they agreed to it. But, 15 (representing 10%) were not sure, Besides, 12 (representing 8%) disagreed and 8 (representing 5%) strongly disagreed to this claim.

Additionally, question 5 under section A of the interviews for both students and staff were used to address research question one. Results from the interviews indicated that history, primary function and technology, strategy, size and location were the perceived factors influencing the organisational culture prevailing at OLA College of Education.

This was clear from the interview data when one of the informant said:

“I think the history of this institution plays a role in terms of factors influencing the organisational culture of this College. Thus, the reason and manner in which this institution was initially established, its age and the beliefs and values of its proprietors and senior managers affect the culture” [SF: 5].

Comments from staff interviewee 3 suggest that the past records of an institution can affect the organisation culture of an institution. The comments further reveal that when the institution was built can further affect the organisational culture of the institution (OLA College of Education). Another staff emphatically said:

“I personally believe that primary function and technology also influence the organisational culture of this College. Thus, the nature of this College’s “business” and its primary function have an important influence on its culture. This includes the range and quality of products and services provided, the importance of reputation and the type of customers. The primary function of the institution will determine the nature of the technological processes and methods of undertaking work, which in turn also affect structure and culture” [SF: 1].

Comments from staff interviewee 1 signify that the kind of technology OLA College of Education has influenced the organisational culture of this institution. Besides, one student said:

“Among other factors, strategy also influences the College. This institution gives consideration to goals in all its key areas of procedures. The combination of objectives and resultant strategies

influence and may itself be influenced by the culture of this institution” [ST: 6].

The comments from student interviewee 6 infer that the kind of strategy OLA College of Education has helped in influencing the organisational culture of the instituting.

Furthermore, staff 1 shared the view by saying:

“Generally bigger organisations such as OLA College of Education have more official arrangements and organisational culture. Increased size is likely to result to separate departments and possibly split-site operations. A rapid expansion, or decline, in size and rate of growth, and resultant changes in staffing will influence structure and culture” [SF: 1].

Comments from staff interviewee 1 indicate that working environment at OLA College of Education is large. The comments further denote that there are many departments within this institution. For this reason, it can influence the organisational culture of the institution. Student interviewee 4 also said:

“I am of the view that the geographical location and physical characteristics of this College has a major influence on culture. For example, whether the institution is located in a quiet rural location or a busy city centre can influence the types of customers (students) and the staff employed. Location can also affect the nature of services (courses) offered by an institution” [ST: 4].

The comments by student interviewee 4 imply that where OLA College of Education is situated affect its organisational culture. Based on the quantitative and qualitative results it was concluded that there were some factors that influenced the organisational culture at OLA College of Education. They included: The environment, leadership, management practices, formal socialisation process, informal socialisation process, history, primary function and technology, strategy and size.

4.2.3 Research Question 3: Is there a relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education?

The objective of this question was to examine whether there is a relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education. Responses from students and staff to statements 1-6 under section D of the questionnaire were used to answer this research question. Pearson product moment correlation was used to analyse the quantitative data. Tables 4.7 and 4.8 present the quantitative results for students and staff respectively.

Table 4.7: Pearson's Correlation Between Organisational Culture and Organisational Effectiveness

Variables	M	SD	Df	R	Sig.
Organisational Culture	32.67	8.61			
Organisational Effectiveness	53.08	10.98			
			340	.811	.002

Source: Field data, (2020) (Total Number of Students=342) *significant at .05
Key: $r = .10$ to $.29$ or $r = -.10$ to $-.29$ Small; $r = .30$ to $.49$ or $r = -.30$ to $-.49$ Medium; $r = .50$ to 1.0 or $r = -.50$ to -1.0 Large (Cohen, 2011)

Results in Table 4.7 indicate that means, standard deviations, of organisational culture and organisational effectiveness are (M=32.67, SD=8.61) and (M=53.08, SD=10.98) respectively. Results in Table 4.7 further point out that there is statistical significant correlation between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness ($r = .811$, $p < .002$). The Pearson product moment correlation coefficient ($r = .581$) shows a large correlation between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness. Also, the correlation coefficient was positive which implies that the higher the level of organisational culture, the higher the likelihood that it would influence the organisational effectiveness positively.

The results therefore imply that organisational effectiveness is dependent on the organisational culture. The results could further infer that organisational culture positively influenced the organisational effectiveness. The results could also suggest that organisational culture contributed significantly to organisational effectiveness. The results advocate that the higher the organisational culture, the more likelihood that there would be a higher organisational effectiveness.

On the contrary, the lower the organisational culture, the lesser the likelihood that there would be lower the organisational effectiveness. These results from Table 4.7 indicate that there was a large positive correlation between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness and this was statistically significant. Table 4.8 presents the results by staff on the relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education.

Table 4.8: Pearson's Correlation Between Organisational Culture and Organisational Effectiveness

Variables	M	SD	Df	R	Sig.
Organisational Culture	9.27	3.56			
Organisational Effectiveness	5.08	2.98			
			48	.531	.000

Source: Field data, (2020) (Total Number of Staff=50) *significant at .05
Key: $r=.10$ to $.29$ or $r=-.10$ to $-.29$ Small; $r=.30$ to $.49$ or $r=-.30$ to $-.49$ Medium; $r=.50$ to 1.0 or $r=-.50$ to -1.0 Large (Cohen, 2011).

Results in Table 4.8 show that means, standard deviations, of organisational culture and organisational effectiveness are (M=9.27, SD=3.56) and (M=5.08, SD=2.98) respectively. Results further indicate that there is statistical significant correlation between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness ($r = .531$, $p < .000$). The Pearson product moment correlation coefficient ($r = .531$) shows a large correlation

between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness (Cohen, 2011). Furthermore, the correlation coefficient is positive which implies that the more the organisational culture is well-established, the higher the likelihood the organisational effectiveness improving.

The results therefore hint at organisational effectiveness is reliant on the organisational culture. The results could further infer that the higher the organisational culture, the more likely it would influence organisational effectiveness. The results could also recommend that organisational culture contributed significantly to organisational effectiveness. On the contrary, the results indicate that the lower the organisational culture, the more likely there would be low organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education.

From these results it was concluded that there was a large positive correlation between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness and this was statistically significant. As a result of the results from Tables 4.7 and 4.8, it was discovered that there was a statistically significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education.

In addition, question 6 under section A of the interviews for both students and staff were used to address research question one. Results from the interviews indicated that there was a relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education. This was deduced from the interview data when one of the informant said:

“I believe that there is a relationship between organisational culture and effectiveness. This is because it is the culture that will help determine the effectiveness of an organisation” [ST: 2].

As a result of these comments, this respondent thinks that there is a link between the organisational culture and organisational effectiveness. The informant is also of the view that organisational effectiveness is grounded on the organisational culture at the study area. Another informant supported this idea when he said:

“It is obvious that the effectiveness of an organisation will be determined by its organisational culture. This therefore suggest that when the organisational culture is favourable, it will contribute positively to the effectiveness of the organisation. On the other side to of the coin, when the culture of an organisation is not favourable, it will adversely affect the effectiveness of that organisation” [ST: 6].

Based on these comments it could suggest that the informant is of the idea favourable organisational culture can support in the establishment of the organisational effectiveness. More so, student 4 said:

“Leadership is one of the factors that can influence the organisational culture of an institution. This implies that if there is poor leadership at OLA College of Education, it will impact negatively on the organisational effectiveness” [ST: 4].

The comments from student interviewee 4 reveal that one of the issues that can influence organisational culture is leadership. Therefore, this informant is of the view that if the leadership is good, it could impact on the organisational culture which would in turn affect the organisational effectiveness. Again, student 1 said:

“I am of the view that there is a relationship between organisational culture and effectively. The reason is that if the culture is not good, there is no way there will be effectiveness in that organisation” [ST: 1].

Comments from student interviewee 1 connote that this informant support the fact that there is an association between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness. Upon the quantitative and qualitative results, it was concluded that there was a statistically significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education.

4.2.4 Testing of Hypotheses

H₁: There is a statistically significant relationship between the means of dimensions of organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at the OLA College of Education.

Mean and standard deviation test was conducted to find out whether there are differences in the dimensions of organisational culture. Table 4.9 presents the results according to the students.

Table 4.9: Mean and Standard Deviation Results on Dimensions of Organisational Culture and Organisational Effectiveness

Dimensions of organisational culture	Mean	Standard deviation
External Adaptation	7.67	2.62
Internal Integration	6.44	2.51
Macro-culture Assumptions concerning	5.68	2.43
Total	19.79	7.56

Source: Field data, (2020)

(Total Number of Students=342)

The results from Table 4.9 reveal that the external adaptation had the highest score (M=7.67, SD=2.62). This was followed by internal integration (M=6.44, SD=2.11) and macro-culture assumptions concerning (M=5.68, SD=2.43). In general, the results from Table 4.9 show the grand mean=19.79 and standard deviation of 7.56. Table 4.10 presents the ANOVA results on dimensions of organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education.

Table 4.10: ANOVA Test Result on Dimensions of Organisational Culture and Organisational Effectiveness

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	f	Sig.
External Adaptation	Between Groups	2.136	2	.751	1.806	.121
	Within Groups	58.912	339	.542		
	Total	61.048	341			
Internal Integration	Between Groups	2.431	2	.644	1.087	.321
	Within Groups	60.861	339	.561		
	Total	63.292	341			
Macro-culture Assumptions Concerning	Between Groups	2.533	2	.693	1.783	.212
	Within Groups	59.876	339	.519		
	Total	62.409	341			

Source: Field data, (2020) (Total Number of Students=342) * Significant at .05

The result from Table 4.10 shows that there was no statistically significant difference between the means for External Adaptation [$F(2, 339) = 1.806, p = .121$], Internal Integration [$F(2, 339) = 1.087, p = .321$] and Macro-culture Assumptions Concerning [$F(2, 339) = 1.783, p = .212$] at .05 alpha level. The results therefore suggest that dimensions of organisational culture do not influence organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education. Table 4.11 shows the mean and standard deviation results by staff on dimensions of organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education.

Table 4.11: Mean and Standard Deviation Results on Dimensions of Organisational Culture and Organisational Effectiveness

Dimensions of organisational culture	Mean	Standard deviation
External Adaptation	3.17	.62
Internal Integration	3.48	.51
Macro-culture Assumptions concerning	2.68	.43
Total	9.33	1.56

Source: Field data, (2020) (Total Number of Staff=50)

The results from Table 4.11 reveal that the external adaptation had the highest score (M=3.17, SD=.62). This was followed by internal integration (M=3.48, SD=.51) and macro-culture assumptions concerning (M=2.68, SD=.43). In general, the results from Table 4.11 show the grand mean=9.33 and standard deviation of 1.56. Table 4.12 presents the ANOVA results on dimensions of organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education.

Table 4.12: ANOVA Test Result on Dimensions of Organisational Culture and Organisational Effectiveness

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	f	Sig.
External Adaptation	Between Groups	.103	2	.151	.106	.036
	Within Groups	2.012	47	.242		
	Total	2.115	49			
Internal Integration	Between Groups	.465	2	.124	.108	.041
	Within Groups	2.081	47	.261		
	Total	2.546	49			
Macro-culture Assumptions Concerning	Between Groups	.134	2	.103	.168	.021
	Within Groups	2.716	47	.294		
	Total	2.850	49			

Source: Field data, (2020) (Total Number of Staff=50) * Significant at .05

The result from Table 4.12 shows that there was a statistically significant difference between the means for External Adaptation [F (2, 47) =.106, p= .036], Internal Integration [F (2, 47) =.108, p= .041] and Macro-culture Assumptions Concerning [F (2, 47) =.168, p= .012] at .05 alpha level. The results therefore suggest that dimensions of organisational culture did influence organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education. This result differs from that of the students. The reason could that perhaps

these students did not really understand the dimensions of organisational culture. Conclusively, the hypothesis which states that “there is a statistically significant relationship between the means of dimensions of organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at the OLA College of Education” was accepted. While the null hypothesis which state that “there is no statistically significant relationship between the means of dimensions of organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at the OLA College of Education” was rejected.

H₂: Is there statistically significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education.

This hypothesis sought to examine whether there is a statistically significant relationship between the organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education. Statements 1-5 under section D were used to gather data so as to test this hypothesis. Pearson product moment correlation was used to analyse data. Tables 4.13 and 4.14 presents the results for students and staff respectively.

Table 4.13: Pearson’s Correlation Between Organisational Culture and Organisational Effectiveness

Variables	M	SD	Df	R	Sig.
Organisational Effectiveness	32.67	8.61			
Organisational Culture	49.27	9.56			
			340	.543	.001

Source: Field data, (2020) (Total Number of Students=342) *significant at .05
Key: $r = .10$ to $.29$ or $r = -.10$ to $-.29$ Small; $r = .30$ to $.49$ or $r = -.30$ to $-.49$ Medium; $r = .50$ to 1.0 or $r = -.50$ to -1.0 Large (Cohen, 2011)

Results in Table 4.13 indicate that means, standard deviations, of organisational effectiveness and organisational culture are (M=32.67, SD=8.61) and (M=49.27, SD=9.56) respectively. Results further point out that there is statistical significant correlation between organisational effectiveness and organisational culture ($r = .543$, p

< .001). The Pearson product moment correlation coefficient ($r = .543$) shows a large correlation between organisational effectiveness and organisational culture.

Moreover, the correlation coefficient was positive which implies that the higher the level of organisational culture, the higher the chances of the organisation been effective. Based on this result, this hypothesis which posits that “there is a statistically significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness” was accepted. This connotes that the null hypothesis which states that “there is no statistically significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness” was rejected.

Table 4.14: Pearson’s Correlation Between Organisational Culture and Organisational Effectiveness

Variables	M	SD	Df	R	Sig.
Organisational Effectiveness	9.30	3.45			
Organisational Culture	5.12	2.76			
			48	.434	.000

Source: Field data, (2020) (Total Number of Staff=50) *significant at .05
Key: $r = .10$ to $.29$ or $r = -.10$ to $-.29$ Small; $r = .30$ to $.49$ or $r = -.30$ to $-.49$ Medium; $r = .50$ to 1.0 or $r = -.50$ to -1.0 Large (Cohen, 2011).

Results in Table 4.10 indicate that means, standard deviations, of organisational effectiveness and organisational culture are ($M=9.30$, $SD=3.45$) and ($M=5.12$, $SD=2.76$) respectively. Results further point out that there is statistical significant correlation between organisational effectiveness and organisational culture ($r = .434$, $< .000$). The Pearson product moment correlation coefficient ($r = .434$) shows a small correlation between organisational effectiveness and organisational culture.

Additionally, the correlation coefficient was positive which implies that the higher the level of organisational culture, the higher the chances of the organisation been effective. As a result, this hypothesis which posits that “there is a statistically significant

relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness” was accepted. This implies that the null hypothesis which suggested that “there is no statistically significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness” was rejected.

4.3 Discussions of Findings

For research question one, the results indicated that bureaucratic, clan, entrepreneurial, market and hierarchy were the prevailing types of organisational culture at OLA College of Education. However, bureaucratic was seen to have prevailed the more at OLA College of Education.

The findings support that of other studies. For example, Aydın (2010) found that bureaucracy is an effective form of management in the organisation’s acquiring rationality, eliminating turmoil and avoiding ambiguity. Also, Bayhan (2011) found that in general, bureaucracy is the process of organising scattered transactions and actions according to rational and objective rules. While bureaucracy shows its existence in many organisations. Also, Bursalıoğlu (2012) characterises school as a bureaucratic institution considering bureaucracy as one of its unique features.

Moreover, Hoy and Miskel (2010) found that the features of the bureaucracy structure in schools can be described as follows: i) to establish division of labour according to competence in the sharing of official duties (supports specialisation); ii) teachers are responsible towards school administrators or group leaders; iii) laws and regulations are binding; iv) school staff demonstrate their impartiality and coherence, v) the person to work in a specific position at school demonstrates their occupational competence and professional qualification (based on expertise).

Yücel (2016) further discovered that bureaucracy is a sociological phenomenon developed to achieve desired results, and a project that organises human activities throughout the history of civilisations. Schools, where we spend most of our life, are also one of the forms of bureaucracy. Bursalioğlu (2012) also found that those who oppose the bureaucratic nature of school do so because bureaucracy constitutes an obstacle before their using it for their own benefit. Bureaucracy functions to protect its own structure. However, it may reveal some problems.

Güven (2010) moreover found that the biggest problem for managers is considered to be the supply of sources and managers' obligation to account for to their superiors. In the context of communication, it is the realisation of inter-individual relations within the limits of hierarchy, status and authority. Guven (2012) again found that it is understood that bureaucracy may have negative effects in relation with change in that the decisions taken in line with the rules, regulations and generalities blunt the creativity, hierarchy constitutes.

The study found that there were some factors that influenced the organisational culture at OLA College of Education. They included: the environment, leadership, management practices, formal socialisation process, informal socialisation process, history, primary function and technology, strategy and size.

The findings concur that of Normann (2011) who found that in general business environment in which an organisation operates helps to determine the culture. Society at large will influence opinions about work, money, status and different types of jobs. The writings of sociology and anthropology highlight the differences in cultural attitudes between geographical regions as well as differences between different levels of social strata. These differences will affect commitment, respect for managers,

attitudes towards service and the customer. The traditions of a particular industry will also have an impact; airlines have “a combination of military-establishment and pioneering enthusiast spirit” (p. 164).

Additionally, leadership is thought by Kotter and Heskett (2012) as having some influence on the culture of an organisation. However, there is no empirical evidence to suggest that it has the totally overpowering and guiding hand suggested by these authors. Where there is evidence of a link between leadership and culture, it is in young newly created organisations. In new organisations, Schein (2011) found that the entrepreneur or founder influences the culture through his own ambitions, the interactive processes between entrepreneurs and their followers and the more general processes through which purpose and commitment are generated and sustained.

Moreover, Chatman and Cha (2014) found that the nature of the organisation’s “business” and its primary function have an important influence on its culture. This includes the range and quality of products and services provided, the importance of reputation and the type of customers. The primary function of the institution will determine the nature of the technological processes and methods of undertaking work, which in turn also affect structure and culture.

Similarly, the findings of the study run parallel with that of Harrison and Carrol (2011). These researchers found that geographical location and physical characteristics can have a major influence on culture. For example, whether an institution is located in a quiet rural location or a busy city centre can influence the types of customers (students) and the staff employed. Location can also affect the nature of services (courses) offered by an institution.

The results revealed that there was a statistically significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education. This finding was in line with some other studies. For instance, a correlational research design was employed to study the relationship between organisational culture and the effectiveness of principals of secondary schools in the Lorestan State in the Islamic Republic of Iran, according to Mehralizadeh and Atyabi (2016). The study involved a random sample of 800 teachers from a population of 4403 teachers and 300 principals from a total of 512 principals in the province of Lorestan secondary schools. Questionnaire was used to collect data from the participants. The researchers utilised Pearson Correlation and Regression analysis (Enter and stepwise) to test the hypotheses in the study. It was observed that, a significant positive correlation exists between organisational culture and principal effectiveness ($r=.85$, $p=0.05$). Using the stepwise regression method, it was also observed that, components of organisational culture such as transparency, communication, supportive and reward system predicted about .85 of the total variance of principal effectiveness in Lorestan State (Mehralizadeh & Atyabi, 2016).

In furtherance, Parhizgari (2015) carried out a study in which a comprehensive measure of organisational effectiveness was utilised to assess differences in performance between public and private sector organisations. Nine measures of organisational effectiveness were empirically derived and validated for the study was used. A total of 11, 352 participants were selected from 28 private sector organisations and 41 public sector organisations. Test result after statistical analysis showed that, private sector organisations significantly and more effective than public sector organisations on all the measures of organisational effectiveness.

However, findings of this study contradict that of other studies. For example, Scheider et al. (2014) sought to determine the effect of organisational culture on organisational effectiveness between public and private sector organisations in the United Kingdom. The study involved 1143 participants from the two sectors (public and private). The researcher's operationalised culture as constructive or destructive in which they indicated that constructive cultures were related to organisational effectiveness and destructive cultures were not related to organisational effectiveness.

The result showed no significant difference in organisational culture between private and public sector organisations. In addition, there was no significant difference in organisational effectiveness between private and public sector organisations. These contradictory findings on organisational effectiveness between private and public sector organisations only strengthened the point that the need for further studies is a clarion call. It is also clear from the findings that the study was based on western culture and the need to conduct such a study in the collectivist culture was necessary.

To add to the above, Chien (2015) investigated factors that affect organisational effectiveness. The study was to explore the important issues of the factors that affect organisational effectiveness. The research method adopted was the case study of the qualitative research and the data was collected by in-depth interviews. In the process of the research, the author interviewed with 30 employees, including ten managers and twenty private and public workers.

According to the analysis of the research data, there were seven factors effecting organisational effectiveness: (1) personal characteristics, (2) leadership styles, organisational culture, (4) working environment, (5) model of organisational operation,

(6) flexibility, (7) organisational commitment. All these factors were found to favour private organisations compared to public organisations.

Again, Wambugu (2014) assessed the relationship between organisational culture, organisational climate and managerial values as predictive factors of organisational effectiveness. The paper begins with a comprehensive review of the management literature on culture, and demonstrates close parallels with research and writings on organisational climate and values. The paper then reported the findings from an empirical investigation into the relationship between the organisational culture, climate, and managerial values of a large Australian public sector agency. The relative strengths of four dimensions of culture in this organisation were measured using Hofstede's (2015) instrument.

Added to this were items from a questionnaire developed by Ryder and Southey, derived from the Jones and James instrument measuring psychological climate and providing scores across six specific dimensions of organisational climate. Measures of managerial values, drawn from a questionnaire by Flowers and Hughes, were also incorporated. Results show that levels of culture within this particular organisation are at variance with those reported by Hofstede from his Australian data. Findings indicated a strong link between specific organisational climate items and a number of managerial values dimensions. Additional relationships between particular dimensions of culture, climate and managerial values were also found to promote organisational effectiveness.

The findings indicated that there is statistically significant ($p < .001$) relationship between the means of dimensions of organisational culture and organisational effectiveness. For that reason, hypothesis one was accepted. This therefore suggested that the null hypothesis which states that "there is no statistical significant relationship

between dimensions of organisational culture and organisational effectiveness” was rejected.

This finding supports that of Khazanchi, Lewis and Boyer (2014) who in a study involving 271 manufacturing plants revealed that aspects of organisational culture especially those that emphasise greater value congruence among members, respect for flexibility and control were significantly associated with the successful implementation of technology. They intimated flexibility and control encourage organisational empowerment and creativity respectively.

Also, Denison (2014) found in his study of organisational culture, that companies with a participative culture reaped a return on investment, which averaged nearly twice that of firms with less efficient cultures. His conclusion was that cultural and behavioural aspects of organisations were intimately linked to both short-term performance and long-term survival. Petty et al. (2015) conducted a study amongst 3977 employees across a United States company to assess whether there was a relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance.

The results of this study indicated that organisational performance was linked to organisational culture. These authors affirmed that there was a strong link evident in the correlation between teamwork and performance. This correlation indicated that teamwork, being the major aspect of culture, was significantly related to performance. The authors also contend that such behaviours as helping others, sharing of information and resources, and working as a team seemed to enhance performance in the organisation studied.

Moreover, in a study done by Gordon (2015) of an electric utility company, it was discovered that cultures affect organisational effectiveness. The study revealed four factors that differentiated financially successful companies from less successful companies. These four factors were: successful companies had greater horizontal coordination; they possessed more affective internal communications; they encouraged their those that emphasise greater value congruence among members, respect for flexibility and control were significantly associated with the successful implementation of technology. They intimated flexibility and control encourage organisational empowerment and creativity respectively.

The findings revealed that there is a statistically significant ($p < .001$) relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness. As a result, this hypothesis was accepted. The results infer that the null hypothesis which states that “there is no statistically significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness” was rejected.

The finding is in line with Hsu, Lin and Chang (2010) who found that in an empirical study that the OC of an international airline company has no effects on transformative leadership and service-oriented OCBs. Similarly, to the service industries, when the frontline contact employees sense the company’s value in pursuing service excellence, such a message may change employees’ cognitive categorisation; that is, changes in the definitions and expectations of personal roles. And such changes expand beyond the official role definition to include extra-role behaviours that facilitate achievement of customer satisfaction. Employees who have a stronger sense of OS often build an open exchange to give official feedback for the work and have a higher tendency to perform

service-oriented citizenship behaviours as a means to repay the support from the organisation (Morrison, 2014).

More so, Chacko (2016) did a study on organisational climate as predictor of organisational effectiveness among 149 managers across 49 private and public sector organisations in India. The researchers used qualitative approach where 63 participants took part in the study. The results showed the dimensions of organisational climate are a predictive of some of the factors of organisational effectiveness. Hart and Griffin (2016) found that organisational climate model accounts for at least 16% single-day sick leave and 10% separation rates in one organisation. The study sought to understand the nature of interdependence between organisational culture and climate on learning perception of organisational members. Organisational culture was measured using Wallach Organisational Culture Index (OCI) and a 20-item Likert scale (developed by the author based on the Litwinian perspective).

Furthermore, in a study involving 15 different organisations, researchers confirmed that organisational climate cause employee satisfaction. The study which was conducted by Taylor and Bowers comprised 284 workgroups (as cited in LaFollette & Sims, 1975). Similarly, Hand, Richards and Slocum (cited in LaFollette & Sims, 1975) also corroborated the organisational climate-job satisfaction relationship reported earlier. They observed that managers with positive perception of the prevailing organisational climate demonstrated high level of acceptance of self and others than those with less positive view of the climate. People come to work with specific attitudes, needs and aspirations which are unique to them, but the impact of the work climate on these attitudes.

4.4 Chapter Summary

The chapter focused on results and discussion of results. It first presents the results on demographic information of participants. This was followed by the results of the research questions. Additionally, testing of hypotheses were presented. Lastly, the chapter presents discussions of results and chapter summary. The next chapter presents the summary, conclusions and recommendations based on the findings and conclusion of the study.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

The chapter presents the summary, conclusion and recommendations and suggestions for further research.

5.1 Summary

The study investigated organisational culture in higher education at OLA College of Education in the Central Region, Ghana.

The study sought to:

1. Identify prevailing types of organisational culture at OLA College of Education.
2. Investigate factors that influence organisational culture at OLA College of Education.
3. Determine the relationship that exist between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education.
4. Find out whether there is a statistically significant relationship between the means of dimensions of organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at the OLA College of Education.

The study employed sequential explanatory mixed methods design. It also used pragmatism paradigm together with mixed methods research approach. Sample for the study was 392, comprising 342 female students and 50 (13 males and 27 females) staff. They were selected using purposive, simple random and convenience sampling techniques. Structured questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were used for data collection. Descriptive (simple frequency counts, percentages, means and standard deviations) and inferential (one-way between groups analysis of variance [ANOVA])

and Pearson product moment correlation) statistics were used to analyse the quantitative data. The qualitative data were analysed using direct quotes.

5.1.1 Main Findings

The first objective of the study was to identify prevailing types of organisational culture at OLA College of Education. It emerged that bureaucratic, clan, entrepreneurial, market and hierarchy were the prevailing types of organisational culture at OLA College of Education. However, bureaucratic was seen to have prevailed the more at OLA College of Education.

The second objective of the study was to investigate factors that influence organisational culture at OLA College of Education. It was discovered that the environment, leadership, management practices, formal socialisation process, informal socialisation process, history, primary function and technology, strategy and size influenced the organisational culture at OLA College of Education.

The third objective of the study was to determine the relationship that exist between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education. It emerged that there was a statistically significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education.

The final objective was to find out whether there is a statistically significant relationship between the means of dimensions of organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at the OLA College of Education. It emerged that there was a statistically significant relationship between the means of dimensions of organisational culture and organisational effectiveness. Similarly, it was found that there was a statistically significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness.

5.2 Conclusion

Based on the findings the following conclusion are made:

1. Among other types of organisational culture prevailing at OLA College of Education, bureaucratic was seen to have been used the more since the participants realised that OLA College of Education practiced values formality, rules, standard operating procedures and hierarchical coordination.
2. Some factors influenced the organisational culture at OLA College of Education. They encompassed: the environment, leadership, management practices, formal socialisation process, informal socialisation process, history, primary function and technology, strategy and size. This is because rewards and control systems which reinforce behaviour was paramount in the College.
3. Organisational culture at OLA College of Education contributed to the organisational effectiveness since the results indicated that there was a statistical relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education.
4. The hypothesis one which posited that “there is a statistically significant relationship between the means of dimensions of organisational culture and organisational effectiveness” was accepted. Likewise, the hypothesis two which stated that “there is a statistically significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness” was accepted.

5.3 Recommendations

As a result of the findings and conclusion drawn, the following recommendations are made:

1. The study found that bureaucratic, clan, entrepreneurial, market and hierarchy were the prevailing types of organisational culture at OLA College of Education. However, bureaucratic was seen to have prevailed the more at OLA College of Education. It is recommended that in selecting and appointing management personnel at OLA College of Education, in-service training should be run for them on the need to use more of bureaucratic culture. This would help management to clearly define tasks and responsibilities for the students and staff. Likewise, it would help the management to ensure division of labour.
2. It emerged from the that the environment, leadership, management practices, formal socialisation process, informal socialisation process, history, primary function and technology, strategy and size influenced the organisational culture at OLA College of Education. Therefore, the study recommends that management at OLA College of Education should run workshop for students and staff had on the need to embrace the prevailing types of organisational culture. Though this students and staff would be encouraged to share their views and also support the vision of the institution.
3. It came out of this study that that there was a statistically significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education. For this reason, it was recommended that management at OLA College of Education should take keen interest in the factors affecting the organisational culture of the institution. This would help the management to find effective strategies in dealing with these factors. These factors include but not

limited to: the environment, leadership, management practices, formal socialisation process, informal socialisation process, history, primary function and technology, strategy and size.

4. It emerged from this study that there was a statistically significant relationship between the means of dimensions of organisational culture and organisational effectiveness. Also, it was found that there was a statistically significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness. This study therefore recommends that in selecting or appointing management personnel at OLA College of Education, leadership should organise orientation service for the appointees on how organisational culture can contribute to the organisational effectiveness. Knowledge to be acquired from this training can go a long way to help them improve the organisational effectiveness through organisational culture.

5.4 Suggestions for Further Research

The following areas can be considered by future researchers:

1. Organisational culture in higher education: The case of Colleges of Education in Ghana.
2. Organisational culture in second cycle institutions in the Central Region, Ghana.
3. Organisational culture and organisational effectiveness in public universities in Ghana.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INTRODUCTORY LETTER



UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

FACULTY OF EDUCATIONAL STUDIES

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT

P. O. Box 25, Winneba, Ghana

deam@uew.edu.gh

UEW/EAM/INT/27

30th January, 2020

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam,

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

We write to introduce Mr. Jonathan Ebo Quagraine, a student on the M. Phil Educational Administration and Management programme of the Department of Educational Administration and Management.

Mr. Quagraine is currently working on a research project titled: *'ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE IN HIGHER EDUCATION: THE CASE OF OUR LADY OF APOSTLE (OLA) COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, CAPE COAST'*.

Please, give him the necessary assistance and co-operation.

Thank you.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Salome O. Essuman'.

Salome O. Essuman (Prof.)
Head of Department

cc:

Dean, School of Graduate Studies

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SUDENTS AND STAFF

Dear Respondent,

I am carrying out a study on the topic: **“ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE IN HIGHER EDUCATION: THE CASE OF OUR LADY OF APOSTLE (OLA) COLLEGE OF EDUCATION”**. It is against this background that you have been randomly selected to participate in the research by completing the questionnaire. It would thus be very helpful if you assist by answering the questionnaire as per instructions at the beginning of each section. Please, you are required to provide the most appropriate answer in your response. Your responses will be kept confidential. In any case the questionnaire is anonymous.

Thank you.



Yours faithfully,

Jonathan Ebo Quagraine

(Researcher)

SECTION A

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Gender:

Male

Female

2. Age (years):

15-19

20-24

25-30

31-35

36-40

41-45

46 and above

3. Current Classification:

Management

Staff

Student



4. If staff or Management: Working Experience:

1-10 years

11-20 years

21-30 years

31 years and above

5. If Student:

Level 100

Level 200

Year 3

SECTION B

Types of Prevailing Organisational Culture

Kindly Tick (✓) the appropriate number of the 5-point likert scale (1=Strongly Disagree, 2 =Disagree, 3 = Uncertain, 4=Agree and 5= Strongly Agree) as it sincerely applies to you. Please, there are no rights or wrong answers.

S/No.	Types of Prevailing Organisational Culture	1	2	3	4	5
1.	OLA College of Education values formality, rules, standard operating procedures, and					
2.	Employees of OLA College of Education highly value standardised goods and customer service					
3.	Principal of OLA views her roles as being good co-coordinators, organisers, and enforcers of certain rules and standards					
4.	Tasks, responsibilities, and authority for all employees are clearly defined at OLA College of Education					
5.	Rules and processes at OLA College of Education are spelled out in thick manuals and I believe that my duty is to go by the book and follow legalistic processes					
6.	Management of LOA College of Education ensures that there is a fixed division of labour					
7.	OLA College of Education practice rigid culture and therefore restricts creative potential among employees					
8.	OLA College of Education is characterised by tradition, loyalty and personal commitment					
9.	There is extensive socialisation, teamwork and self-management at OLA College of Education					
10.	There is social influences which reflects the way of doing things in OLA College of Education					
11.	The organisational membership sees their obligation beyond the concept of exchange such as labour for salary					
12.	I understand that my contributions to OLA College of Education may exceed any contractual engagement or agreement between me and my employer					

13.	Employee's long term commitment to the organisation is exchanged for the organisation's long term-commitment to the individual					
14.	I believe that this organisation will treat me fairly in terms of salary increases, promotions, and other forms of recognition					
15.	This institution favours or encourages high level of risk taking					
16.	OLA College of Education is committed to experimentation					
17.	This institution embraces innovation among employees					
18.	OLA College of Education encourages leading edge attitude					
19.	This institution does not easily react to changes in the environment					
20.	Individual initiative, flexibility and freedom is welcomed by OLA College of Education					
21.	This institution is characterised by achievements of measurable and demanding goals					
22.	Hard driving competitiveness prevails at OLA College of Education					
23.	A profit orientation prevail at OLA College of Education					
24.	This institution involves a contractual relationship between individual employees and the organisation					
25.	A rewarding relationship exists between the individual and the organisation					
26.	OLA College of Education does not exert much informal and social pressure on its employees					
27.	This institution does not share a common set of expectations regarding management style					

SECTION C

Factors Influencing Organisational Culture

Kindly Tick (✓) the appropriate number of the 5-point likert scale (1=Strongly Disagree, 2 =Disagree, 3 = Uncertain, 4=Agree and 5= Strongly Agree) as it sincerely applies to you. Please, there are no rights or wrong answers.

S/No	Factors Influencing Organisational Culture	1	2	3	4	5
1.	The location of this institution is an influencing					
2.	Leadership influences this College					
3.	Management practices and the formal socialisation process influence this institution					
4.	How individuals behave in this institution is a key issue to management					
5.	Rewards and control systems reinforce behaviour is paramount in this College					
6.	Students and staff are accepted by the institution					

SECTION D

Relationship between Organisational Culture and Organisational Effectiveness

Kindly Tick (✓) the appropriate number of the 5-point likert scale (1=Strongly Disagree, 2 =Disagree, 3 = Uncertain, 4=Agree and 5= Strongly Agree) as it sincerely applies to you. Please, there are no rights or wrong answers.

S/No	Relationship between Organisational Culture and Organisational Effectiveness	1	2	3	4	5
1.	Organisational culture will have different impact on organisational effectiveness					
2.	OLA College of Education with a participative culture reaps a return on investment					
3.	Organisational culture is intimately linked to Organisational culture					
4.	Organisational culture has nothing to do with the Organisational culture in this institution					
5.	There is a strong link evident in the relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness					

SECTION E**Relationship between Dimensions of Organisational Culture and Organisational Effectiveness**

Kindly Tick (✓) the appropriate number of the 5-point likert scale (**1=Strongly Disagree, 2 =Disagree, 3 = Uncertain, 4=Agree and 5= Strongly Agree**) as it sincerely applies to you. Please, there are no rights or wrong answers.

S/No	Relationship between Dimensions of Organisational Culture and Organisational	1	2	3	4	5
1.	Organisational cultures at OLA College of Education affect organisational performance					
2.	Behaviours such as helping others, sharing of information and resources, and working as a team seemed to enhance performance at OLA College of Education					
3.	Organisational performance at OLA College of Education is linked to its organisational culture					
4.	There is a strong link evident in the relationship between teamwork and performance at OLA College of Education					
5.	OLA College of Education with a participative culture reaps a return on investment					

APPENDIC C

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR STUDENTS AND STAFF

1. How do you understand the term “organisational culture”?
2. Can you please mention some of the types of organisational culture?
3. Which of these types of organisational culture prevail at OLA College of Education?
4. How do you perceive the prevailing organisational culture in this institution?
5. Are there some factors you think can influence organisational culture at OLA College of Education? Yes [] No []
6. Kindly give reasons to your response to question 5?
7. Do you think there is a relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness at OLA College of Education? Yes [] No []
8. Kindly give reasons to your response to question 7?
9. Please do you have any other comments based on what we have discussed so far?

