

**ASSESSING ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE IN A
PRIVATE HOSPITAL IN THE WESTERN CAPE**

by

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Abstract

Organisational culture has been one of the most studied and theorised concepts in organisational development. New ways of working, globalisation, increased competition and change in technology have created a greater need for strategic innovation and co-ordination and integration across units (Schein, 1992). Culture is the single most important factor for success or failure and has the greatest potential to affect organisational improvements or hold it back (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Fowler, 2002).

Research suggests that organisational culture, its assessment and management is increasingly viewed as a necessary part of healthcare improvements (Scott, Mannion, Davies & Marshall, 2003). In the health care environment, organisational culture has been associated with several elements of organisational experience and initiatives that contribute to quality, such as nursing care, job satisfaction and patient safety (Boan & Funderburk, 2003).

In order to implement strategic initiatives or performance improvement interventions, it is important that an organisation understands the current status of its organisational culture. The best way to gain understanding of the culture is by assessing it (Davidson, 2004).

The aim of the research was to assess the organisational culture of a private hospital in the Western Cape. For the purpose of this study a quantitative methodology adopted used utilising purposive sampling. The sample (n = 221) was inclusive of males and females and comprised of permanent and contract employees extending across the following departments: Human Resources, Patient Administration, Pharmacy, Technical, Support Services and Nursing. The nursing department was the

largest representative group of the sample. The sample also included of medi-staff, management and an additional small hospital that reports to the management team.

The Denison Organisational Culture Survey was used to gather data for the study. The Survey measures four culture traits, namely, involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data.

Results indicated that employees perceived involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission positively. Furthermore, there were no significant differences found for consistency and sense of mission by employees in different departments. There were several limitations of the study. Amongst others, the results cannot be generalised to the broader population of all private hospitals as the findings are unique to the particular organisation. Secondly, the Denison Organisational Culture Survey has only been validated in a financial organisation in South Africa. A recommendation for further research would be to utilise quantitative as well as qualitative methodology to add to the existing body of knowledge.

Key words:

Organisational culture

Organisational climate

Perception

Health care industry

Denison Organisational Culture Survey

Cultural Traits

Involvement

Consistency

Adaptability

Mission

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that “Assessing organisational culture in a private hospital in the Western Cape” is my own work, that it has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other institution of higher learning, and that all references have, to the best of my knowledge, been correctly reported. It is being submitted for the degree of Magister Artium at the University of the Western Cape.

Full Name: Leigh Angy Zwaan

Date: 15 May 2006



Signed:

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1. BACKGROUND

The literature provides evidence that organisational culture is a critical concept in business (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Denison, 1990; Peters & Waterman, 1982). Schein (1992) states that organisational culture is more important today than it has previously been. New ways of working, globalisation, increased competition and change in technology have created a greater need for strategic innovation and co-ordination and integration across organisational units. Musselwhite (1999) concurs with Schein (1992) positing that organisational culture matters more today because employees are the business asset with the greatest potential for leveraged performance. Musselwhite (1999) adds that how employees work together and what they believe to be true about their individual and collective purposes make all the difference to their willingness to participate in improvement projects, produce innovative quality goods and services that attract and retain customers. Baker (2002) elaborates that organisational culture has become more important because intellectual as opposed to material assets now constitute the main source of value.

Deal and Kennedy (1982) argues that culture is the single most important factor for success or failure. Fowler (2002) agrees and indicates that organisational culture emerges as the factor that researchers see as having the greatest potential to affect organisational improvements or hold it back.

Organisational culture, its assessment and importance, has been researched by Scott et al. (2003). Their research suggests that the assessment and management of organisational culture is increasingly viewed as a necessary part for health care improvements. Appeals for culture change in health care draw upon a belief that culture is related to organisational performance. Scott et al. (2003) suggest that an organisation's culture affects performance in at least four directions. First, culture may drive economic efficiency via the promotion of shared values and internalised norms within the organisation. Second, culture may affect equity by establishing organisational mechanisms that encourages efficiency-seeking behaviour. Third, culture may influence the overall economic and social objectives that an organisation pursues and finally, organisational culture may encourage co-operation and relationship building. Boan and Funderburk (2003) state that in the health care environment, organisational culture has also been associated with several elements of organisational experience that contribute to quality, such as nursing care, job satisfaction and patient safety. Studies done by Scott et al. (2003) have suggested that cultures in health care organisations that emphasise group affiliation, teamwork and co-ordination have been associated with greater implementation of continuous quality improvement practices.

Price (2003) suggests that in order to work towards improving the culture, an organisation must find out "who" it is. Davidson (2004) similarly states that it is important that an organisation understands the current status of its organisational culture before implementing strategic initiatives or performance improvement interventions. The best way to gain understanding of the culture is by assessing it. Baker (2002) elaborates by indicating that leaders must be able to assess how well the

culture is performing and when and how it needs to be changed. Assessing and improving organisational culture as well as determining when cultural transformations are necessary is critical to long-term organisational success. Bredenkamp (2002) states that without a thorough analysis and assessment of the organisation's culture, progress and a sustainable programme for success cannot be ensured. Nier (2004) postulates that although organisational culture is often seen as intangible, culture is extremely powerful and pervasive and can be a major barrier to the implementation of strategic objectives. A clear understanding of the organisation's culture is critical to leveraging the organisation's strengths in support of strategic objectives and long-term success. Nier (2004) further stipulates that there often exists a discrepancy between what an organisation strives to achieve and the assumptions and beliefs its employees actually espouse.



1.2. MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

The hospital where the research was conducted previously attempted to introduce and implement quality improvement projects and initiatives such as clinical governance, business process re-engineering, risk management, service quality and clinical audits. These initiatives have been unsuccessful in certain departments in the hospital. Studies done by Walshe and Freeman (2002) found that implementing quality improvement projects across a health system often has disappointing results. Their studies depict organisational culture as an important determinant of the effectiveness of quality improvement. They recommend that for quality improvement projects to be successful a better understanding of what cultural traits either help or hinder the development of improvement projects and organisational effectiveness is needed.

They stipulate that organisations should determine which cultural traits should be promoted or developed in order to enhance the implementation of improvement projects. Mc Garvey and Wolfe (2000) maintain that theories and research provide support between certain types of organisational cultures and corresponding effectiveness or ineffectiveness in accomplishing goals. The authors refer to Denison's (1990) research using case studies and survey data that studied highly effective organisations based on four cultural traits namely involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission. The premise of this research is focused on assessing how involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission are perceived by employees in a private hospital in the Western Cape.

The reason for the study is firstly to assess the organisational culture of a private hospital in the Western Cape to determine which cultural traits should be developed in order to enhance organisational effectiveness. Secondly, the quantitative studies that have been conducted on organisational culture have generally been conducted in the United States of America (Davidson, 2004). Despite the literature that organisational culture has been extensively studied (Denison, 1990; Hofstede, 1985; Schein, 1985) and a few studies in health care have been explored (Barker et al., 2003; Manley, 2000; McGarvy & Wolfe, 2000; Scott et al., 2003), little research has been done on organisational culture in the South African private health care industry.

1.3. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The aim of the research is to assess the organisational culture of a private hospital in the Western Cape. It focuses specifically on four cultural traits namely, involvement, consistency, adaptability and sense of mission. This research aims to address the following:

- To determine whether there is a relationship between involvement, consistency, adaptability, and sense of mission as dimensions of organisational culture.
- To determine whether involvement is a cultural trait which will be positively perceived by employees.
- To determine whether consistency is a cultural trait which will be positively perceived by employees.
- To determine whether adaptability is a cultural trait which will be positively perceived by employees.
- To determine whether sense of mission is a cultural trait which will be positively perceived by employees.
- To determine whether there are significant differences regarding the perception of cultural traits related to different departments.



1.4. HYPOTHESES

Based on the objectives, the following research hypotheses have been formulated:

Hypothesis 1: There are statistically significant relationships between involvement, consistency, adaptability and sense of mission as dimensions of organisational culture.

Hypothesis 2: Involvement is a cultural trait which will be positively perceived by employees.

Hypothesis 3: Consistency is a cultural trait which will be positively perceived by employees.

Hypothesis 4: Adaptability is a cultural trait which will be positively perceived by employees.



Hypothesis 5: Sense of Mission is a cultural trait which will be positively perceived by employees.

Hypothesis 6: There are significant differences regarding the perception of the cultural traits related to different departments.

1.5. DEFINITIONS

For the purpose of this research the following concepts have been defined:

1.5.1. Organisational culture

Many definitions of organisational culture exist. For the purpose of this study, organisational culture is defined as the underlying values, beliefs, and assumptions that shape employee behaviour (Hofstede, 1985; Robbins, 1998; Schein, 1985).

1.5.2. Health care industry

The health care industry refers to an industry which consists of private hospital groups, private clinics, managed health care organisations, medical practitioners, supporting service providers, specialists and medical aids (Boan & Funderburk, 2003). It is also defined as “the complex of preventative, remedial, and therapeutic services provided by hospitals and other institutions, nurses, doctors, dentists, government agencies, pharmaceutical and medical equipment manufacturers, and health insurance companies” (Mosby’s Medical, Nursing and Allied Health Dictionary, 2002, p. 784).

1.5.3. Private hospital

A private hospital is a hospital not funded by the Government where private patients are treated (Luiz & Wessels, 2004). The definition of private hospital is elaborated in Mosby’s Medical, Nursing and Allied Health Dictionary (2002) as a health care facility that provides inpatient beds, continuous nursing services and organised medical staff.

1.5.4. Assessment

An assessment is any systematic method of obtaining evidence from tests, examinations, questionnaires, surveys and collateral sources used to draw inferences about characteristics of people, objects or programmes for a specific purpose (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2002).

1.5.5. Department

A department is a specialised division or unit of an organisation (Robbins, 1998).

1.5.6. Cultural traits

Cultural traits are characteristics or qualities that reflect the culture or the environment in which the employee functions (Denison, 1990).



1.5.7. Perception

Perception is the mental organisation and interpretation of sensory information. Perception is influenced by a variety of factors including the intensity and physical dimensions of the stimulus, the subject's past experience, attention factors such as readiness to respond to a stimulus, and motivation and emotional state of the subject (Robbins, 1998).

1.6. CHAPTER SUMMARY

The aim of this research was to assess the organisational culture in a private hospital in the Western Cape. The background and motivation for the research was discussed, the objectives of the research were addressed and the hypotheses stated. This chapter concludes with the important concepts referred to in the study. An overview of each chapter is provided next.

1.7. OVERVIEW OF THE CHAPTERS

Chapter two provides an overview of the literature conducted pertaining to the aspects related to the study. Reference is made to the various definitions of organisational culture and introduces types of organisational culture that exists. Furthermore, various models to assess organisational culture are discussed, with specific focus on the Denison Culture Model (as the research is based on this model). Strategies to address organisational culture are highlighted and the chapter concludes with previous studies conducted in this field.

Chapter three focuses on the research methodology used to investigate the research problem. In particular the sample, procedure, biographical questionnaire, research instrument and the statistical methods used to test the hypotheses are discussed.

Chapter four presents the research results. The chapter provides an overview of the results based on the statistical analyses.

Chapter five discusses the findings of the study, limitations of the research and concludes with recommendations for the organisation and for future research.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

The chapter commences with a brief history of organisational culture. Various definitions of organisational culture and a review of the differences between culture and climate are provided. Thereafter, types of organisational culture are discussed and various models of organisational culture are presented. Focus is accorded particularly to the Denison Culture Model as the research is based on this model. Previous studies assessing organisational culture are noted and in conclusion, strategies to change organisational culture are presented.

2.1. HISTORY OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Although the concept of organisational culture was popularised in the early 1980's, its roots can be traced back to the early human relations view of organisations (Baker, 2002). An attempt to understand work organisation in cultural terms occurred in the late 1920's with the Hawthorne studies. Findings from this research emphasised the importance of the culture of a work group, especially norms relating to productivity and the attitude of workers towards management. Mc Gregor (1960) states that the human relations movement sparked by the Hawthorne studies was directly relevant to current efforts to understand and manage corporate culture. He was the first to suggest practical applications of the findings on organisational culture, which emanated from the Hawthorne studies.

Understanding organisational culture was further researched in the 1970's with regards to the effect of culture on organisational performance and investigations into how organisational culture is created and maintained (Baker, 2002). Based on these

findings organisational culture is now viewed less as a natural, organically emergent phenomenon and more as a manipulable and manageable competitive asset (Baker, 2002).

Denison and Mishra (1995) highlight that there have been two general approaches to culture research. Firstly, the phenomenological approach, which emphasises the emergent and phenomenal nature of organisations. Secondly, the functionalist approach which emphasises the predictable impacts of purposive, intentional forms of the social organisation. Several authors (Denison, 1990; Hofstede, 1985; Jermier, Slocum, Fry & Gains, 1991) have attempted to integrate these two approaches in an attempt to improve the theoretical quality of the concept of organisational culture. Each of these authors present empirical research that incorporates both qualitative and quantitative data and acknowledges both the functionalist and phenomenological perspectives.



Porter, Lawler and Hackman (1975) suggest that change and development initiatives do not occur in a vacuum. Initiatives should be embedded in an existing organisational culture which has a vital impact on the degree of success of any efforts to improve the organisation. Peters and Waterman (1982) state that the key to productivity is the systems within which employees work. According to the authors, the “productivity through people” (p. 114) concept is supported in a research study of 1300 major United States organisations. The findings concluded that the dominant theme of management practice in the United States was the transformation of organisational culture towards more participative organisations that emphasised focussing attention on employee needs as a major corporate strategy.

Deal and Kennedy (1982), like Peters and Waterman (1982), focussed on the strategic importance of organisational culture. They state that a strong culture is a powerful lever in guiding behaviour. Kilman (1984) asserts that situational forces and key individuals shape organisational culture. The situational forces are the organisation's mission, its setting and what is required for success, for example, quality, efficiency, reliability, customer service, innovation and loyalty. According to the author, as the reward systems, policies, procedures and rules governing work are formally documented, they have a more specific impact on shaping the initial culture by suggesting what behaviours and attitudes are important for success. Kotter and Heskett (1992) expanded on the strategic importance of organisational culture by exploring the importance of the "fit" between an organisation and its environment, thus emphasising adaptability.



As is evident from the above, organisational culture encompasses a variety of perspectives and is important for understanding the behaviour of individuals in the organisation as they manage external demands and internal social challenges.

2.2. DEFINITIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Organisational culture has been one of the most studied and theorised concepts in organisational development. A plethora of definitions have been given to the term "organisational culture" within the context of organisational psychology, anthropology and management theory. Ajiferuke and Boddewyn (1970) in Du Toit (2002) posit that there are as many meanings of culture as people using the term but fortunately, some of these meanings or definitions of culture overlap (Du Toit, 2002). Struwig and Smith (2002) however, assert that defining the term organisational culture is a difficult task.

Organisational culture has been defined by Harvey and Brown (1996) as a system of shared meanings, including the language, dress, patterns of behaviour, value system, feelings, attitudes, interactions and group norms of employees within the organisation. It is seen as a system of shared values held by employees that distinguishes one organisation from another. In conjunction with this Robbins (1998) further defined organisational culture as a common perception by the organisation's members.

Denison (1990) emphasises organisational culture as referring to underlying values, beliefs and principles that serves as a basis for an organisation's management system. According to Christensen and Gordon (1999), it is something that is held to be relatively unique to each organisation. They posit that organisational cultures evolve from the adaptation of organisations to the requirements of their environments.

According to Fincham and Rhodes (2004), culture is subjective and reflects the meanings and understandings that are typically attributed to situations. Booyens (2002) is of the opinion that culture has subjective and objective aspects. Subjective aspects are related assumptions and mind-sets such as a shared understanding of how things will be done. Objective aspects of culture on the other hand, exist outside the minds of the employees and include such artefacts as pictures of leaders, monuments, stories, ceremonies and rituals.

Cascio (1998) defines organisational culture as being the pattern of basic assumptions developed by an organisation in learning to adapt to both its external and internal environments. The author is of the opinion that organisational culture is embedded and transferred through formal statements of organisational philosophy and materials used for recruitment, selection and socialisation of new employees, promotion

criteria, stories, legends and myths about key people, measurable aspects of performance, control and implicit criteria that leaders use to determine who fits into key slots in the organisation. Cascio (1998) states that by linking staffing decisions to cultural factors, organisations try to ensure that their employees have internalised the strategic intent and core values of the organisation thus ensuring that employees act in the interest of the organisation.

Gerber, Nel and Van Dyk (1998) defines organisational culture as “the manner in which things are done in the organisation” (p. 43), otherwise also known as the personality of the organisation. They posit that the culture of an organisation develops over time and employees are not necessarily aware of its existence. Culture involves assumptions about the manner in which work should be done, relevant goals for the organisation and departments and personal goals for employees. Furthermore, organisational culture is of importance to management because it will aid in the understanding of how employees feel about their work.

George and Jones (1996) further indicate that creating values and norms that encourage creativity and innovation is also an important part of organisational culture. They purport that the process begins when an organisation recognises and rewards employee behaviours that demonstrate commitment to terminal and instrumental values that promote creativity and innovation.

Sorensen (2002) sees organisational culture as a system of values and norms that define appropriate attitudes and behaviours for the organisation’s employees. The author is of the opinion that an organisation is considered to have a strong culture if those norms and values are widely shared and intensely held throughout the

organisation. One of the consequences of a strong organisational culture is that it increases consistency across employees in an organisation.

Corporate culture as defined by Terpstra and David (1991) include the study of language or jargon in the organisation, pragmatic cultural codes for conduct imparted by various media of socialisation, for example, recruitment and selection processes, imitating successful managers, and ideal codes of conduct and value priorities imparted in corporate rituals such as meetings.

According to Fulop and Linstead (1999), culture is not something that an organisation has, but something an organisation is. The authors posit that an organisation is not only a place where cultural processes happen, but is also an outcome of those processes. Thus, the organisation is therefore seen to be both a product and producer of culture.



The most commonly used definition of culture is that of Schein (1985) which states that culture is “a pattern of basic assumptions – invented, discovered or developed by a group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration – that has worked well enough to be considered valid and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those processes” (Du Toit, 2002, p. 16).

In conclusion, the above definitions highlight the behavioural view of organisational culture as it is attributed to the “beliefs and values” which happen through learning, either directly or indirectly.

2.3. DOMINANT AND SUB-CULTURES

Terpstra and David (1991) assert that although an organisation may have a dominant culture, many subcultures, which can be classified into occupational, functional, and geographical lines, may coexist and interact.

Robbins (1998) asserts that a dominant culture expresses the core values that are shared by a majority of employees. Scott et al. (2003) states that where organisations are differentiated along occupational lines such as in health care for example, a number of co-existing sub-cultures are likely to be identified. Zboril-Benson and Magee (2005) concur stating that in healthcare sub-cultures often develop around a subset of employees who identify themselves as a distinct group and interact regularly. The authors posit that sub-cultures are important since they suggest that the organisation's culture is not unitary, but consists of numerous small cultures. Robbins (1998) is of the opinion that large organisations develop sub-cultures that reflect problem situations or experiences faced by employees. Sub-cultures are likely to be defined by a department and will include the core values of the dominant culture plus additional values unique to members of the relevant department.

According to Scott et al. (2003), researchers have adopted two broad frameworks for studying organisational sub-cultures relative to an organisation's overall cultural patterns, especially its dominant values. The first perspective analyses whether they support, deny, or co-exist alongside the values of the dominant culture. The second perspective acknowledges that sub-cultures relate to occupational, departmental, ward, specialty, clinical network and other affiliations.

2.4. CULTURE VERSUS CLIMATE

Buono and Bowditch (1989) assert that although the terms organisational culture and organisational climate are often used interchangeably, there are basic differences between them. Organisational climate is defined as a measure of whether people's expectations about what it should be like to work in an organisation are being met. Organisational culture, on the other hand, is concerned with the nature of beliefs and expectations about organisational life. Climate is measured by organisational surveys as an indicator of the extent to which these employee beliefs and expectations are being fulfilled. Organisational culture is characterised by values and expectations and has a long-term perspective. Palmer (1999) concurs that employee satisfaction surveys [climate surveys] measure how individuals feel about the organisation and that culture studies measure how those factors effect the organisation and its capability to achieve its objectives.



Ahmed (1998) argues that organisational culture is a reflection of climate, but operates at a deeper level. Al-Shammari (1992) asserts that climate is considered relatively temporary, subject to control, and largely limited to those aspects of the social environment that are consciously perceived by employees. Tagiuri and Litwin (1986) define organisational climate as a relatively enduring quality of the internal environment of an organisation that is experienced by its employees, influences their behaviour, and can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics or attributes of the organisation.

Trice and Beyer (1993) state that the concepts of culture and climate are often confused in management literature and that they have distinctly different origins that give them different meanings. They assert that organisational culture refers to

psychological environments in which the behaviours of individuals occur, whereas climate studies focus on individually perceived and immediate experiences of the organisation's members. They argue that the techniques to measure the concepts are different and that climate lacks unique indicators.

Schein (1992) maintains that culture researchers are more concerned with the evolution of social systems over time whereas climate researchers are more focused on the impact that organisational systems have on groups and individuals. Culture captures the importance of a deep understanding of underlying assumptions, individual meaning and the insider's view of the organisation. Denison (1990) asserts that the debate regarding organisational culture and climate is an example of methodological differences obscuring a basic similarity. The author posits that the argument is not so much about what is being studied but how to study it. Denison (1990) adopts an approach on two grounds, namely, that both concepts focus on organizational level behavioural characteristics and both share a similar problem.

2.5. TYPES OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Balthazard and Cooke (2004) suggest that certain types of organisational cultures have been associated with either positive or negative outcomes for both the effectiveness of the organisation and for individual employees within the organisation. Positive outcomes for individuals might include motivation and satisfaction, while negative outcomes for individuals might include job insecurity and stress.

2.5.1. Handy's four types of Organisational Culture

Handy identifies four types of organisational culture, namely;

2.5.1.1. Power Culture

Struwig and Smith (2002) state that culture that depends on power and is influenced by a central figure is termed power culture. This is seen to be characteristic of organisations where there are few rules and procedures and a central figure exercises control. Discussions and often most of the initiatives refer back to the central figure, which in turn dominates work styles, beliefs and practices in the organisation. A problem with this kind of organisation is that it becomes increasingly difficult for the centre to keep control and manage the organisation as it grows and expands. Pretorius (2004) elaborates by stating that many organisations display the characteristics of a centralised power culture where power and influence spread out from a central figure or group. Advantages may include that such organisations can be strong, proud and dynamic and react quickly to external demands. Disadvantages, however, include that power cultures may have employees that suffer from disaffection where those in the middle layers feel that they have insufficient scope. The pressure and constant need to refer to the centre may create dysfunctional competition and jostling for the support of the person in charge. The organisation is dependent on the ability and judgement of the central power. Individuals succeed as long as they are power oriented, politically minded, risk taking and have a low need for security.

2.5.1.2. Role Culture

Struwig and Smith (2002) state that role culture is often stereotyped as bureaucracy and defines that jobs, rules and procedures build the organisational culture. The culture functions according to logic and rationality and strengths lie in its functions or specialists. Top management is characterised as having a small span of control and the organisation operates in a stable environment.


Pretorius (2004) posits that role culture is characterised when work within and between departments is controlled by procedures, role descriptions and authority definitions. There are mechanisms and rules for processing decisions and resolving conflicts. People are appointed to a role based on their ability to carry out the functions deemed satisfactory for that role. Performance required is related to role and functional position and efficiency stems from rational allocation of work and conscientious performance of defined responsibility. Bredenkamp (2002) elaborates that a small group of managers will rely substantively on procedures, systems and well-defined roles of communication when making the final decision.

On the positive side, role cultures tend to develop into relatively stable environments. Importance is given to predictability, standardisation and consistency and employees benefit from security and predictability in work patterns (Pretorius, 2004). However, role cultures may find it harder to adjust to change. Reasons are attributed to the following:

- The management of change is often a problem in this kind of organisation especially in an unstable environment as the managers often do not see the changes or do not know how to manage it,
- rules, procedures and tested ways of doing things may no longer fit the circumstances,
- work in role-culture is frustrating to an employee who wants discretion and opportunity for innovation and creativity as this is discouraged in his/her work and
- performance focuses on standard expectations rather than novel problem-solving to achieve results.

Du Toit and van Staden (2005) state that hospitals are examples of role cultures and are often referred to as bureaucracies as they are purposefully created to attain a single functional goal. They are hierarchically organised and have a strict structure of rank. Personnel are assigned to specialised roles and are selected primarily on the basis of competence and specialised training. Detailed general rules and regulations govern all conduct in the pursuit of official duties.

2.5.1.3. Task Culture

Struwig and Smith (2002) state that task culture is defined when the culture is job or project oriented and extremely adaptable. For a particular problem, people and resources can be drawn from various parts of the organisation on a temporary basis. Pretorius (2004) refers to task culture as project team culture where the emphasis is on results and getting things done.  The right people (despite the level) are brought together and given resources and decision making power to complete the task. Team composition, working relationships, the task and the results are founded on capability rather than status. Bredenkamp (2002) asserts that work is undertaken in teams that are flexible and tackle identified issues. In this organisation power rests with the team and experts are utilised to facilitate group decisions.

According to Bredenkamp (2002), a problem with this type of culture, however, is that it is less capable of large-scale work, its control lies largely on the efficiency of the team and top management is obliged to allow the group day-to-day autonomy. On the other hand, advantages of task cultures include that they are adaptable and flexible, they are based on expert power with some personal and positional power, influence is more widely dispersed and the team status and individual style

differences are of less significance, and the group achieves synergy to harness creativity, problem solving and thus gain efficiency (Pretorius, 2004).

2.5.1.4. Person Culture

Person culture is characterised by the individual being the central point where the organisation exists to assist the individual. Examples of person cultures include, groups of professional people such as doctors, dentists and architects (Struwig & Smith, 2002). Pretorius (2004) states that if there is a structure, it exists only to serve the individuals within it. The culture only exists for the people concerned and it has no other objective. An advantage of person culture is that employees tend to have strong values about how they work.

2.5.2. Harrison's Quadrants of Culture



According to Davidson (2004), Harrison described organisational culture quadrants similar to that of Handy. Well-known for his characterisation corresponding to gods of Greek mythology, he also distinguishes key types of organisational culture that correspond to different organisational forms. He states that organisational cultures give rise to four types of leaders characterised as Apollo, Zeus, Athena and Dionysus. These are briefly discussed below:

2.5.2.1. Apollo Culture

Apollo culture, which is similar to that of Handy's role culture, is highly formalised, centrally directed and are bureaucratic (Davidson, 2004).

2.5.2.2. Zeus Culture

Zeus culture, which is similar to Handy's power culture, is seen as a spider in the centre of a web with informal colleagues sharing the same thinking as their leader. Zeus culture, like power culture, is verbal and intuitive (Davidson, 2004).

2.5.2.3. Athena Culture

Athena culture, like Handy's task culture, consists of inter-disciplinary project groups organised around a task. Work is decentralised but still formalised by the disciplines that should be joined (Davidson, 2004).

2.5.2.4. Dionysus Culture

Dionysus culture, like Handy's atomistic culture, is a decentralised, informal culture. Bonds of respect and affection often characterise this relationship of free spirits united by common interests. This culture would be typical of independent experts joined together for mutual convenience (Davidson, 2004).

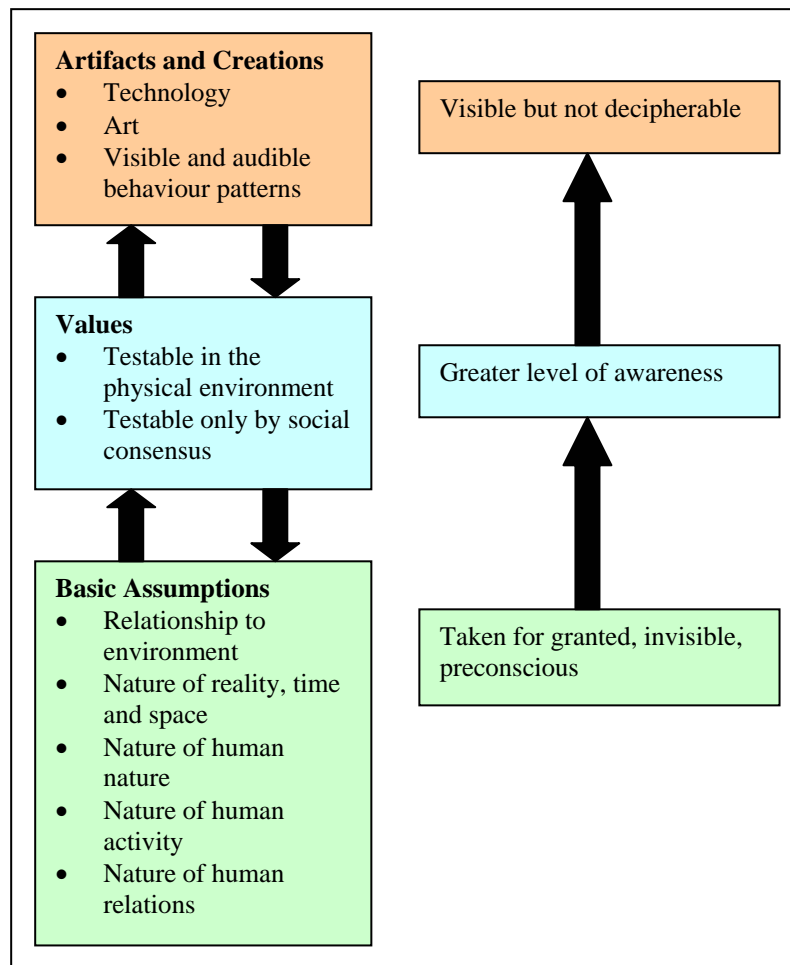
2.6. MODELS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

The ensuing literature presents various models of organisational culture namely that of, Schein; Kotter and Heskett; Hofstede and Denison's organisational culture models. These models will be addressed to provide a context for organisational culture. Focus is placed on the Denison's Organisational Culture Model as the current study is exclusively based on this model.

2.6.1. Schein's Model of Organisational Culture

Schein (1985) discusses three levels of culture, namely, artefacts and creations, values and norms, and beliefs and basic assumptions.

Figure 2.1. Schein's Model of Organisational Culture



Source: Adapted from Davidson (2004, p. 44).

2.6.1.1. Artefacts and Creations

According to Du Toit (2002), artefacts are visible, obvious expressions of culture. They are tangible and audible demonstrations of behaviour supported by organisational norms, values and assumptions. They range from aspects such as architecture, office design, language, rituals and celebrations.

2.6.1.2. Values and Norms

According to Schein (1985), values represent the principles and standards valued by the organisation's employees. Values form the basis as to what is acceptable and what is not acceptable. They indicate that which is considered right and wrong and forms an ethical code of the organisation.

Du Toit (2002) states that norms relate to values in that they indicate what the expectations are amongst the organisation's employees. Norms provide the organisation with unwritten rules that indicate the expectations in terms of actions relevant to certain situations.

Norms and values support the artefacts of a culture (Du Toit, 2002).

2.6.1.3. Assumptions and Beliefs



At the basis of an organisation's culture are the assumptions and beliefs. Assumptions are unconscious and are often taken for granted, but are the basis for how the organisation's employees feel. Basic assumptions become taken for granted to the extent that there is little variation within the cultural unit. They guide behaviour and tell people how to think, feel and perceive work, performance goals, relationships and performance of colleagues (Du Toit, 2002).

One of Schein's key assertions is that the changes in culture flow from the higher to the lower levels, with the "basic underlying assumptions" being the highest level. In Schein's model, the higher levels drive the lower levels and introducing change at a high level can bring transformative change throughout all the lower levels (Unwin, 2002).

Cameron and Robert (1999), referring to Schein's artifacts and creations, state that while the deeper levels may have been somewhat invisible in the past, this may no longer be so. As greater attention is being directed at managing culture, organisations are recognising the importance of stressing their fundamental assumptions.

2.6.2. Kotter and Heskett's Model of Organisational Culture

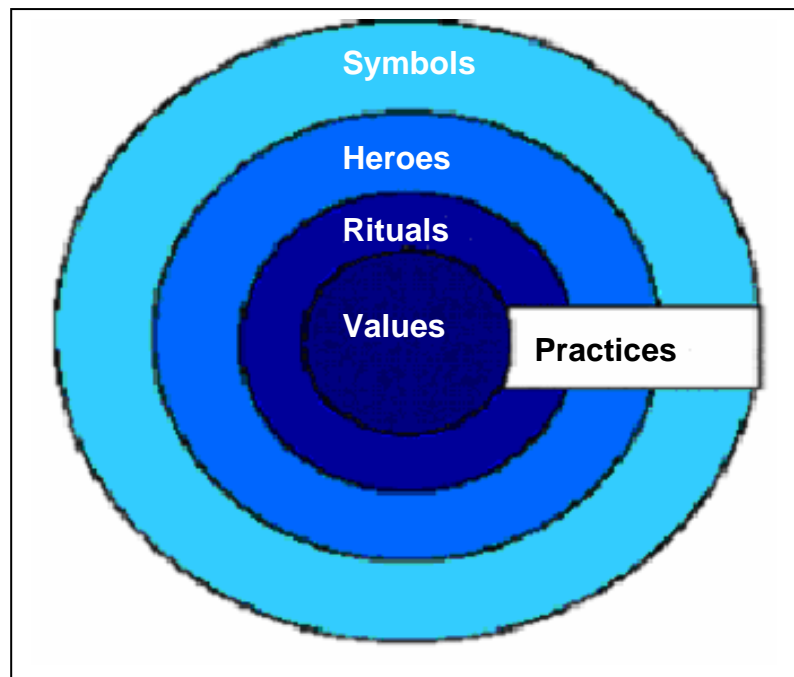
Kotter and Heskett (1992) concur with Schein's model and also define culture as norms of behaviour and shared values amongst a group of people. The authors describe culture as having two levels which differ in terms of their visibility and their resistance to change. The deeper, less visible level, refers to values that are shared by the people in a group and that persist over time, even when the group membership changes. At this level, culture can be difficult to change, partly because group members are unaware of the values that bind them together. The more visible level represents behaviour patterns or style of an organisation that new employees are automatically encouraged to follow. Culture is not something that an individual can directly manipulate.

Kotter and Heskett's (1992) study of organisational culture and performance concluded that organisations with performance enhancing cultures seem to be driven by a value system that stresses meeting the legitimate needs of all constituencies, including shareholders, customers and employees.

2.6.3. Hofstede's Model of Organisational Culture

Hofstede developed a cultural model for the relationship between organisational cultures and their local cultures. It has four main levels which encompass the lower level, as it depends on the lower level, or is a result of the lower level (Hofstede, 1985). The four main levels are: symbols, heroes, rituals and values.

Figure 2.2. Hofstede's Model of Organisational Culture



Source: Adapted from Davidson (2004, p. 47).

2.6.3.1. Symbols



Symbols are the most overt element of culture and are the gestures, objects or words recognised by those who are part of the same organisational culture (Denison, 1990).

Symbols carry a particular meaning within a culture (Davidson, 2004).

2.6.3.2. Heroes

Heroes are individuals who are seen to possess characteristics that are highly prized and are often the “winners” in an organisation (Davidson, 2004). They serve as models of behaviour within a particular organisation (Hofstede, 1985).

2.6.3.3. Rituals

Rituals are collective activities that are superfluous but are considered socially essential within a culture. Symbols, heroes and rituals can be termed as practices because they are visible to the observer (Hofstede, 1985).

2.6.3.4. Values

Hofstede stipulates that the core of culture is formed by values, which are broad tendencies to prefer certain states to others and are the deepest level of culture (Denison, 1990).

2.6.4. The Denison Organisational Culture Model

Literature and supporting research with respect to the cultural traits of the Denison Organisational Culture Model are discussed below. However, given the paucity of literature in the health care industry, reference is also made to research in other industries.

Denison (1990) identifies four basic views of organisational culture that can be translated into hypotheses focusing on the cultural traits, namely, that of involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission.



Figure 2.3. Denison's Culture and Effectiveness Model

Adaptability	Mission
Involvement	Consistency
Change and Flexibility	Stability and Direction

Source: Adapted from Denison (1990, p. 15).

2.6.4.1. Involvement

According to Wesemann (2001), involvement encompasses the importance that the organisation places on building the capability of its professional and administrative employees. The value that the organisation places on team orientation as opposed to individual accomplishment, and the ownership that people feel in the organisation, is created by a high level of involvement. Denison, Jonovics, Young and Cho (2006) assert that employees are committed to their work and feel a strong sense of ownership. They purport that people at all levels feel that they have some input into decisions that will affect their work and feel that their work is directly connected to the goals of the organisation.

The involvement hypothesis states that organisational effectiveness is a function of the level of involvement and participation of an organisation's members. A high level of involvement and participation creates a sense of ownership and responsibility. Out of this ownership grows a greater commitment to the organisation and a growing capacity to operate under conditions of ambiguity. The result is greater employee commitment to the organisation thereby reducing the needs for formal systems of control and leading to performance enhancement (Denison, 1990).

High involvement organisations rely on informal, voluntary and implicit control systems, rather than formal, explicit, bureaucratic control systems. Low involvement scores usually indicate an organisation in which employees are disconnected from their work, unaware of its importance and its connection to the rest of the organisation, unwilling to accept greater responsibility, and are hesitant about working with people outside of their immediate circle (Denison et al., 2006).

In the model, involvement is measured with three indices:

(i) Empowerment

Individuals have the authority, initiative and ability to manage their own work. This creates a sense of ownership and responsibility toward the organisation (Denison et al., 2006).

Studies done by Davidson (2004) in the financial industry in South Africa found high scores for empowerment. These findings were a result of employees having the authority and initiative to manage their work. These findings concur with results obtained from a study conducted by Sharma (2006) who surveyed staff employed by the Councils in Queensland. Results indicated that employee empowerment is associated with improved knowledge in the decision-making processes, improved skill in evaluating successes or failures, improved implementation of organisational programs, improved customer satisfaction, improved job satisfaction, improved quality of services and improved revenue growth.

Similarly, an investigation was done by Greasley, Bryman, Dairity, Price, Soetanto and King (2005) examining how empowerment is perceived by individuals employed on construction projects found that the strict regulations under which construction employees operate, limit their freedom to influence the work that they undertake. Further findings suggest that the role of the employees' immediate supervisor has a strong influence on the diffusion of empowerment.

Findings of a study conducted by Benko (2001) showed that if employees were not constrained by rules, regulations and limitations, they were able to work more promptly and effectively.

(ii) Team Orientation

Value is placed on working collaboratively toward common goals for which all employees feel mutually accountable. The organisation relies on team effort to get work done (Denison et al., 2006).

Studies relating to team orientation conducted by Scott et al. (2003) found that group affiliation and teamwork have been associated with greater implementation of continuous quality improvement practices in health care.

Research done by Fey, Nordahl and Zätterstrom (1998) investigating top performing organisations in Russia, found that the most effective organisations used teams extensively and specifically placed teams in competitive environments.

(iii) Capability Development

The organisation continuously invests in the development of employee skills in order to stay competitive and meet on-going business needs (Denison et al., 2006).

Research conducted by Mobley, Wang and Fang (2005) on 136 employees in an office furniture company showed low scores on capability development. These low scores were as a result of employees not receiving adequate training opportunities.

Puffer (1992) maintains that managers and employees need to learn how they can work well in a market economy, therefore an organisational culture that values training and capability development of employees is very important.

Literature indicates that effective organisations empower and engage their people, build their organisation around teams and develop human competence at all levels (Block, 1991; Buckingham & Coffman, 1999; Lawler, 1996; Spreitzer, 1995).

Trimpey (2004) conducted research examining change implementations and opportunities for information and technology managers to influence organisational culture as part of the change process. Selected literature was analysed to produce a reference for use by managers when planning and implementing technological changes. The researcher found after an examination of the alignment between the involvement trait and strategic management, that the sub-concepts empowerment, team orientation and capability development were viewed as key considerations when influencing the basic assumptions of an organisation's membership to move toward greater involvement.

Similarly, studies conducted by Fey and Denison (2006) found that involvement is the most important dimension of organisational culture for organisations whose primary goal is employee satisfaction.

Research done by Rondeau and Wagner (1999) investigating organisational culture in a hospital setting found that strong involvement cultures were more likely to have increased employee participation, increased employee training and development expenditures, and increased use of self-managed work teams.

2.6.4.2. Consistency

The consistency hypothesis states that, in consistent cultures, communication is a more reliable process for exchanging information because there is overall agreement on the meaning of words, actions and other symbols. Furthermore, Denison posits that a common perspective, shared beliefs and communal values among the organisation's members will enhance internal co-ordination and promote meaning and a sense of identification on the part of its members (Denison, 1990).

Saffold (1998) posits that the literature specifies that organisations are effective when they are consistent and well integrated. Denison et al. (2006); Gordon and Ditomaso (1992); Schein (1992) concur that behaviour is rooted in a set of core values, that leaders and followers are skilled in reaching agreement and incorporating diverse points of view and that the organisation's activities are well coordinated and integrated. Consistent organisations develop a mindset and create organisational systems that build an internal system of governance based on consensual support. This type of consistency is a powerful source of stability and internal integration.

In the model, consistency is measured with three indices:

(i) Core Values

Employees of the organisation share a set of values which create a sense of identity and a clear set of expectations (Denison et al., 2006).

In a study assessing organisational culture in a manufacturing company, it was found that few employees shared a set of values that created a sense of identity and clear expectations. This was highlighted as an improvement area for the organisation to concentrate on (Price, 2003).

Similarly, research conducted in Russian organisations by Fey and Denison (2006) revealed that employees viewed core values to be important. Employees responses indicated that the primary purpose of the firm is to maintain the integrity of the existing authority structure.

(ii) Agreement

Agreement occurs when employees of the organisation are able to reach consensus on critical issues. This includes both the underlying level of agreement and the ability to reconcile differences as they occur (Denison et al., 2006).

Results of studies that were done by Fisher and Alford (2000) examining the effect of organisational practices on individual attitudes and behaviour, indicated that it is necessary to establish whether there is agreement within the organisation about the dominant organisational practices. They found that agreement will strengthen the impact of organisational practices on individual work behaviour and attitudes. In contrast, disagreement will weaken the link between organisational practices and work behaviour and attitudes.

(iii) Co-ordination and Integration

Various functions and units of the organisation are able to work together to achieve common goals and organisational boundaries do not interfere with getting work done (Denison et al., 2006).

Baker (2002) states that strong pervasive cultures are beneficial to all organisations because it fosters motivation, commitment, identity, solidarity and sameness which facilitate internal integration and co-ordination. It is maintained that co-ordination and integration across organisational units are necessary to

improve efficiency, quality and speed of designing, manufacturing and delivering of products and services.

According to Buono and Bowditch (1989), the Wyandotte City Council engaged in a study to determine ways to reduce operational costs and to improve customer service. The Denison Organisational Culture Survey was administered and results showed low consistency scores which indicated that the City Council should improve their integration and co-ordination in order to improve operational effectiveness. According to Denison et al. (2006), organisations that have low consistency scores often have customers who get frustrated because no one seems to be able to speak for the entire organisation.

Christensen and Gordon (1999) conducted a study amongst staff in a motor vehicle industry to determine whether they successfully adapted to new business processes. The consistency trait analysed the ability to reach agreement on critical issues and the ability to co-ordinate different functions and units of the organisation. Results showed that employees were more or less neutral when it came to the overall level of consistency. Further analysis showed that this perception did not differ across the various indices that play a role in consistency (namely, core values, agreement and co-ordination). This was an indication to the organisation that they should boost employees' perception of consistency in order to promote a common understanding of their policies and procedures, as well as promote the new business processes to ensure equal levels of customer service.

A study done by Mc Garvey and Wolfe (2000) assessing organisational culture of two clinics found high scores relating to consistency in terms of the application of rules

and policies for both clinics. The researchers attributed these high scores in consistency to well organised and focused first line managers.

Rondeau and Wagner (1999) found that strong consistency cultures which stresses adherence to formal roles, rules and regulations and traditions, were found to be generally less likely to use systematic approaches when responding to change.

2.6.4.3. Adaptability

The adaptability hypothesis states that a culture that allows an organisation to adapt to changing demands and circumstances, will promote effectiveness. Adaptability allows an organisation to recognise and respond to its external environment and internal constituencies. In response to either internal or external stimuli, it requires the capacity to restructure behaviours and processes, as appropriate (Denison, 1990).

Despite some of the advantages of well-integrated organisations they can also be the least adaptive and most difficult to change as internal integration and external adaptation can be at odds.

Organisations that are strong in adaptability usually experience sales growth and increased market share (Denison & Mishra, 1995). Organisations with low adaptability scores usually have an inward focus and have difficulty responding to competitors, customers and employees with new ideas. Low adaptability organisations run on inertia and their past achievements could create barriers for future success. Top managers in these organisations usually spend their time responding to results of standard operating procedures, controlling the organisation and managing short-term performance, rather than leading change or long-term thinking (Denison et al., 2006).

In the model, adaptability is measured by three indices:

(i) Creating Change

This organisation is able to create adaptive ways to meet changing needs, it is able to read the business environment, react quickly to trends and anticipate future changes (Denison et al., 2006).

In a study assessing organisational culture in a manufacturing company, most employees indicated that they were not rewarded or respected for finding new and better ways of doing things, are not able to quickly adapt, felt that change is met with resistance and the organisation is not proactive. These results identified areas where the organisation should improve in order to be more adaptable to the external environment (Price, 2003).



(ii) Customer Focus

Customer Focus reflects the degree to which the organisation is driven by a concern to satisfy their customers. The organisation understands and reacts to their customers and anticipates their future needs (Denison et al., 2006).

Research done by Fey et al. (1998) found that high performing organisations in Russia viewed customer focus, and not productivity, as the driving force behind the market economy.

When assessing the organisational culture in a manufacturing company, Price (2003) attained that most employees felt that they were meeting the needs and expectations of the persons for whom they were performing their work.

(iii) Organisational Learning

The organisation receives, translates and interprets signals from the environment into opportunities. These opportunities are used for encouraging innovation, gaining knowledge and developing capabilities (Denison et al., 2006).

Baker (2002) states that maximising the value of employees as intellectual assets requires a culture that promotes employees' intellectual participation and facilitates both individual and organisational learning, new knowledge creation and application and the willingness to share knowledge with others.

Studies conducted by Rondeau and Wagner (1999) found that hospitals reporting strong adaptability cultures stress employee innovation, risk-taking, internal flexibility and entrepreneurialism. Similarly, research done by Dougherty and Hardy (1996) found that adaptability to the environment is an important determinant in ensuring innovative success.



When assessing the organisational culture of two clinics in Virginia, McGarvey and Wolfe (2002) found that staff and supervisors indicated that there were limitations relating to adaptability. These limitations were primarily based on time issues related to implementing interventions and still providing services to clients. Studies conducted by Fey and Denison (2006) found that adaptability was the most important dimension for organisations that are primarily concerned with profitability.

2.6.4.4. Mission

The mission hypothesis states that a culture that provides a shared definition of the function and purpose of an organisation is not only positively associated with investing their efforts in the well being of the organisation, but also helps in

identifying the direction and goals which makes it easier to choose relevant courses of action for the organisation. A sense of mission allows an organisation to shape current behaviour by envisioning a desired future state. Being able to internalise and identify with an organisation's mission contributes to both short and long-term commitment to the organisation (Denison, 1990).

Denison et al. (2006) posit that organisations that have low mission scores usually have top executives who focus on controlling their organisation, second-guess their direct reports and make detailed decisions about products, people and resources. Furthermore, organisations with low mission scores react to competitors who have redefined the rules, goals are not very meaningful to many employees and the long-term purpose of the organisation is not very inspiring.

In the model, mission is measured by three indices:



(i) Strategic Direction and Intent

Clear strategy intentions relay the organisation's purpose and make it clear how everyone can contribute and "make their mark" in the industry (Denison et al., 2006). Baker (2002) posits that strategic planning and identification are crucial for maintaining organisational culture.

Davidson's (2004) study found that employees in a financial industry in South Africa rated strategic direction and intent low. These findings were a result of employees being unclear about the purpose of the organisation.

(ii) Goals and Objectives

A clear set of goals and objectives can be linked to the mission, vision and strategy, and provide a clear direction in employees' work (Denison et al., 2006).

Research done by Davidson (2004) in a financial industry in South Africa found low scores for goals and objectives. These findings suggest that employees were unclear about goals and objectives required to drive the achievement of the mission and vision.

According to Benko (2001), in order to function effectively an organisation should have the ability to chart future courses of action and should have a well-defined understanding of where they are going and how they plan to get there.

(iii) Vision



The organisation has a shared view of a desired future state and it embodies core values and captures the hearts and minds of the organisation's people, while providing guidance and direction (Denison et al., 2006).

Mobley et al. (2005) found, when assessing a global office furniture company, that high scores on vision may be indicative of people in the organisation having a clear idea as to the vision of the organisation.

In research done by Rondeau and Wagner (1999) investigating the role of organisational culture in hospitals, results showed that hospitals with strong mission cultures emphasise productivity and goal attainment. Results further showed that at these hospitals, managers shaped employee behaviour by communicating a desired

future state for the hospital and by articulating specific performance objectives and targets.

A study conducted by McGarvey and Wolfe (2002) assessing the organisational culture in two clinics in Virginia found that work involvement by support staff appeared to be more income generated rather than feeling part of a group to accomplish meaningful goals.

Research done by Fey and Denison (2006) show that mission is the most important culture characteristic for organisations focusing on sales growth.

2.7. STUDIES CONDUCTED USING THE DENISON ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE MODEL AND SURVEY

Literature on organisational culture assessment suggests that most work has taken place in commercial organisations (Manley, 2000). These include studies done by Schrodts (2002) who investigated employee perceptions of organisational culture and organisational identification; Denison and Mishra (1995) investigating the impact of culture on effectiveness and performance; Fey and Denison (2006) determining organisational culture and effectiveness in foreign firms in Russia; Price (2003) assessing the current culture at a manufacturing company. South African studies conducted include Davidson (2004) investigating the relationship between organisational culture and financial performance in a South African investment bank and studies conducted by Du Toit (2002) and Franck (2005) validating culture assessment instruments in the South African context.

A summary of the findings of studies conducted are highlighted below:

The Defense Logistics Agency adopted the Denison Culture Model and Survey to assess how well the organisational culture supports the goals and transformation in a customer focused organisation. The model and survey provide an independent measure of the organisation's progress in several areas related to mission, consistency, adaptability and involvement (Nier, 2004). The results indicated the concerns of the workforce in namely four areas, empowerment, capabilities, development and leadership. Some of the specific concerns included: a “disconnect” between the workforce and its understanding of the goals, objectives, key issues and priorities; limited communication flow across barriers, limited professional growth and advancement opportunities; promotion practices were viewed as unfair; employees felt under-appreciated and managers and supervisors were not easily approachable to discuss personal issues. The culture survey revealed a need to return to the basics of leading, supervising and managing an organisation. In efforts to understand the culture, some immediate improvements were initiated (Schirmacher & Athey, 2004).

A colour technology company in Michigan transformed its change-resistant culture utilising the Denison Organisational Model and Survey (Carr, 2004). The survey was completed by 478 employees. The results indicated low scores on the following indices: customer focus (11%), creating change (24%), strategic direction (22%) and coordination and integration (17%). Based on the results initiatives were implemented and focused on providing employees with direction and goals, identifying “rules of engagement”, fostering team work, working alongside internal customers, relentless communication, and management and human resources working

together. A year after the first culture survey, the organisation conducted a second survey and results indicated an improvement in customer focus by 41% strategic direction improved by 41% and co-ordination and integration improved by 51%. Carr (2004) posits that the progress towards culture transformation was mirrored by improvements in profitability.

Price (2003) conducted a survey to evaluate the current organisational culture of a manufacturing company in the United States. The study assessed the organisational strengths and weaknesses, benchmarking and evaluating change in the organisation. The survey was divided into four categories namely, involvement, business principles, working relationships, and employee satisfaction. The data was gathered from 40 employees, yielding a 77.5% response rate. The results indicated that change, communication and rewards and compensation were rated below 60% and competency and capability development were rated even lower. The findings aided the management team in their decision making and strategic planning as it allowed them to look at the strengths and weaknesses of the organisation, to establish methods for benchmarking and to evaluate change in the organisation.

Results of a study done by Mc Garvy and Wolfe (2000) assessing the organisational culture of two clinics in the Virginia Health Department revealed that there was little perceived differences regarding the involvement of staff in clinic functions between the two clinics. Due to the organisation being in health services, there was limited opportunity for significant involvement for staff to have input into deciding how services are provided to clients. This was due to the hierarchical nature of the organisation. Findings for consistency with respect to the application of rules and policies were evident in both clinics. The consistent application of rules and

regulations were in part because policies and procedures were based on guidelines and were not subject to random change. Limitations regarding adaptability were noted where respondents stated that there were time limits regarding the implementation of interventions which needed to be put into action while they still had to provide required services to clients. Respondents related the mission element more to their career choice than to a shared mission. Finding regarding work involvement appeared to be more income generating than feeling part of a group to accomplish goals they report as meaningful (Mc Garvy & Wolfe, 2000).

Davidson (2004) investigated the relationship between organisational culture and financial performance in a South African investment bank. The survey was administered to a sample of 327 employees. The results indicated that very few of the financial measures selected could be shown to be correlated with the organisational cultural traits. Correlations between the cultural dimensions of team orientation, agreement, customer focus and vision were found with certain financial measures. Although these correlations were above the 0.50 level, the levels of significance were not sufficient in all cases to draw conclusions with confidence. The only cultural trait that correlated with financial measures was the consistency trait.

Little research has been conducted on the culture of organisations in the health industry (Manley, 2000). Studies conducted include research done by Mc Garvy and Wolfe (2000) who assessed the organisational culture of the clinics in the Virginia Health Department; Barker, King, Mac Donald and Horbor (2003) who used organisational assessment surveys for improvement in Neonatal Intensive Care; Scott et al. (2003) who investigated quantitative measurements of organisational culture in the health industry.

2.8. STRATEGIES TO CHANGE ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Based on the feedback received from surveys and other instruments, organisations can put initiatives in place to bring about culture change and improve organisational culture. Strategies to change organisational culture are briefly outlined below although culture change is not the focus of this study.

Gqada (2004) states that many authors believe that organisational change does not take place quickly, especially in the private sector's strongly established culture.

Harvey and Brown (1996) suggest some factors that are important in cultural change.

- Managers should understand the old culture. They cannot change their course until they know where they are.
- Employees should be encouraged to change the old culture and implement new ideas.
- Outstanding and performing units should be recognised and should be used as models for change.
- Cultural change should not be imposed. Employees should be involved in finding their own new approaches to change and an improved culture will emerge.
- The vision provides a guiding principle for change, but should be bought into by employees.
- Large-scale change takes time, even three to five years for signification, organisation-wide cultural change to take effect.
- Top management values, behaviours and actions speak louder than words so it is always wise to lead by example.



- Finally, any changes to the organisational culture should focus on what people value and what they do.

2.8.1. Culture management through culture change

Harvey and Brown (1996) state that several factors make it highly unlikely that the culture of a given organisation will remain entirely constant over long periods of time. Shifting market conditions, increased competition, fast evolving technology, new legislation, changes in human resources, internal processes or structure changes, assure that organisational culture will have to change as well.

Pretorius (2004) states that culture management is the process of developing or reinforcing an appropriate culture in the organisation. Culture management is concerned with culture change, culture reinforcement, implementation and change management. The aim of culture change is to achieve changes in management style and organisational behaviour.



2.8.1.1. Steps in culture change

According to Pretorius (2004), organisational culture is the very nature of organisations and impacts on organisational effectiveness and success. Steps in changing organisational culture or department subculture include, an organisational culture needs assessment, executive direction, training and development, tracking and evaluation.

Harvey and Brown (1996) assert that the needs assessment involves analysing the desired culture and this will be determined by focusing on the mission, strategy, technology and environmental factors, scrutinising the present culture by analysing the artefacts, the beliefs and values and basic assumptions, and management style

across all sub-cultures in the organisation. Data is gathered and analysed with regard to the current culture and the desired culture and the gaps are identified. Executive direction implies that management addresses the results of the needs assessment and develops a new philosophy, standards for success, role definitions and other leadership decisions that will form and drive the new culture. Executives should start the culture change initiative for the development of shared values that are aligned with the mission and strategy. Training employees and managers will ensure new role expectations, new attitudes to such matters as customer service, quality, managing and motivating people for improved performance. Organisational development should focus on improving coordination, teamwork and commitment. Pretorius (2004) states that tracking and evaluation is needed to communicate on progress and to provide feedback.



2.8.1.2. Analysing employee perceptions

Pretorius (2004) asserts that organisations that want to remain competitive and maintain a competent and motivated workforce, should focus their attention on a key component of organisational success – employee perceptions. The assessment of employee attitudes can help organisations to manage change. The analysis regarding the organisational culture should access the identification with organisational goals and values, perceptions of organisational responsibility, performance standards, feedback on performance, challenging and motivating jobs, adequate support and guidance in the work environment, opportunities for growth, recognition systems, risk taking, openness of management regarding innovation, and new ideas and problem-solving. Robbins (1998) states that employees behave in a given manner not based on the way their external environment actually is but rather on what they see or believe it

to be. He maintains that what individuals perceive from their work situation will influence their productivity.

Pretorius (2004) asserts that South Africa's human resources hold the key to its success. Competitive levels of productivity, customer service and product quality need motivated and committed employees. Positive employee attitudes are critical to long-term success. The assessment of employee attitudes or employee perceptions can help organisations to manage change. The challenge for organisations is to measure and acknowledge the prevailing perceptions and then explore the reasons behind them. This information enables human resources to propose a programme of action.

2.8.1.3. Management and leadership style

Harvey and Brown (1996) indicates that analysing the management and leadership styles of the organisation are of vital importance when changing aspects of culture because leaders are there to influence and motivate employees during the culture transition. A change in management style is best achieved, for example, from senior management. When managers are appraised, their management style should be a subject for discussion and agreement should be reached between the people concerned on where changes are desirable. Pretorius (2004) elaborates that formal assessments of competency models of management would help to determine development needs such as knowledge and skills, establishing own motivation and commitment to culture change, analysing leadership qualities and behaviour, analysing perceptions and assumptions and leadership styles for a diverse workforce. This analysis would provide insight as to where the focus should be for individual leaders to be more effective during the culture changes.

2.8.1.4. Development and implementation of shared values

Pretorius (2004) maintains that the core values of the organisation should be discussed at board level and throughout the organisation. Various messages and communication methods must focus consistently over time on the same core values, and be reinforced by all the management processes that control behaviour and priorities (recruitment and selection, orientation and training, and performance management).

Robins (1998) suggests that values will only be effective if they are shared, developed with representation across all subcultures, structures and levels of employees, believed in, acted upon and relentlessly followed. Shared values will make multiple layers of management, comprehensive rule books and procedure manuals, tight controls, and policing of employees, obsolete.



Pretorius (2004) elucidates that shared values should be reinforced in all human resource systems and management practices. Managers need to clarify with their employees what values and behaviours are expected, inspected, and rewarded in their team. They also need to ensure everyone knows why they are important to the success of both the individual and the team. Managers need to define with their team or department what each value means to them and how it will be monitored in practice, regularly monitoring the progress in living the values and implementing the improvements needed, assessing the demonstration of shared values in performance management, implementing and tracking all shared values in the human resources process, lead by example, behaviour modelling, living the values and championing the values publicly, and publicly recognising the behaviour of organisation “heroes” who have shown commitment to organisational values.

2.9. CHAPTER SUMMARY

An overview of the literature was presented to provide a premise for the study. The chapter introduced a brief history of organisational culture in order to provide a context and various definitions were explored. The differences between culture and climate were noted and various theoretical models of organisational culture were highlighted. Previous studies were referred to and the chapter concluded with suggested strategies to change the culture.



Chapter 3

Research Methodology

3.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the research design undertaken in the investigation of the hypotheses. It focuses on the description of the sample and the procedure followed. The measuring instrument including its psychometric properties, and the rationale for using the instrument is extensively addressed. The chapter concludes with the statistical analyses conducted to test the hypotheses.

3.2. RESEARCH DESIGN

The sampling technique that was used in the study was purposive sampling. The decision for this method was based on the hospital and nursing services managers' request for feedback per department and due to time constraints which would have limited participants to complete the survey when the hospital was less busy.

Foxcroft and Roodt (2002) postulates that in purposive sampling, sampling is done with a purpose in mind. Purposive sampling is a type of non-random sampling in which respondents are specifically sought out or used when collecting exploratory data from an unusual population. It can be very useful for situations where a targeted sample is needed quickly and where sampling for proportionality is not the primary concern. When using purposive sampling, opinions of the target population are obtained, but there is the possibility of receiving many respondents for one subgroup and less for others. Franck (2005) elaborates by stating that purposive or stratified sampling methods can be used to access a wider range of views within an

organisation. A quantitative methodology was used to assess organisational culture. The Denison Organisational Culture Survey (Appendix A) was used to gather the data.

Mouton (1996) states the following advantages of surveys:

- It is an efficient way of collecting information from a large number of respondents,
- They can be used to study attitudes, values, beliefs, and past behaviours,
- They are standardised and therefore are relatively free from several types of errors and
- They are relatively easy to administer.

Disadvantages pertaining to surveys, however, as noted by Mouton (1996) are:

- Surveys depend on respondents' motivation, honesty, memory, and ability to respond,
- Response rates to surveys are usually low and
- The respondents are usually self-selected, and therefore a non-probability sample exists from which the characteristics of the population sampled cannot be inferred.



3.2.1. Sample

Mouton (1996) defines a population as the entire set of data from which a sample is selected and about which the researcher wishes to draw conclusions.

Due to the relatively small population size, all the employees (N=350) which also included management, were invited to voluntarily participate in the study.

The hospital comprised of the following departments: Human Resources, Patient Administration, Pharmacy, Technical, Support Services and Nursing. Nursing

represents 65% of the population and is sub-divided into various wards. In addition to the 6 departments two units were also invited to participate as they form part of the hospital structure. They were Medi-staff who employs contract staff and XYZ a division reporting to the hospital's management team. Of the 350 questionnaires that were administered, two hundred and twenty one (221) responded, hence, achieving a response rate of 63%. According to Sekaran (2000), a response rate of 30% is regarded as acceptable for most research purposes. This good response rate could be a result of participants having been informed in advance of the purpose and objectives of the research, buy in obtained and support from the hospital and nursing services managers, and the cooperation of department heads for allowing time for employees to complete the survey.

3.2.2. Procedure



Meetings were held with the hospital and the nursing services managers to obtain permission to conduct the study and presentations made to line managers to explain the rationale for the research. It was decided that the researcher would administer the questionnaires and address any queries that arose. Thereafter, a memo was sent via email to all employees explaining the purpose of the research, ensuring that confidentiality will be maintained and that participation was voluntary. Attached to the survey was a cover letter (Appendix B) indicating the aims and objectives of the study and that responses would be confidential.

The researcher administered the surveys over a three-week period where group sessions were arranged for employees to complete the survey. The researcher was on hand to address any questions and concerns respondents might have.

3.2.3. Biographical Questionnaire

The biographical questionnaire was a self-developed instrument pertaining to demographic information. Participants were asked to provide information with regard to their race, gender, age, tenure at the organisation and department they were employed in.

3.2.4. Research Instrument

3.2.4.1. Motivation for using the Denison Organisational Culture Survey

Davidson (2004) asserts that the Denison Organisational Culture Model is the only model that places a strong emphasis on the strategic orientation of the organisation. The Denison Organisational Culture Survey was developed from the model and thus measures the key aspects of culture identified in the model. Denison and Mishra (1995) state that the model not only focuses on the internal behaviours, but also defines interactions with the external environment. This is crucial in understanding behaviour towards the ever-changing external environment that the private health care industry is exposed to.

The Denison Organisational Culture Survey is a self-report inventory which can be administered in a paper and pencil format, or electronically via the Internet. The survey is based on 15 years of research on over 1000 organisations and 40 000 individuals. It has 60 items which focuses on four cultural traits that have a significant impact on the organisation.

3.2.4.2. Dimensions of the Survey

The four cultural traits namely, involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission, measured in the Denison Organisational Culture Survey are further sub-divided into three categories each with its own indices (Denison, 1990). Given that the traits have already been extensively addressed in chapter 2, it will be briefly mentioned below to provide a context for the research instrument.

3.2.4.2.1. Involvement

Denison (1990) defines involvement as building human capability, ownership and responsibility and it includes the following indices:

(i) Empowerment

Empowerment captures aspects where individuals have the authority, initiative and ability to manage their own work. This creates a sense of ownership towards the organisation.



(ii) Team Orientation

Team orientation places value on working co-operatively towards common goals to which all employees feel mutually accountable. Thus, the organisation relies on team effort to get things done.

(iii) Capability Development

Capability development looks at whether the organisation continually invests in the development of employees' skills in order to stay competitive and meet business needs.

3.2.4.2.2. Consistency

Consistency is described by Denison and Mishra (1995) as the values and systems that form the basis of a strong culture. Denison (1990) states that consistency has the following indices:

(i) Core Values

Core values examine whether employees share a set of values which create a strong sense of identity and a clear set of expectations.

(ii) Agreement

Agreement refers to the organisation's ability to reach consensus on critical issues. This incorporates both the underlying level of agreement and the ability to reconcile differences when they occur.



(iii) Co-ordination and Integration

Co-ordination and integration is defined as different functions and units that are able to work together in order to achieve common goals. The boundaries of the organisation do not interfere with getting the work done.

3.2.4.2.3. Adaptability

Denison (1990) stipulates that adaptability is the translation of the demands of the business environment into action. It consists of the following indices:

(i) Creating change

Creating change exists when the organisation is able to read the business environment, able to quickly react to current changes and anticipate future changes. Furthermore, it is able to create adaptive ways to meet challenging needs.

(ii) Customer focus

Customer focus illustrates the degree to which the organisation is driven by a concern to satisfy the customer.

(iii) Organisational Learning

The organisation receives, translates and interprets signals from the environment into opportunities for encouraging innovation, gaining knowledge and developing capabilities.

3.2.4.2.4. Mission

Mission, as described by Davidson (2004), relates to the defining of a meaningful long-term direction for the organisation. Denison (1990) states that mission comprises the following indices:

(i) Vision

Vision is seen as the organisation having a shared view of a desired future state.

(ii) Strategic direction and intent

The organisation has clear strategic intentions that convey the organisation's purpose and makes clear how employees can contribute.

(iii) Goals and Objectives

A clear set of goals and objectives can be linked to the mission, vision and strategy, and provide everyone with a clear direction in their work.

3.2.4.3. Description of the Rating Scale

According to Davidson (2004), rating scales can be defined as a grouping of statements, words or symbols on which judgments regarding the strength of a particular trait is noted. The Likert scale is one type of rating scale that is relatively easy to construct, usually reliable and is a summative scale. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), the value of the Likert scale format is the unambiguous ordinality of the response categories and its ability to measure the intensity of different items. A five-point Likert scale is used in the Denison Organisational Culture Survey and is answered according to following choices:

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Neutral

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

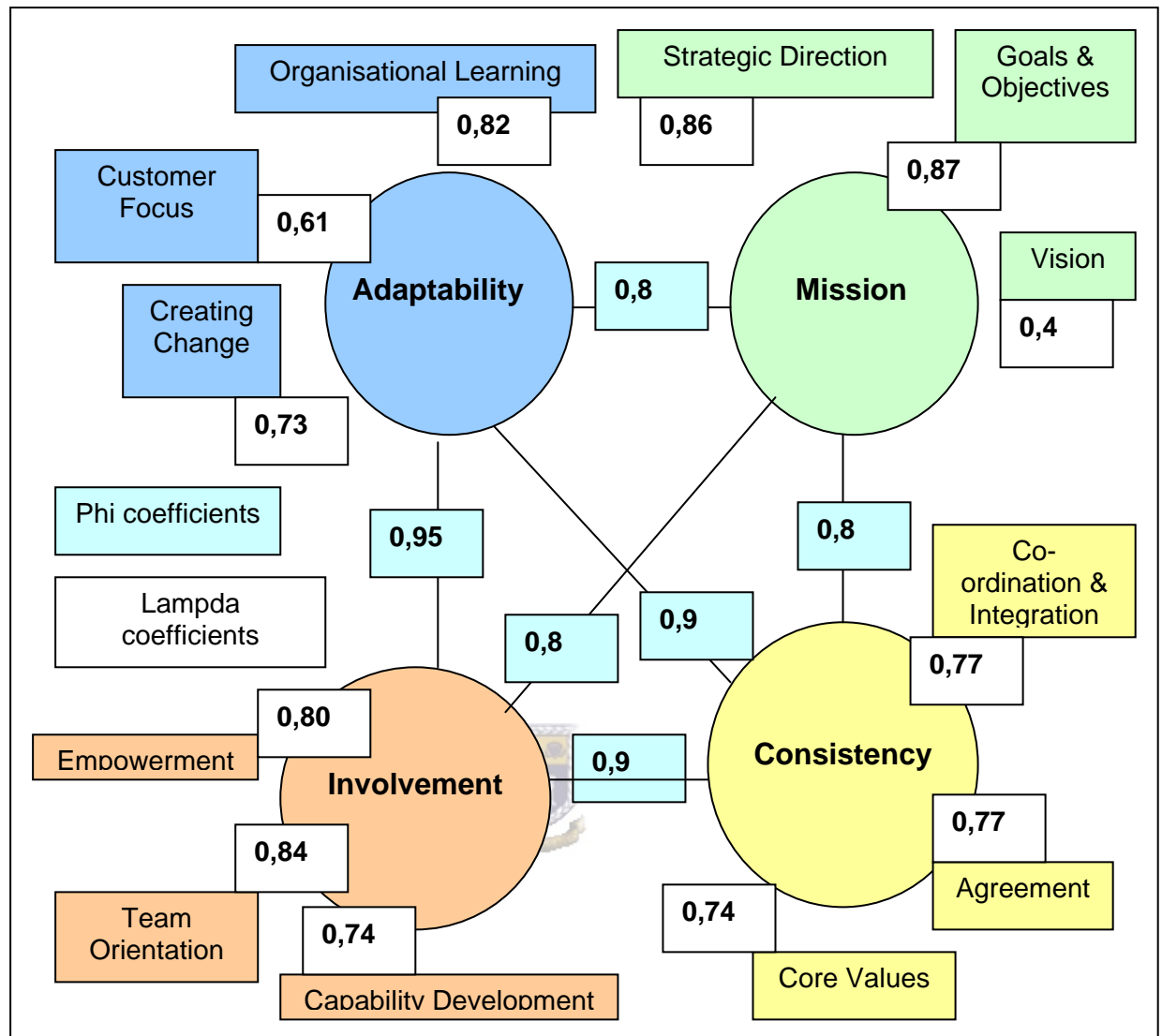
3.2.4.4. *Validity and Reliability of the Denison Organisational Culture Survey*

Validity is defined by Babbie and Mouton (2001) as a measure that accurately reflects the concept it is intended to measure. Reliability is defined as the quality of the measurement method that suggests that the same data would have been collected each time in repeated observations of the same phenomenon.

In a study conducted by Cho (2000) on the validity and reliability of the Denison Organisational Culture Survey, four measurement models for each trait (namely, involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission) was separately estimated. An item-level analysis was done whereby 15 items in each index were analysed to determine whether three indices were extracted from 15 items (questions). The analysis methods used included factor analysis and exploratory factor analysis. For each pair of indexes two by two indexes were combined and then six measurement models for all indices were estimated. A scale-level analysis examining the six scales (3 scales from each index) was done to see how the six scales were interrelated to each other was done. This analysis showed that all indices had alpha coefficients in the range of 0.620 to 0.900 (Cho, 2000).

A confirmatory factor analysis was done to see if the index structure fit the model itself. The model treated the twelve indices as the observed measures and the four underlying traits as the latent variables. The structural equation model was determined using LISREL 8.1 for Windows. The model in figure 3.1 shows the lambda coefficients linking each of the indices to the four traits (Davidson, 2004)

Figure 3.1. Confirmatory factor analysis of the Denison Organisational Culture Survey



Source: Adapted from Davidson (2004, p. 131).

The coefficients can be interpreted in the same way to factor loadings, with a lambda of 1.0 signifying that a particular index is perfectly correlated with the latent variable, and a lambda coefficient lower than 0.5 indicating a relatively weak link between the index and the latent variable. The linkages show that the loadings are strong and relatively consistent, indicating good support for the underlying model (Davidson, 2004).

Denison (1990) states that the coefficients shown in figure 3.1. are the phi coefficients linking the four latent variables of involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission.

In this analysis the phi coefficients are very high, indicating a close relationship between the four traits. This finding supports the idea that these are four characteristics of organisations with strong cultures. Therefore, if an organisation with a strong culture has one of these characteristics, they are also likely to have the other three.

A study was done by Franck (2005) to determine whether the Denison Organisational Culture Survey is a reliable tool to measure organisational culture in a South African financial institution. This study investigated the reliability of the Denison Organisational Culture survey in terms of the computation of appropriate reliability coefficients by using a South African sample. The results of the study showed that the Denison Organisational Culture Survey is highly reliable in terms of internal consistency. The split half reliability indicated high levels of internal homogeneity amongst the items.



Table 3.1. Correlations of the Denison Organisational Culture Survey

		Sum of un-even Denison items	Sum of even Denison items
Sum of un-even Denison items	Pearson correlation Sig (2-tailed)	1	0.943** 0.000
	N	2735	2735
Sum of even Denison items	Pearson correlation	0.943** 0.000	1
	N	2735	2735

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

Source: Franck (2005, p. 82).

The results reflected in the table above indicates internal consistency of 0.970. Franck (2005) states that an internal consistency of 0.970 can be regarded as a highly acceptable figure and reflects statistically significant internal consistency. Foxcroft and Roodt (2002) state that the reliability of a test or survey should at least be 0.700.

Franck (2005) analysed the reliability of the subtraits for involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission. The results of the Cronbach alpha reliability for all the subtraits within each cultural trait is summarised in the table below.

Table 3.2. Summary of reliability analyses

Trait (Cronbach alpha)	Subtrait	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach alpha)
Involvement (0.890)	Empowerment	0.770
	Team orientation	0.770
	Capability development	0,710
Consistency (0.870)	Core Values	0.730
	Agreement	0.750
	Coordination and integration	0.730
Adaptability (0.870)	Creating Change	0.690
	Customer focus	0.700
	Organisational learning	0.730
Mission (0.890)	Strategic direction and intent	0.840
	Objectives and goals	0.770
	Vision	0.720

Source: Franck (2005, p. 88).

The above table shows that the internal consistency of the subscales ranges from 0.690 for the creating change sub-trait and 0.840 for the strategic direction and intent sub-traits. These results, according to Franck (2005), compare favourably with

research conducted in organisations in the USA. An earlier study conducted by Denison (1990) showed internal consistency scores in the range of 0.620 to 0.900.

Franck (2005) is of the opinion that the Denison Organisational Culture Survey for use in a South African financial institution, with an internal consistency reliability factor of 0,970, is significant. He further stipulates that there can be no doubt that coefficient alpha is the most efficient measure of reliability, and it should therefore always be computed when the instrument is applied in different populations.

3.3. STATISTICAL METHODS

To test the research hypotheses, the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were incorporated to analyse the data.



3.3.1. Descriptive Statistics

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), descriptive statistics are statistical computations describing either the characteristics of a sample or the relationship among variables in a sample. Descriptive statistics summarise a set of sample observations.

The descriptive statistics are reported in the form of frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations.

3.3.2. Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics are used to make inferences or judgments about a larger population based on the data collected from a small sample drawn from the population (Babbie & Mouton, 2001).

Inferential techniques were used to determine relationships between variables and whether differences amongst the variables exist.

The following inferential techniques were conducted to test the hypotheses under investigation:

3.3.2.1. Pearson Product Moment Correlation

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used to determine whether there were significant relationships between the dimensions of the survey. Anastasi and Urbina (1997) defines the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient as a technique that considers the person's position in the group as well as his or her deviation above or below the group mean.

Mouton (1996) elaborates that a correlation coefficient varies in value from -1 (which indicates a perfect negative correlation) to $+1$ (which indicates a perfect positive correlation). A value of 0 indicates that there is no linear correlation between the variables.

3.3.2.2. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Babbie and Mouton (2001) describes the analysis of variance as a test of the statistical significance of the differences among the mean scores of two or more groups on one or more variables.

In this study, the analysis of variance was used to determine whether significant differences regarding perception of the cultural traits in the different departments exist.

3.4. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter addressed the research design adopted to conduct the study. Motivation for using the Denison Organisational Culture Survey as well as its reliability and validity is reported on. Furthermore, the sample and the procedure followed to gather the data is highlighted and the chapter concludes with the statistical methods used to analyse the data.



Chapter 4

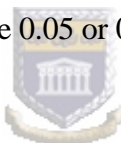
Presentation of Results

4.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an overview of the results obtained from the statistical analysis.

Descriptive statistics are presented graphically in the form of frequencies followed by a description of the most salient sample characteristics in the form of frequencies and percentages. Thereafter, the inferential statistics based on the examination of each hypothesis formulated for the research is presented.

The hypotheses were tested at either the 0.05 or 0.01 significance level.



4.2. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF THE SAMPLE

This section summarises the results of the demographic variables which were included in the biographical questionnaire gathered from the research sample (n = 221).

4.2.1. Biographical Characteristics

Table 4.1. Departmental Composition of Sample				
Departments	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Human Resources	2	0.9	0.9	0.9
Nursing: Cathlab	4	1.8	1.8	9.5
Nursing: Students	11	5.0	5.0	14.5
Nursing: Theatre	17	7.7	7.7	22.2
Nursing: Ward A	12	5.4	5.4	27.6
Nursing: Ward B	5	2.3	2.3	29.9
Nursing: Ward C	2	0.9	0.9	30.8
Nursing: Ward D	2	0.9	0.9	31.7
Nursing: Ward E	17	7.7	7.7	39.4
Nursing: Ward F	11	5.0	5.0	44.3
Nursing: Ward G	20	9.0	9.0	53.4
Nursing: Ward H	13	5.9	5.9	59.3
Nursing: Ward L	9	4.1	4.1	63.3
Nursing: Ward M	6	2.7	2.7	66.1
Nursing: Ward N	11	5.0	5.0	71.0
Patient Administration	21	9.5	9.5	81.4
Pharmacy	13	5.9	5.9	87.3
Support Services	15	6.8	6.8	96.4
Technical	8	3.6	3.6	100.0
Additional Composition of Sample				
Additional units	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Medi-staff	2	0.9	0.9	71.9
XYZ Hospital	5	2.3	2.3	89.6
Management	15	6.8	6.8	7.7
Total	221	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.1. indicates the composition of the sample with respect to each department/unit representing the 221 respondents. The nursing department was the largest representative group (63%; n = 140). The rest of the sample comprised of Human Resources (1%, n=2), Patient Administration (9%, n = 21), Support Services (7%; n = 15), Pharmacy (6%; n = 13) and Technical (4%, n = 8). Furthermore, Medi-staff (1%; n = 2), XYZ hospital (2%; n = 5) and Management (7%; n = 15) were also included in the sample.

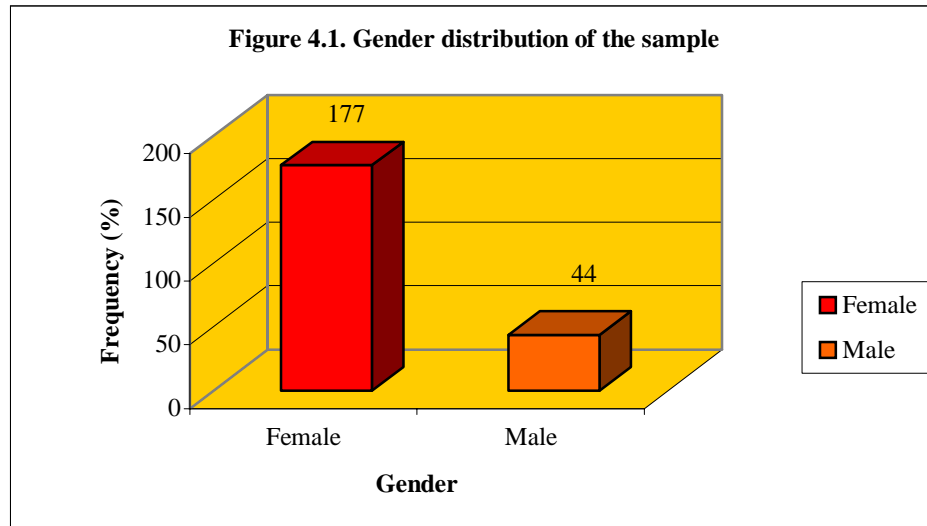


Figure 4.1. illustrates the gender distribution of the sample who participated in the research. The graph depicts that the majority of the sample (n = 177 or 80%) were female, whilst the remaining 20% (n = 44) comprised of male respondents. It is possible that the difference in gender representation could be attributed to a larger number of females being employed at the hospital.

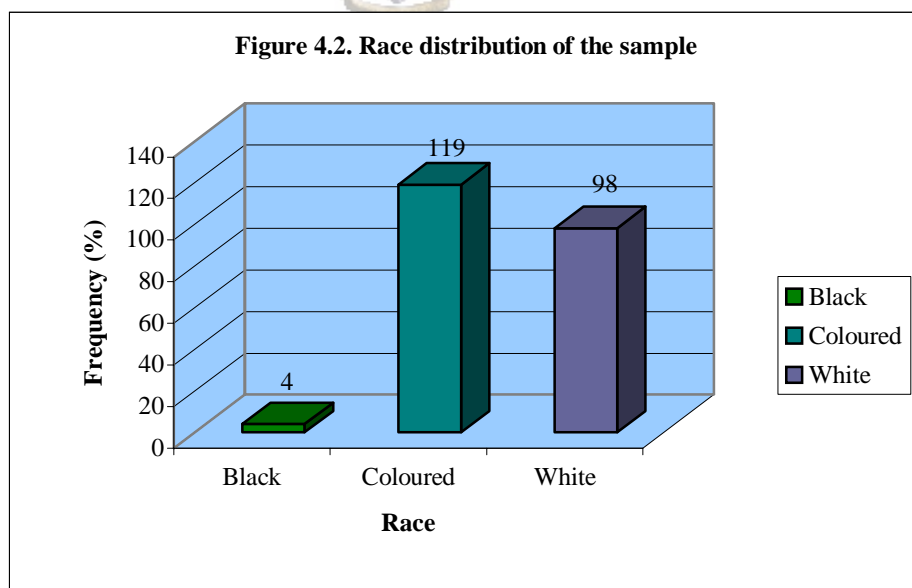
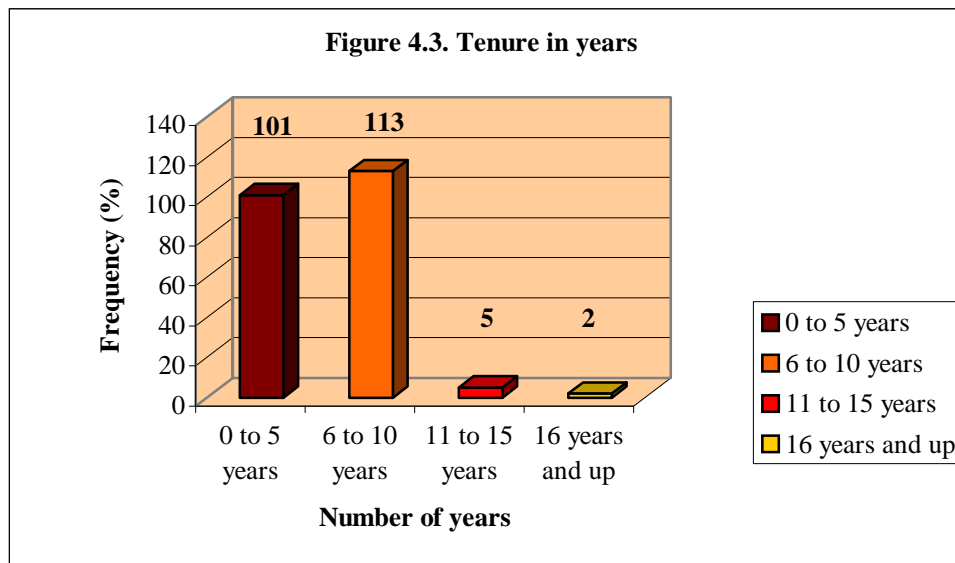


Figure 4.2. illustrates the race composition of the sample. The Coloured group was the largest representative group (n = 119 or 54%) followed by 44% (n = 98) of the respondents being White. The least represented is the Black group (n = 4 or 2%). The

high number of Coloured and White groups could be attributed to the fact that it is representative of the racial demographics of the hospital.



The length of time that respondents in the sample were employed by the hospital is depicted in Figure. 4.3. The majority of the sample 51% (n = 113) worked between 6-10 years at the hospital whilst 46% (n = 101) have between 0-5 years of service and 2% (n = 5) between 11-15 years of service. Only 1% (n = 2) have been employed for more than 16 years at the hospital.

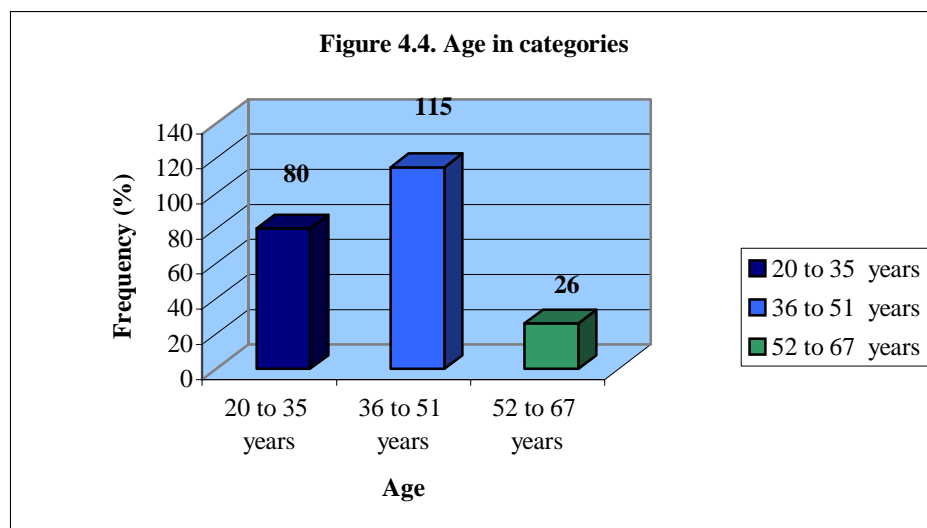


Figure 4.4. displays the age distribution of the sample. The sample's age ranges from 20-67 years. From the above figure it can be ascertained that the majority of the

respondents (52% or n = 115) fall between the age category 36-51 years, followed by the age category 20-35 years which constitutes 36% (n = 80) of the sample. The minority of the respondents (12% or n = 26) fall into the age category 52-67 years.

4.3. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

4.3.1. Results of the Denison Organisational Culture Survey

Descriptive statistics in the form of arithmetic means and standard deviations for the respondents were computed for the various dimensions assessed by the Organisational Culture Survey. The means and standard deviations of the dimensions of the Denison Organisational Culture Survey instrument are presented in Table 4.2. below.

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
Empowerment	2.65	.59
Team Orientation	3.89	.65
Capability Development	2.54	.62
Core Values	3.36	.32
Agreement	3.12	.74
Coordination and integration	2.47	.63
Creating change	2.94	.67
Customer Focus	4.37	.14
Organisational learning	3.55	.52
Strategic direction and intent	2.42	.62
Goals and objectives	3.32	.58
Vision	3.42	.69

With respect to the dimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey, Table 4.2. indicates that the means for the dimensions of *involvement* (empowerment, team orientation, capability development), *consistency* (core values, agreement, coordination and integration), *adaptability* (creating change, customer focus, organisational learning)

and *mission* (strategic direction and intent, goals and objectives and vision), amongst personnel employed in the hospital at which the research was undertaken ranged from a low of 2.47 to a high of 4.37.

In terms of the dimension referred to as involvement, the highest mean value was that of team orientation (mean = 3.89, s = .65), while the lowest value related to capability development (mean = 2.54, s = .62). This indicates that employees agreed more strongly with respect to team orientation as an important component of organisational culture.

With regards to consistency, the dimension rated highest in terms of the instrument relate to core values (mean = 3.36, s = .32), while coordination and integration was rated the lowest (mean = 2.47, s = .63). Hence, employees rated core values more strongly than they did coordination and integration and agreement as dimensions of the measuring instrument.



In terms of the adaptability dimension, employees rated customer focus highly with respect to organisational culture (mean = 4.37, s = .14), while the lowest value related to creating change (mean = 2.94, s = .67).

With regard to the dimension mission, the dimension rated strongest is that of vision (mean = 3.42, s = .69), while the lowest value corresponds to strategic direction and intent (mean = 2.42, s = .62).

Table 4.2. thus in summary, depicts that employees at the private hospital in the Western Cape perceived customer focus, team orientation, and organisational learning more positively. They however, perceived capability development, co-ordination and integration and strategic direction and intent less positively.

4.4. INFERENCE STATISTICS

In this section the results of the inferential statistics are presented. Based on the results obtained from the research, conclusions are drawn with respect to each hypothesis.

4.4.1. Correlation

The Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was computed for the purposes of determining the relationship between the different dimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey. These results are presented in Table 4.3. below.

	EMP	TO	CD	CV	AGR	CI	CC	CF	OL	SDI	GO	VI
EMP	1.00											
TO	.34**	1.00										
CD	.56**	.45**	1.00									
CV	.35**	.20**	.59**	1.00								
AGR	.46**	.35**	.66**	.76**	1.00							
CI	.47**	.46**	.61**	.55**	.72**	1.00						
CC	.46**	.47**	.60**	.49**	.58**	.66**	1.00					
CF	.39**	.31**	.48**	.60**	.69**	.79**	.55**	1.00				
OL	.10	.42**	.24**	.27**	.33**	.25**	.21**	.27**	1.00			
SDI	.34**	.17*	.39**	.49**	.55**	.51**	.47**	.55**	.39**	1.00		
GO	.35**	.19*	.27**	.26**	.31**	.39**	.23**	.49**	.22**	.34**	1.00	
VI	.47**	.17*	.32**	.34**	.37**	.32**	.39**	.31**	.29**	.26**	.39**	1.00

EMP – Empowerment

CV – Core Values

CC – Creating Change

SDI - Strategic Direction and Intent

TO – Team Orientation

AGR - Agreement

CF - Customer Focus

GO - Goals and Objectives

CD – Capability Development

CI - Coordination and integration

OL - Organisational Learning

VI - Vision

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

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

Hypothesis 1: There are statistically significant relationships between involvement, consistency, adaptability and sense of mission as dimensions of organisational culture.

The results depicted in Table 4.3. indicate that there are significant relationships between almost all the sub-dimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey. Notwithstanding the insignificant relationship between empowerment and organisational learning ($p > 0.05$), it is evident that there are statistically significant relationships between the other sub-dimensions of the construct ($p < 0.01$).

The results indicate that for the intercorrelation matrix exploring the relationship between the dimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey instrument, that all the coefficients were positive. This indicates therefore that there is a significant statistical relationship between the dimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey instrument.

Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis 2: Involvement is a cultural trait which will be positively perceived by employees

Table 4.3. illustrates the results obtained with respect to the relationship between Involvement as a cultural trait and the sub-dimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey. The results indicate that there are statistically significant relationships between **empowerment** and all the sub-dimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey ($p < 0.01$), with the exception of its weak, positive relationship with the learning organisation sub-dimension ($p > 0.05$).

With respect to **team orientation**, there are statistically significant relationships between all the sub-dimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey. The results indicate that there were highly significant relationships between team orientation and empowerment, capability development, core values, agreement, coordination and integration, creating change, customer focus and organisational learning, respectively ($p < 0.01$). There were also significant relationships between team orientation and strategic direction and intent, goals and objectives and vision, respectively ($p < 0.05$).

In terms of **capability development**, the results indicate that there are statistically significant relationship between capability development and all the sub-dimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey ($p < 0.01$).

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted, since **involvement** (empowerment, team orientation and capability development) was positively perceived by employees of the organisation.

Hypothesis 3: Consistency is a cultural trait which will be positively perceived by employees

The results in Table 4.3. indicate that there are statistically significant relationships between **core values**, and all the sub-dimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey ($p < 0.01$).

Similarly, there are significant relationships between **agreement** and all the subdimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey ($p < 0.01$).

Similarly, there are also statistically significant relationships between **coordination and integration** and all the sub-dimensions of the survey ($p < 0.01$).

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted, since **consistency** (core values, agreement and coordination and integration) was positively perceived by employees of the organisation.

Hypothesis 4: Adaptability is a cultural trait which will be positively perceived by employees

In terms of the results outlined in Table 4.3., there are statistically significant relationships between **creating change**, and all the sub-dimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey ($p < 0.01$).

Similarly, there are significant relationships between **customer focus** and all the sub-dimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey ($p < 0.01$).

Moreover, there are statistically significant relationships between **organisational learning** and all the sub-dimensions of the survey instrument ($p < 0.01$).



Hence, the hypothesis is accepted, since **adaptability** (creating change, customer focus and organisational learning) was positively perceived by employees of the organisation.

Hypothesis 5: Sense of Mission is a cultural trait which will be positively perceived by employees

According to Table 4.3., results indicate that there are statistically significant relationships between **strategic direction** and all the sub-dimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey ($p < 0.01$).

Results in Table 4.3. indicate further that there are significant relationships between **goals and objectives** and all the sub-dimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey ($p < 0.01$).

There are also statistically significant relationships between **vision** and all the subdimensions of the survey instrument ($p < 0.01$).

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted, since **mission** (strategic direction and intent, goals and objectives and vision) was positively perceived by employees of the organisation.

4.4.2. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Hypothesis 6: There are significant differences regarding the perception of the cultural traits related to different departments.

An investigation was undertaken to determine whether there are differences in perceptions of organisational culture based on the department employees worked in.

The results of the one-way ANOVA regarding the dimensions of the Organisational Culture survey based on the department in which employees' work, are presented in

Tables 4.4. to 4.7.



Table 4.4. ANOVA: Involvement by department

Department	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	P
Between groups	51.604	2	25.802	0.022	0.001**
Within groups	22770.380	19	1198.441		
Total	22821.984	21			

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.4. depicts the ANOVA with respect to perceptions of involvement based on the employees' department. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences, $F(0.022)$; $p < 0.01$, between the perceptions of employees regarding involvement based on their department.

Table 4.5. ANOVA: Consistency by department

Department	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	P
Between groups	10430.938	2	5215.469	0.140	0.068
Within groups	707811.795	19	37253.252		
Total	718242.733	21			

** p < 0.01

The results of the ANOVA in respect of consistency according to the department in which employees work, are reported in Table 4.5. Results in Table 4.5. indicate that there are no statically significant differences between the perceptions of consistency, F (0.140); p > 0.05, based on the employees' department.

Table 4.6. ANOVA: Adaptability by department

Department	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	P
Between groups	1339.001	2	669.501	0.054	0.005**
Within groups	233786.333	19	12304.544		
Total	235125.334	21			

** p < 0.01

The results of the ANOVA reflecting perceptions of adaptability by department are reported in Table 4.6. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences, F (0.054); p < 0.01, between the perceptions of employees regarding adaptability based on their department.

Table 4.7. ANOVA: Sense of mission by department

Department	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	P
Between groups	939.147	2	469.574	0.244	0.349
Within groups	36527.349	19	1922.492		
Total	37466.496	21			

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.7. provides the results with respect to the ANOVA depicting differences in sense of mission based on the employees' department. The results indicate that there are no statistically significant differences, $F(0.244)$; $p > 0.05$, between the perceptions of employees regarding sense of mission based on their department.

The hypothesis is partially accepted because there are significant differences regarding the perception of the cultural traits of involvement and adaptability, related to different departments.



4.5. CONCLUSION

This chapter focused on the presentation of results achieved in this study. The results of the research were explored using descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive results for the biographical data were highlighted. Pearson's Product Moment Correlation was used to indicate the magnitude, direction and strength of the relationships between the various dimensions of organisational culture. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to ascertain whether there were any differences in perceptions of organisational culture based on the department in which employees were employed. In the following chapter, the results will be discussed and where available, existing literature is integrated with findings emanating from similar studies to draw comparisons.

Chapter 5

Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the findings of the research and where possible relevant research is referred to support the current findings. As a paucity of literature exists in the health care industry, reference is also made to findings in other industries. Conclusions are drawn from the results obtained, limitations are highlighted and recommendations for further research and for the organisation are put forth.

5.2. DISCUSSION

5.2.1. Descriptive statistics for the dimensions of organisational culture

The results indicate that the means for the dimensions of the Denison Organisational Culture survey ranged from a low of 2.47 to a high of 4.37. Employees rated customer focus, team orientation and vision the highest. The lowest rated dimensions were capability development, co-ordination and integration and strategic direction and intent.

Results for the dimension involvement indicated that the highest mean value was that of team orientation (mean = 3.89, s = .65), while the lowest value related to capability development (mean = 2.54, s = .62). This indicated that employees agreed more strongly with respect to team orientation as an important component of organisational culture. This is significant as studies have found that health care cultures that emphasise group affiliation and teamwork have been associated with greater implementation of continuous quality improvement practices (Scott et al., 2003).

With regards to the dimensions of consistency employees rated core values the highest (mean = 3.36, s = .32), while coordination and integration was rated the lowest (mean = 2.47, s = .63). The findings of this study are analogous to research conducted by Fey and Denison (2006). Their research studied organisational culture in Russian firms. The employees rated core values the highest in the consistency trait indicating that the primary purpose of the firm is to maintain the integrity of the existing authority structure.

In terms of the dimension of adaptability, employees rated customer focus highly with respect to organisational culture (mean = 4.37, s = .14), while the lowest value related to creating change (mean = 2.94, s = .67). This is similar to findings found by Price (2003) where employees rated customer focus highly which indicated that they felt that they were meeting the needs and expectations of their customers. However, employees rated creating change low which indicated that they were not rewarded or respected for finding new and better ways of doing things, they are not able to quickly adapt and they felt that change is met with resistance in the organisation.

With regard to the dimension mission, vision was rated the most important (mean = 3.42, s = .69), with the least important being strategic direction and intent (mean = 2.42, s = .62). According to Mobley et al. (2005), high scores on vision may be interpreted as people in the organisation having a clear idea as to the vision of the company. The results of this study were consistent with findings in their assessment of a global office furniture company.

5.2.2. Inferential Results

5.2.2.1. *Dimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey*

Table 4.3. illustrates the intercorrelations between the dimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey. Intercorrelations between the dimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey indicate that all the coefficients were positive.

Statistically significant relationships were found between involvement, consistency, adaptability and sense of mission as dimensions assessing organisational culture.

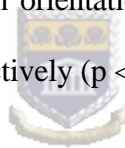
The findings of this study are consistent with a South African study done by Davidson (2004) investigating the use of the survey in a financial institution in South Africa. The study found that the correlation between the four cultural traits were high, ranging from 0,81 to 0,94. According to Davidson (2004), this indicated that the cultural traits cannot strongly be differentiated from each other and questioned whether the traits were measuring a single index. These findings were in accordance with the findings of Denison (2000) indicating that the results verify that all four traits should be present for the organisation to be successful and that high inter-correlations of indices are vindicated.

These findings were also affirmed in another South African study done by Franck (2005) investigating the reliability of the Denison Organisational Culture Survey. The sample group was the same as that used by Davidson (2004) in the financial industry. High correlations between the four traits were also confirmed.

5.2.2.2. Correlation analysis between involvement as a cultural trait and its sub-dimensions

The results of the current research indicate that there are statistically significant relationships between **empowerment** and all the sub-dimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey ($p < 0.01$), with the exception of its weak, positive relationship with the learning organisation sub-dimension ($p > 0.05$).

With respect to **team orientation**, the results indicate that there were highly significant relationships between team orientation and empowerment, capability development, core values, agreement, coordination and integration, creating change, customer focus and organisational learning, respectively ($p < 0.01$). There were also evidence of significant relationships between team orientation and strategic direction and intent, goals and objectives and vision, respectively ($p < 0.05$).

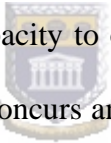


In terms of **capability development**, the results indicate that there are statistically significant relationship between capability development and all the sub-dimensions of the organisational culture survey questionnaire ($p < 0.01$).

The results of the current study show that employees of the organisation perceived the cultural trait involvement (empowerment, team orientation and capability development) positively.

The results of this study relating to empowerment are contrary to the results found by that of Greasley et al. (2005). They found that the strict regulations under which construction employees operate, limited their freedom to influence the work that they undertook.

However, studies conducted by Fey and Denison (2006) found that involvement is an important dimension of organisational culture for organisations whose primary goal is employee satisfaction. Findings emanating from Rondeau and Wagner (1999) indicate that strong involvement cultures are also more likely to increase employee participation, increase employee training and development expenditures and increase use of self-managed work teams. Similarly, research conducted by Trimpey (2004) found that the sub-traits of involvement, empowerment, team orientation and capability development, were viewed as key considerations when moving towards greater involvement.

Literature suggests that a high level of involvement and participation creates a sense of ownership and responsibility. Out of this ownership grows a greater commitment to the organisation and a growing capacity to operate under conditions of ambiguity (Denison, 1990).  Wesemann (2001) concurs and states involvement encompasses the importance that the organisation places on building the capability of its professional and administrative staff members. The value that the organisation places on team orientation as opposed to individual accomplishment, and the ownership that people feel in the organisation, is created by a high level of involvement.

Various researchers (Block, 1991; Buckingham & Coffman, 1999; Lawler, 1996; Spreitzer, 1995;) are of the opinion that effective organisations are those that empower and engage their people, build their organisation around teams, and develop human competence at all levels

5.2.2.3. Correlation analysis between consistency as a cultural trait and its sub-dimensions

The results of the current research indicate that there are statistically significant relationships between the sub-traits of core values, agreement, co-ordination and integration and all the sub-dimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey ($p < 0.01$). Therefore, the cultural trait consistency (core, values, agreement and co-ordination and integration) was positively perceived by employees of the organisation.

The findings of the study are consistent with the findings of Mc Garvey and Wolfe (2000) who found positive scores relating to consistency in terms of the application of rules and policies when assessing organisational culture of two clinics in Virginia.

Contrary to the findings of the current study, Buono and Bowditch (1989) however, found that employees of the Wyandotte City Council rated consistency low. These results indicated that the City Council should improve their integration and co-ordination in order to improve operational effectiveness. Similarly, a study conducted by Christensen and Gordon (1999) found that employees were more or less neutral when it came to the overall level of consistency. This indicated that the organisation should boost employee's perception of consistency in order to promote a common understanding of their policies and procedures.

Saffold (1998) states that the literature has shown that organisations are effective when they are consistent and well integrated. Denison et al. (2006); Gordon and Ditomaso (1992) and Schein (1992) concur that behaviour is rooted in a set of core values, leaders and followers are skilled in reaching agreement and incorporating diverse points of view and the organisation's activities are well coordinated and integrated. Organisations with high consistency scores develop a mindset and create

organisational systems that build an internal system of governance based on consensual support. This type of consistency is a powerful source of stability and internal integration (Denison et al., 2006; Gordon & Ditomaso, 1992; Schein, 1992).

5.2.2.4. Correlation analysis between adaptability as a cultural trait and its sub-dimensions

The results show that there are statistically significant relationships between **creating change**, and all the sub-dimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey ($p < 0.01$).

Similarly, there are significant relationships between **customer focus** as well as organisational learning and all the subdimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey ($p < 0.01$).

The results of the study show that the cultural trait adaptability (creating change, customer focus and organisational learning) was positively perceived by employees of the organisation.

Contrary to the current findings, Mc Garvey and Wolfe (2002) found that staff and supervisors of two health clinics in Virginia, indicated that there were limitations relating to adaptability. These limitations were primarily based on time issues related to implementing interventions and still providing services to clients.

Research conducted by Rondeau and Wagner (1999) found that hospitals reporting strong adaptability cultures stress employee innovation, risk-taking, internal flexibility and entrepreneurialism. Similarly, a study conducted by Dougherty and Hardy (1996) found that adaptability to the environment is an important determinant in ensuring innovative success.

Adaptability allows an organisation to recognise and respond to its external environment and internal constituencies. In response to either internal or external stimuli, it requires the capacity to restructure behaviours and processes, as appropriate (Denison, 1990). Denison and Mishra (1995) maintain that despite some of the natural advantages of well-integrated organisations they can also be the least adaptive and most difficult to change. Internal integration and external adaptation can be at odds. Organisations that are strong in adaptability usually experience sales growth and increased market share (Denison & Mishra, 1995).

5.2.2.5. Correlation analysis between mission as a cultural trait and its sub-dimensions

Results indicate that there are statistically significant relationships between **strategic direction, goals and objectives** as well as **vision** respectively, and all the sub-dimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey ($p < 0.01$).

The results of this study indicate that the cultural trait mission (strategic direction and intent, goals and objectives and vision) was positively perceived by employees of the organisation.

Contrary to the findings of the study, research done by Davidson (2004) in a financial industry in South Africa found low scores for goals and objectives. These findings suggest that employees were unclear about goals and objectives required to drive the achievement of the mission and vision.

In a study done by Rondeau and Wagner (1999), examining the role of organisational culture in hospitals, results showed that hospitals with strong mission cultures emphasise productivity and goal attainment. Results further showed that at these

hospitals, managers shaped employee behaviour by communicating a desired future state for the hospital and by articulating specific performance objectives and targets.

Various studies conducted in healthcare (Barker, et al., 2003; McGarvey & Wolfe, 2000; Scott, et al., 2003) have resulted in different findings. Christensen and Gordon (1999) purports that this is due to organisational culture being something that is held to be relatively unique to each organisation and can therefore not be generalised.

5.2.2.6. Differences in departments based on perception of the cultural traits

The current study of employees' perceptions regarding the dimensions of the Organisational Culture Survey based on the department in which employees work, are presented in Tables 4.4. to 4.7.

The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences between the perceptions of employees regarding involvement ($F = 0.022$; $p < 0.01$) and perceptions of employees regarding adaptability ($F = 0.054$; $p < 0.01$) based on their department.

There are however, no statically significant differences between the perceptions of employees with regards to consistency ($F = 0.140$; $p > 0.05$) based on the employees' department or between the perceptions of employees regarding sense of mission ($F = 0.244$; $p > 0.05$) based on their department.

Studies assessing culture within an organisation have often found differences between departments regarding the perception of cultural traits. Davidson (2004) reports significant results (at the comparison wise significance level of 0,005) for two dimensions, namely, empowerment and capability development. These results concur with studies done in the health care industry demonstrating the presence of dominant

cultures and sub-cultures (Barker et al., 2003; Mc Garvey & Wolfe, 2000; Scott et al., 2003).

The review of literatures states that although an organisation may have a dominant culture, many subcultures, which can be classified into occupational, functional, and geographical lines, may coexist and interact (Terpstra & David, 1991).

5.3. CONCLUSIONS

The objective of this study was to assess the organisational culture at a private hospital in the Western Cape.

The findings of this study indicate that employees perceived customer focus, team orientation and vision most positively. The lowest rated dimensions were capability development, co-ordination and integration, and strategic direction and intent.



The empirical findings further indicate that employees perceive all the cultural traits positively. However, differences in departments regarding employee perceptions were noted with regards to involvement and adaptability.

In terms of the stated research hypotheses, the following specific empirical findings emerged from the study:

- There is a relationship between involvement, consistency, adaptability, and sense of mission as dimensions of organisational culture;
- Involvement is a cultural trait which is positively perceived by employees;
- Consistency is a cultural trait which is positively perceived by employees;
- Adaptability is a cultural trait which will be positively perceived by employees;

- Sense of mission is a cultural trait which will be positively perceived by employees and
- There are significant differences regarding the perception of cultural traits related to different departments.

The results of the study should be interpreted with caution due to various limitations (which are mentioned in the ensuing section).

5.4. LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

5.4.1. Limitations of the Empirical Research

5.4.1.1. Sample

The research was conducted within a single organisation and therefore the results cannot be generalised to other private hospitals or populations. Furthermore, the current research used non-random sampling in the form of purposive sampling. Certain groups may thus have been under-represented. The biographical composition of the sample was representative mainly of Coloured and White respondents, with the nursing department being the largest representative group. Although this is representative of the demographics of the private hospital in question, it has an impact on the generalisability of the results to the broader South African population.

5.4.1.2. Limitations of the Denison Organisational Culture Survey

The Denison Organisational Culture Survey has been designed and validated in America only. South African studies have only been conducted to validate the survey in a financial institution, thus no validation studies exist for the health care industry.

A second limitation is that it only measures the more observable, conscious, elements of culture, and does not tap into the unconscious elements of culture which also contribute to the culture of an organisation.

Thirdly, the Denison Organisational Culture Survey is a self-report survey. Self-report surveys reflect individual perceptions. Cooke and Lafferty (1989) state that individuals are not always the most accurate judges of their own thoughts and feelings. The authors further maintain that dependent measures based on self-report surveys are best used in conjunction with other measures.

5.5. RECOMMENDATIONS

Notwithstanding the limitations of the current research, the following recommendations are put forth:



5.5.1. Recommendations when working in the field of organisational culture

Robbins (1998) defines organisational culture as a system of shared meaning that is further defined as a common perception by the organisation's members. Based on this research findings the organisation seems to possess this shared meaning and common perception regarding the cultural traits as measured by the Denison Organisational Culture Survey.

It is recommended that line managers should be assisted in understanding and being made aware of how practices within the organisation can have an impact on the organisation's performance based on employees' perceptions. It should therefore become a business imperative to ensure that the organisational culture is aligned with the business strategy.

5.5.2. Recommendations for the organisation

The descriptive statistics depict that capability development, co-ordination and integration and strategic direction and intent scored the lowest in terms of mean scores. Nier (2004) stipulates that there often exists a discrepancy between what an organisation strives to achieve and the assumptions and beliefs its employees actually espouse.

The review of literature stated that managers should be culturally aware (Gqada, 2004). They should understand how culture works, understand the old culture and comprehend that they cannot change their course until they know where they are (Harvey & Brown, 1996). Managers must assess their own organisation's culture accurately and should recognise and use the levers they have available to influence their cultures (Gqada, 2004). How employees work together and what they believe to be true about their individual and collective purposes make all the difference to their willingness to produce innovative quality goods and services that attract and retain customers (Schein, 1992).

Any changes to the organisational culture should focus on what people value and what they do (Harvey & Brown, 1996).

Walshe and Freeman (2002) posit that organisations should determine which cultural traits should be promoted or developed in order to enhance the implementation of improvement projects. Against this 'backdrop' the following recommendations are made to address the lowest rated dimensions:

5.5.2.1. Capability Development

Price (2003) states that in order to address low scores obtained in capability development, information about performance, quality, competition and customers should be shared throughout the hospital. Get ideas and contributions from those who are closest to the work and to the customer by involving them in decision-making. Build the hospital around teams, not individuals by encouraging multi-skilling so that understand how work is done in other areas and how they need to work together to create value for the customer. Reward team work and team accomplishments. Make performance management a strong focus in these departments to encourage goal setting, performance reviews, and providing feedback on achieving objectives.

Denison (1990) stipulates that organic structures that promote innovation include an organisational culture that is participative and informal, many views are aired and considered, face to face communication, inter-disciplinary teams, breaking down departmental barriers.

5.5.2.2. Co-ordination and Integration

To improve perceptions with regards to co-ordination and integration Denison (1990) suggests that banners and signs be displayed throughout the departments. The vision and mission should also constantly be referred to in decision-making and during performance reviews so that individuals know where they fit in in relation to the mission and vision of the hospital. Furthermore, Denison suggests, to improve co-ordination and integration, that focus should be give on activities that exemplify the core values. In order to actively create alignment of behaviour and core values it should be in the context of the culture, the core values, and skills development as part

of the hospital's competitive strategy. Increased interaction and communication between individuals and groups and increased number of people involved in problem solving, goal setting and generating new ideas should be encouraged.

5.5.2.3. Strategic Direction and Intent

Price (2003) states that to address low scores regarding strategic direction and intent, the hospital management team needs to adopt long-term strategy and direction as their highest priority, change the rules of the game in the healthcare industry by focussing on competitors and continuous rethinking of how the hospital can create value, make everyone in the organisation familiar with the hospital's strategy and vision. Everyone in the organisation, from the boardroom to the filing room, must be able to define their goals in terms of the overall mission, vision and strategy of the organisation. Strategic direction must be supported at all levels.



5.5.3. Recommendations for further research

In an attempt to address the limitations of this research, it is recommended that in order to achieve true value from the research, a number of organisations across industries should be selected to participate in the research. Utilising numerous organisations across industries will add value to explore the concept of a strong organisational culture.

In addition, quantitative and qualitative approaches can be used in a complementary way to help develop a more detailed understanding of organisational culture and measure the unconscious elements that contribute to the culture of an organisation.

Further research is needed to validate the Denison Organisational Culture Survey within a health institution in the South African context, to ensure a multi-cultural sample of participants.

It is also recommended that a proportionate stratified random sample be utilised for further research to ensure that subgroups of the population, especially minority groups, are represented.

5.6. CONCLUSION

This study focuses on the assessment of organisational culture of a private hospital in the Western Cape. Organisational culture is one of the most important factors that influences employee behaviour in the organisation (Gqada, 2004).

In the healthcare environment, organisational culture has been associated with several elements of organisational experience that contribute to quality, such as nursing care, job satisfaction, and patient safety (Boan & Funderburk, 2003).

A supportive organisational culture is often noted as a key component of successful improvement initiatives in a variety of industries, including healthcare. Price (2003) notes that traditionally, produce and process technology, protected or regulated markets, access to financial resources, and stable economies have all provided organisations with competitive advantage. Organisations can no longer count on these advantages. People and how they are managed are rapidly becoming the most important competitive advantage that an organisation possesses.

Measures of organisational culture are related to an organisation's ability to adapt to rapidly changing industry demands, to remain competitive, and to sustain high levels of performance. Organisational culture is therefore central to the operation and

function of the organisation, providing a shared vision that can serve as an effective guide to relevant and goal-directed social and individual behaviours (Boan & Funderburk, 2003).

Although the findings of this research could be tenuous due to the small departmental groupings, the findings provide insight with regards to the organisational culture experienced by employees at the hospital. The recommendations suggested could thus be seen as the beginning of a progression of research which could generate positive results.



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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

In this Organization...

INVOLVEMENT

Empowerment	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree	
1. Most employees are highly involved in their work.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Decisions are usually made at the level where the best information is available.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Information is widely shared so that everyone can get the information he or she needs when it's needed.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Everyone believes that he or she can have a positive impact.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Business planning is ongoing and involves everyone in the process to some degree.	1	2	3	4	5

Team Orientation	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree	
6. Cooperation across different parts of the organisation is actively encouraged.	1	2	3	4	5
7. People work like they are part of a team.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Teamwork is used to get work done, rather than hierarchy.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Teams are our primary building blocks.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Work is organised so that each person can see the relationship between his or her job and the goals of the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5

Capability Development	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree	
11. Authority is delegated so that people can act on their own.	1	2	3	4	5
12. The "bench strength" (capability of people) is constantly improving.	1	2	3	4	5
13. There is continuous investment in the skills of employees.	1	2	3	4	5
14. The capabilities of people are viewed as an important source of competitive advantage.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Problems often arise because we do not have the skills necessary to do the job.	1	2	3	4	5

CONSISTENCY

Core Values	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree	
16. The leaders and managers "practice what they preach."	1	2	3	4	5
17. There is a characteristic management style and a distinct set of management practices.	1	2	3	4	5
18. There is clear and consistent set of values that governs the way we do business.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Ignoring core values will get you in trouble.	1	2	3	4	5
20. There is an ethical code that guides our behaviour and tells us right from wrong.	1	2	3	4	5

Agreement	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree	
21. When disagreements occur, we work hard to achieve "win-win" solutions.	1	2	3	4	5
22. There is a "strong" culture.	1	2	3	4	5
23. It is easy to reach consensus, even on difficult issues.	1	2	3	4	5
24. We often have trouble reaching agreement on key issues.	1	2	3	4	5
25. There is a clear agreement about the right way and the wrong way to do things.	1	2	3	4	5

Coordination and Integration	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree	
26. Our approach to doing business is very consistent and predictable.	1	2	3	4	5
27. People from different parts of the organisation share a common perspective.	1	2	3	4	5
28. It is easy to coordinate projects across different parts of the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Working with someone from another part of this organisation is like working with someone from a different organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
30. There is good alignment of goals across levels.	1	2	3	4	5

ADAPTABILITY

Creating Change	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree	
31. The way things are done is very flexible and easy to change.	1	2	3	4	5
32. We respond well to competitors and other changes in the business environment.	1	2	3	4	5
33. New and improved ways to do work are continually adopted.	1	2	3	4	5
34. Attempts to create change usually meet with resistance.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Different parts of the organisation often cooperate to create change.	1	2	3	4	5

Customer Focus	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree	
36. Customer comments and recommendations often lead to changes.	1	2	3	4	5
37. Customer input directly influences our decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
38. All members have a deep understanding of customer wants and needs.	1	2	3	4	5
39. The interests of the customer often get ignored in our decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
40. We encourage direct contact with customers by our people.	1	2	3	4	5

Organisational Learning	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree	
41. We view failure as an opportunity for learning and improvement	1	2	3	4	5
42. Innovation and risk taking are encouraged and rewarded.	1	2	3	4	5
43. Lots of things "fall between the cracks".	1	2	3	4	5
44. Learning is an important objective in our day-to-day work.	1	2	3	4	5
45. We make certain that the "right hand knows what the left hand is doing".	1	2	3	4	5

MISSION

Strategic Direction & Intent	Strongly Disagree		Strongly Agree		
46. There is a long-term purpose and direction.	1	2	3	4	5
47. Our strategy leads other organisations to change the way they compete in the industry.	1	2	3	4	5
48. There is a clear mission that gives meaning and direction to our work.	1	2	3	4	5
49. There is a clear strategy for the future.	1	2	3	4	5
50. Our strategic direction is unclear to me.	1	2	3	4	5

Goals & Objectives	Strongly Disagree		Strongly Agree		
51. There is widespread agreement about goals.	1	2	3	4	5
52. Leaders set goals that are ambitious, but realistic.	1	2	3	4	5
53. The leadership has "gone on record" about the objectives we are trying to meet.	1	2	3	4	5
54. We continuously track our progress against our stated goals.	1	2	3	4	5
55. People understand what needs to be done for us to succeed in the long run.	1	2	3	4	5

Vision	Strongly Disagree		Strongly Agree		
56. We have a shared vision of what the organisation will be like in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
57. Leaders have a long-term viewpoint.	1	2	3	4	5
58. Short-term thinking often compromises our long-term vision.	1	2	3	4	5
59. Our vision creates excitement and motivation for our employees.	1	2	3	4	5
60. We are able to meet short-term demands without compromising our long-term vision.	1	2	3	4	5

GLOSSARY

Question Numbers	Word/ Term	Definition/ Explanation
#	Organisation	
#8	Hierarchy	Ranking; chain of command; persons having authority.
#9	Teams are our primary building blocks	The organisation relies on team effort to get work done.
#11	Authority	The power assigned to someone, over others. E.g. <i>A manager has authority over his/ her employees in the department.</i>
#11	Delegated	To commit or entrust to another; to give an employee a task to do or a responsibility to take care of.
#12	Bench Strength	Capabilities of people – Their skills, knowledge and abilities.
#14	Competitive Advantage	A factor (in this case capabilities of people) that helps organisations compete successfully with other organisations in the industry for business; the element that makes one company better than its competitors, e.g. <i>a better product or service.</i>
#16, 52, 53	Leaders/ Leadership/ Management	The Management team and supervisors of Vergelegen Medi-Clinic.
#16	“Practice what they preach”	Following the same rules and principles that are set for the rest of the employees.
#18	Governs	Directs, rules, controls, conducts, etc.
#19	Core values of Medi - Clinic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Client Orientation • Mutual trust and respect • Performance driven • Team approach

GLOSSARY

#20	Ethical code	A system of principles governing moral and acceptable conduct within Medi-Clinic.
#21	"Win-win" solutions	An agreement reached that is satisfactory to all parties involved.
#22	"Strong" culture	A very specific and prominent culture within the organisation
#23	Consensus	Agreement
#30	Alignment	The arrangement of the parts of a system to support the overall purpose of the system. <i>I.e. Each department's goals support the organisation's overall goal.</i>
#32	Business Environment	The Private Healthcare Industry.
#42	Innovation	The act of introducing something new, e.g. learning material or ways of learning.
#43	"Fall between the cracks"	Overlooking something important or not including certain things.
#45	"The left hand knows what the right hand is doing"	One department knows what the other is doing. E.g. The communication between departments is good.
#47, 49, 50	Strategy/ Strategic Direction	Medi-Clinic's plan of action to achieve a specific goal or objective.
#48	Mission of Medi-Clinic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Operate the best private hospitals in the geographic areas that we serve; • Provide the most cost-effective quality care possible to doctors and patients; • Maintain a contented workforce; • Satisfy shareholders.

GLOSSARY

#52	Ambitious	Challenging; Requiring or showing much effort.
#53	"Gone on record"	Official; officially been said by the organisation's leadership.
#54	Goal/ Objective	Something worked toward or striven for; The purpose toward which an effort is directed.
#56, 58, 59, 60	Vision of medi-Clinic	Loyal to our motto "Committed to Quality Care" and true to our reputation as a leader in the private hospital industry in South Africa, our <i>vision</i> is to meet and exceed the expectations of our clients by continuing to provide quality hospital care that enhances the lives of patients, doctors, employees and other stakeholders.
#58	Short-term thinking often compromises our long-term vision.	Making (hasty) decisions <i>that solve short-term problems</i> often lead to complications in the long-term.

APPENDIX B

MEMO

TO: ALL PERSONNEL
FROM: HOSPITAL MANAGER
DATE: 28/04/05
SUBJECT: CULTURE SURVEY

The first organizational culture survey/study will be done at _____ within the following weeks.

The survey will give an indication of the organizational culture and links to the business strategy
All responses will be handled **confidentially**. Personnel only need to indicate which department/ward they belong to.

We as management of _____ support this survey wholeheartedly and want you as respondents to answer questions as honestly as possible.

Thank you for your support.

