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WESTERN CAPE

THE IMPACT OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE ON
ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR WITHIN
THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE IN THE
WESTERN CAPE



UNIVERSITY *of the*
WESTERN CAPE

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for the degree of Magister Commercii in the Department of
Industrial Psychology, University of the Western Cape.

Supervisor: Prof. (Adv.) Charles OK Allen-Ile

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KEYWORDS

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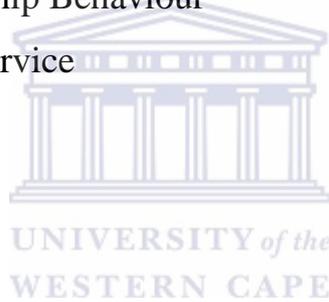
South Africa

Transformation

Service Delivery

Police Member

Police Culture



ABSTRACT

THE IMPACT OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE ON ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR WITHIN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE IN THE WESTERN CAPE

B.P. Abrahams

M.Com minithesis, Department of Industrial Psychology, University of the Western Cape.

Research evidence suggests that strengthening the cultural roots of an organisation (Organisational Culture) can lead to the observance of increased behaviours that goes beyond the call of duty (Organisational Citizenship Behaviour) across all sectors within a given organisation. Organisational cultures that encourage innovation, sense of togetherness and positive competition, are ideal in encouraging employees to perform beyond normal expectations in organisations. Organisational culture is therefore a critical element that contributes to organisational success and effectiveness. The focus of this study is to determine the impact that the organisational culture of the South African Police Service, as an organisation, has on the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour of its members in the Western Cape.

The empirical study involved the participation of 127 respondents from three of the largest police stations in the Western Cape. A survey was conducted using the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) and the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (OCBS) to assess the hypothesised relationship between the variables. An analysis of the results suggests that all of the dimensions of Organisational Culture (Clan, Adhocracy, Hierarchy and Market) are positively related to all of the dimensions of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (Altruism, Sportsmanship, Civic Virtue, Conscientiousness and Courtesy).

DECLARATION

I declare that *The Impact of Organisational Culture on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour within the South African Police Service in the Western Cape* is my own work, that it has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged as complete references.

Brian Peter Abrahams



January 2016

Signed.....

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to the countless men and women in blue, who selflessly sacrificed their lives to make this beautiful country of ours not just a safer place to live in, but also a better place to raise our children in.

I salute you and thank you.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost I wish to thank our Heavenly Father for granting me all the blessings needed to have completed this study. All praise belongs to God.

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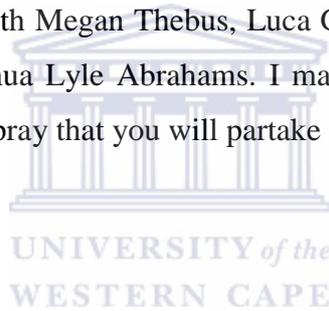


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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction to the study

1.1 Introduction

Since democracy was constitutionalised in South Africa, the country has undergone rapid social change which was accompanied by transformation of organisations in both the public and private sectors. During the period of transition from an authoritarian state to a democratic society, the South African Police Service (SAPS), as a member of the Criminal Justice Cluster of the state, embarked on a process of transformation. This transformation process intended to facilitate the change of the former South African Police (SAP), from a force which was once dedicated to the enforcement of Apartheid, to a service orientated institution, namely the South African Police Service.

In terms of its core functions, structure and the services that it provides to the communities of South Africa, the SAPS can be viewed as an organisation (Smit, 1996). According to Blau and Scott (1963), as cited in Angelopulo (1989), formal organisations are formed to achieve certain goals and reflect a formal hierarchical structure. Blau and Scott further argue that, when applying rules which are aimed at influencing behaviour to attain these goals, these hierarchical structures operate according to predetermined lines of communications and authority.

Organisational behaviour, which is based on the social and behavioural sciences drawing knowledge from fields like Psychology and Sociology, positions the person at work as essential to its focus. It therefore specialises in the field of human behaviour within organisations as jobs in the service industry are characterised by a substantial amount of interaction with the organisation's customers. According to Robbins, Judge, Odendaal and Roodt (2009), managers must ensure that customers are pleased no matter what it takes as organisations cannot exist without these customers.

Robbins et al., (2009), further argues that management needs to create a customer-responsive culture in which employees are friendly, courteous, accessible,

knowledgeable, prompt in responding to customer needs, and willing to do what is necessary to please the customer.

In order to please the customer, remain competitive and to survive in an uncertain business world, organisations are dependent on their individual members who are willing to do more than their usual job requirements and produce performances that are beyond their organisation's formal expectations. These behaviours, which often go beyond the organisation's formal expectations, even though it is not required by formal role obligations, nor elicited by financial rewards, are termed: "Organisational Citizenship Behaviours" (Bateman & Organ, 1983).

This study will attempt to determine the impact that the Organisational Culture (OC) of the SAPS, as an organisation, has on the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) of its members.

1.2 Background



The transformation process of the Police, from the South African Police force to the South African Police Service, has not been without its problems. According to Schwartz (2007) the SAP, during the apartheid years, was viewed as "...the upholders of an illegitimate government and its oppressive laws and for seeking confessions heavy-handedly" (p. 23). Given the historical mandate of the SAPS and despite concerted efforts at reformation and transformation, the public's perception of the police, as enforcers of the apartheid policy, could not be wiped away easily.

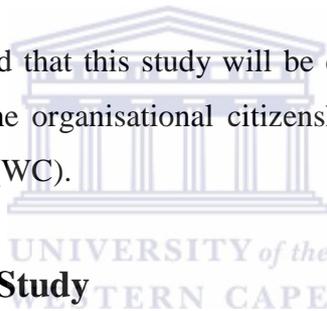
The poor public image of the police, coupled by poor service delivery and allegations of police corruption, made it difficult for communities to have confidence in the ability of the SAPS to adapt quickly to changes in its outside environment (Smit, 1996).

Due to society's loss of faith in the police and the criminal justice system, crime and the fear of crime has become a serious concern for most South Africans. In addition the shift from the politics of oppression to negotiation was accompanied by an increase instead of a decrease in the levels of social violence (Berg, 2004).

According to Gqada (2004), theoretical evidence suggests that a police culture, which is characterised by paramilitary, bureaucratic, rigid systems and procedures, is still prevalent in the SAPS. More recently Pruitt (2010) asserted that the working conditions, low salaries and new regulations of the SAPS, were troublesome for police members. Pruitt further argues that, due to the above mentioned reasons, police members were not encouraged to report to duty in order to fulfil their responsibilities and engage with their communities as they were instructed.

Petrus (2014) asserts the most significant plan that the SAPS could employ would be to transform its political culture, i.e. its value system, attitudes and behaviour, otherwise all other efforts would be in vain. Petrus further states “for the police to succeed in their efforts of transformation at a cultural level, the wider South African public needs to shift its thinking about the police and what they represent” (p. 77).

It is against this background that this study will be conducted to assess the impact of organisational culture on the organisational citizenship behaviour of members of the SAPS in the Western Cape (WC).



1.3 Motivation for the Study

Mohanty and Rath (2012) asserts that employer expectations have increased in anticipation of certain discretionary behaviours out of their employees which fall outside the scope of workplace requirements and reward systems. In essence, this means that even though certain behaviours are not required by the employee's contract and is not recognised by the reward systems, it is still an expectation of the employers (p. 65).

There is a paucity of scientific knowledge regarding the factors associated with members of the SAPS performing duties and services that fall outside the scope of workplace requirements and reward systems in the WC. This study aims to augment the current body of knowledge for practitioners and researchers in Industrial and Organisational Psychology in South Africa. Additionally, the results of this study will

be utilised to make recommendations to the SAPS regarding optimised service delivery to the communities it seeks to serve.

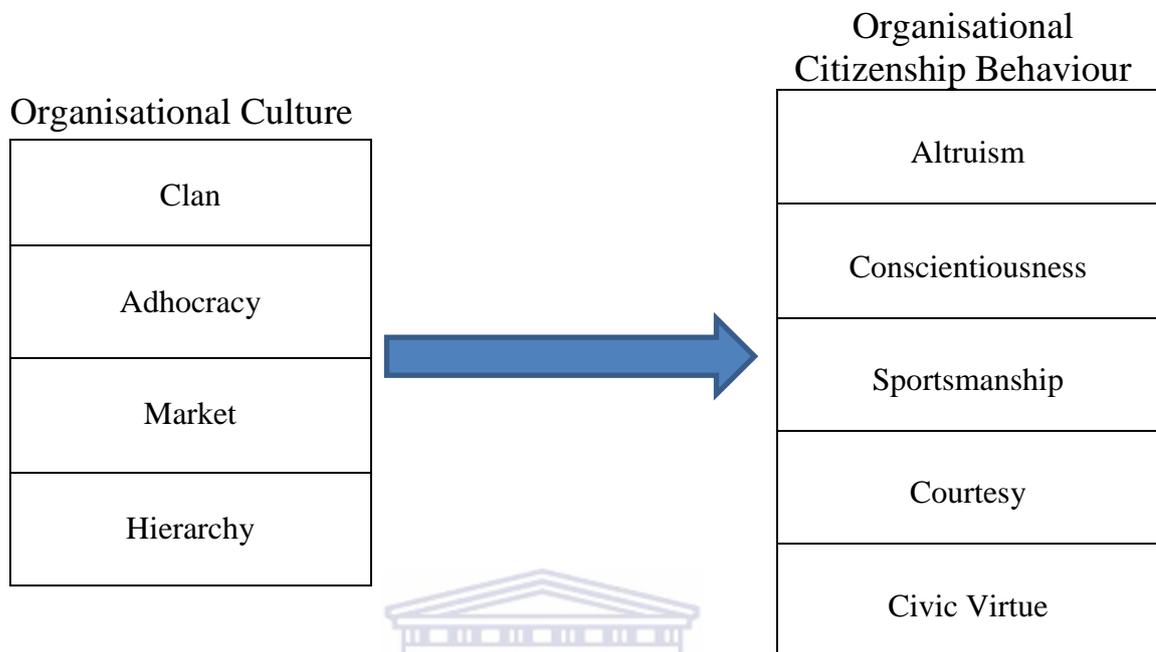


Figure 1: The conceptual model of the study.

The above figure is the conceptual model on which the study is based. The model hypothesises that the dimensions of Organisational Culture, namely Clan, Adhocracy, Market and Hierarchy, has an impact on the dimensions of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, namely Altruism, Conscientiousness, Sportsmanship, Courtesy and Civic Virtue.

1.4 Problem Statement

A central principle of science is that a problem must generally be known to a researcher if the researcher wants to solve the problem. According to Kerlinger (1986) a problem is a speculative sentence or statement that asks whether a relation exists between two or more variables. The answer to the question is what is being sought by conducting research.

The focus of this study is to determine the extent to which the OC of the SAPS has an impact on the occurrence of OCB amongst its members in the WC. According to Gqada (2004), research evidence suggests that service delivery in public institutions, with specific reference to the SAPS, is relatively poor and often characterised by inefficiency, which is further exacerbated by a lack of a customer-orientated culture.

Mofomme and Barnes (2004) are of the opinion that the SAPS is in need of members capable of delivering quality service as customer satisfaction is dependent on the value of the services provided. They further argue that the members of the SAPS will only be able to deliver quality services if they themselves are also satisfied in their own work environment.

More recently, Petrus (2014), in reference to the Andries Tatane and Marikana incidents, aptly states:

... despite the South African government's vision of a transformed police service, a vision that it attempted to bring to life through the enactment of legislation intended to transform the service, the intended transformation has seemingly not occurred. The Tatane case and the Marikana case are but two of the most striking examples that show that at a fundamental level the police service of South Africa remains trapped in the same culture as that of the South African Police (SAP) of the apartheid era. Why, despite the legislation to transform the police and law enforcement structures of the country, do incidents like Marikana continue to happen? (p. 75)

It is for this reason that the researcher poses the following research problem statement in the form of a question: What is the impact that the dimensions of OC have on the OCB of members of the SAPS in the WC?

1.5 Research Methodology

This section provides only a brief outline of the research methodology employed in this study. A more detailed account of the research methodology employed in this study is provided in Chapter Four.

A distinction can be made between qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. Qualitative research approaches are relatively more open and wider than quantitative research approaches although there are some commonalities between the two approaches.

The aim of quantitative research is to describe and explain phenomena as they appear in the real world, while the aim of qualitative research is to understand the phenomena under investigation (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006). The basic aim of quantitative research is to describe and explain an object, situation or phenomena, in order to generalise the findings of the research to the wider population or community (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002). Since the study centres on the hypothesised impact that the OC of the SAPS may have on the performance of OCB, and considering the large sample size, the quantitative approach to research would be more appropriate.

This is a cross-sectional study designed to collect quantitative data and to employ quantitative statistical techniques in the analysis of the collected data. The study is descriptive in nature as it attempts to describe the relationships between variables.

1.6 Plan of the Study

Chapter One outlined the introduction, background, motivation and objective of the research topic. It also described how the study will be approached and how the data will be collected. In addition it also provided the problem statement of the study in the form of a question and specified the objective of the study.

Chapter Two will review the relevant literature which will include research information that has already been conducted from which will serve to inform this study.

Chapter Three will portray an overview of the research design that will be used in this study. Motivation will be provided for why a particular sampling type will be used as well as a description of the research instruments that will be used.

Chapter Four will include the discussion of results and the reporting thereof. Tables will also be used with an interpretation of the data presented.

Chapter Five will essentially be used to draw a conclusion to the study and to provide recommendations to possible future researchers and the SAPS on how to overcome the limitations of the present study.

1.7 Conclusion

This chapter included the introduction to this study, background and motivation, research methodology as well as the outline of the chapters. The main focus of this study is to determine the impact of organisational culture on the occurrence of organisational citizenship behaviours of police members in the WC. In the next chapter a more detailed discussion of the concepts of OC and OCB will be presented.



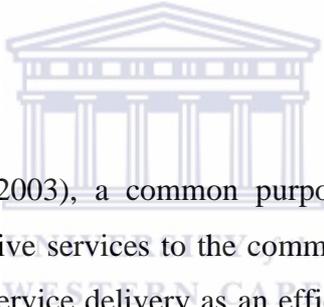
CHAPTER TWO

Literature review

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter the researcher will elaborate on the constructs of OC and OCB which will essentially include research information regarding the constructs that has already been conducted. However, the practice of OC and the hypothesised impact that it may have on the occurrence of OCB in the SAPS, does not occur in a vacuum. In order to have a better understanding of the context under which the concepts of OC and OCB occur, the researcher deems it as a necessity to first explain the concepts of service delivery and police culture.

2.2 Service delivery



According to Sonderling (2003), a common purpose amongst police organisations globally, is to deliver effective services to the communities in which they are located. Gqada (2004) summarises service delivery as an efficient tool to provide public goods or services in order to satisfy the various needs of the citizens by undertaking determined activities and allocating sufficient resources in order for the services to be both efficient and effective. Gqada further argues that government needs to ensure that its public institutions become centres that deliver quality services to the broader community.

Sonderling and Bothma (2005) assert that in essence the SAPS stands for service delivery, which is in line with its own mission and government strategy. Schwartz (2007) argues that, in an effort to involve the communities in the fight against crime, there has been a definitive trend over the last few decades by police agencies to move away from traditional crime-fighting techniques.

Steyn (2007) is of the opinion that the social and political contexts within which policing in South Africa would occur in the future, were completely redefined by the

first democratic elections in 1994. The newly elected African National Congress-led government, in an effort to distance the police from its inherited negative image, recognised the need to fundamentally reassess and transform the nature and style of policing in South Africa (Meyer & Steyn, 2009; Pruitt, 2010; Zondi, 2012).

In terms of the Interim Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1993), s. 214, the South African Police Service was established in January 1995 (Steyn, 2007). In order to ensure effective and efficient service delivery by all state departments, government formulated new laws and policies such as, amongst others, the South African Police Service Act, 1995 (Act 68 of 1995), the Constitutional Act, 1996, (Act 108 of 1996), and the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (Batho Pele), 1997 (Zondi, 2012).

Aldridge and Stoker (2002) argue that public services were established by government in an effort to advance the quality of their citizen's lives. They further argue that public service is reliant on the taxpayer's money to establish or sustain a service in order to contribute to the enhancement of the community. Okafor, Fatile and Ejalonibu (2014), views public service deliveries as the results of the intentions of government and its institutions, and the actions undertaken by the people tasked by government institutions to deliver such services.

2.2.1 Service delivery according to Batho Pele principles

The term Batho Pele, which comes from the Sesotho language, can be translated literally into the English language as 'people first' (Russell & Bvuma, 2001, p. 245). Ngobane (2006) views the provision of public services in a civilised society not as a privilege, but as a legitimate expectation of the citizen. In a similar vein Pretorius (2006), argues that access to effective public services in post-apartheid South Africa, is no longer viewed as a right to be enjoyed by a privileged few only, but that such services are now rightfully claimed by all residents.

In order to ensure a public service that is efficient, effective and economical, government introduced a number of White Papers relating to the transformation of the

South African public service (Crous, 2004). Sibanda (2012) argues that the transformation initiative of the public service in South Africa, had as its ultimate goal the improvement of service delivery whilst emphasising the importance of a customer or citizen focussed ethos. The White Paper on Transforming Service Delivery of 1997 (Batho Pele), advocates that governmental departments deliver quality services according to the eight national service delivery principles, as discussed hereunder.

2.2.1.1 Consulting users of service

In terms of this principle, the public should be consulted about the level and quality of public services that they receive and, wherever possible, should have a choice in the services that they are offered.

2.2.1.2 Setting service standards

This principle dictates that the public should be informed about the level and quality of public services that they will receive so that they can be aware of what to expect. Service standards must be realistically set, precise and measurable, which will enable the users thereof to determine whether they are receiving the services according to the standards as promised (Ngobane, 2006).

2.2.1.3 Increasing access

According to this principle each and every citizen of the country should have equal access to the services to which they are entitled. In addition government departments must implement special programmes in order to ensure improved service delivery to physically, socially and culturally disadvantaged persons.

2.2.1.4 Ensuring courtesy

This principle dictates that, regardless of the social status of the person, public servants must treat every citizen with due courtesy and consideration. This implies that public

servants must treat members of the public as customers who are entitled to receive the highest standard of service from them.

2.2.1.5 Providing more useful information

According to this principle government departments must provide timely, full and accurate information regarding the public services that they are providing and must, in addition, specify who are entitled to receive them.

2.2.1.6 Increasing openness and transparency

This principle dictates that citizens have a right to know how national and provincial departments are run, how well they are performing, the costs involved to the public, and who is ultimately in charge of that particular department.

2.2.1.7 Redress

According to the principle of Redress, a customer is entitled to an apology, a full explanation and a speedy and effective remedy, should a promised standard of service not be delivered. Mechanisms for the recording of any public dissatisfaction must be established and public servants must be encouraged to view complaints as an opportunity to improve service delivery.

2.2.1.8 Value for money

In order for the citizen to receive the best possible value for money, public services should be provided in an economic, efficient and effective manner.

It is the opinion of Gqada (2004), that the proclamation of the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery of 1997, also known as the Batho Pele principles, was a clear indication on the part of government to change the culture in the public institutions. This was done in order to mirror the more customer-services approach of

the private sector. Gqada further argues that the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery of 1997, did not only serve as a framework and implementation strategy to guide the transformation of public service delivery, but that it would also serve as a means for the public to hold the public servants to account for the manner in which they distribute their services.

2.3 The culture of police organisations

It is the view of Stenner (2009) that a re-examination began by scholars of police culture, or cop culture, and its resultant impact on efforts to reform. This, according to Stenner, is the result of the police service attempting to change its mode of operation to align itself with its new status as a police service rather than a police force.

Petrus (2014) refers to the complexity of the concept of ‘police culture’ by pointing out that there are a variety of ways in which the concept can be defined and understood (p. 75). Fielding (1984), whilst exploring police culture, asserts that a distinction needs to be made between the police organisation and the police occupation.

Paoline (2003) views the locus of cultural influence as one of the core differences between an occupational culture and an organisational culture. Paoline continues to provide the following explanation: “While occupational cultures originate and are maintained by front-line workers (Van Maanen & Barley, 1984), organisational cultures are usually defined from the top of the organization down (Schein, 1992)”, (p. 204).

In a similar vein Reuss-Ianni (1983), based on her research done on the New York Police Department, explained the make-up and existence of two cultures of policing, namely street cop culture and management cop culture, as follows:

Now there are two cultures that confront each other in the department: a street cop culture of the “good old days,” working class in origin and temperament, whose members see themselves as cops for the rest of their careers, and a management cop culture, more middle class, whose education and mobility have made them eligible for an alternate career outside of policing, which makes them less dependent on and less loyal to street cop culture. (p. 121)

McLaughlin and Muncie (2001) views the 'cop culture' as a result of group socialisation, the work environment, and the institutional routine of police work (as cited in Mofomme & Barnes, 2004, p. 74). Reiner (1985) identified police culture as the way in which police members view the world by stating that "an understanding of how police officers see the social world and their role in it - 'cop culture' - is crucial to an analysis of what they do" (as cited in Coombe, 2013, p. 85).

It is the opinion of Steyn (2007) that the SAPS can essentially also be viewed as a subculture. Steyn bases his argument on the fact that each and every new member joining the SAPS, also brings along to the organisation attributes of his or her own cultural background.

As mentioned previously, the practice of organisational culture in the SAPS does not occur in a vacuum. In reference to the culture of the SAPS, Faull (2011) asserts:

Understanding police occupational culture requires cognisance of the legal framework in which police are required to operate, juxtaposed with the seemingly insurmountable task (in South Africa at least) of bringing an end to the threat of crime. Restricted by law... SAPS members inevitably develop their own sets of rules and guidelines according to which they fulfil their mandate as best as they can. Some of these may not be considered acceptable within the integrity framework of the country or organisation but they may be deemed necessary by those who use them as tools to do their job. (p. 9)

Van Maanen (1974) views the donning of a police member's uniform as that person's entry into a distinct subculture, that is governed by norms and values which serves to manage the strains created by their unique role in the community. Loftus (2009) argues that, despite a variety of definitions, there is still a commonly held view that police culture is strengthened by "a distinctive set of norms, beliefs and values which determines their [the police's] behaviour, both amongst themselves and operationally out on the streets" (p. 3). Petrus (2014) is of the opinion that these distinctive sets of norms, beliefs and values, ultimately produces certain characteristics that define police culture.

2.3.1 Characteristics of police cultures

Reiner (1992), who used Skolnick's (1996) analysis of police culture as the basis for his understanding of the culture, subsequently identified the following six common characteristics of police culture, or 'cop culture' as he describes it, as follows:

2.3.1.1 Suspicion

As part of the daily execution of their duties, most police members are often suspicious of the people they come into contact with, or the situations in which they find themselves. Reiner (1992) views a police member's suspiciousness as "... a product of the need to keep a look-out for signs of trouble, potential danger, authority and clues to offences" (p. 114).

2.3.1.2 Isolation/ solidarity

Reiner (1992) suggests that this characteristic implies a sense of siege mentality, resulting in police members preferring to socialise and rely upon other police members who understands their view of the world.

2.3.1.3 Conservatism

Reiner (1992) concluded that police members generally have a conservative orientation in the way they approach their work, and therefor prefers to stick to the norm in executing their duties.

2.3.1.4 Machismo

Female members, although formally integrated as members of the police force, are constantly facing discrimination based on their gender within the promotion and work allocation system. According to Reiner (1992), "sexism in the police culture is reinforced by discrimination in recruitment and promotion...often at the expense of women colleagues" (p. 124).

2.3.1.5 Racial prejudice

In this regard Reiner (1992) argues that the racial prejudice exhibited by police members, is in fact a reflection of the dominant racial prejudices of the community amongst which they perform their duties. However, Reiner further argues that the racial prejudices, as exhibited by police members, are only slightly more than those of the communities where they serve as a whole.

2.3.1.6 Pragmatism

According to Reiner (1992) police members are conceptually conservative by being “...pragmatic, concrete, down-to-earth, anti-theoretical in their perspective” (p. 128). Reiner further argues that their dislike for paperwork drives their reluctance to consider innovation, experimentation, or research.

2.3.2 Transformation from SAP to SAPS

It is the opinion of Hornberger (2007) that a lot of the police reforms that have been attributed to the post-democratic changes since 1994, were implemented even before 1991. According to Shaw (2002) the management of the police started introducing these reforms in an effort to avoid provoking outside interference (as cited in Hornberger, 2007). This was done in order to ensure that management discretion remained in the hands of the police management.

According to Rauch (2000), the SAP’s 1991 Strategic Plan emphasised the following areas of change (as cited in Gqada, 2004):

- a focus on pro-active instead of re-active policing;
- improved partnership relations between the community and the South African Police;
- the de-politicisation of the force;
- increased community accountability;
- an increase in visible policing;

- the establishment of improved and effective management practices;
- reforming the training system (including some racial integration); and
- the restructuring of the police force.

It is further argued by Rauch (2000) that policy recommendations made at the conclusion of the Truth and Reconciliation Commission report had already been implemented by the SAPS at that time (as cited in Gqada (2004)).

Before the first democratic elections in 1994, South Africa was divided into eleven different homelands where the ethnic majority in that region exercised self-determination. Policing in the former South Africa was thus decentralised with homeland police forces having prominence in the execution of their police powers (Brewer, 1994). After the first democratic elections in 1994, these eleven formerly separate police forces, together with the SAP, were merged into one centralised police force under national control.

In an effort to mark its newness and reorientation, and to reflect the police's change of philosophy towards service delivery and a more civil approach to policing, the SAP was renamed the SAPS (Hornberger, 2007). Pruitt (2010) is of the opinion that the name change of the police was designed to increase its acceptance as well as to encourage the police's new role of community policing. Hornberger (2007) asserts that all the measures, institutional changes and policies, as well as the introduction of community policing, were all done to ensure that the new SAPS will be fundamentally different from the old SAP, and also potentially truly democratic.

Pruitt (2010) asserts that, although South Africa will be under scrutiny for many years to come and for many reasons, the SAPS has proven that while change to democracy may not be easy or instantaneous, it is still possible.

2.4 Organisational Culture (OC)

2.4.1 Background and definitions of OC

According to Denison, Nieminen and Kotrba (2012), Elliott Jaques was the first to describe organisational culture in his 1951 book entitled: *The Changing Culture of a Factory*. They further argue that Jaques invoked the concept of organisational culture as a means of explaining the failure of formal policies and procedures whilst trying to resolve the unproductive dynamic between managers and employees at the Glacier Metal Company.

Schein (1965) argues that the 1950s and the 1960s were the era in which the field of Organisational Psychology began distinguishing itself from the field of Industrial Psychology by focussing on units or groups, instead of mainly just on individuals, in the workplace. According to Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (1991), an organisation can be viewed as a coordinated unit or group consisting of at least two people functioning to achieve a common goal or set of goals, thereby enabling society to pursue accomplishments that cannot otherwise be achieved by individuals acting alone.

Since organisations are units or groups of people who came together to achieve what they cannot achieve individually, these units or groups of people are challenged with obstacles of external adaptation and internal integration (Greenberg, 2011). In an effort to cope with these obstacles the group creates, develops or finds certain patterns of behaviour to deal with them, and it is these patterns of behaviour that are called organisational culture (Schein, 1965).

Schein (1992) asserts that the field of organisational culture grew as researchers interested in organisational phenomena found themselves needing a concept that could explain both the variations in patterns of organisational behaviour, as well as levels of stability in group and organisational behaviour that has not been emphasised previously. Schein further argues that the real thrust of the concept of organisational culture onto the forefront, occurred as a result of efforts trying to explain why American companies

were being outperformed by some of their counterpart companies in other societies, most notably that of Japan.

Williams, Dobson and Walters (1990) argue that, although there is consensus amongst researchers regarding the existence of organisational culture, very few of those researchers will actually agree on what it entails. It is the opinion of Silvester and Anderson (1999) that, due to the complexities and difficulties associated with defining the concept of organisational culture, most authors simply do not define the concept assuming that the concept will be understood by the reader.

Schein (1985) defines organisational culture as a:

...pattern of basic assumptions invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problem of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. (p. 9)

Similarly Brown (1998) defines organisational culture as:

...the pattern of beliefs, values and learned ways of coping with experience that have developed during the course of an organisation's history, and which tend to be manifested in its material arrangements and in the behaviours of its members. (p. 9)

Schein (1999) elaborated on his earlier definition of organisational culture by stating "culture is the sum total of the shared, taken-for-granted assumptions that a group has learned throughout its history" (p. 29). He further asserts that organisational culture is the function of the stability of the group, the time and intensity of their learned experiences, and the strength and clarity of the assumptions as held by the group's founders and leaders. Schein's definition of organisational culture accounts for the learned experiences and behaviour of groups that takes place within a shared environment and over a given period of time.

Martins and Martins (2003) define the concept of organisational culture as "a system of shared meaning held by members, distinguishing the organisation from other organisations" (p. 380). In a similar vein Arnold (2005) views organisational culture as

“the distinctive norms, beliefs, principles and ways of behaving that combines to give each organisation its distinct character” (p. 625). The above definitions clearly suggest that it is an organisation’s culture which makes it possible to distinguish it from another organisation.

Cameron and Quinn (1999) refer to OC as “the taken-for-granted values, underlying assumptions, expectations, collective memories, and definitions present in an organization” (p. 14). According to Newstrom and Davis (1993) organisations are unique in having its own history with patterns of communication, systems and procedures, mission statements and visions, stories and myths, which in their totality establishes its own distinctive culture. Cameron and Quinn (2006) asserts the success of any organisation ultimately depends on its distinctive culture that is developed either by its founder member, or as a result of overcoming obstacles, or as a result of a concerted effort on the part of management to improve the organisation’s performance and efficiency.

Martin, Su and Beckman (1997) argue that a common objective which is shared amongst the studies of OC is to “uncover and interpret aspects of organizational life so that we can better understand the perceptions, beliefs and actions of organizational members” (p. 3). The deep basic underlying assumptions that comprise the abstract concept of organisational culture must first be understood in order to comprehend the current behaviour as well as to reasonably predict the future behaviour within organisations (Schein, 1999).

More recently E.W. Jacobs, Commander at the SAPS Western Cape Employee Health and Wellness, gave a more succinct description of OC by referring to it as “expected prescribed behaviour” (personal communication, April 14, 2015). This means that there are strict prescriptions that specifies how members are expected to behave in any given organisation. The expected prescribed behaviour, which may be unwritten and nonverbalised, must nevertheless still be strictly adhered to by each individual member in order to be accepted and remain as a member of that organisation.

2.4.2 How is organisational culture created?

According to Robbins (2006) the founders of an organisation are ultimately the source of an organisation's culture as they impose their vision and assumptions on the organisation's members. This ultimately influences the criteria used in employee selection, which in turn ensures that the organisational culture is maintained.

Robbins (2006) further argues that culture creation occurs in three ways. Firstly, employees are employed and retained if they think and feel the way the founders do. Secondly, employees are indoctrinated and socialised to think like the founders do. Thirdly, new recruits are encouraged to internalise the beliefs, values and customs of the organisation's founders.

Greenberg (2011) argues that most members of an organisation share common values, goals, attitudes and expectations, which were born out of two main factors. Firstly, the organisation's founders, whom in many cases had characteristics like dynamic personalities, solid values and strong visions, were directly involved in the hiring of the initial staff. Secondly, the learned experiences with the external environment also played a crucial role in culture creation. The learning experiences from critical events were then internalised and passed on from leaders to employees as needed.

2.4.3 The role of culture in organisations

The study of organisational culture has been considered as an important element that contributes to the effectiveness and success of an organisation (Mohanty & Rath, 2012).

According to Newstrom and Davis (1993), organisational cultures contribute to an organisation's success by providing an organisational identity to employees through a defining vision of what the organisation represents. They further argue that the culture of an organisation is an important source of stability and continuity, it helps newer employees interpret what goes on inside it, and it helps to stimulate employee's interests in their tasks. Through recognising and rewarding high-producing and creative

individuals, organisations are identifying those individuals as role models to be emulated by newcomers to the organisation.

According to Greenberg (2011), the cultural values make the OC of each organisation unique to that organisation and therefore have to be recognised as intangible dynamics. Greenberg further argues that culture guides people to certain behavioural norms and therefore plays three important roles within an organisation. Firstly, the organisation has to define its values and assumptions as clearly as possible, so that its members can strongly associate with it and feel as an essential part of the organisation. Secondly, organisational culture encourages a commitment of the members to the organisation's mission. When members feel valued in an organisation, they begin to think and act beyond their own interests as they realise that the organisation is about something bigger than everyone's individual interests. Thirdly, it sets guidelines as to how employees are expected to behave in certain situations in order to support an organisation's mission.

These guidelines are particularly helpful for newcomers to the organisation as they provide stability in behavioural patterns (Greenberg, 2011). Greenberg cautions that, as it is clear that organisational culture is an important and intangible force in organisations due to its powerful influence on people and their behaviours, it needs to be taken care of in a wisely manner.

2.4.4 The levels of culture

Schein (1992) argues that the manifestation of individual and collective organisational behaviour occurs at three different levels, as depicted in Figure 2. These levels vary from being extremely overt at the artifactual level, to deeply embedded unconscious assumptions, which Schein asserts as being the essence of organisational culture.

The assumptions of an organisation's culture can be observed through its artifacts, which is the first level of organisational culture (Schein, 1992). Artifacts, which represents the physical construct of the organisation and its social environment, includes visible phenomena such as language, uniforms, mission and value statements,

symbols, ceremonies, etc. Although artifacts are visible, the meaning that lies behind the physical, behavioural and verbal manifestations of OC, may be difficult to decipher and interpret.

According to Schein (1992), norms and values represents the second level of cultural manifestations. The norms and values are not readily observable and are on a deeper level than artifacts. Norms are the unwritten rules that allow members of a culture to know what is expected of them in a wide variety of contexts, while values provides organisational members with a sense of what is supposed to be as opposed to what actually is.

The third and deepest level of organisational cultural manifestations can be found in an organisation's basic underlying assumptions (Schein, 1992). These basic underlying assumptions evolved from the continuous use of problem-solving solutions over a period of time and has thus become taken-for-granted assumptions of how similar problems should be solved in the future. Due to their past successes, these basic underlying assumptions are perceived by organisational members as “nonconfrontable and nondebtable” (Schein, 1985, p. 18). It is at this level of basic underlying assumptions that organisational culture is extremely difficult to change (Schein, 1992).

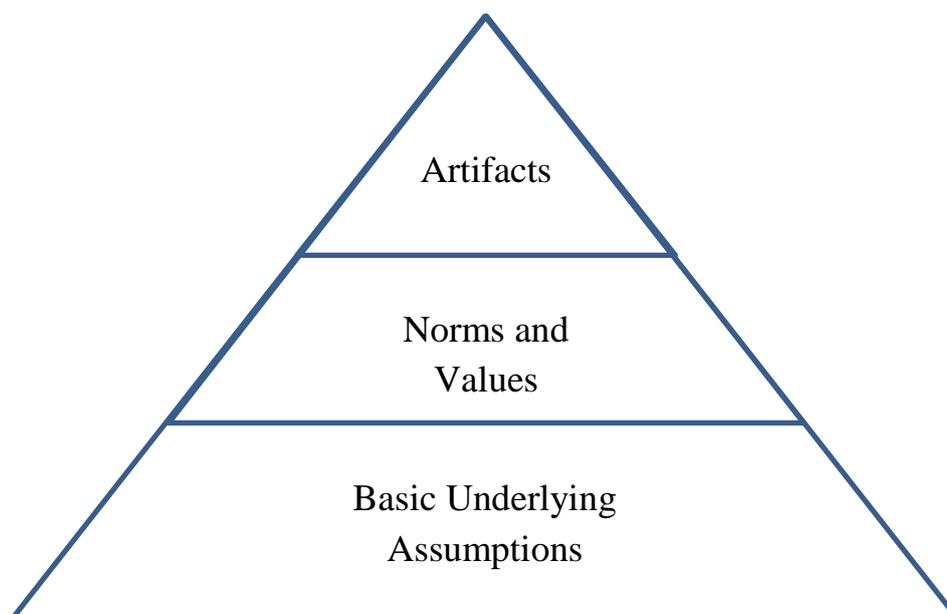


Figure 2: Schein's three levels of organisational culture.

2.4.5 OC characteristics

Chatman and Jehn (1994) argue that there are seven primary characteristics that give an organisation its distinctive character (as cited in Greenberg & Baron, 1997). These characteristics include the following:

2.4.5.1 Innovation and risk-taking

This refers to how much encouragement employees are given in order to be innovative and to take risks in the accomplishments of their tasks.

2.4.5.2 Attention to detail

This refers to the degree to which employees are expected to pay attention to detail while performing their tasks.

2.4.5.3 Outcome orientation

This refers to the degree to which management is concerned with the way the task was performed or the outcomes achieved from it.

2.4.5.4 People orientation

The degree to which management has a concern for the outcome of their decisions and actions on their workforce.

2.4.5.5 Team orientation

Team orientation refers to the degree to which work activities are organised around teams as opposed to merely individuals.

2.4.5.6 Aggressiveness

This refers to the degree to which employees are expected to be aggressive and competitive in the pursuit of their goals, instead of being easy-going in their approach.

2.4.5.7 Stability

Stability refers to the degree to which organisational activities emphasise maintaining the current state of affairs of their organisational culture, or the degree to which change is advocated.

Some other organisational culture characteristics, as proposed by Luthans (2008), include the following:

2.4.5.8 Observed behavioural regularities

These refer to the use of a common language, terminology, and rituals amongst members of a given organisational culture.

2.4.5.9 Norms

Norms simply refer to the standards of behaviour that each organisational member must adhere to in order to remain in that given organisation.

2.4.5.10 Dominant values

Examples of dominant values include high product quality, low absenteeism and a high efficiency model which new recruits are encouraged to emulate, thereby internalising their beliefs, values and assumptions.

2.4.5.11 Philosophy

Philosophy refers to the policies that stipulate how employees and/or customers are to be treated by organisational members.

2.4.5.12 Rules

Rules refer to the strict guidelines that newcomers to an organisation must learn and obey if they wish to be accepted and remain in the organisation.

2.4.5.13 Organisational climate

An organisational climate is the overall ‘feeling’ as portrayed by the organisation’s physical layout and the interaction of its members amongst each other, their customers and outsiders.

2.4.6 The measurement of OC

According to Delobbe, Hacoun and Vandenberghe (2002), qualitative approaches are used in research on OC along unique dimensions which reflects the inner view of the organisation’s members. Delobbe et al., further argues that, although rich in detail, qualitative approaches have two inherent weaknesses. Firstly, the dimensions of culture as identified in one organisation through this approach, are idiosyncratic and not necessarily applicable in another context. Secondly, the qualitative approach is incapable of producing cultural information that is linkable to outcomes such as organisational performance and individual behaviours.

In this regard Chatman and Jehn (1994) asserts “Demonstrating that a set of replicable dimensions exists is a prerequisite to making meaningful comparisons across organizations and industries” (p. 525). In addition, Gordon and Di Tomaso (1992) argue that to date no consensus has been reached to determine a set of key characteristics capable of describing and comparing organisational cultures across a range of organisations.

Robbins et al., (2009) argue that two main quantitative streams have emerged which can be used to measure organisational cultures. The first stream includes the use of survey instruments which focuses on patterns or norms of behaviour, which is the first level of Schein's typology. The second stream includes the use of survey instruments which focuses on the beliefs and values of an organisation's culture, which is the second level of Schein's typology.

It is the opinion of Ashkanasy, Broadfoot and Falkus (2000), that surveys are most appropriate when measuring cultural manifestations such as values and behavioural norms, and for making cross-cultural comparisons using the same set of concepts. By serving as a means of feedback and benchmarking, the value of surveys in OC measurement supports the objectives of organisational development and change (Delobbe et al., 2002).

Pierce (2010) states that two very important questions arose in the literature regarding the use of quantitative and qualitative analysis of organisational culture. Firstly, does the use of quantitative analysis methods such as questionnaires and surveys, only provide a superficial understanding of culture? Secondly, does qualitative approaches like in-depth interviews, lack the scale of analysis to conduct cross-cultural comparisons due to the extensive amount of resources needed to conduct such research on only one organisation's culture?

Cameron and Quinn (1999), as cited in Pierce (2010), asserts that their Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI), addresses both of the abovementioned methodological questions adequately. Cameron and Quinn, asserts the following:

To conduct comparisons among multiple cultures, quantitative approaches must be used. It is crucial, however, that those responding to a survey instrument actually report underlying values and assumptions (culture), not just superficial attitudes or perceptions (climate). This can be accomplished best, we argue, by using a scenario analysis procedure in which respondents report the extent to which written scenarios are indicative of their own organization's culture. These scenarios serve as cues—both emotionally and cognitively—that bring to the surface core cultural attributes . . . (as cited in Pierce, 2010, p. 22)

The OCAI, which will also be the preferred research tool for this study, is based on a theoretical model called the Competing Values Framework (CVF), which was initially developed by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981). According to Pierce (2010) the OCAI respondents are asked to answer questions relating to six dimensions of organisational culture, namely: dominant characteristics, organisational leadership, management of employees, organisational glue, strategic emphases, and criteria for success. OCAI respondents are also asked to answer questions relating to four types of organisational cultures namely: Clan, Adhocracy, Market and Hierarchy.

Pierce (2010) further argues that, by combining the six cultural content dimensions with the four cultural types enumerated by the CVF, “the OCAI is able to uncover the underlying organizational culture, which is an ambiguous, complex, and non-linear socially constructed shared meaning, difficult to observe and even more so to quantify” (p. 23).

2.5 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

2.5.1 Origin and definitions of OCB

Although the history of OCB is not very old, its roots can be traced back to the management guru Chester Barnard (Organ, 1988), who pointed out that in order to achieve organisational goals, employees should be willing to contribute additional efforts to the cooperative system.

Barnard (1938), observed the phenomena of OCB, which he then termed “extra role behaviours” (as cited in Organ, 1988). Barnard first examined the employees’ willingness to cooperate. According to Barnard, this produced spontaneous contributions by employees that went beyond specified job prescriptions, thereby making important contributions to the organisation. Barnard also suggested that employees believing in the ideals of the organisation were indispensable to cooperation and to the spontaneous contributions they made to other employees and to the organisation itself. He believed that material and monetary rewards were not sufficient enough to motivate workers to contribute to the sustained success of an organisation.

According to Barnard, “willingness to cooperate” is the antecedent of spontaneous contributions (OCB) and that “willingness to cooperate, whether positive or negative, is the expression of the net satisfactions or dissatisfactions experienced or anticipated through alternative opportunities” (p. 85).

Katz (1964) also contributed to the development of OCB by proposing an analytic framework for understanding employees’ motivational issues within an organisation. Katz identified the two dimensions in which individual performance in organisations occur as in-role behaviours and extra-role behaviours. According to Katz, in-role behaviours refer to a set of assigned roles as defined by organisational procedures, which are usually role specific and indicated in an individual’s job description.

In contrast to in-role behaviours, extra-role behaviours refer to behaviours that are neither specified nor prescribed by job descriptions. Extra-role behaviours may be similar across jobs while serving organisational interests. Katz (1964) pointed out three basic types of behaviours that are important for an organisation to survive and be successful. Firstly, employees must be induced to enter and then remain within the organisation. Secondly, they must perform their role prescriptions in a dependable fashion, and thirdly, there must be innovative and spontaneous activity in achieving organisational objectives which go beyond the role specification.

Katz and Kahn (1966, p. 5) referred to this kind of behaviour as “gestures that lubricate the social machinery of the organization and do not directly adhere to the usual notion of task performance”. Katz and Kahn stated that organisational well-functioning depends heavily on Katz's (1964) third type of behaviour, or extra-role behaviours. For this reason managers need employees who are willing to do more than just what is described in their work contract. Specifically, managers must look for employees who display OCB’s, which were defined in 1988 by Organ as:

Individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly recognized by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization. By discretionary, we mean that the behavior is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly specifiable terms of the person’s employment construct with the organization; the behavior is rather a

matter of personal choice, such that, its omission is not generally understood as punishable. (p. 4)

Such discretionary behaviours which are not specified by role prescriptions are vital for achieving organisational success. An analysis of Organ's definition reveals two very important components. Firstly, the behaviour is not part of the employee's job prescription and is therefore not formally rewarded explicitly. Secondly, the behaviour, which is usually not obvious or very visible, does benefit the organisation.

Organ and Ryan (1995) provided some examples of these extra-role behaviours, or OCB's, as "volunteering for extra job activities, helping others, and upholding workplace rules and procedures regardless of personal inconvenience" (p. 776). Gibson et al., (1991) argue that, although the occurrence of OCB's may not be formally recognised by an organisation's reward system, it is likely to have an influence on managerial evaluations of employees. They further argue that these are the behaviours that are often cited by customers when praising exemplary service.

Greenberg and Baron (1997) refer to OCB as "an informal form of behaviour in which people go beyond what is formally expected of them to contribute to the well-being of their organization and those in it" (p. 433). Robbins et al., (2009), asserts organisations both want and need employees that are willing to engage in activities that are not required or specified in any job description. They further argue that, according to research evidence, such organisations normally outperform those organisations that do not have them.

Sadati (2012) is of the opinion that it should be reasonably possible to detect individuals in any working environment who regularly contributes beyond their specified job requirements.

Karimi and Akbari (2013) asserts the competitive environments in which organisations operate, as well as the complexities of providing efficient services, have revealed the importance of having knowledgeable and committed individuals within the organisation more than ever before. Karimi and Akbari further argue that amongst the most

important challenges that organisations are facing, would be to improve and reinforce the OCB of their employees.

2.5.2 OCB directed at the individual and the organisation

Research conducted by Williams and Anderson (1991) further classified OCB into two distinct categories based on the target of the OCB. According to Williams and Anderson, OCB could be directed at either other individuals within the organisation (OCBI) or the organisation itself in general (OCBO). Their study examined a sample of 127 full-time employees who were enrolled in an MBA program, and in addition some of their fellow co-workers and managers. The results of their research indicated that OCB at the individual level comprises of Altruism, Courtesy, Peacekeeping, Helping Behaviour, Cheerleading and the Courtesy dimensions directed at other individuals. Examples of OCBI include helping fellow employees who have been absent to catch up on work, providing informal training to new employees, and assisting fellow employees when approached for guidance.

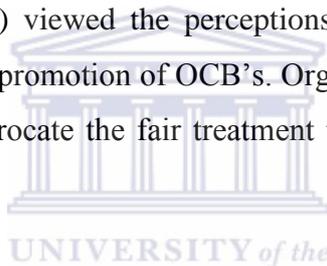
OCB at the organisational level (OCBO) is behaviour that is directed towards the benefit of the organisation. Conscientiousness, Civic Virtue, and Sportsmanship would be included in this category. Examples of OCBO include informing the organisation of leave of absence in advance, taking a personal interest in the success of the organisation, and following informal organisational norms and rules (Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Research conducted by Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff and Blume (2009), found behaviour at the level of the individual to be related to performance appraisal ratings and also to the distribution of rewards amongst employees. Behaviour at the level of the organisation was found to be related to employee efficiency, organisational turnover, and productivity among employees.

2.5.3 Antecedents of OCB

According to Blau (1964) employees engage in behavioural exchanges for social and economic reasons. Organ and Konovsky (1989) argue that the perception of fair treatment in the workplace may be an important antecedent of OCB, by changing the mind sets of employees regarding the relationships with their organisations.

In order to motivate their employees to perform and sustain discretionary behaviours, OCB's needs to be consistently promoted by organisational management. According to Esop (2012), organisations can develop or alter relevant policies and procedures to further promote such behaviours by addressing the important underlying antecedents of OCB. Esop further argues that one of the more effective strategies that organisations can utilise is to have fair reward systems to compensate their employees' OCB contributions. Organ (1990) viewed the perceptions of fairness by employees as an important antecedent in the promotion of OCB's. Organ argued that employees perform OCB's as a means to reciprocate the fair treatment they receive from their respective organisations.



According to Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach (2000), the major groups of antecedents of OCB that have been emphasized in studies of different researchers are namely: employee characteristics (i.e. attitudes and dispositions), task characteristics, organisational characteristics, and leadership behaviours.

Research focussing on employee characteristics has focussed mainly on establishing the predictive success of general affective morale factors. Morale factors consist of variables such as employee satisfaction, organisational commitment, perceptions of organisational support and fairness that, according to Organ and Ryan (1995), combine to create a single predictive factor of OCB. Task characteristics that have been associated with OCB include task feedback, task variety, and the intrinsic satisfaction of task performance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996). Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (2006), argued that task characteristics may be best viewed as indirect antecedents of OCB, due to the fact that their research showed that job satisfaction fully mediated the relationship between task characteristics and OCB.

Regarding organisational characteristics, perceived organisational support (POS), is significantly related to affective commitment and OCBO (Liu, 2009). POS refers to the extent to which employees feel supported by their organisation in terms of resource allocation, training, and other support systems aimed at improving job performance. Podsakoff et al., (2000) argue that an increase in POS is positively related with an increase in OCB.

Leadership behaviours, such as transformational leadership and leader-member exchange, have been found to be an important antecedent of OCB (Organ et al., 2006). Podsakoff et al., (1996) argue that an increase in transformational leadership behaviours attributed to a leader, are associated with an increase in the occurrence of OCB of their followers.

2.5.4 Consequences of OCB

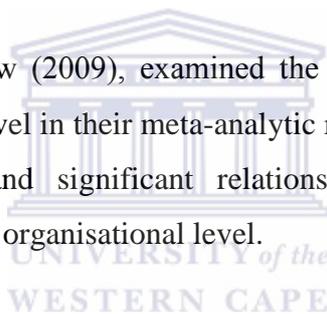
Organ's (1988) definition of OCB included "not directly recognized by the formal reward system", meaning that such behaviour by individuals would not be compensated formally. However, research by Orr, Sackett and Mercer (1989) and also Werner (1994), indicates that managers would search for and use both in-role performance and OCB in their evaluations to provide monetary estimates for employee performance. According to Bosman (2003), two key issues has become the focus point for research in the consequences of OCB in recent years. These are firstly the consequences of OCB on the performance evaluations, judgements and decisions made by managers with regard to pay increases, promotions, etc. of their employees, and secondly, the consequences of OCB on the overall performance and success of the organisation. Depending on the target direction of OCB, the consequences can be organised into two categories namely individual-level outcomes and organisational-level outcomes.

At the individual-level, managers may decide to include an evaluation of the occurrence of OCB in their performance evaluations and reward allocations of their employees for various reasons. According to Podsakoff et al., (2009) "OCB's may serve as behavioural cues of an employee's commitment to the success of the organisation that managers incorporate in their assessment of employee job performance" (as cited in

Esop, 2012, p. 124). They further argue that employees who exhibit higher levels of OCB should also receive higher performance evaluations and rewards than those employees who exhibit lower levels of OCB. With regard to the relationship between OCB's and managerial evaluations, Podsakoff et al., (2000) found, in a summary of empirical evidence, that OCB's uniquely accounted for 42.9% of the variance in managerial performance evaluations.

At the organisational-level, Podsakoff et al., (2009) found that OCB's were positively related to unit-level performance and customer satisfaction. They further argue that OCB's may enhance team spirit, morale and cohesiveness amongst employees. This, they argue, would lead to a reduction in time and energy needed to spend on team maintenance functions and would also increase the organisation's ability to attract and retain the best employees.

Nielsen, Hrivnak, and Shaw (2009), examined the relationship between OCB's and performance at the group level in their meta-analytic review of existing group literature. They found a positive and significant relationship between overall OCB and performance at the group or organisational level.



2.5.5 The measurement of OCB

As the conceptual definitions of OCB used by researchers differ from study to study, researchers have developed a variety of measures for OCB. However, before being able to measure a construct it must first be defined, thus the measurement of OCB would depend on the operational definition of the construct.

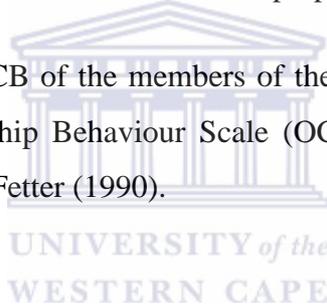
Bateman and Organ's (1983) definition of OCB "includes any of those gestures (often taken for granted) that lubricate the social machinery of the organization but that do not directly adhere to the usual notion of task performance" (p. 588). Based on this definition, they constructed a 30-item OCB scale that measured constructs such as Cooperation, Altruism, Compliance, Punctuality, Housecleaning, etc.

Smith, Organ and Near (1983) took a slightly more complicated measurement approach by developing a scale in stages. In order to develop their 16-item scale, they conducted

interviews amongst managers in manufacturing organisations and asked them to identify instances of behaviour that were helpful, but not absolutely required. They initially created a 20-item scale based on their interviews, but after conducting factor analysis, four items were removed resulting in the 16-item scale.

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) performed an important study using the five dimensions of OCB, as identified by Organ (1988), which include Altruism, Conscientiousness, Sportsmanship, Courtesy, and Civic Virtue. Podsakoff et al. developed a 24-item scale by having ten of their colleagues sort each of the 24 items into one of the five OCB dimensions, or an “other” category, if they felt the item did not fit any of the five defined conceptual dimensions. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. Currently, the most popular dimensions used to measure OCB are found in the five factor model as proposed by Organ (1988).

In order to diagnose the OCB of the members of the SAPS, the researcher will utilise the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (OCBS) as developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990).



2.6 Conclusion

This chapter started with an explanation of the service delivery framework of Batho Pele under which the SAPS has to perform their duties as a state institution. It touched on the culture of police organisations, or cop culture, which also has a significant effect on the behaviour of its members. In addition the main constructs under investigation in this study, namely OC and OCB, were defined and elaborated on.

The following chapter will be an overview of the research design that will be used in the study.

CHAPTER THREE

Research methodology

3.1 Introduction

Chapter Three will portray an overview of the research design that will be used in the study. Motivation will be provided for why a particular sampling type will be used as well as a description of the research instruments that will be used. It will also provide the problem statement of the study in the form of a question and specify the objective of the study.

3.2 Hypotheses

According to Kerlinger (1986) a hypothesis is a speculative statement of the relationship that exists between two or more variables. Kerlinger further states that hypotheses are statements about the relations between variables which convey clear implications for testing the stated relations between the variables.

The hypotheses for this research study are as follows:

H_1 : Organisational Culture will have a positive impact on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour.

H_0 : Organisational Culture will not have a positive impact on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour.

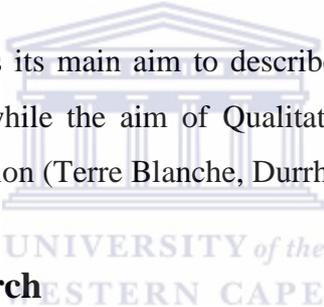
3.3 Research design

As mentioned previously in Chapter One, this study is an attempt to determine the extent of the impact that the prevailing OC within the SAPS has on the performance of the OCB of its members in the WC. As such a strategy would be required in order to execute the study.

According to Kerlinger and Lee (2000) the research design would constitute this strategy or plan needed to execute the study. Babbie and Mouton (2001) asserts that “a research design is a plan or blueprint of how you intend conducting the research” (p. 74). Similarly Burns and Grove (2007) refers to a research design as “a researcher’s overall plan for answering the research question or testing the research hypothesis” (p. 270). The research hypothesis and the intended evidence necessary to test the research hypothesis would serve as a guideline in choosing which research design would be most appropriate for a research study.

As previously mentioned in Chapter One, a distinction can be made between Qualitative and Quantitative research methodologies. Qualitative research approaches are relatively more open and wider than Quantitative research approaches although there are some commonalities between the two approaches.

Quantitative research has as its main aim to describe and explain phenomena as they appear in the real world, while the aim of Qualitative research is to understand the phenomena under investigation (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006).



3.3.1 Qualitative research

The aim of qualitative research is to provide a depth rather than a breadth of information. While quantitative research is useful in searching for answers to questions like “how many” or “how much”, qualitative research is best suited for establishing the underlying motivations, values, attitudes, feelings, and perceptions of the respondents involved. According to Christensen (2001), qualitative research is an interpretive, multi-method approach that investigates people in their natural environments. The use of qualitative techniques can provide invaluable practical information as they can afford to be flexible in research for which descriptions are most appropriate.

3.3.1.1 Advantages of qualitative research

Qualitative research allows one to study topics in more detail and depth and is useful in the early stages of research if the researcher is unsure of what to study or where the

focus of the study should be. Qualitative research does not need a strict design plan before it commences and is often less expensive than quantitative research as it does not need as many respondents or extensive methods.

Qualitative research provides informative and detailed information, offers ‘thick’ descriptions and presents the collected information in a detailed and complete form like comprehensive written descriptions or visual evidence such as photographs (Sarantakos, 2005).

3.3.1.2 Disadvantages of qualitative research

Samples in qualitative research are usually small which means that it does not produce representative results which can then be generalised to the greater community. As the researcher is usually very involved in the study, an objective view of the event may sometimes be very difficult to obtain (Krathwohl, 2009). As the objectivity of the findings cannot be guaranteed, the results may also be questionable (Sarantakos, 2005).

The lack of strict research procedures coupled with the fact that the nature of qualitative research allows for close contact between the researcher and respondents, may lead to ethical complications (Sarantakos, 2005). Qualitative research can also be very time consuming and expensive as a large number of trained observers may be needed or expensive recording equipment may be required for the research to be effective (Babbie, 2010).

3.3.2 Quantitative research

The basic aim of quantitative research is to describe and explain an object, situation or phenomena, in order to generalise the findings of the study to the wider population or community (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002).

Mouton and Marais (1991) describes quantitative research as that approach to research that is more exactly defined and is relatively close to the physical sciences as far as its methodology is concerned. Christensen (2001) refers to quantitative research as a

research method that answers a specific research question by means of collecting some type of numerical data.

Quantitative research can be defined in terms of the type of data collected (numerical), the type of statistical techniques that it uses to analyse the data, and the types of conclusions that the researcher can infer from the data in order to generalise the results from a sample to a population.

3.3.2.1 Advantages of quantitative research

A major advantage of quantitative research is that the data can be collected and analysed fairly quickly and cheaply. Quantitative research uses measures that gathers large amounts of data and summarises it in a single number or a profile of numbers which can then be used to differentiate between individuals, groups or classes to determine whether they have less or more of what is measured (Krathwohl, 2009).

Researchers can make future plans with confidence when they have reliable and repeatable information that only quantitative surveys can provide. The anonymity of information is very useful when dealing with sensitive topics and, since the researcher is more objective during the study, potential complications relating to ethics can also be avoided.

3.3.2.2 Disadvantages of quantitative research

Quantitative research tends to ignore the importance of the context of the study or experiment as it does not usually study things or people in their natural settings. During quantitative research the reality of the situation is often adjusted to the methods of research instead of adjusting the methods to the reality (Sarantakos, 2005).

Quantitative research fails to study the essence of life and instead focuses more on the appearance of life by failing to discuss the meanings that things or phenomena have for people. In order for the statistics to be more accurate, a larger sample is often needed which may raise the cost of the research considerably. The motivation and initiative of

the researcher is often restricted as the research procedure is mostly determined before the research even begins.

3.3.3 Preferred research approach

Since the focus of the study centres on the hypothesised impact that the OC of the SAPS may have on the performance of OCB of its members, and considering the large sample size, the quantitative approach to research would be more appropriate.

3.3.4 Population

Sekaran (2003) refers to the population as the entire group of people, events, or things of interest that the researcher may wish to investigate. The population under study would be all the operational members of the SAPS in the Western Cape.

3.3.5 Sample and sampling

According to Campbell and Swinscow (2009), a carefully selected sample would be necessary if one should wish to obtain information that is representative of the larger population from which the sample is taken. Research would generally be conducted to make inferences about the population based on the information available about the sample.

The sample that will be selected will be drawn from three of the largest police stations in the Western Cape in terms of their amount of members. According to Sekaran (2003), the ideal sample size should constitute approximately 115 respondents with a response rate of thirty percent (30%) considered to be acceptable for most research purposes.

The intended sample size will be 200 (two hundred) members spread across the three different police stations namely Cape Town Central SAPS, Mitchell's Plain SAPS, and Milnerton SAPS.

The two major types of sampling designs used in research include probability and non-probability sampling. According to Sekaran (2003), while using probability sampling, all the elements in the population have some chance or the probability of being selected as sample subjects in the research. If non-probability sampling were to be used, all the elements will not have a predetermined chance of being selected as subjects in the research project (Sekaran, 2003). The non-probability sampling method would be preferable for the purpose of this study even though it cannot guarantee that the sample under investigation will be representative of the whole population (Babbie, 2010).

Since operational police members are employed mainly on a shift basis, it may be difficult to group together a sample that is representative of the larger population. For this reason convenience sampling would be the preferred type of sampling for this study.

According to Castillo (2009), convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling method where subjects are selected on the basis of their convenient accessibility and proximity to the researcher. The subjects, which are not representative of the entire population, are purely selected because of their ease of recruitment for the study.

3.3.5.1 Advantages of Convenience Sampling

The reason why most researchers rely on sampling types like convenience sampling is because it is an inexpensive sampling design, the least time-consuming in terms of administration and the most convenient in terms of getting the required respondents (Castillo, 2009).

3.3.5.2 Disadvantages of Convenience Sampling

According to Castillo (2009), the biggest disadvantage with convenience sampling is that it is not representative of the entire population, which may lead to more problems and criticisms.

It will not be easy to make generalisations and inferences about the entire population based on data obtained about the convenience sample. Since the sample will not be representative of the entire population, the result of the study cannot speak for the entire population which will result in a low external validity of the study (Castillo, 2009).

3.4. Data collection

Data will be collected by means of questionnaires which will be distributed amongst the selected sample at the various police stations.

3.4.1 Description of data collection instruments

3.4.1.1 The Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI)

In order to diagnose the OC of the SAPS, the researcher will utilise an adapted form of the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) which was developed by Professors Kim Cameron and Robert Quinn (1999). The OCAI is based on the Competing Values Framework which assesses four culture types namely Clan culture, Adhocracy culture, Market culture and Hierarchy culture, as depicted by Figure 3 on the following page.



Figure 3: The Competing Values Framework focussing on Leader Type, Effectiveness Criteria, and Management Theory (Cameron & Quinn, 1999, p. 41).

The four quadrants which form the visual representation of the Competing Values Framework are explained with the following profile by Cameron and Quinn (1999) as follows:

<p>The Clan Culture.</p> <p>A very friendly place to work where people share a lot of themselves. It is like an extended family. The leaders, or the heads of the organization, are considered to be mentors and perhaps even parent figures.</p> <p>The organization is held together by loyalty or tradition. Commitment is high. The organization emphasizes the long-term benefit of human resources development and attaches great importance to cohesion and morale. Success is defined in terms of sensitivity to customers and concern for people. The organization places a premium on teamwork, participation, and consensus.</p>	<p>The Adhocracy Culture.</p> <p>A dynamic, entrepreneurial, and creative place to work. People stick their necks out and take risks. The leaders are considered innovators and risk takers. The glue that holds the organizations together is commitment to experimentation and innovation.</p> <p>The emphasis is on being on the leading edge. The organization's long-term emphasis is on growth and acquiring new resources. Success means gaining unique and new products or services. Being a product or service leader is important. The organization encourages individual initiative and freedom.</p>
<p>The Hierarchy Culture.</p> <p>A very formalized and structured place to work. Procedures govern what people do. The leaders pride themselves on being good coordinators and organisers who are efficiency-minded.</p> <p>Maintaining a smooth-running organization is most critical. Formal rules and policies hold the organization together. The long-term concern is on stability and performance with efficient, smooth operations. Success is defined in terms of dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low cost. The management of employees is concerned with secure employment and predictability.</p>	<p>The Market Culture.</p> <p>A results-oriented organization whose major concern is with getting the job done. People are competitive and goal-oriented. The leaders are hard drivers, producers, and competitors. They are tough and demanding.</p> <p>The glue that holds the organization together is an emphasis on winning. Reputation and success are common concerns. The long-term focus is on competitive actions and achievement of measurable goals and targets. Success is defined in terms of market share and penetration. Competitive pricing and market leadership are important. The organization style is hard-driving competitiveness.</p>

Figure 4: The Organisational Culture Profile (Cameron & Quinn, 1999, p.58)

Figure 4 provides a detailed organisational culture profile for each of the four dominant cultural types as identified in Figure 3 by Cameron and Quinn (1999).

In the OCAI the Clan culture is represented by items 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 in the questionnaire. Adhocracy culture is represented by items 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10. Market culture is represented by items 11, 12, 13, 14, and 15. Lastly Hierarchy culture is represented by items 16, 17, 18, 19, and 20. None of the items on the OCAI are reverse scored. A study performed by Pierce (2010) found that the OCAI is both a reliable and valid instrument for the measurement of the OC dimensions of Clan, Adhocracy, Hierarchy and Market cultures.

3.4.1.2 The Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (OCBS)

In order to diagnose the organisational citizenship behaviour of the members of the SAPS, the researcher will utilise an adapted form of the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (OCBS) as developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990). The OCBS measures the five most recognised dimensions of OCB namely: Altruism, Conscientiousness, Sportsmanship, Courtesy and Civic Virtue. In the questionnaire Altruism is represented by items 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 43 and 48. Civic Virtue is represented by items 26, 27, 28 and 29. Conscientiousness is represented by items 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 37, 38, 40 and 47. Courtesy is represented by items 35, 39, 41, 42 and 45. Courtesy items 35, 39 and 41 are reverse scored which means lower scores indicate that those respondents engage in more Courtesy behaviours. The Sportsmanship dimension is represented by items 36, 44, 46 and 49. Sportsmanship items 36 and 44 are also reverse scored which means that lower scores indicate those respondents who would exhibit more Sportsmanship behaviours.

For both the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument and the Organisational Citizenship Behavioural Scale respondents are asked to mark the extent to which they agree or disagree with the statements concerning their organisation or their behaviour on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 'a' (strongly agree) to 'e' (strongly disagree). In order to perform Spearman's Correlation the alphabetical scoring system will be changed to a numerical scoring system, meaning that 'a' will be '5' and 'e' will be '1'. Higher scores for dimensions, other than those that are reverse scored, will indicate that respondents engage in more of the measured behaviour.

A study performed by Mahembe, Engelbrecht, Chinyamurindi and Kandekande (2015) on a South African sample found that the OCBS demonstrated some sound reliability coefficients and reasonable construct validity.

3.5 Objective of the study

The objective of the study is to evaluate the impact that the organisational culture of the SAPS has on the performance of organisational citizenship behaviour of its members within the Western Cape.

3.6 Data analysis

The researcher will conduct exploratory data analysis. Data collected from the respondents will be captured on a Microsoft Excel spread sheet for analysis. This will allow for a comparison of the results of the questionnaire to the findings from the research to identify differences or commonalities that may exist. The statistical package that will be used for the analysis of the gathered data will be the Number Cruncher Statistical System (Version 8).

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter was an overview of the research design that is to be used in this study. Motivation was provided for the use of a particular sampling type and the research instruments (questionnaires) to be used were also described. The hypotheses as well as the objective of the study was also specified. The following chapter will be the discussion of the results.



CHAPTER FOUR

Discussion of results

4.1 Introduction

As mentioned earlier in Chapter Three, the sample selected was drawn from three of the largest police stations in the Western Cape in terms of their amount of members. This was performed over a period of 14 days from 2015-09-02 until 2015-09-16. At the Cape Town Central police station an active police member of rank Captain distributed and collected the questionnaires. The questionnaires were distributed and collected by an active police member of rank Senior Administrative Officer at the Mitchell's Plain police station, and at Milnerton police station the questionnaires were distributed and collected by a senior active police member of the rank Colonel. At the end of the two week period the completed questionnaires were collected and returned to the researcher.

The intended sample size was two hundred members spread across the three different police stations, namely Cape Town Central SAPS (70 questionnaires), Mitchell's Plain SAPS (65 questionnaires), and Milnerton SAPS (65 questionnaires). The response rate for the three stations was Cape Town Central SAPS 52 (74.29%), Milnerton SAPS 39 (60%) and Mitchell's Plain SAPS 36 (55.38%). From the above it is possible to observe that the difference between the best response and the worst response were approximately 19%. A possible reason for the trend of no-response rate might be that the available time dropped from Cape Town Central, Milnerton and lastly Mitchell's Plain, due to the amount of time members had to complete the questionnaires.

4.2 Data analysis of the collected data

There were 49 fields in the questionnaire (that was applied to each person in the sample) over which original information was collected. The number of fields containing no blanks for the 127 individuals was 31. The number of fields containing single blanks was 15, while the number of fields containing only two blanks was three.

Most of the information per questionnaire was complete and only 21 of the fields contained missing values. The 127 of the 200 distributed questionnaires contained only less than half per cent missing values (0.34%). Therefore in some cases the data set were analysed assuming to be complete.

The possibility always exists that of the 127 of the 200 questionnaires can be biased, for example the fact that female members are usually more likely to respond to the request to participate in the survey. Due to the confidentiality of the respondents any such bias could not be determined. Another possibility could be that some of the respondents felt it is not worth-while to complete the questionnaires, because they were so dissatisfied with their working conditions.

On the next pages the reader will find the list of the 49 statements with abbreviated names appended.



The Verbose description of the item within the questionnaires	Abbreviated description
1. This organisation is a very personal place. It is like an extended family.	1. organisation personal
2. The management style in this organisation is characterised by teamwork, agreement, and participation.	2. management teamwork
3. The “glue” that holds this organisation together is loyalty and mutual trust.	3. glue loyalty
4. This organisation highlights personal and professional development.	4. organisation highlights
5. This organisation defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.	5. organisation development
6. This organisation is very active and business-like. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.	6. organisation active
7. The management style in this organisation is characterised by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.	7. style individual
8. The “glue” that holds this organisation together is commitment to innovation and development.	8. glue commitment
9. This organisation emphasises buying new resources and creating new challenges.	9. emphasises resources
10. This organization succeeds by having the most unique or newest products.	10. succeeds unique

The Verbose description of the item within the questionnaires	Abbreviated description
11. This organization is very results oriented and tries to get the job done.	11. results oriented
12. The management style in this organisation is characterised by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands and achievement.	12. style hard-driving
13. The “glue” that holds this organisation together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment.	13. glue achievement
14. This organisation emphasises competitive actions and achievement.	14. organisation competitive
15. This organisation defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition.	15. success winning
16. This organisation is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.	16. organisation controlled
17. The management style in this organisation is characterised by security of employment, traditionalism, predictability, and stability in relationships.	17. style security
18. The “glue” that holds this organisation together is formal rules and policies.	18. glue formal
19. This organisation highlights permanence and stability.	19. organisation permanence
20. This organisation defines success on the basis of effectiveness.	20. success effectiveness

The Verbose description of the item within the questionnaires	Abbreviated description
21. I help others who have heavy amounts of work.	21. help heavy
22. I help others who have been absent.	22. help absent
23. I train or help others to carry out their jobs better.	23. help better
24. I help new people to get used to the work environment.	24. help new
25. I help others with difficult work duties.	25. help difficult
26. I keep up with changes in the organisation.	26. keep up
27. I attend functions that are not required but help w the organisation's image.	27. functions image
28. I attend and take part in formal meetings regarding the organisation.	28. attend formal
29. I attend and take part in informal meetings regarding the organisation.	29. attend informal
30. I arrive at work on time.	30. on time

The Verbose description of the item within the questionnaires	Abbreviated description
31. I never take long lunch breaks.	31. never long
32. I never take extra breaks.	32. never extra
33. I always obey organisational rules even if there is no one watching me.	33. obey rules
34. I always finish my work on time.	34. finish time
35. I think my organisation has a lot of problems.	35. lot problems
36. I constantly talk about wanting to leave my job.	36. leave job
37. I feel positively about my component.	37. feel my
38. I feel positively about the organisation.	38. feel about
39. I am not happy with the way the organisation is being run.	39. not happy
40. My work quality is up to standard.	40. work up

The Verbose description of the item within the questionnaires	Abbreviated description
41. I think my organisation has big problems.	41. big problems
42. I inform others before taking important actions.	42. inform others
43. I go out of my way to protect other employees.	43. protect other
44. I show unhappiness with other employees.	44. show other
45. I visit other employees at their work stations during work periods.	45. visit other
46. I do not complain about work duties.	46. do not
47. I can handle work pressure.	47. I can
48. I always act happily.	48. act happily
49. I work well with those around me.	49. work well

Table 1
 Summary of general answers of the 127 respondents over 49 separate statements

Fixed Five Ordinal Scale	Final data set	General % Distribution
a - 1	1165	18.8%
b - 2	1752	28.3%
c - 3	1622	26.2%
d - 4	935	15.1%
e - 5	727	11.7%
Total	6201	100.0%

In general the reader will see that it forms a unimodal with a mode between b-2 and c-3. The distribution is skewed towards e-5.

4.2.1 The dependency between the 49 statements

Within this section one can observe and study the predictability between the statements. The first set of five statements (1-5) can be grouped as representing Clan, the second set of five statements (6-10) can be grouped as representing Adhocracy, the third set of statements (11-15) can be grouped as representing Market, and the fourth set of statements (16-20) can be grouped as representing Hierarchy.

Table 2

Frequency table of the first statement “1. organisation personal” and “2. Management teamwork”, with marginal totals and the diagonal highlighted in yellow.

		1. organisation personal					
2. management teamwork		1	2	3	4	5	Total
	1	5	3				
2	5	7	2	5			19
3		10	13	8	1		32
4		6	9	15	6		36
5		1	1		23		32
Total		10	27	25	35	30	127

From the above table one can glean that the observations are concentrated along the diagonal.

Diagonal Total	63
Off-Diagonal total	64



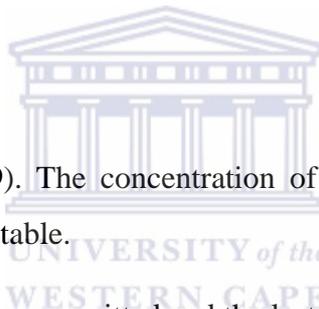
The ratio between these two numbers was calculated and it resulted in 98.4% (or 0.984). This ratio implies that most of the counts in the table were concentrated on the diagonal.

Table 3
 Summary frequency table relating “2. management teamwork” and “3. glue loyalty”

2. management teamwork

3. glue loyalty	1	2	3	4	5	Total
1	7	1				8
2	1	15	4	2		22
3		1	23	5	4	33
4		2	3	24	5	34
5			2	5	23	30
Total	8	19	32	36	32	127

Diagonal Total	92
Off-Diagonal total	35



The ratio is 262.9% (2.629). The concentration of the cell counts was more severe compared to that of the first table.

The table following this one was omitted and the last comparative table was inserted.

Table 4
Summary frequency table relating “4. organisation highlights” and “5. organisation development”

		4. organisation highlights					
5. organisation development		1	2	3	4	5	Total
1		7					7
2		1	18	3		1	23
3			4	23	10	3	41
4			4	5	20	2	31
5				1	4	20	25
Total		8	26	32	34	26	127

The Ratio of the above table is 225.6%, indicating that there was a strong clustering of the observations in the diagonal.

A common cause that can happen when the different statements were completed sequentially by a respondent was that when the respondent decided on their selection, it may have been influenced by the answer given for the prior question. This was easily investigated by relating sequential questions.

Table 5
Summary frequency table of Ratio's from questions 1 to 5

Column classification	Row classification	Ratio (%)	Ratio
1. organisation personal	2. management teamwork	98,4%	0,984
2. management teamwork	3. glue loyalty	262,9%	2,629
3. glue loyalty	4. organisation highlights	164,6%	1,646
4. organisation highlights	5. organisation development	225,6%	2,256

Table 6
 Summary frequency table of Ratio's from questions 6 to 10

Column classification	Row classification	Ratio (%)	Ratio
6. organisation active	7. style individual	139,6%	1,396
7. style individual	8. glue commitment	164,6%	1,646
8. glue commitment	9. emphasises resources	111,7%	1,117
9. emphasises resources	10. succeeds unique	149,0%	1,490

Within Tables 5 and 6 the observations were clustered along the diagonal. For almost all likewise frequency tables, from statement one (1) to statement 49, this kind of clustering occurred. Therefore, the answer to a cell is strongly predictable from the answer to the previous statement. A strong inter-relationship existed between the answers of the serial influence for consecutive answers.



Table 7

Correlation matrix of the first set (Organisational Culture) of four transformed questions in groups of five measurements each.

Spearman Correlations Section (Row-Wise Deletion)

	Clan	Adhocracy	Market	Hierarchy
Clan	1	0,7985	0,6571	0,7572
	0	0	0	0
	127	127	127	127
Adhocracy	0,7985	1	0,7361	0,7107
	0	0	0	0
	127	127	127	127
Market	0,6571	0,7361	1	0,7830
	0	0	0	0
	127	127	127	127
Hierarchy	0,7572	0,7107	0,7830	1
	0	0	0	0
	127	127	127	127
Altruism	0,0153	0,1586	0,2511	0,2391
	0,864	0,075	0,004	0,007
	127	127	127	127
Civic Virtue	0,3432	0,2945	0,2877	0,3481
	0,000	0,001	0,001	0,000
	127	127	127	127
Conscientiousness	0,1737	0,2031	0,2815	0,2870
	0,051	0,022	0,001	0,001
	127	127	127	127
Courtesy	0,3893	0,3760	0,3438	0,3513
	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000
	127	127	127	127
Sportsmanship	0,1605	0,1306	0,0991	0,2094
	0,072	0,143	0,268	0,018
	127	127	127	127

Legend of the significance level

less than 0.05	less than 0.001
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Small error Even smaller error

Table 8:
Correlation matrix of the second set (Organisational Citizenship Behaviour) of four transformed questions in groups of five measurements each (appended to the right).

	Altruism	Civic Virtue	Conscientiousness	Courtesy	Sportsmanship
Clan	0,0153	0,3432	0,1737	0,3893	0,1605
	0,864	0,000	0,051	0,000	0,072
	127	127	127	127	127
Adhocracy	0,1586	0,2945	0,2031	0,3760	0,1306
	0,075	0,001	0,022	0,000	0,143
	127	127	127	127	127
Market	0,2511	0,2877	0,2815	0,3438	0,0991
	0,004	0,001	0,001	0,000	0,268
	127	127	127	127	127
Hierarchy	0,2391	0,3481	0,2870	0,3513	0,2094
	0,007	0,000	0,001	0,000	0,018
	127	127	127	127	127
Altruism	1	0,5921	0,5962	-0,0047	0,2204
	0	0	0	0,958	0,013
	127	127	127	127	127
Civic Virtue	0,59208	1	0,4641	0,2191	0,1074
	0	0	0	0,013	0,229
	127	127	127	127	127
Conscientiousness	0,5962	0,4641	1	-0,0819	0,3604
	0	0	0	0,360	0,000
	127	127	127	127	127
Courtesy	-0,0047	0,2191	-0,0819	1	-0,0441
	0,958	0,013	0,360	0	0,622
	127	127	127	127	127
Sportsmanship	0,2204	0,1074	0,3604	-0,0441	1
	0,013	0,229	0,000	0,622	0
	127	127	127	127	127

Legend of the significance level

less than 0.05	less than 0.001
-------------------	--------------------

4.3 Biographical information

The researcher deemed it necessary to omit any type of information from the questionnaires that could be used to identify any of the respondents in the study. The respondents were not required to indicate their name, contact details, rank, gender, duration in police service, age, or police station where they are working, for various reasons.

As mentioned earlier in Chapter 2 members of the police service are very suspicious of people or situations they come into contact with. This suspiciousness of police members are also evident when completing questionnaires, as members always fear that the information gathered through the questionnaires could be used against them in any future disciplinary hearings.

Police members also have an aversion to paperwork and completing a biographical section of the questionnaire would have just added to their dislike of paperwork. In addition it would have also added more time that it would need to complete the questionnaire. As police members are already swamped with paperwork and unresolved cases, the respondent deemed it a necessity to omit the biographical section from the questionnaire. This was done by the researcher to ensure that a larger percentage of police members completed and returned the questionnaires.

4.4 The impact of OC on OCB

4.4.1 Clan versus OCB

From Tables 8 and 9 one can observe that the correlation coefficients between the Clan culture and the dimensions of OCB are as follows: Altruism (0.0153), Civic Virtue (0.3432), Conscientiousness (0.1737), Courtesy (0.3893) and Sportsmanship (0.1605), which is indicative of a weak uphill (positive) linear relationship.

However, Altruism and Sportsmanship has observed p -values of 0.864 and 0.072 respectively. A larger p -value (> 0.05) would indicate weak evidence against the null hypothesis. In these cases the null hypothesis would be accepted.

4.4.2 Adhocracy versus OCB

From Tables 8 and 9 one can observe that the correlation coefficients between the Adhocracy culture and the dimensions of OCB are as follows: Altruism (0.1586), Civic Virtue (0.2945), Conscientiousness (0.2031), Courtesy (0.3760) and Sportsmanship (0.1306). These correlation coefficients are all indicative of a weak uphill (positive) linear relationship. However, as also in the case of Clan versus OCB, Altruism and Sportsmanship both have observed p -values of more than 0.05 (0.075 and 0.143 respectively). In both these cases the null hypothesis would be accepted.

4.4.3 Market versus OCB

The correlation coefficients between Market culture and the dimensions of OCB, as evident from Tables 8 and 9, are as follows: Altruism (0.2511), Civic Virtue (0.2877), Conscientiousness (0.2815), Courtesy (0.3438) and Sportsmanship (0.0991). These correlation coefficients are also all indicative of a weak uphill (positive) linear relationship. From Tables 8 and 9 one can also observe that the p -value between Market culture and Sportsmanship is above 0.05 (0.268) which means that the null hypothesis will be accepted in this case.

4.4.4 Hierarchy versus OCB

From Tables 8 and 9 one can observe that the correlation coefficients between the Hierarchy culture and the dimensions of OCB are as follows: Altruism (0.2391), Civic Virtue (0.3481), Conscientiousness (0.2870), Courtesy (0.3513) and Sportsmanship (0.2094). These correlation coefficients are all indicative of a weak uphill (positive) linear relationship.

4.5 Discussion of results

A study performed by Mohanty and Rath (2012) across three different organisations and representing three different sectors indicated a significant correlation between OC and OCB across all the organisations as well as the three different sectors. A study performed by Salajegheh and Bigdelimojarad (2015) indicated that OC has a significant positive effect on the OCB of employees of the Ministry of Education in Tehran. In a similar study performed by Vahdati, Moghaddamb and Jafari (2014), the results indicate that all the dimensions of OC had a significant positive impact on OCB.

The study results of Erkutlu (2011) on the moderating role of OC in the relationship between organisational justice and OCB showed that OC had a significant role to play in this relationship. Ebrahimpour, Zahed, Khaleghkhah, and Sepehri (2011) also found that a significant positive relationship exist between OC and OCB. In addition a study performed by Podsakoff et al., (2000) also found that there is a significant relationship between the dimensions of OC and OCB.

The results of all of the above studies found that there is a significant positive relationship between the dimensions of OC and the dimensions of OCB. However, the results of the correlation coefficients of this study between the dimensions of OC (Clan, Adhocracy, Market and Hierarchy) and the dimensions of OCB (Altruism, Civic Virtue, Conscientiousness, Courtesy and Sportsmanship), all indicate a weak uphill (positive) linear relationship. This could be due to the fact that for almost all likewise frequency tables, from statement one (1) to statement 49, a clustering of answers occurred along the diagonal, as is evident from Tables 5 and 6. The answers that were provided by a respondent were therefore strongly predictable by the answers provided to the previous statements. Therefore a strong inter-relationship existed between the answers of the serial influence for consecutive answers.

In addition the characteristics of suspiciousness and pragmatism, which are central characteristics of police culture, may have also influenced the results of this study negatively.

4.6 Conclusion

This chapter covered the presentation of the results as well as the analysis and discussion thereof. The following chapter will be used to provide recommendations for future research and also serve as the conclusion to this study.



Chapter 5

Recommendations and conclusion

5.1 Introduction

This study sought to determine whether there would be a positive relationship between the dimensions of OC and the OCB dimensions of members working for the SAPS in the Western Cape. Chapter One served as an introduction to the study while Chapter Two covered the literature review. Chapter Three gave an overview of the research methodology used to perform the study, while Chapter Four covered the presentation of the results as well as the analysis and discussion thereof.

This chapter will essentially be used to discuss the limitations of the study, provide recommendations for future research, and to draw a conclusion to this study.

5.2 Ethical considerations

The researcher sought permission from the Provincial Commissioner of the Western Cape SAPS, as well as from the National Head Office of the SAPS, before conducting the study. In addition, after obtaining permission to conduct the study from the Provincial Commissioner as well as the National Head Office of the SAPS, the researcher also sought permission from the individual station commanders of the selected police stations. It was only after obtaining permission from the station commanders that the researcher introduced himself to the members from the different stations that would be responsible for the distribution and collection of the questionnaires.

The researcher explained that the participation of members in the study would be on a voluntary basis and that non-participation would not be used against the members in future disciplinary cases. In order to safeguard the anonymity of the participants, members were asked not to provide any identifiable information about themselves on the answer sheets.

5.3 Limitations of the study

The limitations of the present study include the sampling procedure. The sample was limited to three of the largest police stations in the Western Cape which has a total of one hundred and thirty eight (138) police stations. As data was only collected from three select stations in the province and given the immense size and the cultural diversity of the population, it may not be possible to generalise the findings to the larger population in the Western Cape or across the greater South Africa.

Since convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling method where subjects are selected on the basis of their convenient accessibility and proximity to the researcher, and considering that most members were working on a shift-basis, it was difficult to obtain an even ratio of members.

If one considers that most police members are often suspicious of the people they come into contact with, or the situations in which they find themselves, as aluded to in Chapter 2, it is understandable that members are not keen on completing questionnaires relating to their work environment out of fear of reprisal from management. It is for this reason that the researcher opted to exclude any biographical questions that could help in identifying the respondent. However, this has also resulted in the loss of a considerable amount of valuable information that could have potentially shed more light on answering the research question of this study.

In addition there is a strong reluctance on the part of police members to complete questionnaires as the members feel that nothing gets done about the information that is being gained from the questionnaires. Members argue that they never see any results of surveys and that no changes are subsequently implemented either.

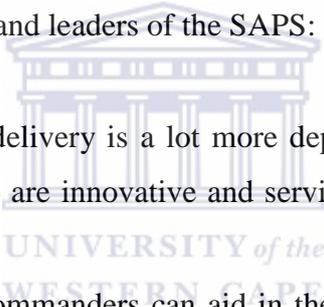
Another characteristic of the police culture is that of pragmatism, also aluded to in Chapter 2. According to this characteristic police members have a strong dislike for paperwork which drives their reluctance to consider innovation, experimentation or research. By asking police members to spend another 10 to 15 minutes of their time on completing questionnaires will just be adding to their strong dislike for paperwork.

An additional factor that could have negatively impacted the study is that the questionnaires used to gather data were available in English only, despite the fact that the larger majority of SAPS members in the Western Cape are predominantly Xhosa and Afrikaans speaking.

Another limitation could have been the fact that members were already so swamped with getting their case dockets solved, that they could simply not find the time to read through the questionnaires properly and then provide more valid answers to the questions.

5.4 Important points to consider in this study

The following points are considered to be important to note particularly for organisational commanders and leaders of the SAPS:

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- Sustainable service delivery is a lot more dependent on skilled and competent police members who are innovative and service-orientated instead of on policy papers;
 - SAPS leaders and commanders can aid in the delivery of excellent services to the communities in which they perform their duties by ensuring their members are fully equipped, motivated and receiving continuous and relevant training;
 - Too much bureaucracy may impact significantly on capacity building for the implementation of policy programmes;
 - Organisations cannot rely on formal systems of job description, training, or rewards to cultivate the OCB of their members (Podsakoff et al., 2000);
 - Departmental units need to work co-operatively, collaborate and share information with each other in order to achieve organisational goals, rather than operating in isolation of each other whilst competing for scarce resources.

5.5 Recommendations for future research

Recommendations pertaining to the SAPS as an organisation as well as recommendations to future researchers are made in this section.

5.5.1 Recommendations to the SAPS

Internal customer satisfaction experienced by members of the SAPS will in turn lead to better quality service being rendered to the community. This will lead to satisfied customers who will appreciate the service that they are receiving from the members of the SAPS. The knowledge that their service is being appreciated by the customers may enhance feelings of self-worth and satisfaction amongst employees. The SAPS as an organisation will thus be able to achieve its vision, mission and values with regard to customer service according to the principles of Batho Pele.

The conservative nature of bureaucracies makes it difficult for the SAPS, as an organisation, to become flexible and adjust to changes in the external environment. An excessive conformity to rules may result in the SAPS giving first priority to observing rules and regulations at the expense of satisfying the needs of the internal or external customer. The maintenance of discipline in the SAPS as a formal structure may result in relationships between commanders and members that are depersonalised. As a result the organisation may become hypersensitive to all forms of criticism, whether externally or internally. This hypersensitivity to all forms of criticism may then result in a desensitisation of SAPS members to the concerns of their customers and the way in which the members provide services to the community.

As OCB is discretionary and typically not supported by formal systems of role description, training, or rewards (Podsakoff et al., 2000), employees are more likely to turn to their commanders in order to determine the desirable or normative level of OCB within the organisation (Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004). Service delivery would thus benefit from commanders in the SAPS leading by example. In addition Podsakoff et al., (2000) argue that an increase in perceived organisational support (POS) is positively related with an increase in OCB.

5.5.2 Recommendations to future researchers

It is highly recommended to future researchers to consider translating the questionnaire into languages other than English in order to ensure that there are no language barriers that may influence the responses of members. As South Africa is demarcated into 9 different provinces with eleven (11) recognised official languages, future researchers may be mindful to consider the most dominant languages in the particular province, area within the province, as well as the individual stations where they will be conducting their research.

Future researchers could also benefit from using a stratified random-sampling design, which would ensure sufficient representation of the different cultural groups in the total population.

To ensure that a larger percentage of police members completed and returned the questionnaires, the researcher deemed it necessary to omit any type of information from the questionnaires that could be used to identify any of the respondents in the study. This, however, led to the loss of very valuable information that could have helped the researcher in answering other potential hypotheses.

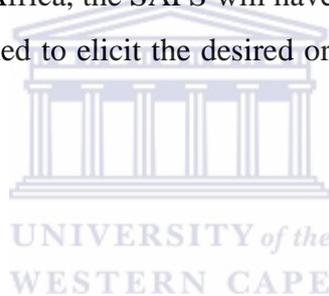
It is also advisable to future researchers to introduce themselves to the intended sample before distributing the questionnaires. This could be done in order to establish much needed rapport with the members and also to explain the potential benefits of the research to the SAPS as a whole, to the members themselves and by extension also to South Africa.

Lastly future researchers could also replicate the study to other stations and areas in the Western Cape and to the other eight provinces of South Africa in order to enable generalisation of the results to the SAPS as an organisation nationally.

5.6 Conclusion.

Organisational culture is viewed as one of the most important factors that influence employee behaviour and attitudes towards the environments that they work in and the way in which they treat their customers. The public's perception of the police, as enforcers of the apartheid policy, coupled by poor service delivery and allegations of police corruption, is making it difficult for communities to have confidence in the ability of the SAPS to adequately and impartially address their concerns.

The organisational culture of the SAPS will continue to be a central issue and concern in its efforts to provide efficient and effective community services according to the principles of Batho Pele. In order for the SAPS to implement the policies of the government of the day, render a real service and create a safe and secure environment for all the people of South Africa, the SAPS will have to ensure that their organisational culture is strategically aligned to elicit the desired organisational citizenship behaviour amongst its members.



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Appendices



**THE IMPACT OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE ON ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP
BEHAVIOUR WITHIN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE IN THE WESTERN CAPE**

You are hereby requested to participate in a research study with the above title. I am a registered Masters student at the University of the Western Cape in the Department of Industrial Psychology, presently in the process of doing my internship at the SAPS Employee Health and Wellness, Western Cape. My selected research topic involves exploring the theory that Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (going beyond the call of duty) is positively influenced by Organisational Culture (expected prescribed behaviour).

The questionnaire should take about 10 to 15 minutes to complete. Participation in the study is completely voluntary and anonymous. Please do not write your name or Persal number on the question paper. Respondents are please requested to answer all the questions until number 49 on the next page.

Organisational Culture Questionnaire

The following statements relate to the Organisational Culture of the SAPS. Please read each statement carefully and indicate, using the scale below, the extent to which you agree or disagree by marking with an (X) in the appropriate box.	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. This organisation is a very personal place. It is like an extended family.	A	B	C	D	E
2. The management style in this organisation is characterised by teamwork, agreement, and participation.	A	B	C	D	E
3. The “glue” that holds this organisation together is loyalty and mutual trust.	A	B	C	D	E
4. This organisation highlights personal and professional development.	A	B	C	D	E
5. This organisation defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.	A	B	C	D	E
6. This organisation is very active and business-like. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.	A	B	C	D	E
7. The management style in this organisation is characterised by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.	A	B	C	D	E
8. The “glue” that holds this organisation together is commitment to innovation and development.	A	B	C	D	E
9. This organisation emphasises buying new resources and creating new challenges.	A	B	C	D	E
10. This organization succeeds by having the most unique or newest products.	A	B	C	D	E
11. This organization is very results oriented and tries to get the job done.	A	B	C	D	E
12. The management style in this organisation is characterised by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.	A	B	C	D	E
13. The “glue” that holds this organisation together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment.	A	B	C	D	E
14. This organisation emphasises competitive actions and achievement.	A	B	C	D	E
15. This organisation defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition.	A	B	C	D	E
16. This organisation is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.	A	B	C	D	E
17. The management style in this organisation is characterised by security of employment, traditionalism, predictability, and stability in relationships.	A	B	C	D	E
18. The “glue” that holds this organisation together is formal rules and policies.	A	B	C	D	E
19. This organisation highlights permanence and stability.	A	B	C	D	E
20. This organisation defines success on the basis of effectiveness.	A	B	C	D	E

Appendix B Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Questionnaire

The following statements relate to how you behave at the workplace. Please read each statement carefully and indicate, using the scale below, the extent to which you agree or disagree, by marking with an (X) in the appropriate box.	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
21. I help others who have heavy amounts of work.	A	B	C	D	E
22. I help others who have been absent.	A	B	C	D	E
23. I train or help others to carry out their jobs better.	A	B	C	D	E
24. I help new people to get used to the work environment.	A	B	C	D	E
25. I help others with difficult work duties.	A	B	C	D	E
26. I keep up with changes in the organisation.	A	B	C	D	E
27. I attend functions that are not required but help the organisation's image.	A	B	C	D	E
28. I attend and take part in formal meetings regarding the organisation.	A	B	C	D	E
29. I attend and take part in informal meetings regarding the organisation.	A	B	C	D	E
30. I arrive at work on time.	A	B	C	D	E
31. I never take long lunch breaks.	A	B	C	D	E
32. I never take extra breaks.	A	B	C	D	E
33. I always obey organisational rules even if there is no one watching me.	A	B	C	D	E
34. I always finish my work on time.	A	B	C	D	E
35. I think my organisation has a lot of problems.	A	B	C	D	E
36. I constantly talk about wanting to leave my job.	A	B	C	D	E
37. I feel positively about my component.	A	B	C	D	E
38. I feel positively about the organisation.	A	B	C	D	E
39. I am not happy with the way the organisation is being run.	A	B	C	D	E
40. My work quality is up to standard.	A	B	C	D	E
41. I think my organisation has big problems.	A	B	C	D	E
42. I inform others before taking important actions.	A	B	C	D	E
43. I go out of my way to protect other employees.	A	B	C	D	E
44. I show unhappiness with other employees.	A	B	C	D	E
45. I visit other employees at their work stations during work periods.	A	B	C	D	E
46. I do not complain about work duties.	A	B	C	D	E
47. I can handle work pressure.	A	B	C	D	E
48. I always act happily.	A	B	C	D	E
49. I work well with those around me.	A	B	C	D	E

Thank you

Brian Abrahams
Room 118, EHW, SAPS, Customs House
Tel. 021 467 8430

The Provincial Commissioner
South African Police Service
Western Cape

Lieutenant General A.H. Lamoer

Permission to conduct research within the SAPS

SUBJECT: THE IMPACT OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE ON ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR WITHIN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE IN THE WESTERN CAPE

Dear Lieutenant General Lamoer

My name is Brian Abrahams. I am a registered student at the University of the Western Cape in the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences. I am presently in the process of doing my internship at Employee Health and Wellness, Western Cape. This process also requires that I write a thesis to fulfil the requirements for registration as an Industrial Psychologist

I am currently writing my thesis with the above title as partial fulfilment in obtaining the degree MCOM (Industrial and Organisational Psychology).

My selected research topic involves exploring the hypothesis that Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (going beyond the call of duty) is positively influenced by Organisational Culture (expected prescribed behaviour). Research evidence suggests that strengthening the cultural roots of an organisation can lead to the observance of increased behaviours that goes beyond the call of duty across all sectors within a given organisation.

Cultures that encourage innovation, sense of togetherness, positive competition and relevant structures and procedures, are ideal in encouraging employees to perform beyond normal expectations in organisations. Organisational Culture is therefore a critical element that contributes to organisational success and effectiveness.

I hereby humbly request permission from your office to conduct research within the Western Cape SAPS, exclusively for academic purposes. I am also prepared to share the results of the study with the management of the Western Cape SAPS.

Respectfully,

Brian Abrahams

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