

**THE INFLUENCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE ON  
ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AT A SELECTED  
LOCAL MUNICIPALITY**

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

**MASTER OF COMMERCE**

Department of Management

**RHODES UNIVERSITY**

By

**JOLISE VAN STUYVESANT MEIJEN**

**RESEARCH SUPERVISORS: Principal supervisor - Mr M.J. Louw**

**Co-supervisor – Prof. L. Louw**

**DECEMBER 2007**

## **ABSTRACT**

Since 2000, local municipalities have been through a process of transformation which amalgamated a number of smaller local municipalities into larger municipalities. The amalgamation of a number of municipalities brings together an array of people, and therefore a myriad of organisational cultures are combined. The organisational culture of an organisation has an effect on the organisational commitment of its employees. A fit between the organisational culture and the employees will increase the organisational commitment of those employees and contribute towards improved service delivery. A survey conducted in South Africa indicated that the local municipalities have been delivering poor standards of service to the community; therefore there is a need to increase the service delivery within local municipalities. The importance of looking at the organisational commitment of a local municipality is because if there is commitment within the organisation, then employees will identify with their organisation and its goals, and will deliver the service more effectively and efficiently. Therefore, increasing the service delivery of local municipalities can be achieved through diagnosing the organisational commitment and organisational culture of employees within the selected municipality.

The primary objective of this research was therefore to diagnose the relationship between organisational culture and the organisational commitment of employees at the selected municipality. In order to achieve this objective, a survey was conducted to canvas the opinions of respondents (N = 148) from the selected local municipality regarding their perceptions of the existing organisational culture, their preferences regarding the organisational culture within the selected municipality, and finally the organisational commitment.

The main findings of this research conducted at a selected municipality can be summarised as follows:

- The dominant existing organisational culture is the power culture, while the dominant preferred organisational culture is the support culture;

- There is an organisational culture gap between the existing and preferred organisational cultures at the selected municipality;
- The dominant organisational commitment within the selected municipality is normative commitment;
- The findings pertaining to the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment of employees within the selected municipality can be stated as follows:
  - The existing organisational cultures have significant effects on the organisational commitment of employees;
  - The preferred organisational cultures do not have significant effects on the organisational commitment of employees; and
  - The organisational culture gap does not have a significant effect on the organisational commitment of employees;
- The findings pertaining to the relationship between the biographical variables and the existing and preferred organisational culture, organisational commitment and the organisational culture gap can be stated as follows:
  - There is no significant relationship between biographical variables and the existing organisational culture;
  - There are significant relationships between the biographical variables, namely the departments in which respondents work, and the education level of respondents, and the preferred organisational culture;
  - There are significant relationships between the biographical variables and organisational commitment; and
  - The average organisational culture gap scores of the organisational culture scales for the biographical variables are significantly different.

It can be concluded that organisational culture has a significant effect on the organisational commitment of employees within the selected municipality and therefore can affect the service delivery of the selected municipality.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

First and foremost I would like to thank my supervisor, Mr M.J. Louw, and my co-supervisor, Prof. L. Louw, for their constant support and guidance throughout this year.

Additionally, I would like to express my sincerest appreciation to the following people who have made this research possible:

- All the employees of the selected municipality who took the time to complete the questionnaires;
- Mr J. Baxter, from the Rhodes University Statistics Department, for his help and assistance with the statistical analysis;
- Miss J. Reynolds, for her assistance in the proof reading of the thesis.

Finally, I would like to thank my parents, friends and family for their continued interest, encouragement and support during the good and bad times. They gave me the strength needed to complete this thesis, and helped me realise that anything is within my grasp if I set my mind to it.

Jolise van Stuyvesant Meijen

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## **CHAPTER 1**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1 INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT**

South Africa is a constitutional democracy that has a three-tier system of government, with an independent judiciary (Big Media Publishers (Pty) Ltd, 2006a). The three-tier system involves the national, provincial and local levels of government, and each sphere is separated with its own powers and functions, and even though some of these may overlap, they each have their own legislative and executive authority in their own spheres (Big Media Publishers (Pty) Ltd, 2006a; Delivery, 2006: 2).

The Constitution describes the national, provincial and local levels of government as "distinctive, interdependent and interrelated" (Government Gazette, 1996). Within the local level of government are the local municipalities which govern on a four-year term basis and run local affairs subject to national and provincial legislation (Big Media Publishers (Pty) Ltd, 2006b). The provincial legislation may not hinder a municipality's right to exercise its powers or perform its functions. A stated intention in the Constitution is that the country should be run on a system of co-operative governance between the three spheres, and the national and provincial government must support and strengthen the capacity of municipalities to manage their own affairs (Big Media Publishers (Pty) Ltd, 2006b; Government Gazette, 1996).

For the purposes of this research the focus will be on the local municipal level. A local municipality in the Eastern Cape was selected for this research because the top management of the selected local municipality advised the researcher that there was a need for the research to be conducted at the municipality. Management was concerned about the organisational culture of the selected municipality because this affects the organisational commitment and productivity which, in turn, negatively affects the service delivery within the selected

municipality. The selected Eastern Cape local municipality was also in the proximity of where the researcher is currently completing her degree.

South African local government has undergone transformation since 2000, with much of the change having been implemented to correct the imbalances, inequities and disparities within the local communities as a result of Apartheid (Williams, 2006: 8). This transformation has amalgamated many of the urban and rural municipalities into new, larger local entities, where more people and communities are governed under fewer, larger entities, which have greater judicial boundaries (Planact, 2001: 4). The justification behind the amalgamation was to establish municipalities that were more financially viable because the tax base of these structures would be more solid. The bringing together of a number of municipalities also brings together an array of people, and therefore a myriad of cultures are combined and this affects the commitment of employees working within these municipalities, due to potential conflicts between groups as priorities shift (Planact, 2001).

Change has also been motivated by national government's realisation that there is a need to modernise all spheres of government (Williams, 2006: 8). Part of this transformation process at the local government level has been to ensure that municipalities put people first, therefore becoming more responsive to the communities' needs and ensuring a sustainable manner of service delivery to the people within the local communities (South African Local Government Association, 2003: 3; Williams, 2006: 8). Local government is required to work with local communities in order to find sustainable ways to meet the needs of people and improve the quality of their lives (South African Local Government Association, 2003: 3).

The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (Government Gazette, 1995) and the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (Government Gazette, 1997) hold the guiding principles, called the Batho Pele principles, for this transformation of local municipalities (Williams, 2006: 9-10).

Municipalities are constitutionally responsible for the delivery of a range of services to the community in an effective and efficient manner, which is why local municipalities are largely understood in terms of service delivery (Nyalunga, 2006: 17). A core concern of local municipalities is thus service delivery (Nyalunga, 2006: 18). The local government has instituted the Batho Pele principles, which focuses on service delivery with the intention of “putting people first”, and therefore, it is important for this research to analyse local municipalities (South African Government Online, 2007).

In the State of the Nation Address held on the 3 February 2006, Thabo Mbeki (2006) stated that only 45% of South African citizens believe that the local government is performing well. Markinor (2007) concurs with Thabo Mbeki, and through the use of a survey, it was found that of the three levels of government, South African citizens consistently rate the performance of local municipalities the lowest. Mbeki (2006) continued to assert that South Africans expect that the South African local government “discharges its responsibilities effectively and efficiently, honouring the precepts of Batho Pele”. It is thus important for research to be conducted at the local government level, in order to increase the service delivery of the local municipalities.

Improving the service delivery of local municipalities can be achieved through investigating the organisational commitment and organisational culture of employees within the selected municipality (Greenberg, 1996; Robbins, 1993). The importance of looking at the organisational commitment of a local municipality is that if there is commitment within the organisation, then employees will identify with their organisation and its goals, and will deliver the service more effectively and efficiently (Greenberg, 1996; Robbins, 1993). It is also important to look at the organisational culture of the selected municipality because the organisational culture affects the commitment of employees, which in turn affects the service delivery of the municipality (Clugston, Howell and Dorfman, 2000: 6; Rowe, Mason, Dickel, Mann and Mockler, 1994: 477).

Organisational culture can be viewed as the unique pattern of shared values, norms, attitudes, beliefs, rituals, socialisation, expectations, and assumptions of the employees in the organisation (Hellriegel, Jackson, Slocum, Staude, Amos, Klopper, Louw and Oosthuizen, 2004: 357; O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell, 1991: 491; Rowe *et al.*, 1994: 472; Schein, 1992: 52). As such, organisational culture could be equated with the “personality” of the organisation, depicting the manner in which employees behave when they are not being told what to do (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 357).

Organisational culture classifications have been developed in order to assist in the understanding and analysis of organisational culture and such frameworks include those by Deal and Kennedy (1982: 107-127); Harrison (1972: 121-123); Harrison and Stokes (1992); Hellriegel *et al.* (2004: 365-368); Rowe *et al.* (1994: 474); and Schein (1992). For the purpose of this research, the Harrison and Stokes (1992) conceptual framework for organisational culture will be used to classify the different types of culture within the selected municipality.

Rowe *et al.* (1994: 91) assert that there is often a gap between the existing and preferred organisational cultures, so therefore it is important to assess whether there is an organisational cultural gap within the selected local municipality. The Harrison and Stokes (1992) questionnaire enables organisations to identify whether or not that gap is present. An organisational culture gap exists in an organisation when there is a difference between the dominant, existing organisational culture type, and the preferred or desired cultural type (Bourantas and Papalexandris, 1992: 5). Nazir (2005: 41) states that although some research on assessing this gap in an organisation's culture has been conducted, research is still limited.

According to Clugston *et al.* (2000: 22), Rowe *et al.* (1994: 92) and Wasti (2003: 304), organisational culture has an effect on organisational commitment, influencing the effectiveness and efficiency of organisations. Based on the aforementioned, it therefore appears that organisational culture plays an important



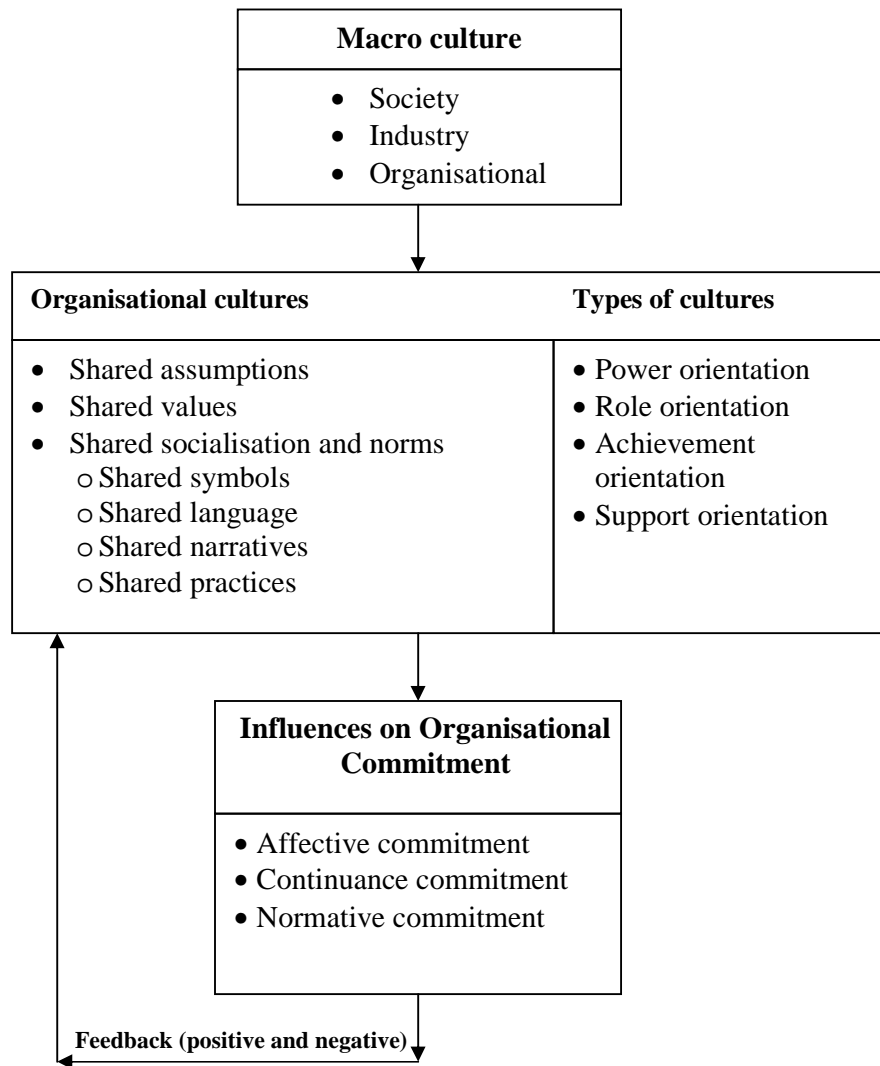
role in promoting organisational success, which can only be achieved by developing an appropriate organisational culture. Therefore, the importance of assessing the organisational culture of the selected municipality comes to the fore. McKinnon, Harrison, Chow and Wu (2003: 26) state that there has been empirical research conducted on organisational culture and organisational commitment, yet there has been little to provide evidential support of the effect that organisational culture has on organisational commitment.

Figure 1.1 provides the framework that will be used when discussing the literature with regards to organisational culture and organisational commitment.

As is shown in Figure 1.1, this research looks at the effects of organisational culture on the organisational commitment of employees within the selected local municipality.

Organisational commitment can be defined from two perspectives, behavioural commitment and attitudinal commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 62). Behavioural commitment focuses on the processes by which employees become part of a specific organisation and their appropriate behaviour (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 62). Attitudinal commitment, on the other hand, focuses on the processes by which employees come to think about their relationships with their organisation, and the extent to which their goals and values are congruent with those of the organisation (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 62). The attitudinal perspective will be the basis of organisational commitment in this research and is accordingly defined as the psychological strength of an individual employee's attachment to and involvement with the organisation (Lahiry, 1994: 50; Mowday *et al.*, 1979: 226; Rashid, Sambasivan, and Johari, 2003: 713). A committed employee is inclined to stay with the organisation, regardless of whether the circumstances affecting the organisation are favourable or unfavourable (Allen and Meyer, 1990: 1).

**Figure 1.1: Framework for understanding organisational culture and organisational commitment**



Source: Researcher's own construction adapted from Hellriegel *et al.* (2004: 364) and based on the work of Harrison and Stokes (1992) and Allen and Meyer (1990).

In this research, organisational commitment will also be treated as a multidimensional construct, where three components of commitment will be investigated, namely affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1991).

It is important to measure the levels of organisational commitment within the selected local municipality, as committed employees will be inclined to be more efficient and effective in their service delivery, making sacrifices for the organisation in order for it to thrive (Greenberg and Baron, 2003: 162). Lahiry (1994: 51) further confirms that employee commitment has an effect on how well the organisation performs and delivers its services and that organisational commitment can be strengthened by changing the organisation's culture.

The selected municipality has been through a process of transformation, during which different organisational cultures have had to be merged into a common organisational culture (Planact, 2001: 4). For this reason, the diagnosing of organisational culture within the selected municipality is important because, as stated previously, the organisational culture can affect the level of employee commitment on the transformed organisation (Lahiry, 1994: 51). Furthermore, it is important to assess the level of employee commitment within the selected municipality as committed employees will be inclined to be more involved with customers and the community, thereby improving the service delivery of the municipality (Greenberg and Baron, 2003: 163).

Consequently, the problem statement of this research can be stated as: determining the influence of organisational culture on organisational commitment at a selected local municipality.

## 1.2 RESEARCH PURPOSE, OBJECTIVES AND HYPOTHESES

To give effect to the problem statement, the primary purpose of this survey research was to examine the influence of organisational culture on organisational commitment within a selected municipality. It was postulated that organisational culture and the level of commitment, in turn, influence service delivery. To achieve the purpose of this research, the following objectives have been stated:

- To identify the profile of the existing and preferred organisational cultures, namely power, role, achievement and support, within the selected municipality;
- To ascertain the gap between the existing and preferred organisational cultures, namely power, role, achievement and support, within the selected municipality;
- To identify the profile of the organisational commitment, namely affective, continuance and normative, within the selected municipality;
- To gauge the extent to which the existing and preferred organisational cultures influence organisational commitment within the selected municipality;
- To gauge the extent to which the organisational culture gap (difference between existing and preferred organisational culture) influences the organisational commitment within the selected local municipality;
- To investigate the relationship between biographical variables and organisational culture, organisational commitment and the organisational culture gap.

To give effect to the research objectives, three sets of hypotheses were formulated, which are graphically illustrated in Figure 1.2.

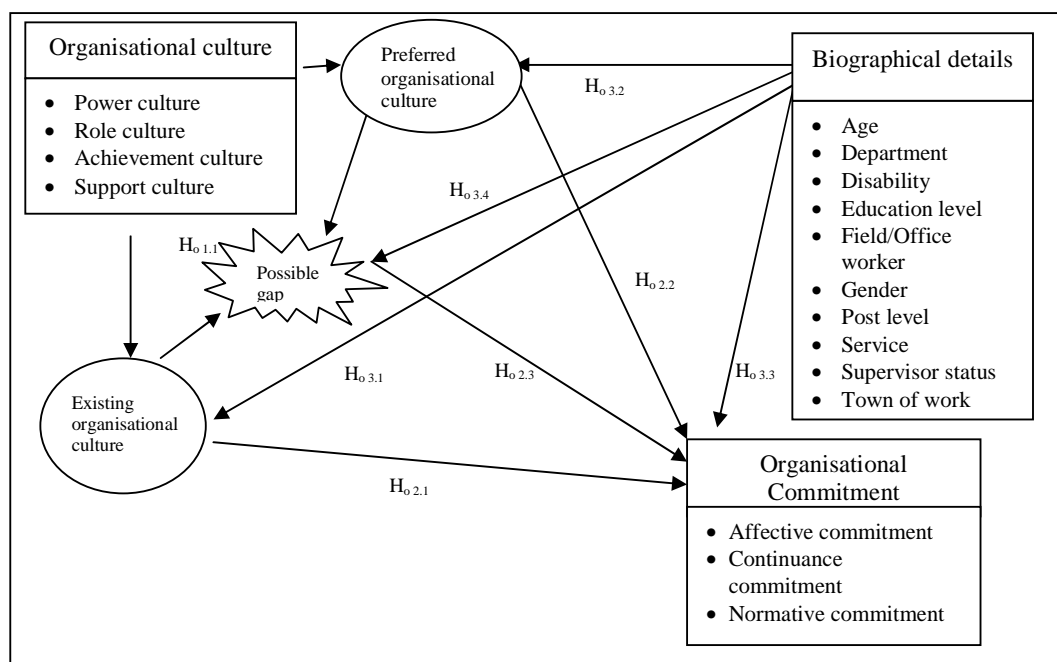
More specifically, the following three sets of hypotheses were stated, namely:

- **First set of hypotheses: The difference between the existing organisational culture and the preferred organisational culture**

H<sub>o 1.1</sub>: The average gap scores between the existing organisational culture scales and the preferred organisational culture scales are not significantly different.

$H_{a\ 1.1}$ : The average gap scores between the existing organisational culture scales and the preferred organisational culture scales have significant differences

**Figure 1.2: Theoretical framework and hypotheses**



Source: Researcher's own construction based on Allen and Meyer (1990); Harrison (1972); and Louw and Boshoff (2006).

- **Second set of hypotheses: The influence of organisational culture on organisational commitment**

$H_{o\ 2.1}$ : There is no statistically significant linear relationship between the existing organisational culture and organisational commitment.

$H_{a\ 2.1}$ : There is a statistically significant linear relationship between the existing organisational culture and organisational commitment.

$H_{o\ 2.2}$ : There is no statistically significant linear relationship between the preferred organisational culture and organisational commitment.

$H_{a\ 2.2}$ : There is a statistically significant linear relationship between the preferred organisational culture and organisational commitment.

$H_{o\ 2.3}$ : There is no statistically significant linear relationship between the organisational culture gap (difference between existing and preferred organisational culture) and organisational commitment.

$H_{a\ 2.3}$ : There is a statistically significant linear relationship between the organisational culture gap (difference between existing and preferred organisational culture) and organisational commitment.

- **Third set of hypotheses: The biographical details**

$H_{o\ 3}$ : There are no statistically significant relationships between the biographical variables and the:

$H_{o\ 3.1}$ : Existing organisational culture;

$H_{o\ 3.2}$ : Preferred organisational culture; and

$H_{o\ 3.3}$ : Organisational commitment.

$H_{a\ 3}$ : There are statistically significant relationships between the biographical variables and the:

$H_{a\ 3.1}$ : Existing organisational culture;

$H_{a\ 3.2}$ : Preferred organisational culture; and

$H_{a\ 3.3}$ : Organisational commitment.

$H_{o\ 3.4}$ : The average organisational culture gap scores of the organisational culture scales for the biographical variables are not significantly different.

H<sub>a 3.4</sub>: The average organisational culture gap scores of the organisational culture scales for the biographical variables are significantly different.

### 1.3 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

In order to determine whether organisational culture has a statistically significant influence on the organisational commitment within the selected municipality, a positivistic research paradigm was followed, due to the research being quantitative in nature (Remenyi, 1996). Paradigm refers to the “progress of scientific practice based on people’s philosophies and assumptions about the world and the nature of knowledge” and about how research should be conducted (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 46). The positivistic paradigm can also be described as a quantitative, objectivist, scientific, experimentalist, or traditionalist research paradigm (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 47).

In order to realise the objectives of the current research and to test the hypotheses, the research strategy was divided into two main components, namely primary and secondary research. A detailed exposition of the research methodology followed in this research will be discussed in chapter four.

#### **1.3.1 Secondary sources**

Secondary sources from subject disciplines of organisational behaviour, organisational culture, and organisation commitment were first consulted. International and national data searches at the main library of Rhodes University included: EBSCO HOST, BUSINESS SOURCE PREMIER, SABINET, relevant abstracts and indexes, the Rhodes University catalogue of Rhodes theses, and the internet. As far as could be ascertained from these data bases, no similar research has previously been undertaken in South Africa.

Secondary information sources that focused on organisational behaviour, with regards to organisational culture and organisational commitment, that were found to be relevant to this research included:

- Government publications and books that dealt with local municipalities such as Averweg (2005), Delivery (2006), Government Gazette (1995). Also internet sites relevant to local government transformation and the importance of service delivery at the local government level, such as Markinor (2007) and Mbeki (2006).
- Research articles, research journals and books dealing with the organisational culture within a selected organisation, such as Clugston *et al.* (2000), Deal and Kennedy (1982), Harrison (1972), Harrison and Stokes (1992), Hellriegel *et al.* (2004), and Rowe *et al.* (1994).
- Research articles, research journals and books dealing with the organisational commitment of employees, for example, Allen and Meyer (1990), Greenberg (1996), Meyer and Allen (1991), Rashid *et al.* (2003).

### **1.3.2 Primary sources**

The population of the research included employees of a selected Eastern Cape municipality. The sample size included only those employees who could read and write in English, which accounted for approximately 250 employees. The municipality contacted the researcher in order for the research to be conducted at their municipality, where the researcher was given final permission to conduct the research once all the managers had discussed the research at their managers meeting. Data was collected by means of a structured questionnaire, which was divided into three sections. Section A included biographical questions, such as age, gender, highest level of education, department, post level and which town the employee currently works at for the selected Municipality. In Section B, there were 15 statements each containing 4 sub-statements. The 4 sub-statements reflect each of the organisational cultural types developed by Harrison and Stokes



(1992), namely power orientation, role orientation, achievement orientation and support orientation. Respondents were requested to rank the 4 sub-statements according to the extent to which they agree (4 = most preferred) or disagree (1 = least preferred) with each statement. Each of these statements had to be ranked twice, once according to how employees perceive things are at present (existing culture) and second, the way the employees would like the culture to be (preferred culture).

The Harrison and Stokes (1992) framework was chosen for two reasons. Firstly, Harrison's (1972) classification is similar to other classifications and it suggests four cultural orientations: (1) power orientation; (2) role orientation; (3) task orientation and (4) person orientation. Secondly, based on Harrison's (1972) classification, Harrison and Stokes (1992) developed a research instrument which has subsequently been tested in South Africa by Grebe (1997); Harmse (2001); and Louw and Boshoff (2006).

Section C of the questionnaire, pertaining to organisational commitment, consisted of 21 statements reflecting the three-component conceptualisation scales of organisational commitment developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) namely, affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. The 21 statements were all linked to a five-point Likert-type interval scale. This interval scaled instrument enables the researcher to perform statistical data analysis as described below (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005: 26-27; Cooper and Schindler 2003: 227-228).

The Corporate Services Manager at the selected municipality acted as an internal co-ordinator who ensured the questionnaires were printed and was the person with whom the researcher could liaise. The questionnaire was administered and data collected on site at the two towns which fall under the selected local municipality's area of jurisdiction. At the on site data collection sessions, a research team assisted the researcher in gathering the data. The research team consisted of the researcher, an Afrikaans translator, an isiXhosa translator, and an

assistant who ensured that all the respondents understood what was expected of them in completing the questionnaire as accurately as possible. In addition, a cover letter explaining the purpose of this research accompanied the questionnaire, which ensured that respondents were knowledgeable of the purpose of this research. The researcher ensured nondisclosure of the respondent's details and no authentication was attached to the submitted questionnaires. The researcher guaranteed that none of the individual answers would be made publicly known and the research data was only being used for research purposes.

Data was analysed in three phases. Firstly, descriptive statistics were analysed with regards to the biographical information. Secondly, an assessment of the reliability (internal consistency) of the measuring instruments was done by means of a Cronbach alpha reliability analysis. The final data analysis phase comprised of descriptive and inferential statistics, namely Wilks' Lambda Effect Test, Pearson's correlation coefficient, and Pearson's chi-square test, which assessed the hypothesised relationships, as mentioned in Section 1.2 of this chapter (Blumberg, Cooper, and Schindler, 2005: 743; Zikmund, 2003: 576).

#### 1.4 DEMARCATIION OF THE RESEARCH

- Within this research, the term municipality and organisation will be used synonymously. This research concerns a selected local municipality in the province of the Eastern Cape with two towns included that fall under the area of jurisdiction of the selected local municipality. This selected municipality was chosen because top management requested that a diagnosis of the municipality's organisational culture be conducted in order to assess the municipality's organisational commitment of employees.
- A selected local municipality was chosen because they are going through a process of transformation where service delivery is a key factor in the job descriptions of employees at local municipalities.

- The sample size of the research includes all employees of the selected municipality who could read and write in English, approximately 250 employees.

### 1.5 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

Chapter one serves as the introduction and orientation to the research, and therefore introduces the concepts that will be discussed in the research. It also lays out the importance of the research and the research aims and hypotheses. Primary and secondary sources relevant to the research are discussed. A demarcation of the research is included in this chapter, followed by the structure of the thesis.

Chapter two will contain the theoretical overview of organisational culture. Literature will be examined based on organisational culture, followed by a discussion of four organisational culture typologies, or frameworks. Finally, the determinants of organisational culture will be assessed, as well as the organisational culture's effect on the organisational commitment of employees.

Chapter three will offer a theoretical overview of organisational commitment with specific focus on Allen and Meyer's three-component conceptualisation of organisational commitment. The chapter will discuss organisational commitment in relation to service delivery, as well as the importance of having a committed workforce. Attention will also be given to theory regarding the impact of organisational culture on organisational commitment.

Chapter four will include an overview of the research methodology of the research. This chapter will focus on the research method, design, data collection, and a short explanation of the statistical analysis that was conducted. The research paradigm will be described in detail, as well as a brief discussion regarding the validity and reliability of previous research that utilised the

measuring instruments. Lastly, ethical considerations pertinent to this research will be commented on.

Chapter five will focus on the empirical findings and discussion of the research. The data received from the questionnaires will be analysed and discussed with reference to the literature in chapters two and three. The purpose of this chapter will be to discuss the findings with regards to the stated hypotheses. The hypotheses will either be rejected or not rejected once compared to the statistical data.

Chapter six consists of the conclusions, limitations and recommendations of the research. This chapter summarises the thesis, comments on the limitations that the researcher experienced while conducting the research, and makes recommendations as to how the municipality can manage the organisational culture in order to increase the organisational commitment of employees and the service delivery of the municipality.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

The concept of organizational culture has been significant in the study of organizational behaviour because it is an important lever in enhancing organisations' key capabilities and how they function, and therefore is a popular business topic in both academic research and the business press (Chen, 2004: 432; Nazir, 2005: 40; O'Reilly, 1989: 9; O'Reilly, Chatman and Coldwell, 1991: 487; Silverthorne, 2004: 593; van der Post, de Coning and Smit, 1997: 147). Organisational culture is an important factor used to determine how well an employee fits into their organisational context, and it has been asserted that a good fit between the employee and their organization is important (Nazir, 2005: 40; O'Reilly *et al.*, 1991: 487; Silverthorne, 2004: 593). In addition, Nazir (2005: 40) and Silverthorne (2004: 597) state that organisational culture also affects the commitment of employees within an organisation and that the strength of organisational commitment is correlated with the strength of organisational culture. It is usually understood that a strong culture is synonymous with consistency, because the beliefs and values of the organisation are shared relatively consistently throughout the organisation, and therefore, the management of culture can be treated as the management of commitment (Nazir, 2005: 40-41). If the culture is very strong, then employees know the organisation's goals and they are working for those goals, which increases the commitment of employees (Deal and Kennedy, 1982: 4).

Individuals may be attracted to organisations that have values that are perceived as similar to their own; therefore they will be more committed to their job (O'Reilly *et al.*, 1991: 492; Smith, 2003: 249). Nazir (2005: 40) states that having an organisational culture, more specifically a set of values that is commonly shared by the organisations employees, may be beneficial to organisations operating in the service sector, similarly this would also be the case

for the selected municipality, which operates in the public service sector at the local government level.

Irrespective of whether the organisational culture is strong or weak, it has also been asserted that it influences the entire organisation and affects everyone throughout that organisation (Deal and Kennedy, 1982: 4). Organisational culture also has an effect on the performance of the organisation (Deal and Kennedy, 1982: 4; Smith, 2003: 249). Kotter and Heskett (1992: 11-12) studied the relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance and their research came to four important conclusions: (1) Organisational culture is able to impact significantly on an organisation's long term economic performance; (2) Organisational culture's importance as a factor in determining organisational success or failure will increase in the next ten years; (3) It is common and easy to develop organisational cultures that reduce an organisation's long term financial performance; and (4) Organisational culture can be changed to be more performance enhancing, even though organisational culture is difficult to change.

Given the importance of organisational culture and its influence on organisational performance, it is critical that local municipalities also consider organisational culture's influence on their performance. This is particularly relevant given the amalgamation of municipalities due to the transformation process since 2000, as explained in Chapter 1. Due to this amalgamation of municipalities, various cultures have come together and the municipalities have to understand and develop the strongest culture. Hellriegel *et al.* (2004: 361) and Rowe *et al.* (1994: 472) believe that when organisations from different segments amalgamate, such as with some of the South African local municipalities, cultural clashes often arise unexpectedly. These cultural clashes are one of the predominant reasons that amalgamations often fail to meet desired expectations (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 361). Parker and Bradley (2000: 125) have a similar view to Hellriegel *et al.* (2004: 361) by stating that from a management view point, there is concern for the lack of understanding of organisational culture.

This would also be applicable to the public service sector at the local government level. This concern pertains to how management techniques, which are related to the new public management, will conflict with the attitudes, values and culture within the selected municipality (Harrow and Wilcocks, 1990).

To achieve the organisational culture related objectives of this research, as stated in Section 1.2 of Chapter 1, the purpose of this chapter is to gain insight into organisational culture and the typologies that are used to classify organisational culture. One particular typology, from Harrison and Stokes (1992), will be used in this research and will therefore be focused on in detail in this chapter. More specifically, the theoretical perspectives pertaining to the typologies of organisational culture, organisational cultures functions and determinants, as well as the mechanisms that are used to develop culture, as well as the effects of organisational culture on organisational commitment will be discussed.

## 2.2 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE CONCEPTUALISED

There are many definitions of organisational culture and the concept is difficult to define (Hellriegel, *et al.*, 2004: 357; Hofstede, 1994: 1; Martin, 2001: 584; O'Reilly *et al.*, 1991: 491; Rowe *et al.*, 1994: 472; Schein, 1992: 52). It is, however, important to have clarity on what is meant by the term organisational culture, if it is to be analysed and managed (O'Reilly, 1989: 10). According to Hellriegel *et al.* (2004: 357), organisational culture is the distinctive pattern of shared assumptions, values and norms that shape the socialisation activities, language, symbols, rites and ceremonies of a group of people. This definition by Hellriegel *et al.* (2004: 357) emphasizes a number of important aspects of organisational culture, such as shared assumption, shared values, shared socialisation and norms, and shared symbols, language, narratives and practices; and also emphasizes how organizational culture assists employees in being introduced and socialized into the new organisation, while concurrently ensuring internal integration. In doing so, organisational culture lets the employees know

how to perceive, think and feel when faced with new problems within their new organisational environment.

Rowe *et al.*, (1994: 472) provide a similar definition to Hellriegel *et al.* (2004: 357), in which organisational culture is defined as the combination of shared values, attitudes, beliefs, rituals, norms, expectations, and assumptions of the people within the organisation. Rowe *et al.* (1994: 472) go on to indicate that corporate rituals provide a way of showing the beliefs and values of the organisation, and therefore define the organisational culture, social interaction, priorities, and way in which employees deal with one another. Rowe *et al.* (1994: 472) also acknowledge the importance of the socialisation process of new employees into the organisation. This form of socialisation, through organisational rituals, assists employees in understanding and adhering to specific practices and procedures within the organisation (Rowe *et al.*, 1994: 472).

Schein (1992: 12) defines organisational culture as “a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, which has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.” With regards to this definition, Schein (1992: 12) have a similar view to Rowe *et al.* (1994: 472) that socialisation plays an important role in what is passed on to new generations of employees. Furthermore, the way in which a new employee learns, and the socialisation process to which they are subjected, may reveal deeper assumptions (Schein, 1992: 12).

O'Reilly *et al.* (1991: 491) add to the above definitions by stating that organisational culture can be thought of as a set of cognitions that is shared by members of a specific social unit or organisation, which includes elements such as fundamental assumptions, values, behavioural norms and expectations. Deal (1984; in Rowe *et al.*, 1994: 472) observed that employee social needs are met

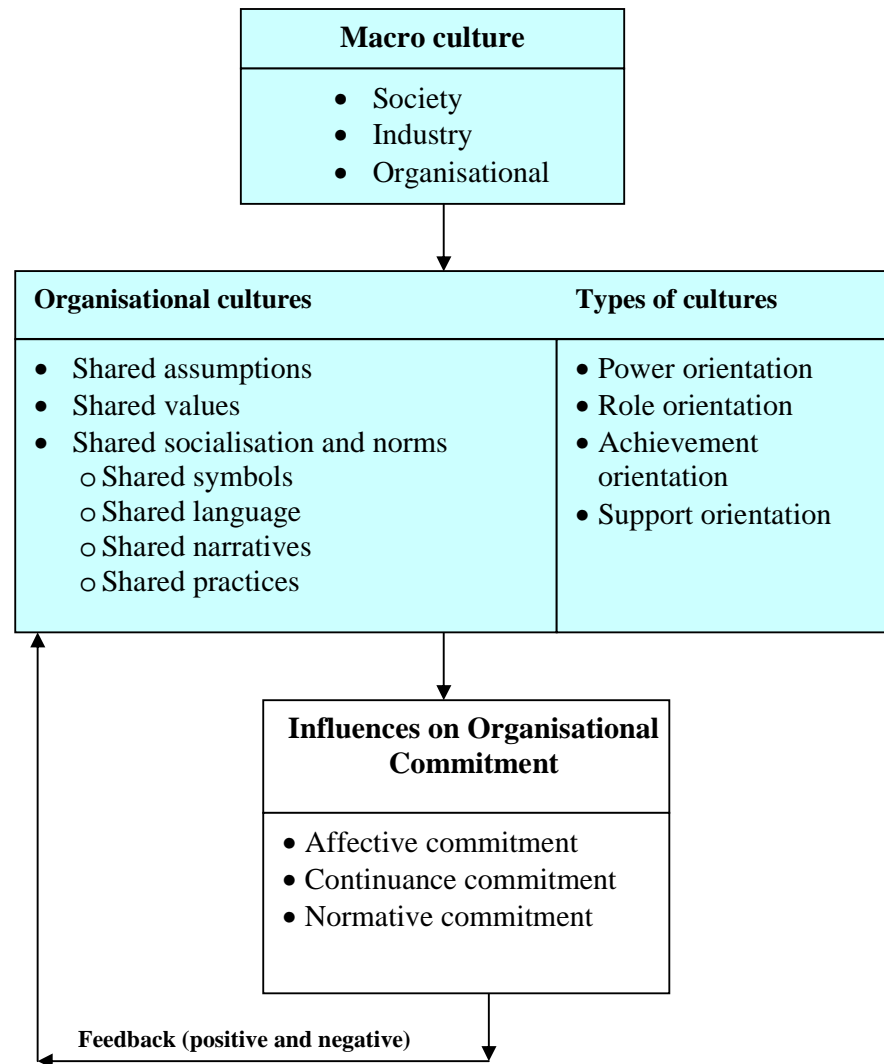


by defining relationships, specifying roles and duties and establishing set standards that are to be adhered to. Deal and Kennedy (1982: 4) have a similar perspective to that of O'Reilly *et al.* (1991: 491) and explain their definition of organisational culture as the “integrated pattern of human behaviour that includes thought, speech, action and artefacts and depends on man’s capacity for learning and transmitting knowledge to succeeding generations.” The informal cultural elements of an organisation can be described as the way things are done around the organisation (Deal and Kennedy, 1982: 4).

For the purpose of this research, organisational culture will be defined as the distinctive pattern of shared assumptions, values and norms that shape the socialisation activities, language, symbols, rites and ceremonies of a group of people. This follows the definition given by Hellriegel *et al.* (2004: 357) because it is the most comprehensive definition, which includes aspects referred to by other authors, such as O'Reilly *et al.* (1991: 491), Rowe *et al.* (1994: 472) and Schein (1992: 12).

Figure 2.1 illustrates a framework for understanding organisational culture and organisational commitment. As the purpose of this chapter is to discuss the theoretical perspectives of the organisation pertaining to organisational culture, only the relevant sections, shaded in Figure 2.1 will be discussed. Firstly, the first layer of Figure 2.1, the macro culture, will be discussed. This level consists of three levels of culture: the society, industry and organisational cultural levels. Secondly, the second layer, which comprises the aspects of organisational culture and also the different typologies of organisational culture, will also be discussed. Emphasis will be placed on the cultural framework provided by Harrison and Stokes (1992), which is illustrated in Figure 2.1 in the second layer and includes four organisational culture types, namely the power culture, role culture, achievement culture, and support culture. Finally, the third layer pertaining to organisational commitment will be discussed in Chapter 3.

**Figure 2.1: Organisational culture and organisational commitment**



Source: Researcher's own construction adapted from Hellriegel *et al.* (2004: 364) and based on the work of Harrison and Stokes (1992) and Allen and Meyer (1990).

### 2.3 MACRO CULTURE LEVEL

It can be seen in Figure 2.1 that three levels of culture at the macro level are identifiable as most important to managing organisations: (1) Societal culture, (2) industry culture, and (3) organisational culture (Hellriegel, *et al.*, 2004: 360). The boundaries of these cultures on a macro level are often blurred or fuzzy (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 360; Sathe, 1983: 6). Due to the non-concrete nature of

culture, it is best to view culture in relative terms, such as levels, rather than trying to describe it directly (Hellriegel, *et al.*, 2004: 360). Knowledge of these levels of culture will assist management at the selected municipality in fully understanding the background and development of organisational culture. This will enable managers to make the correct decisions regarding their organisation's employees (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 357).

Even though the emphasis of this research is on the organisational culture level, it is acknowledged that an organisation's culture is influenced by the larger societal and industrial cultures as described below (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 357).

### **2.3.1 Society cultures**

The society level is part of the macro culture level. Hofstede (1999: 34) believes that management is all about people and that people are therefore part of the culture of the society in which that culture takes place. This cultural level encompasses the most general level of aggregation, and therefore the most number of people in a particular country (Hellriegel, *et al.*, 2004: 360). Managers who work in a society culture that they do not understand are likely to make poor decisions with regards to how their organisations are staffed, and also how to motivate those employees (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 361).

Society values have many far-reaching consequences for managing organisations, because they shape the preferences and behaviours of customers and employees, as well as the members of the communities in which the organisation operates (Brown, 1995: 45; Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 361). Values are a core element in culture and they are the broad tendencies of people to prefer certain states of affairs to others (Hofstede, 1999: 35). People's relationships within a society are affected by those values that form part of the group programming of people's minds in that society, and therefore, management is subject to cultural values (Hofstede, 1999: 35).

According to Hellriegel *et al.* (2004: 361) and Brown (1995: 42), experienced managers realise that cultures often change significantly from north to south or from the seashore to the landlocked interior within countries. In that sense, organisations are therefore subject to the same cultural forces that act upon every other aspect of life in that situation within that national or societal setting (Martin, 2001: 604). Hellriegel *et al.* (2004: 361) also state that in many countries, including South Africa, distinct regional subcultures are present, and therefore members of a society do not share the same attitudes, values and norms. South Africa has a number of subcultures (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 361). These ethnic subcultures are often based on language, race and religion, yet subcultures can be identified geographically, or according to South Africa's eleven official languages that are spoken (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 361).

### **2.3.2 Industry (local government) cultures**

Industry cultures, such as the public service sector at the local government level, represent groups of organisations that share common values, assumptions, socialisation and norms; and includes all those organisations to which individual organisations have direct or indirect commitments or links (Bosch, Tait and Venter, 2006: 80; Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 360). Deal and Kennedy (1982: 13) and Brown (1995: 45) state that the industrial environment is the most influential factor in shaping an organisational culture.

Brown (1995: 191) suggests that particular industry sectors have their own cultures and therefore organisations have to look at their individual industry culture in order to successfully establish their strategy formulation and enhance their organisational effectiveness. Identifying the boundaries that exist between industry cultures can be as difficult as locating the boundaries between subcultures, yet when employees shift between industries, they can usually sense the cultural differences (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 361). All municipalities work within the same public service sector at the local government level and therefore may have some similarities in their cultures due to the difficulty in locating the boundaries between the local government sectors and the municipal cultures.

Therefore elements of the local government sector culture are incorporated into the municipality's own culture (Harmse, 2001: 7; Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 360).

The third level of culture is organisational culture, which will be discussed in the following section.

## 2.4 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Organisational culture is a result of many factors, some of which are the type of business the organisation is in, its products, its customers, its size and location and its methods of operating (Rowe *et al.*, 1994). Figure 2.1 shows that organisational cultures are influenced by the macro cultures of societies and industries (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 363).

Organisational culture can be viewed as the unique pattern of shared assumptions, values, norms, attitudes, symbols, beliefs, rituals, socialisation, and expectations of the people in the organisation (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 357; O'Reilly *et al.*, 1991: 491; Rowe *et al.*, 1994: 472; Schein, 1992: 12). According to the definition by Hellriegel *et al.* (2004: 357), the base of culture is formed by shared assumptions, values and norms, and these cannot be observed. The more visible and observable elements, such as its socialisation activities, symbols, language, practices and narratives, are the only way in which culture can be inferred (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 357).

One way of describing organisational culture is by comparing it to personality, because, like personality, culture affects how people behave when they are not being told what to do (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 357). Harrison and Stokes (1992: 13) agree with Hellriegel *et al.* (2004: 357) and they explain that culture is to an organisation, what personality is to an individual.

The next section will discuss the shared assumptions, shared values, shared attitudes and norms of organisational culture.

### **2.4.1 Shared assumptions**

Shared assumptions can be seen as the widely held, inherent, unique, and deeply rooted views that individuals take for granted and believe to be true, and which guide their views, feelings and emotions about things and how those things function (Brown, 1995: 22; Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 358; Martin, 2001: 588; Parker and Bradley, 2000: 127). Shared assumptions typically remain unquestioned, and are accepted as truth (Schein, 1992: 12). Schein (1992: 12) mentions that an organisation only has a culture when it has had enough of a history to have developed this set of shared assumptions. Smith (2003: 249) states that assumptions have been developed, invented or discovered by employees out of their experience, and future employees therefore view these assumptions as valid because they appear to have been successful in the past. These assumptions are seen as important enough to teach to new members of the organisation when they enter because they define how employees should perceive, think and feel about problems (Smith, 2003: 249).

### **2.4.2 Shared values**

Hofstede (1999: 35) defines cultural values as the broad tendencies of individuals to prefer certain states of affairs over others, and that these cultural values are about “what is evil and what is good, dirty and clean, immoral and moral, irrational and rational”. Hellriegel (*et al.*, 2004: 358) and Deal and Kennedy (1982: 14) identify values as basic concepts and beliefs about conditions that are very important and meaningful to employees and are stable over time. Values therefore form the heart of the organisational culture. Hofstede (1999: 35) adds that cultural values among societies are different, but they are relatively stable over time within a society. Values that have been stable for a long time without being contravened may be taken for granted, so much so that employees are no longer aware of them (Sathe, 1983: 8).

Hofstede (1999: 35) and Hellriegel *et al.* (2004: 358) also believe that values are a core element in culture. For example, many organisations are attempting to

ensure that all employees value ethical and socially responsible conduct. Values are closely associated with moral and ethical codes, and they determine what employees think ought to be done (Brown, 1995: 21). As the values begin to be taken for granted because they are seen to work reliably, then social validation may turn values into a scarcely questioned belief (Brown, 1995: 22). Nazir (2005: 40) agrees that having values that are both commonly shared and strongly held are very important within an organisation, especially to organisations operating in the service sector. This aspect is, therefore, particularly important to local municipalities operating in the public service sector at the local government level.

#### **2.4.3 Shared socialisation and norms**

Norms are general rules or patterns of behaviours of groups of members, and become an element of the organisation's culture when they are shared throughout an organisation (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 359; Martin, 2001: 589). An example of norms within the public sector could include the selected local municipality setting specific behavioural standards for employees, for instance smiling and making eye contact when talking to customers (Martin, 2001: 589). Norms can be seen as standard expectations about what are appropriate attitudes and behaviours within an organisation. Individuals enter into the organisation and are introduced to the organisation's cultural norms and are expected to follow them (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 359; Martin, 2001: 589; O'Reilly, 1989: 12; Sathe, 1983: 7). This systematic process in which new members of an organisation are brought into a culture is known as socialisation (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 359). Socialisation is a very important aspect of introducing new employees to the culture of the organisation (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 357; Rowe *et al.*, 1994: 472). Socialisation at the society level occurs within the family, in schools and religious organisations, as well as through the media (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 359). Socialisation at the local government level takes place through activities conducted by local government associations, such as the South African Local Government Association.

#### **2.4.4 Shared symbols, language, narratives and practices**

A symbol is an object that can be used to represent an underlying meaning, beyond its intrinsic context (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 359; Greenberg and Baron, 2003: 523). Symbols could be words, objects and gestures that get their meaning from socialising (Hofstede, 1994: 1). Organisations often rely on symbols because they are the simplest and basic observable form of expressing culture (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 359; Greenberg and Baron, 2003: 523). A symbol can be anything as simple as a uniform or logo, to open versus closed office door norms, office size and layout (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 359).

Everyday language that is made use of is not purely a way to communicate, but also a fundamental determinant of how people understand the world they live in (Brown, 1995: 12). Hellriegel *et al.*, (2004: 359) define language, from a cultural perspective, as a shared system of vocal sounds, written signs, as well as gestures that are used to convey special meanings among employees. The idea that words generate understanding has important implications for the study of organisational culture (Brown, 1995: 12).

Narratives are drawn from the organisation's history, and focus on a unified, single event (Brown, 1995: 13). Individuals tell narratives because they assist in influencing others' understandings of situations and events, as well as illustrating knowledge and insight into how their organisation works (Brown, 1995: 13). Brown (1995: 13) states that narratives are also important indicators of "cultural values and beliefs; formal and informal rules and procedures; the consequences of deviance from, and compliance with, the rules; and social categories and status, and thus the power structure of an organisation."

Shared practices allow organisations to show the values and beliefs of the organisation to the employees, and therefore define the organisation's culture through these (Rowe *et al.*, 1994: 472). Shared practices include taboos, and rights and ceremonies. Taboos are behaviours within an organisation that are



forbidden, for example, putting profits ahead of ethical considerations such as the municipal employees receiving high salaries yet not delivering basic services to the community (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 360). Rights and ceremonies are elaborate and formal activities that have been designed to generate strong emotions from employees such as formal prize-giving functions for employees who have achieved high standards of service (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 360).

Due to the complex nature of organisational culture, one way of analysing this concept is to consider the different theoretical frameworks or typologies.

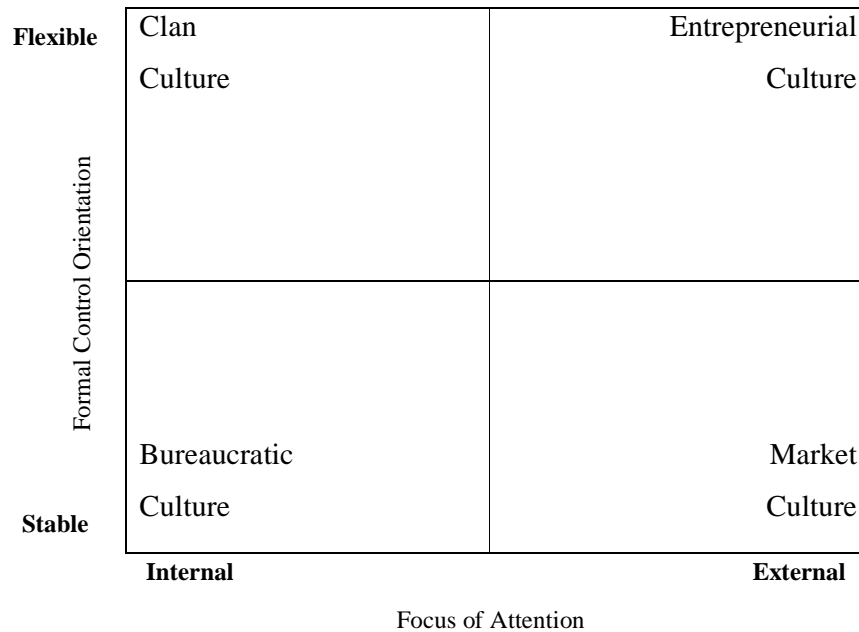
## 2.5 TYPOLOGIES OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

A number of theoretical frameworks, or typologies, have been designed with regards to organisational culture (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Harrison and Stokes, 1992; Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004; Hofstede, 1993; Rowe *et al.*, 1994; Schein, 1992). Typologies are useful because they provide broad overviews of the variations that exist between organisational cultures (Brown, 1995: 67). In order to get a better understanding of different concepts of organisational culture, four typologies will be briefly discussed, with particular emphasis on the Harrison and Stokes (1992) typology, as referred to previously and illustrated in Figure 2.1.

### **2.5.1 Hellriegel, Jackson, Slocum, Staude, Amos, Klopper, Louw and Oosthuizen's organisational culture typology**

Hellriegel *et al.* (2004: 365) state that cultural elements and their relationships within an organisation create a pattern that is a unique part of that organisation, creating an organisation's culture. Several types of organisational culture can be described, namely the bureaucratic culture, clan culture, entrepreneurial culture, and market culture (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 365-368). Figure 2.2 graphically represents the first typology that will be discussed with regards to organisational culture.

**Figure 2.2: Hellriegel Jackson, Slocum, Staude, Amos, Klopper, Louw and Oosthuizen's organisational culture typology**



Source: Hellriegel *et al.* (2004: 365)

In Figure 2.2, the vertical axis reflects the relative formal control orientation within the organisation, which ranges from stable control to flexible control. The horizontal axis, on the other hand, reflects the relative focus of attention of the organisation, and ranges from internal functioning to external functioning. The farthest corners of the four quadrants correspond to four pure organisational cultural types, which are bureaucratic, clan, entrepreneurial and market. Each of the four organisational cultural types developed by Hellriegel *et al.* (2004: 365) will be briefly discussed.

- **Bureaucratic Culture:** This type of organisation values rules, hierarchical coordination, formalisation and standard operating procedures; with the long term concerns being efficiency, predictability and stability (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 365-366). Managers within a bureaucratic organisation are good coordinators, organisers and enforcers of rules and procedures that are clearly

defined. The tasks, responsibilities and authority for all the organisation's employees are also clearly stated. Hellriegel *et al.* (2004: 366) assert that most municipalities and government institutions have bureaucratic cultures, which can hinder their effectiveness and efficiency. The focus of attention of this organisation is internal, and the formal control is stable.

- Clan Culture: Attributes of this type of organisation are tradition, loyalty, teamwork, personal commitment and self-management. The organisation focuses their attention internally, yet their formal control is flexible. The members of this organisation recognise an obligation that is beyond their job descriptions, with the understanding that their contributions to the organisation may exceed their contractual agreements. Employees identify that their long term commitment to their organisation, in the form of loyalty, is in exchange for the organisation's long term commitment to the employee, in the form of security. Unity from this culture type is created through a long and thorough socialisation process, where long term clan members serve as mentors and role models for newer members. There is also strong peer pressure to adhere to important norms within the organisation, and an environment is created in which few departments are left completely free from normative pressures, which may generate innovation and risk-taking behaviour (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 366). Success of this type of organisation is assumed to depend on teamwork, participation, consensus decision making, as well as employee sensitivity to customers and concern for people (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 366).
- Entrepreneurial Culture: This cultural form is characterised by high levels of risk-taking, dynamism and creativity (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 367). Employees are committed to experimentation, innovation and being on the leading edge. This organisational culture type reacts quickly to change, as well as creates it due to the fact that individual initiative, flexibility and freedom promoting growth are encouraged and rewarded (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 367). Effectiveness within this organisation means providing new and unique products and rapid growth. The organisation focuses their attention

externally and formal control orientation is flexible in order to foster innovation and change.

- **Market Culture:** According to Hellriegel *et al.* (2004: 367), the achievement of measurable and demanding goals, especially those that are finance-based and market-based are characteristics of this type of organisational culture. In this organisation, the relationship between employee and organisation is contractual, where the obligation of each is agreed in advance, therefore the formal control orientation is quite stable. This is because the employee is responsible for an agreed level of performance; with the organisation exchanging this for an agreed level of remuneration and reward in return (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 367). Competitiveness and a profit gaining orientation therefore exist throughout this organisation because increased levels of performance from the employee are rewarded through increased compensation from the organisation (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004: 367).

### **2.5.2 Deal and Kennedy's organisational culture typology**

Deal and Kennedy (1988) developed two particular aspects of organisational culture. They firstly describe four types of culture, which are based on the effects of the degree of risk and speed of feedback that comes from the environment on decision-making. Secondly, Deal and Kennedy (1988) added a perspective that includes the existence of strong and weak cultures. Figure 2.3 illustrates the second typology that will be discussed with regards to organisational culture as proposed by Deal and Kennedy (1988).

Figure 2.3 shows four types of culture that are described by Deal and Kennedy (1988):

- **Work and play hard culture:** Group members of this type of culture who both work and play enthusiastically tend to be unified. Organisations with low risk but rapid feedback would typically have this type of culture, which emphasises fun and action (Brown, 1995: 71).

**Figure 2.3: Deal and Kennedy's organisational culture typology**

<b>Feedback</b>	Rapid	Work and play hard culture	Macho culture
	Slow	Process culture	Bet your company culture
		Low	High
		<b>Risk</b>	

Source: Adapted from Grebe (1997: 18)

- **Process culture**: This culture places emphasis on the systems and procedures within the organisation. This type of culture can typically be found in organisations in a low risk environment, with slow feedback, where the success of the organisation comes from attention to detail. The lack of feedback in this type of organisation means that employees focus more on how they perform a task, as opposed to what task they perform (Brown, 1995: 71).
- **Macho culture**: This type of culture is one that is based on the individual employee and the ability of the crucial person to be able to achieve the organisation's objectives. This culture will be found in organisations where risk is high, and feedback on the quality of their actions and decisions is rapid.
- **Bet your company culture**: This cultural type emphasises technical skill, and can be found in organisations where the risks are very high, yet the feedback

is slow when coming from the environment. Due to the slow feedback, this classification relies heavily on the knowledge of technical specialists to get it right within the directional guidelines put forward.

Deal and Kennedy's (1988; in Martin, 2001: 597) second perspective is that of strong and weak cultures. A strong culture exists when almost all members support it, or if it is composed of deeply held value and belief sets (Deal and Kennedy, 1988; in Martin, 2001: 597). Some characteristics that are associated with a strong culture are a widely shared philosophy, concern for individuals, recognition of heroes, belief in ritual and ceremony, well-understood informal rules and expectations, and importance of individual contribution to the whole organisation (Deal and Kennedy, 1988; in Martin, 2001: 598). On the other hand, a weak culture is one that is not strongly supported or rooted in the activities and value systems of the group (Deal and Kennedy, 1988; in Martin, 2001: 597).

### **2.5.3 Rowe, Mason, Dickel, Mann and Mockler's organisational culture typology**

Rowe *et al.* (1994: 473) developed a classification which identifies four types of cultural environments, illustrated in Figure 2.4. These classifications of organisational culture suggest that an organisation's culture provides clues to appropriate change strategies, and by studying these clues, an organisation can increase the likelihood of successful implementation of a strategic change (Rowe *et al.*, 1994: 473).

Figure 2.4 indicates the different combinations of organisational values or norms and the organisation's orientations, which produce the four types of cultural orientations within which an organisation is believed to function (Rowe *et al.*, 1994: 473). An organisation's values range from achievement in an open system, to performance in a controlled system (Rowe *et al.*, 1994: 473). Achievement in an open system refers to an organisation being innovative; whereas performance in a controlled system refers to an organisation being market orientated and following market trends. An organisation's orientations

can be either technical, which is differential; or social, which has high levels of integration and coordination (Rowe *et al.*, 1994: 473). Within a technical orientation, an organisation revolves around differentiation and task orientated, and the social orientation refers to an organisation being more people and relationship orientated. The combination of such values or orientation will bring about a specific cultural environment (Rowe *et al.*, 1994: 473).

**Figure 2.4: Rowe, Mason, Dickel, Mann and Mockler's organisational culture typology**

<b>Organisational Values/Norms</b>	Achievement (Open system)	<b>QUALITY CULTURE</b>  Effective Planning Problem Solving  <b>Accepts Change</b>	<b>CREATIVE CULTURE</b>  Innovation Entrepreneurship Risk Taking  <b>Initiates Change</b>
	Performance (Controlled system)	<b>PRODUCTIVE CULTURE</b>  Efficiency Consistence Procedure Rituals  <b>Resists Change</b>	<b>SUPPORTIVE CULTURE</b>  Teamwork Cooperation Growth  <b>Responds to Change</b>
		Technical (differentiation)	Social (Integration)
<b>Organisation's Orientation</b>			

Source: Rowe *et al.* (1994: 474).

The four organisational cultures have different characteristics:

- The productive culture: This cultural type concentrates on efficiency and consistency within an organisation. The organisational values and norms within this cultural environment stress performance, and the organisation's orientation is technical. Due to the technical orientation combined with the controlled system, this type of organisation is likely to resist change.

- The quality culture: The focus in this organisational cultural environment is on the growth of the organisation's employees through problem solving and effective planning. In practice, an organisation with this type is more flexible in its approaches and therefore more accepting when change occurs. The organisation values the achievement of individuals, and there is a strong technical orientation within the organisation.
- The creative culture: The creative culture tends to be innovative and entrepreneurial and is therefore more inclined towards risk taking and initiating change. An advantage of this culture is that change is easily initiated and made. This organisation achieves innovation because it values individual achievement and has a more social orientation.
- The supportive culture: An organisation with this cultural type produces an organisational environment that is characterised by teamwork, cooperation, and reinforcement. The focus of organisational values and norms is on performance, and the organisations orientation is social, and therefore this organisation is quick and ready to respond to change.

#### **2.5.4 Harrison and Stokes's organisational culture typology**

Harrison (1972: 121-123) developed a typology for understanding organisational culture. This typology suggests four organisational cultural orientations: (1) power orientation; (2) role orientation; (3) task orientation and (4) person orientation (Harrison, 1972: 121). Harrison's (1972: 121-123) cultural orientations were adapted by Harrison and Stokes (1992: 14-22) to create the (1) power orientation, (2) role orientation, (3) achievement orientation and (4) support orientation. As shown in Figure 2.1 and previously stated, Harrison and Stokes's (1992: 14-22) organisational culture typology is used in this research to classify the different types of organisational cultures within the selected municipality.

Harrison and Stokes (1992: 13) believe that every organisation has a combination of the four cultural types; with each type evoking different behaviours and each are based on different human values.



- The Power Orientation: This culture type is usually found in small organisations, where everything revolves around the person in charge (Martin, 2005: 493). Harrison and Stokes (1992: 14) explain that an organisation that is power-oriented is based on inequality of access to resources, where a resource can be anything one person controls that another person wants. Within the power culture, people use resources to control other peoples' behaviour (Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 14). Brown (1995: 68) adds that a power culture has a single source of power from which rays of influence, which are connected by functional and specialist strings that facilitate co-ordination, spread throughout the organisation. Martin (2005: 493) adds by adding that all important decisions are made by that person who has the single source of power, and that person retains absolute authority in all matters.

The main features of a power culture in organisational culture include: single-mindedness in approach; dominated by the leader or central person and their personality; with a lack of bureaucracy in operations (Martin, 2001: 590). The greatest strength of the power culture is the ability of the organisation to react quickly, although the success is largely dependent upon the abilities of the leader, or people at the centre of power (Brown, 1995: 68; Martin, 2001: 590).

- The Role Orientation: The role culture is based on the existence of rules, procedures and job descriptions, as opposed to the sole power of the leaders found in the power culture (Brown, 1995: 68; Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 15; Martin, 2001: 590). The struggle for power is moderated by the rules, and these rules lead to the idea that the role culture is a bureaucracy and the organising principles are rationality, order and dependability (Brown, 1995: 68; Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 15; van der Post *et al.*, 1997: 150). In the role culture's bureaucratic working environment, authority and responsibility are delegated downwards, and each level in the organisation has a defined area of

authority where work is able to be done continuously without direct supervision from the top management (Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 15).

An advantage of the role orientation culture is that employees of an organisation are able to allocate more energy to doing their work than without the rules and structures of the role orientation (Harmse, 2001: 12). However, a weakness of this cultural type is that employees are assumed not to be trusted, and individual autonomy and discretion is not given to lower-level members (Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 15). Employees are controlled so much that they may be prevented from making the correct choices and being innovative if it is outside the rules (Harmse, 2001: 12; Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 15). Also, traditional role-orientation organisations may have difficulty keeping up with rapidly changing environments because in the interests of rationality and order, it is difficult to change the rules, and therefore it may take longer to make any necessary changes in order to adapt (Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 15).

- The Achievement Orientation: An achievement type of organisational culture aligns employees with a common vision or purpose (Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 17). The achievement orientation realises the organisation's common vision or purpose by using the organisation's mission to attract and release employees' personal energy in the pursuit of common goals, where the organisation's mission is used to focus the personal energy of the organisation's employees (Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 17). Systems and structures are necessary in an achievement-oriented organisation, and are in place to serve the organisation's mission (Harmse, 2001: 12; Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 17). These systems and structures are altered when alterations in the mission occur, and are therefore more flexible than the rules of law of the role orientation (Harmse, 2001: 12; Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 17).

An advantage of this type of culture is that employees give more willingly to their organisation because employees make their contributions more freely in

response to their commitment to their shared purpose, and as a result, the entire organisation prospers (Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 17). An achievement-orientation organisation also has advantages in the enthusiasm, high energy, and involvement of the employees of the organisation, yet these may also become disadvantages to the organisation (Harmse, 2001: 12; Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 18). The high energy and involvement of employees within this culture type are often difficult to sustain because employees may be subject to burnout and disillusionment when results are not achieved (Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 18).

The achievement orientation also has a disadvantage in the fact that these organisations are often under-organised because employees lack the necessary time for objective planning, and they may rely on the common mission to organise their work (Harmse, 2001: 13; Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 18). When the mission takes on different forms for various parts of the organisation, the organisation may lose unity of effort (Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 18).

- The Support Orientation: The support organisational culture is based on mutual trust between the employee and the organisation (Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 20). Employees working within a support-orientated organisational culture believe that they are valued as human beings, not just as contributors to a task (Harrison, 1993: 37; Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 20). An organisation that has a support culture has a warm and caring atmosphere, where the assumption is that a sense of belonging will create a sense of commitment to the organisation and therefore employees will contribute more within the organisation (Harmse, 2001: 13; Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 21).

Advantages of the support-orientated culture are that employees make sacrifices for one another, and the effects of team loyalty add to the high performance and morale of organisations (Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 22). Motivation and enthusiasm is high, as well as the camaraderie of the

employees, which affect productivity, absenteeism and work quality (Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 22).

The weakness of the support-orientated culture is that these types of organisations tend to be conflict avoiding organisations and difficult issues are often swept under the rug (Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 22). In the interests of equal treatment, differences in employee skills and abilities may be ignored, and decisions may be made “out of kindness”, which impacts negatively on an organisation’s effectiveness and efficiency (Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 22).

To summarise, the main characteristics and values of the four organisational culture typologies are shown in Table 2.1.

**Table 2.1: Classifications of organisational culture typologies**

	<b>Culture classifications</b>	<b>Characteristics</b>	<b>Values</b>
<b>Hellriegel <i>et al.</i>, (2004)</b>	Bureaucratic	Focus of attention is internal Control is stable	Rules, hierarchical coordination, predictability and stability
	Clan	Focus of attention is internal Control is flexible	Teamwork, participation, consensus decision making, loyalty, adherence to norms
	Entrepreneurial	Focus of attention is external Control is flexible	Dynamism, creativity, risk taking
	Market	Focus of control is external Control is stable	Achievement of measurable and demanding goals that are finance- and market-based
<b>Deal and Kennedy (1988)</b>	Work and play hard	Risk is low Feedback is rapid	Fun and action Work and play enthusiastically
	Process	Risk is low Feedback is slow	Attention to detail Focus on how task is performed
	Macho	Risk is high Feedback is slow	individual employee achievement Ability of crucial person to achieve organisations objectives
	Bet your	Risk is high	Technical skill and knowledge

	company	Feedback is rapid	
<b>Rowe et al., (1994)</b>	Productive	Resists change: Performance and technical orientation	Efficiency and consistency within organisation
	Quality	Accepts change: Achievement and technical orientation	Problem solving and effective planning
	Creative	Initiates change: Achievement and social orientation	Innovation and entrepreneurial thinking
	Supportive	Responds to change: Performance and social orientation	Teamwork, cooperation, and reinforcement
<b>Harrison and Stokes (1992)</b>	Power	Based on power	People at centre of power responsible for decision making and have full authority
	Role	Based on structure	Adherence to rules, regulations and job descriptions
	Achievement	Based on competence	Shared purpose, goals and mission
	Support	Based on relationships	Trust between employee and organisation, employees valued as human beings not contributors to a task

Source: Researcher's own construction (2007)

The Harrison and Stokes (1992) cultural framework was chosen for this research. This was done for two reasons; firstly, Harrison's (1972) classification is similar to the other classifications, as illustrated in Table 2.1. Secondly, based on Harrison's (1972) classification, Harrison and Stokes (1992) developed a research instrument that has subsequently been tested by Harrison and Stokes (1992). It has also been tested and shown to have positive and significant results within the South African environment (Grebe, 1997; Harmse, 2001; Louw and Boshoff, 2006).

The determinants of organisational culture will be discussed in the following section.

## 2.6 DETERMINANTS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Martin (2001: 601) points out that organisational culture previously depended heavily on the founders of the organisation, their personalities, and their preferred way of doing things. Martin (2001: 601) believes that employees go through a process of enculturation, in which employees enter an organisation and they first have to get to know their boss and the way of doing things, through socialisation. This is then followed by an adjustment period, when both parties become accustomed to working with each other (Martin, 2001: 601). Greenberg and Baron (2003: 523) state that organisational culture can also develop through contact between groups of employees working together within the organisation, who begin to share ideas and actions in the organisation. As discussed previously, the socialisation process can therefore be seen to serve as an important source of being introduced to the culture of an organisation (Grebe, 1997: 22, Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004; Rowe *et al.*, 1994).

In addition to the importance of the socialisation process, Handy (1993: 192-199) indicates a number of other influences that determine the culture of an organisation.

- History and ownership: Organisational culture depends on the history of the organisation, as well as key decision makers because organisations mature and incorporate the cultures of their founders, key executives and dominant groups (Greenberg and Baron, 2003: 522; Handy, 1993: 183; Rowe *et al.*, 1994: 472). The organisational culture is more enduring than the employee within it, because it existed before the employee joined the organisation, and will continue to exist after the employee has left the organisation (Martin, 2001: 601). It can therefore be seen that organisational culture is enduring. It would be difficult to integrate all of the various cultures that are arising out of the amalgamation process at the local municipal level. Thus it is important to identify the existing organisational culture within the selected municipality in order to improve the municipality's effectiveness and efficiency with regards to service delivery. Although culture is enduring, it is subject to the

interaction of the employees that flow through the organisation (Martin, 2001: 601).

Ownership also has an impact on the culture, with the culture differing according to the different leadership styles. A new generation of organisational leaders will often alter the culture when they arrive at the organisation (Handy, 1993: 192; Martin, 2001: 601-603). With regards to local municipalities, top management are hired on a five-year contract, therefore every five years, the leadership of the selected municipality could be altered. The altering of the leadership of the selected municipality therefore has an effect on the organisational culture within the municipality, which increases the importance of this research to the selected municipality.

- Size: The organisation's size is often the most important influence on the type of organisational culture (Handy, 1993: 192). In larger organisations, operations are more formalised, which basically means that the cultures of large and small organisations are different due to the natural function of the size of operations (Handy, 1993: 192; Martin, 2001: 603). With regards to the selected municipality, the number of employees currently employed is 390, which is small and therefore will affect their organisational culture.
- Technology: The design of the organisation has to take into account the nature of the work as well as the people, because the kind of technology used within an organisation will have an effect on the culture of that organisation (Handy, 1993: 193). An organisation will emphasise employees' technical skills in the values that govern its culture, if the organisation specialises in the use of advanced technology within its operations (Martin, 2001: 603).
- Goals and objectives: Culture can be influenced by what the organisation sets out to achieve, yet the culture can also influence objectives that the organisation seeks (Handy, 1993: 195; Martin, 2001: 603). Organisational goals can change over time as the organisational culture changes (Handy, 1993: 195). The central government has emphasised service delivery within local municipalities, which has meant that local municipalities have had to set clear goals and objectives with regards to service delivery, which were

primarily set through the local governments integrated development plan. It is important to identify the existing and preferred organisational culture types within the selected local municipality in order to increase their service delivery according to local government requirements, due to the fact that the existing organisational culture may or may not lead to increased service delivery.

- Environment: The external environment is made up of a number of dependent and independent elements, and the way in which the organisation interacts with these elements alters the culture of that organisation (Martin, 2001: 603-604). The nature of the environment is often taken for granted by the employees of an organisation within that environment, but it is important in determining the organisational culture, for example, different nationalities prefer different cultures; changing environments require sensitive and flexible cultures; and diversity in the environment requires diversity in the organisations structure such as with Employment Equity and Black Economic Empowerment legislation in the South African context (Handy, 1993: 195-196).
- The people: A fit between the organisation, its culture, and its individual employees should result in a satisfied employee (Handy, 1993: 199). The individual orientations of key leaders in the organisation will have a significant impact in determining the dominant organisational culture, regardless of what it should be (Handy, 1993: 199). As mentioned previously, the 5 year appointment of top management presents a challenge to maintaining a consistent organisational culture at local municipalities.

Having identified how organisational culture is determined, the functions pertaining to organisational culture will be discussed in the next section.

## 2.7 FUNCTIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Brown (1995: 57) identifies a large number of functions that can be attributed to organisational culture. Some of the most significant functions are said to



include: conflict resolution, coordination and control, motivation and competitive advantage (Brown, 1995: 57-59; Hodge, Anthony and Gales, 1996: 281). The appropriate organisational culture is important for the selected municipality because it creates a competitive advantage over other organisations, therefore achieving superior performance and hence service delivery relative to another municipality or organisation (Hodge *et al.*, 1996: 281).

Greenberg and Baron (2003: 518) have differing views of the role of culture to that of Brown (1995). They state that culture plays several important roles within an organisation, such as, it provides a sense of identity; generates organisational commitment, as well as commitment to the organisation's mission; and clarifies and reinforces standards of behaviour. Greenberg and Baron (2003: 518) continue by stating that if organisations serve these three important roles, then it will be clear that culture is an important force that influences employee attitudes and behaviours within organisations. This will result in the employees being more committed to their organisation, and therefore they will deliver higher standards of service (Greenberg and Baron, 2003: 163).

## 2.8 MECHANISMS FOR DEVELOPING ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

It is important for organisations to develop and manage organisational culture effectively in order to fully utilise the advantages of having a strong organisational culture (O'Reilly, 1989: 19). The advantages of a strong organisational culture include having strong norms that provide clear guidance about what is important in the organisation, providing for group reinforcement of acceptable behaviour and attitudes, as well as focusing employees' attention (O'Reilly, 1989: 19). O'Reilly (1989: 20-23) has identified four mechanisms that are used to develop and manage organisational culture, and realise its advantages. In order to attain these advantages, it is therefore important for the selected local municipality to understand, develop and manage their organisational culture according to the following mechanisms:

- Participation: Systems that enable participation between employees are critical in developing or altering a culture. These are important because they encourage employees to become involved, and to send signals to other employees, therefore encouraging employees to make small choices and develop a sense of responsibility for their actions. When individuals choose of their own will to do something, they often feel responsible, and therefore the commitment of the individual is more binding.
- Management of symbolic action: The management of symbolic actions involves clear, visible actions on the part of management, supporting organisational cultural values. Employees in organisations usually wish to know what is important, and this information is received by watching and listening to supervisors, or those above them. Consistency in these actions is also important, because if management states that something is important, and behaves in ways that support that message, then employees begin to believe what management is saying.
- Information from others: Consistent messages from co-workers are as important a determinant of culture as clear messages from management. New employees often look to others for explanations of what to do and how to interpret events.
- Comprehensive reward systems: A comprehensive reward system is the final mechanism for promoting and altering culture. Kerr and Slocum (2005: 137) believe that reward systems communicate and reinforce the values and norms that comprise of the organisational culture. A reward system could be monetary, such as bonuses for quotas achieved; or non-monetary, such as recognition and approval. Smith (2003: 258) agrees that this is an important aspect when attempting to change or manage an organisation's culture because employees will be more likely to alter their own behaviours and norms if they believe that they will be rewarded.

## 2.9 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Although some culture and commitment literature has suggested an organisational culture–commitment relationship, there has been little empirical investigation to substantiate this relationship (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Lok, Westwood and Crawford, 2005: 491; O’Reilly *et al.*, 1991; Silverthorne, 2004: 596). O’Reilly (1989: 17) and Chen (2004: 433) believe that organisational culture is vital in developing and sustaining employee commitment and intensity levels that often characterise successful organisations. In accordance with the views of O’Reilly (1989: 17) and Chen (2004: 433), Sathe’s (1983: 11) additionally states that the shared values that are an aspect of organisational culture assist in generating this identification and attachment to the organisation.

Rowe *et al.* (1994: 91) state that there is often a gap between the existing and preferred organisational cultures and the Harrison and Stokes (1992) questionnaire enables organisations to identify whether or not that gap within the organisation is present. A culture gap exists in an organisation when there is a difference between the dominant, existing organisational culture form, and the preferred or desired cultural form (Bourantas and Papalexandris, 1992: 5). Bourantas and Papalexandris (1992: 6) performed a study that assessed the effect of the cultural gap on the commitment of an organisation’s managers. They (Bourantas and Papalexandris, 1992: 6) found that the culture gap negatively affects the commitment of managers towards their organisations. Nazir (2005: 41) states that although some research on assessing this gap in culture has been conducted, research is still limited.

Organisational culture influences individual and organisational processes by generating strong pressures on employees to go along with, and to think and act in ways that are consistent with, the existing organisational culture (Greenberg and Baron, 2003: 526). This influence can either lead to enhanced organisational commitment, or hinder its effectiveness (Greenberg and Baron, 2003: 516;

Schein, 1992: 3). Deal and Kennedy (1988) offer a variety of elements within culture, for example the importance of symbols and values, as a means of achieving employee commitment. These were discussed in sections 2.4.4 and 2.4.2 respectively. Nazir (2005: 47) agrees with Deal and Kennedy (1988) and also believes that employees of organisations can be committed to their organisation due to the similarity between their own values and those of their organisation. Socialisation is an important process when it comes to integrating employee values with those of the organisation, and this socialisation and integration is likely to result in an optimum level of fit between the individual and organisational values, which therefore increases the commitment of the employees (Nazir 2005: 48).

According to Clugston *et al.* (2000: 6) and Rowe *et al.* (1994: 477), organisational culture has an effect on organisational commitment, and the right kind of culture will influence how effectively organisations operate and deliver their services. Martin (2001: 621) believes that a strong achievement-based culture would result in employees being more committed to and supportive of an organisation's aims and objectives. This commitment would result in employees being in active agreement with and showing support for the organisation's objectives (Martin, 2001: 621). It is therefore important to identify the type of organisational culture of the selected municipality because, as previously discussed, organisational culture is a factor that contributes to the organisational commitment of the employees, and therefore the successful functioning of the municipality in terms of its service delivery.

If the selected municipality attempts to alter its organisational culture, it can only be sustained with the commitment of the organisation's employees (Smith, 2003: 258). This is due to the coordination involved in altering an organisational culture being complex, and this cultural change would therefore require a strategic commitment by the organisation (Smith, 2003: 258). It is therefore also important to investigate the organisational commitment of the employees of the selected municipality because committed employees will be less resistant to

change and will make the change process smoother. Organisational commitment will be discussed further in Chapter 3.

## 2.10 SUMMARY

It is important for the selected local municipality to clearly understand their organisational culture in order to manage and develop it. Organisational culture is represented by their unique pattern of shared assumption, values, norms, attitudes, symbols, beliefs, rituals, socialisation, and expectations of the employees in the organisation. The purpose of this unique culture is to establish a set of norms and standards that employees adhere to, and these guidelines affect the commitment of the employees within that organisation.

Organisational cultural typologies, such as those developed by Hellriegel *et al.* (2004), Deal and Kennedy (1988); Rowe *et al.* (1994) and Harrison and Stokes (1992) are important because they provide typologies for identifying and understanding organisational culture. In this research, the Harrison and Stokes (1992) cultural typology was focused on, where four main classifications of culture are identified. These are: the power culture, role culture, achievement culture and support culture. These four classifications each have their own set of assumptions, norms, characteristics, strengths and weaknesses that have an effect on each employee and their commitment to the organisation.

Employees enter into an organisation and are introduced, through a process of socialisation, to the organisation's values, norms, and beliefs. Through this process, employees will either fit in with the organisation's culture or not, and this, too will have an effect on the commitment of employees. The determinants and functions of organisational culture were also discussed in this chapter, followed by mechanisms for developing organisational culture. The effect of organisational culture on organisational commitment ended this chapter. Employee commitment will be discussed in the following chapter.

## CHAPTER 3

### ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

There has been a steady increase in the interest given to the study of organisational commitment, which focuses on the relationships that are formed between employees and their organisations (Allen and Meyer, 1990: 1; Hult, 2005: 249; Lok and Crawford, 2004: 321; Meyer, Allen and Smith, 1993: 538; Mowday, 1998: 387; Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979: 224; Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian, 1974: 604; Rashid *et al.*, 2003: 713). The increase in interest in organisational commitment is due to several reasons. Specifically, as an antecedent, forms of commitment have been shown to predict important work outcomes such as extra-role behaviour, withdrawal, performance, absenteeism, turnover, and tardiness (Allen and Meyer, 1990: 1; Cohen, 2007: 34; Hogg and Terry, 2001: 110; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990: 171; Porter *et al.*, 1974: 604; Rashid *et al.*, 2003: 713; Wasti, 2003: 303; Yu and Egri, 2005: 336). Silverthorne (2004: 594) adds to these by stating that, along with the intention to remain with the organisation, employee participation is also directly related to organisational commitment. Greenberg and Baron (2003: 163) agree with the above outcomes of commitment, and assert that an employee's behaviour can be predicted far into the future because of their level of commitment, and it is consequently a good indication of the importance of organisational commitment as a work-related attitude.

It is important for organisations to get a better understanding of organisational commitment because it affects organisations, their employees, and society as a whole (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982, in Mathieu and Zajac, 1990: 171). Organisations prefer committed employees because commitment decreases the likelihood of employee turnover and lateness (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990: 171). Employees are able to benefit because organisations value those who show commitment and therefore, organisations may give the employee both extrinsic

and psychological rewards that are associated with membership to the organisation (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990: 171). Societies as a whole also benefit from the organisational commitment of employees because job movement will decrease, and national productivity and/or work quality may increase (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990: 171).

McKinnon, Harrison, Chow and Wu (2003: 28) state that an organisation that is people orientated and which values, respects, and is fair to its employees will have an outcome of employee commitment. Martin (2001: 263) has a similar view to McKinnon *et al.*, (2003: 28) and states that if employees are committed, they will go beyond what their job descriptions require them to do within an organisation. It can thus be asserted that these committed employees do what the organisation and management wish them to do without the employee even being asked to do so (Martin, 2001: 623). Similarly, Porter *et al.* (1974: 604; Brooks and Wallace, 2006: 233) believe that a committed employee is one who shows a willingness to apply extra effort on behalf of their organisation. Mathieu and Zajac (1990: 171) believe that it is these “extra-role” behaviours that are often what keeps organisations competitive.

Silverthorne (2004: 592-593) and Ogaard, Larsen and Marnburg (2005: 25) believe that it is also important to determine the degree of fit between employees and their organisation, because this fit affects the commitment of those employees. Nazir (2005: 47-48) has similar views to Silverthorne (2004: 592-593) and states that high commitment and satisfaction among employees are a result of the person-organisation fit. Hult (2005: 250) also suggests that if an employee enters into an organisation and fits in with their surrounding organisational environment, then the employee’s commitment will be high. Hence, it is important to determine the existing and preferred organisational cultures within the selected municipality, in order to establish a relation between organisational culture and employee commitment.

Based on the above, it is evident that committed employees are a necessary and valuable resource to an organisation (Chen, 2004: 438). A committed employee is also a valuable resource to the organisation because they are inclined to stay with the organisation, regardless of whether the circumstances affecting the organisation are favourable or unfavourable, therefore suggesting that committed employees can be a form of competitive advantage to organisations (Allen and Meyer, 1990: 1; Rashid *et al.*, 2003: 713; Yu and Egri, 2005: 336). Buchanan (1974a: 339), and Mathieu and Zajac (1990: 171) believe that organisations differ in their capacity to retain committed employees and gain their loyalty. Rashid *et al.* (2003: 713) feels that having committed employees would be an added bonus to the organisation.

To achieve the organisational commitment related objectives of this research, as stated in Section 1.2 of Chapter 1, the purpose of this chapter is to gain insight with regards to organisational commitment and the typologies that are used to classify organisational commitment. It attempts to explain why it is important for organisations to gain employee commitment, as well as briefly mentioning the effects that organisational commitment has on service delivery. Two typologies of organisational commitment will be discussed, namely the typology by Mowday *et al.* (1979) and the Allen and Meyer (1990) three-component conceptualisation typology. It is also important to understand the determinants of organisational commitment, so antecedents will be briefly discussed. Finally, the Allen and Meyer (1990) typology will be used in this research, and reasons supporting this choice of typology will be explained, and also the effect that organisational culture has on organisational commitment will be examined.

### 3.2 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT CONCEPTUALISED

There is little consensus regarding the definition of organisational commitment and how it is measured (Buchanan, 1974b: 533). Kantor (1968, in Buchanan, 1974b: 533) and Rashid *et al.* (2003: 713) view organisational commitment as the willingness of social beings to give energy and loyalty to an organisation.



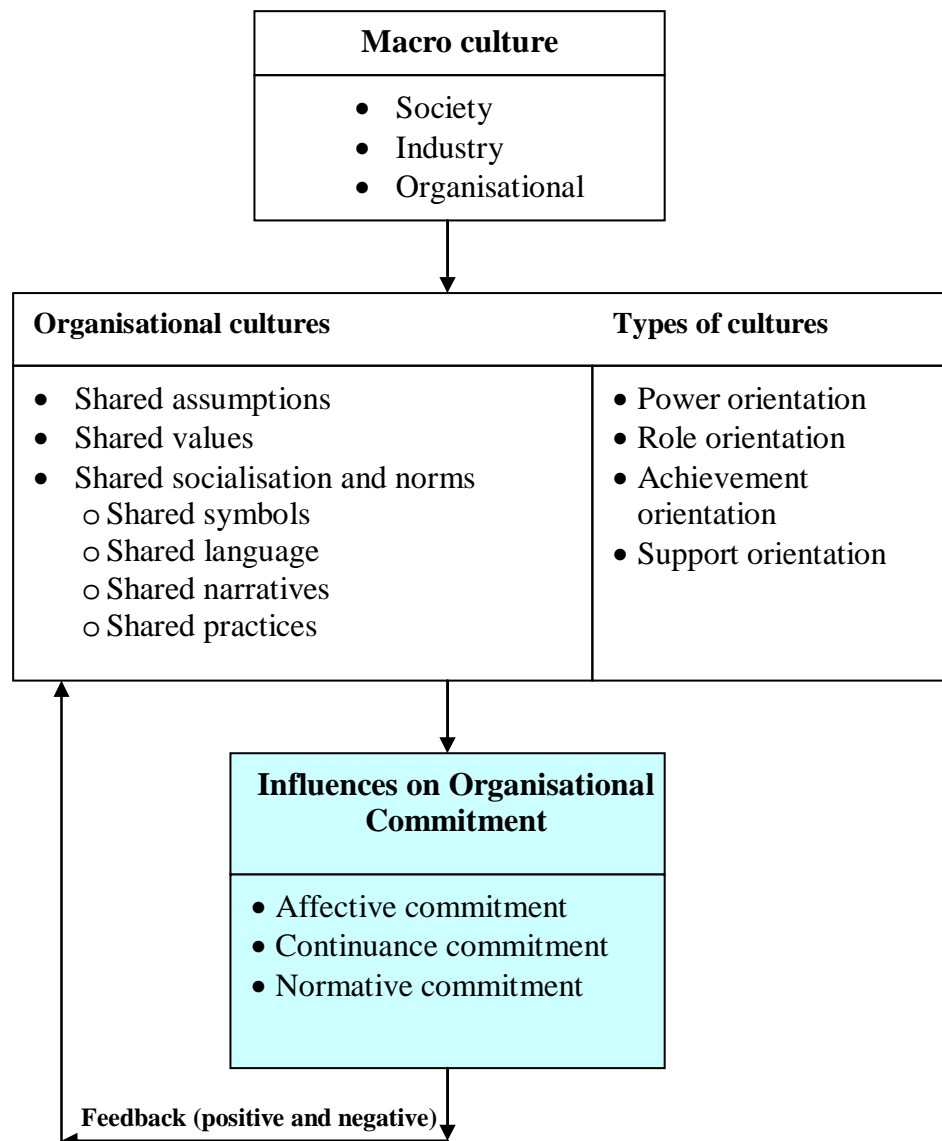
Likewise, Porter (1968, in Buchanan, 1974b: 533) states that organisational commitment is the willingness of employees to exert high levels of effort on behalf of the organisation, a strong desire to stay with the organisation, and the acceptance of the organisation's goals, mission and values.

According to Mowday *et al.* (1979: 226) and Porter *et al.* (1974: 604), organisational commitment is defined as the relative strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in the particular organisation. Greenberg and Baron (2003: 160) and Silverthorne (2004: 594) have similar views to Mowday *et al.* (1979: 226) and Porter *et al.* (1974: 604), yet they additionally view organisational commitment as the work attitudes of employees toward the organisations in which they work. Greenberg and Baron (2003: 160) agree with the definition by Mowday *et al.* (1979: 226), by stating that organisational commitment is not only concerned with the extent to which an employee identifies with their organisation, but also whether the employee is or is not willing to leave their organisation.

Meyer and Allen (1991: 62) view organisational commitment, as defined by Mowday *et al.* (1979), from two perspectives, behavioural commitment and attitudinal commitment, which will be discussed in detail in Section 3.4.1. Behavioural commitment focuses on the processes by which employees become part of a specific organisation and their appropriate behaviour (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 62). Attitudinal commitment, on the other hand, focuses on the processes by which employees come to think about their relationships with their organisation, and the extent to which their goals and values are congruent with those of the organisation (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 62). Meyer and Allen's (1991) attitudinal perspective will be the basis for the concept of organisational commitment in this research. Meyer and Allen's (1991) research is based on the classification by Allen and Meyer (1990), the three components of organisational commitment, namely affective, continuance, and normative commitment, as shown in the shaded section in Figure 3.1, are used and will be discussed in greater detail in Section 3.4.2. These components appear to reflect at least three

general themes that are common to most definitions of organisational commitment, namely an affective attachment to the organisation; the continuance attachment or perceived costs associated with leaving the organisation; and the normative attachment or obligation for employees to remain with the organisation.

**Figure 3.1: Organisational culture and organisational commitment**



Source: Researcher's own construction adapted from Hellriegel *et al.* (2004: 364) and based on the work of Harrison and Stokes (1992) and Allen and Meyer (1990).

Consequently, in this research, organisational commitment will be treated as a multidimensional construct, where the three components of commitment will be further researched. As previously mentioned, the three components of commitment are attitudinal in nature and have two common views which state that organisational commitment is a psychological state that (1) characterises the employee's relationship with their organisation; and (2) has implications for the employee's decision regarding whether or not they wish to continue working in that organisation based on the extent to which their goals and values are congruent with those of the organisation (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 67; Meyer *et al.*, 1993: 539). Organisational commitment is accordingly defined as the psychological strength of an individual employee's attachment to and involvement with the organisation (Lahiry, 1994: 50; Mowday *et al.*, 1979: 226; Rashid *et al.*, 2003: 713).

These three general themes are the three components in Allen and Meyer's (1990) conceptualisation of organisational commitment. It can therefore be seen that Allen and Meyer's (1990) three-component conceptualisation incorporates and simplifies the vast number of definitions of organisational commitment. This conceptualisation which is used in this research will be discussed in greater detail in Section 3.5 in this Chapter.

As is evident from the previous discussion, commitment represents something beyond simply passive loyalty to the organisation; it also involves a relationship with the organisation, where individual employees are willing to give extra effort in order to contribute to the organisation's well being (Mowday *et al.*, 1979: 226; Ogaard *et al.*, 2005: 25). Consequently, it can be asserted that it is important to study organisational commitment within the selected municipality because if employees are committed, then they will offer something more and therefore their delivery of service, involvement with customers and the community will be more efficient and effective.

### 3.3 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND SERVICE DELIVERY

Lytle, Hom and Mokwa (1998: 455) define organizational service orientation as an organization-wide acceptance of organizational policies, practices, and procedures that are in place with the intent of supporting and rewarding service-giving behaviours that create and deliver excellent service. Lytle *et al.*, (2006: 139) go on to state that the attitudes of an organisation's employees influence customer perceptions of service delivery, which in turn affects the customers value of the service encounter.

According to Lahiry (1994: 51), previous research has shown that employee commitment has an effect on how well the organisation performs and delivers its services and that organisational commitment can be strengthened by changing the organisation's culture. The selected municipality has been through a process of transformation, during which different organisational cultures have had to be merged into a common organisational culture (Planact, 2001: 4). For this reason, the study of organisational culture within this selected municipality is important because organisational culture can affect the level of employee commitment in the transformed organisation (Lahiry, 1994: 51). Furthermore, it is important to assess the level of employee commitment within the selected municipality, as committed employees will be inclined to be more efficient and effective in their service delivery and be more involved with customers and the community, making sacrifices for the organisation in order for it to thrive (Greenberg and Baron, 2003: 163).

To gain a clearer understanding of organisational commitment, two typologies of organisational commitment will subsequently be discussed.

### 3.4 TYPOLOGIES OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Two typologies will be discussed, namely Mowday *et al.*'s (1979) typology because it gives an understanding of a different view on how organisational

commitment may be defined, as well as the three-component conceptualisation typology designed by Allen and Meyer (1990). The focus will be based on Allen and Meyer's (1990) typology, because this conceptualisation is used in this research to define and measure organisational commitment.

#### **3.4.1 Mowday, Porter and Steers' (1979) typology**

Porter *et al.* (1974: 603) believed organisational commitment to be a uni-dimensional concept that only focused on an employee's identification and involvement with their organisation. Mowday (1998: 389) kept this view in a later article, stating that Porter *et al.*'s (1974) view of commitment was uni-dimensional because it only focused on an affective attachment of employees to their organisations (Mowday, 1998: 389).

Mowday *et al.* (1979: 225) found certain trends in the definitions of organisational commitment and categorised commitment into two areas: behavioural and attitudinal.

- Behavioural commitment refers to commitment-related behaviours. Such behaviors represent individuals forgoing alternative courses of action and individuals choosing to link themselves to the organization (Mowday *et al.*, 1979: 225). Behavioural commitment is the processes by which individual employees become trapped within an organisation, and the behaviour in which those trapped employees deal with this problem (Brooks and Wallace, 2006: 223; Mowday *et al.*, 1979: 225).
- Attitudinal commitment focuses on the processes by which employees come to think about their relationship with their organisation. Attitudinal commitment is also thought of as a mind set in which individuals consider the extent to which their individual values and goals are the same as those of their organisation (Brooks and Wallace, 2006: 223; Mowday *et al.*, 1979: 225).

Mowday *et al.* (1979: 226) defined organisational commitment as an effective commitment which is the relative strength of an employee's identification with

and involvement in their organisation. Mowday *et al.*, (1979: 226) characterised organisational commitment according to three characteristics.

- A strong belief in and acceptance of their organisation's values and goals;
- A willingness on behalf of the employee to exert considerable effort on behalf of their organisation; and
- A strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation.

Mowday *et al.* (1979: 226) therefore believe that commitment represents something beyond a mere passive loyalty to an organisation and in reality represents an active relationship between employee and the organisation. So strong is this relationship, that employees are willing to give more of themselves in order to contribute to the organisation's effectiveness. Hence, commitment could be inferred not only from the expressions of an employee's beliefs and opinions but also from their actions within their organisation (Mowday *et al.*, 1979: 226).

#### **3.4.2 Allen and Meyer's (1990) three-component typology**

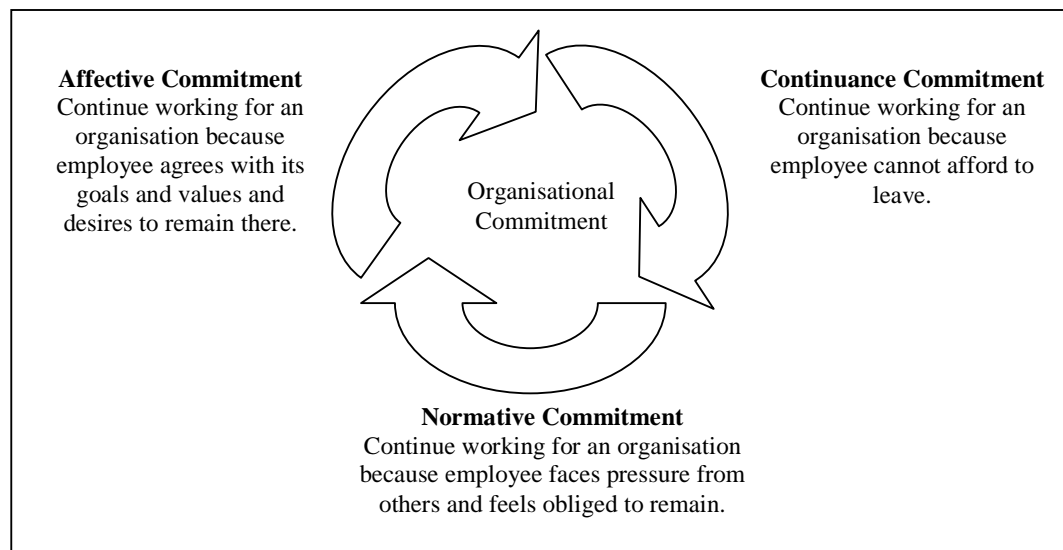
As previously stated in Section 3.2, there are many definitions of commitment, and Allen and Meyer (1990), in trying to simplify all these different definitions, proposed a three-component model of commitment, which integrated various conceptualisations. Allen and Meyer (1990) identified three general themes in the different definitions of commitment, namely

- Commitment as an affective attachment to the organisation,
- Commitment as a perceived cost associated with leaving the organisation, and
- Commitment as an obligation to remain in the organisation (Meyer *et al.*, 1993: 539).

Meyer and Allen (1991: 3), who refined previous research by Allen and Meyer (1990), defined these three themes as components of organisational commitment:

affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment, respectively. Meyer and Allen (1987, in Allen and Meyer, 1990: 3) developed a model of commitment, using these three approaches to commitment, and this was termed a three-component conceptualisation of organisational commitment, as shown in Figure 3.2. Each of these components will be subsequently discussed.

**Figure 3.2: Organisational commitment: Three components of commitment**



Source: Researcher's own construction adapted from Greenberg and Baron (2003: 162).

- Affective commitment: The affective component of organisational commitment refers to an employee continuing to work for an organisation because of the employee's emotional attachment to, involvement in, and identification with that organisation (Allen and Meyer, 1990: 2; Lee, Allen, Meyer and Rhee, 2001: 597; Mowday, 1998: 390; Rashid *et al.*, 2003: 714; Wasti, 2003: 303). Rashid *et al.* (2003: 714) add to this conceptualisation by stating that it is the emotional attachment of an employee to their organisation. Buchanan (1974b: 533) agrees with Rashid *et al.* (2003: 714) and is of the opinion that an affective commitment to an organisation is the emotional attachment to the goals and values of the organization, as well as to the employee's role in relation to those goals and values. Greenberg and

Baron (2003: 162) assert that the employee's attachment to, and thus the desire to continue working for, their organisation could also be due to the employee agreeing with the organisation's underlying goals and values (Greenberg and Baron, 2003: 162). This means that if an employee has a strong affective commitment, then they will stay with the organisation because they want to (Clugston *et al.*, 2000: 7; Meyer *et al.*, 1993: 539).

According to Wasti (2003: 304), the majority of empirical research into commitment has focused on the affective perspective. Wasti (2003: 304) believes that this focus is due mainly to the evidence that affective commitment has the strongest and most consistent relationship with advantageous outcomes.

- Continuance commitment: Continuance commitment refers to the commitment that is based on the costs that are associated with leaving a specific organisation (Greenberg and Baron, 2003: 161; Lee *et al.*, 2001: 597; Rashid *et al.*, 2003: 714; Wasti, 2003: 303). In this component of commitment, the fewer possible job alternatives employees have at various organisations, the stronger their continuance commitment to their current organisation will be (Rashid *et al.*, 2003: 714). If an employee primarily exhibits this form of commitment, then they will stay with their organisation because they feel like they have to since leaving would cost too much (Clugston *et al.*, 2000: 7; Meyer *et al.*, 1993: 539).
- Normative commitment: This is the third component of the three-component conceptualisation and refers to the employees' perceived obligation to remain with their organisation (Lee *et al.*, 2001: 597; Rashid *et al.*, 2003: 714; Wasti, 2003: 303). An employee's or other people's past experience of an organisation, whether they were members of it or not, will influence this type of commitment (Rashid *et al.*, 2003: 714). This is because societal socialisation also takes place, as well as organisational socialisation, and therefore, societal values can place pressures on the employee before they are



even socialised through the organisation (Clugston *et al.*, 2000: 5). An employee will therefore stay with an organisation because they feel that they ought to, for example, if organisational loyalty is emphasised within the organisation or within the society (Clugston *et al.*, 2000: 5; Meyer *et al.*, 1993: 539; Rashid *et al.*, 2003: 714). Greenberg and Baron (2003: 163) expand on this by stating that employees who have high degrees of normative commitment are hesitant to disappoint their employers and are concerned about what fellow employees would think about them if they left their organisation.

Meyer and Allen (1991) and Clugston *et al.* (2000: 7) assert that each of these three components of commitment are affected by different classes of antecedents, which will be discussed in the next section.

### 3.5 ANTECEDENTS TO ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

The antecedents for each of Allen and Meyer's (1990) and Meyer and Allen's (1991) three components of organisational commitment are listed in Figure 3.3. Knowledge of these antecedents is important because they give a greater understanding of where organisational commitment originated and developed (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 68). Each of the three components of organisational commitment, which will be discussed next, will develop as a function of the different antecedents (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 68).

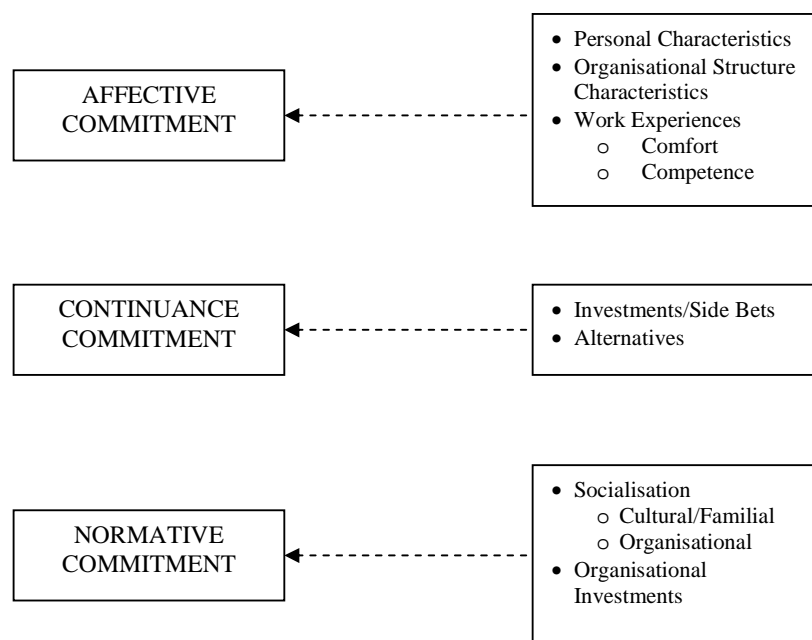
#### **3.5.1 Affective commitment**

Meyer and Allen (1991: 69) developed three categories of antecedents to affective commitment. These categories are: personal characteristics, organisational structures, and work experiences (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 69; Meyer *et al.*, 1993: 539).

- Personal characteristics: Personal characteristics consist of variables that define the individual (Steers, 1977: 47). Personal characteristics such as the

need for achievement, affiliation and autonomy, as well as higher order needs, and a central life interest in work have been found to correlate with organisational commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 69-70; Steers, 1977: 47). This correlation shows that there is a possibility that employees differ with regards to their propensity to become affectively committed to their organisation (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 70).

**Figure 3.3: Antecedents to organisational commitment**



Source: Researcher's own construction adapted from Meyer and Allen (1991: 68).

Meyer and Allen (1991: 70) state that individuals who choose their work to be compatible with their personal characteristics should have a more positive work attitude than those employees who do not choose work based on these characteristics.

- Organisational structure characteristics: Meyer and Allen (1991: 70) state that relatively few studies have examined the relationships between

organisational commitment and organisational structures, and those studies that have touched on it have used a level of analysis that is individual as opposed to organisational. Although research is limited, there has been some evidence that affective commitment is associated with decentralisation of decision-making and the formalisation of policies and procedures (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 70).

- Work experience: Steers (1977: 48) and Buchanan (1974b: 534) suggest that work experiences are a major socialising force, and thus represents an important antecedent to which psychological attachments are formed within an organisation. Employees whose experiences within an organisation are the same as their expectations and that satisfy employees' fundamental needs are more inclined to develop a stronger affective commitment to their organisation than employees with less satisfying work experiences (Meyer *et al.*, 1993: 539). Meyer and Allen (1991: 70) believe that this work experience variable can be divided into two categories: (1) Those that satisfied employees' need to feel physically and psychologically comfortable in their organisation (comfort); and (2) those that contributed to employees' feelings of competence in the work role (competence).

Variables correlating with affective commitment in the comfort category include confirmation of pre-entry expectations, equitable reward distribution, organisational dependability and support, role clarity and freedom from conflict (Allen and Meyer, 1990: 17-18; Meyer and Allen, 1991: 70-71). Variables in the competence-related experiences include accomplishment, autonomy, job scope and challenge, opportunity for advancement, participation in decision-making and personal importance to the organisation (Allen and Meyer, 1990: 17-18; Meyer and Allen, 1991: 71).

Wong, Ngo, and Wong (2002, in Yu and Egri, 2005: 336) conducted a study of Chinese joint venture employees, and they found that antecedents of this component of commitment are distributive and procedural justice, as well as the

employee's perceived job security. Wong *et al.* (2002, in Yu and Egri, 2005: 337) continue to state that Chinese cultural values that emphasize the importance of in-group harmony, loyalty and reciprocity are antecedents to affective commitment. Clugston *et al.* (2000: 7) found that affective commitment is directly affected by an individual's work experience variables and personal characteristics. Iverson and Buttigieg (1999, in Yu and Egri, 2005: 336) also identified antecedents to affective commitment. These include the employee's personal characteristics, such as their job expectation, job values, organisational tenure and work motivation.

### **3.5.2 Continuance commitment**

Continuance commitment represents an employee's realisation of the costs that are associated with leaving their organisation, and therefore, anything that can be seen to increase employees' perceived costs could be considered an antecedent (Clugston *et al.*, 2000: 7; Meyer and Allen, 1991: 71). Meyer and Allen (1991: 71) believe that the antecedents that are most predominant and focused on with regards to continuous organisational commitment is side bets of investments, and also the availability of alternative job prospects.

- Side bets/Investments: Side bets can be either work related or non-work related, and commitment to an organisation can be developed as employees make side bets which would be lost if employment to their organisation was terminated (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 71). Rusbult and Farrel (1983, in Meyer and Allen, 1991: 72) has the same viewpoint as Meyer and Allen (1991: 71), that commitment to an organisation increases as the magnitude of employee investments within that organisation increase.
- Availability of alternatives: Clugston *et al.* (2000: 7) felt that employees' perceptions regarding their alternative job prospects and the cost associated with leaving their current organisation have an effect on the employees' continuous commitment. Rusbult and Farrel (1983, in Meyer

and Allen, 1991: 72) also showed that commitment increased as the attractiveness of alternative job prospects decreased. Meyer and Allen (1991: 72) and Iverson and Buttigieg (1999, in Yu and Egri, 2005: 336) are in agreement with the above views and they state that continuous commitment will develop as a function of a lack of alternative job opportunities, so the lack of job availability is seen as an antecedent to continuous commitment.

### 3.5.3 Normative commitment

Normative commitment refers to the feeling of obligation on the part of the employee to remain with their organisation due to pressures from other people (Greenberg and Baron, 2003: 163). Meyer and Allen (1991: 72) express concern that literature focusing on the development of normative commitment is more theoretical than empirical, yet they believe that the most important antecedents of normative commitment are employees' socialisation, as well as organisational investment.

- Socialisation: Weiner (1982, in Meyer and Allen, 1991: 72) and Greenberg and Baron (2003: 163) believe that this obligatory feeling to remain within their organisation may be a result of the employee incorporating conscious or sub-conscious guiding principles that are exerted on an individual before they enter into an organisation, through familial or cultural socialisation; or after entry into an organisation, through organisational socialisation. Clugston *et al.* (2000: 5-6) agree with Weiner, by proposing that pressures from cultural or societal socialisation of each employee is antecedent to normative organisational commitment. This is because an individual will be socialised within the society they come from, which takes place before the individual becomes an employee of an organisation and begins an organisational socialisation process (Clugston *et al.*, 2000: 5).

- Organisational investment: Meyer and Allen (1991: 72) feel that normative commitment also develops due to investments provided by the organisation for the employee. These investments on the part of the organisation can therefore create an imbalance in the employee/organisation relationship and cause employees to feel obligated to reciprocate through commitment to the organisation, until they feel that the debt has been repaid (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 72).

### 3.6 REASONS FOR USING THE ALLEN AND MEYER (1990) TYPOLOGY

Most previous research (Hult, 2005; Lee, Ashford, Walsh and Mowday, 1992; Lok and Crawford, 2001) regarding organisational commitment has been assessed using the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and definition developed by Porter *et al.* (1974). According to Clugston *et al.* (2000: 6) this is not the most appropriate way of assessing organisational commitment because it only measures an employee's affective commitment to their organisation and is limited in examining how culture impacts on organisational commitment. The definition of organisational commitment by Allen and Meyer (1990) includes Porter *et al.*'s (1974) affective commitment, yet it also includes continuance and normative commitment, and therefore the instrument that was subsequently developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) is the preferable questionnaire to assess the different bases of organisational commitment and organisational cultures effect on it (Clugston *et al.*, 2000: 6).

Allen and Meyer's (1990) three-component questionnaire is a multidimensional questionnaire that conceptualises organisational commitment and can be applied across domains (Meyer *et al.*, 1993: 538). The value of using this multidimensional approach is that it provides a more complete understanding of an employee's relationship to their job because all three forms of commitment are considered together (Meyer *et al.*, 1993: 540). Silverthorne (2004: 594) agrees with Meyer *et al.* (1993: 539) and further states that a multidimensional

approach is a more effective tool for measuring organisational commitment than that of Porter *et al.* (1974).

The Allen and Meyer (1990) typology is a widely known classification of organisational commitment; and previous research has found it to be a reliable and valid way to classify commitment (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Clugston *et al.*, 2000; Meyer and Allen, 1991; Rashid *et al.*, 2003; Wasti, 2003). Becker, Billings, Eveleth and Gilbert (1996: 476) also used Allen and Meyer's (1990) three-component conceptualisation and found it a dependable way to classify commitment because employees distinguish between the types of commitments they make to their organisation.

Consequently, the research instrument developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) will be used to assess and measure organisational commitment at the selected local municipality in this research.

### 3.7 THE IMPORTANCE OF A COMMITTED WORKFORCE

Greenberg and Baron (2003: 163) believe that there are a number of positive effects when an organisation has committed employees. When employees have an extremely high level of commitment to their organisation, they are less likely to resign or be absent from that organisation (George and Jones, 2002: 76; Greenberg and Baron, 2003: 163). On the other hand, when employees have an extremely low level of commitment, they are more inclined not arrive for work when they are supposed to, nor retain their jobs. Employees are reluctant to leave their organisation because of their positive attitude to their organisation, which indicates an affective commitment to the organisation (George and Jones, 2002: 76; Greenberg and Baron, 2003: 163). Meyer and Allen (1991: 73) are of the same opinion as George and Jones (2002: 76) and Greenberg and Baron (2003: 163) in acknowledging that in previous research (Blau, 1986; Pierce and Durham, 1987), commitment was found to be positively related to employee

attendance; but they also added that in some instances (Ivancevich, 1985; Jamal, 1984) this relationship was not found.

George and Jones (2002: 98) believe that commitment is highly related to organisational citizenship behaviour. Organisational citizenship behaviour is when an employee performs their job above and beyond the call of duty (George and Jones, 2002: 98). It is also asserted by George and Jones (2002: 98-99) that organisational citizenship behaviour tends to be voluntary and therefore is directly related to the employee's affective commitment toward their organisation.

There is a common denominator in all three of the components of commitment, namely the binding of the employee to the organisation (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 73). Meyer and Allen (1991: 73) state that this is an important precondition for employees to perform both their required roles and extra roles, yet it is not a sufficient condition for either. Employees must also be willing to engage in activities that go beyond their required jobs, as well as be depended upon to perform their required jobs (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 73). If an employee is highly committed, they will be willing to make sacrifices for their organisation (Greenberg and Baron, 2003: 163). Employees that are highly committed demonstrated the willingness to share and make sacrifices that are expected of them in order for their organisation to render efficient services (Greenberg and Baron, 2003: 163).

Meyer and Allen (1991: 73) assume that employees' willingness to contribute to the organisation's effectiveness is influenced by the nature of the commitment that the employees experience. Meyer and Allen (1991: 74) expand on this by acknowledging that employees who feel an affective attachment to their organisation might be more likely than those employees who feel a continuance or normative attachment to exert effort on behalf of the organisation. Yu and Egri (2005: 336) agree with Meyer and Allen (1991), and believe that the



affective component of commitment has been found to be the most consistent and strongest predictor of positive organisational outcomes.

### 3.8 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND ITS EFFECT ON ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

As per Figure 2.1, organisational culture can be seen to have important influences on organisational commitment (Hellreigel *et al.*, 2004: 364). As mentioned previously and substantiated by previous research (Bourantas and Papalexandris, 1992: 7; Chen, 2005: 433; Lytle *et al.*, 2006: 139; Rashid *et al.*, 2003: 709), organisational culture influences organisational commitment. Firstly, organisational culture is also considered to influence employees' attitudes concerning their commitment to their organisation (Bourantas and Papalexandris, 1992: 7; Chen, 2004: 434). Secondly, Lytle *et al.* (2006: 139), believe that commitment is an element of the organisation's culture, and is similar to organisational glue that binds employees to one another, and being part of that organisation creates a sense of pride among employees.

Cohen (2000, in Rashid *et al.*, 2003: 709) found a relationship between Hofstede's (1993) cultural typology with organisational commitment. In combining Hofstede's cultural model and Meyer and Allen's (1984, in Rashid *et al.*, 2003: 714) organisational commitment components, Cohen (2000, in Rashid *et al.*, 2003: 714) found that the cultural dimensions predicted organisational commitment. Geiger (1998, in Rashid *et al.*, 2003: 709) also conducted a study using Hofstede's (1993) cultural dimensions, and found that cultural values impacted on the escalation of organisational commitment.

Rashid *et al.* (2003: 716) used Deshpande and Farley's (1999, in Rashid *et al.*, 2003: 716) cultural typology, and Allen and Meyer's (1990) concept of organisational commitment; and, like Cohen (2000, in Rashid *et al.*, 2003: 714) and Geiger (1998, in Rashid *et al.*, 2003: 709), and also found a positive relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment.

Rashid *et al.* (2003: 724) believed that there is an appropriate match between the type of organisational culture and the type of organisational commitment that, if correctly matched, will be beneficial to the performance of an organisation. It is therefore clear that organisational culture and organisational commitment have an impact on an organisation's performance (Rashid *et al.*, 2003: 709).

Brewer (1993, in Chen, 2004: 433) conducted research into the effect of organisational culture on organisational commitment, and it was found that a culture that has a bureaucratic nature often has a negative relationship with the commitment of an organisation's employees. Odom, Boxx and Dunn (1990: 162) believe that if an organisation were to remove the barriers erected as a result of it having a bureaucratic culture, this may contribute to creating a stronger organisational commitment by employees. Brewer (1993, in Chen, 2004: 433) also found that there is a positive relationship when the culture is supportive, which results in greater commitment and employee involvement. Likewise, Odom *et al.* (1990: 163) found that employees who worked in an environment that is supportive have a greater degree of organisational commitment. Lok, Westwood and Crawford (2005: 508) agree with Odom *et al.* (1990) by stating that supportive cultures had stronger positive relationships with commitment than a bureaucratic-type culture, which had a negative relationship with commitment.

Martin (2001: 621) believes that an organisation that has a strong culture, which is actively supported by the organisation's managers, also results in employees being more committed to the organisation's aims and objectives. Similarly, Nazir (2005: 47) has argued that organisations that have a strong organisational culture are often associated with a normative type of commitment.

### 3.9 SUMMARY

Organisational commitment has implications for the performance of local municipalities, and from the discussion in this chapter, it can be seen that certain

types of organisational cultures could enhance the level of organisational commitment, which enhances service delivery and therefore organisational success. The selected municipality need to gain the commitment of their employees because committed employees are a valuable resource to the municipality and they are inclined to stay with the municipality for an extended period of time. Committed employees are also inclined to align their personal goals with the goals of their organisation. This will lead to willingness on the part of the employees of the selected municipality to make sacrifices and exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation to help in the successful achievement of its goals (Steers, 1977).

This chapter discussed two typologies used to classify organisational commitment. Allen and Meyer's (1990) multidimensional three-component conceptualisation of organisational commitment was used to classify organisational commitment in this research. Three forms of commitment were distinguished, namely affective, continuance, and normative. The antecedents pertinent to organisational commitment, as well as the reasons behind using the Allen and Meyer (1990) organisational commitment typology, were identified. Finally, the chapter ended off by discussing the importance of having a committed workforce and the effects of organisational culture on the organisational commitment of employees.

In the next chapter, the research methodology relevant to this research will be discussed.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 1, the research problem statement, objectives and hypotheses were stated, while the relevant literature pertaining to organisational culture and organisational commitment was discussed in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3, respectively. The purpose of this chapter is to explain the research methodology relevant to this research. Collis and Hussey (2003: 55) define research methodology as the overall approach that the research process will take. The overall approach covers the theoretical foundation through to the collection and analysis of the data (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 55). In this chapter, the methodology that is used in this research will be explained, indicating how the research was undertaken within the scientific sphere of developing knowledge. Collis and Hussey (2003: 55) are of the opinion that research methodology is therefore concerned with the following main issues:

- Why certain data was collected;
- From where the data was collected;
- How the data was collected;
- When the data was collected
- What data was collected; and
- How the data was analysed.

This chapter will provide answers to the above issues pertaining to this research. Concerning “why the data was collected”, the research purpose, objectives and hypotheses were stated in Section 1.2 in Chapter 1. A brief exposition of the importance of this research will be given in Section 4.2. The research methodology pertinent to this research was used to achieve the stated objectives and to test the hypotheses as stated in Section 1.2 in Chapter 1. Chapter 4 begins by reviewing the research paradigm relevant to this research. Collis and Hussey

(2003: 50) assert that once this research paradigm is established, then the choice of methodology is largely determined. The chapter then defines the population, followed by the sampling method that was used in the research. Once the population and sample has been clarified, the research method will be commented on, and then the instruments that were used for data collection will then be explained in depth. The reliability and validity of the two instruments that were used will also be discussed in this section. A description of how the data was collected and analysed will be given, focusing on the steps that were taken to administer the measuring instruments. The statistical techniques utilised in this research to analyse and test the data will be explained. Finally, the ethical considerations that needed to be taken into account when conducting this research will be highlighted.

#### 4.2 THE IMPORTANCE OF THIS RESEARCH

In an attempt to explain “why the data was collected”, the importance of this research is elaborated in this section. The importance of this research comes from its attempt to ascertain whether there is a relationship between the organisational culture and the organisational commitment of employees at a selected local municipality. According to Clugston *et al.* (2000: 22), Rowe *et al.* (1994: 92) and Wasti (2003: 304), organisational culture has an effect on organisational commitment, thereby influencing the effectiveness of organisations. Lahiry (1994: 51) agrees with this statement, and also states that previous research has shown that employee commitment has an affect on how well the organisation performs and delivers its services and that organisational commitment can be strengthened by changing the organisation’s culture. The focus of this research is a selected local municipality in the Eastern Cape, which, as mentioned earlier, has been through a process of transformation, during which different organisational cultures have had to be merged into a common organisational culture (Planact, 2001: 4).

Due to the aforementioned reasons, the research of organisational culture within the selected municipality is significant because organisational culture can affect the level of employee commitment at a transformed municipality (Lahiry, 1994: 51). Furthermore, an alignment between organisational culture and organisational commitment contributes towards employees identifying with their organisation (Greenberg, 1996; Greenberg and Baron, 2003: 163; Robbins, 1993). Committed employees will also be inclined to be more efficient in their service delivery and be more involved with customers and the community, making sacrifices for the organisation in order for it to thrive (Greenberg, 1996; Greenberg and Baron, 2003: 163; Robbins, 1993).

After identifying the importance of this research, the problem statement of this research was therefore to determine the influence of organisational culture on organisational commitment at the selected local municipality. In order to achieve the problem statement, the primary purpose of this research was to examine the influence of organisational culture on organisational commitment within a selected municipality. To achieve this primary purpose, objectives and hypotheses were stated for this research. The objectives and hypotheses are summarised in Section 1.2 in Chapter 1.

#### 4.3 RESEARCH PARADIGM

The term paradigm means a framework consisting of an accepted set of theories, methods and ways in which data can be defined. It refers to the development of scientific procedure that is based on an individual's philosophies and assumptions about the world and the nature of knowledge, which, in this context, regard how the research should be conducted (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 46). Remenyi (1996: 5) has a more elaborate definition than that by Collis and Hussey (2003: 46) and states that a paradigm is an informal, but strict set of rules that have evolved in order to ensure that the research conducted has integrity as well as being reliable and reproducible. A paradigm therefore encompasses both theory and methods (Creswell, 1994: 1). According to Collis and Hussey (2003:

47; Remenyi, 1996: 8), there are two main research paradigms, which are known as positivist and phenomenological. Each of these paradigms will be discussed in the following sections.

#### **4.3.1 Phenomenological paradigm**

A phenomenon is a fact or occurrence that appears or is perceived, where the cause of that fact or occurrence is in question (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 53). Phenomenology is the science of phenomena and a theoretical point of view that is concerned with the understanding of human behaviour from the participant's own situation (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 53). This approach stresses the subjective aspects of human activity by focusing on the meaning of that activity (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 53).

Phenomenologists believe that social reality is dependent on the mind, and there is no reality independent of the mind (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 53). Remenyi (1996: 9) states that each situation is therefore seen as unique, because the meaning and function of the situation is a function of the circumstances and the specific individual involved. In order for researchers to use this phenomenological approach, they have to look beyond the details of the fact or occurrence in order to understand the fundamental natures working behind them (Remenyi, 1996: 9). It can therefore be deduced that what is researched can be affected by the process of the research; and the researcher is also not independent of what is being researched, but is a fundamental part of it (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 53; Remenyi, 1996: 9). Due to researchers not being independent of the research, the research methods used within the phenomenological approach are various interpretative techniques, which have the aim of describing, translating and somehow coming to terms with the meaning of certain naturally occurring phenomena in the social world (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 53).

#### **4.3.2 Positivist paradigm**

According to Creswell (1994: 2), positivist research is an inquiry into a social or human problem, which is founded on testing a theory that is made up of

variables, measured with numbers, and analysed with statistical procedures in order to establish whether the predictive generalisations of the theory hold true. This type of approach believes that researchers could adopt the role of observers of an independent and pre-existing reality, thereby remaining distant when conducting their research and not allowing for bias and values to distort their objective views, therefore interpreting a tangible, social reality (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 52; Remenyi, 1996: 8). This implies that the end product of the research can be the source of laws and law-like generalisations (Remenyi, 1996: 8). According to positivism, these laws and law-like generalisations provide the basis of explanation, permit the anticipation of phenomena, predict the occurrence and therefore allow them to be controlled (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 53).

Positivism is based on the assumption that social reality is independent of individuals and exists regardless of whether or not people are aware of it (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 52). A key characteristic of positivism, when exploring the relationships between the variables being studied, is that it takes a reductionist approach (Remenyi, 1996: 10). This is necessary in order to control a study and therefore enables the researcher to better understand how the variables concerned are behaving (Remenyi, 1996: 10).

In order to determine whether organisational culture has a statistically significant influence on the organisational commitment within the selected municipality, a positivistic research paradigm was followed (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 56; Remenyi, 1996). This is because literature was studied in order to establish an appropriate theory and construct and to test hypotheses (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 56). The quantitative nature of the data that was captured through the use of the questionnaire is also consistent with positivism, and it emphasises quantifiable observations which lend themselves to statistical analysis (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 56; Remenyi, 1996: 8). According to Creswell (1994: 1-2), a quantitative study is an inquiry into a social or human problem; and it is founded on testing a theory that is made up of variables, measured with numbers, and



analysed with statistical procedures in order to establish whether the predictive generalisations of the theory hold true.

The research paradigm that is used in the research has great importance for the research methodology (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 55). Table 4.1 illustrates the main features of the positivistic and phenomenological paradigms (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 55). The focus in this Chapter will be solely on the positivistic paradigm as previously mentioned.

**Table 4.1: Features of the two paradigms**

<b>Positivistic paradigm</b>	<b>Phenomenological paradigm</b>
Concerned with hypothesis testing	Concerned with generating theories
Tends to produce quantitative data	Tends to produce qualitative data
Uses large samples	Uses small samples
Data is highly specific and precise	Data is rich and subjective
Reliability is high	Reliability is low
Validity is low	Validity is high
Generalises from sample to population	Generalises from one setting to another

Source: Researcher's own construction adapted from Collis and Hussey (2003: 55).

#### 4.4 RESEARCH POPULATION AND SAMPLE

In order to address “from where the data was collected” as stated in the introduction to this chapter, the population and sample pertinent to this research will be discussed in this section. A population is any precisely defined group of people, events or things that are of interest to and under investigation by the researcher and from which the sampling elements are drawn (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 56; Sekaran, 1992: 225; Terre Blanche, Durrheim, and Painter, 2006: 133). The selected local municipality is situated in the Eastern Cape has two towns in

its area of jurisdiction and employs a total of 390 employees. The population of the research included all employees of the selected municipality.

A sample is a subset and representation of the population that is selected for research, and it consists of a selection of members from the population (Bryman and Bell, 2007: 182; Sekaran, 2000: 226). The sample aims at representing the main interests of the research (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 56; Terre Blanch *et al.*, 2006: 133). Terre Blanche *et al.* (2006: 133) add that a sample is compiled from the population, and is simply the elements or people that are included in the research.

Cooper and Schindler (2006: 402) and Terre Blanche *et al.* (2006: 133) state that the basic idea of sampling is that, through the selection of members of the population, the researcher may draw conclusions regarding the entire population, where sampling refers to the process of selecting elements to observe. The sample of the current research included all employees at the selected municipality who could read and write in English, which accounted for approximately 250 employees of the municipality (Bryman, 1995: 111). The respondents had to be able to read and write in English due to the questionnaire only being available in English. According to Collis and Hussey (2003: 56) large samples are often used in positivistic paradigms to conduct statistical analysis and the larger the sample, the more the likelihood that the results can be taken to be true for the whole population.

For the purpose of this research, convenience sampling was used to identify the sample (Terre Blanche *et al.*, 2003: 139). Hair, Money, Samouel and Page (2007: 181) state that convenience sampling involves selecting sample elements that are most readily available to participate in the research and who can provide the information required by the researcher. Convenience sampling is also a form of non-probability sampling (Leedy, 1993: 200). Terre Blanche *et al.* (2003: 139) explain that non-probability sampling refers to any kind of sampling where the selection of elements is not determined by random selection using statistical

interpretation. The research co-ordinator at the selected municipality assisted in identifying the municipal employees who could read and write in English.

#### 4.5 RESEARCH METHOD

Collis and Hussey (2003: 55) stated that research methods refer to the various means by which the data is collected and analysed and gives effect to “how the data was collected”. Based on the research objectives as stated in Section 1.2 in Chapter 1 and the positivistic paradigm, surveys were the most suitable for this research so that large amounts of data could be collected in order to conduct statistical procedures effectively (Remenyi, 1996). The survey method of data collection tests a sample of people that are drawn from the population in order to make deductions about that population (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 66). Creswell (1994: 117) explains that a survey provides a quantitative description of the sample being studied, through the data collection process of posing questions. Creswell (1994: 117) goes on to state that through the quantitative data collected through the use of a survey, the researcher will be able to generalise the findings from the sample of responses to the population. According to Remenyi (1996: 12), surveys offer an opportunity to collect large quantities of data, which therefore can be used for statistical analysis that is representative of the whole population. Neuman (2006: 276) agrees with Remenyi (1996: 12), and adds that survey researchers sample a large number of respondents, as well as measures variables, tests multiple hypotheses, and deduces information regarding the respondent’s attitudes, behaviour and characteristics. Collis and Hussey (2003: 66) believe that if the total population is small, such as at the selected municipality which has 390 employees, then it is common practice to collect data about each member, or the majority of members of the population, and therefore it may be possible to generalise from the findings to a broader context.

The survey was administered through the use of questionnaires over two days on site at the two towns that fall under the jurisdiction of the municipality. The on site data collection sessions consisted of 12 one hour long sessions with different

groups of respondents from the selected municipality, The researcher, an Afrikaans interpreter, an isiXhosa interpreter, and an assistant, were present at these data collection sessions. The interpreters were present because the predominant languages spoken in the area are Afrikaans and isiXhosa. The presence of the interpreters therefore ensured that respondents whose first language was not English were able to ask for assistance when completing the forms if they did not fully understand. The use of the surveys ensured that the questions were all the same and the contents of the questionnaires were understood by all respondents present at the data collection sessions (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 66).

A more detailed exposition of the research measuring instruments used in this research will be given in the next section.

#### 4.6 RESEARCH MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The measuring instrument used in this research was divided into three sections and the data was collected by means of a structured questionnaire, attached as APPENDIX A. The questionnaire consisted of three sections, namely Section A, Section B, and Section C, and was accompanied by a cover letter. The cover letter introduced the research and ensured that respondents were knowledgeable about the purpose of the research. Section A of the questionnaire included ten biographical questions pertaining to age, gender, department worked for, highest level of education, and place of work. In this section, respondents were requested to select an option by making a cross opposite their selected option.

Section B consisted of fifteen statements each containing four sub-statements reflecting both the existing and preferred organisational cultures within the selected municipality. Section B included an instruction sheet where an explanation was given as to how the section was to be completed. A detailed explanation of this section is given in Section 4.6.1.

In Section C, respondents were requested to respond to a five-point likert scale for twenty-one organisational commitment statements. Section C also included an instruction sheet indicating how respondents should complete this section of the survey. A detailed explanation of this section is given in Section 4.6.2. The questionnaire also contained an open question, where respondents were requested to add any comments in the space provided on the last page of the questionnaire.

#### **4.6.1 Harrison and Stokes's (1992) culture questionnaire**

Section B of the questionnaire was based on an existing research measuring instrument. One reason why this instrument was chosen is because it has the advantage of being based on a simple model, which is easily understandable to employees at any level in an organisation (Harrison, 1993: 3). The Harrison and Stokes (1992) research instrument was developed from the cultural framework by Harrison (1972). The Harrison and Stokes (1992) research instrument has been tested in South Africa by Grebe (1997), Harmse (2001), and Louw and Boshoff (2006) and received acceptable results with regards to the reliability and validity, which was another reason why it was chosen for use in this research.

In Section B of the research's measuring instrument, there are 15 statements each containing 4 sub-statements. The 4 sub-statements reflect the four organisational cultural types developed by Harrison and Stokes (1992), namely power orientation, role orientation, achievement orientation and support orientation. Respondents were requested to rank the statements according to the extent to which they agree (4 = most preferred) or disagree (1 = least preferred) with each statement. Each of these statements had to be ranked twice, once according to how they think things are at present (existing culture) and then the way the respondents would like the culture to be (preferred culture).

In order to assess the quality of this research instrument, it is important to look at the issues regarding the instrument's reliability and validity based on previous research.

*4.6.1.1 Reliability and validity of Harrison and Stokes's (1992) research measuring instrument*

Reliability is concerned with the findings of the research and refers to the consistency of a measuring instrument and will be discussed in Section 4.9 (Bryman, 1995: 55; Collis and Hussey, 2003: 58; Punch, 2005: 95). Table 4.2 shows the reliability scores for the scales used in the Harrison and Stokes (1992) research instrument in previous research by Harrison (1993: 26). Harrison (1993: 26) found that three of the four scales have relatively good reliability, with the exception of the Role scale of organisational culture.

**Table 4.2: Reliability of Harrison and Stokes's (1992) cultural questionnaire**

<b>Existing Organisational Culture Scale</b>	<b>Reliability</b>
Power Culture	.90
Role Culture	.64
Achievement Culture	.86
Support Culture	.87

Source: Adapted from Harrison (1993: 26).

The validity of a measure refers to the extent to which the research findings accurately represent what the measuring instrument claims to measure and will be discussed in Section 4.9 (Bryman, 1995: 57; Collis and Hussey, 2003: 58; Punch, 2005: 97). An instrument is therefore valid if it measures what the researcher claims it does (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 58-59).

Harrison (1993: 27) claims that in the measuring instrument there is evidence of construct validity. This refers to how well the measuring instrument conforms to theoretical expectations, therefore indicating that this measuring instrument demonstrates relationships with other constructs (Bryman, 1995: 98).

Harrison (1993: 27) gained indirect evidence for the validity of the Harrison and Stokes (1992) questionnaire by correlating it with another culture questionnaire by Tom Janz (in Harrison, 1993: 27). Table 4.3 illustrates the correlations between the two questionnaires, which confirm that they measure similar attitudes and values and therefore confirms the validity of the instrument (Harrison, 1993: 27-28). The results in Table 4.3 also show that the two questionnaires appear to tap into the same cognitive space of a respondent (Harrison, 1993: 28).

**Table 4.3: Validity scores between the Harrison and Janz questionnaires**

<b>Harrison/Stokes Questionnaire</b>	<b>Janz Questionnaire</b>		
	<b>Values</b>	<b>Power</b>	<b>Rules</b>
<b>Organisational culture</b>			
Power	-.70	.79	.01
Role	.19	-.47	.40
Achievement	.69	-.69	-.38
Support	.41	-.68	-.46

Source: Adapted from Harrison (1993: 28).

From the above discussion, it can be deduced that the scales in the Harrison and Stokes (1992) research instrument show respectable reliability and validity and therefore no pilot study was conducted in this research.

Research conducted at a district municipality in 2006 (Louw and Boshoff, 2006) indicated that Section B of the questionnaire was difficult to complete due to the ranking of the statements on the existing and preferred organisational cultures. The researcher was therefore aware of this problem and made use of the Afrikaans and isiXhosa interpreters and the assistant to assist the respondents during the data collection sessions.

#### **4.6.2 Allen and Meyer's (1990) three-component conceptualisation**

Section C of the questionnaire, pertaining to organisational commitment, consists of the research instrument developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). It was chosen for this research because Allen and Meyer's (1990) three-component questionnaire is a multidimensional construct that conceptualises organisational commitment and can be applied across domains (Meyer, Allen and Smith, 1993: 538). The value of taking this multidimensional approach is that it provides a more complete understanding of an employee's relationship to their job (Meyer *et al.*, 1993: 540). Silverthorne (2004: 594) agrees with Meyer *et al.* (1993: 539) and further states that a multidimensional approach is an effective tool for measuring organisational commitment. This research instrument was also chosen because it has been previously tested by Allen and Meyer (1990); Clugston *et al.* (2000); Meyer and Allen (1991); Rashid *et al.* (2003); and Wasti (2003). In this research instrument, Allen and Meyer (1990) measure three types of organisational commitment namely, (1) affective commitment; (2) continuance commitment; and (3) normative commitment (Greenberg and Baron, 2003: 161-163; Allen and Meyer, 1990: 3-4).

The affective, continuance and normative organisational commitment scales each comprised seven items, a modification of the original questionnaire (Coetzee, Schreuder and Tladinyane, 2007: 71). The questionnaire was modified on the basis that the survey for the current research was lengthy and therefore needed to be reduced. The researcher compared the factor analysis results received by Allen and Meyer (1990: 6-7) and deleted the lowest rating for each of the three factors. Deleting three statements therefore reduced Allen and Meyer's (1990) organisational commitment questionnaire from 24 statements to 21 statements. A second modification of the Allen and Meyer (1990) organisational commitment questionnaire was that the normative commitment scale had negative statements. The researcher altered the negative normative statements to positive normative statements in order to make the completion of the questionnaire easier.



Section C of this research instrument used in this research consisted of three scales reflecting the three-component conceptualisation of organisational commitment developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) namely, affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Each of the scales consists of seven statements that comprised the 21 statements and all statements were linked to a five-point Likert-type interval scale. This interval scaled instrument enabled the researcher to perform the statistical data analysis as described in Section 4.9 of this Chapter (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005: 26-27; Cooper and Schindler 2003: 227-228).

#### *4.6.2.1 Reliability and Validity of Allen and Meyer's (1990) research measuring instrument*

As mentioned in the previous section, reliability measures a research instrument's consistency, and validity refers to whether the instrument measures what it claims to measure (Creswell, 1994: 121). Allen and Meyer's (1990) research instrument has been previously tested in a number of studies (Becker *et al.*, 1996, Rashid *et al.*, 2003), and therefore the reliability and validity have been tested.

Allen and Meyer (1990: 5-6) developed the scales and selected eight items for inclusion in each of the affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment scales, 24 items in total. Allen and Meyer (1990: 6) tested the reliability in terms of Cronbach's alpha coefficient and the reliability for each scale was as follows: affective commitment scale: 0.87; continuous commitment scale: 0.75; and the normative commitment scale: 0.79. Rashid *et al.* (2003: 718) also tested the reliability of the three scales in the instrument, and found that the scores for the three organisational commitment types, namely, the affective, continuance and normative commitment were 0.92, 0.93 and 0.72, respectively. These results suggest a fair level of internal consistency in the responses (Rashid *et al.*, 2003: 718). Clugston *et al.* (2000: 13) also tested the reliability of Allen and Meyer's (1990) measuring instrument and the coefficient alphas were all above 0.75.

With regards to the validity of the questionnaire, Allen and Meyer (1990: 6) subjected the 24 items comprising the three organizational commitment scales to a factor analysis. Everitt and Dunn (2001) state that factor analyses assess the validity of a questionnaire. Clugston *et al.* (2000: 13) found that confirmatory factor analyses support these measures, which therefore means that they found that there is validity in the Allen and Meyer (1990) measuring instrument. Wasti (2003: 307) also performed a factor analysis with regards to the questionnaire that yielded a three-factor solution, which is comparable to the Allen and Meyer (1990) model and therefore also suggests validity in the instrument.

From the above, Allen and Meyer's (1990) measuring instrument can be seen to have both acceptable reliability and validity and therefore no pilot study was performed for this section of the questionnaire.

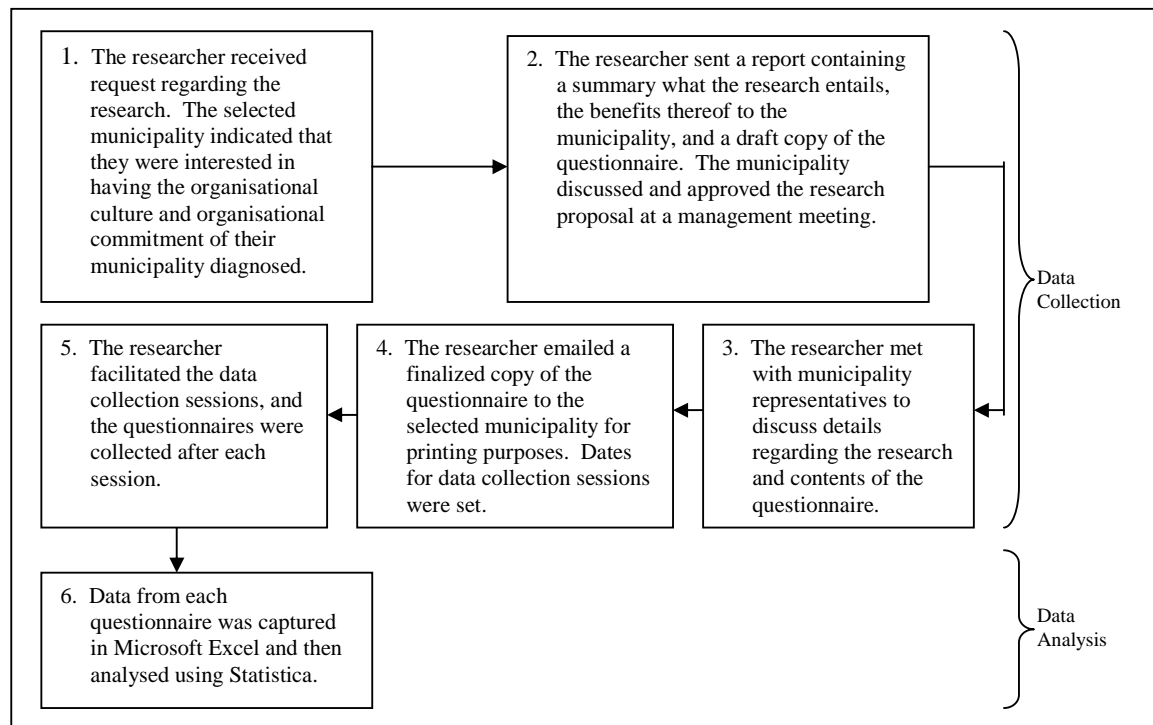
#### 4.7 DATA COLLECTION

In order to address “when and what data was collected” as stated in the introduction to the chapter, the data collection process will be discussed in this next section. Figure 4.2 illustrates the process of data collection for this research.

The questionnaire was administered and data collected from the sample (N=250) of municipal respondents at the two towns situated in the area of jurisdiction of the selected municipality. The data collection process began by the selected municipality approaching the researcher and indicating that they were interested in having the researcher diagnose the organisational culture and organisational commitment of the municipality. The selected municipality approached the researcher because the municipality has been through a process of transformation resulting in the amalgamation of different cultures within the municipality. As a result of the amalgamation, low levels of commitment and motivation among the employees is occurring, which therefore has a negative affect on the

municipality's service delivery. The researcher sent an email to the selected municipality which contained a three page report on the research and its benefits for the municipality, as well as a draft copy of the questionnaire. The research proposal was discussed and approved at a management meeting giving the researcher permission to conduct the research and hold data collection sessions at all the municipal offices situated in the two towns that fall under the municipality's area of jurisdiction where the surveys were to be completed by the selected sample of respondents from the municipality.

**Figure 4.2: Data collection process**



Source: Researcher's own construction (2007).

Once the initial permission was granted the researcher met with the Director of Corporate Services and the Chairperson of the Administration Committee. The emphasis of the meeting was on finalising the questionnaire and appointing an internal coordinator who would liaise with and assist the researcher in organising and conducting the data collection sessions. The researcher compiled the

questionnaire and this final copy, attached as APPENDIX A, was sent to the municipality for printing purposes. The internal coordinator set up the data collection sessions at the municipal offices at the two towns. The data collection sessions took place over two days because the selected municipality had municipal offices in towns that are situated approximately 100 kilometres apart.

As previously mentioned, at the data collection sessions all employees who could read and write in English were requested to complete questionnaires. At the beginning of each data collection session the researcher gave an overview and explained the purpose of the research to the respondents, as well as instructing the respondents on how to complete the questionnaire. An Afrikaans translator and an isiXhosa translator were present at the data collection sessions for the reason that the predominant languages in the area were Afrikaans and isiXhosa. The translators were present in order to answer any questions that respondents had relating to the research and questionnaire. The presence of the researcher and two translators and the assistant was vital in order to ensure that the questionnaires were completed properly and therefore increasing the number of usable questionnaires that could be presented for statistical analysis. Each session lasted approximately one hour for the respondents to complete the questionnaires.

#### 4.8 DATA CAPTURING

The data capturing and the statistical analysis address the point pertaining to “how the data was analysed” that was identified in the introduction to this chapter. Once the data was collected, the researcher numbered each questionnaire and captured the corresponding data in a spreadsheet document, using Microsoft Excel. This was done because if there was a complication with one of the data inputs, then the researcher could look up that specific questionnaire and correct the anomaly. Once all the data was captured, it was transferred to a statistical data analysis program, namely Statistica 8.

#### 4.9 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

As mentioned in Section 4.8, the statistical analysis concerns “how the data was analysed” as stated in the Section 4.1. The quantitative data were analysed using Statistica 8 (Punch, 2005: 108). Firstly, the information from all three sections of the questionnaire was analysed statistically using descriptive analysis (Creswell, 1994: 124). Descriptive statistics are used in order to summarise a set of scores that are obtained from respondents and to illustrate basic patterns in data (Harris, 1998; Punch, 2005: 110; Neuman, 2006: 347). The benefits of performing a descriptive analysis include: (a) it keeps the researcher close to the data; (b) it enables the researcher to understand the distribution of each variable across the survey respondents (Punch, 2005: 124-125). Within this research descriptive statistics were used to summarise Section A of the questionnaire pertaining to the biographical details, to develop a profile of the municipality’s existing and preferred organisational culture (Section B), as well as to develop a profile regarding the municipality’s organisational commitment (Section C).

In the analysis of this research data, simple frequency tables were used to summarise and understand the data (Punch, 1995: 111). Punch (1995: 111) explains what frequency tables describe: “The individual scores in the distribution are tabulated according to how many respondents achieve each score, or gave each response, or fell into each category.” All three sections of the questionnaire used in this research were analysed statistically using frequency distributions because the results can be shown as tables or as graphs, which makes the results easy to illustrate as well as enabling the researcher to get a basic idea of the characteristics of the data (Punch, 1995: 111; Sekaran, 1992: 260). Once the data was analysed using frequency tables, simple graphs were constructed in order to graphically represent the data contained in the frequency table (Milton, 1992: 6).

Included in the descriptive analysis was the calculation of the mean and standard deviations of the data. Sekaran (1992: 260) defines the mean as the average that

offers a general picture of the data without overwhelming the researcher with each of the observations in the data set. It is simply the average of the various responses pertaining to a scale (Parasuraman, Grewal, and Krishnan, 2004: 408). The mean, or average, is calculated by taking the sum of individual observations of each scale and dividing it by the number of observations within that scale (Sekaran, 1992: 261). The standard deviation was used to measure the dispersion of the data. Dispersion describes how the data are clustered around the mean, while standard deviation is the measure of dispersion and is the degree of deviation of the numbers from their mean (Parasuraman *et al.*, 2004: 269).

The reliability and validity of research results are very important aspects to be considered when evaluating a research instrument (Booth, 1995). They are the statistical criteria used to assess whether the research provides a good measure (Whitelaw, 2001). Zikmund (2003: 740) defines reliability as the degree to which an instrument's measures are free from error, therefore yielding consistent results. Research findings are reliable if they can be repeated (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 58). This is known as replication, and it is very important in positivistic studies where reliability is usually high (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 58). There are three fundamental methods that are accepted for estimating the reliability of responses of a measurement scale: test-retest, split-halves method and internal consistency method (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 186). The computation of the reliability of a measuring instrument is important, therefore Section 5.4 of this research will analyse the reliability of the research instruments used in this research even though previous studies have analysed the measuring instruments.

The reliability of the questionnaire used in this research was assessed through the use of Cronbach's Alpha. Cronbach's Alpha measures the internal consistency of the instrument, which refers to the degree to which the measuring instrument items are homogenous and reflect identical underlying constructs (Cooper and Schindler, 2006: 322). Bryman and Bell (2007: 164) state that Cronbach's Alpha is a commonly used test of internal reliability, which essentially calculates

the average of all possible split-half reliability coefficients. The Cronbach Alpha, once computed, will produce a value that varies between 1 (representing perfect internal reliability) and 0 (representing no internal consistency), with the values 0.80 and 0.70 typically employed as a rule of thumb to denote a good level of internal reliability (Bryman and Bell, 2007: 164).

Validity is the extent to which research findings accurately represent what is really happening in a situation that is being researched, and therefore a test is valid if it measures what the researcher claims it does (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 58-59). A positivistic study focuses on the precision of measurement and the ability to be able to repeat the research reliably, therefore there is a possibility that the validity will be low and the research instrument does not reflect the event the researcher claims to be investigating (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 59). Collis and Hussey (2003: 58) state that it is possible for a research instrument to have high reliability and low validity. There are a number of ways in which validity of a measurement can be assessed, with the foremost ways being face validity and construct validity. (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 59). The face validity of a measuring instrument refers to the subjective agreement that the instrument logically appears to reflect accurately what it purports to measure (Zikmund, 2003: 302). Construct validity confirms how well the results obtained from the use of the measuring instrument fit the theory around which the test is designed (Sekaran, 1992: 173). A way of assessing the validity of an instrument can be through the use of a factor analysis.

Factor analysis has the objective of reducing variables that belong together and have overlapping measurement characteristics to a manageable number (Cooper and Schindler, 2006: 590). It is a technique that discovers patterns among variables in order to determine an underlying combination of the original variables which can summarise the original set and indicate whether the instrument measures what it purports to measure (Cooper and Schindler, 2006: 710). With regards to the current research, a factor analysis was conducted, yet the results did not separate the scales according to measurable factors.

Parasuraman *et al.* (2004: 525) indicate that a limitation of factor analysis is that it is not always guaranteed to accomplish its intended purpose, as was found with this current research. The research instruments used within the specific context of this research therefore have low validity, even though, as previously explained, a research team was always present to assist respondents in completing the questionnaire as accurately as possible. The fact that the research instrument used in this research had low validity is not necessarily problematic because, as explained by Collis and Hussey (2003: 59), positivistic paradigms focus on the precision of measure and the ability to repeat the measure reliably and therefore there is always the possibility that the instrument will have low validity.

The final data analysis phase comprised analysis of dependence (ANOVA and MANOVA) and measures of association (correlation analysis) to assess the hypothesised relationships, as mentioned in Section 1.2 in Chapter 1 (Blumberg, Cooper, and Schindler, 2005: 743; Zikmund, 2003: 576). An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is used when one independent variable is analysed on an interval scaled dependent variable. ANOVA is a technique to determine if statistically significant differences of means occur between two or more groups, and was used to test the first set of hypotheses (Zikmund, 2003: 734). A Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) is used when two or more interval scaled independent variables are analysed at the same time in order to simultaneously test significant differences in the mean scores between two or more dependent variables. This was used to test the first and third sets of hypotheses (Parasuraman *et al.*, 2004: 269; Zikmund, 2003: 584). Correlation analysis, specifically Pearson's correlation coefficient, is a statistical measure of association between variables and was used to test the second set of hypotheses (Zikmund, 2003: 551).

The first hypothesis questions whether there is a significant gap between the existing and preferred organisational cultures at the selected municipality ( $H_{a1.1}$ ). A one way repeated measure ANOVA (Mauchley's Test of Sphericity) and a



within-subject MANOVA (Wilks' Lambda Effect Test) based on the gap scores for each of the four scales, namely the power, role, achievement and support organisational culture scales, which is the difference in scores for each scale. These two measures were used in order to identify if there was a significant gap between the existing and preferred organisational cultures at the selected municipality.

With regards to the second set of hypotheses pertaining to the influence of organisational culture on organisational commitment ( $H_{a2.1} - H_{a2.3}$ ), the current research data was assessed as to whether they had a linear relationship through correlation. Sekaran (2000: 401) is of the opinion that correlations are useful when a research project includes several variables and a researcher needs to know how one variable is related to another, which is relevant in this current research. A correlation is the linear relationship between two or more quantitative variables and is derived by assessing the variations in one variable as another variable also varies (Sekaran, 2000: 401; StatSoft, 2003).

Respondents were requested to indicate their responses on a five-point Likert scale, which implies that the data is ordinal (Parasuraman *et al.*, 2004: 268). This research, however, will be testing the data between scales, not individual responses within the scales. This type of data is therefore classified as interval (Parasuraman *et al.*, 2004: 269). An interval scale has all the properties of an ordinal scale, yet the differences between scales can be meaningfully interpreted (Parasuraman *et al.*, 2004: 269).

Spearman's rho is designed for investigating the correlations between ordinal variables (Bryman and Bell, 2007: 355; Cooper and Schindler, 2006: 563). This means that, if one wanted to correlate relationships between statements within a scale, Spearman's rho would be used. However, with regards to this research, relationships were tested between scales, where the sums of the ordinal scores were calculated. This resulted in interval data being used for testing relationships, which therefore means that Pearson's correlation, which is

represented by the letter  $r$ , was used to test if there are linear relationships between scales (StatSoft, 2003). Pearson's correlation coefficient determines the extent to which values of two variables are proportional, or linearly related to each other; that is the correlation is high if it can be approximated by a straight line, or regression line (StatSoft, 2003). In other words, Pearson's correlation will show the direction, the strength, and the significance of the multivariate relationship between the variables in this research (Parasuraman *et al.*, 2004: 269).

Once Pearson's correlation has been calculated, the correlation coefficients can range from -1.00 to +1.00; where the value of -1.00 represents a perfect negative correlation, while a value of +1.00 represents a perfect positive correlation and a value of 0.00 represents a lack of correlation (StatSoft, 2007). A negative correlation is a relationship between two variables where as one variable's value tend to increase the other variable's value tends to decrease (StatSoft, 2007). A positive correlation refers to a relationship between two variables, where as one variable's values tend to increase; the other variable's values also tend to increase (StatSoft, 2007). A relationship is significant where  $-0.15 \geq r \geq 0.15$  (StatSoft, 2007).

In order to correctly interpret the values of correlations, it is important to know the level of significance of the correlation. The reliability of a relation between variables observed in a sample can be quantitatively estimated using a standard measure called a statistical significance level, or p-value (StatSoft, 2007). Therefore the significance level calculated for each correlation is a source of information about the reliability of the correlation (StatSoft, 2007). Examining the statistical significance of the computed Pearson's correlation coefficients, which is based on a randomly selected sample, provides the researcher with information regarding the likelihood that the coefficient will be found in the population from which the sample was taken (Bryman and Bell, 2007: 370). The statistical significance of a result represents the degree to which the result is representative of the entire population (StatSoft, 2007). The higher the statistical

significance (p-value), the less the observed relation between variables in the sample is a reliable indicator of the relation between the respective variables in the population (StatSoft, 2007). It is thus stated that the p-value represents the probability of error that is involved when accepting the research results as representative of the entire population. A p-value of 0.05 is generally treated as an acceptable error level (StatSoft, 2007). This level of significance is acceptable, yet it represents a somewhat high probability (5%) that an error within the population has occurred.

The final statistical analysis, relating to the third set of hypotheses was assessed in two ways. Firstly,  $H_{a\ 3.1}$ ,  $H_{a\ 3.2}$ , and  $H_{a\ 3.3}$ , pertaining to the relationships between the biographical variables and organisational culture and organisational commitment, were assessed by using Pearson's chi-squared ( $\chi^2$ ) test in order to describe sets of relationships between two or more variables (Zikmund, 2003: 521). The Pearson's chi-squared test is used to determine if there is enough evidence to determine that the two qualitative variables are related, and to deduce that differences exist among two or more groups of qualitative variables (Keller and Warrack, 1999: 551). A statistical significant difference is observed when the p-value is less than 0.05 (Sekaran, 1992: 300). The biographical variables and their subgroups (independent variables) were tabulated with the existing and preferred organisational cultures as well as the organisational commitment (dependent variables) for the purposes of comparison (Zikmund, 2003: 522). This enabled the researcher to statistically determine significance in the analysis of frequency distributions, and thus compare the differences in the responses of each category of the selected biographical variables for the existing and preferred organisational culture and the organisational commitment.

Secondly, hypothesis  $H_{a\ 3.4}$ , pertaining to a relationship in the differences in mean scores between the biographical variables and the organisational culture gap, was assessed through the use of a double multivariate repeated measures (MANOVA) design. When multiple dependent variables such as the biographical variable categories are present, the design is said to be multivariate

(StatSoft, 2007). The multivariate measure of association between the variables used in this research is the Wilks' Lambda, which provides information about the strength of the relationships between predictor and dependent variables. The Wilks' Lambda can range from 0 to 1, with 1 indicating no relationship of predictors to responses and 0 indicating a perfect relationship of predictors to responses (StatSoft, 2007). The multivariate design was implemented for each of the selected biographical variables, namely gender, age, education level, department worked in and place of work. The gap scores for each of the four scales, which is the difference between the existing and the preferred organisational culture scores for each respondent for each of the four scales, was used as the within-subjects factor between the biographical variable categories, such as male and female within the gender variable.

The results of the statistical analyses will be discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

#### 4.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Researchers need to have a firm understanding of what is considered right and wrong when researching (Remenyi, 1998: 109). Researchers are in a privileged position where they gain information from respondents, and are expected to perform their duties and use the information in an ethical manner (Remenyi, 1998: 109). Remenyi (1998: 110) believes that there are three major aspects as to how research should be conducted ethically. These are: issues regarding the collection of data; problems associated with processing the data; and the use of the findings. With regards to the collection of the data, the researcher ensured non disclosure of the respondents' details and no authentication was attached to the submitted questionnaires. The researcher also explained to the employees involved in the surveys the importance and expected outcomes of the proposed research (Remenyi, 1998: 110).

Once the data was captured in a spreadsheet document, it was statistically analysed. During this process the researcher made no attempt to omit or

manipulate, and thus distort, the data (Remenyi, 1998: 111). The researcher therefore acted in an unbiased manner, with no personal prejudices influencing the collection and analysis of the data (Remenyi, 1998: 111).

Remenyi (1998: 112) is of the opinion that the findings of research should be used for ethical purposes only. As a result researcher used the findings firstly for academic purposes, and secondly for compiling a report of the findings and recommendations which will be sent to the selected municipality.

#### 4.11 SUMMARY

This chapter outlines the methodology of the research and begins by presenting the importance of the research, with reference to the research objectives and hypotheses stated in Section 1.2 in Chapter 1. The positivistic paradigm was discussed, and then the population and sample of the research described. The research method, a survey, was discussed, and then the two measuring instruments that were used were examined in detail, including previous reliability and validity results. The data collection process was reviewed, as well as how the data was captured and analysed. Finally, the ethical considerations that the researcher enforced were commented on.

In Chapter 5, the results that were found through the statistical analysis will be discussed.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **EMPIRICAL FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

The purpose of this research is to ascertain the influence of organisational culture on the organisational commitment at the selected municipality; this chapter gives effect to the research objectives and hypotheses as stated in Section 1.2, Chapter 1, by presenting the empirical findings. The purpose of this chapter is therefore to present the empirical findings of this research and discuss the findings in relation to the theoretical perspectives (see Chapter 2 regarding organisational culture, and Chapter 3 regarding organisational commitment).

Firstly, the response rate pertaining to this research will be presented, followed by the identification of the descriptive statistics regarding the biographical information of the respondents. The assessment of the reliability of the measuring instruments is next established through the use of Cronbach's Alpha coefficient. Subsequently, the organisational culture profile is identified, followed by the evaluation of the organisational culture gap and then the identification of the organisational commitment profile. The linear relationships between the existing and preferred organisational cultures and organisational commitment are evaluated through the use of Pearson's correlation coefficient. The organisational culture gap follows in discussion in terms of its effect on organisational commitment and whether or not it differs with regards to selected biographical information pertaining to employees. Finally, the biographical variables are tested for a relationship between the existing and preferred organisational culture as well as the organisational commitment of employees in order to ascertain whether there is a difference in responses with regards to the various biographical variables.

## 5.2 RESPONSE RATE

Table 5.1 illustrates the response rate achieved for this research. The total population for this research was 390 employees at the selected municipality and the sample included those employees at the selected who could read and write in English, which accounted for approximately 250 employees. The total number of respondents that participated in this research was 189. There were 148 questionnaires that were correctly completed while 41 questionnaires were incorrectly completed and therefore un-usable for this research. The response rate (the total number of responses / the sample size of the research) was 75.6%, and the usable response rate (usable responses / the sample size of the research) was 59.2 %.

**Table 5.1: Response rate**

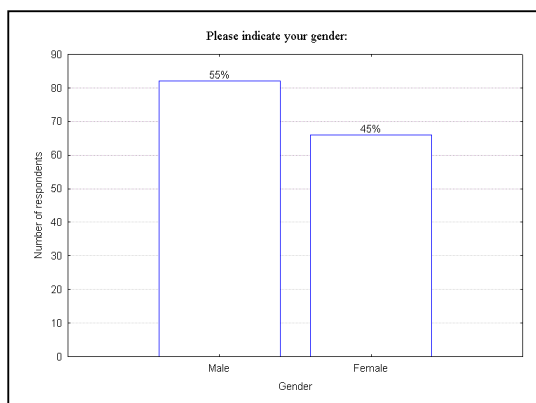
	<b>Selected Local Municipality</b>
<b>Population</b>	390
<b>Sample</b>	250
<b>Unusable Responses</b>	41
<b>Usable Responses</b>	148
<b>Usable Response Rate</b>	59.2%
<b>Total Responses</b>	189
<b>Total Response Rate</b>	75.6%

A response rate of 59.2% (N =148) is large enough for meaningful statistical analysis and acceptable interpretation (Bryman and Bell, 2007: 244; Welman, Kruger and Mitchell, 2005: 154). A response rate that is lower than 50% represents a minority, which indicates that an entirely incorrect generalisation of the population may be obtained. The response rate of 59.2% is therefore considered as more than sufficient for the purpose of this research.

### 5.3 THE BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION OF RESPONDENTS

Statistica 8 was used to summarise the biographical information as shown in Figures 5.1 to 5.5. APPENDIX B contains all the frequency tables and bar graphs for the biographical information captured in the questionnaire, with N=148 respondents. Figure 5.1 illustrates that 82 (55%) of the respondents were male, and 66 (45%) of the respondents were female.

**Figure 5.1: The number of male and female respondents**



Of the 148 respondents, 103 (70%) of the respondents predominantly worked in Town A, and 45 (30%) of the respondents worked in Town B. This is illustrated in Figure 5.2 below. Both towns are situated in the area of jurisdiction of the selected municipality.

**Figure 5.2: Town in which respondents worked**

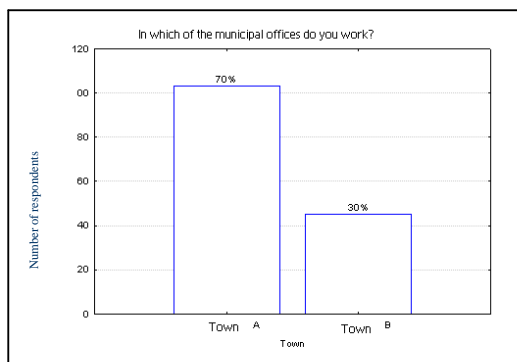
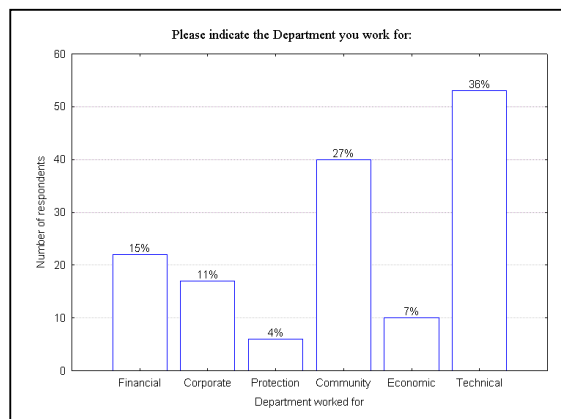




Figure 5.3 graphically illustrates the departments that the respondents worked in. There were a total of 22 (15%) respondents working in the Financial Services Department, 17 (11%) working in the Corporate Services Department, 6 (4%) working in the Protection Services Department, 40 (27%) working in the Community Services Department, 10 (7%) working in the Local Economic Development Department, and 53 (36%) of the respondents working in the Technical Services Department.

**Figure 5.3: Departments that respondents work in**



The length of time that respondents have worked for the municipality is illustrated in Figure 5.4. The majority of respondents, 102 (69%) employees, have worked for the selected municipality for more than 6 years. Only 7 (5%) respondents have worked for the municipality for one year or less, 18 (12%) have worked for between one to two years, 14 (9%) for three to four years, and 7 (5%) for five to 6 years.

**Figure 5.4: Length of employment at the municipality**

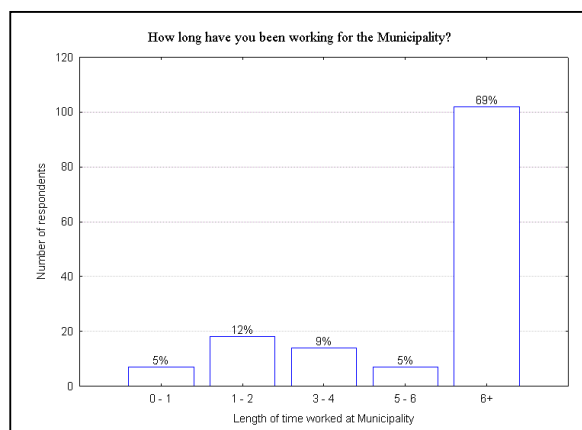
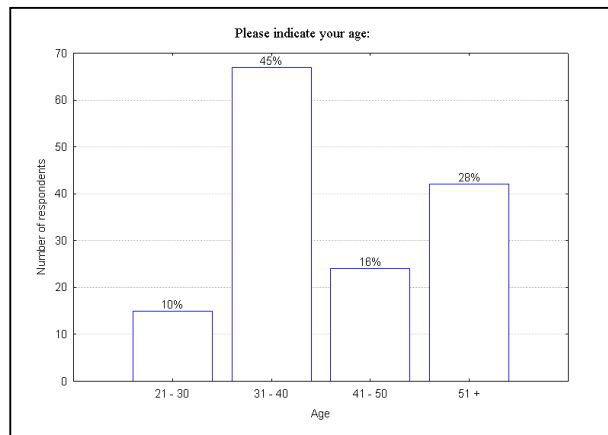


Figure 5.5 graphically shows the age of respondents. The majority age group of respondents is between 31 and 40, with 67 (45%) of respondents falling into this category. There were 15 (10%) respondents that were between the ages 21 and 30; 24 (16%) respondents who were between 41 and 50; and 42 (28%) respondents who were 50 years or older.

**Figure 5.5: Age of respondents**



#### **5.4 INTERNAL RELIABILITY OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS**

The purpose of this section is to report on the reliability of the measuring instruments used in this research even though previous studies have already conducted analyses pertaining to the reliability of the two measuring instruments. This is important because reliability indicates whether or not an instrument's measures are free from error, therefore yielding consistent results (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 58).

##### **5.4.1 Cronbach's alpha coefficient scores for the organisational culture questionnaire**

The reliability of the Harrison and Stokes (1992) culture questionnaire (Section B, APPENDIX A) was established by means of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Table 5.2 shows the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the four cultural scales,

namely power, role, achievement, and support scales, which are based on the Harrison and Stokes (1992) measuring instrument. It includes both the existing and preferred Cronbach's alpha values.

**Table 5.2: Cronbach's alpha coefficient scores for the organisational culture scales**

<b>Organisational Culture Scales</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha Rating</b>
<b>Existing power culture</b>	40.45	8.63	0.75	Good
<b>Existing role culture</b>	39.51	5.16	0.45	Poor
<b>Existing achievement culture</b>	35.97	4.84	0.39	Poor
<b>Existing support culture</b>	34.04	7.05	0.66	Acceptable
<b>Preferred power culture</b>	30.89	8.98	0.82	Good
<b>Preferred role culture</b>	37.41	5.03	0.45	Poor
<b>Preferred achievement culture</b>	40.83	5.36	0.55	Acceptable
<b>Preferred support culture</b>	40.86	7.78	0.73	Good

All figures rounded off to two decimal places

Bryman and Bell (2007: 164) indicate that values of 0.70 and above are typically employed as a rule of thumb to denote a good level of internal reliability, values between 0.50 and 0.69 denote an acceptable level of reliability, and scores below 0.50 denote poor levels of reliability. Table 5.2 illustrates that the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the four scales ranged from poor to good. The coefficients for the existing and preferred power culture were good, 0.75 and 0.82 respectively; as was the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the preferred support culture, with a score of 0.73. This indicates that these three scales yield consistent results and can therefore be repeated with the expectation of receiving the same results. On the other hand, the coefficients for the existing and preferred role culture were both poor, with scores of 0.45; as was the coefficients for the existing achievement culture, with a score of 0.39. These three culture scales are assumed to receive inconsistent results, and therefore are not internally

consistent. The existing support culture scale and the preferred achievement culture scale both have an acceptable Cronbach's alpha coefficient score of 0.66 and 0.55, respectively. Although these scores are seen as border-line results, they are still viewed as reliable and internally consistent.

These reliability scores shown in Table 5.2 are to an extent inconsistent with the results found by Harrison and Stokes (1992), which are given in Table 4.2. Harrison and Stokes tested the reliability of the organisational culture questionnaire using Cronbach's alpha coefficient on the existing culture scales, and found relatively high reliability results, with the existing role culture receiving the lowest score of 0.64. This is in contrast with the results of this research that show the lowest score within the existing cultures is that of achievement culture, with a score of 0.39. Both this research and the Harrison and Stokes's (1992) research found that the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the existing power culture are the highest scores, with scores of 0.75 and 0.90 respectively. The existing support culture was also found to have the second highest coefficient in both tests, with scores of 0.66 and 0.87 respectively.

The item-total statistics regarding Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each of the culture scales are attached as APPENDIX C. These tables show the internal consistency of the scale (coefficient alpha) if the respective items were to be deleted. Table 5.3 illustrates the item-total statistics regarding the preferred role culture at the selected municipality. The preferred role culture was chosen because it is internally consistent yet it has a poor Cronbach's alpha coefficient.

From Table 5.3, it can be seen that if the respective statements (statements 1b to 15b) were deleted, then the overall Cronbach's alpha scores would score according to the ratings given in the last column of Table 5.3. From this column, it is evident that all of the Cronbach's alpha scores are relatively consistent, ranging between 0.38 and 0.48. It can thus be surmised that this scale is internally consistent because none of the items, if deleted, would result in a significant change in the Cronbach's alpha coefficient score.

**Table 5.3: Item-total correlation and Cronbach's alpha coefficient scores for the preferred role culture**

<b>Preferred role culture</b>	<b>Mean if deleted</b>	<b>Var. if deleted</b>	<b>StDv. if deleted</b>	<b>Itm-Totl Correl.</b>	<b>Cronbach's alpha of culture scale if corresponding statement is deleted</b>
<b>Statement 1b</b>	34.84	21.64	4.65	0.24	0.40
<b>Statement 2b</b>	34.64	21.87	4.68	0.23	0.41
<b>Statement 3b</b>	34.67	22.80	4.78	0.12	0.44
<b>Statement 4b</b>	34.30	21.73	4.66	0.28	0.39
<b>Statement 5b</b>	34.59	23.15	4.81	0.12	0.44
<b>Statement 6b</b>	34.71	22.27	4.72	0.16	0.43
<b>Statement 7b</b>	35.26	22.53	4.75	0.16	0.42
<b>Statement 8b</b>	35.61	23.79	4.88	0.06	0.45
<b>Statement 9b</b>	34.84	23.67	4.87	0.09	0.44
<b>Statement 10b</b>	35.23	23.27	4.82	0.13	0.43
<b>Statement 11b</b>	35.22	23.70	4.87	0.10	0.44
<b>Statement 12b</b>	35.40	24.85	4.98	-0.06	0.48
<b>Statement 13b</b>	35.15	23.17	4.81	0.12	0.43
<b>Statement 14b</b>	34.41	20.89	4.57	0.32	0.38
<b>Statement 15b</b>	34.89	22.65	4.76	0.13	0.43

All figures rounded off to two decimal places

All of the organisational culture scales, attached as APPENDIX C, are internally consistent, where the deletion of an item of the scale will not drastically alter the scale's Cronbach's alpha coefficient result. This serves as an example to indicate that even though the Cronbach's alpha ratings for the existing role culture, the existing achievement culture, and the preferred role culture is regarded as being poor, the item-total correlation, as shown in Table 5.3, illustrates that the research instrument used in this research are regarded as being internally consistent, enhancing the reliability of this research. Table 5.2 indicates that this particular instrument (Section B of the questionnaire) is a reliable measure for organisational culture. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient

scores per organisational culture scale as indicated in Table 5.2 show that the organisational culture research instrument can be accepted as reliable.

#### **5.4.2 Cronbach's alpha coefficient scores for the organisational commitment questionnaire**

Cronbach's alpha coefficient was also calculated to estimate the reliability of Section C of the questionnaire used in this research (APPENDIX A). Section C of this questionnaire is based on Allen and Meyer's (1990) commitment questionnaire. A summary of the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the three organisational commitment scales are illustrated in Table 5.4.

**Table 5.4: Cronbach's alpha coefficient scores for the commitment scales**

<b>Commitment scales</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients</b>	<b>Cronbach's alpha Rating</b>
<b>Affective commitment</b>	21.98	6.10	0.75	Good
<b>Continuance commitment</b>	22.84	5.70	0.70	Good
<b>Normative commitment</b>	22.91	3.92	0.30	Poor

All figures rounded off to two decimal places

Table 5.4 shows that the affective commitment scale and the continuance commitment scale both are reliable scales, with Cronbach's alpha coefficients of 0.75 and 0.70, respectively. These Cronbach's alpha coefficients can be regarded as being good. On the other hand, the normative commitment scale was found to be of poor reliability, with a score of 0.30. This means that the normative commitment scale does not yield consistent results.

Allen and Meyer (1990: 6) tested the reliability of the three organisational commitment scales in terms of Cronbach's alpha coefficient. The results of this research, as well as Allen and Meyer's (1990: 6) results, found that the reliability for the affective commitment scale was the highest, with scores of 0.75 and 0.87 respectively. The continuance commitment scale in this research received a

reliability score of 0.70, and the scale received a score of 0.75 in the Allen and Meyer (1990: 6) results. These comparisons show consistency between the reliability of the scales, with this research supporting the findings of Allen and Meyer (1990: 6). However, there is inconsistency with regards to the normative commitment scale, which had a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.79 for the Allen and Meyer (1990: 6) test, and a Cronbach's alpha score of 0.30 for this current research. These results are therefore seen as inconsistent with the results by Allen and Meyer (1990: 6). A reason for this inconsistency could be attributed to the researcher altering the negative normative statements to positive normative statements in order to make the completion of the questionnaire easier. The alteration could therefore be seen to affect the reliability results and create inconsistency in the results.

Research conducted by Rashid *et al.* (2003: 718) also used Cronbach's alpha coefficient to test the reliability of the three organisational commitment components. Rashid *et al.* (2003: 718) found that the scores for the affective, continuance and normative commitment were 0.92, 0.93 and 0.72, respectively, which shows that there is high internal consistency. These results are inconsistent with the results from this current research, yet their normative commitment scale Cronbach's alpha result was the lowest score, which is consistent with this current research. McKinnon *et al.* (2003: 32) used Allen and Meyer's (1990) affective commitment scale, and their Cronbach's alpha coefficient was 0.78, which is supported by this research, where the affective commitment scale received a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.75.

All the item-total statistics for the organisational commitment scales that were summarised in Table 5.4 can be found in APPENDIX D. These results show that the affective and continuance commitment scales are internally consistent because none of the items on either scale, if deleted, would result in a significant change in the Cronbach's alpha coefficient score. The normative commitment scale, on the other hand, has less consistent reliability results, and is therefore illustrated in Table 5.5.

**Table 5.5: Item-total correlation and Cronbach's alpha coefficient scores for the normative commitment scale**

<b>Normative commitment</b>	<b>Mean if Deleted</b>	<b>Var. if deleted</b>	<b>StDv. if deleted</b>	<b>Itm-Totl Correl.</b>	<b>Cronbach's alpha of culture scale if corresponding statement is deleted</b>
<b>Statement 3</b>	19.26	14.24	3.77	-0.02	0.35
<b>Statement 6</b>	19.01	12.34	3.51	0.16	0.25
<b>Statement 9</b>	19.95	13.96	3.74	-0.05	0.39
<b>Statement 12</b>	19.40	11.06	3.33	0.28	0.16
<b>Statement 15</b>	20.25	11.12	3.33	0.24	0.19
<b>Statement 17</b>	19.60	12.74	3.57	0.11	0.28
<b>Statement 21</b>	19.97	12.22	3.50	0.19	0.23

All figures rounded off to two decimal places

Statements C 12 and C 15 would have a large effect on the Cronbach's alpha coefficient score of the normative commitment scale if they were deleted. The current Cronbach's alpha coefficient score for the normative commitment scale is 0.30, but if statements C12 or C 15 were to be deleted, then the Cronbach's alpha coefficient would decrease to 0.16 and 0.19, respectively. It can therefore be seen that the normative commitment scale has low internal consistency because as seen in the last column of Table 5.5, the Cronbach's alpha scores range between 0.16 and 0.39.

The results from Table 5.4 indicate that the Section C measuring instrument used in this research is overall a reliable measure for organisational commitment, despite the normative commitment scale having low internal consistency.

## 5.5 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

This section identifies the profile of the organisational cultures within the selected municipality, as well as ascertaining whether there is a gap between the existing and preferred organisational cultures within the selected municipality.



### 5.5.1 The organisational culture profile

The purpose of this section is to achieve the first objective of this research as stated in Section 1.2, Chapter 1, namely to identify the profile of the existing and preferred organisational cultures within the selected municipality. The organisational culture profile was identified using descriptive statistics, by calculating the mean scores of each organisational culture scale (power, role, achievement and support culture scales) as shown in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6 indicates that the dominant existing culture, which is defined as the scale that has the highest overall mean across respondents, is the power organisational culture which has a mean score of 40.45. This score indicates that the majority of employees of the selected municipality identify the power culture as the dominant existing organisational culture within the selected municipality.

**Table 5.6: Mean scores of the existing and preferred organisational culture scales across all respondents**

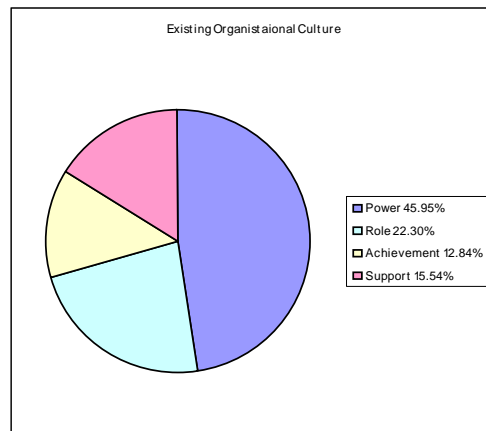
<b>Organisational Culture Scales</b>	<b>Mean</b>
<b>Existing power culture</b>	40.45
<b>Existing role culture</b>	39.51
<b>Existing achievement culture</b>	35.97
<b>Existing support culture</b>	34.04
<b>Preferred power culture</b>	30.89
<b>Preferred role culture</b>	37.41
<b>Preferred achievement culture</b>	40.83
<b>Preferred support culture</b>	40.86

All figures rounded off to two decimal places

Figure 5.6 graphically illustrates the percentage ratings of the existing organisational cultures at the selected municipality. These percentages indicate that for each response per respondent the dominant scale was identified as the scale with the highest score. The percentage ratings concur with the results depicted by the mean scores, with 45.95% of employees indicating that the

existing power culture is the dominant existing organisational culture within the selected municipality.

**Figure 5.6: Existing organisational culture profile**



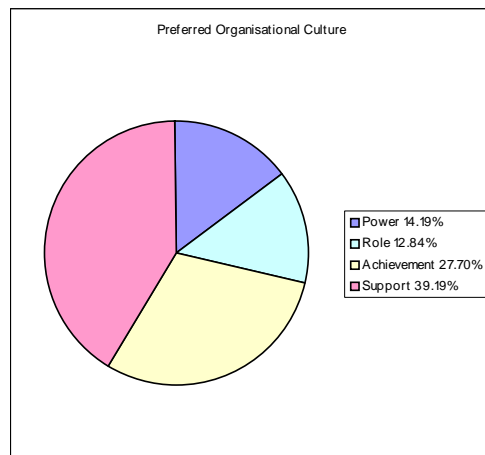
Employees of the selected local municipality have identified that the municipality has a single source of authority who attempts to control employee behaviour, and where all the important decisions regarding the municipality are made (Martin, 2005: 493). The success of the municipality therefore depends largely on that person in power, and employees are required to report to their supervisors when problems occur. One of the greatest strengths of the power culture is the ability of the organisation to react quickly to change, because there is only one source of power who deals with the change. A major disadvantage of this culture type is that employees do not question their leaders even when they appear to be wrong, and employees are also not inclined to give bad news to their supervisors or leaders due to the consequences that might follow (Harrison, 1993: 32). The results of this research identify, in Table 5.6, that the second strongest existing organisational culture is the role culture with a mean of 39.51.

The finding of this research indicate that the municipality has a predominantly power culture which contradicts Hellriegel *et al.*'s (2004: 366) theory that local municipalities have a bureaucratic culture, which can hinder their effectiveness and efficiency. The role culture, which is the second strongest culture, is also

referred to as a bureaucratic culture type, which supports Hellriegel *et al.* (2004: 366).

Figure 5.7 illustrates the percentage ratings pertaining to the preferred organisational culture at the selected municipality. Table 5.6 and Figure 5.7 illustrate that the dominant preferred culture is the support culture, with a mean score of 40.86 and a percentage score of 39.19%. These scores indicate that employees at the selected municipality would prefer to have a support culture within the municipality as opposed to a power culture. The support culture is based on mutual trust and cooperation between the employee and the selected municipality (Harrison, 1993: 37; Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 20). Employees of this municipality would like to be valued as human beings, not just as contributors to a task (Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 20). The second most dominant preferred organisational culture is the achievement organisational culture, which has a mean score of 40.83 and a percentage score of 27.70%.

**Figure 5.7: Preferred organisational culture profile**



If the municipality had a support culture, the advantages would be high employee motivation and enthusiasm, as well as the camaraderie of the employees, which has a positive affect on productivity, absenteeism and work quality and therefore the service delivery at the selected municipality would

increase in effectiveness and efficiency (Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 22). Employees would also support one another in their work, and they would go out of their way to help others and cooperate within the municipality.

Some disadvantages of the organisation having a support organisational culture would be that employees may sometimes focus too much on their relationships with others, that they may neglect getting the work done (Harrison, 1993: 38). It is also a possibility that if consensus regarding an issue is not achieved, the group may become indecisive and lose direction with regards to the task at hand. As opposed to the power organisational culture, changes within the municipality, if it had a support culture, may take a long time to implement because of the need to get all employees on board with the change that is taking place (Harrison, 1993: 38).

### **5.5.2 The gap between the existing and preferred organisational culture**

This section gives effect to the second research objective, namely to ascertain the gap between the existing and preferred organisational cultures within the selected municipality, as stated in Section 1.2, Chapter 1. In order to test the first set of hypotheses, two inferential statistical analyses were done, namely the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and the Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA). The first set of hypotheses is:

$H_{o 1.1}$ : The average gap scores between the existing organisational culture scales and the preferred organisational culture scales are not significantly different.

$H_{a 1.1}$ : The average gap scores between the existing organisational culture scales and the preferred organisational culture scales have significant differences.

In order to statistically assess whether there is a significant gap between the existing and preferred organisational culture scales, a one way repeated measure

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted based on the gap scores (the difference between scores for each existing and preferred scale, namely power, role, achievement and support culture) for each of the four scales.

Before a one way repeated measure ANOVA analysis could be conducted, certain assumptions pertaining to the method used to test the first hypothesis had to be checked (StatSoft, 2007). The two assumptions are the sphericity assumption and the compound symmetry assumption. The sphericity assumption states that the within-subject hypotheses consist of independent components (StatSoft, 2007). The compound symmetry assumption requires that the variances (pooled within-group and across subjects) of the different repeated measures are identical (StatSoft, 2007). Simply stated, these assumptions refer to the effects of the experimental conditions being consistent among the respondents. More specifically, the assumptions test whether the variances of the different scores in a within-subjects design are equal across all the groups and the pairs of correlations across all groups are also equal. The compound symmetry assumption is not an essential condition to hold, yet it is important that the sphericity assumption is held. Therefore, the sphericity assumption is tested in order to determine whether the one way repeated measure ANOVA analysis should be conducted.

Mauchley's Test of Sphericity was conducted in order to determine whether the sphericity assumption is held. The null hypothesis, namely that the variances are consistent among respondents, is rejected because there is a large Chi-Square (198.37) yet a low p-value ( $p < 0.05$ ) as shown in Table 5.7. It can hence be concluded that the sphericity assumption is not met (Wuensch, 2007).

**Table 5.7: Mauchley's Test of Sphericity**

	<b>W</b>	<b>Chi-Sqr.</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>p</b>
<b>Organisational culture scales</b>	0.26	198.37	5	0.00

All figures rounded off to two decimal places

The sphericity assumption and compound symmetry assumption rarely hold and hence the MANOVA approach to repeated measures ANOVA is often utilised since it does not require the sphericity assumption (StatSoft, 2007). Table 5.7 is an example of the sphericity assumption not being held, therefore, the MANOVA approach will be used to test whether or not there is an organisational culture gap between the existing and preferred organisational culture scales.

#### 5.5.2.1 Testing the first set of hypotheses

The results of the MANOVA Test are given in Table 5.8.

**Table 5.8: Multivariate tests for repeated measure**

	Test	Value	F	Effect df	Error df	p
<b>Organisational culture scales</b>	Wilks	0.61	31.24	3	145	0.00

All figures rounded off to two decimal places

The Wilks' Lambda Effect Test shows that there is a significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) within subjects effect, which means that there are significant differences in the average gap scores for some of the organizational culture scales (StatSoft, 2007).

Table 5.8 indicates that there are significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ) in the average gap scores for the existing and preferred organisational cultures, namely the power, role, achievement and support cultures, which indicate that there is an organisational culture gap between the existing and preferred organisational culture within the selected municipality. This indicates that  $H_{a 1,1}$  is not rejected.

Rowe *et al.* (1994: 91) state that there is often a gap between the existing and preferred organisational culture within an organisation. The finding of this research concurs with Rowe *et al.*'s (1994: 91) statement due to the fact that this research has statistically found that there is a gap between the municipality's existing and preferred organisational culture. Bourantas and Papalexandris (1992: 5) also explain that culture gaps are present within organisations, which is supported by the findings of this current research. Nazir (2005: 41) states that

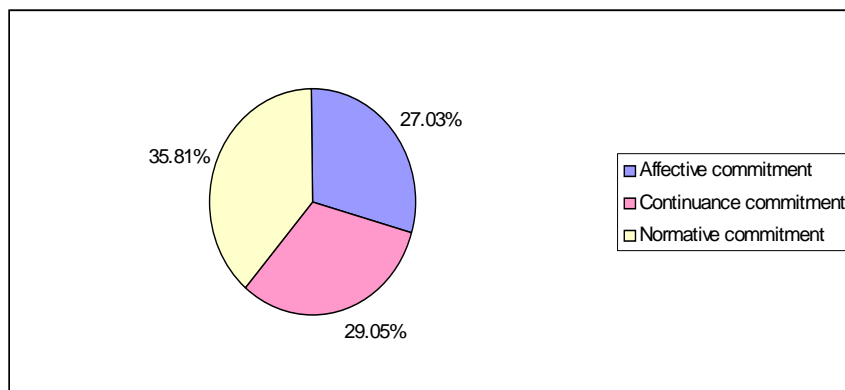
there has only been limited research with regards to the existence of an organisational culture gap. This current research therefore contributes to the body of knowledge about organisational culture and supports previous research conducted (Bourantas and Papalexandris, 1992; Nazir, 2005; and Rowe *et al.*, 1994) with regards to the organisational culture gap.

## 5.6 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

### 5.6.1 The organisational commitment profile

To achieve the third objective as stated in Section 1.2, Chapter 1, namely to identify the profile of the organisational commitment within the selected municipality, the organisational commitment profile was identified using descriptive statistics, by calculating the mean scores of each scale as shown in Figure 5.8.

**Figure 5.8: Organisational commitment profile**



From Figure 5.8 it is evident that the majority of respondents, 35.81%, have a normative commitment to the municipality. This implies that they feel obliged to continue working for the selected municipality.

Figure 5.8 identifies that 29.05% of respondents have a continuance commitment to the municipality, where they continue to work for the municipality because the

costs that are associated with leaving are too high. Finally, 27.03% of respondents have an affective commitment to the municipality, where they continue to work because of the emotional attachment they feel for the municipality. The type of commitment felt by employees could be due to the municipality being situated in a rural area with few alternative job opportunities.

The findings of Rashid *et al.* (2003) are in contrast to the findings of this research in terms of the dominant commitment within the organisation. A reason for this contrast could be because Rashid *et al.* (2003) conducted research within a different context to this research, research was of Malaysian companies. Rashid *et al.* (2003) identified that the dominant organisational commitment is the continuance commitment, followed by the affective commitment, and finally the normative commitment.

## 5.7 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

The relationship between the organisational culture and organisational commitment will be discussed in this section. In order to give effect to the fourth objective and to test the second set of hypotheses as stated in Section 1.2, Chapter 1, this section assesses the statistically significant linear relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment.

### **5.7.1 Testing the second set of hypotheses**

The existence of a linear relationship between the existing and preferred organisational culture scales (the power, role, achievement and support organisational cultural scales) and the organisational commitment scales (the affective, continuance and normative commitment scales) was investigated in order to assess whether there is a statistically significant linear relationship between them at the selected municipality.



The above mentioned linear relationship was assessed using Pearson's correlation coefficient ( $r$ ). This was done in order to indicate the strength and direction of the linear relationship between the organisational culture and organisational commitment scales. The strength of the linear relationship's significance is indicated by the  $p$ -value and a negative relationship is indicated by a  $-$  sign in front of the correlation coefficient. Table 5.9 provides the Pearson's correlation coefficients between the relevant scales. Note that all significant linear relationships where  $p < 0.05$  are marked with an asterisk (\*). In terms of the Pearson's correlation coefficient, relationships are regarded as being significant when  $-0.15 \geq r \geq 0.15$ .

Each of the stated hypotheses will subsequently be discussed.

*5.7.1.1 Hypothesis 2.1: The relationship between the existing organisational culture and organisational commitment*

$H_{o2.1}$ : There is no statistically significant linear relationship between the existing organisational culture and organisational commitment.

$H_{a2.1}$ : There is a statistically significant linear relationship between the existing organisational culture and organisational commitment.

The Pearson's correlation matrix, as shown in Table 5.9, will be interpreted by analysing the relationship between the organisational culture scales (shown in columns 1-8) and the organisational commitment scales (shown in rows 9-11).

Table 5.9 indicates the linear relationships between the existing organisational culture scales and the organisational commitment scales. From Table 5.9 it can be seen that the linear relationships between the existing power culture scale (column 1 EP) and the affective organisational commitment scale ( $r = -0.06$ ), the continuance organisational commitment scale ( $r = -0.04$ ) and the normative organisational commitment scale ( $r = -0.14$ ) are negative.

**Table 5.9: Pearson's correlation matrix: Between the organisational culture and organisational commitment scales**

Variable	EP (1)	ER (2)	EA (3)	ES (4)	PP (5)	PR (6)	PA (7)	PS (8)	AC (9)	CC(10)	NC(11)
<b>(EP) Existing Power</b> (1)	1.00										
<b>(ER) Existing Role</b> (2)	-0.06	1.00									
<b>(EA) Existing Achievement</b> (3)	-0.73*	-0.17*	1.00								
<b>(ES) Existing Support</b> (4)	-0.68*	-0.54*	0.33*	1.00							
<b>(PP) Preferred Power</b> (5)	-0.05	-0.23*	0.06	0.19*	1.00						
<b>(PR) Preferred Role</b> (6)	-0.05	0.37*	0.04	-0.23*	-0.04	1.00					
<b>(PA) Preferred Achievement</b> (7)	0.14	0.39*	-0.10	-0.39*	-0.76*	0.05	1.00				
<b>(PS) Preferred Support</b> (8)	-0.00	-0.24*	-0.03	0.20*	-0.60*	-0.64*	0.16	1.00			
<b>(AC) Affective Commitment</b> (9)	-0.06	-0.25*	0.05	0.21*	0.06	-0.19*	-0.03	0.08	1.00		
<b>(CC) Continuance Commitment</b> (10)	-0.04	-0.12	0.01	0.13	0.12	-0.14	-0.08	0.01	0.61*	1.00	
<b>(NC) Normative Commitment</b> (11)	-0.14	-0.19*	0.14	0.22*	-0.01	-0.13	-0.06	0.13	0.44*	0.46*	1.00

\* =  $p < 0.05$ 

All figures rounded off to two decimal places

The same negative linear relationships can be seen with the relationship between the existing role culture (column 2 ER) and the affective organisational commitment scale ( $r = -0.25$ ), the continuance organisational commitment scale ( $r = -0.12$ ) and the normative organisational commitment scale ( $r = -0.19$ ). This result shows that in the event of the existing power and role organisational cultures increasing at the municipality, employee commitment will decrease. The decrease in employee commitment is likely to result in a decrease in the service delivery by the selected municipality.

As indicated in Table 5.9, there are, however, no significant relationships between the dominant existing power organisational culture and the three organisational commitment types at the selected municipality because the  $r$ -values fall outside the stated significance levels, where  $-0.15 \geq r \geq 0.15$  indicates a significant relationship. The lack of significant linear relationships indicates that because there is a power culture at the selected municipality the organisational commitment of employees will decrease, but not significantly. The normative commitment of employees, which is the dominant organisational commitment experienced by employees, will decrease most ( $r = -0.14$ ) if the power culture remains the dominant organisational culture within the selected municipality.

It has also been found that there are no significant linear relationships between the continuance organisational commitment scale and the existing organisational culture scales. All the linear relationship scores do not fall where  $-0.15 \geq r \geq 0.15$ , which identifies significant linear relationships, thereby indicating that the continuance commitment of employees is not affected by the existing organisational commitment at the selected municipality. On the other hand, the affective ( $r = -0.25$ ) and normative ( $r = -0.19$ ) organisational commitments have significant negative linear relationships (where  $p < 0.05$ ) with the existing role organisational culture. As illustrated in Figure 5.6, the role organisational culture (22.30%) is the second dominant existing organisational culture. This implies that the affective and normative organisational commitment of employees will

significantly decrease if the role culture continues to remain the second dominant culture within the municipality.

Table 5.9 also shows that there is a positive linear relationship between the existing achievement organisational culture and the affective organisational commitment ( $r = 0.05$ ), the continuance organisational commitment ( $r = 0.01$ ) and the normative organisational commitment ( $r = 0.14$ ). This result indicates that if the organisational culture was an achievement culture then the organisational commitment of employees would increase, which would have a positive effect on the service delivery of the selected municipality.

It is found that the existing support culture has a significant positive linear relationship ( $p < 0.05$ ) with affective organisational commitment ( $r = 0.21$ ) and normative organisational commitment ( $r = 0.22$ ). This result indicates that if a support culture increase within the municipality, the affective and normative organisational commitments of employees would significantly increase hence increasing the service delivery within the selected municipality.

To summarise, there were four significant linear relationships between the existing organisational culture and organisational commitment. There were two negative linear relationships between the existing role organisational culture and the affective ( $r = -0.25$ ) and normative ( $r = -0.19$ ) organisational commitment. There were also two positive linear relationships between the existing support organisational culture and the affective ( $r = 0.21$ ) and normative ( $r = 0.22$ ) organisational commitments. The alternative hypothesis,  $H_{a 2.1}$  is therefore not rejected. This indicates that there is a statistically significant linear relationship between the existing organisational culture and organisational commitment. These findings support the findings of previous research (Brewer, 1993 in Chen, 2004: 433; Hellreigel *et al.*, 2004: 364; Odom *et al.*, 1990: 163; Rashid *et al.*, 2003: 716). Brewer (1993, in Chen, 2004: 433) discovered that organisations that have a bureaucratic culture type such as the role culture, have a negative linear relationship with organisational commitment. Brewer (1993, in Chen, 2004: 433)

also found that organisations that have a support culture often have a positive linear relationship with organisational culture, so when the support culture increases, so does the commitment of employees to their organisation. Both of Brewer's findings are supported by the findings of this research. Odom *et al.* (1990: 162) received similar results to Brewer, and they found that if an organisation removes barriers that have been erected as a result of it having a bureaucratic culture, a stronger organisational commitment by employees could be created. As mentioned above, Odom *et al.* (1990: 162) also found that there was a greater degree of organisational commitment among employees in organisations that had a supportive culture. Lok *et al.* (2005: 508) stated that organisations that have a supportive culture have stronger linear relationships with the organisational commitment of employees. The results by Odom *et al.* (1990: 162) and Lok *et al.* (2005: 508) are therefore also supported by the findings of this current research.

*5.7.1.2 Hypothesis 2.2: The relationship between the preferred organisational culture and organisational commitment.*

H<sub>0 2.2</sub>: There is no statistically significant linear relationship between the preferred organisational culture and organisational commitment.

H<sub>a 2.2</sub>: There is a statistically significant linear relationship between the preferred organisational culture and organisational commitment.

Table 5.9 indicates that there is only one statistically significant linear relationship between the preferred organisational culture scales and the organisational commitment scales. This linear relationship exists between the preferred role organisational culture and the affective organisational commitment, with a negative linear relationship where  $r = -0.19$ . The negative linear relationship indicates that if the role organisational culture were to continue as one of the dominant existing organisational cultures within the selected municipality, then the affective organisational commitment of employees would decrease. There are positive, though insignificant, linear relationships between the preferred support

organisational culture and the affective ( $r = 0.08$ ), the continuance ( $r = 0.01$ ) and normative ( $r = 0.13$ ) organisational commitment components, which indicates that if the support culture were to increase within the selected municipality, so would the affective, continuance and normative commitment of employees. In other words, if the organisational culture within the selected municipality changed to a more support culture, then employee commitment would increase. The normative organisational commitment would increase the most, with a positive linear relationship score where  $r = 0.13$ , which indicates that employees would feel an increased normative attachment to the municipality if the culture was support-orientated.

Even though there is a significant linear relationship between the preferred role organisational culture and the affective organisational commitment,  $H_{a 2.2}$  is rejected, with the exception of the previously mentioned significant linear relationship.

Rashid *et al.* (2003: 724) state that if the organisational culture and organisational commitment are correctly matched, it is beneficial to the performance of the municipality and therefore to its service delivery. Clugston *et al.* (2000: 6) and Rowe *et al.* (1994: 477) also found that the fit between the existing organisational culture and employee preferences for organisational culture increases the organisational commitment of employees. McKinnon *et al.* (2003: 40) in addition suggest that organisational culture, if modified towards the preferred organisational culture, can take advantage of increased organisational commitment on the part of the employees. The results of this current research support the previous research findings mentioned above, yet all the linear relationships are insignificant with the exception of the one significant linear relationship and therefore do not have a significantly large effect on the organisational commitment of the employees at the selected municipality, regardless of the type of organisational commitment of employees.

Greenberg and Baron (2003: 516) and Schein (1992: 3) indicate that an organisational culture can either enhance employee commitment or hinder the organisation's effectiveness and efficiency. These findings are supported by this current research because the results show that if the municipality were to alter the existing organisational culture to a more support-orientated culture, then employee commitment, especially normative commitment, would increase, but insignificantly.

*5.7.1.3 Hypothesis 2.3: The relationship between the organisational culture gap and the organisational commitment*

This set of hypotheses is regarding whether there is a statistically significant linear relationship between the organisational culture gap and the organisational commitment.

$H_{o\ 2.3}$ : There is no statistically significant linear relationship between the organisational culture gap (difference between existing and preferred organisational culture) and organisational commitment.

$H_{a\ 2.3}$ : There is a statistically significant linear relationship between the organisational culture gap (difference between existing and preferred organisational culture) and organisational commitment.

Table 5.10 illustrates the Pearson's correlation coefficients between the organisational culture gaps and organisational commitment. As is shown, there are no significant linear relationships between the organisational culture gap scales and the organisational commitment scales. This indicates that the presence of an organisational culture gap has no impact on the organisational commitment of employees within the selected municipality.  $H_{a2.3}$  is therefore rejected.

**Table 5.10: Pearson's correlations between the organisational culture gaps and organisational commitment scales**

	<b>Affective Commitment</b>	<b>Continuance Commitment</b>	<b>Normative Commitment</b>
<b>Gap Power</b>	-0.08	-0.11	-0.09
<b>Gap Role</b>	-0.05	0.02	-0.06
<b>Gap Achievement</b>	0.05	0.06	0.13
<b>Gap Support</b>	0.09	0.09	0.06

\* =  $p < 0.05$

All figures rounded off to two decimal places

Nazir (2005: 41) and O'Reilly *et al.* (1991: 493) state that although research determining the organisational gap and its influence on organisational commitment has been conducted, empirical research is still limited. Bourantas and Papalexandris (1992: 6) conducted research which identified that the organisational culture gap has a negative effect on organisational commitment. These results are not supported by the findings of this current research.

O'Reilly *et al.* (1991: 512) found an association between the fit of organisational culture with employees' preferences for organisational culture and organisational commitment. Table 5.10 illustrates that there are no significant relationships between the existence of an organisational culture gap and the organisational commitment of employees within the selected municipality. The findings of this current research therefore do not support the findings of O'Reilly *et al.* (1991).

The final hypotheses to be tested are those in the third set of hypotheses, pertaining to the biographical variables. This third set will be discussed in the next in section.



## 5.8 THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES AND THE EXISTING AND PREFERRED ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE, ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND THE ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE GAP

This section gives effect to the final objective of this research, namely to identify the relationship between the biographical variables and the organisational cultures, organisational commitment, and the organisational culture gap. The relationships between the biographical variables and the average of the existing organisational cultures, the average of the preferred organisational cultures, the organisational culture gap and the organisational commitments were assessed through the use of a double multivariate repeated measures (MANOVA) design in order to test whether there were significant differences in the average scores. The organisational culture gap scores were used as the within-subjects factor with the selected biographical variable. The existing and preferred organisational cultures as well as the organisational commitment were assessed with regards to the biographical variables by using Pearson's chi-square test in order to test whether there were significant linear relationships between the variables. The results of the tests will be used to assess whether or not the stated alternate hypotheses ( $H_a$ ) are not rejected or rejected.

### **5.8.1 Testing of the third set of hypotheses**

*5.8.1.1 Hypothesis 3.1: The relationship between the biographical variables and the existing organisational culture*

$H_{o\ 3.1}$ : There is no statistically significant relationship between the biographical variables and the existing organisational culture.

$H_{a\ 3.1}$ : There is a statistically significant relationship between the biographical variables and the existing organisational culture.

The biographical variable items were used in order to determine whether they had an effect on respondents' perceptions regarding the existing organisational

culture. The significance of the relationships between each of the biographical variables and the existing organisational culture was assessed using the Pearson's chi-square test. Table 5.11 summarises the results of the Pearson's chi-square test and the associated p-values for each of the biographical variables.

**Table 5.11: Pearson's chi-square test: Existing organisational culture scales and biographical variables**

<b>Biographical variables</b>	<b>Pearson's chi-square</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>p-value</b>
<b>Age</b>	10.31	9	0.33
<b>Department</b>	7.54	15	0.94
<b>Disability</b>	3.97	3	0.26
<b>Education</b>	9.11	12	0.69
<b>Field/Office worker</b>	1.11	3	0.78
<b>Gender</b>	1.13	3	0.77
<b>Post level</b>	8.81	15	0.89
<b>Service</b>	12.41	12	0.41
<b>Supervise</b>	11.34	9	0.25
<b>Town</b>	4.66	3	0.20

\* =  $p < 0.05$

All figures rounded off to two decimal places

Table 5.11 indicates that there are no statistically significant relationships between any of the biographical variables and respondents' perception regarding the existing organisational culture, which therefore indicate that there is insufficient evidence to not reject  $H_{a\ 3.1}$ , which means that  $H_{a\ 3.1}$  is rejected.

APPENDIX E includes the frequency tables regarding Pearson's chi-square test and the individual biographical variables and their items. Table 5.12 illustrates one of the individual biographical variables, gender. The gender frequency table, Table 5.12, illustrates that the male and female responses have been tabulated against the existing organisational cultures to show the distribution of results.

**Table 5.12: Cross tabulation table: Gender and existing organisational culture scales**

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Existing Power culture</b>	<b>Existing Role culture</b>	<b>Existing Achievement culture</b>	<b>Existing Support culture</b>	<b>Row Totals</b>
<b>Male</b>	36	21	10	13	80
<b>Female</b>	32	12	9	10	63
<b>All Grps</b>	68	33	19	23	143

Table 5.12 has a Pearson chi-square of 1.13, degrees of freedom of 3, and a p-value=0.77. Due to the fact that the p-value is greater than 0.05, the relationships between the gender of respondents and their perception of the existing organisational culture is not significant. The perception of the existing organisational culture is therefore not significantly affected by the gender of employees of the selected municipality.

*5.8.1.2 Hypothesis 3.2: The relationship between the biographical variables and the preferred organisational culture*

The next hypothesis tests the effect of the biographical variables on employee preferences relating to the preferred organisational culture.

$H_{o\ 3.2}$ : There is no statistically significant relationship between the biographical variables and the preferred organisational culture.

$H_{a\ 3.2}$ : There is a statistically significant relationship between the biographical variables and the preferred organisational culture.

Table 5.13 illustrates the strength of the relationships between the biographical variables and their effect on respondents' perceptions regarding their preferred organisational culture.

**Table 5.13: Pearson's chi-square test: Preferred organisational culture scales and biographical variables**

<b>Biographical variables</b>	<b>Pearson's chi-square</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>p-value</b>
<b>Age</b>	16.71	9	0.05
<b>Department</b>	33.13	15	0.00*
<b>Disability</b>	0.86	3	0.84
<b>Education</b>	24.53	12	0.01*
<b>Field/Office worker</b>	3.60	3	0.31
<b>Gender</b>	6.93	3	0.07
<b>Post level</b>	22.37	15	0.10
<b>Service</b>	8.22	12	0.77
<b>Supervise</b>	7.44	9	0.59
<b>Town</b>	1.54	3	0.67

\* =  $p < 0.05$

All figures rounded off to two decimal places

Table 5.13 indicates that there are two significant relationships, namely between the different departments in which respondents work, as well as their education level and the respondents' perceptions of the preferred organisational culture. The p-value for the differences between the preferences of organisational culture according to the various age groups of respondents is  $p=0.05$ . With regards to Pearson's chi-square test, the acceptance level of significance is where  $p<0.05$ . Therefore the relationship between the age groups of respondents and their preferences of organisational culture is insignificant, but only just. Therefore, one could acknowledge that the age of respondents has a large, yet insignificant effect on the preferences of respondents regarding the organisational culture at the 5% level of significance.

APPENDIX F includes the frequency tables of Pearson's chi-square regarding to the difference between the various biographical variables and the preferred organisational culture. The two significant relationships as shown in Table 5.13 will be further discussed. Table 5.14 identifies the frequencies of respondent preferences according to the department in which the respondent is employed. With reference to Table 5.14, the Pearson's chi-square is 33.13, the degrees of

freedom is 15, and the p-value is 0.00, as shown in Table 5.13, which is therefore a significant relationship ( $p < 0.05$ ).

**Table 5.14: Mean scores: Department and the preferred organisational culture scales**

<b>Department</b>	<b>Preferred Power Means</b>	<b>Preferred Role Means</b>	<b>Preferred Achievement Means</b>	<b>Preferred Support Means</b>
<b>Corporate Department</b>	33.76	36.82	40.65	38.76
<b>Financial Department</b>	29.59	40.64	41.32	38.45
<b>Protection Services Department</b>	25.50	41.83	40.67	42.00
<b>Local Economic Development Department</b>	29.50	36.50	40.90	43.10
<b>Community Services Department</b>	28.48	37.08	41.68	42.78
<b>Technical Services Department</b>	33.21	36.19	40.06	40.55
<b>All Grps</b>	30.89	37.41	40.83	40.86

All figures rounded off to two decimal places

Table 5.14 shows the mean scores that were calculated pertaining to the preferred organisational cultures and the departments within the municipality. The means were calculated to achieve an average rating pertaining to the preferred organisational cultures per department in order to give recommendations to the municipality according to culture preferences per department. An important finding, as shown in Table 5.14, indicates that employees involved with the service delivery aspect of the municipality, namely the Protection Services Department (42.00), Local Economic Development Department (43.10), Community Services Department (42.78), and Technical Services Department (40.55), have identified that they prefer the support culture. However, the support services departments, namely the Corporate (40.65) and Financial (41.32) Services Departments, indicated that they prefer an achievement organisational culture.

A reason for this could be a result of the service delivery departments interacting more with the community than the support services departments. The service delivery departments deal with customer issues and complaints and therefore would prefer to obtain assistance and support from colleagues regarding their work. These respondents would prefer to have a culture that is based on mutual trust and cooperation between the employee and the selected municipality (Harrison, 1993: 37; Harrison and Stokes, 1992: 20). The preference of respondents also indicates that they want to be valued as human beings, not just as contributors to a task (Harrison, 1993: 37).

Table 5.14 illustrates that the support services departments who deal with administration work and who have limited customer contact, namely the Corporate and Financial Departments, prefer an achievement culture. This could be because an achievement culture focuses on the creation of goals that are demanding, where the culture is one of intense competition. There might be a competitive spirit because top management, who work within these departments, have a 5 year contract, as previously mentioned; therefore management may want to achieve these demanding goals so that they renew their contracts once the 5 year period is over.

Table 5.15 demonstrates the frequency distributions between the education level and the preferred organisational culture within the selected municipality. The Pearson chi-square for Table 5.15 is 24.53, the degrees of freedom is 12, and the p-value=0.02 ( $p < 0.05$ ), as shown in Table 5.13. The p-value indicates that there is a statistical relationship between the education level of respondents and their preference regarding the organisational culture within the municipality.

Table 5.15 shows that respondents with an education level of lower than grade 11, grade 12, or a diploma or certificate prefer the support organisational culture, whereas the employees who have a bachelor's or post graduate degree prefer the achievement organisational culture.

**Table 5.15: Cross tabulation table: Education level and the preferred organisational culture scales**

Education	Preferred Power culture	Preferred Role culture	Preferred Achievement culture	Preferred Support culture	Row Totals
< Grade 11	10	3	21	24	58
Grade 12	7	6	3	14	30
Diploma/Cert	3	9	11	20	43
B-Degree	1	1	4	0	6
PostGrad-Degree	0	0	2	0	2
All Grps	21	19	41	58	139

A reason for these results could be attributed to the needs of individuals. Respondents with lower education levels indicated that they prefer the support organisational culture. These employees may have “lower order needs” that they need to satisfy, such as safety with regards to their job (Watson, 2002: 292). Respondents have indicated in Table 5.14 that they prefer to work together as a team and get support from colleagues. This increases the likelihood of a task being correctly performed, and also decreases individual fault.

Respondents with higher education levels have indicated, shown in Table 5.14, that they prefer an achievement organisational culture. These employees may have “higher order needs” that they have to satisfy, such as self-actualisation (Watson, 2002: 292). Respondents have indicated that they want to become everything they can be through individual achievement of demanding goals that have been set.

Table 5.13 illustrates that there are significant relationships between the biographical variables, more specifically the department and education biographical variables, and employee preferences of organisational culture.  $H_{a\ 3.2}$  is therefore not rejected.

*5.8.1.3 Hypothesis 3.3: The relationship between the biographical variables and organisational commitment*

H<sub>o 3.3</sub>: There is no statistically significant relationship between the biographical variables and the organisational commitment.

H<sub>a 3.3</sub>: There is a statistically significant relationship between the biographical variables and the organisational commitment.

The differences in relationships between the biographical variables and employee commitment are summarised in Table 5.16. As can be seen in Table 5.16, there are four significant relationships between the biographical variables and the organisational commitment.

**Table 5.16: Pearson’s chi-square test: Organisational commitment scales and biographical variables**

<b>Biographical variables</b>	<b>Pearson’s chi-square</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>p-value</b>
<b>Age</b>	7.60	6	0.27
<b>Department</b>	13.51	10	0.20
<b>Disability</b>	3.58	2	0.17
<b>Education</b>	18.94	8	0.02*
<b>Field/Office worker</b>	10.01	2	0.01*
<b>Gender</b>	6.57	2	0.04*
<b>Post level</b>	19.37	10	0.04*
<b>Service</b>	8.90	8	0.35
<b>Supervise</b>	5.35	6	0.50
<b>Town</b>	1.40	2	0.50

\* = p < 0.05

All figures rounded off to two decimal places

The results of Pearson’s chi-square test indicate that at a 5% level of significance, the four significant relationships are education level, whether the respondent works in the field or in an office, the gender of the respondent, and the respondents’ post level. APPENDIX G includes all the frequency tables pertaining to the respondent’s biographical variables and the organisational



commitment types. For the purpose of concision, only the education level and the gender of respondents will be discussed in this section with regards to their individual frequency tables.

Table 5.17 illustrates the frequency count according to the education level and organisational commitment of the respondents.

**Table 5.17: Cross tabulation table: Education level and organisational commitment scales**

Education Level	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment	Row Totals
< Grade 11	24	18	14	56
Grade 12	9	13	11	33
Diploma/Cert	4	11	24	39
B-Degree	2	1	3	6
PostGrad-Degree	1	0	1	2
All Grps	40	43	53	136

With reference to Table 5.17, the p-value was significant at  $p=0.02$ , as shown in Table 5.16. This indicates that the education level of respondents has a significant effect on the organisational commitment of employees. The majority of respondents who have an education level of lower than grade 11 (24 or 43%) have an affective commitment to the municipality, whereas most respondents who have a grade 12 education level (13 or 39%) have a continuance commitment to the municipality. The majority of respondents who attained a diploma or certificate (24 or 62%), or a bachelor's degree (3 or 50%) have a normative commitment to the organisation. There were only two respondents with a post graduate degree, and the commitments felt by respondents were affective and normative.

Table 5.18 illustrates the frequency count according to the gender of the respondents. The p-value was significant at  $p=0.04$ , therefore the gender of respondents at the selected municipality has a significant effect on the organisational commitment of employees. The majority of female respondents, 31 (50.82%), at the municipality have indicated that they have more of a

normative commitment towards the organisation, whereas the majority of male respondents, 27 (36%), indicated that they have more of a continuance commitment towards the municipality.

**Table 5.18: Cross tabulation table: Gender and organisational commitment scales**

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Affective Commitment</b>	<b>Continuance Commitment</b>	<b>Normative Commitment</b>	<b>Row Totals</b>
<b>Male</b>	26	27	22	75
<b>Female</b>	14	16	31	61
<b>All Grps</b>	40	43	53	136

To summarise, there are four significant relationships between biographical variables and the organisational commitments. Therefore,  $H_{a\ 3.3}$  is not rejected and it can be surmised that respondents' education level, whether the respondent works in the field or in an office, the gender of the respondent, and the respondents' post level have an effect on the organisational commitment of an employee towards the selected municipality.

*5.8.1.4 Hypothesis 3.4: The biographical variables and the organisational culture gap score*

The final hypothesis to be tested is pertaining to the biographical variables and the different organisational culture gap scores (the difference between the existing and preferred organisational culture scores for each respondent).

$H_{o\ 3.4}$ : The average organisational culture gap scores of the organisational culture scales for the biographical variables are not significantly different.

$H_{a\ 3.4}$ : The average organisational culture gap scores of the organisational culture scales for the biographical variables are significantly different.

The average organisational culture gap scores were assessed according to the biographical variables using the multivariate Wilks' Lambda test. Table 5.19

indicates that significant differences in the mean organisational culture gap scale scores among the different levels of biographical variables were found.

**Table 5.19: Summary of multivariate tests for repeated measures:  
Biographical variables and the organisational culture gap**

SCALE	Test	Value	F	Effect df	Error df	p
Age	Wilks	0.69	21.42	3	142.00	0.00*
Department	Wilks	0.72	18.45	3	140.00	0.00*
Disability	Wilks	0.74	17.14	3	144.00	0.00*
Education	Wilks	0.76	14.87	3	141.00	0.00*
Field/Office	Wilks	0.61	30.69	3	144.00	0.00*
Gender	Wilks	0.61	30.26	3	144.00	0.00*
Post level	Wilks	0.80	11.63	3	140.00	0.00*
Service	Wilks	0.73	17.59	3	141.00	0.00*
Supervise	Wilks	0.74	17.00	3	142.00	0.00*
Town	Wilks	0.63	27.65	3	144.00	0.00*

\* =  $p < 0.05$

All figures rounded off to two decimal places

Table 5.19 illustrates that there are significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ) between the all of the biographical variables and the organisational culture gap scores. The individual biographical variable results are presented in APPENDIX H.

For the purpose of brevity, only the biological variable of age will be explained further. Table 5.19 identifies that there are significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ) in the average organisational culture gap scores among the various age groups of the respondents. The results indicate that different age groups within the selected municipality significantly differ with regards to the average gap scores.

Table 5.19 indicates that there are significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) differences in the mean gap scores among all the various biographical variable categories, therefore  $H_{a\ 3,4}$  is not rejected.

## 5.9 FINDINGS ON THE OPEN QUESTION

Responses were obtained from the respondents on the open question dealing with “general comments”. A total of 23 respondents offered their opinion, and the main points can be summarised as follows:

- **Communication:**
  - Respondents noted that the communication within all levels of the selected municipality was non-existent. The opinion was the selected municipality needs to work harder on the communication between the departments and at all levels of the municipality because communication is the key to success.
- **Health and Safety:**
  - The health and safety of respondents was also an issue that was commented on. It was expressed that Health and Safety regulations were not adhered to, and therefore neglected. Employees assert that the equipment being used, including medical equipment, was old and outdated and that management were not purchasing new equipment according to Health and Safety regulation.
- **Budgeting:**
  - Respondents also indicated that budgeting for all departments must be a top priority, because at present, there is insufficient funding in order for the departments and employees to provide an adequate service to the community. The budget plan is not sufficiently drawn up, with too little funds being provided for the delivery of services to the community.
- **Leadership:**
  - Finally, the subject of leadership within the selected municipality was also raised by respondents. Respondents generally noted that there was a lack of leadership and leadership skills within the selected municipality. Respondents also stated that leaders need to manage and make decisions with an unbiased and unprejudiced attitude.

### 5.10 SUMMARY

The empirical results of this research were clearly presented and discussed in this chapter. Firstly, the response rate was identified. Secondly, the descriptive statistics regarding selected biographical variables was examined and illustrated with the use of bar graphs. The reliability of the research was tested for the two measuring instruments, through the use of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient. The fourth stage of this chapter was the testing and discussing of the hypotheses.

The first hypothesis was examined and discussed through descriptive statistics, and then was tested and discussed according to inferential statistics, namely ANOVA and MANOVA. The first alternative hypothesis,  $H_{a 1.1}$ , was accepted.

The second set of hypotheses was tested by using Pearson's correlation matrix. The existing and preferred organisational culture scales, as well as the organisational culture gap scores were correlated with the organisational commitment in order to identify whether or not there were significant linear relationships between the scales.

The third set of hypotheses was tested in two ways, firstly,  $H_{a 3.1}$ ,  $H_{a 3.2}$ , and  $H_{a 3.3}$  were tested using Pearson's chi-square test in order to identify if there were relationships between the dependent variables (the existing and preferred organisational cultures, and organisational commitment) and the independent variables (the biographical variables) that were rated by the respondents. Secondly,  $H_{a 3.4}$  was tested using the multivariate test for repeated measures, the Wilks' Lambda, in order to identify whether there were significant differences in between the biographical variables and the organisational culture gap scores.

The open questions regarding the "general comments" which respondents gave their opinions for were also mentioned. The four main themes of the comments were identified and discussed in accordance with the responses from respondents.

The following chapter concludes the research and identifies any recommendations and limitations relevant to the research.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **6.1 BRIEF SYNOPSIS OF THE RESEARCH**

Since 2000, municipalities have been through a process of transformation which resulted in the amalgamation of a number of smaller municipalities into larger municipalities. The amalgamation of municipalities brings together an array of people, and therefore a myriad of organisational cultures are combined. The organisational culture of an organisation can be seen to have an effect on the organisational commitment of the employees, therefore the proper fit between the organisational culture and employees will positively affect the organisational commitment of employees.

The primary objective of this research was therefore to assess the relationship between organisational culture and the organisational commitment of employees at a selected municipality. The first step in achieving this objective was an in-depth theoretical study. The second step was an empirical survey that was conducted to canvas the opinions of employees at the selected municipality.

A concise chapter by chapter overview of the manner in which the purpose and objectives of this research was met is presented below.

Chapter 1 served as an introduction and orientation to the research in terms of the purpose, objectives and hypotheses and research design and methodology. Chapter 1 also contained a summary of the primary and secondary sources related to the research, which were obtained from both national and international sources. The demarcation of the field of study and plan of the thesis was also dealt with in Chapter 1.

Organisational culture literature was assessed in Chapter 2. Organisational culture definitions were discussed. Shared assumptions, shared values, shared

socialisations and norms, as well as shared symbols, languages, narratives and practices were also discussed in Chapter 2. Typologies pertaining to organisational culture were discussed, with particular focus being placed on the Harrison and Stokes (1992) organisational culture typology. Chapter 2 also included determinants and functions of organisational culture, as well as mechanisms used to develop organisational cultures. Chapter 2 culminated with a discussion of the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment.

Chapter 3 assessed the literature pertaining to organisational commitment. Organisational commitment and its relationship to service delivery was discussed, followed by the examination of two organisational commitment typologies, with emphasis being placed on the Allen and Meyer (1990) organisational commitment typology. Antecedents to organisational commitment were stated, as well as the reasons behind using the Allen and Meyer (1990) research instrument. Chapter 3 concluded by mentioning the importance of having a committed workforce as well as the effect of organisational culture on organisational commitment.

The focus of Chapter 4 was on the research design and methodology applied in this research. The research paradigm, research population and sample, as well as the research method were explained. The measuring instruments utilised in this research were discussed and the reliability and validity of these research measuring instruments, as found by previous research, was also explained. Chapter 4 also examined the data collection, data capturing and statistical analysis process. Lastly, the ethical considerations pertaining to this research were also mentioned.

Chapter 5 dealt with the empirical findings and results of this research and it discussed those results with reference to the literature. Chapter 5 identifies the response rate, as well as the existing and preferred organisational culture profiles. The first hypothesis pertaining to the organisational culture gap was assessed through the use of within-subject Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)



based on the gap scores for each of the four organisational culture scales, namely power, role, achievement and support. Chapter 5 further identified the organisational commitment profile and then tested the second set of hypotheses pertaining to the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment through the use of Pearson's correlation coefficient. The third set of hypotheses, pertaining to the biographical variables, were then tested to identify whether there were significant differences between the scores of the existing and preferred organisational cultures and organisational commitment in relation to the various biographical variables.

## 6.2 CONCLUSIONS OF FINDINGS

The conclusions with regards to the empirical findings will be highlighted in the following order:

- The organisational culture profile;
- The organisational culture gap between the existing and preferred organisational culture;
- Organisational commitment profile;
- The relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment;
- The relationship between the biographical variables and the existing and preferred organisational culture, organisational commitment and the organisational culture gap; and
- The open ended question.

### **6.2.1 The organisational culture profile**

The organisational culture of the selected municipality was diagnosed through the use of Harrison and Stokes's (1992) culture questionnaire. The organisational culture was assessed according to how respondents interpret the organisation's existing organisational culture, and how they would prefer the organisational culture within the selected municipality to be. The employees within the selected

municipality identified that the dominant existing organisational culture is the power culture, and their preferred organisational culture is the support culture.

These results are in line with Harrison's (1993: 21) statement that most cultural changes undertaken organisations are intended to move from a power and role orientation to a culture based on support.

### **6.2.2 The organisational culture gap between the existing and preferred organisational culture**

$H_{a1.1}$ : The average gap scores between the existing organisational culture scales and the preferred organisational culture scales have significant differences.

The existence of an organisational culture gap was tested by using a multivariate test for repeated measures. Wilks' Lambda Effect Test illustrated that there were significant differences in the average gap scores for some of the organisational culture scales, therefore the alternate hypothesis,  $H_{a1.1}$  was not rejected.

These findings indicate that there is a significant difference between the existing organisational culture at the selected municipality, and the organisational culture that is preferred by employees at the selected municipality. The existence of an organisational culture gap within organisations is supported by previous research (Bourantas and Papalexandris, 1992; Nazir, 2005; Rowe *et al.*, 1994).

### **6.2.3 The organisational commitment profile**

The organisational commitment of employees within the selected municipality was diagnosed using Allen and Meyer's (1990) three-component conceptualisation typology. The results of the diagnosis identified that the dominant organisational commitment among the employees' is the normative commitment. Employees indicated that they have a slightly lower continuance commitment to the municipality as opposed to normative commitment. Finally,

the smallest commitment attachment indicated by employees is the affective commitment. The results of this research differ from the findings of Rashid *et al.* (2003).

#### **6.2.4 The relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment**

The second set of hypotheses pertains to the linear relationships between organisational culture and organisational commitment. This set of hypotheses was assessed using Pearson's correlation matrix. The main findings will be summarised according to each stated hypothesis.

H<sub>a 2.1</sub>: There is a statistically significant linear relationship between the existing organisational culture and organisational commitment.

The results of the correlations indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship between the existing organisational culture and the organisational commitment of employees. Therefore, the alternate hypothesis, H<sub>a 2.1</sub>, is not rejected.

The result of this hypothesis indicates that if the organisational culture continues to remain predominantly a power culture, then the organisational commitment of employees will decrease. This conclusion is supported by Brewer (1993 in Chen, 2004), Hellreigel *et al.* (2004), Odom *et al.* (1990), and Rashid *et al.* (2003).

H<sub>a 2.2</sub>: There is a statistically significant linear relationship between the preferred organisational culture and organisational commitment.

Pearson's correlation matrix indicated that there is only one statistically significant linear relationship between the preferred role organisational culture and the affective organisational commitment of employees, out of 12 possible statistically significant linear relationships. The alternate hypothesis, H<sub>a 2.2</sub> is therefore rejected with the exception of the aforementioned relationship. This

indicates that if the preferred support organisational culture becomes more dominant within the organisation, then the organisational commitment of employees will not significantly increase as explained in Section 5.7.1.1, Chapter 5.

Table 5.9 in Chapter 5 illustrated that there is a positive relationship between the preferred support organisational culture and organisational commitment, yet not a significant ( $p > 0.05$ ) relationship. This finding is supported by previous research conducted (Clugston *et al.*, 2000; Greenberg and Baron, 2003; McKinnon *et al.*, 2003; Rowe *et al.*, 1994; Schein, 1992) where the preferred organisational culture has a positive influence on the organisational commitment of employees.

H<sub>a 2,3</sub>: There is a statistically significant linear relationship between the organisational culture gap (difference between existing and preferred organisational culture) and organisational commitment.

The existence of an organisational culture gap has no significant linear relationship with the organisational commitment of employees within the selected municipality. The alternate hypothesis, H<sub>a 2,3</sub>, can therefore be rejected.

It is therefore evident that even though the existing organisational culture differs from employees' preferred organisational culture, it has no significant effect on the employees' organisational commitment to the municipality. Previous research (Bourantas and Papalexandris, 1992; Nazir, 2005; O'Reilly *et al.*, 1991) has found that the existence of an organisational culture gap within an organisation has a negative impact on the organisational commitment of employees. Previous research, therefore, does not support this conclusion.

### **6.2.5 The relationship between the biographical variables and the existing and preferred organisational culture, organisational commitment and the organisational culture gap**

The third set of hypotheses investigates the relationship between the biographical variables and organisational culture and organisational commitment.

H<sub>a 3.1</sub>: There is a statistically significant relationship between the biographical variables and the existing organisational culture.

Pearson's chi square test was used to assess the relationship between the biographical variables and the existing organisational culture. The test indicated that there was no significant difference between respondent perceptions regarding the existing organisational culture and the various biographical variables. The alternate hypothesis, H<sub>a 3.1</sub>, is therefore rejected. This indicates that employees within the selected municipality, regardless of their biographical information, asserted that the dominant existing organisational culture was the power culture. There is no cause for concern by the selected municipality regarding this conclusion, because the employees' biographical information therefore has no effect on the perceptions of employees with regards to the existing organisational culture.

H<sub>a 3.2</sub>: There is a statistically significant relationship between the biographical variables and the preferred organisational culture.

Significant relationships between the biographical variables and the preferred organisational culture were also assessed by using Pearson's chi-square test. Pearson's chi-square test identified that there were statistically significant relationships between some of the biographical variables, namely the department in which respondents worked and the education level of respondents, and respondents' perceptions regarding the preferred organisational culture. Therefore, the alternate hypothesis H<sub>a 3.2</sub> is not rejected. This result indicates that there were significant differences in the responses of respondent perceptions

pertaining to the preferred organisational culture. Hence, it is evident that the perceptions of municipal respondents' regarding the preferred organisational culture of the selected municipality are affected by their biographical information.

$H_{a\ 3.3}$ : There is a statistically significant relationship between the biographical variables and organisational commitment.

Pearson's chi-square was also used to test the difference in the biographical variables and respondents' organisational commitment. There were significant relationships within the biographical variables relating to the employees' organisational commitment. The alternate hypothesis  $H_{a\ 3.3}$  is therefore not rejected. The organisational commitments of respondents are thus affected by their individual biographic information, namely their education level, their gender, their post level and whether they work in the field or in an office, which implies that employees with particular biographical variables will be more inclined to have a specific organisational commitment to the municipality.

Section 5.8.1.4, in Chapter 5, identified that the majority of respondents who have an education level of lower than grade 11 have an affective commitment to the municipality, whereas most respondents who have a grade 12 education level have a continuance commitment to the municipality. The majority of respondents who attained a diploma or certificate, or a bachelor's degree have a normative commitment to the organisation. There were only two respondents with a post graduate degree, and the commitments felt by respondents were affective and normative. This conclusion is not a cause for concern as long as the municipality acknowledges these differences in organisational commitment with regards to the different biographical information of their employees.

$H_{a\ 3.4}$ : The average organisational culture gap scores of the organisational culture scales for each of the selected biographical variables are significantly different.

Finally, a double multivariate repeated measures (MANOVA) design, Wilks' Lambda multivariate test, was used to ascertain whether there are significant differences in the average scores between the biographical variables and the organisational culture gap scores. It was found that there were significant differences between all the biographical variables and the organisational culture gap scores. The alternate hypothesis,  $H_{a\ 3.4}$ , was therefore not rejected. This result indicates that the biographical variables of respondents have different mean scores with regards to the organisational culture gap. This finding creates no cause for concern for the municipality because it indicates that individual respondent organisational culture gap scores differ from one another. This has no effect on the municipality because the organisational culture gap is still present, which was identified in Section 5.5.2, Chapter 5.

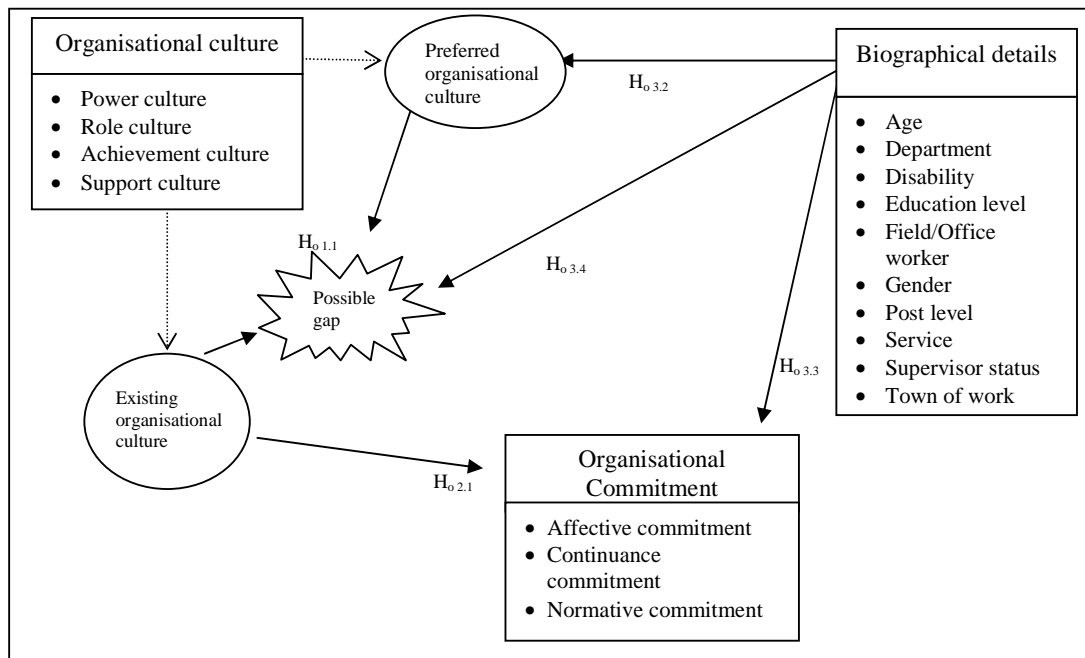
Table 6.1 summarises the results of the hypotheses testing, where an "X" indicates whether the hypothesis was not rejected or rejected. The hypotheses that are not rejected, in other words the significant relationships, are graphically illustrated in Figure 6.1.

**Table 6.1: Summary of hypotheses testing**

Stated Hypotheses	$H_a$ not rejected	$H_a$ rejected
$H_{a\ 1.1}$ The average gap scores between the existing organisational culture scales and the preferred organisational culture scales have significant differences.	X	
$H_{a\ 2.1}$ There is a statistically significant linear relationship between the existing organisational culture and organisational commitment.	X	
$H_{a\ 2.2}$ There is a statistically significant linear relationship between the preferred organisational culture and organisational commitment.		X
$H_{a\ 2.3}$ There is a statistically significant linear relationship between the organisational culture gap (difference between existing and preferred organisational culture) and organisational commitment.		X
$H_{a\ 3.1}$ There is a statistically significant relationship between the biographical variables and the existing organisational culture.		X
$H_{a\ 3.2}$ There is a statistically significant relationship between the	X	

biographical variables and the preferred organisational culture.		
H <sub>a 3.3</sub> There is a statistically significant relationship between the biographical variables and the organisational commitment.	X	
H <sub>a 3.4</sub> : The average organisational culture gap scores of the organisational culture scales for the biographical variables are significantly different.	X	

**Figure 6.1: Theoretical framework and the significant relationships**



Source: Researcher's own construction based on Allen and Meyer (1990); Harrison (1972); and Louw and Boshoff (2006).

### 6.2.6 The open ended question

The main issues that were expressed by respondents were pertaining to communication, health and safety, budgeting and leadership.

- Respondents indicated that communication at all levels in the municipality and especially between departments were non-existent. Communication is seen as key to success and respondents therefore want communication within the municipality to be more efficient.



- Respondents indicated that Health and Safety regulations were not adhered to and that no funds were available to purchase new equipment, for example, to ensure that Health and Safety regulations are abided by.
- Respondents stated that monies available in the budget for service delivery to the community are inadequate.
- Respondents felt that leaders did not have the required competencies in order to successfully lead the organisation, and that leaders were biased and prejudiced when it comes to decision making.

### 6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

With regards to the research findings, several recommendations pertaining to the selected municipality and future research have been identified.

#### **6.3.1 Recommendations for the selected municipality**

As mentioned in Section 5.1.1, the overall existing organisational culture has been identified as one of power and the overall preferred organisational culture as one of support. The support culture empowers employees through cooperation and trust as well as through providing understanding, acceptance and assistance to fellow employees and subordinates. In order for the municipality to move from a power culture to a support culture, it is recommended that:

- Management reduces the fear and anxiety that are endemic to power-orientated cultures. To do this, management needs to stop rewarding employees for compliance and not punish employees or withhold rewards from employees for non-compliance.
- Management implement training programs focusing on team building in order to evoke trust and cooperation between employees, which will promote a support organisational culture.

- Supervisors and management show trust in the integrity and dedication of team members so that employees feel they are able to ask for assistance when they are unsure about the work they are completing.
- Management implement training programs based on improving communication at all levels within the municipality in order for communication to flow more efficiently.
- Feedback on the performance of all employees must be given timeously to ensure that the work of subordinates and employees does not stall. Strict procedures should be put in place to regulate the time it takes to communicate back to employees.
- Work and decision-making should be delegated to lower level managers, supervisors or employees, in order for work to be completed timeously and also to decrease the workload of top management and build trust between the employees and management.
- Employees are sent on decision making training programs that teach employees the decision making process thereby enabling them to make rapid decisions. This is imperative because, in a support orientated culture, employees may become slow decision makers.
- Employees are rewarded for achieving certain performance goals by rewarding the whole group and not individual employees.
- Achievable and concrete goals are put in place in order to promote a good “people person” environment that is based on relationships, trust and cooperation between employees within the municipality in order to sustain a support culture.

- Induction courses are conducted to assist a new employee through the socialisation process so that new employees “learn the ropes” within a short period of time.
- The municipality must balance the emphasis placed on employee relationships with the emphasis placed on the task that needs to be done. This is because in a support culture, employees develop a tendency to put the needs of fellow employees over the needs of the organisation.

As shown in Section 5.8, the preferred organisational culture for top and middle management was identified as an achievement culture. It is therefore recommended that for this group of employees:

- Demanding goals are set and rewards are given for individual achievement of the identified goals.

The research indicated in Section 5.3 that all three components of organisational commitment, namely the affective, continuance and normative commitments were similar in terms of the levels of commitment within the municipality. The affective commitment was found to be the lowest type of commitment felt within the municipality, therefore it is recommended that:

- Management development programmes focus on aligning the goals and values of the organisation to those of the employees goals and values.
- Management identify employee roles in relation to the organisation’s goals and values

### **6.3.2 Recommendations for future research**

It is recommended that:

- Research dealing with the relationship between organisational culture and the performance of an organisation is conducted at the selected municipality in

order to ascertain under what conditions organisational culture is critical to the effectiveness and efficiency of an organisation's performance.

- Research is conducted at the selected municipality to find out what motivates employees because a support orientated organisation does not motivate individual achievement.
- The present research is extended to other municipalities in South Africa.

#### 6.4 LIMITATIONS OF THIS RESEARCH

It must be noted that this research has limitations. Limitations pertaining to this research will be noted below.

- The dominant languages spoken at the selected municipality are Afrikaans and isiXhosa, yet the questionnaire was only available in English, which made the completion of the questionnaire more challenging and therefore excluded a large number of the employees, especially some of the unskilled employees.
- The results found in this research were obtained using a convenience sample at a rural municipality and should therefore not be generalised beyond the sample.

In conclusion, organisational culture is a powerful tool which management can manipulate to enhance performance and influence the degree of organisational commitment towards the municipality.

*“We will either be a victim or a successful result of our culture”*

- O’Rielly (1989: 467).

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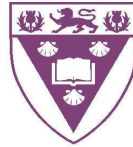
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## APPENDIX A - QUESTIONNAIRE

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**RHODES UNIVERSITY**

*Grahamstown • 6140 • South Africa*

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT • Tel: (046) 603 8737 • Fax: (046) 603 8913 • e-mail: m.louw@ru.ac.za

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Dear Sir/ Madam

Organizational culture separates successful organizations from less successful organizations. The question can therefore be asked – what are the right cultural values that should be re-enforced within the Inxuba Yethemba Municipality? In order to determine what the preferred cultural values are, all employees need to complete a confidential questionnaire.

This questionnaire attempts to identify the influence that organizational culture has on the organisational commitment of the employees at the municipality. Organisational commitment focuses on the processes by which employees come to think about their relationships with their organisation, and the extent to which their goals and values are congruent with those of the organisation. Does the culture at the Municipality have an impact on the commitment of the employees?

This questionnaire forms part of research conducted for the purposes of completing an M.Comm degree in Management at Rhodes University, Grahamstown.

**All the answers you provide will be treated in the strictest of confidence**

**Please complete each section and answer all the questions.**

**Please hand in the completed questionnaire to the Rhodes official present at the session.**

**Thank you for your co-operation.**

<b>SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION</b>
--

**INSTRUCTIONS**

Place an ' X ' in the applicable box.

<b>1. How long have you been working for the Municipality?</b>	
Less than 1 year	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-2 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
3-4 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
5-6 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
More than 6 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>2. How many co-workers do you supervise?</b>	
None	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-5	<input type="checkbox"/>
6-10	<input type="checkbox"/>
More than 10	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>3. Please indicate your gender:</b>	
Male	<input type="checkbox"/>
Female	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>4. Please indicate your age:</b>	
Less than 20 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
21-30 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
31-40 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
41-50 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
51 years and older	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>5. Please indicate your highest level of formal education completed:</b>	
Grade 11 and below	<input type="checkbox"/>
Grade 12	<input type="checkbox"/>
Diploma (s) / Certificate	<input type="checkbox"/>
B-Degree	<input type="checkbox"/>
Post-Graduate Degree	<input type="checkbox"/>

<b>6. Please indicate the Department you work for:</b>	
Financial Services	<input type="checkbox"/>
Corporate Services (Including the office of the Municipal Manager, Executive Mayor and Speaker)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Protection Services	<input type="checkbox"/>
Community Services	<input type="checkbox"/>
Local Economic Development Services	<input type="checkbox"/>
Technical Services	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>7. Please indicate your post level:</b>	
Section 57	<input type="checkbox"/>
Levels 1 – 4	<input type="checkbox"/>
Levels 5 – 7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Levels 8 – 10	<input type="checkbox"/>
Levels 11 – 12	<input type="checkbox"/>
Levels 13 – 15	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>8. Do you have any disability or chronic illness?</b>	
Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
No	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>9. In which town are you currently working?</b>	
Cradock	<input type="checkbox"/>
Middelburg	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>10. Are you office bound (binne werker) or do you spend most of your time in the field (buite werker)?</b>	
Office Bound	<input type="checkbox"/>
Field Worker	<input type="checkbox"/>

<b>SECTION B: ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE</b>
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**INSTRUCTIONS**

Please indicate the extent to which you agree (4= most preferred) or disagree (1= least preferred) with the following statements about the **preferred** and **existing** culture at the Municipality. The **existing culture** meaning the way things are at present and **preferred culture** meaning the way you would like the culture to be.

<b>RANKING KEY:</b>
---------------------

1. Strongly Disagree (least preferred)
2. Disagree
3. Agree
4. Strongly Agree (most preferred)

**Note :** Please check answers to be sure you have assigned only one “4”, one “3”, one “2”, and one “1” for each phrase in the “existing” column and for each phrase in the “preferred” column.

**EXAMPLE:**

1. Supervisors are expected to be:

**Existing Culture**

3
4
1
2

- a. Firm but fair
- b. Impersonal
- c. Democratic
- d. Supportive

**Preferred Culture**

3
1
2
4

**RANKING KEY**

1.	Strongly disagree	2.	Disagree	3.	Agree	4.	Strongly agree
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Existing CulturePreferred Culture

1. Employees of the Municipality are expected to give first priority to

	a.	meeting the needs and demands of their supervisors and other high-level people in the organization	
	b.	carrying out the duties of their own jobs; staying within the policies and procedures related to their job	
	c.	meeting the challenges of the task, finding a better way to do things	
	d.	co-operating with the people with whom they work, to solve work and personal problems	

Existing CulturePreferred Culture

2. People who do well in the Municipality tend to be those who

	a.	know how to please their supervisors and are able and willing to use power and politics to get ahead	
	b.	play by the rules, work within the system, and strive to do things correctly	
	c.	are technically competent and effective, with a strong commitment to getting the job done	
	d.	build close working relationships with others by being co-operative, responsive and caring	

Existing CulturePreferred Culture

3. The Municipality treats individuals

	a.	as “hands” whose time and energy are at the disposal of persons at higher levels in the organization	
	b.	as “employees” whose time and energy are purchased through a contract, with rights and obligations for both sides	
	c.	as “associates” or peers who are mutually committed to the achievement of a common purpose	
	d.	as “family” or “friends” who like being together and who care about and support one another	

**RANKING KEY**

1.	Strongly disagree	2.	Disagree	3.	Agree	4.	Strongly agree
----	-------------------	----	----------	----	-------	----	----------------

Existing Culture

Preferred Culture

4. Employees in the Municipality are managed, directed or influenced by

<input type="checkbox"/>	a. officials in positions of authority, who exercise their power through the use of rewards and punishment	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	b. the system, rules, and procedures that outline what employees should do and the right ways of doing it	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	c. their own commitment to achieving the goals of the organization	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	d. their own desire to be accepted by others and to be good members of their own work group	<input type="checkbox"/>

Existing Culture

Preferred Culture

5. Decision - making processes in the Municipality are characterized by

<input type="checkbox"/>	a. directives, orders, and instructions that come down from higher levels	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	b. the adherence to formal channels and reliance on policies and procedures for making decisions	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	c. decision making made close to the point of action, by the employees on the ground	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	d. the use of consensus decision –making methods to gain acceptance and support for decisions	<input type="checkbox"/>

Existing Culture

Preferred Culture

6. Assignments of tasks or jobs to individuals in the Municipality are based on

<input type="checkbox"/>	a. the personal judgments, values , and wishes of those in position of power	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	b. the needs and plans of the organization and the rules of the system (seniority, qualifications, etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	c. matching the requirements of the job with the interests and abilities of the individuals	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	d. the personal preference of the individuals and their needs for growth and development	<input type="checkbox"/>

**RANKING KEY**

1.	Strongly disagree	2.	Disagree	3.	Agree	4.	Strongly agree
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Existing CulturePreferred Culture

7. Employees in the Municipality are expected to be

	a. hard working, compliant, obedient, and loyal to the interests of those to whom they report	
	b. responsible and reliable, carrying out the duties and responsibilities of their jobs and avoiding actions that could surprise or embarrass their supervisors	
	c. self motivated and competent, willing to take the initiative to get things done; willing to challenge those to whom they report if that is necessary to obtain good results	
	d. good team workers, supportive and co-operative, who get along well with others	

Existing CulturePreferred Culture

8. Those in authority and supervisors are expected to be

	a. strong and decisive; firm but fair	
	b. impersonal and proper, avoiding the exercise of authority for their own advantage	
	c. democratic and willing to accept subordinates ideas about the task	
	d. supportive, responsive and concerned about the personal concerns and needs of those who they supervise	

Existing CulturePreferred Culture

9. It is considered legitimate for one employee to tell another what to do when

	a. he or she has more power, authority, or “clout” in the organization	
	b. it is part of the responsibilities included in his or her job description	
	c. he or she has greater knowledge and expertise and uses it to guide the other person or to teach him or her to do the work	
	d. the other person asks for his or her help, guidance, or advice	



**RANKING KEY**

1.	Strongly disagree	2.	Disagree	3.	Agree	4.	Strongly agree
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Existing CulturePreferred Culture

10. In the Municipality work motivation is primarily the result of

<input type="checkbox"/>	a. hope for reward, fear of punishment, or personal loyalty to the supervisor	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	b. acceptance of the norm of providing a “ fair day’s work for a fair day’s pay”	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	c. strong desires to achieve, to create, and to innovate and peer pressure to contribute to the success of the organization	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	d. people wanting to help others and develop and maintain satisfying working relationships	<input type="checkbox"/>

Existing CulturePreferred Culture

11. In the Municipality relationships between departments are generally

<input type="checkbox"/>	a. competitive, with both looking out for their own interests and helping each other only when they can see some advantage for themselves by doing so	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	b. characterized by indifference towards each other, helping each other only when it is convenient or when they are directed by higher levels	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	c. co-operative when they need to achieve common goals. Employees are normally willing to cut red tape and cross organizational boundaries in order to get the job done	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	d. friendly, with a high level of responsiveness to requests for help from other departments	<input type="checkbox"/>

Existing CulturePreferred Culture

12. In the Municipality intergroup and personal conflicts are usually

<input type="checkbox"/>	a. dealt with by the personal intervention of people at higher level of authority	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	b. avoided by reference to rules, procedures and formal definitions	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	c. resolved through discussions aimed at getting the best outcomes possible for the work issues involved	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	d. dealt with in a manner that maintains good working relationships and minimizes the chances of people being hurt	<input type="checkbox"/>

**RANKING KEY**

1.	Strongly disagree	2.	Disagree	3.	Agree	4.	Strongly agree
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Existing CulturePreferred Culture

13. The external environment of the Municipality is responded to as though it were

	a.	a jungle, where the organization is in competition for survival with others	
	b.	an orderly system in which relationships are determined by structures and procedures and where everyone is expected to abide by the rules	
	c.	a competition for excellence in which productivity , quality and innovation bring success	
	d.	a community of interdependent parts in which the common interests are the most important	

Existing CulturePreferred Culture

14. If rules, systems or procedures get in the way, employees

	a.	break them if they have enough “ clout” to get by with or if they think they can get away with it without being caught	
	b.	generally abide by them or go through proper channels to get permission to deviate from them or have them changed	
	c.	tend to ignore or by-pass them to accomplish their task or perform their jobs better	
	d.	support to ignore or by-pass them to accomplish their tasks or perform their jobs better	

Existing CulturePreferred Culture

15. New employees in the Municipality need to learn

	a.	who really runs things; who can help or hurt them; whom to avoid offending; the norms (unwritten rules) that have to be observed if they are to stay out of trouble	
	b.	the formal rules and procedures and to abide by them; to stay within the formal boundaries of their jobs	
	c.	what resources are available the help them do their jobs; to take the initiative to apply their skills and knowledge to their jobs	
	d.	how to co-operate; how to be good team members; how to develop good working relationships with others	

<b>SECTION C: ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT SURVEY</b>
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**INSTRUCTIONS**

Please indicate the extent to which you strongly agree or strongly disagree with the following statements about your feelings toward the Municipality

1. Strongly Disagree
2. Disagree
3. Unsure
4. Agree
5. Strongly Agree

**NOTE:** Please check your answers to ensure you have assigned one number for each phrase.

**EXAMPLE:**

<b><u>RANKING KEY</u></b>
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1.	Strongly Disagree	2	Disagree	3	Unsure	4	Agree	5	Strongly Agree
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**a. I would leave this organization if offered the same job with another organization.**

<b>2</b>
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**RANKING KEY**

1.	Strongly disagree	2.	Disagree	3.	Unsure	4.	Agree	5.	Strongly agree
----	-------------------	----	----------	----	--------	----	-------	----	----------------

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this Municipality
2. It would be very hard for me to leave this Municipality right now, even if I wanted to
3. I think that people these days move from organisation to organisation too often
4. This Municipality has a great deal of personal meaning for me
5. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this Municipality would be the scarcity of available alternatives
6. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organisation
7. I enjoy discussing my Municipality with people outside it
8. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation now
9. Jumping from organisation to organisation seems unethical to me
10. I really feel as if this Municipality's problems are my own

**RANKING KEY**

1.	Strongly disagree	2.	Disagree	3.	Unsure	4.	Agree	5.	Strongly agree
----	-------------------	----	----------	----	--------	----	-------	----	----------------

11. It would be too costly for me to leave my organisation now
12. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain
13. I feel like “part of the family” at my organisation
14. Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire
15. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would feel it was right to leave my organisation
16. I feel “emotionally” attached to this Municipality
17. Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organisation for most of their careers
18. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this Municipality
19. I feel a strong sense of belonging to my Municipality
20. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another organisation may not match the overall benefits I have here
21. I think that wanting to be a “company man/woman” is sensible

**ANY OTHER COMMENTS?**

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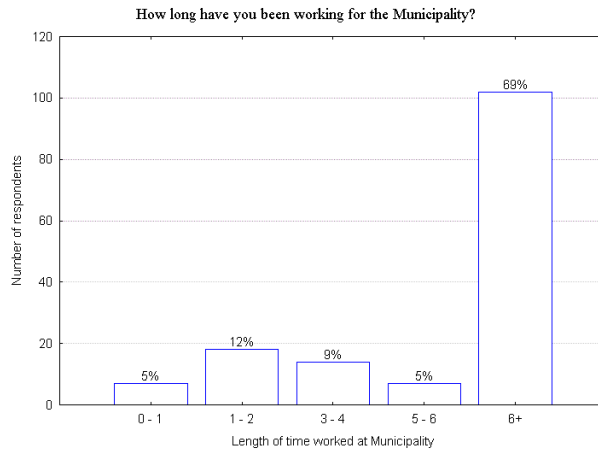
**THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND EFFORT!!!**

**APPENDIX B – DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF BIOGRAPHICAL  
INFORMATION; DOMINANT EXISTING AND PREFERRED  
ORGANISATIONAL CULTURES, AND DOMINANT  
ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

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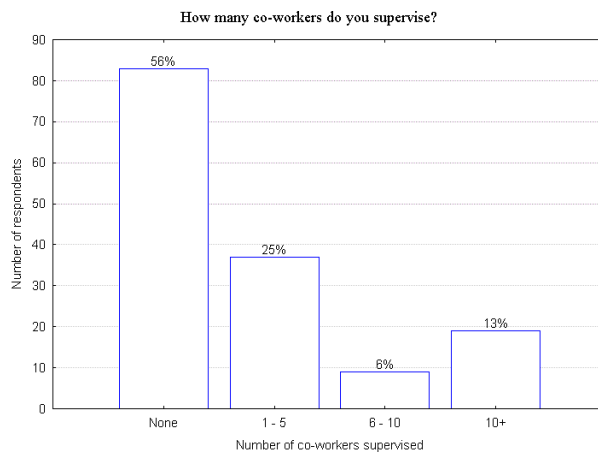
### B.1 Descriptive statistics of biographical information

#### 1) Length of time working for the Municipality



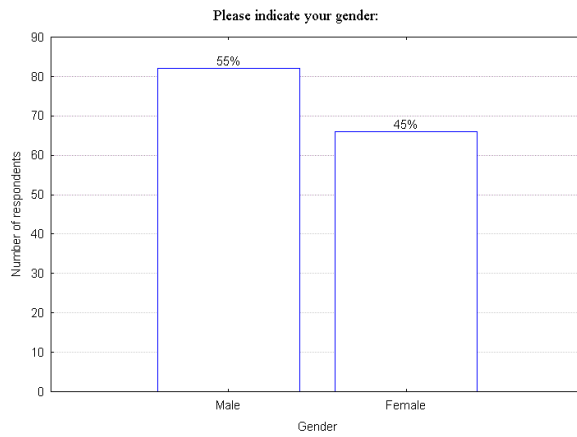
	Count	Percent
<b>0 - 1</b>	7	4.7
<b>1 - 2</b>	18	12.2
<b>3 - 4</b>	14	9.5
<b>5 - 6</b>	7	4.7
<b>6+</b>	102	68.9
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>148</b>	<b>100</b>

#### 2) Number of co-workers that employees supervise



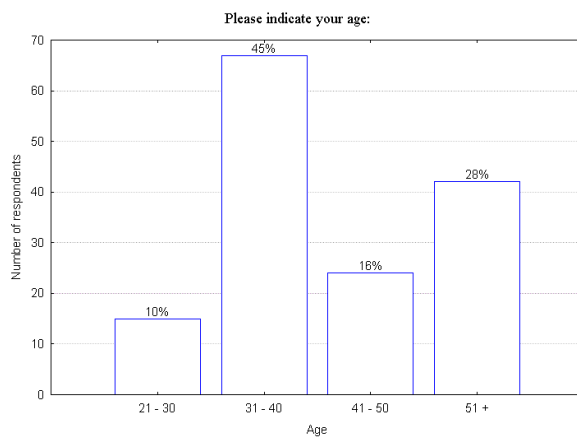
	Count	Percent
<b>None</b>	83	56.1
<b>1 - 5</b>	37	25.0
<b>6 - 10</b>	9	6.1
<b>10+</b>	19	12.8
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>148</b>	<b>100</b>

### 3) Gender of respondents



	Count	Percent
<b>Male</b>	82	55.4
<b>Female</b>	66	44.6
<b>TOTAL</b>	148	100

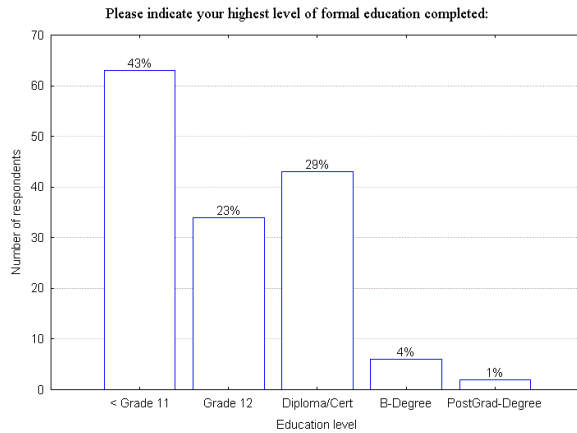
### 4) Age of respondents



	Count	Percent
<b>21 - 30</b>	15	10.1
<b>31 - 40</b>	67	45.3
<b>41 - 50</b>	24	16.2
<b>51 +</b>	42	28.4
<b>TOTAL</b>	148	100

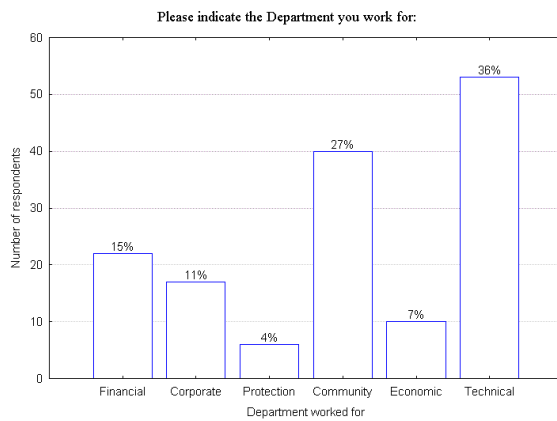
### 5) Level of education of respondents





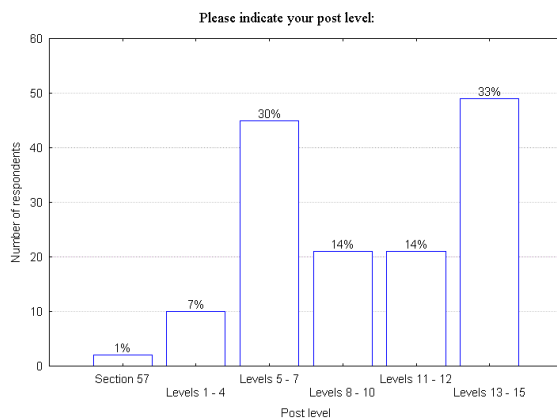
	Count	Percent
<b>&lt; Grade 11</b>	63	42.6
<b>Grade 12</b>	34	22.9
<b>Diploma/Cert</b>	43	29.1
<b>B-Degree</b>	6	4.1
<b>Post Graduate-Degree</b>	2	1.4
<b>TOTAL</b>	148	100.1

6) Department that respondents work for



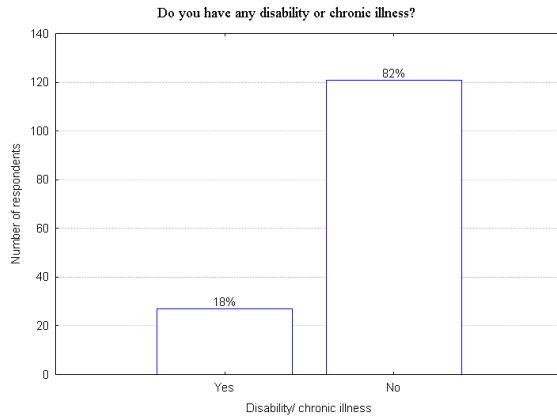
	Count	Percent
<b>Financial</b>	22	14.9
<b>Corporate</b>	17	11.5
<b>Protection</b>	6	4.1
<b>Community</b>	40	27.0
<b>Economic</b>	10	6.8
<b>Technical</b>	53	35.8
<b>TOTAL</b>	148	100.1

7) Post level of respondents



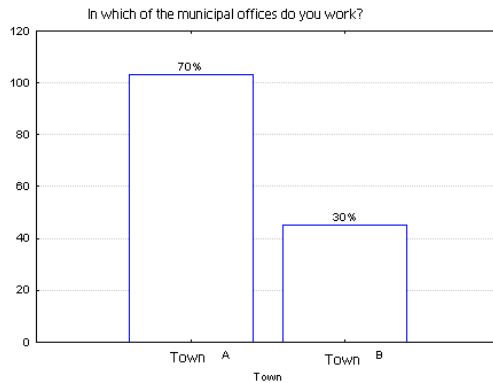
	Count	Percent
<b>Section 57</b>	2	1.4
<b>Levels 1 - 4</b>	10	6.8
<b>Levels 5 - 7</b>	45	30.4
<b>Levels 8 - 10</b>	21	14.2
<b>Levels 11 - 12</b>	21	14.2
<b>Levels 13 - 15</b>	49	33.1
<b>TOTAL</b>	148	100.1

8) Presence of disability of chronic illness of respondents



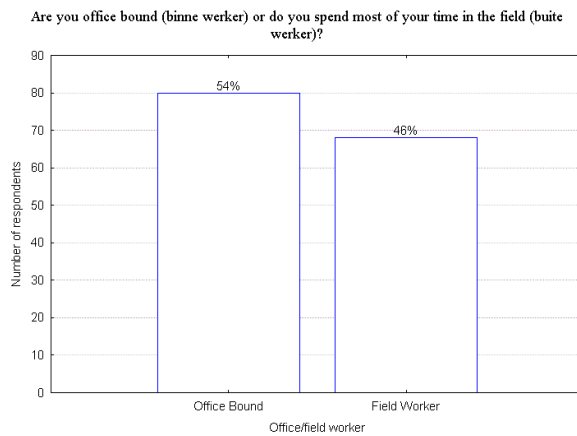
	Count	Percent
<b>Yes</b>	27	18.2
<b>No</b>	121	81.8
<b>TOTAL</b>	148	100

9) Municipal offices in which respondents work



	Count	Percent
<b>Town A</b>	103	69.6
<b>Town B</b>	45	30.4
<b>TOTAL</b>	148	100

10) Field worker or office worker



	Count	Percent
<b>Office Bound</b>	80	54.1
<b>Field Worker</b>	68	45.9
<b>TOTAL</b>	148	100

**B.2 Descriptive statistics of the existing organisational culture breakdown**

	<b>Count</b>	<b>Percent</b>
<b>Power</b>	68	45.94595
<b>Role</b>	33	22.29730
<b>Achievement</b>	19	12.83784
<b>Support</b>	23	15.54054
<b>Missing</b>	5	3.37838

**B.3 Descriptive statistics of the preferred organisation culture breakdown**

	<b>Count</b>	<b>Percent</b>
<b>Power</b>	21	14.18919
<b>Role</b>	19	12.83784
<b>Achievement</b>	41	27.70270
<b>Support</b>	58	39.18919
<b>Missing</b>	9	6.08108

**B.4 Descriptive statistics of the organisational commitment breakdown**

	<b>Count</b>	<b>Percent</b>
<b>Affective Commitment</b>	40	27.02703
<b>Continuance Commitment</b>	43	29.05405
<b>Normative Commitment</b>	53	35.81081
<b>Missing</b>	12	8.10811

**APPENDIX C – MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION, AND CRONBACH  
ALPHA’S FOR CULTURE INFORMATION**

**C.1 Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the existing power culture**

Summary for scale: Mean = 40.4527; Std.Dv. = 8.63416; Valid N: 148;

Coefficient alpha: .749816; Standardized alpha: .749837;

Average inter-item corr.: .169513

<b>Existing power culture</b>	<b>Mean if deleted</b>	<b>Var. if deleted</b>	<b>StDv. if deleted</b>	<b>Itm-Totl Correl.</b>	<b>Alpha if deleted</b>
<b>1 Ea</b>	37.81081	67.09934	8.191419	0.295920	0.740785
<b>2 Ea</b>	37.81757	64.58157	8.036266	0.411832	0.729740
<b>3 Ea</b>	37.63514	63.92093	7.995057	0.442960	0.726582
<b>4 Ea</b>	37.98649	67.21604	8.198539	0.274167	0.742972
<b>5 Ea</b>	37.41216	65.37742	8.085630	0.418196	0.729899
<b>6 Ea</b>	37.50676	64.73643	8.045896	0.437752	0.727791
<b>7 Ea</b>	37.75676	66.64354	8.163549	0.329081	0.737755
<b>8 Ea</b>	37.89865	71.73972	8.469931	0.041945	0.764206
<b>9 Ea</b>	37.69595	63.45485	7.965855	0.419176	0.728500
<b>10 Ea</b>	37.53378	61.30291	7.829618	0.591202	0.711496
<b>11 Ea</b>	37.79054	64.82775	8.051568	0.362735	0.734517
<b>12 Ea</b>	37.85811	64.97311	8.060590	0.363266	0.734451
<b>13 Ea</b>	38.06081	67.09765	8.191316	0.261152	0.744600
<b>14 Ea</b>	37.72973	68.12966	8.254069	0.206025	0.750101
<b>15 Ea</b>	37.84459	63.76639	7.985386	0.429020	0.727695

**C.2 Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the existing role culture scale**

Summary for scale: Mean = 39.5135; Std.Dv. = 5.15935; Valid N: 148;

Coefficient alpha: .451368; Standardized alpha: .460980;

Average inter-item corr.: .054466

<b>Existing role culture</b>	<b>Mean if deleted</b>	<b>Var. if deleted</b>	<b>StDv. if deleted</b>	<b>Itm-Totl Correl.</b>	<b>Alpha if deleted</b>
<b>1Eb</b>	37.10135	23.36135	4.833358	0.198829	0.421368
<b>2 Eb</b>	36.75000	23.36318	4.833547	0.178136	0.426672
<b>3 Eb</b>	36.87838	22.93116	4.788649	0.264582	0.404767
<b>4 Eb</b>	37.03378	23.46507	4.844076	0.202451	0.420880
<b>5 Eb</b>	36.64189	23.24338	4.821139	0.248685	0.410122
<b>6 Eb</b>	36.72297	23.72731	4.871068	0.167544	0.429838
<b>7 Eb</b>	36.80405	24.58998	4.958829	0.106123	0.444846
<b>8 Eb</b>	37.02703	24.85062	4.985040	0.048157	0.460982
<b>9 Eb</b>	36.98649	24.97279	4.997278	0.039467	0.462806
<b>10 Eb</b>	36.95946	22.45782	4.738968	0.365559	0.382912
<b>11 Eb</b>	36.79054	23.81423	4.879983	0.210294	0.420936
<b>12 Eb</b>	36.99324	25.16887	5.016859	0.018871	0.468182
<b>13 Eb</b>	36.81757	23.13564	4.809952	0.220382	0.415432
<b>14 Eb</b>	36.87838	24.05278	4.904363	0.098939	0.449422
<b>15 Eb</b>	36.80405	25.87377	5.086627	-0.041956	0.481270

**C.3 Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the existing achievement culture scale**

Summary for scale: Mean = 35.9662; Std.Dv. = 4.84230; Valid N: 148;

Coefficient alpha: .392345; Standardized alpha: .389018;

Average inter-item corr.: .041286

Existing achievement culture	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StdV. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Alpha if deleted
1Ec	33.51351	20.64171	4.543315	0.175119	0.360623
2 Ec	33.67567	19.25968	4.388585	0.348092	0.306894
3 Ec	33.68919	20.66015	4.545344	0.166710	0.363014
4 Ec	33.12162	23.13386	4.809767	-0.087552	0.436138
5 Ec	34.00676	21.57428	4.644812	0.079215	0.389254
6 Ec	33.59459	20.84916	4.566088	0.154485	0.367014
7 Ec	33.42567	20.82556	4.563503	0.135808	0.372567
8 Ec	33.71622	22.66271	4.760537	-0.035532	0.420994
9 Ec	33.46622	22.00562	4.691014	0.026208	0.405128
10 Ec	33.58108	19.93262	4.464596	0.275758	0.330898
11 Ec	33.66892	20.07282	4.480270	0.296266	0.328812
12 Ec	33.51351	21.03360	4.586240	0.136109	0.372585
13 Ec	33.64189	20.67581	4.547066	0.159130	0.365240
14 Ec	33.54730	23.05857	4.801934	-0.059735	0.420982
15 Ec	33.36486	21.13715	4.597515	0.133068	0.373560

**C.4 Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the existing support culture**

Summary for scale: Mean = 34.0405; Std.Dv. = 7.05458; Valid N: 148;

Coefficient alpha: .659878; Standardized alpha: .660132;

Average inter-item corr.: .116027

Existing support culture	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StdV. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Alpha if deleted
1 Ed	31.56081	43.73279	6.613077	0.258220	0.646460
2 Ed	31.72973	44.41344	6.664341	0.263738	0.645318
3 Ed	31.77027	43.19047	6.571946	0.342097	0.634358
4 Ed	31.84459	44.63125	6.680663	0.220703	0.651600
5 Ed	31.91216	45.12066	6.717192	0.240422	0.648351
6 Ed	32.14865	46.18061	6.795631	0.169565	0.656881
7 Ed	31.98649	42.66198	6.531614	0.344350	0.633375
8 Ed	31.33108	43.81606	6.619370	0.269817	0.644549
9 Ed	31.82432	42.64481	6.530300	0.440844	0.622875
10 Ed	31.89865	40.96946	6.400739	0.461799	0.615131
11 Ed	31.72297	44.51109	6.671663	0.200590	0.655480
12 Ed	31.60811	42.96804	6.555001	0.348209	0.633275
13 Ed	31.45270	45.77479	6.765707	0.173032	0.657225
14 Ed	31.81757	46.85186	6.844841	0.087749	0.669014
15 Ed	31.95946	44.11998	6.642287	0.280693	0.642995

**C.5 Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the preferred power culture scale**

Summary for scale: Mean = 30.8919; Std.Dv. = 8.97626; Valid N: 148;

Coefficient alpha: .818131 Standardized alpha: .818642;

Average inter-item corr.: .236039

Preferred power culture	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Alpha if deleted
1 Pa	28.65541	71.72585	8.469111	0.344992	0.813826
2 Pa	29.00000	72.28379	8.501987	0.307789	0.816616
3 Pa	28.97297	70.03982	8.368979	0.483811	0.804199
4 Pa	29.10811	71.06939	8.430266	0.417836	0.808565
5 Pa	28.73649	70.12650	8.374157	0.481554	0.804370
6 Pa	28.91892	70.47990	8.395231	0.440702	0.807024
7 Pa	28.55405	69.22005	8.319859	0.475049	0.804552
8 Pa	27.96622	76.07319	8.721994	0.160079	0.824218
9 Pa	29.06757	69.96840	8.364712	0.501811	0.803131
10 Pa	29.02027	69.27661	8.323257	0.529507	0.801146
11 Pa	28.93243	68.34679	8.267212	0.537886	0.800076
12 Pa	28.74324	72.46111	8.512409	0.337346	0.813885
13 Pa	29.00676	68.46616	8.274428	0.593463	0.797083
14 Pa	28.91892	70.07451	8.371052	0.430875	0.807747
15 Pa	28.88514	69.68276	8.347620	0.461969	0.805513

**C.6 Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the preferred role culture scale**

Summary for scale: Mean = 37.4122; Std.Dv. = 5.03448; Valid N: 148;

Coefficient alpha: .445894; Standardized alpha: .435761;

Average inter-item corr.: .049739

Preferred role culture	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Alpha if deleted
1 Pb	34.83784	21.63586	4.651437	0.242261	0.401903
2 Pb	34.64189	21.86500	4.676003	0.231768	0.405652
3 Pb	34.66892	22.80255	4.775201	0.123386	0.435821
4 Pb	34.30405	21.72512	4.661021	0.279159	0.394658
5 Pb	34.59459	23.14646	4.811077	0.117854	0.436492
6 Pb	34.70946	22.27369	4.719501	0.156535	0.426701
7 Pb	35.26351	22.53191	4.746779	0.164555	0.424403
8 Pb	35.60811	23.79237	4.877742	0.055772	0.451200
9 Pb	34.84459	23.67179	4.865367	0.087762	0.442789
10 Pb	35.22973	23.27155	4.824059	0.125640	0.434306
11 Pb	35.21622	23.69650	4.867905	0.101206	0.439456
12 Pb	35.39865	24.84784	4.984760	-0.059997	0.478556
13 Pb	35.14865	23.16709	4.813221	0.124278	0.434753
14 Pb	34.41216	20.89093	4.570660	0.323289	0.377770
15 Pb	34.89189	22.65048	4.759252	0.129701	0.434311

**C.7 Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the preferred achievement culture scale**

Summary for scale: Mean = 40.8311; Std.Dv. = 5.35716; Valid N: 148;

Coefficient alpha: .549766; Standardized alpha: .557996;

Average inter-item corr.: .078472

Preferred achievement culture	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Alpha if deleted
1 Pc	38.22973	27.24452	5.219628	0.018264	0.570381
2 Pc	38.09459	26.07213	5.106088	0.158864	0.540694
3 Pc	38.16216	24.96019	4.996017	0.298377	0.513907
4 Pc	38.04054	24.91727	4.991721	0.278019	0.516946
5 Pc	38.23649	26.12651	5.111410	0.099898	0.556001
6 Pc	38.09459	25.22078	5.022029	0.287808	0.516823
7 Pc	37.95946	24.87673	4.987658	0.278937	0.516635
8 Pc	38.17567	25.22589	5.022539	0.239728	0.524639
9 Pc	37.98649	26.04036	5.102975	0.135265	0.546384
10 Pc	37.98649	24.98630	4.998630	0.279267	0.517014
11 Pc	38.08108	24.38532	4.938149	0.350722	0.502714
12 Pc	38.03378	26.01913	5.100895	0.152874	0.542174
13 Pc	38.00676	25.19590	5.019552	0.252593	0.522251
14 Pc	38.44595	27.19302	5.214693	0.054294	0.559138
15 Pc	38.10135	25.98297	5.097350	0.187670	0.535064

**C.8 Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the preferred support culture scale**

Summary for scale: Mean = 40.8649; Std.Dv. = 7.78158; Valid N: 148;

Coefficient alpha: .734371; Standardized alpha: .736264;

Average inter-item corr.: .158604

Preferred support culture	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Alpha if deleted
1 Pd	38.27703	53.75434	7.331735	0.302685	0.724109
2 Pd	38.26351	53.22110	7.295280	0.385930	0.715874
3 Pd	38.19595	52.27917	7.230434	0.375776	0.716230
4 Pd	38.54730	53.47750	7.312831	0.405860	0.714692
5 Pd	38.43243	52.12381	7.219682	0.383367	0.715371
6 Pd	38.27703	56.37595	7.508392	0.138538	0.741290
7 Pd	38.22297	52.63272	7.254841	0.375970	0.716336
8 Pd	38.25000	53.59290	7.320717	0.295299	0.725109
9 Pd	38.10135	51.64513	7.186455	0.415292	0.711794
10 Pd	37.76351	52.20759	7.225482	0.439158	0.710259
11 Pd	37.77027	52.78506	7.265333	0.365332	0.717468
12 Pd	37.82433	55.60427	7.456827	0.206255	0.733478
13 Pd	37.83784	53.85209	7.338398	0.303701	0.723943
14 Pd	38.22297	54.25433	7.365754	0.311080	0.723090
15 Pd	38.12162	52.98521	7.279094	0.353165	0.718766

**APPENDIX D – MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION, AND CRONBACH  
ALPHA’S FOR COMMITMENT INFORMATION**

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**D.1 Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the affective commitment scale**

Summary for scale: Mean = 21.9797; Std.Dv. = 6.10394; Valid N: 148;  
Coefficient alpha: .745470; Standardized alpha: .749878;  
Average inter-item corr.: .303599

<b>Affective question numbers</b>	<b>Mean if deleted</b>	<b>Var. if deleted</b>	<b>StDv. if deleted</b>	<b>Itm-Totl Correl.</b>	<b>Alpha if deleted</b>
<b>C1</b>	18.75000	26.17398	5.116052	0.555123	0.691616
<b>C4</b>	18.83784	28.01425	5.292849	0.498503	0.706439
<b>C7</b>	19.03378	29.30291	5.413217	0.377300	0.733553
<b>C10</b>	18.93919	30.25982	5.500892	0.285321	0.755321
<b>C13</b>	18.75000	28.61993	5.349760	0.433692	0.720899
<b>C16</b>	18.88514	27.92600	5.284505	0.540154	0.698102
<b>C19</b>	18.68243	28.09510	5.300481	0.565596	0.694266

**D.2 Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the continuance commitment scale**

Summary for scale: Mean = 22.8378; Std.Dv. = 5.69885; Valid N: 148;  
Coefficient alpha: .704084; Standardized alpha: .697832;  
Average inter-item corr.: .251665

<b>Continuance question numbers</b>	<b>Mean if deleted</b>	<b>Var. if deleted</b>	<b>StDv. if deleted</b>	<b>Itm-Totl Correl.</b>	<b>Alpha if deleted</b>
<b>C2</b>	19.64189	23.74338	4.872718	0.460883	0.657847
<b>C5</b>	19.61486	24.49356	4.949097	0.381026	0.680518
<b>C8</b>	19.45946	23.22133	4.818851	0.562136	0.631515
<b>C11</b>	19.62838	25.47676	5.047451	0.390003	0.676653
<b>C14</b>	19.18243	28.98699	5.383956	0.171502	0.721265
<b>C18</b>	19.70946	23.70613	4.868894	0.496420	0.648527
<b>C20</b>	19.79054	24.44937	4.944631	0.424122	0.667981



### D.3 Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the normative commitment scale

Summary for scale: Mean = 22.9054; Std.Dv.= 3.92157; Valid N: 148;  
 Coefficient alpha: .302794; Standardized alpha: .295559;  
 Average inter-item corr.: .057749

<b>Normative question numbers</b>	<b>Mean if deleted</b>	<b>Var. if deleted</b>	<b>Stdv. if deleted</b>	<b>Itm-Totl Correl.</b>	<b>Alpha if deleted</b>
<b>C3</b>	19.25676	14.24489	3.774240	-0.020663	0.348362
<b>C6</b>	19.01351	12.33766	3.512500	0.157635	0.251240
<b>C9</b>	19.94595	13.95654	3.735845	-0.054557	0.388878
<b>C12</b>	19.39865	11.06405	3.326267	0.284908	0.160144
<b>C15</b>	20.25000	11.11993	3.334656	0.242690	0.186101
<b>C17</b>	19.60135	12.73973	3.569276	0.106955	0.283123
<b>C21</b>	19.96622	12.22183	3.495974	0.188097	0.233082

**APPENDIX E – PEARSON’S CHI-SQUARE TEST: RELATIONSHIP  
BETWEEN BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES AND EXISTING  
ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

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**E.1 Pearson’s chi-square: Age of respondents**

Summary Table: Expected Frequencies (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)

Pearson Chi-square: 10.3086, df=9, p=.326098

Age	Existing Power culture	Existing Role culture	Existing Achievement culture	Existing Support culture	Row Totals
<b>21 - 30</b>	8	3	3	0	14
<b>31 - 40</b>	35	11	9	10	65
<b>41 - 50</b>	7	7	4	6	24
<b>51 +</b>	18	12	3	7	40
<b>All Grps</b>	68	33	19	23	143

**E.2 Pearson’s chi-square: Department respondents work in**

Summary Table: Expected Frequencies (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)

Pearson Chi-square: 7.54247, df=15, p=.940808

Department	Existing Power culture	Existing Role culture	Existing Achievement culture	Existing Support culture	Row Totals
<b>Financial</b>	11	4	4	2	21
<b>Corporate</b>	6	4	2	5	17
<b>Protection</b>	2	2	1	0	5
<b>Community</b>	17	11	5	6	39
<b>Economic</b>	6	1	1	2	10
<b>Technical</b>	26	11	6	8	51
<b>All Grps</b>	68	33	19	23	143

**E.3 Pearson’s chi-square: Whether or not the respondent has a disability**

Summary Frequency Table (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)

Pearson Chi-square: 3.96901, df=3, p=.264836

Disability	Existing Power culture	Existing Role culture	Existing Achievement culture	Existing Support culture	Row Totals
<b>Yes</b>	9	9	2	5	25
<b>No</b>	59	24	17	18	118
<b>All Grps</b>	68	33	19	23	143

**E.4 Pearson's chi-square: Education level of respondents**

Summary Table: Expected Frequencies (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)

Pearson Chi-square: 9.11101, df=12, p=.693417

Education	Existing Power culture	Existing Role culture	Existing Achievement culture	Existing Support culture	Row Totals
< Grade 11	24	17	9	12	62
Grade 12	15	8	5	4	32
Diploma/Cert	23	6	5	7	41
B-Degree	5	1	0	0	6
PostGrad-Degree	1	1	0	0	2
All Grps	68	33	19	23	143

**E.5 Pearson's chi-square: Whether respondent works in the field or in an office**

Summary Frequency Table (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)

Pearson Chi-square: 1.10521, df=3, p=.775816

Office/Field worker	Existing Power culture	Existing Role culture	Existing Achievement culture	Existing Support culture	Row Totals
Office Bound	39	16	9	13	77
Field Worker	29	17	10	10	66
All Grps	68	33	19	23	143

**E.6 Pearson's chi-square: Gender of respondents**

Summary Table: Expected Frequencies (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)

Pearson Chi-square: 1.12875, df=3, p=.770139

Gender	Existing Power culture	Existing Role culture	Existing Achievement culture	Existing Support culture	Row Totals
Male	36	21	10	13	80
Female	32	12	9	10	63
All Grps	68	33	19	23	143

**E.7 Pearson's chi-square: Post level of respondents**

Summary Table: Expected Frequencies (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)

Pearson Chi-square: 8.81270, df=15, p=.887096

PostLevel	Existing Power culture	Existing Role culture	Existing Achievement culture	Existing Support culture	Row Totals
Section 57	1	1	0	0	2
Levels 1 - 4	5	3	1	1	10
Levels 5 - 7	22	11	4	5	42
Levels 8 - 10	12	2	4	3	21
Levels 11 - 12	9	3	4	4	20
Levels 13 - 15	19	13	6	10	48
All Grps	68	33	19	23	143

**E.8 Pearson's chi-square: Length of service of respondent**

Summary Frequency Table (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)

Pearson Chi-square: 12.4137, df=12, p=.413063

Service	Existing Power culture	Existing Role culture	Existing Achievement culture	Existing Support culture	Row Totals
0 - 1	3	2	2	0	7
1 - 2	10	4	2	1	17
3 - 4	9	2	1	2	14
5 - 6	6	0	0	1	7
6+	40	25	14	19	98
All Grps	68	33	19	23	143

**E.9 Pearson's chi-square: Whether respondent supervises employees**

Summary Frequency Table (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)

Pearson Chi-square: 11.3397, df=9, p=.253159

Supervise	Existing Power culture	Existing Role culture	Existing Achievement culture	Existing Support culture	Row Totals
None	37	19	10	15	81
1 - 5	21	8	4	1	34
6 - 10	3	1	3	2	9
10+	7	5	2	5	19
All Grps	68	33	19	23	143

**E.10 Pearson's chi-square: Town which respondents are situated**

Summary Table: Expected Frequencies (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)

Pearson Chi-square: 4.65943, df=3, p=.198510

<b>Town</b>	<b>Existing Power culture</b>	<b>Existing Role culture</b>	<b>Existing Achievement culture</b>	<b>Existing Support culture</b>	<b>Row Totals</b>
<b>Town A</b>	46	24	10	19	99
<b>Town B</b>	22	9	9	4	44
<b>All Grps</b>	68	33	19	23	143

**APPENDIX F – PEARSON’S CHI-SQUARE TEST: RELATIONSHIP  
BETWEEN BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES AND PREFERRED  
ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

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**F.1 Pearson’s chi-square: Age of respondents**

Summary Table: Expected Frequencies (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)  
Pearson Chi-square: 16.7120, df=9, p=.053436

Age	Preferred Power culture	Preferred Role culture	Preferred Achievement culture	Preferred Support culture	Row Totals
<b>21 - 30</b>	1	4	3	4	12
<b>31 - 40</b>	13	11	15	27	66
<b>41 - 50</b>	5	2	5	11	23
<b>51 +</b>	2	2	18	16	38
<b>All Grps</b>	21	19	41	58	139

**F.2 Pearson’s chi-square: Department respondents work in**

Summary Table: Expected Frequencies (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)  
Pearson Chi-square: 33.1347, df=15, p=.004501

Department	Preferred Power culture	Preferred Role culture	Preferred Achievement culture	Preferred Support culture	Row Totals
<b>Financial</b>	3	7	6	3	19
<b>Corporate</b>	7	0	3	6	16
<b>Protection</b>	0	3	1	2	6
<b>Community</b>	4	3	13	17	37
<b>Economic</b>	1	1	3	5	10
<b>Technical</b>	6	5	15	25	51
<b>All Grps</b>	21	19	41	58	139

**F.3 Pearson’s chi-square: Whether or not the respondent has a disability**

Summary Frequency Table (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)  
Pearson Chi-square: .857280, df=3, p=.835723

Disability	Preferred Power culture	Preferred Role culture	Preferred Achievement culture	Preferred Support culture	Row Totals
<b>Yes</b>	5	3	6	10	24
<b>No</b>	16	16	35	48	115
<b>All Grps</b>	21	19	41	58	139

#### F.4 Pearson's chi-square: Education level of respondents

Summary Table: Expected Frequencies (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)

Pearson Chi-square: 24.5331, df=12, p=.017207

Education	Preferred Power culture	Preferred Role culture	Preferred Achievement culture	Preferred Support culture	Row Totals
< Grade 11	10	3	21	24	58
Grade 12	7	6	3	14	30
Diploma/Cert	3	9	11	20	43
B-Degree	1	1	4	0	6
PostGrad-Degree	0	0	2	0	2
All Grps	21	19	41	58	139

#### F.5 Pearson's chi-square: Whether respondent works in the field or in an office

Summary Frequency Table (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)

Pearson Chi-square: 3.60075, df=3, p=.307934

Office/Field worker	Preferred Power culture	Preferred Role culture	Preferred Achievement culture	Preferred Support culture	Row Totals
Office Bound	12	14	20	30	76
Field Worker	9	5	21	28	63
All Grps	21	19	41	58	139

#### F.6 Pearson's chi-square: Gender of respondents

Summary Table: Expected Frequencies (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)

Pearson Chi-square: 6.92746, df=3, p=.074253

Gender	Preferred Power culture	Preferred Role culture	Preferred Achievement culture	Preferred Support culture	Row Totals
Male	11	8	30	30	79
Female	10	11	11	28	60
All Grps	21	19	41	58	139

### F.7 Pearson's chi-square: Post level of respondents

Summary Table: Expected Frequencies (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)  
 Pearson Chi-square: 22.3715, df=15, p=.098451

Post Level	Preferred Power culture	Preferred Role culture	Preferred Achievement culture	Preferred Support culture	Row Totals
Section 57	1	0	1	0	2
Levels 1 - 4	1	0	5	4	10
Levels 5 - 7	2	11	14	15	42
Levels 8 - 10	5	3	3	9	20
Levels 11 - 12	2	3	5	10	20
Levels 13 - 15	10	2	13	20	45
All Grps	21	19	41	58	139

### F.8 Pearson's chi-square: Length of service of respondent

Summary Frequency Table (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)  
 Pearson Chi-square: 8.21634, df=12, p=.767998

Service	Preferred Power culture	Preferred Role culture	Preferred Achievement culture	Preferred Support culture	Row Totals
0 - 1	2	1	1	3	7
1 - 2	2	2	9	5	18
3 - 4	2	2	1	7	12
5 - 6	1	1	1	2	5
6+	14	13	29	41	97
All Grps	21	19	41	58	139

### F.9 Pearson's chi-square: Whether respondent supervises employees

Summary Frequency Table (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)  
 Pearson Chi-square: 7.43648, df=9, p=.591775

Supervise	Preferred Power culture	Preferred Role culture	Preferred Achievement culture	Preferred Support culture	Row Totals
None	13	9	22	33	77
1 - 5	7	6	9	13	35
6 - 10	1	2	4	2	9
10+	0	2	6	10	18
All Grps	21	19	41	58	139



### F.10 Pearson's chi-square: Town which respondents are situated

Summary Table: Expected Frequencies (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)  
 Pearson Chi-square: 1.53884, df=3, p=.673337

<b>Town</b>	<b>Preferred Power culture</b>	<b>Preferred Role culture</b>	<b>Preferred Achievement culture</b>	<b>Preferred Support culture</b>	<b>Row Totals</b>
<b>Town A</b>	14	12	28	44	98
<b>Town B</b>	7	7	13	14	41
<b>All Grps</b>	21	19	41	58	139

**APPENDIX G – PEARSON’S CHI-SQUARE TEST: RELATIONSHIP  
BETWEEN BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES AND ORGANISATIONAL  
COMMITMENT**

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**G.1 Pearson’s chi-square: Age of respondents**

Summary Table: Expected Frequencies (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)  
Pearson Chi-square: 7.60167, df=6, p=.268773

Age	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment	Row Totals
<b>21 - 30</b>	4	4	6	14
<b>31 - 40</b>	17	14	28	59
<b>41 - 50</b>	7	6	9	22
<b>51 +</b>	12	19	10	41
<b>All Grps</b>	40	43	53	136

**G.2 Pearson’s chi-square: Department respondents work in**

Summary Table: Expected Frequencies (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)  
Pearson Chi-square: 13.5104, df=10, p=.196535

Department	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment	Row Totals
<b>Financial</b>	2	10	9	21
<b>Corporate</b>	7	4	5	16
<b>Protection</b>	2	2	2	6
<b>Community</b>	14	5	17	36
<b>Economic</b>	3	3	2	8
<b>Technical</b>	12	19	18	49
<b>All Grps</b>	40	43	53	136

**G.3 Pearson’s chi-square: Whether or not the respondent has a disability**

Summary Frequency Table (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)  
Pearson Chi-square: 3.58315, df=2, p=.166703

Disability	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment	Row Totals
<b>Yes</b>	6	11	6	23
<b>No</b>	34	32	47	113
<b>All Grps</b>	40	43	53	136

#### G.4 Pearson's chi-square: Education level of respondents

Summary Table: Expected Frequencies (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)  
 Pearson Chi-square: 18.9351, df=8, p=.015218

Education Level	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment	Row Totals
< Grade 11	24	18	14	56
Grade 12	9	13	11	33
Diploma/Cert	4	11	24	39
B-Degree	2	1	3	6
PostGrad-Degree	1	0	1	2
All Grps	40	43	53	136

#### G.5 Pearson's chi-square: Whether respondent works in the field or in an office

Summary Frequency Table (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)  
 Pearson Chi-square: 10.0118, df=2, p=.006700

Office or Field worker	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment	Row Totals
Office Bound	14	24	36	74
Field Worker	26	19	17	62
All Grps	40	43	53	136

#### G.6 Pearson's chi-square: Gender of respondents

Summary Table: Expected Frequencies (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)  
 Pearson Chi-square: 6.57071, df=2, p=.037431

Gender	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment	Row Totals
Male	26	27	22	75
Female	14	16	31	61
All Grps	40	43	53	136

### G.7 Pearson's chi-square: Post level of respondents

Summary Table: Expected Frequencies (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)  
 Pearson Chi-square: 19.3687, df=10, p=.035834

Post Level	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment	Row Totals
Section 57	1	1	0	2
Levels 1 - 4	1	4	3	8
Levels 5 - 7	8	16	20	44
Levels 8 - 10	4	3	13	20
Levels 11 - 12	5	7	6	18
Levels 13 - 15	21	12	11	44
All Grps	40	43	53	136

### G.8 Pearson's chi-square: Length of service of respondent

Summary Frequency Table (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)  
 Pearson Chi-square: 8.90179, df=8, p=.350660

Service	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment	Row Totals
0 - 1	3	1	2	6
1 - 2	3	3	11	17
3 - 4	3	3	5	11
5 - 6	3	1	3	7
6+	28	35	32	95
All Grps	40	43	53	136

### G.9 Pearson's chi-square: Whether respondent supervises employees

Summary Frequency Table (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)  
 Pearson Chi-square: 5.34850, df=6, p=.499958

Supervise	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment	Row Totals
None	26	23	26	75
1 - 5	8	11	15	34
6 - 10	0	3	5	8
10+	6	6	7	19
All Grps	40	43	53	136

**G.10 Pearson's chi-square: Town which respondents are situated**

Summary Table: Expected Frequencies (Sheet1 in analysis\_data)

Pearson Chi-square: 1.40196, df=2, p=.496102

<b>Town</b>	<b>Affective Commitment</b>	<b>Continuance Commitment</b>	<b>Normative Commitment</b>	<b>Row Totals</b>
<b>Town A</b>	26	33	37	96
<b>Town B</b>	14	10	16	40
<b>All Grps</b>	40	43	53	136

## APPENDIX H – WILKS’ LAMBDA TEST: DIFFERENCE BETWEEN BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES AND ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE GAP

### H.1 Wilks’ Lambda test: Age of respondents

Multivariate tests for repeated measure: DV\_1 Sigma-restricted parameterization  
Effective hypothesis decomposition

	Test	Value	F	Effect df	Error df	p
<b>SCALE</b>	Wilks	0.688475	21.41763	3	142.0000	0.000000

### H.2 Wilks’ Lambda test: Departments respondents work in

Multivariate tests for repeated measure: DV\_1 Sigma-restricted parameterization  
Effective hypothesis decomposition

	Test	Value	F	Effect df	Error df	p
<b>SCALE</b>	Wilks	0.716613	18.45446	3	140.0000	0.000000

### H.3 Wilks’ Lambda test: Whether the respondent has a disability or not

Multivariate tests for repeated measure: DV\_1 Sigma-restricted parameterization  
Effective hypothesis decomposition

	Test	Value	F	Effect df	Error df	p
<b>SCALE</b>	Wilks	0.736903	17.13746	3	144	0.000000

### H.4 Wilks’ Lambda test: The education level of respondents

Multivariate tests for repeated measure: DV\_1 Sigma-restricted parameterization  
Effective hypothesis decomposition

	Test	Value	F	Effect df	Error df	p
<b>SCALE</b>	Wilks	0.759616	14.87340	3	141.0000	0.000000

### H.5 Wilks’ Lambda test: Whether the respondents work in the field or in an office

Multivariate tests for repeated measure: DV\_1 Sigma-restricted parameterization  
Effective hypothesis decomposition

	Test	Value	F	Effect df	Error df	p
<b>SCALE</b>	Wilks	0.610017	30.68627	3	144	0.000000

**H.6 Wilks' Lambda test: Gender of respondents**

Multivariate tests for repeated measure: DV\_1 Sigma-restricted parameterization  
Effective hypothesis decomposition

	Test	Value	F	Effect	Error	p
				df	df	
<b>SCALE</b>	Wilks	0.613321	30.26241	3	144	0.000000

**H.7 Wilks' Lambda test: Post level of respondents**

Multivariate tests for repeated measure: DV\_1 Sigma-restricted parameterization  
Effective hypothesis decomposition

	Test	Value	F	Effect	Error	p
				df	df	
<b>SCALE</b>	Wilks	0.800467	11.63265	3	140.0000	0.000001

**H.8 Wilks' Lambda test: Length of service of respondents**

Multivariate tests for repeated measure: DV\_1 Sigma-restricted parameterization  
Effective hypothesis decomposition

	Test	Value	F	Effect	Error	p
				df	df	
<b>SCALE</b>	Wilks	0.727663	17.59034	3	141.0000	0.000000

**H.9 Wilks' Lambda test: Whether the respondents supervise any employees**

Multivariate tests for repeated measure: DV\_1 Sigma-restricted parameterization  
Effective hypothesis decomposition

	Test	Value	F	Effect	Error	p
				df	df	
<b>SCALE</b>	Wilks	0.735808	16.99507	3	142.0000	0.000000

**H.10 Wilks' Lambda test: Town in which respondents work**

Multivariate tests for repeated measure: DV\_1 Sigma-restricted parameterization  
Effective hypothesis decomposition

	Test	Value	F	Effect	Error	p
				df	df	
<b>SCALE</b>	Wilks	0.634513	27.64861	3	144	0.000000