

**UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA**

**AN EVALUATION OF THE ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS,  
CULTURE AND ETHICS IN ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE. A  
CASE STUDY OF SOCIAL SECURITY AND NATIONAL INSURANCE  
TRUST (SSNIT) GHANA**



**MASTER IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION**

**2021**

**UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA**

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IN ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE. A CASE STUDY OF SOCIAL  
SECURITY AND NATIONAL INSURANCE TRUST (SSNIT) GHANA**



**A dissertation in the Department of Management Sciences, School of Business,  
submitted to the School of Graduate Studies, in partial fulfilment of  
the requirements for award of the degree of  
Master of Business Administration  
(Human Resource Management)  
in the University of Education, Winneba**

**NOVEMBER, 2021**

## DECLARATION

### Student's Declaration

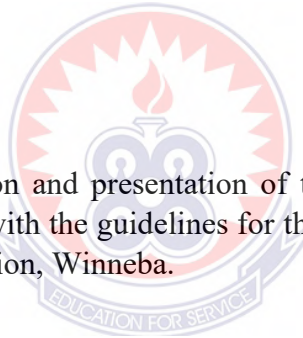
I, Eboyi Nathan, declare that this dissertation, with exception of quotations and reference contained in published work which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work and it has not been submitted, either part of or whole for another degree elsewhere.

Signature: .....

Date: .....

### Supervisor's Certification

I certify that the preparation and presentation of this dissertation went through my supervision in accordance with the guidelines for the supervision of project laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.



Ms. Augustina Adei Ashie (Supervisor)

Signature: .....

Date: .....

## **DEDICATION**

This work is dedicated to Rev and Mrs P. Eboyi.



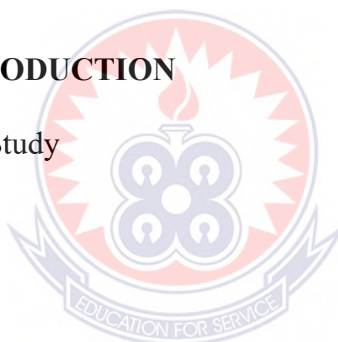
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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

| <b>Content</b>   | <b>Page</b> |
|--|-------------|
| DECLARATION  | iii         |
| DEDICATION   | iv          |
| ACKNOWLEDGEMENT  | v           |
| TABLE OF CONTENTS  | vi          |
| LIST OF TABLES   | ix          |
| LIST OF FIGURES  | x           |
| LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS  | xi          |
| ABSTRACTS  | xii         |
| <br>   |             |
| <b>CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION</b>                                 | <b>1</b>    |
| 1.1 Background of the Study                                      | 1           |
| 1.2 Problem Statement  | 4           |
| 1.3 Research Objectives  | 7           |
| 1.4 Research Questions   | 8           |
| 1.5 Hypothesis   | 8           |
| 1.6 Significance of the Study                                    | 8           |
| 1.7 Scope and Limitation   | 9           |
| 1.8 Organization of the Study                                    | 9           |
| <br>   |             |
| <b>CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW</b>                            | <b>10</b>   |
| 2.1 Introduction   | 10          |
| 2.2 The Concept of Organizational Politics                       | 10          |
| 2.3 Factors Contributing to Political Behaviour in Organizations | 14          |
| 2.4 Types of Organizational Politics                             | 18          |



|                                   |  |           |
|-----------------------------------|--|-----------|
| 2.5                               | Coping with Organizational Politics                          | 23        |
| 2.6                               | The Concept of Organisational Culture                        | 25        |
| 2.7                               | Organisational Culture Model                                 | 26        |
| 2.8                               | Types of organizational culture and their characteristics    | 33        |
| 2.9                               | Functions of Organisational Culture                          | 36        |
| 2.10                              | The Concept of Ethics  | 38        |
| 2.11                              | The Hidden costs of unethical behaviour                      | 45        |
| 2.12                              | Curbing Unethical Behaviours                                 | 49        |
| 2.13                              | What is Organizational Performance                           | 49        |
| 2.14                              | Organizational Politics and Organizational Culture           | 50        |
| 2.15                              | Organizational Politics and Organizational Performance       | 51        |
| 2.16                              | Organizational Culture and Performance                       | 52        |
| 2.18                              | Theoretical framework  | 55        |
| 2.19                              | Empirical Review of Politics, Culture, Ethics on Performance | 56        |
| <b>CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY</b> |  | <b>62</b> |
| 3.1                               | Introduction   | 62        |
| 3.2                               | Research Design  | 62        |
| 3.3                               | Population of the Study                                      | 63        |
| 3.4                               | Sample and Sampling Techniques                               | 63        |
| 3.5                               | Instrument for Data Collection                               | 63        |
| 3.6                               | Reliability and Validity                                     | 65        |
| 3.7                               | Data Collection Procedure                                    | 65        |
| 3.8                               | Method of Data Analysis                                      | 66        |

|   |           |
|---|-----------|
| <b>CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS</b>                  | <b>67</b> |
| 4.1 Introduction  | 67        |
| 4.2 Accessing Measurement Model of Constructs                     | 68        |
| 4.3 Discriminant Validity   | 70        |
| 4.4 Structural Model  | 71        |
| 4.6 Research Question Two   | 74        |
| 4.7 Research Question Three                                       | 74        |
| 4.8 Discussion of Findings  | 75        |
| <br>  |           |
| <b>CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND<br/>RECOMMENDATIONS</b> | <b>79</b> |
| 5.1 Introduction  | 79        |
| 5.2 Major Findings of the Study                                   | 79        |
| 5.3 Conclusion  | 80        |
| 5.4 Recommendation  | 81        |
| 5.5 Recommendation for Further Research                           | 82        |
| REFERENCES  | 83        |
| APPENDICES  | 94        |





## LIST OF TABLES

| <b>Table</b>   | <b>Page</b> |
|--|-------------|
| 2.1: Types of organizational culture and their characteristics | 33          |
| 4.1: Demographics variables                                    | 67          |
| 4.2: Measurement Output of Constructs                          | 70          |
| 4.3: Structural model  | 72          |
| 4.4: Correlations Matrix                                       | 72          |
| 4.5: Path Coefficient  | 74          |



## LIST OF FIGURES

| <b>Figure</b>                         | <b>Page</b> |
|---------------------------------------|-------------|
| 2.1: Types of Organizational Politics | 18          |
| 2.2: Conceptual framework             | 54          |
| 4.1: Structural model                 | 73          |



## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

|       |  |
|-------|--|
| OCL   | Organizational Culture                       |
| OE    | Organizational Ethics                        |
| OP    | Organizational Performance                   |
| OPL   | Organizational Politics                      |
| SSNIT | Social Security and National Insurance Trust |



## ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to evaluate the role of organizational politics, culture, and ethics in organizational performance. The study took place at some selected SSNIT offices in the Greater Accra and Central Regions of Ghana. The main objectives of the study were to: To examine the relationship between politics, culture, and ethics, to examine the impact of politics, culture, and ethics on organizational performance, and finally to evaluate the impact of culture and ethics on organizational politics. Quantitative research methods were adopted for the study. A population of 3000 was estimated for the study and was sampled using the Yamane sample size table at a confidence level of 95% and a margin of error of 5% to 353. Out of the 353 questionnaires that were distributed, 341 were retrieved and the analysis was conducted based on that. Data were analyzed using SPSS and Smart PLS. The study revealed that there is a relationship between organizational politics and organizational culture, there is no relationship between organizational politics and organizational ethics. This study also revealed that there is no relationship between organizational culture and organizational ethics. It was evident that there is no impact between politics and performance, ethics and performance but there was an impact between organizational culture and organizational performance. The study revealed that organizational culture had an impact on organizational politics but there is no impact between organizational ethics and organizational politics. It is therefore recommended that the code of conduct for the Public Commission Authority must not be the only source of ethical code of conduct. SSNIT should have its code of conduct. The culture of the firm must be built along with the ethics of the institutions.

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Background of the Study

For performance to be achieved in every organization, issues relating to employees must be addressed since they are the driving force of the firm. Politics, culture, and ethics play a major role in the firm achieving its overall goals. Politics, culture, and ethics within the firm are said to be intangible but play a vital role in the firm attaining its goal. Organizational politics has become a common life experience in several establishments across the globe. This view has been supported over the years by personal experience, hunches, and circumstantial evidence. Organizational politics is defined by Behin, and Shekary, (2013) as a term used to indicate power relations and influential tactics in the workplace. As a result of the influence it can yield, the concept of organizational politics has become a recent topic of debate in modern management works of literature.

According to Ferris et al. (2019) organizational politics tends to elicit the strongest of reactions in both positive and negative directions, it has been the subject of a systematic investigation that has touched several topics in the organizational sciences. As a result, several reviews have been published on different areas of the organizational politics literature, as well as a few on the political literature as a whole. According to Kacmar and Baron (1999) organizational politics are ubiquitous and have widespread effects on critical processes (e.g., performance evaluation, resource allocation, and managerial decision making) that influence organizational effectiveness and efficiency.

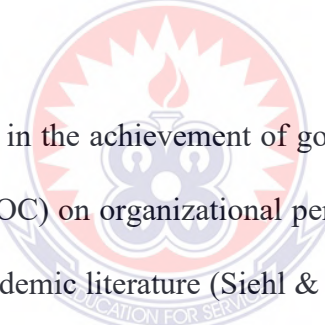
Employee perception about workplace politics differs. Some employees see organizational politics to be negatively affecting their work routine. According to Chang, Rosen, and Levy (2009), employees demonstrate many illegitimate political activities (e.g., coalition building, favoritism-based pay and promotion decisions, and backstabbing) that are strategically designed to benefit, protect, or enhance self-interests, often without regard for the welfare of their organization or co-workers.

More recently, scholars have expanded the view of organizational politics to also include positive aspects (Fedor et al. 2008; Hochwarter 2012), arguing that politics can be a mechanism for restoring justice, providing for followers, and as a source of positive change (Ellen 2014; Ellen et al., 2013). Organizational politics is viewed as inherently agentic, and theories of human agency acknowledge that individuals are active creators of their environments, not simply passive reactors.

When organizational politics is well managed, it will lead to organizational performance since the employee will have a different mindset. Politics is not the only variable that will lead to the achievement of organizational goals. The culture of the establishment plays a major role aside from the politics that exist in the firm. Culture is said to be a way of life of a group of people living in a society. The organization is a society and they have a way of going by the daily activities that distinguish them from other firms. Culture is that element that differentiates an organization from other organizations with regards to innovation, change management, risk appetite, consistency, and decisiveness (Yilmaz and Ergun, 2008). Organizational culture has been identified as a key factor in the development of superior business performance (Szymańska, 2016). According to Obijiaku (2019), the role of organizational culture is to encourage organizational competitiveness, multiplicity, mergers, acquisitions,

internal cohesiveness and different workforce improvements have made it a crucial requirement for advancing corporate survival, development, and advancement.

The culture of each organization is represented by the values, beliefs, customs, and traditions of its members. Sobirin (2002) stated that organizational culture is a pattern of beliefs and values that are understood and imbued (shared) by members of the organization. Therefore, it gives meaning to the organization concerned and the basis of the rules for conducting in the organization. Schein (2010) postulated that organizational culture is much more vital today with the advent of the data age, which has become a formidable force to reckon with and is further amplified by the prevalence of technological advancements greater than what was achievable in the past.



Culture plays a major role in the achievement of goals within the firm. The influence of organizational culture (OC) on organizational performance and efficiency has long been recognized in the academic literature (Siehl & Martin 1990; Liu & Zhang 2003). Organizational politics and culture when well managed will lead to the achievement of goals but these are not the only factors that will lead to the achievement of organizational goals. Another factor that will lead to high performance when added to politics and culture in the workplace is ethics.

Indeed, for some ethics has been added to their corporate values. But help is needed by an organization to integrate ethical practices and competencies, but initially, this requires an increased and shared understanding of ethics in organizations. Numerous researches suggest that organizational ethics is a major influence in ensuring the attainment of organization objectives and organization performance. It has been observed that more than 85 percent of organizations have developed and distributed

organizational codes of conduct to significantly affect the ethical conducts of their respective employees, (Rossy, 2011).

The increased pressure from stakeholders such as consumers, investors, and the community for organizations to behave ethically and in a socially responsible way can no longer be ignored (Matoka, 2013). Today investors' concern on the ethical conduct of those who run organizations has greatly increased. Regular disclosures that directors and executives behave unethically reflect badly on the corporate sector as a vehicle for investors' funds (North, 2018).

Organizational performance is extremely important to stakeholders and as a result, firms need to be up and doing by ensuring that issues with politics, culture, and ethics are handled well. Organizational performance can be described as the results realized in the achievement of the objectives of a firm (Wei, Liu & Herndon 2011). Organizational performance reflects an organization's success and is considered as one of the basic notions in management (Amin, 2017). The inability of a leader in a firm to handle these three variables within a firm will cause the institution a lot of harm. In this study, the focus will be on Social Security and National Insurance Trust (SSNIT) Ghana by examining the current state of organizational politics, culture, and ethics and the impact it has on the overall organizational performance of the institutions.

## **1.2 Problem Statement**

An organization with issues of politics, culture, and ethics finds it difficult to survive since these variables play a key role in organizational success. Many studies have examined each of the variables on organizational performance but have not combined all these variables in a single study. Most often than not, attention is given to each



variable at a time when considering organizational performance but not all three at a goal. Will a firm with issues in politics and culture and yet have good ethical issues achieve organizational performance? Will a firm with issues in culture and ethics but have strong politics also achieve its ultimate goal? and will a firm with issues in politics and ethics and yet have a strong organizational culture achieve results? This study seeks to examine how these variables together have an impact on the organizational performance of Social Security and National Insurance Trust (SSNIT)

The human resource discipline focuses on organizational goals through the implementation of effective organizational and employee strategies. When a firm has issues with politics, it will affect the firm organizational goal making it difficult for the firm to achieve its desired results.

When the workplace is political, individuals attain rewards by competition and by amassing power (Cropanzano & Grandey, 1997). This has a variety of implications for the nature of the work environment. One of the implications is that many people will not belong to the strongest cabal. Thus, they will have trouble fulfilling their aspirations. To the extent that aspirations go unfulfilled, the political environment is unsatisfying and stressful. Another implication of politics is that the marketplace becomes more volatile and less predictable. Since rewards are allocated based on power, the rules may change from one day to the next. This uncertainty causes individuals to have less confidence that their efforts will produce any beneficial outcomes. This lack of confidence makes it less likely that individuals will allocate additional resources to the organization. Finally, a political firm is also likely to be more threatening, since the different cabals may be actively trying to harm one another. Not only are goals less likely to be accomplished, but individuals are also at

risk for losing the things that they have already obtained affecting the performance of the firm both in the long and short run. According to Wiltshire, Bourdage, and Lee (2014), negative perceptions of politics are concerning because they can result in counterproductive work behaviour such as poor employee attendance and sloppy performance, increased job stress, and decreased job satisfaction. Many organizations are victims of this and it has affected their output as a firm.

Performance has a link with the culture of organizations. Meanwhile, Organizations, not unlike countries, are also known to be characterized by their own culture that is, the distinct identity manifested in the form of physical artifacts but also, and far more importantly, embedded in less visible values and beliefs shared among organizational members. As widely recognized in the literature, people, whether as individuals or members of an organization, are likely to feel uncomfortable and experience difficulties in adjusting when placed in a culture in which values, beliefs, and customs are different from their own (Feldman & Thompson, 1992; Linowes, 1993). When culture the culture of the organization does not go down well to the employee of the firm, it will go a long way to have an impact on the firm and stakeholders will end up complaining. Anytime customers begin to complain, it creates a different perception in the market since they have the voice. When issues of culture are not well managed, it affects the firm in so many forms.

Jackson (2018) noted that organizations react slowly to external/internal changes as systems are designed for stability, too many structural layers slow down and reduce communication effectiveness, authority is maintained centrally, reducing the effectiveness of front-line staff. Also, he noted that problems take too long to solve and keep recurring, wasting time and resources, purposes are often in conflict (Ex:

finance wants to save – depts. need to spend), the structures and systems create problems by dividing and boxing people. From the same study, the author noted that most people are excluded from the decision-making and thinking processes thereby limiting the potential to change and adapt quickly, also, people are not involved or included in the purpose of the organization and feel apart from it rather than a part of it. He added that organizations focus on failure is than success and organization does not perform as well as it should or could lead to organizations yielding low output.

Issues of ethics are also affecting firms' output badly. Due to increasing ethical problems in recent years, many business organizations have established ethics programs to help improve ethical behaviour and or to help prevent ethical problems among their employees (e.g., Chonko et al., 2003; Somers,2001; Valentine & Fleischman, 2008) In recent years, ethics, quality of work-life (QWL) and job satisfaction are increasingly being identified as progressive indicators related to the function and sustainability of business organizations(Koonmee, Singhapakdi, Virakul, & Lee, 2019). Does SSNIT have an ethics program?

The study will assess the role of organizational politics, culture, and ethics on the output of SSNIT Ghana specifically the Central and Greater Accra Region offices.

### **1.3 Research Objectives**

1. To examine the relationship between politics, culture, and ethics.
2. To examine the impact of politics, culture, and ethics on organizational performance.
3. To evaluate the impact of culture and ethics on organizational politics.

#### **1.4 Research Questions**

1. What is the relationship between politics, culture, and ethics?
2. What is the impact of politics, culture, and ethics on organizational performance?
3. What is the impact of culture and ethics on organizational politics?

#### **1.5 Hypothesis**

H1: There is No significant impact between organizational politics and organizational performance

H2: There is no significant relationship between organizational culture and organizational politics

H3: There is No significant impact between organizational culture and organizational performance

H4: There is No significant impact between organizational ethics and organizational performance

H5: There is no significant relationship between organizational ethics and organizational politics.

#### **1.6 Significance of the Study**

The study will be of importance to employees in the public and private sector, board of directors, all line managers most especially Human Resource Managers, with regards to their daily activities and developing organizational policies. The Board of directors of non-financial institutions will also benefit from this study. The study will of benefits to Human Resource Practitioners and consultants.

### **1.7 Scope and Limitation**

This study seeks to evaluate the issues on politics, culture, and ethics at some selected SSNIT offices in the Central and Greater Accra Region. The study could have been conducted in another institution but the researcher chooses this organization because of their active role in the life of pensioners in the country and their support for students who are unable to pay their fees.

Traveling to all branches within the Central and Greater Accra Region of SSNIT offices for data collection in this era of COVID-19 will be a great challenge to the researcher. The study will apply a quantitative approach and it will take the researcher four months to complete the study.

### **1.8 Organization of the Study**

The study will comprise five chapters. The first chapter will introduce the study with the background of the study, the statement of the problem, the research objective, the research questions, the hypothesis for the study, the significance of the study, the scope and limitation of the study, definition of terminology and organization of the study. The second chapter will consist of the literature review. It will comprise of theoretical framework, empirical study, conceptual framework, and other pieces of literature. The review will be solicited from journals, books, articles, and other relevant information from the internet and the library. The third chapter is the methodology will consist of the research design, the population, sample size and sampling technique, research instruments, validity and reliability of instruments, data collection procedures, data analysis, and ethical consideration. The fourth chapter will present an analysis and discussion of the results of the study. The fifth and final chapter will consist of a summary, conclusion, recommendation, area for further studies, and delimitation of the study.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 Introduction

This chapter sought to review related literature on politics, ethics and culture in organizational performance. The aim of this literature is to identify and examine research previously undertaken. This will take into account concepts, theoretical frame work and empirical review.

#### 2.2 The Concept of Organizational Politics

##### 2.2.1 The Positive Side of Organizational Politics

Cacciattolo, (2015) is of the view that, organisational politics and their processes are often understood to be the organisational defensive routines that alter and filter legitimate information. However, organisational politics according to Vredenburg and Shea-VanFossen, (2010) do not have to be about power manipulation, trust issues and hidden agendas. Organisational politics can also be functional in ways that are beneficial for more than just a politically-skilled and politically motivated minority.

Positive organisational politics may provide the basis for competitive advantage, especially when people are appropriately politically skilled. It has been suggested that politically skilled management successfully manages those organisational environments that are under stress a political skill that includes an aptitude to employ actions that support feelings of trust, confidence and sincerity (Drory & Vigoda-Gadot, 2010; Gotsis & Kortezi, 2010). This implies that, positive politics are mainly visible when individuals know how to use positive influence behaviours and strategies, and evade negative behaviour. Drory and Vigoda-Gadot (2010) argue that

when one develops a set of positive political skills, an effective political environment is created that does not suffer from injustice, unfairness and inequity.

Vigoda-Gadot and Kapun (2005) provide a set of positive outcomes of politics, namely “career advancement, recognition and status, enhanced power and position, attainment of personal and organisational goals, successful accomplishment of a job or policy implementation, and feelings of achievement, ego, control and success”. This means that political behaviour may be necessary in all of the cases mentioned above, especially if someone wants to advance in an organisation or needs to be acknowledged by his or her co-workers (Drory & Vigoda-Gadot, 2010). According to Mintzberg (1985) several positive aspects of organisational politics in relation to his identification of games (in Vredenburg & SheaVanFossen, 2010). He states that organisational politics can sometimes be used to pursue rightful ends, for example, when one uses the whistle blowing and Young Turks games, it could be beneficial to correct irresponsible or inefficient behaviours or even to effect beneficial changes that are otherwise resisted (Mintzberg, 1985). Also, politics can provide alternating routes of information and promotion, as when the sponsorship game enables a manager to rise over a weaker manager. In this case, political games may provide an insight on the potential for leadership. According to the findings of Luthans et al., (1985) there is a relationship between successful managers and the frequent use of organisational politics.

### **2.2.2 The Negative Side of Organizational Politics**

Although organisational politics are widely accepted to have positive potential, studies show that individuals still predominantly perceive these as negative (Drory & Vigoda-Gadot, 2010; Othman, 2008; Poon, 2003: 138). Block (1988) states that “If I

told you, you were a very political person you would either take it as an insult or at best as a mixed blessing”. Therefore, usually political work environments are perceived negatively by individuals and may induce a sense of unfairness, deprivation and inequity (Gotsis & Kortezi, 2010; Harris et al., 2009, Ladebo, 2006: VigodaGadot & Kapun, 2005: 258). Consequently, those employees who perceive their organisation as being politicized will tend to withhold useful information (Vigoda-Gadot & Drory, 2006)

Organisational politics may mute and warp the voices and opinions of individuals, facts that spawn defence mechanisms and uphold uncertainty (Vince, 2001). Within political environments, employees tend to feel threatened by the uncertainty, ambiguity and the self-interest actions that occur with individuals (Harris et al, 2009). Vredenburg & SheaVanFossen (2010) are of the view that, genetic tendencies such as forcefulness, power and control need, manipulation, rank rivalry, and egotism can all materialize in response to common organisational circumstances of uncertainty, resource shortage, and disagreement.

Numerous researchers found that organisational politics have a negative impact on the job performance and organisational commitment, especially to the lower status employees (Drory, 1993;Gotsis & Kortezi, 2010; Vigoda-Gadot & Kapun, 2005).

Others propose that organisational politics are the source of stress and conflict at the workplace (Ladebo, 2006; Vigoda-Gadot & Kapun, 2005). Employees with a lower level of power feel more stressed when they perceive politics in their work environment. As a result, organisational politics may cause an individual to detach either physically or mentally from the workplace (Vigoda-Gadot & Kapun, 2005). Therefore, whilst people may be present at the place of work, their mind could be



elsewhere and may lack concentration. Studies that focus on the notion that organisational politics refers to the strategic behaviour that promotes self-interest, offer a negative image of workplace politics, and thus individuals continue to enforce their negative perspective of organisational politics (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007).

Political behaviour is included in the cultural factors that may also inhibit learning. Bishop et al (2006) state that cultures that give importance to the attainment and hoarding of technical skills that are used independently by individuals are less likely to support knowledge-sharing networks (2006). Likewise, cultures that are distinguished by a lack of trust will probably not encourage the transfer of knowledge from the individual to the group or the organisation (Bishop et al, 2006). VigodaGadot and Drory, (2006) noted that when employees feel that they cannot trust other employees and the procedures of an organisation, they tend to reduce their dedication, put in less effort, and engage in withdrawal behaviour. Moreover, different groups or jobs inside the same organisation may have completely dissimilar views about which knowledge is valuable or applicable (Bishop et al., 2006). An example of this is the study by Fuller and Unwin (2003) in which three different organisations and their type of apprenticeships were considered.

Some individuals tend to be more highly political than their counterparts due to differing characteristics. According to Curtis (2003), 'Machiavellianism' and 'locus of control' as examples of particular characteristics of highly political individuals. People who tend towards Machiavellianism are portrayed as being rational rather than sensitive, do not value camaraderie, and like to manoeuvre others and lie in order to accomplish personal objectives (Vigoda-Gadot & Drory, 2006). Other writers comment that organisations often become crippled by these so-called organisational

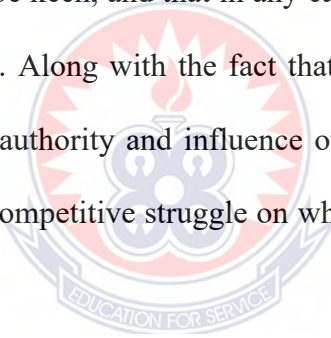
politics or 'workplace toxins' as referred to by (Chircop 2008). In the authors study, she of the view that leaders with awareness of and expertise in the management of workplace politics are needed.

### **2.3 Factors Contributing to Political Behaviour in Organizations**

According to Olorunleke (2015), it is useful to remember that in its original meaning, the idea of politics stems from the view that, where interests are divergent, society should provide a means of allowing individuals to reconcile their differences through consultation and negotiation. In ancient Greece, Aristotle advocated politics as a means of reconciling the need for unity in the Greek polis (city-state) with the fact that the polis was an "aggregate of many members." Politics, for him, provided a means of creating order out of diversity while avoiding forms of totalitarian rule. Political science and many systems of government have built on this basic idea, advocating politics, and the recognition and interplay of competing interests that politics implies, as a means of creating a non-coercive form of social order (Morgan, 1996).

Organizational politics are a natural result of the fact that people think differently and want to act differently. This diversity creates a tension that must be resolved through political means. There are many ways in which this can be done, for example: autocratically ("We'll do it this way"); bureaucratically ("We're supposed to do it this way"); technocratically ("It's best to do it this way"); or democratically ("How shall we do it?"). In each case the choice between alternative paths of action usually hinges on the power relations between the actors involved. An organization's politics is most clearly manifest in the conflicts and power plays that sometimes occupy center stage, and in the countless interpersonal intrigues that provide diversions in the flow of

organizational activity. Politics occurs on an ongoing basis, often in a way that is invisible to all but those directly involved. As Scottish sociologist Tom Burns has pointed out, most modern organizations promote various kinds of political behaviour because they are designed as systems of simultaneous competition and collaboration. People must collaborate in pursuit of a common task, yet are often pitted against each other in competition for limited resources, status, and career advancement. These conflicting dimensions of organization are most clearly symbolized in the hierarchical organization chart, which is both a system of cooperation, in that it reflects a rational subdivision of tasks, and a career ladder up which people are motivated to climb. The fact that there are more jobs at the bottom than at the top means that competition for the top places is likely to be keen, and that in any career race there are likely to be far fewer winners than losers. Along with the fact that different individuals and groups are mandated to exercise authority and influence over others, the hierarchy more or less ensures the kinds of competitive struggle on which organizational politics thrives (Olorunleke 2015),.



One does not have to be consciously cunning or deviously political to end up playing organizational politics. Political behaviour is a fairly natural response to the tensions created between individuals and their organizations. The setting of budgets and work standards, the day-to-day supervision and control of work, as well as the pursuit of opportunity and career, are often characterized by sophisticated forms of gamesmanship. Take, for example, the situations that reveal the guile with which factory workers are able to control their pace of work and level of earnings, even when under the close eye of their supervisors or of efficiency experts trying to find ways of increasing productivity. The workers know that to maintain their positions they have to find ways of beating the system, and do so with great skill and ingenuity.

Individuals who systematically wheel and deal their way through organizational affairs merely illustrate the most extreme and fully developed form of a latent tendency present in most aspects of organizational life (Olorunleke 2015).

The potential complexity of organizational politics is mindboggling, even before we take account of the personalities and personality clashes that usually bring roles and their conflicts to life. Sometimes the conflicts generated will be quite explicit and open for all to see, while at other times they will lie beneath the surface of day-today events. For example, relations in meetings may be governed by various hidden agendas of which even the participants are unaware. In some organizations disputes may have a long history, decisions and actions in the present being shaped by conflicts, grudges, or differences that others believe long forgotten or settled. The manager of a production department may align with the marketing manager to block a proposal from the production engineer not because he disagrees with the basic ideas, but because of resentments associated with the fact that he and the production engineer have never gotten along. Though such resentments may seem petty, they are often powerful forces in organizational life.

A number of individual and organizational factors contribute to political behaviour (adapted from Dubrin, 2001):

1. Pyramid-shaped organization structure: A pyramid concentrates power at the top. Only so much power is therefore available to distribute among the many people who would like more of it. Each successive layer on the organization chart has less power than the layer above. At the very bottom of the organization, workers have virtually no power. Since most organizations

today have fewer layers than they previously had, the competition for power has become more intense.

2. Subjective standards of performance: People often resort to organizational politics because they do not believe that the organization has an objective and fair way of judging their performance and suitability for promotion. Similarly, when managers have no objective way of differentiating effective people from the less effective, they will resort to favouritism.
3. Environmental uncertainty and turbulence: When people operate in an unstable and unpredictable environment, they tend to behave politically. They rely on organizational politics to create a favourable impression because uncertainty makes it difficult to determine what they should really be accomplishing. The uncertainty, turbulence, and insecurity created by corporate mergers or downsizing is a major contributor to office politics.
4. Emotional insecurity: Some people resort to political manoeuvres to ingratiate themselves with superiors because they lack confidence in their talents and skills.
5. Manipulative tendencies: Some people engage in political behaviour because they want to manipulate others, sometimes for their own personal advantage.
6. Disagreements that prevent rational decision making: Many executives attempt to use rational criteria when making major decisions, but rational decision making is constrained by major disagreements over what the organization should be doing. Unless strategy and goals are shared strongly among key organizational members, political motivation is inevitable in organizational decision making.

## 2.4 Types of Organizational Politics

Organizational politics can be classified under the woods, the weeds, the high grounds and the rocks (Jarret, 2017).

**Figure 2.1 Types of Organizational Politics**



**Source:** Jarret (2017)

### 2.4.1 The weeds

According to Jarrett (2017), personal influence and informal networks rule. I call it “the weeds” because it’s a dynamic that grows naturally, without any maintenance. It can be a good thing. For example, at one not-for-profit organization, the Secretary General was seriously underperforming, and sometimes acting unethically, leading staff to worry that they’d lose the support of key donors and government officials. As a result, an informal group regularly met to cover up his mishandling of situations. However, the problem became unsustainable and the same group, within the year, helped to ease him out to protect the organization’s reputation. Thus, the development of an informal coalition saved the organization and political activities, in this case, were a force for good.

According to his study, he of the view, “the weeds,” if left unchecked, can also form a dense mat through which nothing else can grow. In these circumstances, informal

networks can be a countervailing force to legitimate power and the long-term interests of the organization. For instance, they can thwart legitimate change efforts that are needed to put the organization on a sounder long-term financial footing (Jarret 2017).

To deal with the weeds, get involved enough to understand the informal networks at play. Identify the key brokers, as well as the gaps if you can fill the gaps or ally with the brokers, so that you can increase your own influence. Conversely, if the brokers are doing more harm than good, you can try to isolate them by developing a counter-narrative and strengthening connections with other networks (Jarret 2017).

#### **2.4.2 The Rock**

Power in “the rocks” rests on individual interactions and formal (or “hard”) sources of authority such as title, role, expertise, or access to resources. It might also include political capital that arises from membership of or strong ties to a high-status group such as the finance committee, a special task force, or the senior management team. I call this the “the rocks” because rocks can symbolize a stabilizing foundation that keeps an organization steady in times of crisis. But conversely, the sharp edges of hard power can wreck a plan.

Consider a mid-sized advertising agency that was implementing a new growth strategy. The Chairman used his formal power to stop the changes. He would constantly question decisions agreed with the management team, change his mind from one meeting to the next, stop agreed allocation of resources to new structures, and take people off the special task forces, without notification. Here we see the formal use of hard power to satisfy self-interest over the firm’s longer-term value.

Navigating the terrain here relies on drawing on formal sources of power, rather than fighting against them. Your best bet is to redirect the energy of a dysfunctional leader, either through reasoned argument or by appealing to their interests. For example, in the case of the advertising company, senior executives used the argument of “leaving a legacy” to get the Chairman to see how he was undermining his own and company’s long term interests. In fact, it was this sort of political behaviour and misuse of power that inspired Max Weber, a sociologist and early organizational scholar, to write the classic book *Bureaucracy*, where he argued that bureaucracy was the most rational and best way to organize and co-ordinate modern corporations. This leads us to take the high ground.

### **2.4.3 The High Ground**

The high ground combines formal authority with organizational systems. According to him, this term is used to describe the rules, structures, policy guidelines, and procedures that form the basis of political activities. The benefits of these rules and procedures are they provide a check against the whims of individual level, charismatic or autocratic individuals. Thus, the ‘high ground’ provides guide rails for the rocks. It’s a functional political process that uses structures of control systems, incentives, and sanctions that keep the organization in compliance. However, as many executives know, rules and procedures can also lead to the company becoming overly bureaucratic, where rules are used as a political device to challenge interests not aligned with the bureaucrats, or to prevent innovation and change.

If you find yourself stranded on the high ground, take a lesson from one company that used feedback from clients, customers, and end-users to highlight difficulties and make the case that the current structure was constraining the organization. Since organizations



where the high ground is a problem tend to be risk-averse, you can also try emphasizing that not changing can be even riskier than trying something new.

You can also argue that a separate group or task force needs to be set up to examine an issue or bridge silos. It creates a working space outside of the mainstream structures, norms, and habitual routines of the organization, providing an alternate source of power. Such groups can also revitalize innovation and change.

For instance, a public agency was having problems collecting revenues because the structures were slow and had to follow formalized steps to stop potential fraud. It meant that millions of tax revenues were not collected at the end of the year. Senior leaders decided to set up a dedicated task force outside of the formal organizational structure to solve the problem. After the first year, they had reduced the problem by over 50% and reached an 95% recovery rate by the second year. The organization then changed its official processes to match these improved methods. Other well-known examples of similar methods include the changes at Nissan, pilot projects at Asda, and companies opening up Innovation Labs in Palo Alto to remove the barriers of bureaucracy.

#### **2.4.4 The Woods**

In addition to their formal processes and guidelines, organizations also have implicit norms, hidden assumptions, and unspoken routines and that's where we get into "the woods." The woods can provide cover and safety for people in your organization; or they can be a bewildering place where good ideas and necessary changes get lost. Thus, here it is important to understand the woods from the trees as you can miss the former if you focus on the symptoms rather than the hidden barriers to strategy execution.

Strong implicit norms can define what is even discussable. In some organizations, for example, displays of emotion may be seen as socially undesirable, and so the organization finds ways to marginalize, ignore, or reframe any emotions that are shown. In other organizations, the display of certain emotions is essentially mandatory think of the smiling flight attendant.

Some organizations get lost in their woods. They focus on the presenting issue rather than the unspoken ecosystem of habits and practices that remain unseen. The challenge here is to make the implicit explicit. Ask the stupid question, bringing implicit organizational routines and behaviours to the surface. Ask clients, recent hires, or temporary contractors about their observations and experience of how the company works; a fresh pair eyes will often identify things that incumbents are blind to seeing. Get benchmark information from surveys and specialist experts. Once the implicit assumptions are out in the open, ask your team to reflect on whether they're helping your company or hindering it.

For example, consulting to a newly merged, international telecoms company, we conducted a simple exercise using the culture web framework to help each of the newly merged entities to describe their own cultural norms and those of the other parties. It quickly generated truths and myths that could be discussed and used to iron out blockages in them rolling out their distribution and cable network the key to capturing subscribers and business operational success.

Understanding the political terrain can help executives fight dysfunctional politics. But it's also important to recognize that each landscape also contains positive dynamics. In either case, try to understand the drivers rather than just judge the behaviours. Project leaders who do can avoid the hidden traps of political dynamics, defend themselves

against the dark side of politics, and use what they know to support wider organizational goals will find it easier and get more skilled engaging in positive political behaviours at all levels of the organization

## **2.5 Coping with Organizational Politics**

To keep organizational politics within reasonable bound, studies of Macgregor-Serven (2002) had suggested six measures in the followings; screen out exceedingly any political individuals at hiring time; create an open-book management system; make sure every employee knows how the business works and has a personal line of sight to key results with corresponding measurable objectives for individual accountability; have non-financial people interpret periodic financial and accounting statements for all employees; establish formal conflict resolution and grievance processes; and, publicly recognize and reward people who get real results without political games.

Although necessary, organizational politics can hurt an organization and its members when carried to excess. Too much politicking can result in lower morale, higher turnover, and wasted time and effort, thereby lowering performance. To avoid these negative consequences, leaders should combat political behaviour when it is excessive and dysfunctional. Some steps have been identified by Culbert and McDonough, 1985; Dubrin, 2001, and Pettigrew (2003) that can help accomplish this follow.

1. To control politics, organizational leaders must be aware of its causes and techniques. For example, during a downsizing, the CEO can be on the alert for instances of back stabbing and transparent attempts to please him or her.
2. Open communication also can constrain the impact of political behaviour. For instance, open communication can let everyone know the basis for allocating resources, thus reducing the amount of political behaviour. When

communication is open, it also makes it more difficult for some people to control information and pass along gossip as a political weapon.

3. Avoiding favouritism is a potent way of minimizing politics within a work group. If group members believe that getting the boss to like them is much less important than good job performance in obtaining rewards, they will try to impress the boss through task-related activities.
4. Setting good examples at the top of the organization can help reduce the frequency and intensity of organizational politics. When leaders are non-political in their actions, they demonstrate in subtle ways that political behaviour is not welcome. It may be helpful for the leader to announce during a staff meeting that devious political behaviour is undesirable and unprofessional.
5. Another way of reducing the extent of political behaviour is for individuals and the organization to have goal congruence, i.e., share the same goals, with thorough understanding of what they mean. If political behaviour will interfere with the company and individuals achieving their goals, workers with goal congruence are less likely to play office politics excessively.
6. Politics can sometimes be constrained by a threat to discuss questionable information in a public forum. People who practice devious politics usually want to operate secretly and privately. They are willing to drop hints and innuendoes and make direct derogatory comments about someone else, provided they will not be identified as the source. An effective way of stopping the discrediting of others is to offer to discuss the topic publicly.

## 2.6 The Concept of Organisational Culture

According to Slater, Olson and Finnegan (2011), organizational culture is the pattern of basic assumptions, which groups of individuals learn as they solve challenges, through the help of internal integration and external adaptation that has worked well to consider permanent. However, organizational culture should well teach to new members of organizations as the right way to think, perceive, and behave. Accordingly, organizational culture develops over time.

According to Schein (2011) culture in organisation is “a pattern of basic assumptions invented, discovered, or developed by organisational members as they learn to cope with problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems”. This description highlights that organisational culture is created assumptions, which are accepted as a way of doing things and are passed on to new members of an organisation. It is the life of an organization, shaped by visible materials, intangible customs, conscious and unconscious processes and phenomena which together determine the philosophy, ideology, values, problem solving approaches and behavioural patterns of employees (Lillis & Tian 2010).

For new employees this would mean adaptive behaviour within the organisation that leads to new belief systems. This new and adaptive behaviour instilled through organisational values and beliefs are associated with rituals, myths and symbols to reinforce the core assumptions of organisational culture (Hofstede, 1991).

According to Slater et al. (2011), the success of a business performance is very dependent on the organizational culture; apart from this culture is also a competitive

advantage when it is able to work for the company's benefit. The organizational culture is very complex as the culture and it should not be something that can easily take over by other competitors; this enables culture to be viewed as an invisible asset if used correctly.

## **2.7 Organisational Culture Model**

Harrison (1993) groups the model into four. These include power oriented culture, role oriented culture, achievement oriented culture and support oriented culture. The model intends to be descriptive rather than evaluative.

### **2.7.1 Power culture dimension**

Power-oriented culture is a dimension of the organisational culture model. In any given organisation there is a need to use power in order to exercise control and influence behaviour. Harrison and Stokes (1992) define power-oriented culture as organisational culture that is based on inequality of access to resources. Brown (1998) states that a power culture has a single source of power from which rays of influence spread throughout the organisation. This means that power is centralised and organisational members are connected to the centre by functional and specialist strings (Harrison, 1993).

This type of organisational culture can also be regarded as being rule oriented in the sense that it focuses on respect of authority, rationality in procedures, division of work and normalisation (Manetje, 2005). The centre is formal authority and holds the power to control and influence activities within the organisation. In this type of organisational culture, a dominant head sits in the centre surrounded by intimates and subordinates who are the dependants (Harrison, 1993). In this regard a personal, informal and power management style becomes valued. Normally the organisational

structure is a web structure that is hierarchical in nature (Brown, 1998). The web structure implies that the whole structural system connects to the central power while being hierarchical in nature means power is shared from top to bottom.

According to Brown (1998) stated that the greatest strength of power cultures is their ability to react quickly, but their success largely depends on the abilities of the person or people at the centre. In other words, power-oriented organisations are able to exploit opportunities and react quickly to threats or danger



Some of the advantages of this model is that:

- Unifies individual effort behind the vision of the leader.
- Can move quickly in the market and make rapid internal changes.
- Leverages the knowledge, wisdom and talent of the leader.
- Can provide direction and certainty; reduce conflict and confusion in times of emergency.

Some of the disadvantage of the power dimension model are:

- People give the boss's wishes the highest priority, even when it interferes with important work. People are afraid to give bad news to the boss.
- People do not question the leaders even when they are seen to be wrong.
- People with power break rules with impunity and take special privileges.
- Information is a source of personal power and is restricted to friends and allies.
- People are promoted by being loyal to those in power even when they are not especially competent.

### **2.7.2 Role culture dimension**

Harrison and Stokes (1992) define role-oriented culture as “substituting a system of structures and procedures for the naked power of the leader”. This type of culture focuses mainly on job description and specialisation. In other words, work is controlled by procedures and rules that spell out the job description, which is more important than the person who fills the position (Harrison, 1993).

Brown (1998) states that the strength of a role culture lies in its functions or specialities (finance, purchasing, production and so forth) which can be thought of as



a series of pillars which are co-ordinated and controlled by a small group of senior executives (the pediment). This implies that the foundation and pillars of such an organisation are the formalised and centralised functions; which are controlled by role and communication procedures (Manetje,2005). Such an organisation is often stereotyped as bureaucratic because of its mechanistic procedures.

Organisations with this type of culture is characterised by a set of roles or job boxes joined together in a logical fashion (Harrison, 1993). These roles or job descriptions are coordinated at the top by a narrow band of senior management. The common link between the power-oriented and the role oriented organisational cultures is that they depend on the use of external rewards and punishments to motivate organisational members (Harrison & Stokes, 1992).

Role clarification is crucial in an organisation with a role culture. The emphasis of role clarification is based on technical expertise and specialisation more than product innovation or product cost (Harrison, 1993). This presents a limitation to an organisation with a role-oriented culture. Brown (1998) is of the view that role cultures are likely to be most successful in stable and predictable environments over which the organisation is able to exert some control or where product life spans are long. Therefore, an organisation with this type of culture can find it difficult to survive in an environment that requires the ability to be adaptive and responsive to dynamic changes.

Advantages of these dimension include:

- Well-designed structures and systems make room for efficient operations and reduce the time for learning jobs.

- Clear lines of authority and responsibility reduce conflict, turf battles, confusion and indecision.
- Clear, fair rules and guidelines protect individuals from exploitation and abusive use of power.
- Having good systems, procedures and organisational memory prevents having to "reinvent the wheel".
- Structure, routine and predictability provide security and reduce stress.

Disadvantages of this dimension include:

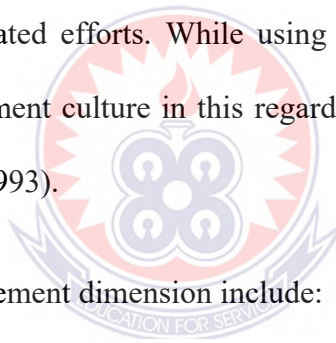
- People follow the rules even when these rules get in the way of doing the work.
- It is considered a sin to exceed one's authority or deviate from accepted procedures.
- It is more important to avoid deviating from the norm than it is to do the right thing.
- Jobs are so tightly defined that there is little room to contribute one's unique talents and abilities.
- People are treated as interchangeable parts of a machine rather than as individual human beings.
- It is difficult to get approval for changes that people give up on making needed improvements.

### **2.7.3 Achievement culture dimension**

Harrison and Stokes (1992, p 17) define achievement-oriented culture as “the aligned culture which lines people up behind a common vision or purpose”. Achievement culture is often referred to as task culture, which entails that organisational member

focus on realising the set purpose and goals of the organisation. According to Brown (1998) the strength of achievement culture is that in those environments where the market is competitive, product life spans are short and constant innovation is a necessity, this culture can be highly successful. This is due to functions and activities that are team structured and evaluated in terms of their contribution to organisational goals.

Teams of talented people and resources are brought together to focus only on specific projects or tasks. Manetje,(2005) is of the view that the advantage of team, rather than individual, jobs is “creating the high-performance, high flexibility, and high-commitment organisation”. This is due to the fact that teams generate positive synergy through coordinated efforts. While using teams is an advantage, the main weakness of the achievement culture in this regard is that it overshadows individual performance (Harrison, 1993).



Advantages of the achievement dimension include:

- Unity of effort toward mutually valued goals.
- Reduced need for controls on individuals.
- High internal motivation.
- Maximum utilization of members' talents.
- High self-esteem for organisational members.
- Rapid learning and problem solving.
- Rapid adaptation to change.

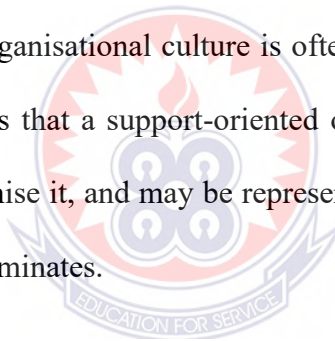
Disadvantage of this dimension include:

- People believe so much in what they are doing that the end comes to justify the means.

- People become intolerant of personal needs, and they sacrifice family, social life and health for work.
- The group members talk only to themselves and become isolated from others and from reality.
- The group only cooperates internally, which others see as arrogant and competitive.
- Because dissent and criticism are stifled, the group has difficulty correcting its own errors.
- The commitment to excellence at any cost leads to waste and inefficiency

#### **2.7.4 Support culture dimension**

Thus, support-oriented organisational culture is often referred to as a person-oriented culture. Brown (19) states that a support-oriented organisation “exists solely for the individuals who compromise it, and may be represented diagrammatically as a cluster in which no individual dominates.”



The organisational structure is a benevolent cluster structure with minimal hierarchy, which implies less power control of employees (Harrison, 1993). Authority is assigned on the basis of task competence; this is similar to the role-oriented culture organisation. Power sharing and the influence of power can only be exercised where there is a need for expert or task competence (Brown, 1998). As a result, individuals influence each other through example and helpfulness.

Advantages of this dimension include:

- Good internal communication and integration.
- High levels of commitment to decision.
- Sophisticated process skills manage people issues well.

- High levels of cooperative, effective group work.
- Good at sensing environment. Providing caring, responsive service.
- High trust between individuals and the organisation.
- Nurturing members for good health.
- Good balance for achievement culture.

Some of the disadvantage of this dimension include:

- People may focus on relationships and neglect the work.
- Out of kindness difficult personnel decisions may be avoided.
- When consensus cannot be reached the group may become indecisive and lose direction.
- Disagreement may be avoided, there is surface harmony and covert conflict
- Changes may take a long time because of the need to get everyone on board  
People are rewarded in the same way although they might not have contributed in the same way.
- This could create frustrations.

## 2.8 Types of Organizational Culture and their Characteristics

**Table 2.1: Types of organizational culture and their characteristics**

| STRUCTURE       | CLAN CULTURE  | ADHOCRACY CULTURE  |
|-----------------|---|--|
| <b>Stable</b>   | Values cohesion, participation, communication, mentorship, tight social networks, nurturing, recognition                | Values innovation, adaptability, growth, dynamism, entrepreneurship, risk-taking, cutting edge services                      |
| <b>Flexible</b> | <b>HIERARCHICAL CULTURE</b><br>Favours structure, stability, control, coordination, efficiency, rules, formal processes | <b>MARKET CULTURE</b><br>Values competition, achievement, job accomplishment, results-oriented, customer/client satisfaction |

**Source: Cameron and Quinn (1999)**

### **2.8.1 The clan culture**

According to Heinz (2019), the primary focus of the clan culture is Mentorship and teamwork. The Clan culture can be defined as a family-type organization so that this kind of organizations promotes teamwork and participation in group processes (Beytekdin, Yalçinkaya, Doğan & Karakoç, 2010). Employees are friendly, loyal and trust each other. There is teamwork, involvement, consensus and high morale. Leaders are mentors, team builders and facilitators of employee growth. High commitment, open communication and employee development drives service excellence (Pushnykh & Chemeris, 2006). Employees are supported to achieve shared goals tailored to the needs of students and clients. The model spawns' strong emotional attachment to organisational norms (Rasaq, Adaramaja and Kayode (2016). Kate (2019) identifies some benefits of the clan cultures. It boasts high rates of employee engagement, and happy employees make for happy customers. Because of its highly adaptable environment, there's a great possibility for market growth within a clan culture.

Kate (2019) highlights some drawback to the clan culture as, family-style corporate culture is difficult to maintain as the company grows. Plus, with a horizontal leadership structure, day-to-day operations can seem cluttered and lacking direction.

### **2.8.2 Adhocracy culture**

Kate (2019) identified risk-taking and innovation as the primary focus for adhocracy culture. Adhocracy culture is an organizational culture which gives a lot more opportunity for individuals to develop in their own way, as long as they are consistent with the organization goals. Within an adhocracy, power flows from individual to individual or from task team to task team depending on what problem is being

addressed at the time (Beytekdñ, Yalçinkaya, Dođan & Karakoç, 2010). Creativity, innovation, experimentation, individual initiatives and risk-taking are encouraged. Leaders encourage independent thinking, freedom, dynamism, entrepreneurship and change. Employees are inspired by anticipating needs, creating new standards and solutions and by continuous improvement of systems and processes (Pushnykh & Chemeris, 2006).

Depending on your industry, it may be hard to develop an authentic adhocracy culture that includes a high-risk business strategy. However, implementing strategy and brainstorming sessions provides employees with the opportunity to share big ideas that can help to propel the company further. Rewarding successful ideas encourages teams to think outside of the box, too (Heinz, 2019)

### **2.8.3 Market culture**

Market culture is type of culture which stresses on the effectiveness on goal achieving. This organization is primarily concerned with external environment, as it focuses on transactions with such externalities as suppliers, customers, contractors, licensees, unions, regulators, etc. The market operates primarily through monetary exchange, as competitiveness and productivity in these organizations (Beytekdñ et al., 2010). This culture emphasizes results, meritocracy, doing things best, work and goal accomplishment. Competition and rivalry are encouraged. Leaders set high expectations and the spirit of winning keeps members together. Market penetration and increase in market share is priority. Success is measured by profitability, improved production capacity and top performance to meet customer needs (Pushnykh & Chemeris, 2006).

To create this culture in every firm, because every aspect of a market culture is tied to the company's bottom line, companies must start by evaluating each position within your organization. Calculate the ROI of every role and ascribe reasonable benchmarks for production. Consider rewarding top performers to encourage similar work.

#### **2.8.4 Hierarchical culture**

Hierarchical culture can be simply identified through the domination of rule, system and procedure. Hierarchy culture emphasizes an environment that is relatively stable, where tasks and functions can be integrated and coordinated, uniformity in products and services can be maintained, and workers and jobs are under control (Schein, 2011). Hierarchy type act as functionally best when the duty to be done is well perceived and when duration is not a vital element (Beytekdin et al., 2010). There is well-defined, formal and structured work environment characterized by bureaucracy, order, authority, compliance to norms of accuracy, efficiency and doing things right. Reward is based on loyalty to organizational rules and alliance with influential top management groups. In the hierarchical culture, all role players in the university conform to a central authority without tolerance for diversity. This culture stifles commitment to service excellence Pushnykh & Chemeris, 2006).

#### **2.9 Functions of Organisational Culture**

The main function of organisational culture is to define the way of doing things in order to give meaning to organisational life (Arnold, 2005). Making meaning is an issue of organisational culture, because organisational members need to benefit from the lessons of previous members. As a result, organisational members are able to profit from whatever trials and errors regarding knowledge others have been able to accumulate (Johnson, 1990). Organisational culture also determines organisational



behaviour, by identifying principal goals; work methods; how members should interact and address each other; and how to conduct personal relationships (Harrison, 1993). Brown (1998) states the following functions of organisational culture:

- Conflict reduction. A common culture promotes consistency of perception, problem definition, evaluation of issues and opinions, and preferences for action.
- Coordination and control. Largely because culture promotes consistency of outlook it also facilitates organisational processes of coordination and control.
- Reduction of uncertainty. Adopting of the cultural mind frame is an anxiety reducing device which simplifies the world of work, makes choices easier and rational action seem possible.
- Motivation. An appropriate and cohesive culture can offer employees a focus of identification and loyalty, foster beliefs and values that encourage employees to perform.
- Competitive advantage. Strong culture improves the organisation's chances of being successful in the marketplace.

In addition to the above functions, Manetje (2005) also mention the following as functions of organisational culture:

- It has a boundary-defining role, that is, it creates distinctions between one organisation and the other organisations.
- It conveys a sense of identity to organisational members.
- It facilitates commitment to something larger than individual self-interests.
- It enhances social system stability as the social glue that helps to bind the organisation by providing appropriate standards for what employees should say and do.

- It serves as a meaningful control mechanism that guides or shapes the attitudes and behaviours of employees.

These functions of organisational culture suggest that an organisation cannot operate without a culture, because it assists the organisation to achieve its goals. In general terms, organisational culture gives organisational members direction towards achieving organisational goals (Hampden-Turner, 1990).

## **2.10 The Concept of Ethics**

According to Omisore and Adeleke (2015), work ethics can simply be referred to as a set of principles relating to morals, especially as they apply to human conduct. In specific terms, work ethics is about what is morally correct, honourable and acceptable to the larger majority of the people of an organization, society or group. It is also the rules of conduct that have become a set of norms of the society, group or organization. Ethics deal with what is right and wrong as well as moral duty and obligation. Work ethics can be described as a set of values, which include the right attitude, correct behaviour, respect for others and effective communication in the workplace.

Essentially, work ethics regulate what an employee would do in different situations in the organization. The habit of following good work ethics is intrinsic, i.e., it comes from within. The work ethics an individual displays come from his/her values. Our values are dependent on our environment, experiences and life-long influences. These influences include our parents, teachers, friends, peers, competitors, etc, anyone or anything that has helped to shape or form our opinion of the world. Workers exhibiting good work ethics are considered eligible for higher positions and more responsibilities. They know that their actions have a direct impact on other people at

work. This conscientiousness persuades them to cultivate a responsible outlook to every action they take. These people do not need prodding or constant supervision. They are self-motivated and valuable to their organizations. These workers are highly reliable and are appreciated by their superiors for what they bring to the work place.

Ethics is about behaviour and about ways of thinking, especially in situations where our choice can affect the dignity and wellbeing of others. Because ethical behaviour implies free choice, it cannot be captured in rule. The standard of reference for what is ethical has to exist “outside human definition” and therefore cannot be open to human negotiation. Although, the terms morality and ethics are often used interchangeably, however, they could be distinguished. By morality, we mean the tradition of laws, rules and practices that exists in every society and that seeks to describe, persuade and require certain forms of behaviour while proscribing others. On the other hand, by ethics we mean the disciplined reflection on morality that constitutes the branch of philosophy that studies moral questions. Thus, reflection on the rightness or wrongness of a particular act, law or rule is an example of doing ethics. Ethics is a discipline dealing with the study of what is good and bad, right and wrong and with moral duty and obligation.

Consequently, Ethical Issues are the set of customary principles and practices embodying some sort of a normative code (of behaviour, values) to adhere to them differently (Ajayi & Adeniji, 2009). Ethics being discipline dealing with what is good and bad, right or wrong. Omoregbe (1990) noted that, ethics is concerned with the studies of human behaviour in relationship to others on the basis of rightness and wrongness. Velasquez and Velasquez (2002) also noted that ethics are the principles of conduct governing behaviour of individuals and groups. They relate to accepted

standards in terms of personal and social welfare. While Ogundele, Hassah and Okafor (2009) noted that discipline and indiscipline are demission of ethical behaviour. Disciplined behaviour is a sine qua non for individuals, small group, organization and national health and survival. Discipline in a broad sense means orderliness the opposite of confusion. It is a fundamental requirement for every segment of the society. Discipline and indiscipline can directly be linked with ethics. Ethics or work ethics is designed, not only to ensure performance, but also to neutralize environmental influence, partisanship, favouritism and other primordial factors that could inhibit the performance of public servants. With this, it is saliently discovered that there is correlation between ethics and performance. In every organisation, performance is easily attainable where work ethics is strictly adhered to. Unethical practices negatively affect the performance (Arowolo, 2012). Ethics is essentially normative, that is, it prescribes human behaviour as obligatory, prohibited, or permissible. There is considerable overlap between ethics and law, and ethics and etiquette. Much of the law embodies ethical principles: respect for basic rights to life, property, and the right of citizens to participate in political life. It is usually unethical to break the law. A breach of etiquette can also be unethical if it is done intentionally to offend someone, simply for one's own amusement (Perry, 2000). Moral principles state how human beings ought to treat one another; moral claims cannot be proved or disproved by empirical means alone.

Arowolo (2012) insists that character is the focus of study and practice in administrative ethics, and the most critical problem is the scarcity of men and women of good character in positions of leadership- whether public, private, educational, religious, etc. For too long, the management orthodoxy has taken as axiomatic the proposition that good systems will produce good people. However, it is clear that a

just society depends more on the moral trustworthiness of its citizens and leaders than upon structures and systems. Costly ethical failures of organisational leaders have caused irreparable damage.

Ethics concerns itself with right and wrong; good and bad; duty and obligation and moral and responsibility. Certain behaviour or actions are generally considered as morally wrong and ought not to be done by anybody in the society (Oluya, 1998, 106). Oluya describes such forms of behaviour as: armed robbery, murder, dishonesty, corruption, etc. Equally, he described some behaviour as morally good: honesty, kindness, respect for life, self-discipline, patriotism, etc. The questions that readily come to one's mind are: why do we consider certain actions as good and others as bad? What do we even mean when we say certain action is bad? Is it appropriate for an individual to consider some actions as bad and some as good judging by himself? Is it true that there is nothing good or bad but thinking makes it so? Or are certain things good or bad irrespective of our thinking? What are the fundamental principles of morality and how do we know them? These and similar questions are what ethics deals with. What then is Ethics? Ethics, according to Oluya, (1998) is the science of morality which examines the nature of moral values and judgement of human conduct. He submits further that ethics is normative science that studies the norms of human behaviour. Generally, ethics is a system of moral principles overrules of behaviour that controls, influences or regulates a person's behaviour. Ethics, in essence, does not concern itself with the description of the ways things are but the way things ought to be. It deals with norms or standard of human behaviour. The aim of ethics is not to describe the way people do behave in practice, but state the way people ought to behave. It is the norms of conduct to which human actions ought to conform. Work ethics can simply be referred to as a set of principles

relating to morals, especially as they apply to human conduct. In specific terms, work ethics is about what is morally correct, honourable and acceptable to the larger majority of the people of an organization, society or group. It is also the rules of conduct that have become a set of norms of the society, group or organization. Ethics deal with what is right and wrong as well as moral duty and obligation. Work ethics can be described as a set of values, which include the right attitude, correct behaviour, respect for others and effective communication in the workplace. Essentially, work ethics regulate what an employee would do in different situations in the organization. The habit of following good work ethics is intrinsic, i.e. it comes from within. The work ethics an individual displays come from his/her values. Our values are dependent on our environment, experiences and life-long influences. These influences include our parents, teachers, friends, peers, competitors, etc., anyone or anything that has helped to shape or form our opinion of the world. Workers exhibiting good work ethics are considered eligible for higher positions and more responsibilities. They know that their actions have a direct impact on other people at work. This conscientiousness persuades them to cultivate a responsible outlook to every action they take. These people do not need prodding or constant supervision. They are self-motivated and valuable to their organizations. These workers are highly reliable and are appreciated by their superiors for what they bring to the work place. Truly ethics is not all about definition because it does not, set down the code of ethics nor establish how the code of ethics might be prepared. However, Bowen et al. (2007) submitted that ethics is not just about recognizing a whether an objective is good but encompasses a careful thought in making viable choice or identifying if the choice is right or wrong. Within the construction industry context RICS (2000) posited ethics is a way of 'giving ones best to ensure that clients' interests are properly cared for, but

in doing so the wider public interest is also recognized and respected. Mansfield (2008) submitted further that a token of a major profession is in its ability to accept the responsibility to act in the public interest which requires an overt commitment by its attachment to subdue personal advancement to this responsibility.

Ethics is defined in the Oxford English Dictionary as the science of moral; moral principles or code. Whereas Morals are ‘concerned with goodness or badness of human character or behaviour’, or ‘with the distinction between right and wrong’, or ‘concerned with accepted rules and standards of human behaviour’ (Allen, 1990). Robinson, Dixon, Preece and Moodley (2007) viewed ethics as a philosophical study of what is right or wrong in human conduct and what rules or principles should govern it. Mansfield (2008) considered ethics to be the explicit philosophical reflection on moral beliefs and practices. Prisms Business Media (2006) opined that ethics is a topic of extreme importance to most professionals in the industry but at the same time the least focused upon. The RICS (2000) was of the opinion that many organizations and writers have attempted to define ethics in their own context whether business, organizational, political, personal and professional. This assertion was corroborated by Wasserman (2000) that argued ethic comprises a study of thought, language, reasoning, processes and judgment that informs the choices people make in their daily lives that affect their own well-being and that of others.

Ethics, according to Johnson (2021) are moral standards or principles of conduct used to govern the behaviours of an individual or a group of individuals. He noted that ethics are concerned with day to day behaviour and with questions relating to what is right or wrong or with moral duties at the workplace. Moral principles may be viewed either as the standard of conduct that individuals have constructed for themselves or

as the body of obligations and duties that a particular society / organization requires of its members. For a long time meaning of the sensitive ethical issues was left to subjective interpretation in Lithuania. Only recently the explanation of important terms such as abuse of office, corrupted activities, and conflict of interests appeared in Lithuanian legislation. Researchers relate abuse of office to illegal activity, misuse of official internal or confidential information, misuse of material resources, rules breaking, incompetence and misuse of power. Abuse of office is one of features of administrative corruption (Van Wart and Denhardt, 2001; Caiden, 2001).

There are five basic assumptions which underpin the understanding of ethics. These include:

- Professional Ethics is a process. Ethics are dynamic and cannot be learnt once. It is a way of reviewing behaviour against constantly changing standards. What may be ethical today, or in a particular society may be viewed differently by others or at another time.
- Human behaviour is caused. There is always a motive for all unethical or ethical human behaviour. For example, for financial gain, power and compassion
- Actions have consequences. There is cause and effect consequence. It can also be likened to Newton's Third Law of Physics that every force has an equal and opposite reaction.
- What is ethical depends on the individual's point of view. This is influenced by a variety of factors including published codes and statements
- Good ethical business practice rests on mutual vulnerability. We are each susceptible to the actions of others, and the way we are treated depends on how we treat others. Respect is not a right; it must be earned.



Therefore, the need for professional ethics is based on the vulnerability of others. The client for example must be protected from exploitation in a situation in which they are unable to protect themselves because they lack the relevant knowledge to do so.

## **2.11 The Hidden costs of unethical behaviour**

According to Simpson (2007), too many people believe that being profitable requires being unethical, at least sometimes. This proves to be untrue in the long run. In fact, the evidence is clear that “good ethics is good business” and that “bad ethics is bad business.” Even if one is not 72 convinced that “good ethics is good business,” then it only makes sense to look at the other side of the same coin that “bad ethics is bad business.” (Simpson, 2007).

### **2.11.1 Unethical behaviour harms sales**

Unethical practices affect organisations in a number of ways. According to Roman and Ruiz (2005), consumers tend to turn away from products and services of organisations with unethical reputations. Given the simple fact that media feeds us with information of unethical behaviour in our environment revealing the unethical social issues that demand our attention. Therefore, consumers, investors often shun away from organisation with a bad unethical record. Henceforth, affecting sales of such entities. Through research it has been shown that ethically responsible organisations have enjoyed business success through customer loyalty. Important to note is that prospective customers are drawn to organisations that deliver products and services in an ethically responsible manner. Because of this, several apparel (clothing manufactures) manufacturers have gone out of their way to publicise that their products are not being made in sweatshops or by using child labour. Given that some

companies have lost business as a result of such claims, it's easy to understand how emphasising an ethical stand can help companies attract and retain customers.

### **2.11.2 Unethical behaviour worsens retention and recruiting**

It has been established that companies with reputations for treating people well and being good citizens of the world are highly sought as employers. Accordingly, Fombrun, Van Riel, and Van Riel (2004). notes that, 'we are known by the company we keep,' and this appears to apply to the companies for which we work as well as the company we keep socially. After all, nobody wants to be associated with a company that has a questionable moral reputation because this cannot help but reflect negatively on us as individuals. And, given that it is often difficult to attract and retain the best employees, having a reputation as an ethical citizen of the world is bound to give a company a strong competitive advantage (Fombrun, Van Riel, & Van Riel 2004). Therefore, the challenge with an unethical organisation is that there is increased labour turnover. The hidden cost of such a scenario is that such an organisation loses important skills and waste time training new employees.

### **2.11.3 Unethical behaviour worsens the risks from scandals**

Spencer (1983) argues that unethical behaviour can cause civil and criminal charges, with the likelihood of bad publicity and large awards. This has a negative impetus on organisation as millions and/or billions can be lost through court cases. In addition, an indelible stain often left on an organisation. Once the public views a company as corrupt, the taint can be permanent. Furthermore, Spencer (1983) notes that, it takes years to build a good business reputation, but one false move can destroy it overnight. Paramount to take note of is that an ethics program helps identify and halt misconduct

early. It can also help prevent future court costs, since today's ethical guideline is often tomorrow's legal requirement.

#### **2.11.4 Unethical behaviour worsens productivity**

According to Frazier (2003), nobody should have any doubts of the linkages between poor ethics in the workplace and low productivity. When workers don't trust each other and their supervisors, then morale is low, stress is high and output is undermined." Unethical climate has a pervasive effect on employees via levels of job satisfaction and low performance. In addition, unethical behaviour worsens employee absenteeism thereby affecting organisation's productivity. Absenteeism is usually higher among organisations with poor or fair morale than those with good or very good morale. Henceforth, it is costlier on organisations. The paradox arises when unethical behaviour worsens "presentism," that is, workers showing up when ill, thus infecting others, performing ineffectively and reducing productivity

#### **2.11.5 Unethical behaviour worsens sabotaging behaviour**

The Online Ethics Centre for Engineering and Science at Case Western Reserve University notes how unethical behaviour worsens sabotaging behaviour:

- Under delivering on commitments because another person's priorities don't matter to you.
- Overpromising to win a customer, gain support for a pet project or avoid a confrontation.
- Turf-guarding: Wasting time and energy to maintain control in your bailiwick.
- Goal lowering: Aiming for adequacy, because you fear the consequences of failure more than you value the rewards of success.

- Budget twisting, such as padding the budget in anticipation of cuts or going on end-of-the-year spending sprees to match estimates to actuals.
- Harp-pencilling: Fudging reported results to stay competitive for pay and promotions.
- Fact hiding: For instance, allowing the boss to fail by withholding information and not pointing out risks, or not telling people you need more time or don't fully understand.
- Detail skipping: Paying insufficient attention to the small things.
- Praise pinching: Inadequately acknowledging the good work of others.
- Credit hogging: Taking credit for others' work, as when an individual claims responsibility for a group report.
- Blame buffering: Wasting time and energy, as by writing endless memos, to distance yourself from potential bad decisions.
- Scapegoating: Faulting others for your own bad decisions or poor results.

#### **2.11.6 Unethical behaviour worsens communication**

Unethical conduct is one form of communication barrier within an organisation. It can therefore, reduce the incidence of reporting misconduct. The relationship between superior and subordinate is often based on the way each treats the other and this reciprocal behaviour is interpreted. As superior and subordinate interact, the feelings that arise either limit or encourage the content and frequency of their communications, and the method of their communication (Smit & Cronje, 2002). Therefore, trust, honesty and objectivity are very critical in the communication process. However, environment clouded by lack of trust, dishonesty and incompetence acts as barrier to effective communication, consequently jeopardising the progress of an organisation which ends up affecting performance of the firm.

## 2.12 Curbing Unethical Behaviours

Strategies to reduce the unethical behaviours include establishment of codes of business conduct and whistle-blowing mechanism and a commitment by management to annual business ethics training for employees. The US Federal Sentencing Guidelines (2012) require organisations to take seven steps to illustrate a commitment to prevent wrongdoing. These when applied in organizations will help the firm achieve performance as required. These seven are:

- Establish ethics and compliance standards and procedures develop and implement a code of ethics/code of conduct.
- Assign high-level personnel to oversee compliance.
- Exercise due care in delegating discretionary authority.
- Implement ethics training programmes and ethics communication channels regarding the code of ethics and compliance procedures for all in the company.
- Enforce the code consistently (appropriate and consistent discipline).
- Monitor, audit and provide safe reporting systems/mechanisms.
- Respond to offences or deviations from the code in a manner that tends to prevent recurrence

## 2.13 What is Organizational Performance

Organisation performance has been the most important issues for every organisation be it profit or non-profit one. It has been very important for managers to know which factors influence an organisation's performance in order for them to take appropriate steps to initiate them. However, defining, conceptualising and measuring performance have not been easy task. Researchers among themselves have different opinions and definitions of performance, which remains to be a contentious issue among

organisational researchers (Barney, 2008). This comprises the actual output or results of an organization as measured against its intended outputs (or goals and objectives). According to Richard (2009), organizational performance encompasses three specific areas of firm outcomes. These include financial performance (profits, return on assets, and return on investment), Product market performance (sales, market share) and Shareholder return (total shareholder return, economic value added). Generally, organization performance involves identifying outcomes that it wants to achieve, creating plans to achieve those outcomes, carrying out those plans, and determining whether the outcomes were achieving.

#### **2.14 Organizational Politics and Organizational Culture**

Tichy (2002) defines culture as a glue that holds an organization together. Jones, Phelps, and Bigley (2007) proposed a more elaborate definition of organizational culture. These authors described organizational culture as follows; culture is a property of the organization constituted by; its members' taken-for-granted beliefs regarding the nature of reality, called assumptions; a set of normative, moral, and functional guidelines or criteria for making decisions, called values; and the practices or ways of working together that follow from the aforementioned assumptions and values, called artefacts. Organizational culture reflects a sort of negotiated order that arises and evolves as members work together, expressing preferences, exhibiting more-or-less effective problem-solving styles, and managing, at least satisfactorily, external demands and internal needs for coordination and integration (Jones, Felps, & Bigley 2007). In effect, culture represents an aspect of the organizational environment that helps members make sense of their own and others' behaviour. Culture therefore is patterns of beliefs, values, norms and attitudes that a particular organization espouses and which govern organizational behaviour. It is simply the way of life for

the people of that organization (Armstrong 2007). Organizational culture represents the social glue that generates a “we” feeling thus counteracting processes of differentiations which are an unavoidable part of organizational life. Nzulwa (2009) posit that if organizational culture offers a shared system of meanings which is the basis for communications and mutual perception/understanding, significantly increase efficiency of the organization. Strong rich cultures are known to give modern organizations a competitive edge in adoption of change, imparting and building strong values, attitudes and commands towards work and performance. According to Du Plessis (2014), a good culture as one being able to guide employees to live comfortable lives, develop a sense of accomplishment, self-security, honesty, helpfulness, moderate ambition and wisdom. Rozazi (2006) studied the impact of organizational politics on culture and his results construe a negative correlation; organizations with intense politics tend to have a divided sense of purpose, distorted value sets, non-solid artefacts and bad norms (rules of the game) that are self-serving. The essence of organizational culture; as a social glue and oneness of purpose may not prevail under intense political environs where self-interests are the overriding principle as it is in organizational politics. Too intense organizational politics tend to result to non-functional organizational culture that derails positive organizational outcomes; learning, commitment, self-confidence, teamwork, work effectiveness and unity of purpose.

### **2.15 Organizational Politics and Organizational Performance**

Managers are endlessly challenged to achieve a workable balance between employees’ self-interests and organizational interests; when and if a balance is struck, the pursuit of self-interest should intertwine with that of organizational interest essentially making organizational politics a functional process for organizations.

Several questions arise from this presupposition, for instance, what are the real effects of organizational politics as a method of influence on organizational outcomes? How can management professionals adapt and adjust their behaviour to work with and use organizational politics for the common good of the organization? While it is probable that workplace policies and processes may have broad impacts outside of work, this paper will focus primarily on organizational outcomes.

As conceptualized by Lobel and Faught (2006), there are four basic approaches to measuring organizational outcomes. The first is the human cost approach as adopted by Konrad and Mangel (2006) focuses on the savings associated with reduced labour wastages arising from absenteeism, turnover and default performance. The second approach was outlined by Cohen (2005). According to him, the human investment approach attempts to document the financial benefits that are associated with employer support interventions such as motivation, morale building, servant leadership, retention strategies and growth. Thirdly; the stakeholders' approach as described by authors Zhang, Cao, Zhang, Liu, and Li (2020); considers the different benefits that are gained by employee, employer, shareholders, the publics and customers as indicated by attitudes, perception, reputation, stakeholders' satisfaction and organizational image. Lastly there is the strategy approach which assesses the extent to which work/life initiatives facilitates the firm to make progress on key business strategies.

## **2.16 Organizational Culture and Performance**

Fusch and Gillespie (2012) indicated that developing a positive workplace culture leads a performance improvement in the organization. Organizational culture is an important determinant factor for business performance (O'Reilly et al., 2014). Uddin



et al., (2013) confirmed the existence of a strong relationship between organizational culture and business performance. Nathaus and Childress (2013) also noted that an organizational culture does affect business performance positively or negatively. Innovations in businesses are blessed by organizational culture and this area has been recognized as a needed research scope (Dissanayake, Wasantha & Jinadasa, 2017).

Unger et al., (2014) found the existence of a positive relationship between corporate culture and financial performance. In another empirical research, Flamholtz and Randle (2012) found 46% of corporate earnings affect by organizational culture effectiveness. However, Wilderom, Van Den Berg and Wiersma,(2012) argued that the organizational culture might affect performance, where the change is a longer time interval showing the effects of culture on financial performance.

When business managers use organizational performance to express action, organizational performance is the ability to execute tasks in the organization by its members (Uddin et al., 2013). Managers may use action performance to measure with high, medium, or low scales. When managers use business performance to express an outcome, business performance is the output or results of an organization including productivity, profitability, and growth (Carter & Greer, 2013). The output may measure against its intended goals and objectives.

Wilderom, Van Den Berg and Wiersma, (2012) identified five factors to measure the impact of organizational culture on business performance. These factors include:

- a. employee empowerment
- b. external emphasis
- c. interdepartmental collaboration
- d. human resource orientation,

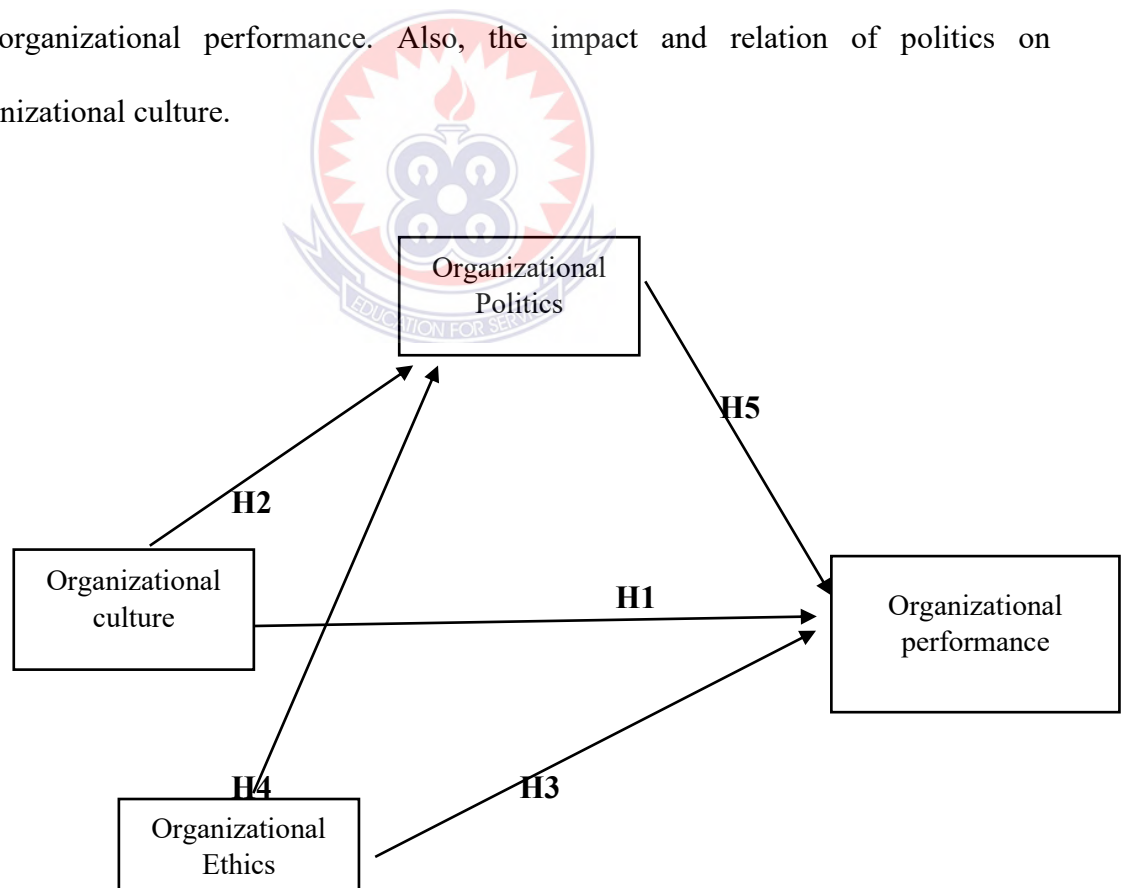
- e. the performance improvement tendency.

These factors are important to measure the impact of organizational culture on business performance (Unger, Hoke, Bailie, Nguyen., Bowring, Heumüller & McGehee, 2014).

Moran and Volkwein (2011) argue that while organizational culture and performance are related, culture is widely understood to be made up of a set of values and belief systems which simply give meaning to organizations rather than influence organizational performance (Kotter, 2012).

### 2.17 Conceptual frame work

This conceptual framework seeks to examine the impact of politics, culture and ethics on organizational performance. Also, the impact and relation of politics on organizational culture.



**Figure 2.2: Conceptual framework**

From the diagram, at H1, the study seeks to measure the significant relationship between Organizational politics and organizational culture. At H2, the researcher seeks to measure the significant relationship between Organizational politics and organizational culture. At H3, the study to measure the significant relationship between Organizational culture and organizational performance. At H4, the study seeks to measure the significant relationship between organizational ethics and organizational performance and at H5, the study seeks to measure to significant relationship between organizational politics and organizational ethics and final at H6, the study to measure the significant relationship between organizational ethics and organizational culture.

### **2.18 Theoretical framework**

The theory underpinning this study is the theory of stakeholder. Many explanations of stakeholder theory has been predictable, but the contract is that it can be useful to give details as well as to direct the arrangement and operations of the reputable organizations (Donaldson & Preston, 1995). Therefore, this is not only to say that business have taken action in a conscientious way to equivocate escalating stakeholder demands, but to accomplish a better or excellent community. In addition, Jones (1995) argued that business concerned frequent dealings with stakeholders on the foundation of trust and cooperation has a motivation to be honest and ethical, since such behaviour is advantageous to business (Jones, 1995). Hence, this relationship is in line with stakeholder theory which believes that managers should tailor their policies in order to satisfy a number of stakeholders (Freeman, & Phillips 2002).

According Hiller (2013) it is unethical to prioritize increasing the wealth of the shareholders. But is an ethical company more profitable than a company that focuses on the monetary gain. Is it justifiable to ignore the interests of the stakeholders, regardless of whether it is more profitable in the long run or not?

Stakeholder theory views the corporation as part of a larger social body and not a separate entity. The firm has responsibilities to people and groups other than its owners. It impacts the lives of individuals like customers and especially employees, who are dependent on the firm.

When the firm is too political, it will affect the performance of the firm. When issues with culture are not dealt with, it will also affect performance and when the activities of the firm are unethical, it will also affect performance. Several interpretations of stakeholder theory have been projected, but the convention is that it can be useful to give details as well as to direct the arrangement and operations of reputable organizations (Donaldson & Preston, 1995).

### **2.19 Empirical Review of Politics, Culture, Ethics on Performance**

The current study by Karatepe (2011) has shown that there is strong empirical support for work engagement as a full mediator in the relationship between perceptions of organizational politics and job outcomes. The results clearly reveal that when hindrance demands (i.e., organizational politics) increase under-resource depleted conditions, they have adverse effects on frontline employees' work engagement and influence job outcomes through work engagement. Such findings emerge from an empirical study whose data are derived from frontline hotel employees in an under-represented developing non-Western country, Iran, where human resource management practices are poor.

A study by Meisler and Vigoda-Gadot (2013) on Perceived organizational politics, emotional intelligence and work outcomes, the study revealed that, there was a negative correlation between EI and POP, supporting H1. Furthermore, POP was found to fully mediate the relationship between EI and turnover intentions, and to partially mediate the effect of EI on both job satisfaction and negligent behaviour, thus supporting H2.

In a qualitative on the positive and negative of organizational politics by Landells and Albrecht (2015), it was demonstrating, that organizational members perceive organizational politics positively as well as negatively. This study demonstrated that organizational politics can manifest itself as positive political behaviours such as building and using relationships, observing and interpreting the decision-making context, and building personal credibility. Organizational politics can also lead to positive consequences including increased productivity, organizational progression, increased communication, and higher innovation. In their study, they noted that, the dark side of organizational politics had organizational members describing a wide range of devious, manipulative, and self-interested political behaviours that resulted in significant negative impacts such as individual frustration, higher intention to leave, reduced productivity, and loss of focus on organizational goals. They recommend in their study that, organizations should discard the notion that organizational politics is confined to manipulative, self-serving, non-sanctioned behaviours. Instead, it should be recognized that politics encompasses specific behaviours that are viewed differently by different people according to their perspective on organizational politics.

The significance of organizational culture and its impact on performance has drawn special attention to the study of organizations and their cultures. Empirical studies of organizational culture have been carried out across various countries and industries, particularly, in the banking industries context; several empirical studies have supported the positive link between culture and performance. Even though the relationship of organizational culture and employees' performance are naturally proven, it was mixed up in many studies (Kopelman, Brief, & Guzzo, 1990). Studies have also shown that the relationship between many cultural attributes and employees' performance has not been consistent over time (Denison, 1990; Chatman, Caldwell, O'Reilly, & Doerr 2014).

The studies of Uddin, Rumana, and Saad (2013) revealed that organizational culture is an open system approach which has interdependent and interactive association with organizations performance. The authors also invited further studies to create an effective framework between organizational culture and its impact on performance.

There were also empirical evidences found in organizational culture and Organizational Performance, conducted in Ghana University by Poku, Owusu-Ansah, and Zakari,(2013) and applied organizational culture and Performance variables were measured using five-point Likert scale and using the Denison's Organizational Survey Instruments. The researcher reached to a conclusion that there was a positive relationship between Organizational Culture and Performance in the case of banking Industry in Ghana. Among the Organizational dimensions, Mission was the Culture Trait with the strongest potential of impacting positively on Performance.

Similarly, a researcher Omorodion (2017) made an analysis on the extent of influence of organizational culture on selected Nigerian banks and the findings were confirmed

that there is a high level of relationship between organizational culture practices and employees performance in the Nigerian banking sector. Organizational culture dimensions all had positive effects on employee's performance.

Raduan et al., (2008) did the research on the topic of Organizational Culture as a Root of Performance Improvement: and they attempt to provide some insights into the organizational culture and how it might assist in increasing organizational performance. This study has been initiated to examine the relationship between culture and performance. The necessary data to fulfill the research objective were obtained from self-administered questionnaires. The items were designed to examine the organizational culture in four vital areas following Hofstede(1980) culture dimensions, namely, individualism and collectivism; power distance; uncertainty avoidance and masculinity and femininity. Sixteen items were used to assess the organizational culture on seven point scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree. The items were adapted from Rajendar and Jun Ma's (2005) work. For the purpose of measuring the organizational performance, nineteen items were developed based on the work of Garg and Jun Ma (2005).

The findings of this study indicate that those with high scores in individualism, low power distance, low uncertainty avoidance and femininity would have higher mean Scores in organizational performance. Thus this study supports the findings of Cameron and Quinn (1999) and Kotter and Heskett (1992). Schneider, Hanges, Smith and Salvaggio (2003) contended that healthier employee attitudes were prerequisites to financial and market performance advancement.

In the research done by McManus (2011) which dealt with the challenges faced by corporations in incorporating ethics into their strategic management processes, the

research was based on a survey of issues and the literature published in Europe, North America and Asia the finding indicated a definite gap between the implementation of strategy and the moral and ethical obligations of corporations. Given the decline in business ethics and recent corporate scandals it is proposed that ethics be brought back to the forefront of strategic management and integrated into the strategic management process. The recommendation of the study was that, the strategic decisions of any large-scale economic enterprise in a competitive global environment result in both benefits and harms. It is the responsibility of senior managers to distribute benefits and allocate those harms among stakeholders of their company.

A study by Chye and El'flied (2004) titled "Organizational Ethics and Employee satisfaction" which examined the relationship between organizational ethics and organizational outcomes based on justice theory and re-cognitive and dissonance theory. The sample data were delivered from questionnaire survey of 237 managers in Singapore. The results obtained from decision trees indicate that organizational leaders can use organizational ethics as a means to generate favourable organizational outcomes. Additionally, the results indicate there is significant and positive links between ethical behaviour and career success within the organization and job satisfaction also the findings reveal that there is association between ethics and organizational commitment.

Implication of the findings is that management support for ethical behaviour and the association between ethical behaviour and career success can be influenced by top managers in the organizations. Thus, by consciously working on these variables, top management can enhance job satisfaction and organizational commitment among



employees and in the work place. The current findings suggest that organizational ethics can help enhance job satisfaction and organizational commitment.



## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 Introduction

A methodology is a framework that provides guidelines about how research is done in the context of a particular paradigm. This chapter outlines the methodology that was used to guide the study. It presents the research design, target population, sample size, and sampling procedures. It also highlights the data collection instruments, reliability, and validity of instruments. It also describes the data analysis procedures.

#### 3.2 Research Design

Quantitative research is generally associated with the positivist/postpositivist paradigm. It usually involves collecting and converting data into numerical form so that statistical calculations can be made and conclusions are drawn. A quantitative research design was adopted for this study.

According to Matthews & Ross (2010), quantitative research methods fundamentally put on the collection of data that is set up and that could be displayed numerically. Generally, quantitative data is accumulated when the researcher has followed the positivist epistemological way and data is collected that may be scientifically analyzed. Quantitative research collects information from existing and potential customers using sampling methods and sending out online surveys, online polls, questionnaires, etc., the results of which can be depicted in the form of numerical. After careful understanding of these numbers to predict the future of a product or service and make changes accordingly

### **3.3 Population of the Study**

According to Uma (2007), the population is referred to as the totality of items or objects in which the researcher is interested. It can also be the total number of people in an area of study. According to Jesean and Warren (2020), in statistics, the population is the entire group of people (or animals or organizations or whatever) that you're interested in researching. Hence the population of this study will comprise of staff of SSNIT office in Greater Accra and Central Region. The total number of staff within both regions is estimated to be 3000.

### **3.4 Sample and Sampling Techniques**

Sampling according to Trochim (2002), predicts the process of choosing units from a population of interest so that by studying the sample a fair generalization could be made from the results back to where the population was drawn from. A non-probability sample was chosen instead of a probability sample based on convenience. A non-probability sample is usually used when a complete list of the target population is not known and a sample cannot be randomly selected (Saunders and Lewis, 2012). However, for convenience, the researcher used convenience sampling to select participants for the study. Convenience sampling is a type of non-probability sampling because ease of access rather than appropriateness was used. Yamane sample size table was used at a confidence level of 95% and a margin of error of 5%. Base on this, the sample size that is estimated for the study is 353 employees of SSNIT. These employees will include employees at all levels.

### **3.5 Instrument for Data Collection**

Data collection is the process of gathering and measuring information related to the study variables in an established and systematic manner that helps in answering

research questions, help in testing hypotheses, and evaluating outcomes (Konar, 2011). In this study, a questionnaire will be used to solicit data from the staff of SSNIT.

According to Kothari (2004), a questionnaire is a tool used to collect data that uses a set of questions for gathering data. The data is usually provided through written text by the respondents. For this research, one set of structured questionnaires was used to acquire data. The structured questionnaire has pre-written questions arranged in a manner that is intended to answer the research questions and no new question can be added to it once printed out. The questionnaire was self-administered. According to Gall, Gal, and Borg (2007), a self-administered questionnaire is the only way to elicit a self-report on peoples' opinions, attitudes, beliefs, and values. Self-administering the questionnaire was informed by the fact that the researcher needed to establish rapport with the respondents and encourage questionnaire return (Gall et al., 2007). Through this method, selected respondents of this study answered pre-written questions on their own and returned the questionnaire to the researcher. Closed-ended questions. The respondent can only choose from a list of possible choices in the case of a closed-ended questionnaire (Kothari, 2004). Closed questions mainly employed a five-point Likert scale. The four points were, Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Uncertain (U), Disagree (D), and Strongly Disagree (SD). This applied to Organizational politics, culture, and performance. With organizational ethics, the scale used was rated as No/Never, Sometimes, Usually, and Yes/Always. The first section of the questionnaire constituted demographic questions to gather information regarding the background of the workers. The rest of the questions were structured to ask questions in line with the research questions. The questionnaire will be administered to workers of each SSNIT office after the close of working hours for the

public (5 pm). This time was chosen in order not to bring any inconvenience in serving customers and will be collected a week of submission to enable the participant to have enough time to respond to the questionnaire. The items in the conceptual framework were based on the three (3) research questions raised to guide the study and hypothesis set for the study. The research questions are:

1. What is the relationship between politics, culture, and ethics?
2. What is the impact of politics, culture, and ethics on organizational performance?
3. What is the impact of culture and ethics on organizational politics?

### **3.6 Reliability and Validity**

Reliability and validity are a concept used to evaluate the quality of research. They indicate how well a method, technique, or test measure something. Reliability is about consistency or a measure and validity are about the accuracy of a measure. The study tested the reliability of the constructs using Cronbach's Alpha ( $\alpha$ ) and the Composite reliability test. Discriminant validity was assessed using Fornell-Larcker Criterion. The results are reported in Chapter four.

### **3.7 Data Collection Procedure**

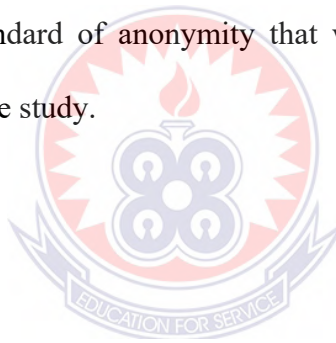
The researcher collected data using a questionnaire. Copies of the questionnaire were administered by the researcher to the respondent. All the respondents were expected to give maximum co-operation, as the information on the questionnaire is all on the things that revolved around the study. Hence enough time was taken to explain how to indicate their opinion on the times stated in the research questionnaire.

### **3.8 Method of Data Analysis**

In this study, analysis was done using SPSS and Smart PLS. SPSS will be used for running the descriptive and smart PLS was used in running inferential analysis. All the hypotheses were tested using regression. The research questions were analyzed using correlation analysis and regression analysis.

### **3.9 Ethical Consideration**

A letter of introduction will be obtained from the Department of Management Sciences to introduce the researcher to the SSNIT head office where permission will be sorted before the data collection took place. The participants will be informed consent to choose to participate or not. They will be guaranteed that their privacy was protected by a strict standard of anonymity that was that participants will remain anonymous throughout the study.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS

#### 4.1 Introduction

The analysis of the respondent's data was done using SPSS version 23.0 and SmartPLS 3 version, which is frequently used statistical tool for structural equation modelling (SEM) to investigate the fitness and predict influence of factors or variable on each other in a specific research model. The study first examined the demographic variables of the respondents, then went further to examine the suitability of the model by testing the internal consistency, convergent and discriminant validity. After, the structure of the model structural model and hypotheses were tested.

**Table 4.1 Demographics variables**

| <b>Demographic variables</b> | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> |
|------------------------------|------------------|----------------|
| <b>Gender</b>                |                  |                |
| Male                         | 141              | 41.3           |
| Female                       | 200              | 58.7           |
| <b>Age</b>                   |                  |                |
| Between 21-30                | 101              | 29.6           |
| Between 31-40                | 113              | 33.1           |
| Between 41-50                | 79               | 23.2           |
| Between 51-60                | 48               | 14.1           |
| <b>Education level</b>       |                  |                |
| HND/Diploma                  | 71               | 20.8           |
| First Degree                 | 202              | 59.2           |
| Second Degree                | 66               | 19.4           |
| PhD                          | 2                | .6             |
| <b>Duration</b>              |                  |                |
| Below a year                 | 53               | 15.5           |
| Between 1-5 years            | 76               | 22.3           |
| Between 6-10 years           | 79               | 23.2           |
| Between 11-15 years          | 105              | 30.8           |
| Above 15 years               | 28               | 8.2            |

A total of 360 questionnaires were administered and 341 was retrieved. Out of the 341, 141(41.3%) were male while 200(58.7%) were females. This is an indication that, the staff component of the offices of SSNIT that took part in the study have more females as compared to males.

With regards to their ages, 101(29.6%) fell within the age bracket of 21 to 30 years, 113(33.1%) fell within the age bracket of 31 to 40 years, 79(23.2%) fell within the age bracket of 41 to years and 48(14.1%) of the respondents fell within the age bracket of 51 to 60 years. More youth in the firm took part of the studies as compared to the elderly. With reference to their educational background, 71(20.8%) have attained HND/Diploma certificate, 202(59.2%) have attained first degree, 66(19.4%) have attained second degree and 2(0.6%) have attained PhD. This is an indication that, most of the respondent can read and understand and this will have a reflection in the feedback. With reference to the turner at the work place (duration), 53(15.5%) have been in the firm for less than a year, 76(22.3%) have been working in the firm within a bracket of 1 to 5 years, 79(23.2%) have been working within in the age bracket of 6 to 10years while 105(30.8%) have been working within the age bracket of 11 to 15years and 28(8.2%) have been working for more than 15years.

## **4.2 Accessing Measurement Model of Constructs**

### **4.2.1 Constructs Reliability and Validity**

As part of the measurement model evaluation, exploratory factors analysis was performed to examine the various items which significantly contribute to the model. From the results twelve (12) (P4,P5,C1,C5,C6,C8,E1,E2,E3,OP1,OP2,OP3) items were removed from the constructs because of low factor loadings ( $<0.600$ ) (Gefen & Straub, 2005) as seen in table 2. Constructs with low items loadings have been seen



not to contribute significantly to a study model (Gefen & Straub, 2005). Hereafter, there was a need to remove such items. The model was then re-run (re-tested) to generate a new output (table 2). The study tested the reliability of the constructs using Cronbach's Alpha ( $\alpha$ ) and Composite reliability test. According to Hair et al. (2012) and (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988), internal consistency of a given construct indicates how a particular method produce stable and consistent results. According to Hair et al. (2012), the acceptable value for both Cronbach's Alpha ( $\alpha$ ) and Composite reliability values should be equal to or exceed the threshold value of 0.7. In this study, both Cronbach's Alpha ( $\alpha$ ) and Composite reliability values of the constructs were seen to be above the recommended threshold which shows an excellent reliable construct (as seen in Table 2). Average Variance Extracted (AVE) was tested to measure the convergent validity. Convergent validity assumes how each of the items measures what is expected to measure (Henseler et al., 2015). Recommended AVE value  $> 0.5$  is acceptable value for convergent validity (Hair et al., 2012). From the study output (Table 2), convergent validity was acceptable because the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) was over 0.500

**Table 4.2 Measurement Output of Constructs**

| Constructs                        | Measurement |                              |                               |                       |       |
|-----------------------------------|-------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------|-------|
|                                   | Items       | Factor Loading ( $\lambda$ ) | Cronbach's Alpha ( $\alpha$ ) | Composite Reliability | AVE   |
| <b>Organizational Politics</b>    |             |                              |                               |                       |       |
| P1                                |             | 0.757                        | 0.715                         | 0.825                 | 0.544 |
| P2                                |             | 0.823                        |                               |                       |       |
| P3                                |             | 0.735                        |                               |                       |       |
| P4                                |             | 0.618                        |                               |                       |       |
| <b>Organizational Culture</b>     |             |                              |                               |                       |       |
| C1                                |             | 0.756                        | 0.715                         | 0.825                 | 0.544 |
| C2                                |             | 0.823                        |                               |                       |       |
| C3                                |             | 0.734                        |                               |                       |       |
| C4                                |             | 0.621                        |                               |                       |       |
| <b>Organizational Ethics</b>      |             |                              |                               |                       |       |
| E1                                |             | 0.88                         | 0.781                         | 0.872                 | 0.694 |
| E2                                |             | 0.802                        |                               |                       |       |
| E3                                |             | 0.815                        |                               |                       |       |
| <b>Organizational Performance</b> |             |                              |                               |                       |       |
| OP1                               |             | 0.588                        | 0.845                         | 0.878                 | 0.51  |
| OP2                               |             | 0.685                        |                               |                       |       |
| OP3                               |             | 0.784                        |                               |                       |       |
| OP4                               |             | 0.75                         |                               |                       |       |
| OP5                               |             | 0.779                        |                               |                       |       |
| OP6                               |             | 0.753                        |                               |                       |       |
| OP7                               |             | 0.635                        |                               |                       |       |

$\alpha$ : Cronbach's Alpha > 0.700

AVE: Average Variance Extracted =  $\sum \lambda^2 / n = A > 0.500$

CR: Composite Reliability =  $(\sum(\lambda)^2) / (\sum(\lambda)^2 + (\sum a))$ ,  $a = 1 - \lambda^2 > 0.700$

Factor Loadings < 0.500 were omitted

### 4.3 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity was assessed using Fornell-Larcker Criterion. Discriminant validity is said to be achieved if the square root of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for individual construct are higher than the inter-factor correlation between the

construct in the model or when the Square root of the AVE's exceed its correlation values (Kurfalı *et al.*, 2017). As presented in Table 3, the square root of AVE value (bold) is consistently greater than its respective correlations values, suggesting acceptance discriminant validity among constructs.

Fornell-Larcker Criterion (Discriminant validity)

| Construct | OCL          | OET          | OP           | OPL          |
|-----------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| OCL       | <b>0.737</b> |              |              |              |
| OET       | -0.223       | <b>0.833</b> |              |              |
| OP        | 0.568        | -0.144       | <b>0.714</b> |              |
| OPL       | 1            | 0.224        | 0.567        | <b>0.737</b> |

#### 4.4 Structural Model

This study further assessed the structural model by observing the relationship between the constructs, evaluating the model predictive power (Coefficient of determination (R<sup>2</sup>)) and the model predictive relevance as the goodness of fit. The coefficient of determination (R<sup>2</sup>) or the model predictive power usually measures the model predictive accuracy of the structural model. It is used to assess how accurately a model explains and predicts future outcomes for a dependent variable (Hair *et al.*, 2012). As per Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010) an R<sup>2</sup> value of 0.75 is considered substantial whereas a value of 0.50 is regarded as moderate, and a value of 0.26 is considered as weak. **R<sub>s</sub><sup>2</sup> = 0.331** and **R<sub>o</sub><sup>2</sup> = 0.283** were deduced from the analysis. **R<sub>s</sub><sup>2</sup> = 1.00** explains the relationship between organizational politics and organizational performance. It indicates that 33.1% of the variability in operation performance is explained by organizational politics. On the other hand, **R<sub>o</sub><sup>2</sup> = 1.00** also explains that 100% of the variability in organizational performance is explained by transportation outsourcing and supply chain agility. Hence, the **R<sup>2</sup>** values in this study were quite moderate. The Stone-Geisser Indicator (Q<sup>2</sup>) measures the model

prediction quality or model significance. It is use when there are more than one independent variables predicting the dependent variable (Geisser, 1974). Hair et al. (2014) indicated that a good prediction quality should have an indicator value greater than zero. Nevertheless, a perfect model would have  $Q^2 = 1$ , which indicates the model reflects reality and without any errors. The study results indicate a good predictive power and quality, hence goodness of fitness is achieved.

**Table 4.3: Structural model**

| Model Predictive Power ( $R^2$ ) | Model Predictive Quality ( $Q^2$ ) |
|----------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| $R_s^2 = 0.331$                  | $Q_s^2 = 0.148$                    |
| $R_o^2 = 1.00$                   | $Q_o^2 = 0.539$                    |

#### 4.5 Research Question One

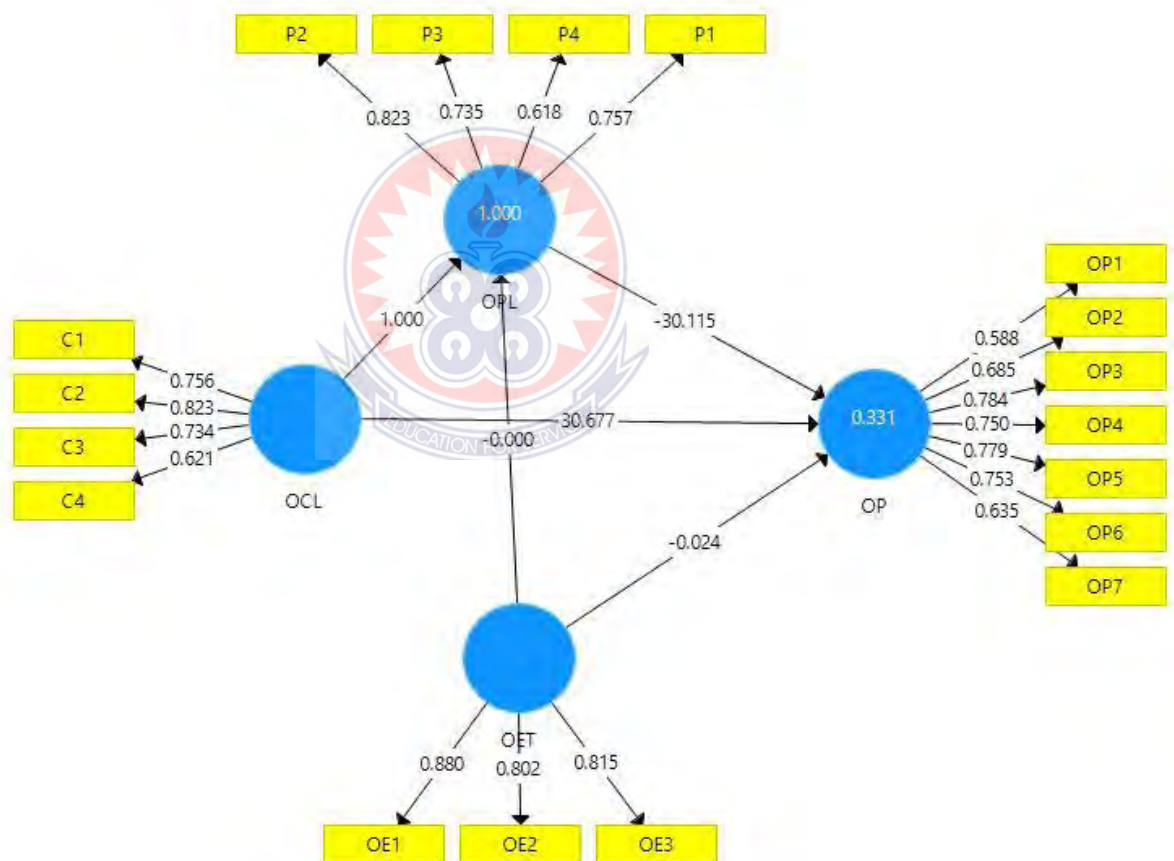
The first research question seeks to examine the relationship between politics, culture and ethics. By so doing, a correlation analysis was conducted and the result is presented in the table below:

**Table 4.4 Correlations Matrix**

|               |                     | Org. Politics | Org. Culture | Org. Ethics |
|---------------|---------------------|---------------|--------------|-------------|
| Org. Politics | Pearson Correlation | 1             |              |             |
|               | Sig. (2-tailed)     |               |              |             |
|               | N                   | 340           |              |             |
| Org. Culture  | Pearson Correlation | 1.000**       | 1            |             |
|               | Sig. (2-tailed)     | 0.000         |              |             |
|               | N                   | 340           | 340          |             |
| Org. Ethics   | Pearson Correlation | -.222**       | -.222**      | 1           |
|               | Sig. (2-tailed)     | .000          | .000         |             |
|               | N                   | 339           | 339          | 340         |

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

A Pearson product correlation coefficient was conducted to examine the relationship between organizational politics and organizational culture, organizational politics and organizational ethics and finally organizational culture and organizational ethics. It was evidence that, there was a positive relationship between organizational politics and organizational culture ( $r=1.00$ ,  $n=340$   $p=0.00$ ) also, there was a negative relationship between organizational politics and organisational ethics ( $r=-.222$ ,  $n=399$   $p=.000$ ) and there also was a negative relationship between organizational culture and ethics ( $r= -.222$ ,  $n=399$   $p=.000$ ).



**Figure 4.1: Structural model**

#### 4.6 Research Question Two

The second research question seeks to examine the impact of politics, culture and ethics on organizational performance. By so doing, a regression was conducted. The result is shown in the diagram above. From the diagram, the impact of organizational politics (OPL) on organizational performance (OP) is -30.115, while the impact of Organizational Culture (OCL) on (OP) is 30.677 and the impact of Organizational Ethics (OET) on (OP) is -0.004.

#### 4.7 Research Question Three

The third research question seeks to examine the impact of Organizational culture and Organizational ethics on organizational politics? From the diagram, it was evidence that, there is an impact of (OCL) on (OPL) the figure is reported to be 1.000 while there was no impact between (OET) and (OPL). The figure is reported to be -0.000.

**Table 4.5 Path Coefficient**

| Actual relationship | Hypothesis | Standard Deviation (STDEV) | T Statistics ( O/STDEV ) | P Values | Status of the Hypothesis |
|---------------------|------------|----------------------------|--------------------------|----------|--------------------------|
| OCL -> OP           | H1         | 34.111                     | 0.899                    | 0.369    | Not supported            |
| OCL -> OPL          | H2         | 0.000                      | 7194.756                 | 0.000    | Supported                |
| OET -> OP           | H3         | 0.049                      | 0.502                    | 0.616    | Not supported            |
| OET -> OPL          | H4         | 0.000                      | 0.467                    | 0.641    | Not supported            |
| OPL -> OP           | H5         | 34.108                     | 0.883                    | 0.378    | Not supported            |

**Sig. \*p < 0.10; \*\*p < 0.05; \*\*\*p < 0.01, t-Value > 1.96**

OCL=Organizational Culture OP=Organizational performance OET=Organizational Ethics OPL= Organizational Politics

The bootstrapping technique was employed to estimate the significance level of the variables. Using a level of 5% the path coefficient will be significant if the T-statistics is larger than 1.96. Organizational culture showed insignificant effect on organizational performance ( $\beta = 34.111$ , t-value = 0.899,  $P < 0.36$ ), hence, H1 is not

supported. Organizational culture showed a significant effect on organizational politics ( $\beta = 0.000$ ,  $t\text{-value} = 7194.318$ ,  $P > 0.000$ ), hence, H2 is supported. Organizational ethics showed insignificant effect on organizational performance ( $\beta = 0.049$ ,  $t\text{-value} = 0.502$ ,  $P < 0.616$ ), hence, H3 is not supported. Organizational ethics showed insignificant effect on organizational politics ( $\beta = 0.000$ ,  $t\text{-value} = 0.467$ ,  $P < 0.641$ ), hence, H4 is not supported and finally, Organizational politics showed insignificant effects on organizational performance ( $\beta = 34.108$ ,  $t\text{-value} = 0.883$ ,  $P < 0.378$ ) hence, H5 is not supported.

Transportation Outsourcing revealed a significant effect on Supply Chain Agility ( $\beta = 0.313$ ,  $t\text{-value} = 1.852$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ). Therefore, H3 is supported.

#### 4.8 Discussion of Findings

The role of politics, culture, and ethics in organizational performance is the topic under study. The first research question sort to establish the relationship between politics, culture, and ethics. From the finding, it was evident that there is a relationship between organizational politics and organizational culture. Rozazi (2006) studied the impact of organizational politics on culture and his results construe a negative correlation; organizations with intense politics tend to have a divided sense of purpose, distorted value sets, non-solid artifacts, and bad norms (rules of the game) that are self-serving. The result defers from the study of Rozazi (2006). Also, the findings revealed that there is no relationship between organizational politics and organizational ethics. This study also revealed that there is no relationship between organizational ethics and organizational politics. This is an indication that, when their environment is unethical and their same environment is filled with political activities, there cannot be any relationship between them which will also have an impact on the

performance of the firm. On the other hand, when the environment is filled with politics in the workplace, most of the issues to be addressed will be unethical and as a result, there cannot be a relationship between them. Also, the study revealed that there is no relationship between organizational ethics and organizational culture. Ethics and culture go hand in hand. Depending on the situation at hand, it will be difficult to conclude without further investigation on the relationship that exists between them. From the study, there is no relationship and this can be a result of the type of culture that exists at the SSNIT office. Most of the public institutions are guided by the code of conduct -the public service commission and SSNIT are not exempted from this. Developing their ethical codes that will suit their culture will lead to a great relationship between the culture and the ethics or code of conduct.

Politics, culture, and ethics were regressed on organizational performance to find out the impact. The findings revealed that between OPL and OP revealed that there was a negative impact of organizational politics on organizational performance. When politics in the workplace is filled with negative motives, the performance of the firm will be improved upon affecting both the individual and the organization as a whole. Consequently, those employees who perceive their organization as being politicized will tend to withhold useful information. Vince (2001) is of the view that organizational politics may mute and warp the voices and opinions of individuals, facts that spawn defense mechanisms and uphold uncertainty. Numerous researchers found that organizational politics harm job performance and organizational commitment, especially to the lower-status employees (Gotsis & Kortezi, 2010; Vigoda-Gadot & Kapun, 2005), and this affirms that results of the study.



The findings between OC and OP revealed that there is an impact between OC and OP. Nathaus and Childress (2013) also noted that organizational culture does affect business performance positively or negatively. Innovations in businesses are blessed by organizational culture and this area has been recognized as a needed research scope (Dissanayake, Wasantha & Jinadasa, 2017). Also, the findings confirm a study by Omorodion (2017) at Nigeria banks.

Ethics at the workplace help share the attitude of the individuals and end up being part of the firm culture. From the study, it was evident that ethics did not have an impact on organizational performance from this study. Other issues call for a high impact on organizational performance and the ethical conduct of employees also results in one. This implies that Unethical standards had no significant positive effect on organizational performance (Ezeanyim & Ezeanolue, 2021). The authors are of the view that many modern organizations are faced with numerous challenges such as illegal and unethical behaviour in several business transactions and SSNIT is likely to face similar issues within its operations. It applies to all aspects of business conduct and is relevant to the conduct of individuals and entire organizations (Business Ethics 2013). These ethics originate from individuals, organizational statements, or from the legal system. These norms, values, ethical, and unethical practices are the principles that guide a business. They help those businesses maintain a better connection with their stakeholders (Ferrell, 2016).

In accessing the impact of organizational culture and organizational ethics on organizational politics, it was evident that culture has an impact on politics. This finding aligns with a study by Heinz (2019). The author stated that, depending on the type of culture that exists in the firm, they will have an impact on politics in the firm

yielding to positive organizational politics. The type of culture that exists in the firm have their drawbacks but when the positive side is focused on more, the firm ends up having a positive impact on its performance and other related issues since the firm is focusing more on the positive side and working on correcting the negative side. On the other hand, the impact between organizational ethics and organizational politics was not significant and this is due to the unethical issues that arise from the working environment.



## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter highlights the summary of the major finding of the study, bringing on board conclusion and recommendation of further research. The main of the study was to evaluate the role of organizational politics, culture, and ethics on organizational performance.

#### 5.2 Major Findings of the Study

##### 5.2.1 The relationship between politics, culture, and ethics

The study revealed that there is a relationship between organizational politics and organizational culture. Rozazi (2006) studied the impact of organizational politics on culture and his results construe a negative correlation; organizations with intense politics tend to have a divided sense of purpose, distorted value sets, non-solid artefacts, and bad norms (rules of the game) that are self-serving. The findings revealed that there is no relationship between organizational politics and organizational ethics. This study also revealed that there is no relationship between organizational ethics and organizational politics. This is an indication that, when their environment is unethical and their same environment is filled with political activities, there cannot be any relationship between them which will also have an impact on the performance of the firm.

##### 5.2.2 The impact of politics, culture, and ethics on organizational performance

The findings revealed that between OPL and OP revealed that there was a negative impact of organizational politics on organizational performance. When politics in the

workplace is filled with negative motives, the performance of the firm will be improved upon affecting both the individual and the organization as a whole. The findings between OC and OP revealed that there is an impact between OC and OP. Nathaus and Childress (2013) also noted that organizational culture does affect business performance positively or negatively. From the study, it was evident that ethics did not have an impact on organizational performance from this study. It applies to all aspects of business conduct and is relevant to the conduct of individuals and entire organizations (Business Ethics 2013). These ethics originate from individuals, organizational statements, or the legal system. These norms, values, ethical, and unethical practices are the principles that guide a business.

### **5.2.3 The impact of culture and ethics on organizational politics**

The study revealed that there is an impact between organizational culture and organizational politics. This finding affirms a study by Heinz (2019). The author stated that, depending on the type of culture that exists in the firm, they will have an impact on politics in the firm yielding to positive organizational politics. The study also revealed that there is no impact between organizational ethics and organizational politics. This was a result of some unethical issues that comes up in the firms.

### **5.2.4 Hypothesis**

Five hypotheses were developed for the study. Out of the five, one was supported and the other four were rejected. Thus, there is no significant relationship between organizational culture and organizational politics.

### **5.3 Conclusion**

The first objective of the study was to examine the relationship between politics, culture, and ethics. It was evident that there was a relationship between culture and

politics but there was no relationship between politics and ethics and there was also no relationship between culture and ethics. The second objective was to examine the impact of politics, culture, and ethics on organizational performance. From the findings, there was an impact between culture and organizational performance. There was no impact between organizational politics and organizational performance and there was also no impact between organizational ethics and organizational performance. This implies that, when there is negative politics in the workplace, it does not have a positive impact on performance. Also, when the firm is filled with a lot of unethical issues, it does not have an impact on organizational performance. The final objective was to examine the impact of organizational culture and ethics on organizational politics. It was evident that there is an impact between organizational culture and organizational politics but there was no impact between organizational ethics and organizational politics.

#### **5.4 Recommendation**

From the conclusion of the study, the researcher recommends that the following areas that did not have a positive relationship and impact must be looked into further. Ethics in the workplace must be worked on while the firm builds its culture. The code of conduct of the public commission must not be the only source of ethical code of conduct. SSNIT should have its own ethics code of conduct. The culture of the firm must be built along with the ethics of the institutions. It was noted that their way of doing things at the workplace did not have a link with the code of conduct and that gap needs to be addressed. Performance is very key to every institution. Politics in the workplace must be worked on to have a positive impact on performance. In the same way, ethics in the firm must be strengthened to have an impact on organizational performance. When all these are done, it will aid most of the workers to give in their

best. In assessing the impact of culture and ethics on organizational politics, it was evident that ethics had no impact on politics. The study recommends that ethics needs to be worked on in the workplace to establish a great impact and influence in the work environment.

### **5.5 Recommendation for Further Research**

Based on the recommendations of the study the researcher suggested that similar research should be undertaken to investigate in the private sector most especially firms that are into manufacturing and at the education sector to see the results since these findings cannot be generalized. Also, the same study can take place at the SSNIT office in other regions to compare results.



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## APPENDICES

### UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION

#### SCHOOL OF BUSINESS

#### DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

Dear Sir/Madam,

This questionnaire seeks information on *an Evaluation of the role of Politics, Culture and Ethics in Organizational Performance*. A case of Social Security and National Insurance Trust (SSNIT) Ghana.

I am Eboyi Nathan, an MBA student offering Organization and Human Resource Management. You are kindly requested to complete this questionnaire by filling in the blanks with a tick [] against the most appropriate answer.

#### SECTION ONE: Demographic Data

1. Gender: Male [] Female []
2. Your Age: Below 20[  ], Between 21-30[  ], 31-40 [  ], 41-50 [  ], 51-60 [  ]
3. Level of Education: HND [  ], Diploma [  ], First Degree [  ], Second Degree [  ], PhD [  ], Other[  ]. If others specify .....
4. Years Worked: Below one year [  ], 1-5years [  ], 6-10years [  ], 11-15years, Above 15years[  ]
5. Rank: \_\_\_\_\_

#### SECTION TWO

To what extent do you agree with the following statements about organizational politics in your organization, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree? Where; 1= strongly disagree; 2= disagree; 3= not sure; 4= agree and 5= strongly agree

| S/N | ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS  | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| OP1 | People in this organization attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down.                                 |   |   |   |   |   |
| OP2 | There has always been an influential group in this organization that no one ever crosses.                          |   |   |   |   |   |
| OP3 | Employees are encouraged to speak out frankly even when they are critical of well-established ideas. (R)           |   |   |   |   |   |
| OP4 | There is no place for yes-men around here; good ideas are desired even if it means disagreeing with superiors. (R) |   |   |   |   |   |
| OP5 | Agreeing with powerful others is the best alternative  |   |   |   |   |   |

|      |   |  |  |  |  |  |
|------|---|--|--|--|--|--|
|      | in this organization.   |  |  |  |  |  |
| OP6  | It is best not to rock the boat in this organization.   |  |  |  |  |  |
| OP7  | Sometimes it is easier to remain quiet than to fight the system.  |  |  |  |  |  |
| OP8  | Telling others what they want to hear is sometimes better than telling the truth.                           |  |  |  |  |  |
| OP9  | It is safer to think what you are told than to make up your own mind.                                       |  |  |  |  |  |
| OP10 | I will never see the pay and promotion policies applied politically in this organization. (R)               |  |  |  |  |  |
| OP11 | None of the raises I will receive will be consistent with the policies on how raises should be determined.  |  |  |  |  |  |
| OP12 | The stated pay and promotion policies have nothing to do with how pay raises and promotions are determined. |  |  |  |  |  |
| OP13 | When it comes to pay raise and promotion decisions, policies are irrelevant.                                |  |  |  |  |  |
| OP14 | Promotions around here are not valued much because how they are determined is so political                  |  |  |  |  |  |

### SECTION THREE

To what extent do you agree with the following statements about organizational culture in your organization, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree? Where; 1= strongly disagree; 2= disagree; 3= not sure; 4= agree and 5= strongly agree

| S/N  | ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE  | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| OC1  | My organization is guided by values of consistency adaptability and effective communication system                                  |   |   |   |   |   |
| OC2  | My organization has a culture that determines how things are done   |   |   |   |   |   |
| OC3  | All employees in my organization are valued   |   |   |   |   |   |
| OC4  | My organization has asset of principles that defines who its employees, customers and suppliers and how to interact with each other |   |   |   |   |   |
| OC5  | My organization has vision, mission and goals that guide all stakeholders   |   |   |   |   |   |
| OC6  | My organization has vision, mission and goals that guide all stakeholders   |   |   |   |   |   |
| OC7  | Employees in my organization have a sense of identity which increases their commitment to work                                      |   |   |   |   |   |
| OC8  | My organization stands for clearly stipulated work ethic  |   |   |   |   |   |
| OC9  | Employees in my organization are guide by similar customs   |   |   |   |   |   |
| OC10 | Rules set out within the organization are practical and fair  |   |   |   |   |   |

|      |   |  |  |  |  |  |
|------|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| OC11 | My organization enables workers to understand how the organization operates |  |  |  |  |  |
| OC12 | I am encouraged to be innovative within my role                             |  |  |  |  |  |
| OC13 | I am empowered to perform my role to the best of my ability                 |  |  |  |  |  |
| OC14 | My supervisor trusts and does not micro managing me                         |  |  |  |  |  |
| OC15 | I always think independently when carrying out my duties                    |  |  |  |  |  |

#### SECTION FOUR

The list below indicates several characteristics of an ethical organization. Rank your company on each of these characteristics using the following scale. Where 1=No/Never, 2=Sometimes, 3=Usually, 4=Yes/Always

| S/N  | ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE   | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|------|--|---|---|---|---|
| OE1  | Does your organization have a written ethics policy?   |   |   |   |   |
| OE2  | Does your company require it's employees to sign a code of conduct statement?                            |   |   |   |   |
| OE3  | Are ethical behaviours expected out of your leaders?   |   |   |   |   |
| OE4  | Are ethical behaviours rewarded?   |   |   |   |   |
| OE5  | Do the leaders in your organization act ethically?   |   |   |   |   |
| OE6  | Are the leaders in your organization honest?   |   |   |   |   |
| OE7  | Is the behaviour of your leaders consistent with the stated ethics and values of the organization?       |   |   |   |   |
| OE8  | Do the leaders in your organization employ favouritism?  |   |   |   |   |
| OE9  | Does your organization offer training in business ethics?  |   |   |   |   |
| OE10 | Do the leaders in your organization balance the needs of the business with ethical issues appropriately? |   |   |   |   |
| OE11 | Does your organization balance it's short term business goals with its long term need for success?       |   |   |   |   |
| OE12 | Do the executives in your organization lead by example?  |   |   |   |   |

#### SECTION FIVE

Please rank the following statements about the performance of your organization on a Likert Scale ranging from not at all to a very great extent: Where; 1= strongly disagree; 2= disagree; 3= not sure; 4= agree and 5= strongly agree

| S/N  | ORGANIZATIONAL PERFROMANCE  | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| OPE1 | The level of productivity of employees in my organization is high   |   |   |   |   |   |
| OPE2 | Employees commit maximum efforts to their work                      |   |   |   |   |   |
| OPE3 | My work is guided the organizations' overall strategic plan         |   |   |   |   |   |
| OPE4 | I am highly involved in achieving the objectives of my organization |   |   |   |   |   |

|       |   |  |  |  |  |  |
|-------|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| OPE5  | Employees in my organization are guided by performance contracting            |  |  |  |  |  |
| OPE6  | Employees observe acceptable personal habits while at work                    |  |  |  |  |  |
| OPE7  | My organization has succeeded in creating value for money                     |  |  |  |  |  |
| OPE8  | My organization always meet the needs of customers on time                    |  |  |  |  |  |
| OPE9  | Employees complete work assigned to them as per the desired standards         |  |  |  |  |  |
| OPE10 | Every employee work towards the same goal                                     |  |  |  |  |  |
| OPE11 | In my organization every worker is accountable for organizational performance |  |  |  |  |  |
| OPE12 | Employees comply with the company's policies and professional code of conduct |  |  |  |  |  |
| OPE13 | Employees work proactively to any organizational threats                      |  |  |  |  |  |
| OPE14 | Employees in my organization often find better ways to do things              |  |  |  |  |  |

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME.**

