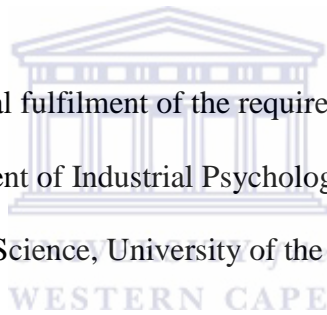


THE INFLUENCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE ON ORGANISATIONAL  
COMMITMENT AMONGST MANAGERIAL AND SUPERVISORY STAFF AT A  
BEVERAGE BOTTLING ORGANISATION IN THE WESTERN CAPE

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Mini – thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Magister  
Commercii in the Department of Industrial Psychology, Faculty of Economic and  
Management Science, University of the Western Cape.



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SEPTEMBER 2016

## DECLARATION

I declare that “The influence of organisational culture on organisational commitment amongst managerial and supervisory staff at a beverage bottling organisation in the Western Cape” is my own work and has never been submitted for any other degree or any other examination at any other institution or higher learning, and that all references have, to the best of my knowledge been indicated and acknowledged as complete references.

Full Name: Sharneigh Ables

Date: September 2016



A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read "S Ables".

Signed: \_\_\_\_\_

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Before all else, I give the highest praise and honour to God for all He has bestowed upon my life and for allowing me to embark on this journey.

To my husband, Craig, thank you for being such an inspiration, pillar of strength and pivotal part of my life. Thank you for all the sacrifices you have made so that I could focus on reaching for my stars. Without you, I would not have been able to do this.

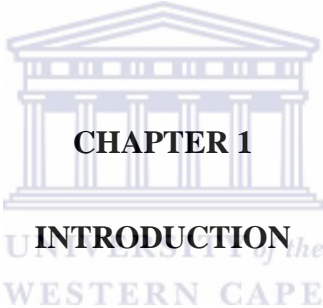
To my siblings, Lauren, Tarryn, Brandon and Kelsey. Here's to grabbing onto the endless opportunities afforded to us in life.

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Finally and very importantly, to my supervisor, Rukhsana Jano. Thank you for the constant support, encouragement and guidance you have provided me throughout this process. Without your help, patience and the meticulous work you do, I would not have been able to complete.

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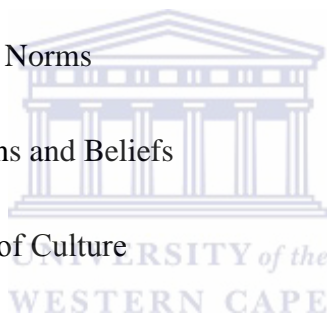
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## ABSTRACT

At present organisations are faced with considerable changes in the business environment due to globalisation illustrated through specialisation and individualisation in the workplace (Rastegar & Aghayan, 2012). To stay abreast of these changes, organisations attempt to gain competitive advantage within the competitive business environments they operate. The competitive advantage referred to is, enhancing the organisation's culture, so as to ensure the employees in the workplace stay committed (Acar, 2012). Dwivedi, Kaushik and Luxmi (2014) further add that organisation culture is a fundamental element to any activity in the organisation. The authors also purport that a good organisational culture, which yields self-actualisation needs such as capability development, empowerment, achievement and recognition leads to a greater level of commitment between employees. The inverse, that is, poor organisational culture, leads to lower levels of commitment with consequences such as increased employee turnover and lower productivity rates (Dwivedi et al., 2014).

The purpose of this study was to examine the influence of organisational culture (sub-dimensions being, mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency) on organisational commitment (sub-dimensions being, affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment). The sample was chosen by means of convenience sampling. Two hundred and thirty – six supervisory and managerial staff who were employed at a beverage company in the Western Cape partook in the study. Three questionnaires were utilised to collect the data namely, a self - developed biographical questionnaire, containing six items which was used to collect information pertaining to the demographics of the sample. The second questionnaire utilised was the Denison Organisational Culture Survey, which contained 60

items and the final questionnaire administered was Allen and Meyer's (1990) Organisational Commitment Questionnaire, which contained 24 items.

The data was computed using the Statistical Programme for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 23 using a multiple regression technique, yielding the following results: The results indicated that a significant proportion of the variance in organisational commitment was explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency. The most statistical significance predictors of organisational commitment were mission and consistency, however, mission contributed to the highest variance. Additionally, the results indicated that a significant proportion of the variance in affective commitment was explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency amongst staff. Involvement, adaptability and mission were found to be significant predictors of affective commitment with involvement accounting for the highest variance. Furthermore, the results showed that a significant proportion of the variance in normative commitment was explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency. Moreover, the most significant predictor of normative commitment was found to be consistency. Further findings found that a significant proportion of the variance in continuance commitment was explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency amongst staff. Moreover, the results indicated that the most significant predictor of continuance commitment was mission.

Lastly, limitations for the current study were presented and recommendations for future research and for the organisation were offered.

## KEY WORDS

Organisational culture

Organisational commitment

Involvement

Consistency

Adaptability

Mission

Affective commitment

Continuance commitment

Normative commitment

Denison's Organisational Culture Model



# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 BACKGROUND

Due to changes and advancements in the economy, the pressures that come with it places strain on organisations to become more competitive not only locally, but globally as well. Therefore, organisations are required to be more adaptable, diverse and better able to acclimatise to the challenges faced with competing at this level (Martins & Coetzee, 2011). Having a strong organisational culture assists in the adaptation to change. But before one can start to make sense of the concept of organisational culture, it has been and still needs to be emphasised that organisational values play a central role in understanding organisational culture. Organisational values are the morals, ethics and ideals that employees are familiar with, believe in and strive to uphold in the organisation. It is the values that make the decision making processes easier as it directs behaviour accordingly (Arnold & Randall, 2010). Robbins, Judge, Odendaal and Roodt (2009) attempt to simplify the concept of organisational culture by defining it as the recognition of having shared norms and values, and allowing these norms and values to direct the behaviour of the collective group.

Nongo and Ikyanyon (2012) further support the above authors' sentiments and suggest that organisational culture has become a more prevalent and critical factor that organisations are faced with today. It assists with making goal execution easily attainable and manageable and assists with maintaining the organisation's status quo. Schein (1992, cited in Van Stuyvesant, 2007) further states that organisational culture is an adaptation of a set of behaviours or norms



that a group adopts as a coping mechanism to help assist with the challenges or changes the group may be faced with, and in addition, assists employees in working toward goals, keeping in mind the value they hold towards their organisations.

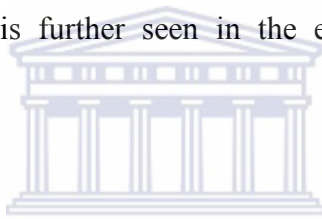
According to Robbins et al. (2009), organisational culture has become a way of explaining personalities of organisations by looking at the way in which they differ from other organisations in terms of their rigidity, flexibility, support systems and their limits to innovation. This explanation became more necessitated post 1980, before which organisations were seen as a way to control employees in a synchronised systematic way.

Much like the above researchers, Luthans (2011) has the same view regarding organisational commitment and the adaptation to change. The author postulates that because of the economic demands and the consequences or successes it brings to organisations such as the threat of retrenchments, amalgamation and acquisitions, it gives rise to the topic of organisational commitment. Luthans (2011) defines organisational commitment as the desire to be part of an organisation and expressing no wish to leave. This sort of commitment is evident in the employee's belief in goals and values the organisation holds and the satisfaction the employee gained by ensuring and seeing that the organisation grows from strength to strength.

Chen (2004, cited in Van Stuyvesant, 2007) purports that organisational culture has an enormous influence in ensuring employees commitment within successful organisations. Greenberg and Baron (2003) state that if employees firmly believe in the organisation and the values it holds, they are better able to deal with the pressures they are faced with. In other words, they act in consistence with the organisational culture and this, in turn, strengthens organisational commitment.

Nazir (2005, cited in Van Stuyvesant, 2007) is of the opinion that socialisation is an important factor to consider when joining together the employee's values with the values of the organisation. The author's opinion is that this merging of values results in a better level of fit between the respective values which naturally increases the level of commitment.

Clugston, Howell and Dorfman (2000) also postulates that organisational culture affects organisational commitment, but sees it as dependent on finding the suitable culture which suites both the employee and the organisation. Ultimately, it is this cohesion that results in the optimisation of organisational success. Martins (2001) further states that a strong achievement based culture will result in stronger employee commitment to the vision and mission of the organisation. This commitment is further seen in the employee's active support of the organisation's commitment.



Based on the above, it is thus important to investigate these two constructs as it will add to making the resistance to change less strenuous and better manageable by employees and the organisation they work for.

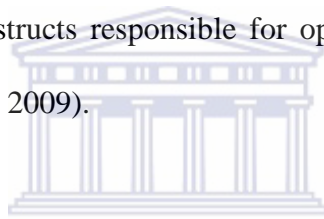
## **1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

Although the concept of organisational culture and its influence on organisational commitment has been researched, very little research is found to support the relationship between the two concepts. Moreover, much less research on the topic is found in South Africa.

Lok, Westwood and Crawford (2005) state that research studies on organisational commitment previously focused on a range of antecedent variables. The authors purport that although

reference has often been made in literature to the organisational culture and commitment relationship, there has not been extensive investigation into the two constructs.

Manetje and Martin's (2009) view is that organisations are required to adapt to technological advancements brought on by a more sophisticated economy, thus it becomes even more challenging for organisations to manage the culture to ensure employee commitment. Werner (2007, cited in Manetje & Martins, 2009) postulates that the effects of social, cultural, economic and political changes have a profound effect on South African organisations, who have formed part of the global market and thus are expected to compete accordingly. These changes essentially have a direct effect on organisational culture and organisational commitment, two important constructs responsible for optimal organisation functioning or performance (Manetje & Martins, 2009).



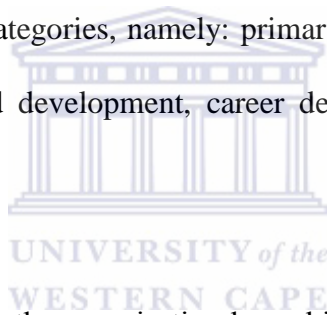
Fowler (2002) posits that organisational culture is one of the most important factors found to effect the organisation's advancement or regression. In addition, the findings of a study by Zwaan (2006) indicate that organisational culture has a direct correlation to organisational commitment and organisational effectiveness.

As there are many studies on either organisational culture or organisational commitment and not too many focusing on the influence of the one construct on the other, this needs to be further investigated especially since South Africa has changed globally and will continue to transform in the future (Manetje & Martins, 2009).

### 1.3 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

Organisational culture and its influence on organisational commitment is an important concept, not always easily identifiable or recognised in organisations (Cohen, 2003). It is the aim of this study to investigate organisational culture and its influence on organisational commitment as well as provide an overview of the implications of overlooking such a vital relationship.

Management at the organisation where the research will be conducted has always perceived the culture they maintain to be of a high standard. To measure this the organisation participates in an international benchmarking survey, Top Employer, which looks at the organisation's practices and procedures in six categories, namely: primary benefits, secondary benefits and working conditions, training and development, career development, company culture and diversity.



In the 'company culture' category the organisation has a history of scoring a perfect five star rating. Recognising the importance of making sure that the processes are aligned to the perceptions of the employees, in June 2012, the organisation embarked on a cultural value assessment to ascertain if the culture the organisation perceives to portray is the culture that the employees see and strive to uphold. The employees were asked, by choosing ten words per category to rate their personal values, what they perceive as the current organisational culture values, and what their desired organisational culture values would look like.

The findings of the cultural value assessment revealed many limiting factors, values that were not conducive to enhancing a positive organisational culture. Examples of these limiting factors were: cost reduction, long hours, red tape and information hoarding. In order to address these

limiting factors, the organisation had to set up many interventions in an attempt to address the causes and reasons and, in turn, build toward creating positive values. The cultural values assessment is an ongoing assessment which the organisation aims to re-address every 2 years.

Manetje and Martins (2009) conducted research on a South African motor manufacturing organisation, aiming to investigate the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment. The rationale for this research investigated employees' perceptions on the existing and preferred cultures as a determinant of organisational commitment. Based on previous research evidence, the authors recognised that in order to understand organisational behaviour, organisational culture needed to be understood. The way employees behave and act is strongly influenced and directed by the norms set (organisational culture) by the organisation (Martins & Martins, 2003, cited in Manetje & Martins, 2009). Hence, it is important to recognise that employee commitment forms part of employee behaviour which is directly influenced by the organisational culture possessed by the organisation. The changing dynamics within culture and the way people behave highlights the importance of studying employee commitment in an organisation (Manetje & Martins, 2009).

According to Cohen (2003, cited in Manetje & Martins, 2009), despite the environment in which individuals choose to study organisational commitment, it remains an important construct to research as it provides a better understanding of the process through which people find personal value as being part of a bigger culture, the process they go through in identifying and becoming part of their surroundings, and how they find that this surroundings influences them in adding value to their lives. The commitment they give or choose not to give therefore plays a big role in the shaping of the culture they either choose to be part of or not to be part of.

Organisational culture has considerable influence on organisational behaviours such as efficiency, effectiveness and commitment. Importance is thus placed on the development of organisational culture which, in turn, will ensure success (Nongo & Ikyanyon, 2012).

Based on research evidence, Nongo and Ikyanyon (2012) purport that corporate culture plays a vital role in reaching the vision, mission and objectives in the organisation, hence the authors embarked on a research discovery looking at the influence corporate culture had on organisational commitment in small to medium enterprises in Nigeria. Their research was aimed at creating an understanding of how corporate culture influences employee attitudes and commitment in organisations which, in turn, enhances the workplace environment in such a way that employees feel more devoted to the job they are employed to do. Corporate culture, on the other hand, is crucial to enhancing organisations' key capabilities and contextualising the employee role in an organisation (Nongo & Ikanyon, 2012).

Deal and Kennedy (1982, cited in Nongo & Ikanyon, 2012) state that corporate culture influences employee commitment and the strength thereof affects the strength of organisational commitment. Hence, the strength or weakness of corporate culture is heavily dependent on the strength or weakness of employees' commitment to the organisation.

For the purpose of the current research, input will be obtained from managerial and supervisory staff in the organisation, as they are often responsible for driving, influencing and encouraging organisational culture. Hence, the investigation will look at the influence of organisational culture on organisational commitment amongst managerial and supervisory staff at a beverage bottling organisation in the Western Cape.

## 1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research study aims to address the following:

- To determine whether a significant proportion of the variance in organisational commitment is explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency (as dimensions of organisational culture) amongst managerial and supervisory staff within a beverage bottling organisation.
- To determine whether a significant proportion of the variance in affective commitment is explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency (as dimensions of organisational culture) amongst managerial and supervisory staff within a beverage bottling organisation.
- To determine whether a significant proportion of the variance in normative commitment is explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency (as dimensions of organisational culture) amongst managerial and supervisory staff within a beverage bottling organisation.
- To determine whether a significant proportion of the variance in continuance commitment is explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency (as dimensions of organisational culture) amongst managerial and supervisory staff within a beverage bottling organisation.

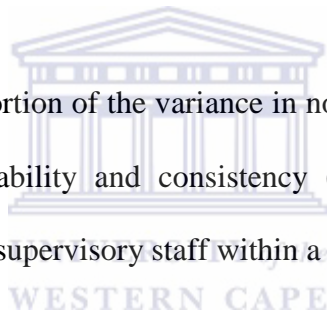


## **1.5 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES**

Hypothesis 1: A significant proportion of the variance in organisational commitment is explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency (as dimensions of organisational culture) amongst managerial and supervisory staff within a beverage bottling organisation.

Hypothesis 2: A significant proportion of the variance in affective commitment is explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency (as dimensions of organisational culture) amongst managerial and supervisory staff within a beverage bottling organisation.

Hypothesis 3: A significant proportion of the variance in normative commitment is explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency (as dimensions of organisational culture) amongst managerial and supervisory staff within a beverage bottling organisation.



Hypothesis 4: A significant proportion of the variance in continuance commitment is explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency (as dimensions of organisational culture) amongst managerial and supervisory staff within a beverage bottling organisation.

## **1.6 DEFINITIONS OF IMPORTANT CONSTRUCTS**

### **1.6.1 Organisational culture**

According to Rashid, Sambasivan and Johari (2002), organisational culture can be defined as the invented, adapted and developed beliefs, systems and ways of doing things that



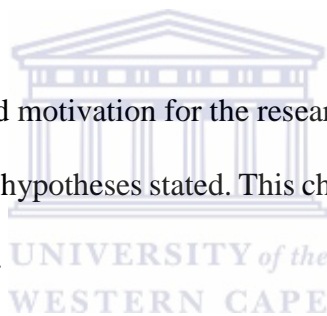
members of the organisation identify with. The authors further describe culture as the personality of the organisation.

### **1.6.2 Organisational commitment**

Organisational commitment is evident when an employee places value on being associated to the organisation as well as when an employee is able to positively identify with the organisation (Aina, Adeyeye, & Ige, 2012).

## **1.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

In this chapter the background and motivation for the research are discussed, the objectives of the research are addressed and the hypotheses stated. This chapter concludes with the important constructs referred to in the study.



## **1.8 OUTLINE OF CHAPTERS**

Chapter two presents an overview of the literature on the variables being investigated in the study. Concepts, theories, models, influences and the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment are discussed in depth, as well as references are made to other research.

Chapter three looks at the research methodology. The research design, population, sample, sampling procedure, data gathering procedure and measuring instruments are discussed.

Chapter four presents the findings after the data has been gathered.

Chapter five outlines the discussion of the findings and conclusions are drawn. Lastly, recommendations are put forth to the organisation as well as for future research.



## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

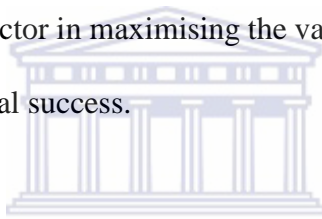
Chapter two focuses on the theoretical background, definitions, typologies and organisational implications for both organisational culture and organisational commitment. Furthermore, the discussion will also refer to previous research carried out both internationally and in South Africa. The chapter concludes by addressing the impact of organisational culture on organisational commitment.

#### 2.2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND TO ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Culture and leadership are probably amongst the most written about but least understood topics in social sciences. This is not only because social scientists find these constructs very challenging, but also because the constructs are necessary for sustaining human existence (Chokhar, Brodbeck, & House, 2007). Previous research conducted on organisational culture has identified the construct as both an important and central paradigm responsible for organisational success (Arnold & Randall, 2010). The importance thereof follows the phenomenal acceleration of changes in organisations over the last 20 years, sparking innovative thinking around change management. Globalisation fuelled this acceleration even further forcing organisations to react a bit faster and quicker to the continuing changes (El-Nahas, Abd-El-Salam, & Shawky, 2013).

According to Rashid, Sambasivan and Johari (2002), Deal and Kennedy (1982) prompted the interest of researchers and consultants to the concept of corporate culture, and how these values and philosophy guide employees' behaviour in the organisation towards greater success. During the 1980's organisational culture became a bit more prevalent in organisations as researchers discovered that organisational culture had a huge impact on job satisfaction, even though only a few studies examined this relationship (El-Nahas et al., 2013).

Mullins (2000, cited in Aina, Adeyeye, & Ige, 2012, p. 29) is of the opinion that "the culture of an organisation is one of the factors that strategically come together to develop an organisation." The author stressed that the culture of an organisation, as with the culture of the employees, can be a motivating factor in maximising the value of the employees which can, in turn, be managed for organisational success.



After much exploration of the research, Shahzad, Luqman, Khan and Shabbir (2012) found that organisational culture has a deep impact on organisational processes, employees and performance. According to Nongo and Ikyanyon (2012), corporate culture heavily influences the effectiveness of an organisation and as a consequence then effects the managerial functioning of planning, organising, staffing, leading and controlling.

Turnover is said to be one of the predictors of the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of organisational culture. Jacobs and Roodt (2008) sought to investigate if organisational culture of hospitals can predict the turnover intentions of professional nurses in Kimberely, South Africa. The authors alluded to many variables such as organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction amongst many other variables not mentioned in this study, which can be a predictor of organisational culture. The findings

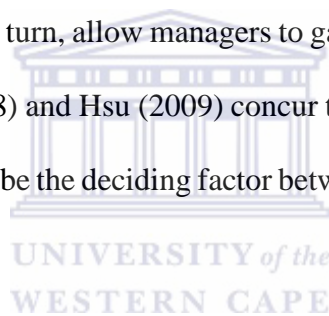
indicate that there is a statistically significant negative relationship between organisational culture and turnover intentions and, in addition, the results also supported the view that organisational culture is a significant contributor to the organisation's effectiveness and efficiencies.

Martins and Coetzee (2011) led a study on a large South African manufacturing organisation in the Gauteng province and sought to investigate staff perceptions on organisational values. The authors were driven by the global information-focussed economy, global competition and an increasingly diverse labour force and recognised that due to the emergence of the aforementioned, a new interest had been developed for corporate culture and its link to organisational effectiveness and performance. In South Africa, employment equity and affirmative action can be credited for contributing to the diverse labour force and as a result Martins and Coetzee (2011) purport that it is these two attributes which should be used when developing intercessions for creating congruence between the core values of the organisation and that of the labour force. The authors felt that this will, in turn, create strong organisational cultures for sustained organisational effectiveness.

Green and Bisseker (2002) and Weiss (2001) cited in Martins and Coetzee (2011) believe the emergence of a global knowledge driven economy, international competition and an increasingly diverse workforce have increased organisations' concerns about increasing their competitiveness, responsiveness and adaptability in a highly complex and turbulent business environment. These concerns have led to a renewed interest in the role of corporate culture in improving the performance and effectiveness of organisations. Weiss (2001) states that effective organisational cultures enable organisations to retain their competitive edge by adapting to and adjusting their changing internal and external environments.

According to Ojo (2010), both organisational troubles and successes have been the responsibility of organisational culture. This has led various researchers to believe that creating an awareness around the concept will allow organisations to have a better understanding and, in turn, creating more effectivity and efficiency in performance (Ouchi, 1981; Barney, 1986; Kathryn, 2002; Shani & Lau, 2005 all cited in Ojo, 2010).

According to Momeni, Marjani and Saadat (2012), organisational culture has assumed considerable importance in the 21<sup>st</sup> century because of its impact on employee performance and job satisfaction. The authors place significance on organisations taking the steps in uncovering its own unique culture, so that managers are able to draw insights gained by the cultural perspective which will, in turn, allow managers to gain more influential control of their organisations. Both Naicker (2008) and Hsu (2009) concur that organisational culture plays an important role and can sometimes be the deciding factor between a successful or non-successful organisation.

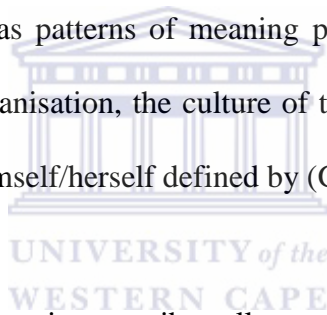


### **2.3 DEFINITIONS: ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE CONCEPTUALISED**

According to Chokhar et al. (2007), there is no universally agreed upon definition of culture among social scientists. They generally use the term to refer to a set of parameters of assemblages from each other in a meaningful way. The focus is on the communalism of cultural indicators amongst members of the assembly. On the other hand, Robbins, Judge, Odendaal and Roodt (2009) purport that for the most part there have been consensus when defining organisational culture. It is defined as a “system of shared meaning held by members that distinguishes one organisation from another organisation” (Robbins et al., 2009, p. 424). The author’s further state that organisational culture is concerned with how employees perceive the

characteristics of an organisation's culture, not whether they like them or not. As a construct, organisational culture has been studied by various scholarly disciplines ranging from management science and sociology to the applied disciplines of organisational behaviour (Robbins et al., 2009).

Ghinea and Bratianu (2012) claim that people are all born with a certain culture, and whilst people develop their culture they are both the inventors and recipients thereof. But before one can aim to understand the culture individuals are born in, researchers need to learn how to analyse culture signs, values and symbols in such a way that they are able to fully interpret the importance and influence culture has over individuals. The authors propose the same for culture in organisations and describe it as patterns of meaning passed on through generations. So essentially when entering the organisation, the culture of that organisation is something that the employee inherits and find himself/herself defined by (Ghinea & Bratianu, 2012).



According to Tharp (2009), culture circumscribes all areas surrounding internal and external relationships. Culture is so deeply entrenched that members are sometimes oblivious of the influence it has over them and their reliance on direction from it. Waisfisz (2004) attempts to define organisational culture as the way in which members of an organisation relate to each other, to their work and to the outside world that distinguishes them from other organisations.

Culture is often manifested in two distinct ways. The first is as values, beliefs, schemas and implicit theories commonly held amongst members of an assemblage (society or organisation), and these are variously called the attributes of culture. Secondly, culture is also commonly observed and reported as practices of entities such as families, schools, work organisations, economic and legal systems, political institutions and the like (Chokhar et al., 2007). Aina,

Adeyeye and Ige (2012) on the other hand, argue that organisational culture cannot be defined by one definition as the culture of the organisation remains an undefined nature of behaviour in the organisation and employees may not knowingly notice it.

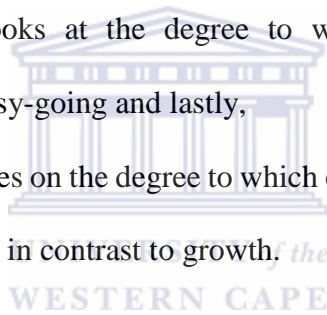
Lather, Jan, Singh and Gupta (2010) define organisational culture as the source of existence and means of development which provides a competitive edge to potential opponents in industry. Similarly, Shahzad, Luqman, Khan and Shabbir (2012) define organisational culture as the arrangement of different attributes that make up an organisation and which act as the differentiating factor which contributes in distinguishing one organisation from another. In a bid to obtain an air-tight strategy to manage globalisation, organisations are embracing the concept of organisational culture more and delineate it as the fundamental soul of an organisation comprising of its beliefs, customs and practices. The authors embrace culture and see it as a symbolic representation of its modelling of human thought and behaviour in the organisational system (Lather et al., 2010). Shahzad et al. (2012) add that organisational culture must be educated and shared in organisations.

#### **2.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

Robbins et al. (2009) purport that there is conformity surrounding the meaning of organisational culture, which refers to the concept as a common consensus reached and shared by employees which in essence differentiates one organisation from another. The authors further postulate that organisational culture is represented by definitive characteristics valued by organisations, specifically:



- (i) ***Innovation and risk-taking*** which focuses on the degree to which employees are encouraged to be innovative and take risks,
- (ii) ***Attention to detail*** places emphasis on the degree to which employees are expected to exhibit precision, analysis, and attention to detail,
- (iii) ***Outcome orientation*** highlights the degree to which management focuses on results or outcomes rather than on the techniques and processes used to achieve these outcomes,
- (iv) ***People orientation*** which focuses on the degree to which management decisions take into consideration the effect of outcomes on people within the organisation,
- (v) ***Team orientation*** which centres on the degree to which work activities are organised around teams rather than individuals,
- (vi) ***Aggressiveness*** which looks at the degree to which people are aggressive and competitive rather than easy-going and lastly,
- (vii) ***Stability*** which concentrates on the degree to which organisational activities emphasise maintaining the status quo in contrast to growth.



Each of these characteristics has a ranking from low to high. Rating the organisation accordingly gives individuals an idea to the culture of that organisation, represents the view employees have of the organisation and provides a guideline of their expected behaviour according to those views (Robbins et al., 2009).

In addition to the above characteristics, Luthans (2011) postulates that the following characteristics are illustrative of organisational culture:

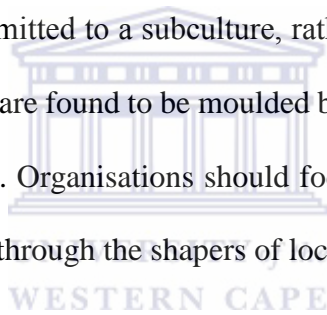
- (i) **Observed behavioural regularities** are detected during interaction, an integrated language, jargon as well as customs related to difference and behaviour is used by members of the organisation,
- (ii) **Norms** are the guidelines provided stipulating the magnitude of work input that the members of the organisation should measure themselves against,
- (iii) **Dominant values** are the most critical standards set in the organisation, which ultimately ensures that operational requirements are met which, in turn, affects productivity, profitability and sustainability in the organisation,
- (iv) **Philosophy** is a code of conduct which is established and stipulates how the organisation intends to treat their employees as well as the rules and regulations which they expect the employees to abide by. This will help maintain the culture in the organisation,
- (v) **Rules** refers to the organisation having a set of uncompromisable values which new employees are urged to embrace in order to be fully accepted group members and lastly,
- (vi) **Organisational climate** are the physical settings and the participative nature between employees and the customers. It means taking all the aspects of the organisation into account and arriving at the holistic feeling of the organisation.

## 2.5 ORGANISATIONAL SUBCULTURES

There remains a strong belief that stemming from cultures, there may be subcultures which often tend to exist independently of the main organisational culture and further may act independently with its own set of beliefs, values and attributes. Subcultures often pose a threat to take over the main organisational culture and, in turn, gain the commitment of individual

employees who identify with the subculture rather than the main culture of the organisation (Lok & Crawford, 1999, as cited in Momeni et al., 2012).

In a study by Lok, Westwood and Crawford (2005) on the perceptions of organisational subculture, leadership style and commitment, particular emphasis is placed on subculture as the authors propose that this is a neglected variable in literature studies on commitment. According to the authors, it is suitable to measure the entirety of organisational culture in relation to another organisation's culture, but becomes restrictive when describing the various cultures within one organisation with more than one culture (subcultures) within it. Lok et al. (2005) find that subcultures are more prominent, familiar and natural hence, members of a subculture are deemed more committed to a subculture, rather than the "main" organisational culture. Furthermore, subcultures are found to be moulded by the local leader and weighting is measured on his/her commitment. Organisations should focus on this affiliation and mediate the greater organisational culture through the shapers of local/formal leaders.



In a study conducted by Sims (2005) for Select Knowledge Limited, three main types of organisational subcultures are identified:

### ***2.5.1 Hierarchical subcultures***

Hierarchical subcultures exist where there are clear demarcated levels within an organisation. There is a similarity in the status, power and authority amongst specific members of the subculture. For example, managers will not necessarily belong to the same subculture of their subordinates as they do not share the same or similar status, power and authority with them (Sims, 2005).

### **2.5.2 Occupational / task subcultures**

Occupational/task subcultures occur when development has taken place and a group of individuals have in return gained specific knowledge and skills. It is these individuals who feel a strong affiliation with one another based on the similar skills they have acquired (Sims, 2005).

### **2.5.3 Culturally diverse subcultures**

Culturally diverse subcultures occur when an individual's ethnicity, national culture and religion differs from what the dominant organisational culture's ethnicity, national culture and religion is. These individuals may then identify with a subculture which include individuals who share common beliefs and values as they do. Organisations are becoming more diverse and, in turn, culturally diverse subcultures are an increasing phenomena (Sims, 2005).

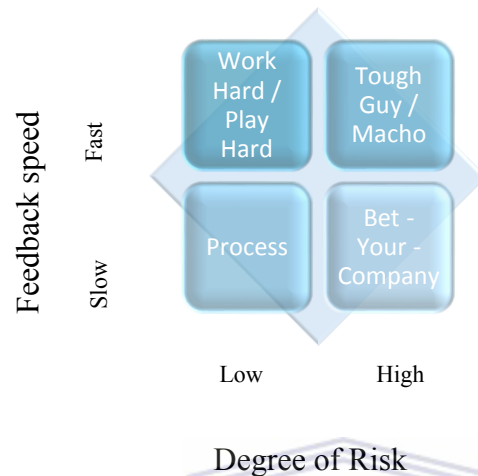
In large organisations it is common for multi-ethnic and multi-cultural workforces to exist. It is thus important for organisations to consider a pluralistic culture as a dominant culture may be difficult for all members to adapt (Sims, 2005). Caudron (1992, p. 365 as cited in Sims, 2005) defines pluralistic culture as "one that promotes respect, acceptance, team work, and productivity among people who are drivers in work, background, experience, education, age, gender, race, ethnic origin, physical abilities, religious beliefs, sexual orientation, and other perceived differences."

## **2.6 DEAL AND KENNEDY'S CULTURE TYPES**

The interest around organisational culture has been incited by Deal and Kennedy (1982) who have researched and examined cultural elements across organisations leading to the

classification of the organisational culture types. The culture types below provide the platform which form the basis for further research development on organisational culture.

**Figure 2.1: Deal and Kennedy’s culture types: 2 x 2 matrix identifying four culture types**



Source: Deal & Kennedy (1982, p. 108)

- (i) **Tough- Guy/Macho** states that in entertainment industries, sports teams and advertising agencies, this sort of culture is evident. Individuals who enjoy risk dominate this culture, work hard to be stars and who want immediate feedback on the decisions they make. Individualism rather than teamwork is valued which hinders efforts to build a cohesive culture due to the high turnover in such cultures (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Maximini (2015) refers to the tough-guy culture as the most difficult of all organisational cultures as the risks are great and the expected response time is quick. The author further explains that this type of culture is dominated by individuals with tough attitudes, whose focus is on speed rather than endurance. An example of this type of environment is advertising agencies and police departments (Maximini, 2015).

- (ii) **Work Hard/Play Hard** type of culture is evident in the sales environment, where individuals are not required to take a lot of risk themselves, but are required to be team players and maintain an upbeat attitude (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Maximini (2015) describes work hard/play hard culture as the environment in which minor to no risks are taken and an almost immediate and intensive feedback is imminent. Maximini (2015) further purports that work hard/play hard culture focuses on the team not the individual, as it is the group effort of the team aiming at seeking the need and bridging the gap together.
- (iii) **Bet-your-company** types are often rife in pharmaceutical, gas and architectural organisations where decisions made are at a higher risk and the payoff of these decisions is not immediate. Making the right decision is very important, hence the cultural elements evolve so much in order to encompass a long-term focus, and the importance in planning, preparing and performing accordingly are vital (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). According to Deal and Kennedy (2000), the stakes in this type of culture are greater than in any other type of culture as it is here that one decision can affect the status of the entire organisation. Precision in decision making is vital, slow decisions are made and slow feedback is imminent.
- (iv) **Process** types of cultures are commonly found in the banking industry, retail industry, insurance and government organisations where risks are low and feedback is slow. A single transaction has very little influence on the success or failure of the organisation and the success or failure of a transaction today may only be evident years from the time of the transaction. Due to the suspension of feedback, employees rather focus on *how* they do things, rather than measuring *what* they do (Deal & Kennedy, 1982).

According to Deal and Kennedy (2000), the focus of this culture is on the person's belonging to the culture and the way in which they build towards the uprightness of the culture rather than looking out for their individual needs. The authors purport that the focus is on being meticulous and getting the process right the first time rather than on how long it takes to complete the cycle of the process.

## **2.7 HOFSTEDE'S CULTURAL DIMENSIONS**

Educational disciplines such as psychology, sociology, marketing and management studies mainly use Hofstede's framework in order to conceptualise and operationalise culture (Soares, Farhangmehr, & Shoham, 2007).

In Hofstede's model, culture is illustrated according to five dimensions namely, power distance, individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity, uncertainty avoidance and long/short-term orientation (Soares et al., 2007).

### **2.7.1 Power distance**

Power distance is the way in which members of a cultural group view power distribution. When power is unequally distributed in society, power distance occur when the members of that cultural group who possesses the least power, accepts that inequality exists (deMooij & Hofstede, 2010). Soares et al. (2007) describe power distance as the reflection of power inequity and power relations in society and the punishments linked with it. The authors add that this cultural dimension is responsible for influencing hierarchy and dependence in families and organisations.

### ***2.7.2 The contrast individualism/collectivism***

This distinction is associated with the power of the affiliation people have with the group they belong to. The higher the individualism (IDV) the lower the association or affiliation with the group. The lower the individualism (IDV) the stronger the group solidity and allegiance amongst members (deMooij & Hofstede, 2010). Soares et al. (2007) purport that individuals who belong to individualistic cultures are concerned with their personal well-being and the well-being of their immediate family only, whereas in collectivistic cultures, individuals are devoted to the assemblage who provides them with the care they need and therefore an allegiance is formed between the individual and the assemblage.



### ***2.7.3 The masculinity/femininity dimension***

Traditionally society associates the male values/roles with achievement and success, whereas the female values/roles are associated with the role of a caregiver. In societies where masculinity is important, how well an individual displays their wealth and prominence is a great determinant of the individual's success (deMooij & Hofstede, 2010). Cacciattolo (2014) describes masculinity and femininity as the extent to which persons prefer measureable assets (quantity of life) versus the person's preference for strong personal relationships (quality of life). The author purports that the preference of material possessions is often found to be synonymous with males and the preference of personal relationships are often found to be synonymous with females.

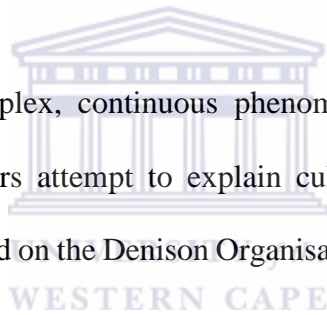


#### **2.7.4 *Uncertainty avoidance***

Most people like the security in the situations they place themselves in. However, uncertainty avoidance is exactly that. It is the length to which people will go to avoid uncertain and insecure situations/environments (deMooij & Hofstede, 2010). According to Cacciattolo (2014), a high uncertainty avoidance culture is plagued by worry and concern regarding the future. There is no stability in the environment and it offers no security, therefore employees are cautious to change employers.

### **2.8 MODELS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

Organisational culture is a complex, continuous phenomena, therefore modelling it is a challenge. The following pioneers attempt to explain culture through demonstrating their models. Special emphasis is placed on the Denison Organisational Culture Model as this model is the focus in this study.



#### **2.8.1 DEAL AND KENNEDY'S MODEL OF CULTURE**

Through their model of culture, Deal and Kennedy (1982) attempt to demonstrate the complexity of culture by providing six elements, which in turn, aims to offer human resource professionals the opportunity to understand how the organisation operates as a combined social unit. The authors propose one of the first models of organisational culture, purporting that culture is an essential element which ensures either the triumph or demise of an organisation. Outlined on the following page are the set of six cultural elements which Deal and Kennedy (1982) suggest forms the basis of corporate culture.

### ***2.8.1.1 History***

Past traditions are key to the future foundation of the organisation's culture. These traditions represent the values which people identify with, and are also representative of the foundation on which the organisation is constructed (Deal & Kennedy, 1982).

### ***2.8.1.2 Values and Beliefs***

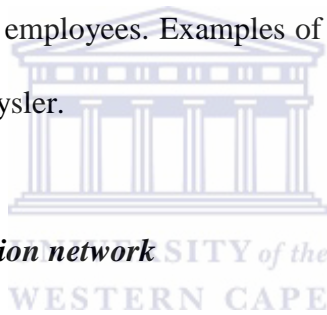
The foundation of an organisation is based on the values on which it is built. The values in the organisation provides structure, direction and an almost informal control system which helps steer behaviour, decision making and assisting in maintaining the objective and goals in the organisation (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Lunenburg (2011) posits that there are two kinds of values: terminal and instrumental. A terminal value is what the employees of the organisation desires an outcome to be (for example, incentives and success). Instrumental value is the channel which carries the behaviour (for example, working hard in order to achieve an incentive and success).

### ***2.8.1.3 Rites, Rituals and Ceremonies***

Rites, rituals and ceremonies are the daily traditions that employees engage in as well as the processes they follow when making decisions. It is the social habits that are identifiable by all members of the group and which often at times are the factors that divide groups during mergers. For example, one group may not understand or accept the rituals being displayed and hence reject it as tradition, which then affects the culture of the group (Deal & Kennedy, 1982).

#### **2.8.1.4 Heroic Figures**

When an employee or manager exemplifies the values of the organisation, their status is raised and other members start looking at them with admiration and aspire to the way they illustrate this behaviour. These members are key cultural builders in organisations (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Lunenburg (2011) purport that most successful organisations have heroic figures and states that heroes are both born as well as created. Examples of born heroes are Walt Disney, creator of Disney studios and theme parks as well as Henry Ford, founder of the Ford motor company. On the other hand, created heroes are shaped by the organisation through noticing how the values of this individual is aligned to that of the organisation and the invaluable and aspirational effect it has on other employees. Examples of created heroes are Sam Walton at Wal-Mart and Lee Iacocca at Chrysler.



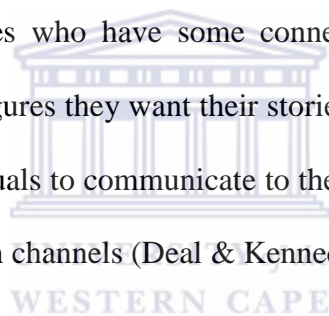
#### **2.8.1.5 The cultural communication network**

According to Deal and Kennedy (1982), the cultural and communications networks are the formal or informal networks used to spread information across the organisation. Formal internal communication is characteristic of the underline assumptions required by management however, informal internal communication is characterised by the following:

- (i) *Storytellers* are employees who interpret the happenings around them and pass on their elucidations to recruit members to the culture (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). These story tellers carry over information as they perceive it and therefore the stories are highly dependent on the storyteller's interpretation which, in turn, influences the listener's perceptions (Lunenburg, 2011).

(ii) *Gossipers* are individuals who, including their interpretations, add on their own twist to the information, mostly in order to create hype around the story and to maintain their audiences' interest in their story. Mostly, employees are able to identify who these individuals are, and although the employees do not necessarily believe the story, they listen to it as a means of entertainment (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). The gossipers are often at times the bearers of trivial information through the communication networks. Heroes are connected to gossipers as the gossipers play an important role in constructing and upholding the hero's image through speaking of the heroes latest accomplishments (Lunenburg, 2011).

(iii) *Whisperers* are employees who have some connection to top management or the important authoritative figures they want their stories to reach. Other employees often at times use these individuals to communicate to the top without having to go through the formal communication channels (Deal & Kennedy, 1982).



(iv) *Spies* are employees who report the daily happenings to top management and provide them with valuable information to sometimes use against employees and to the advantage of top management (Deal & Kennedy, 1982).

(v) *Priests and priestesses* are in a sense the custodians of the values of the organisation. They know the history of the organisation and are often relied on to deal with current situations and issues applying their knowledge of the organisation's values (Deal & Kennedy, 1982).

### ***2.8.1.6 Stories and Symbols***

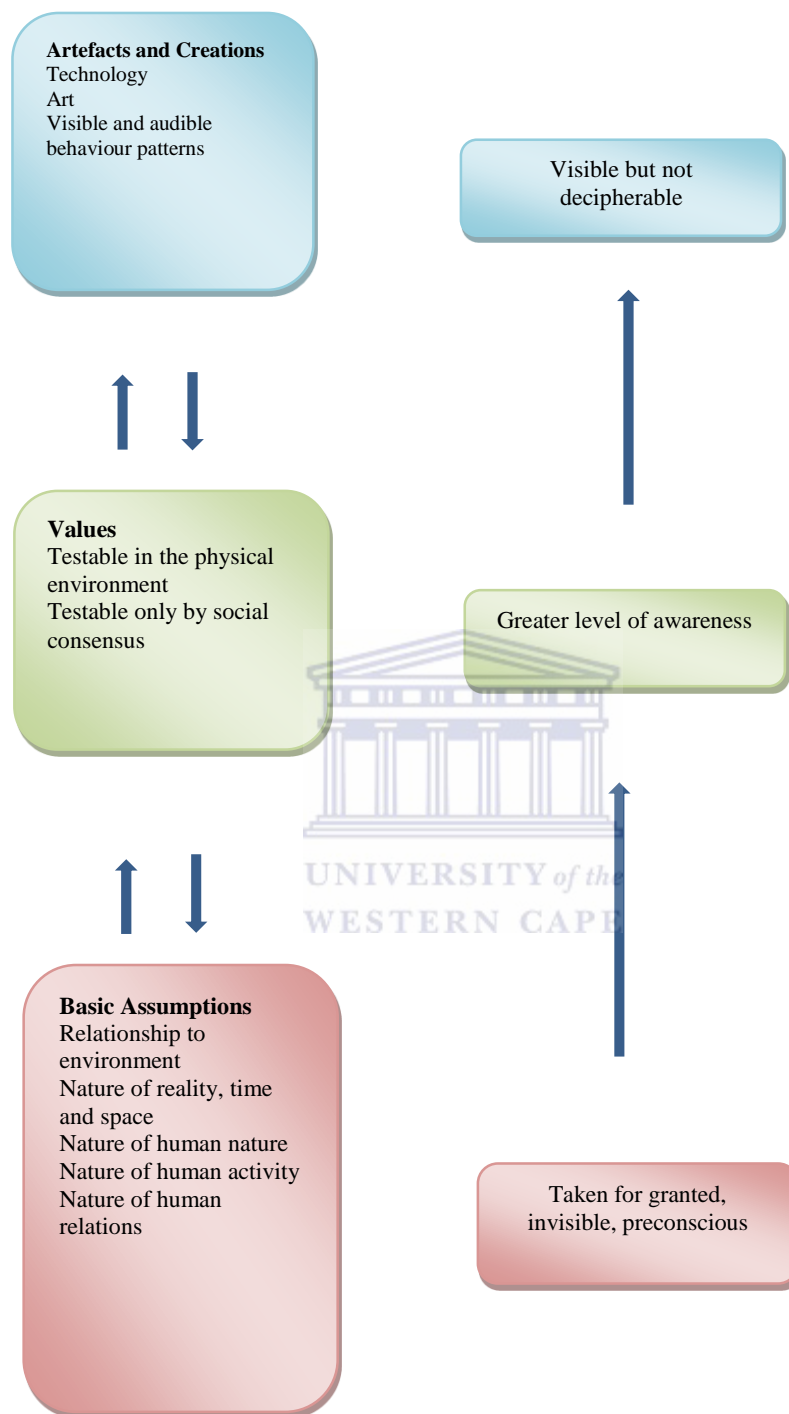
Stories and symbols are usually communicated by the organisation through the objectives, purpose and mission. Through demonstrating their objective, purpose and mission, the organisation at the same time gives a status on where they are and the direction in which they wish to grow. Symbols are exemplified through factors such as internal and external language, dress codes and also add to how the organisation is viewed from both external and internal stakeholders. Stories are exemplified through the organisation's values and how employees live these values (Deal & Kennedy, 1982).

### **2.8.2 SCHEIN'S MODEL OF CULTURE**

According to Schein (2013), there are four categories of culture namely, macro cultures (nations and occupations that exists globally), organisational cultures, subcultures (groups within organisations) and micro cultures (microsystems with or within organisations).

Schein proposes a model that is used to show that culture can be analysed at several different levels, where the team level refers to the degree to which the cultural phenomena is visible to the observer. These levels range from the very tangible overt manifestations that individuals can see and feel to the deeply embedded unconscious basic assumptions that the author regarded as the essence of culture (Schein, 1992). According to Schein (2013), the most central issue for leaders, in their attempt to understand the deeper levels of culture, is for them to uncover the source of the beliefs and values and to deal with anxiety that is unleashed when those assumptions are challenged.

**Figure 2.2: Schein's Model of Organisational Culture**



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

### ***2.8.2.1 Artefacts and creations***

Artefacts and creations are the visible organisational structures (architecture, office design, language, rituals and celebrations) and processes supported by the organisations norms, values and assumptions; that is, the touchable and noticeable demonstrations supported by the organisation (Schein, 1992). Cacciattolo (2014) adds that the physical exchanges between employees as well as the communication between employees and shareholders and any party of interest to the organisational can be identified as artefacts and creations.

### ***2.8.2.2 Values and Norms***

According to Schein (1992), values represent the ideologies and standards that an organisation's employees value. Values are the fundamental truths which serve as the foundation for a system of beliefs. It forms part of discerning between suitable and undesirable decisions. Cacciattolo (2014) posits that communication through the organisation's vision and mission, detailing the organisational strategy, forms part of dispersing the organisation's motives by embedding in it the values and norms.

### ***2.8.2.3 Assumptions and beliefs***

Schein (1992) describe assumptions and beliefs to be the unconscious, taken-for-granted beliefs, perceptions, thoughts and feelings which are the ultimate sources of values and action. Du Toit (2002) purport that assumptions and beliefs guide behaviours and instruct how employees should think, feel, perceive work, attain goals, and maintain relationships with colleagues.

### 2.8.3 HOFSTEDE'S MODEL OF CULTURE

Hofstede (1997) has separated culture into four strata which the author describes as being critical for managers in organisations as it affects the operation of the organisation at different degrees.

**2.8.3.1 Values** are often described as Hofstede's deepest level and the core in which people find values. Values are defined by Hofstede as the range of preferences one chooses in situations that define one culture from another (Waisfisz, 2004). Sun (2008) purports that values are intricately associated to both virtuous and ethical codes and is the deciding factor between whether a person decides to carry out a task or not.

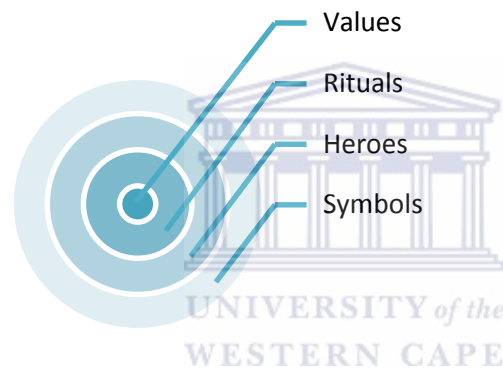
**2.8.3.2 Rituals** are the essential and sometimes necessary social activities in the organisation. Rituals are often clear in practices and organisation procedures as employees are able to observe them (Waisfisz, 2004). According to Hofstede (1997), ways of greeting, social and religious ceremonies are examples of rituals.

**2.8.3.3 Heroes** are the individuals who often enjoy success in the organisation. Through their commitment to the values in the organisation, other employees often see them as role models in the organisation (Waisfisz, 2004). These individuals are often highly prized for their ability to get along with everyone in the organisation (Sun, 2008). Hofstede (1997) purports that these individuals may not necessarily be alive and may sometimes be fictional but their characteristics serves as representations for behaviour, for example, Asterix in France and Snoopy in America.



**2.8.3.4 Symbols** can be described as belonging to a certain group or culture. An individual is able to identify with that group or culture through gestures, objects and words being used as these are familiar to the individual and often carry a specific significance culture (Waisfisz, 2004). According to Hofstede (1997), symbols are the things that only members of a particular culture can identify with. These symbols are also sometimes temporary until a new symbol emerges in place of another. Examples of symbols could be a particular business jargon, emblems and dress codes.

**Figure 2.3: Hofstede's Model of Organisational Culture**

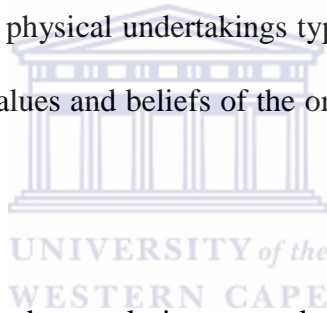


Source: Hofstede's Model of Organisational Culture (1997, p. 9)

#### **2.8.4 DENISON'S ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE MODEL**

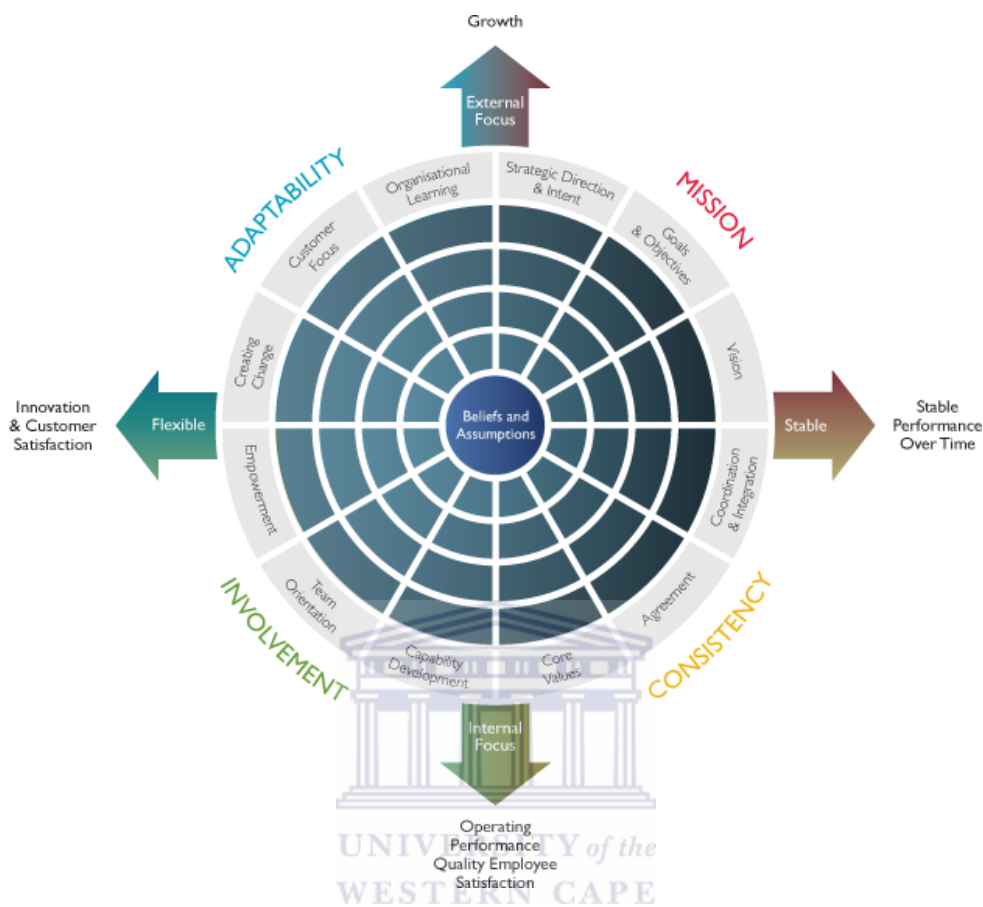
Attention is accorded to Denison's Organisational Culture Model as the current research is based on this model.

The main aim of the Denison Organisational Culture Model is to assess the outcomes of the current organisational culture by determining the level of consistency versus adaptability and top-down vision versus bottom-up involvement - two paradoxes companies are constantly seeking to balance (Denison & Mishra, 1995, cited in Ghinea & Bratianu, 2012). According to Zakari, Poku and Ansah (2013, p. 97), "an organisation's values and beliefs creates a set of management practices, which are physical undertakings typically entrenched in the values of the organisation. The dominant values and beliefs of the organisation are reinforced by these activities."



Denison (1990) identified four fundamental views or cultural traits of organisational culture namely, involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission.

**Figure 2.4: The Denison Organisational Culture Model**



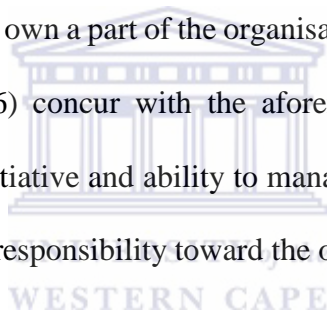
Source: Organisational culture survey (Adapted by Denison, Janovics, Young & Cho, 2006, p. 36)

### 2.8.4.1 Involvement

According to Zakari et al. (2013), involvement is the shared effort of all employees, regardless of their levels within the organisation, toward efficiently and effectively attaining the goals, vision and mission of the organisation. Involvement outlines the importance of developing professional and administrative employees. Additionally, it focuses on developing teams rather than individuals by developing high levels of involvement and ensuring employees take ownership of their successes and failures. Wesemann (2001) is of the opinion that the

involvement trait emphasises employee commitment, the sense of ownership they feel, and how involved employees are in decisions that affect them and their placement within their teams. According to Gillespie, Denison, Haaland, Smerek and Neale (2007), organisations who pride themselves in being effective essentially empower their employees, initiate and promote teamwork and focus on continuously developing their employees in order to expand their capability.

Involvement is measured with three indices, that is, empowerment, team orientation and capability development. By *empowering* employees they are part of the decision making process and, in turn, this results in them feeling as though they have a vested interest in the organisation as they feel that they own a part of the organisation (Zakari et al., 2013). Denison, Jonovics, Young and Cho (2006) concur with the aforementioned authors and state that individuals have the authority, initiative and ability to manage their own work which, in turn, creates a sense of ownership and responsibility toward the organisation.



*Team orientation* is vitally important and valued by the organisation in order to get work done. Working collaboratively towards common goals for which all employees feel mutually accountable is a phenomena all organisations strive toward for organisational success (Denison et al., 2006). The organisation values the cooperation of the employees towards achieving goals but more so, the shared accountability of the successes which come with this mutual involvement (Davidson, Coetzee, & Visser, 2007).

*Capability development* is the continuous investment the organisation makes in order to develop skills critical to meeting the standards of the business (Denison et al., 2006). Zakari (2013) maintains that when capability development is more prevalent than empowerment, this

indicates that the organisation does not entrust the employee to make work related decisions. Hence, employers run the risk of losing these employees as they feel their skills are underutilised and which, in turn, causes frustration. The authors further posit that it is usually when managers confuse empowerment with relinquishment of duties, empowerment becomes more prevalent than capability development. This then leads to employees making decisions they are not fully capable and equipped of making (Zakari, 2013).

#### **2.8.4.2 Consistency**

Consistency refers to the existence of organisational systems and processes that promote real alignment and efficiency over time (Maracine, 2012). Consistency focuses on “a common set of management principles, consensus reached regarding right and wrong ways to do things, and coordination and integration across the organisation” (Gillespie et al., 2007, p. 5). Behaviour is entrenched in a set of core values, and leaders and followers are capable of reaching a common consensus even when there are diverse points of view (Zakari et al., 2013).

Consistency is measured with three indices, that is, core values, agreement, coordination and integration. *Core values* looks at whether commonality in the values occurs amongst members of the organisation. *Agreement* focuses on whether there is common consensus and whether through this consensus, if variances should occur, these can be resolved easier (Maracine, 2012). Denison et al. (2006) add that the agreement or consensus reached are those underlying levels of agreements as well. *Coordination and Integration* is determined when members of an organisation are able to work through their distinctiveness and work toward a common organisational objective (Maracine, 2012).

“Effective organisations combine involvement and consistency in a continual cycle such that involvement is used to generate potential ideas and solutions, which are then refined into a more precise set of principles” (Denison, 1990, p. 11). Reliability depends on consistency therefore in consistent cultures, communication is deemed vital as it gives an indication of the consensus on shared words, actions and symbols shared amongst employees. This consistency in communication also contributes to the members belonging in a group when they are effectively able to identify with words, actions and symbols shared (Denison, 1990).

#### **2.8.4.3 Adaptability**

Adaptability refers to the organisation’s response or change management to external conditions. Organisations who are highly internally focused and integrated usually do not fare well when encountering external market demands, therefore it remains important for organisations to increase their capacity for creating change, satisfying consumers’ needs and continuing to learn as an organisation (Gillespie et al., 2007).

Adaptability is measured with three indices, that is, creating change, customer focus and organisational learning. *Creating change* refers to the organisation’s ability to manage and adapt to change. It is being able to accurately forecast trends and have plans in place to meet demands resulting from the changing trends (Denison et al., 2006). *Customer focus* centres on the way in which the organisation anticipates the needs of the consumer as well as the extent to which the organisation will go to meet both the consumer’s current as well as future needs which will result in a satisfied consumer (Maracine, 2012). According to Denison et al. (2006), *organisational learning* focuses on the way in which the organisation responds to the

consumer's needs, using this as the opportunity to become more innovative, gain further knowledge so as to improve competencies.

Zakari et al. (2013) put forth that organisations who are adaptable are customer driven, risk takers, are able to learn from previous errors made and have both the competence and know-how in creating change. However, a concern is raised when the customer focus is higher than creating change as it is indicative that the organisation may be able to meet current customer demands but lack in forecasting customer requirements in the future. When organisational learning and creating change are more prevalent than customer focus, this is indicative of the organisation being good at identifying most effective practices and creating new standards in the industry, but struggles to apply their learning to their own customers.



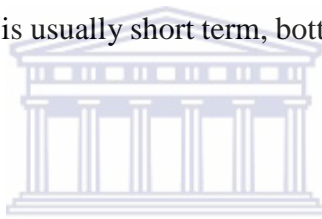
#### **2.8.4.4 Mission**

Mission refers to the clarity the organisation has in terms of its vision, strategy and way forward. An effective organisation is in pursuit of a mission which encompasses both economic and non-economic objectives which, in turn, provides significance and act as a compass for employees (Gillespie et al., 2007).

Mission is measured with three indices, that is, strategic direction and intent, goals and objectives and vision/mission. An organisation has *strategic direction and intent* when a clear organisational strategy has been communicated which employees use as a compass to determine their path in the organisation (Denison et al., 2006). Measurable and realistic *goals and objectives* are usually determined by managers or leaders of the organisation. These goals are usually connected to the mission, vision and strategy of the organisation's objectives which

have been clearly defined and communicated (Maracine, 2012). *Vision and mission* refer to the organisation providing a long-term guideline on what their future objectives are. This incites the interest of employees as they share in this vision and feel a sense of accountability towards attaining the mission (Denison et al., 2006).

In a study on organisational culture, Denison (1984) found that organisations who yield a more participative culture are two times more likely to have favourable returns on investments over companies who have inefficient cultures (Momeni et al., 2012). Zakari et al. (2013, p. 98) report that “when goals and objectives are higher than strategic direction, intent and vision, this often indicates that the organisation is good at execution but lacks a real sense of direction, purpose or long range planning. The focus is usually short term, bottom line focused with little forward planning.”

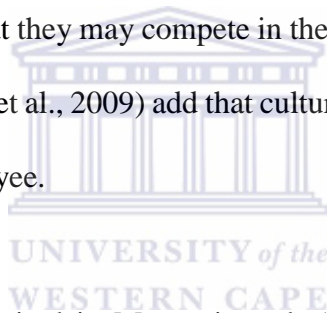


As with many modern models of leadership and organisational effectiveness, the Denison Organisational Culture Model places emphasis on the manifestation of inconsistencies that ensue when organisations attempt to achieve internal integration and try to adapt to external changes (Denison, Haaland, & Goelzer, 2004). Through extensive research Denison et al. (2004) purport that opportunistic, market-focused organisations often at times are found to have issues with internal integration. However, well-integrated and over controlled organisations usually have issues with adapting to their environment. Organisations that are top-down vision orientated often find themselves unable to empower changes to a more bottom-up approach. On the other hand, participative organisations are found to have difficulty in establishing direction. Organisations are successful if they are able to resolve these challenges without sacrificing one key element of the organisation in exchange for another (Denison et al., 2004).



## 2.9 IMPORTANCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE IN AN ORGANISATION

Zain, Ishak and Ghani (2009) postulate that considering culture as a management viewpoint plays an integral part in running an organisation so as to improve its overall performance. The organisation's acknowledgement of the importance of corporate culture is evident when organisations understand that the culture of the organisation adds towards achieving performance in economical, development and financial spheres (Zain et al., 2009). Akhtar, Naseer, Haider and Sana (2013) further purport that culture is important as it aids organisations to cope with its environmental situation and is used as a coping mechanism against the ever changing global situation. Organisational culture is also used as a bar to improve significant competencies of employees so that they may compete in the changing environment. Peters and Waterman (1982, as cited in Zain et al., 2009) add that culture is seen by employers as a reward for work completed by the employee.

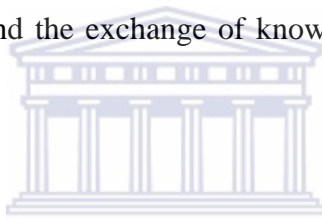


Naicker (2008) and Hsu (2009) cited in Momeni et al. (2012) are of the opinion that the organisation's culture impacts the performance of the organisation and is dependent on whether the organisation fails or thrives which in the end affects the operation of the organisation. Rasid, Manaf and Quoquab (2013) complements the above authors view and adds that organisational culture plays a vital role in predicting commitment and enhancing performance.

Ghorbanhosseini (2013) highlights that based on previous research, organisational culture is found to provide employment safety and provides employees the opportunity for long tenures which, in turn, promotes organisational commitment amongst employees. Furthermore, Ghorbanhosseini (2013, p.1020) states that "studies show that culture has a positive effect on

development of goals, strategy, individual behaviour, organisational performance, motivation, job satisfaction, innovation, decision making and organisational commitment of employees”.

According to Gheordunescu and Parpandel (2013), organisational culture is an important framework which teaches employees what is acceptable and what is unacceptable in the workplace. Importance and focus is placed on the manager or team leaders to guide these boundaries and the organisational culture is heavily reliant on the manager’s knowledge of what is acceptable and what is not. The employees are also reliant on the managers or leaders knowledge as a point of reference or guidance in this sphere (Gheordunescu & Parpandel, 2013). Szczepanska–Woszczyzna (2014) purport that organisational culture can effectively promote or inhibit cooperation and the exchange of knowledge, experience and ideas in an organisation.



## **2.10 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND TO ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

WESTERN CAPE

Organisational commitment is a disputed concept, hypothesised and explored in its own way. It is viewed from both behavioural and attitudinal perspectives. The behavioural perspective looks at the way in which the employee adapts to the organisation and the behaviour exerted during this period. The attitudinal perspective is the extent of the alignment of the employee’s goals and values to that of the organisation (Nongo & Ikanyon, 2012).

The changing nature of employment relationships has heightened the importance in understanding the dynamics of commitment in organisations (Matthew & Ogbonna, 2009). The authors further state that the level of commitment is a major determinant of organisational level outcomes such as organisational citizenship behaviour, performance, controllable absenteeism,

and psychological contract. Furthermore, Hislop (2003) and Dick, Becker and Mayer (2006, as cited in Matthew & Ogbonna, 2009) suggest that commitment is considered a necessary variable in driving individual action.

According to Weibo, Kaur and Jun (2010), both benefits and limitations to the contribution of organisational commitment have been found in studies conducted by Becker (1960), Meyer and Allen (1997) and Somers (2009). The authors purport that commitment within the workplace is still a highly contested and investigated concept within human resource management, organisational behaviour as well as in management in general. Lok, Westwood and Crawford (2005) support the previous researchers' opinion and state that organisational commitment remains a central variable in both studies on management and organisations, however, there are an array of definitions, constructs and methods which remain challenged. Weibo et al. (2010) goes on to assert that research has been focused towards the outcomes and antecedents of commitment in the working environment. The authors further suggest that organisational commitment has both conceptually and operationally affected the theoretical approach of commitment to the profession, career, workgroup, unions as well as the tasks performed itself.

Rashid, Sambasivan and Johari (2003) conducted a study on the influence of corporate/organisational culture and organisational commitment on performance and purport that the interest in organisational commitment is due to its relationship with organisational behaviour. The authors state that organisational commitment is found to be associated with job performance, turnover, pro-social behaviour, motivation and involvement. However, there are different approaches to organisational commitment which may be negatively related to both absenteeism and turnover.

### **2.10.1 DEFINITIONS: ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT CONCEPTUALISED**

According to Newstrom and Davies (2002), employee commitment is the extent to which the employee identifies with the organisation and, in turn, the passion he/she exudes at wanting to be part of the organisation and the desire shown to continue to work in it. It further mirrors the employee's belief in the firm's vision and mission and is seen in the employee's efforts to assist in maintaining and achieving the organisation's goals and objectives. Commitment is more commonly evident amongst employees who have been with the organisation over a long period of time and who have enjoyed the benefits of promotion that the organisation has to offer.

Luthans (2011) purports that a wide variety of definitions and measures of organisational commitment exist. As an attitude, organisational commitment is most often defined as a strong desire to remain a member of a particular organisation; a willingness to exert high levels of effort on behalf of the organisation and a define belief in, and acceptance of, the values and goals of the organisation. In other words, this is an attitude reflecting employees 'loyalty' to their organisation and is an on-going process through which organisational participants express their concern for the organisation and its continued success and well-being.

Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman (2001) highlight that organisational commitment is much more intricate than just loyalty to an organisation and striving to meet the objectives as it encompasses a work attitude that is applied to the entire organisation and not just to the job role the employee has in the organisation. The authors further state that organisational commitment is a concept much more unwavering than job satisfaction, as it is not as easily influenced as job satisfaction is because it is a lot less influenced by daily events that might easily affect job satisfaction.

According to Luthans (2011), research studies and the field of organisational behaviour in general, treat satisfaction and commitment as different attitudes. In light of the new environment that includes downsizing, telecommuting, mergers and acquisitions, globalisation, and diversity, organisational commitment has resurfaced as a very important topic of study and concern. Luthans (2011) is of the opinion that although some experts feel that organisational commitment is a dead issue because of the new environment and should be replaced by career commitment, others see organisational commitment as the major challenge in modern times.

According to Lodewyk (2011), in order for organisations to identify the signs of commitment, this construct must be dealt with pro-actively and given the necessary attention it deserves as it will yield favourable tools for organisations to use to manage and work at enhancing the commitment levels of staff. Maxwell and Steele (2003, cited in Lodewyk, 2011) further add that the organisation's pro-activity in dealing with organisational commitment will assist in the sustainability and profitability of the organisation as these successes are enhanced by performance outputs of committed employees.

### **2.10.2 BECKER'S SIDE-BET THEORY**

According to Griffin and Bateman (1986, cited in Cohen & Lowenberg, 1990), Becker's side-bet theory has guided an array of investigations from Alutto, Hredbiniak and Alsonso (1973) to Meyer and Allen (1984).

Becker (1960) referred to side-bets as the financial, professional investment the employee feels he/she stands to lose should they decide to leave the organisation. Hence, the longer the tenure, the harder it becomes for the individual to leave the organisation. Due to this fear of loss, the

employee continues to be a member of the organisation, irrespective of his/her wish to leave the organisation. As a result, Cohen and Lowenberg (1990) argue that age and tenure are the best predictors to measure the risks the employee poses in the organisation and what he/she fears to lose should he/she leave.

Powell and Meyer (2004) purport that Becker's side-bet theory, although influential in organisational commitment, cannot be considered an unconnected theory of commitment today, but remains significant because of its integration into multifaceted models of organisational commitment, including Meyer and Allen's (1991, 1997) three component model. The researchers further add that Becker describes commitment as a predisposition to engage in socially aligned activities, and the commitment or affiliation develops as a person finds that his/her involvement in social organisation has in effect made side bets for him/her and thus constrained his/her future. Based on this, Meyer and Allen (1991) refer to this type of commitment as continuance (cost-based) commitment, and included it along with affective (desired-based) and normative (obligation-based) commitment in their three-component model (Powell & Meyer, 2003).

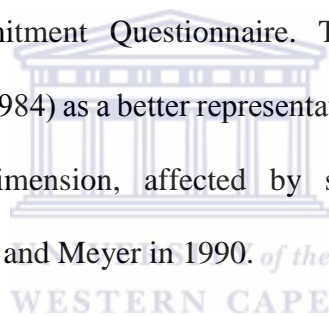
### **2.10.3 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT MODEL**

Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) define commitment as the relative strengths of an individual's identification with, and involvement in a particular organisation. Although many definitions of commitment have been presented since the influential work of Mowday et al. (1979), it is the concept of Meyer and Allen (1991) which identifies three distinctive dimensions – affective, normative and continuance – that has been the cornerstone of existing theorising in the area of commitment (Matthew & Ogbonna, 2009).

### **2.10.3.1 MEYER AND ALLEN'S (1990) THREE COMPONENT MODEL**

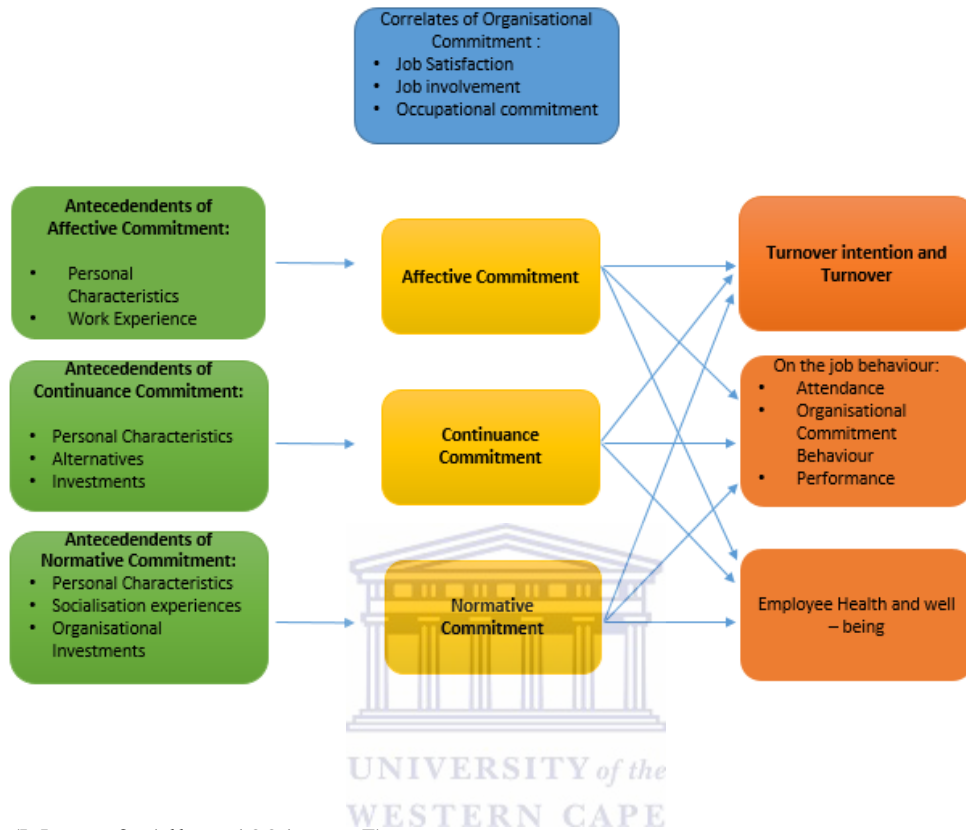
The three component model of commitment developed by Meyer and Allen (1990) arguably dominates most research done on organisational commitment. This model proposes that organisational commitment is experienced by the employee as three simultaneous mind sets encompassing affective, normative and continuance organisational commitment.

Meyer and Allen's (1984) approach to organisational commitment started with a paper that argued that the side-bet theory approach to organisational commitment was inappropriately operationalised. The affective commitment scale was advanced as a significant improvement over the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire. The continuance dimension was introduced by Meyer and Allen (1984) as a better representation of Becker's side-bet approach. The normative commitment dimension, affected by socialisation before entering an organisation, was added by Allen and Meyer in 1990.



Luthans (2011) proposes that because of this multidimensional nature of organisational commitment, there is growing support for the three-component model proposed by Meyer and Allen (1990). The three dimensions are as follows:

**Figure 2.5: Meyer and Allen’s three components of organisational commitment**



Source: (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67)

### 2.10.3.1.1 Affective Commitment

Affective commitment involves the employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Solinger, Van Olffen and Roe (2008, p. 71) state that “employees with a strong affective commitment stay with the organisation because they ‘want’ to.” According to Abbas and Khanam (2013), it is in this context that the employee builds his/her affiliation with the organisation. The employee becomes emotionally invested in the interests of the organisation. Jaros (2007) agrees with the above authors and adds that the employee develops emotional ties with the organisation due to



positive work experiences created by the particular organisation. Davis (2014) is of the view that affective commitment is the most predominant and current definition of commitment as it demonstrates the emotional attachment employees have towards the organisation. Shurbagi (2014) states that the most vital reason the employee stays with the organisation is related to the self-satisfaction employees have in carrying out their work. Furthermore, Davis (2014) purports that Meyer and Allen's model covers affective commitment as one component of organisational commitment, whereas previous researchers focused on this one component as the comprehensive definition to organisational commitment.

***Antecedents of Affective Commitment:***

(i) *Personal characteristics*



Meyer and Allen (1991) state that individuals who choose their work to be compatible with their personal characteristics should have a more positive work attitude than those employees who do not choose work based on these characteristics. In later research conducted by Meyer and Allen (2001) the authors purport that neither a strong nor consistent link exists between demographic characteristics such as age, tenure and sex and commitment. However, personal characteristics such as the need for achievement, affiliation, autonomy, higher order strength need, personal work ethic, locus of control and central life interest in work have been found to have a strong link to commitment.

(ii) *Organisational structure characteristics*

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

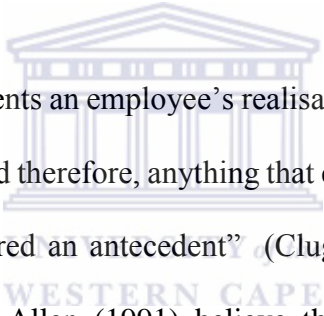
(iii) *Work experience*

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

### **2.10.3.1.2 Continuanace Commitment**

According to Shurbagi (2014), continuance commitment is a better version of Becker's side-bet theory. Continuance commitment involves commitment based on the costs that the

employee associates with leaving the organisation. This may be because of the loss of seniority for promotion or benefits. Solinger et al. (2008, p. 71) state that employees with a strong continuance commitment “stay with the organisation because they ‘need’ to.” According to Abbas and Khanam (2013), continuance commitment can be defined as an investment made by the employee to the organisation. Should the employee decide to leave the organisation the employee stands to lose investments such as the benefits of employer contributed fund (pension/provident fund). The authors go on to suggest that the employee views staying with the organisation as being profitable and hence, views leaving as being a loss. Shurbagi (2014) concurs and puts forth that the interests of the employee would be at risk should the employee decide to leave.



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

***Antecedents of Continuance Commitment include:***

(i) *Investments:*

Investments also known as side-bets, can be either work related or non-work related, and commitment to an organisation can be developed as employees make side-bets which would be lost if employment to their organisation was terminated (Meyer & Allen, 1991). According

to the authors, the time lost on obtaining non exchangeable expertise, losing lucrative remunerations, giving up high-ranking posts and relocating one's family are all factors seen as investments lost when exiting an organisation. "Personal investments in the form of non-transferable investments such as close working relationships with co-workers, involvement in the community in which the employer is located" are amongst the things too costly for the employee to give up (Prabhakar & Ram, 2011, p. 57).

(ii) *Availability of alternatives:*

Clugston et al. (2000) feel that employees' perceptions regarding their alternative job prospects and the cost associated with leaving their current organisation have an effect on the employees' continuous commitment. According Meyer and Allen (1990), lack of employment alternatives increases the risks involved when leaving an organisation. Therefore, if an employee is not exposed to alternatives, this affects their perceptions to alternatives which, in turn, increases their continuance commitment to the organisation.

### **2.10.3.1.3 Normative Commitment**

Meyer and Allen (1984) originally proposed the first two components of organisational commitment namely, affective and continuance commitment. However, Allen and Meyer (1990) added an additional component to commitment namely, normative commitment (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Normative commitment involves employees' feelings of obligation to stay with the organisation because they should - it is the right thing to do (Abbas & Khanam, 2013). Solinger et al. (2008) assert that the longer the employee remains with the organisation the bigger the sense of normative commitment to the

organisation as the employee feels a bigger sense of obligation. Abbas and Khanam (2013) are of the opinion that normative commitment plays to the employee's emotion, sense of responsibility and loyalty to the organisation. Shurbagi (2014, p. 187) is of the opinion that "normative commitment is affected in the main by socialisation or culture prior to entry into the organisation."

Meyer and Allen (1991) express concern that literature focusing on the development of normative commitment is more theoretical than empirical, yet they believe that the most important antecedents of normative commitment are employees' socialisation, as well as organisational investment.

*Antecedents of Normative Commitment include:*



(i) *Socialisation:*

Weiner (1982, cited in Meyer & Allen, 1991) and Greenberg and Baron (2003) believe that this obligatory feeling to remain within their organisation may be a result of the employee incorporating conscious or sub-conscious guiding principles that are exerted on an individual before they enter into an organisation, through familial or cultural socialisation or after entry into an organisation through organisational socialisation.

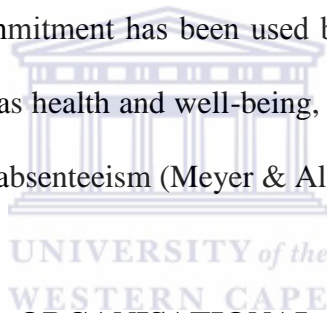
(ii) *Organisational investment:*

Meyer and Allen (1991) feel that normative commitment also develops due to investments provided by the organisation for the employee. These investments on the part of the

organisation can therefore create an imbalance in the employee/organisation relationship and cause employees to feel obligated to reciprocate through commitment to the organisation until they feel that the debt has been repaid (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

The three component model connects three separate themes of previous commitment research (Becker, 1960; Buchanan, 1974; Kanter, 1968; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982; Salancik, 1977; Wiener, 1982; Wiener & Vardi, 1980). The common theme throughout earlier research is the psychological state that links the individual to an organisation (Solinger et al., 2008).

Meyer and Allen's model of commitment has been used by researchers in their attempts to predict employee outcomes such as health and well-being, including turnover and citizenship behaviours, job performance and absenteeism (Meyer & Allen, 1997).



## **2.11 IMPORTANCE OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT IN AN ORGANISATION**

Enhancing employee commitment is not only positively correlated to the effectiveness of the organisation, but creates employee satisfaction which leads to a decrease in absenteeism and turnover intentions amongst employees. This satisfaction is associated with employees' insulence toward both the organisation's success as well as their personal success (Akhtar, Naseer, Haider, & Rafiq, 2013). The authors further add that when employees are entrusted with the responsibility to make business decisions, they feel more committed to the organisation and it has been established that commitment is an effective predictor of job performance and citizenship behaviour.

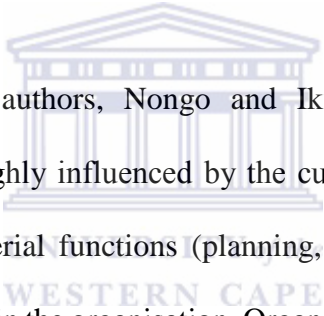
Employees who are committed provide the organisation with a competitive edge compared to other organisations who do not have committed employees (Messner, 2012). Ghorbanhosseini (2013) posits that an organisation with committed employees has the competitive advantage over organisations who do not have committed employees. The author further alludes that due to an increase in commitment, profitability escalates, service relinquishment is reduced, and employee work efficiency increases which, in turn, leads to an increase in the quality of services rendered.

## **2.12 IMPACT OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE ON COMMITMENT**

Martin and Martins (2003, cited in Manetje & Martins, 2009) state that research done internationally specifies that high levels of both commitment and performance are shaped by organisational cultures. Based on this statement a plethora of investigators have started exploring the relationships between organisational culture and organisational commitment as well as continuing to highlight the importance of organisational culture on organisational commitment.

Manetje and Martins (2009) conducted a study on the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment in a South African motor manufacturing organisation and are of the opinion that organisations are facing tumultuous times due to the business world constantly changing. These changes, whether it be technological, social, cultural, political or global, have repercussions on South African organisations who now form part of the global market. The authors further argue that it is these changes, which South African organisations have to contend with and adapt to, that affect the operation of organisations in facets particularly connected to organisational culture and organisational commitment.

O'Reilly (1989) and Chen (2004) believe that organisational culture is vital in developing and sustaining employee commitment and intensity levels that often characterise successful organisations. Shurbagi (2014) asserts that based on earlier studies, attention around organisational culture and organisational commitment has heightened amongst researchers and practitioners due to its impact on the performance of the organisation. In an effort to expand the research on organisational culture and commitment, Shurbagi (2014) conducted a study to measure these two constructs in a petroleum sector in Libya. The results yielded that there is a significantly positive relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment with the dominant culture appearing in the hierarchy culture and the dominant organisational commitment evident in affective commitment.



Corresponding with the above authors, Nongo and Ikyanyon (2012) advance that an organisation's effectiveness is highly influenced by the culture of the organisation. This, in turn, affects the way the managerial functions (planning, organising, staffing, leading and controlling) are disseminated within the organisation. Organisational commitment is associated with the psychological affiliation the employee has with the organisation hence, the employee will remain loyal to the organisation whether or not the organisation is doing well. Culture concomitantly encourages change within the organisation, that is, it will either bind the employee to the organisation or simply push the employee away. The authors therefore place emphasis on the fact that organisational culture progresses and sustains the commitment of employees in order to yield efficacious organisations.

Akhtar et al. (2013) postulate that observations have concluded that organisational culture can assist in increasing commitment levels amongst employees. However, it is important to note that culture is not the only determinant to have a significant impact on commitment levels



amongst employees. A strong culture coupled with good leadership, employee wellness programs, strong supporting structures and consistent human resource practices helps enhance organisational culture. Mullins (2000) states that in order to motivate human capital which leads to organisational effectiveness, the culture of an organisation much like the culture of its employees is used as motivating factors to achieve value in human capital as well as organisational effectiveness. The author agrees with Akhtar et al. (2013) and purports that good leadership, equipped with a good understanding of culture, are able to tie together high levels of organisational commitment amongst employees.

Rashid, Sambasivan and Johari (2003) claim that research conducted on organisational culture is conducted to provoke key standards, customs and philosophies in organisations which have led to the organisation's successes. The authors stress the importance of organisational culture on organisational behaviour, that is, if employees are committed, this ensures successful implementation of the organisation's vision and mission through strategies and plans. According to Wagner (1995, cited in Manetje & Martins, 2009), the role of organisational culture is critical to the understanding of organisational behaviour as the organisation's culture is prescribed by the norms and standards which describes to the employee what the acceptable behaviours are and acts as a code of conduct. Therefore, monitoring these behaviours are critical in determining what the commitment of the employee is to the organisation.

## 2.13 CONCLUSION

There is a paucity of literature on organisational culture and organisational commitment within the manufacturing environment in South Africa, therefore reference was made to international research conducted.

As the research mentions, organisations are faced with a daunting task of ensuring that members' values and norms are reflected in the environments they work which is a huge contributing factor to ensuring organisational commitment. This task can be difficult and such transitions can be overwhelming. However, it is important for organisations to embark on this journey and recognise that a good organisational culture can greatly influence organisational commitment (Akhtar et al., 2013).



Due to the ever-changing world of business, organisations are continually having to be more innovative and be equally ready to deal with changes curtailed by these innovations. South African organisations are no exception as they fall part of the international market. Hence, organisations should be mindful of the changes associated with this dynamic business environment and should be ready to change or face changes to the functioning of the workplace. Organisational culture plays a big role in determining organisational commitment, therefore, solid foundations need to be set to ensure that the organisation has a solid organisational culture (Manetje & Martins, 2009).

Chapter three will address the research methodology adopted to carry out the study.

## CHAPTER 3

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on how the research problem and hypotheses were investigated. It details the research design used and the rationale for using it. The chapter specifies the population and the sample under investigation as well as detailing the process followed in conducting the research. Reference is made to the measuring instruments used and the reliability and validity thereof. The chapter concludes with a discussion on the statistical techniques used to test the research hypotheses.



#### 3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

For the purpose of this research a quantitative methodology was followed, using questionnaires. The rationale for using this methodology was considered based on the size of the managerial and supervisory staff compliment and convenience in terms of their availability.

Leary (2004) and Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2009) state that the major advantages of distributing questionnaires are that they are easily administered to large groups of individuals at the same time, are cost effective, are less time consuming, are easily generalised and the data gathered is objective compared to other measuring instruments. However, Shuster (2011) and Gray (2009) are of the opinion that administering questionnaires can be a disadvantage as it

allows for very little contact with the participants and limits the response to only that of the questions listed.

### **3.2.1 Sampling Procedure**

A non-probability design was adopted for the current study. According to Sekaran (2001), with non-probability designs the elements in the population have no probabilities attached to being chosen as sample subjects. In other words, there is no prior influence by the researcher as to who will answer the questionnaire.

In particular purposive sampling was used, which Babbie (1990) defines as selecting a sample on the basis of one's own knowledge of the population, its elements, and the nature of one's research aims. That is, selection is made systematically based on a particular characteristic. The advantages of using a purposive sampling method are that those who are unsuitable for the sampling study have already been eliminated, so only the most suitable candidates remain. Furthermore, as the most appropriate people for the study have been selected, this process becomes a lot less time consuming and the findings are highly generalisable. The disadvantages of using a purposive sampling method however, are that the selection criteria the researcher uses can be very arbitrary and are almost always subjective. In addition to this, the narrowness of the questions used will reflect the researcher's particular stance on a subject far more than a random sample. Also, the sample population used may not necessarily be entirely the population that the researcher is trying to reach and purposive sampling may not be as efficient as stratified sampling (Sekaran & Bougie, 2003).

### **3.2.2 Population and Sample**

According to Sekaran (2001), a population refers to the entire interest group of people, actions, or effects the researcher undertakes to investigate. The population at the company is  $n=1128$ . However, only supervisory and managerial staff were invited to partake in the research ( $n=236$ ) as the individuals in these roles are the responsible persons for driving and motivating organisational culture and enhancing commitment in the organisation.

Sekaran (2001) defines a sample as a subset of the population comprising of some members selected from the population under study. Sekaran (2001) further states that by studying the sample, the researcher is able to draw conclusions generalisable to the population of interest. Participants in the current study are employed at the four bottling plants situated in the Northern and Southern suburbs and work in the following departments: Manufacturing (production and engineering), Operations (technical centre, sales, fleet and warehouse), Marketing (marketing, special events, on-consumption and glaceau), Safety Health Environmental Quality, Information services, Financial Services, Human Resources and Supply Chain.

### **3.2.3 Data Gathering Procedure and Ethical Considerations**

Permission was granted and ethical clearance was obtained from various academic committee's to conduct the research study. The Director of Human Resources was approached and extensively briefed on the intent of the research project. Consent to carry out the research was obtained from the Human Resources Director, both verbally and in writing. Participants were briefed in various plant meetings, followed by a detailed explanation on the research objectives and expectations by participants via e-mail. Individuals were informed that participation was

voluntary. Questionnaires were delivered to each manager and supervisor personally and a due date was indicated for submission of questionnaires. Participants were also informed that all completed questionnaires were to be left in a sealed envelope with the respective Human Resources officer at each plant. The researcher would on a weekly basis, throughout the data gathering period, visit each plant and collect the questionnaires. Each research questionnaire was accompanied by: (i) a covering letter requesting voluntary participation and assuring confidentiality, and (ii) a consent form. The cover letter informed respondents about the purpose of the research and highlighted that the data would be used for research purposes only. It was also highlighted that those willing to partake in the research had to complete the consent form. To ensure anonymity, respondents were asked to not indicate any identifying information such as their name on the questionnaire.



### **3.2.4 Measuring Instruments**

The questionnaire consisted of three sections namely, Annexure A: Biographical Questionnaire; Annexure B: Denison Organisational Culture Survey and Annexure C: Organisational Commitment Questionnaire.

### **3.2.5 Biographical Questionnaire**

A self-developed questionnaire was used to gather biographical data from the sample which will be used to describe the characteristics of the sample. The questionnaire included 6 biographical questions pertaining to gender, age, race, tenure, educational level, managerial level (that is, Director/ senior manager / manager / supervisor) and department worked for.

### **3.2.6 Denison Organisational Culture Survey (DOCS)**

#### **3.2.6.1 Rationale for using the Survey**

There is sufficient evidence which indicate that the Denison's Organisational Culture Survey is both valid and reliable. More than 20 years has been spent on finding a means to determine the applicable behaviours and beliefs of the organisation, rather placing focus on the emotional environment of the organisation. The logic for using Denison's Organisational Culture Survey is based on the premise that the survey focuses on determining the behaviours and beliefs of the organisation which, as a result of its development, overcame the issues other methodologies to organisational culture were experiencing before (Denison & Neale, 1999). Davidson, Coetzee and Visser (2007) assert that through many research using the Denison Organisational Culture Survey, the traits (that is, involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission) have been found to have substantial influence on organisational performance in areas such as profitability, quality, sales growth and employee satisfaction. Similarly, Denison and Neale (1999) purport that the validity of every stage of the survey has been verified through real world testing which looks at whether culture is measured as a predictor of performance, revenue generation and cost-effectiveness.

#### **3.2.6.2 Nature and dimensions of the Survey**

The Denison Organisational Culture Survey was used to elicit data on participants' perceptions of organisational culture.

The Denison Organisational Culture Survey was developed to evaluate the relationship between organisational culture and effectiveness. The survey was first used by Denison (1990) as part of a study towards a doctoral thesis using 34 American organisations between 1968 and 1980. The survey stems from the Denison Organisational Culture Model which uses 60 items, based on four cultural traits which are shown to have an influence on organisational performance, namely: involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission (Denison, Janovics, Young, & Cho, 2006). The survey is based on 15 years of research on over 1000 organisations and 40 000 individuals (Denison, 2000, cited in Davidson, 2003).

The Denison Organisational Culture Survey consists of sixty statements. The sixty statements are divided up into four constructs of culture (Involvement, Consistency, Adaptability and Mission) each comprising 15 statements. These constructs are further divided into indices, namely: Involvement includes empowerment, team orientation, and capability development. Consistency includes core values, agreement and coordination and integration. Adaptability includes creating changes, customer focus and organisational learning. Lastly, Mission includes strategic direction and intent, goals and objectives and vision. Statements are measured on a five point Likert scale where 1 = Strongly Agree, 2 = Agree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Disagree and 5 = Strongly Disagree (Denison et al., 2006).

### **3.2.6.3 Reliability and Validity of the Denison Organisation Culture Survey**

“The validity of a measure concerns what the test measures and how well it does so” (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2005, p. 283). Accordingly, Van Stuyvesant (2007) posit that the validity of a measure refers to how far the research findings accurately represent what the measuring instrument claims to measure. An instrument is therefore valid if it measures what the



researcher claims it does (Collis & Hussey, 2003). Harrison (1993) claims that in the Denison Organisation Culture Survey there is evidence of construct validity, which refers to how well the measuring instrument conforms to theoretical expectations, therefore indicating that this measuring instrument demonstrates relationships with other constructs.

The reliability of a measure can be described as “the consistency with which it measures whatever it measures” (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2005, p. 28). A test or measure is considered reliable if the reliability score is at least 0.70 (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2005).

In a criterion related study, Denison and Mishra (1995) administered the Denison Organisation Culture Survey to top executives in 764 organisations in various industries. Reliability estimates of this scale were found by Denison (1998) to have satisfactory internal consistencies with the Cronbach alpha reliabilities ranging between 0.62 and 0.82. Denison and Mishra (1995) also examined the construct validity of the survey by means of a confirmatory factor analysis. Good support for the model was obtained, but the researchers reported that cognisance has to be taken of the fact that traits are inter-correlated substantially, which could be because effective culture suggest high scores on all the indices or that there is a substantial overlap between the traits.

Denison, Janovics, Young and Cho (2006) presented a statistical validation of the sixty-item, twelve-index Denison Organisational Culture Survey using the responses of 35 474 individuals in 160 organisations. Cronbach’s alpha coefficients of the items demonstrated acceptable levels of reliability, yielding values as follows: Involvement (0.89), consistency (0.88), adaptability (0.87) and mission (0.92). Validity of the survey was measured by means of confirmatory factor

analysis, and the findings yielded validity scores ranging between 0.84 and 0.94. Overall the results provided clear support for the theoretical model and survey and a good fit overall.

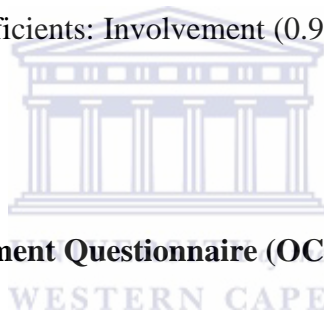
Azadi, Farsan, Farsan and Aroufzad (2013) conducted a study on the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment amongst women's physical education teachers. Two data collection tools were used of which one was the Denison Organisational Culture Survey (DOCS). Cronbach alpha coefficients were computed yielding a reliability score between 0.91 and 0.94.

Davidson, Coetzee and Visser (2007) conducted research using the Denison Organisational Culture Survey (1990) to measure organisational culture and financial performance in a South African investment bank. The psychometric properties of the DOCS were measured for the subscales and the alpha coefficients ranged from 0.56 to 0.84. Except for two subscales, all the 5-item subscales demonstrated acceptable internal consistency reliabilities of above 0.60. The Cronbach alpha coefficients for the four traits were significantly higher, ranging from 0.81 to 0.90 (Davidson, Coetzee, & Visser, 2007). The validity of the construct was computed by means of a confirmatory factor analysis using the AMOS 5.0 programme. Correlations between the four organisational traits were found to be high extending between the ranges of 0.81 to 0.94.

Nongo and Ikyanyon (2012) conducted a study on the influence of corporate culture on employee commitment to the organisation. The Denison Organisational Culture Survey was used to collect data on 134 employees employed at 18 selected SME's in the Makurdi metropolis in Nigeria. The SME's ranged from agro-allied to food and beverages industries.

The reliability coefficients reported for the four main traits were as follows: Involvement (0.877), consistency (0.889), adaptability (0.874) and mission (0.864).

Mehrabi, Alemzadeh, Jadidi and Mahdevar (2013) conducted a study on a telecommunications company in Borujerd County in Iran and examined the relation between organisational culture and dimensions of the learning organisation. The population included two hundred and eighty employees and the sample size equalled one-hundred and sixty-two participants. Both face validity and content validity of the Denison Organisation Culture Survey was confirmed and the reliability was calculated through Cronbach's alpha coefficient. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was computed and yielded a reliability score of 0.91. The validity was computed yielding the following alpha coefficients: Involvement (0.90), consistency (0.87), adaptability (0.89) and mission (0.91).



### **3.2.7 Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)**

#### **3.2.7.1 Rationale for using the Questionnaire**

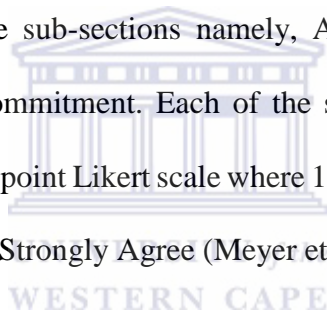
The rationale for using Meyer and Allen's (1990) Organisational Commitment Questionnaire is that the instrument has been found to be both reliable and valid, through various studies and is conceivably the front-runner in organisational commitment research (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). This model has been extensively and successfully used by many researchers in their attempts to predict significant employee outcomes such as turnover, job performance, absenteeism and employee citizenship behaviour (Meyer et al., 2002).

### **3.2.7.2 Dimensions of the Questionnaire**

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was developed by Meyer and Allen (1990) and can be applied across different domains of the organisation (Meyer, Allen, & Smith (1993), cited in Van Stuyvesant, 2007).

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was used to elicit data on the organisational commitment of the participants.

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire consists of twenty-four statements. The statements are divided into three sub-sections namely, Affective commitment, Normative commitment and Continuance commitment. Each of the sub-sections has eight statements. Statements are measured on a five point Likert scale where 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Uncertain, 4 = Agree and 5 = Strongly Agree (Meyer et al., 2002).



### **3.2.7.3 Reliability and Validity of Meyer and Allen's (1990) Organisational Commitment Questionnaire**

Karim and Noor (2006) conducted a study to evaluate the psychometric properties of Meyer and Allen's Organisation Commitment Questionnaire by applying it cross culturally amongst Malaysian academic librarians. The authors focused their study towards establishing construct validity (convergent and discriminant) and internal reliability through their application. Only measures for affective and continuance commitment were incorporated and included for testing and validation in this study. In determining the convergent and discriminant construct validity,

an exploratory factor analysis using Maximum Likelihood analysis was performed resulting in two factors being extracted with more than 1 factor loadings between 0.32 to 0.60.

To determine internal reliability of the two measures, Cronbach's alpha reliability and split-half reliability coefficients were used. For affective commitment, the Cronbach alpha reliability yielded a value of 0.81 and a split-half reliability coefficient of 0.77. For continuance commitment, the Cronbach alpha reliability yielded a value of 0.78 and a split-half reliability coefficient of 0.76. These scores are above the minimum value of 0.7 which validate the reliability of the measurement used (Karim & Noor, 2006).

Akhtar, Naseer, Haider and Sana (2013) conducted a comparative study on the impact of organisational culture and organisational commitment on public and private organisations in the banking sector of Pakistan. Meyer and Allen's Organisational Commitment Questionnaire was used and the authors computed the Cronbach alpha reliability to determine internal consistency. The values obtained were: affective (0.831), continuance (0.847) and normative commitment (0.869) which were found to be within acceptable range.

Similarly, research conducted by Magano, Thomas and De Bruin (2010) on a cross-cultural comparison of organisational commitment amongst vehicle sales staff in South Africa, reported reliability scores ranging from 0.62 to 0.85 which suggests that the questionnaire yields scores with sufficient reliability for research purposes.

Firuzjaeyan, Firuzjaeyan and Sadeghi (2015) conducted a survey on the effect of organisational culture on organisational commitment amongst a sample of 156 high school teachers in Bandpey, Iran. SPSS and Amos software were used to complete the descriptive and inference

analysis. The reliability of the questionnaire was calculated and generated reliability scores between 0.84 and 0.87. The validity of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire generated the following results: Affective commitment (0.66), continuance commitment (0.38) and normative commitment (0.58).

Rashid, Sambasivan and Johari (2003) conducted a study on the influence of corporate culture and organisational commitment on performance. Reliability was proven through computing the Cronbach alpha coefficient scores for the three organisational commitment types. The scores were 0.9212, 0.9341 and 0.7188 respectively. These results suggest a fair level of internal consistency in the responses.

A study was carried out by Derakhshan and Rangriz (2015) investigating the effect of organisational culture on organisational commitment of 166 staff at a student affairs organisation. The Cronbach alpha coefficient with regards to the reliability of the items demonstrated acceptable values between 0.79 and 0.83. Similarly, Cronbach's alpha coefficients yielded validity scores between 0.79 and 0.83 for face validity.

### **3.3 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES**

The Statistical Programme for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 23 will be used to generate descriptive and inferential statistics.

### **3.3.1 Descriptive Statistics**

Sekaran (2003) defines descriptive statistics as the numbers gathered from a survey that are used to summarise and describe data in such a way that possible patterns might emerge from the data which, in turn, allows for simpler interpretation of data. Data in this study will be analysed using frequencies, measures of central tendency, percentages, means and standard deviations (Sekaran, 2003).

### **3.3.2 Inferential Statistics**

According to Sekaran (2003), inferential statistics makes it possible for researchers, through analysis, to deduce the relationships between two variables and allows researchers to determine the differences between two variables among various subgroups. Inferential statistics also allows researchers to show how several independent variables might explain the variance in a dependent variable.

Using inferential statistics allows for the presentation of more conclusive findings. The current research will be making use of Multiple Regression to test the hypotheses.

#### **3.3.2.1 Multiple Regression**

According to Higgins (2005), multiple regression is a progressive and dominant tool used in the development of depictions used to predict a variety of outcomes. More simply, multiple regression can be defined as a tool that allows the examination of how multiple independent variables are related to a dependent variable. Once the relation between the multiple variables

to the dependent variable is found, the outcome is then used to make progressive and definitive forecasts about why things appear the way they do.

A multiple regression analysis will be used: (i) to determine which of the four constructs of organisational culture (that is, involvement, consistency, adaptability or mission) is likely to have the greatest influence on organisational commitment and (ii) to determine which of the three dimensions of organisational commitment (affective, normative and continuance commitment) best predicts organisational culture within the beverage bottling organisation.

### **3.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

Chapter three looked at the research methodology. The research design, population, sample, sampling procedure, data gathering procedure and measuring instruments were discussed. Reliability and validity of the measuring instruments were also explored and the chapter concluded with the statistical techniques that will be used to test the hypotheses.

The next chapter presents the findings after the data has been gathered.



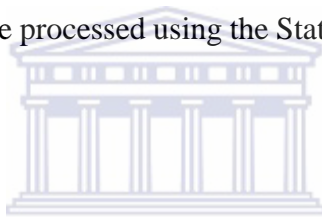
## CHAPTER 4

### PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter four aims to outline the results obtained in the study. The descriptive and inferential statistical results are presented. Thereafter, the reliability of the questionnaires used are discussed followed by conclusions that will be drawn based on the results obtained.

Data resulting from this study were processed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23.



#### 4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The descriptive statistics calculated for the sample are provided in the sections that follow. The data pertaining to the variables included in the study, as collected by the three measuring instruments used (namely, a self – developed biographical questionnaire, Denison Organisational Culture Survey and Allen and Meyer’s (1990) Organisational Commitment Questionnaire) are summarised by means of graphical representation and the calculation of descriptive measures. By doing this, the properties of the data is clarified.

Descriptive statistics in the form of frequencies and percentages are presented graphically for each of the variables.

#### 4.2.1 Results of the Biographical Questionnaire

In line with research standard practice, it is imperative for a research study to provide insights regarding the demographic profile of participants. Usually, there are several demographic attributes that can help describe the sample under investigation.

In light of this study, the following seven biographic characteristics were examined as they were deemed to be relevant to the study in question:

- Gender category
- Age category
- Racial status
- Tenure
- Education level
- Managerial level
- Department.



**Figure 4.1: Gender distribution of the sample**

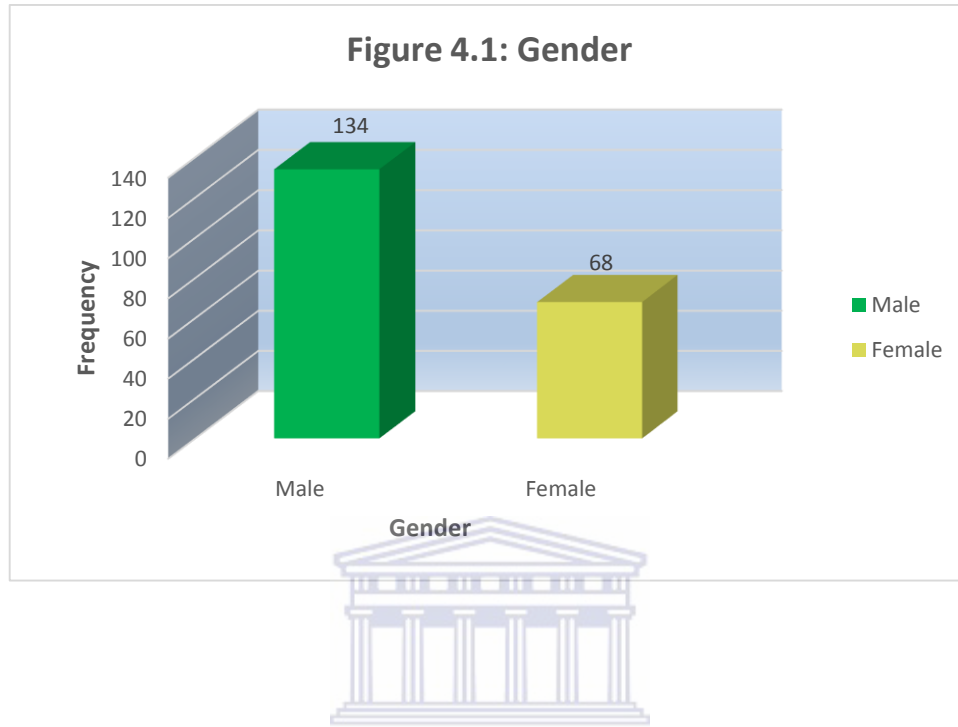
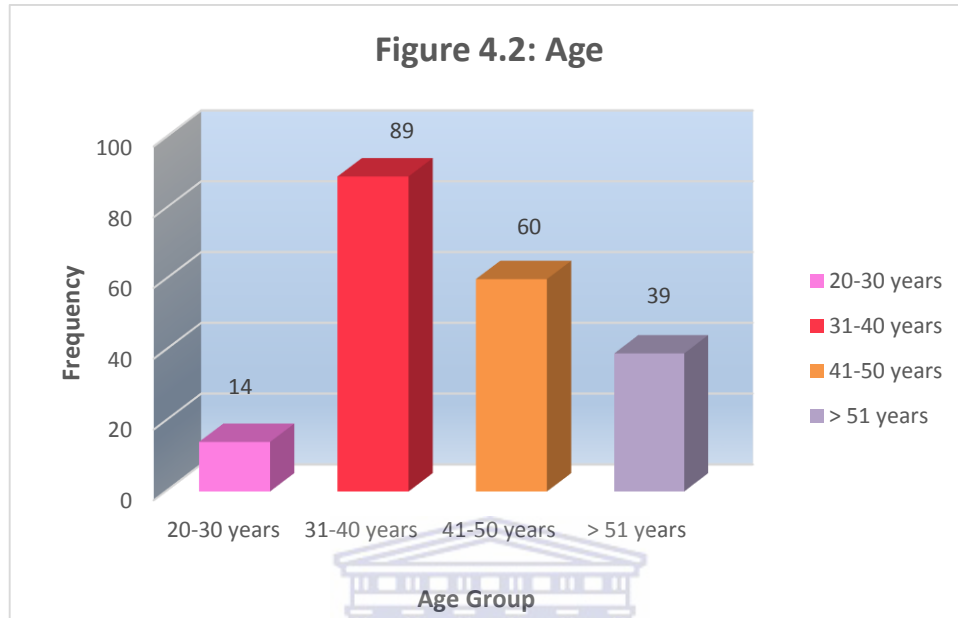


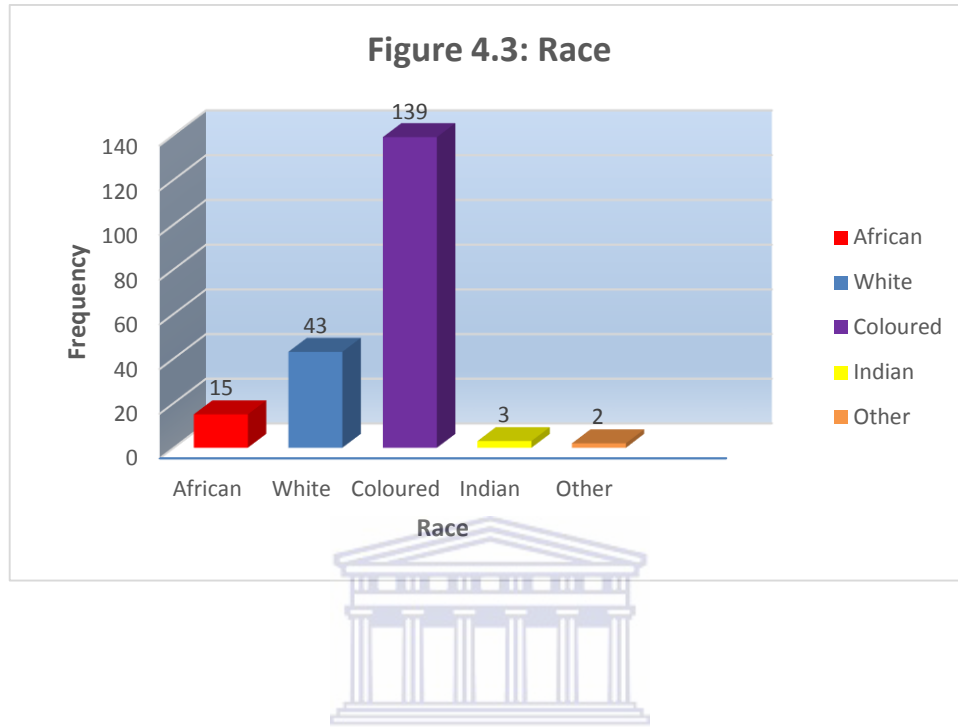
Figure 4.1 above displays a graphical representation of the gender of the respondents. The frequency distribution shows that out of the respondents who participated in the survey, 33.7% (n = 68) were female whilst 66.3% (n = 134) were male. The response reflected above supports the assumption that the beverage industry is dominated by males in managerial or supervisory positions.

**Figure 4.2: Age distribution of respondents**



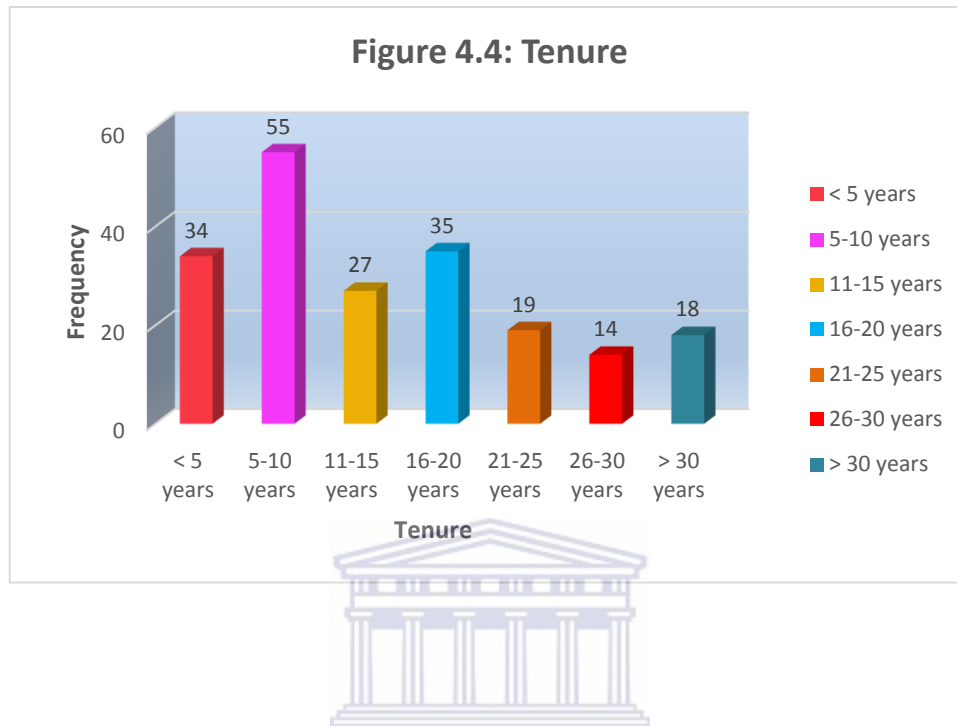
The frequency distribution of the respondents' age is represented graphically in Figure 4.2. The results indicate that 6.9% (n = 14) of respondents are between the ages of 20 – 30 years. The results derived from this research show that the majority of employees 44.1% (n = 89) at Beverage Company under investigation are between the ages of 31 – 40 years. Respondents between the ages of 41 - 50 years old constituted 29.7% (n = 60) of the study, with the remaining respondents over 51 years old constituting 19.3% (n = 39) of the study.

**Figure 4.3: Racial composition of respondents**



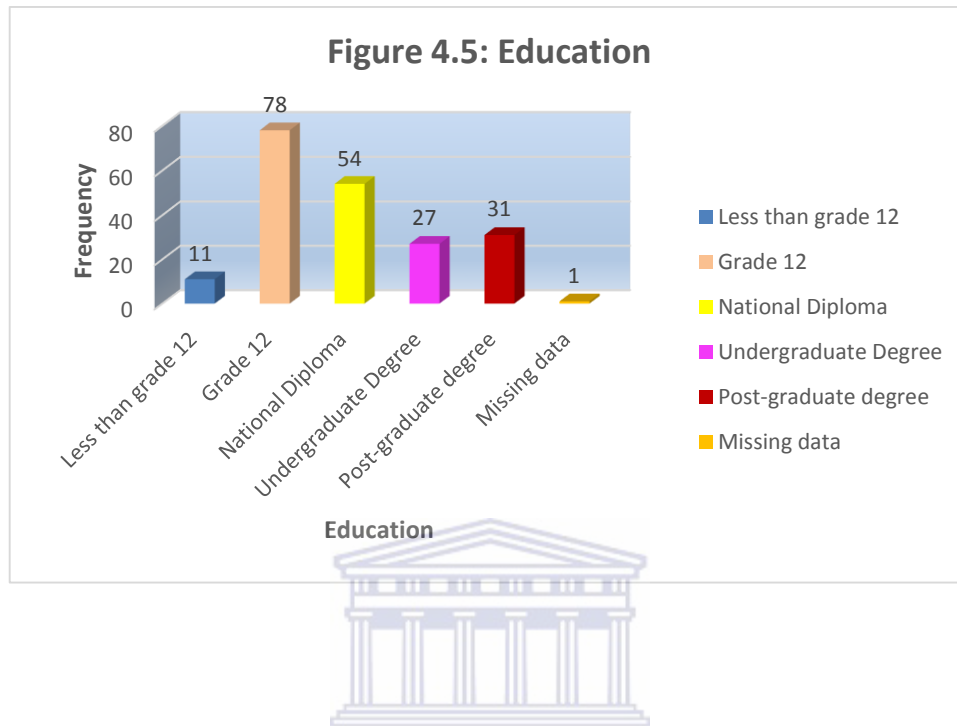
The results depicted in Figure 4.3 shows that 7.4% (n = 15) of the respondents who participated in the survey were African, whilst 21.3% (n = 43) were White respondents, whereas the majority of respondents 68.8% (n = 139) were Coloured. The racial composition of Indians constituted 1.5% (n = 3) of the study, with the remaining 1.0% (n = 2) indicating “other” as their racial status. The empirical evidence suggests that majority of managers and supervisors at the beverage company’s belong to the Coloured racial category.

**Figure 4.4 Tenure of respondents**



The years of service for the respondents are displayed in Figure 4.4. 16.8% (n = 34) of the respondents have less than five-years of service in the company. The majority of respondents 27.2% (n = 55) have been working at the company between 5 – 10 years. Whilst 13.4% (n = 27) of respondents have been employed at the company between 11 – 15 years. In addition, 17.3% (n = 35) of the respondents have between 16 – 20 years working experience, with 9.4% (n = 19) of respondents indicating that they have been employed at the company between 21 – 25 years. The results also show that 6.9% (n = 14) of respondents have between 26 – 30 years of working experience with the company with the remaining respondents 8.9% (n = 18) indicating more than 30 years of service with the company.

**Figure 4.5: Level of education**



The responses indicated in Figure 4.5 above reflect that 5.4% (n = 11) have acquired less than a grade 12 certificate. The results indicate that majority of the respondents 38.6% (n = 78) have acquired a grade 12 level of education, whilst 26.7% (n = 54) have obtained a National Diploma. Only 13.4% (n = 27) are in possession of an undergraduate degree. 15.3% (n = 31) of respondents indicated that they possess a postgraduate degree. One of the respondents 0.5% (n = 1) did not complete the question.

**Figure 4.6: Managerial Level**

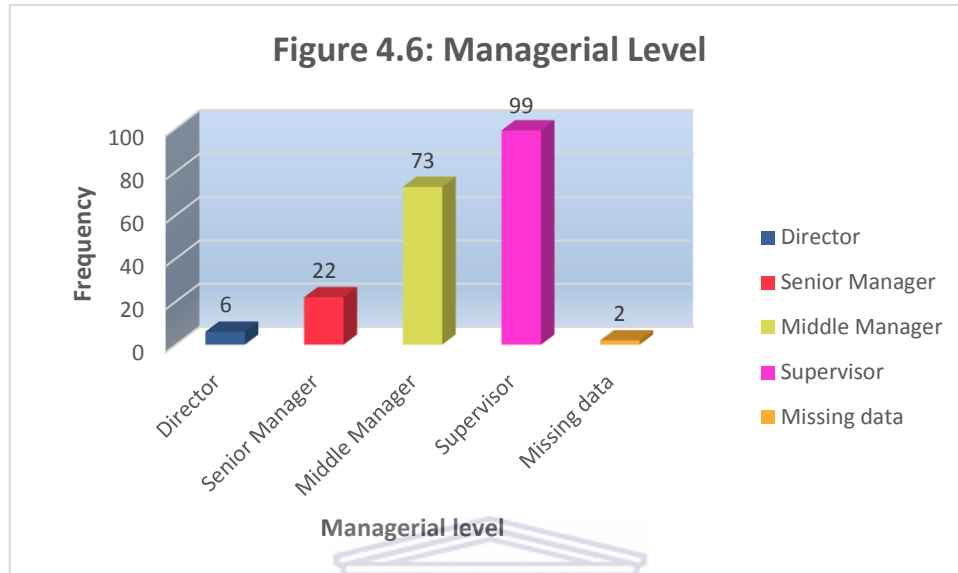


Figure 4.6 reflects that 3.0% ( $n = 6$ ) of the respondents who participated in this research are directors, 10.9% ( $n = 22$ ) are senior managers, 36.1% ( $n = 73$ ) are middle managers, whereas the majority of respondents 49% ( $n = 99$ ) fall in the category of supervisors. Two of the respondents 1.0% ( $n = 2$ ) did not complete the question.



**Figure 4.7: Department within the organisation**

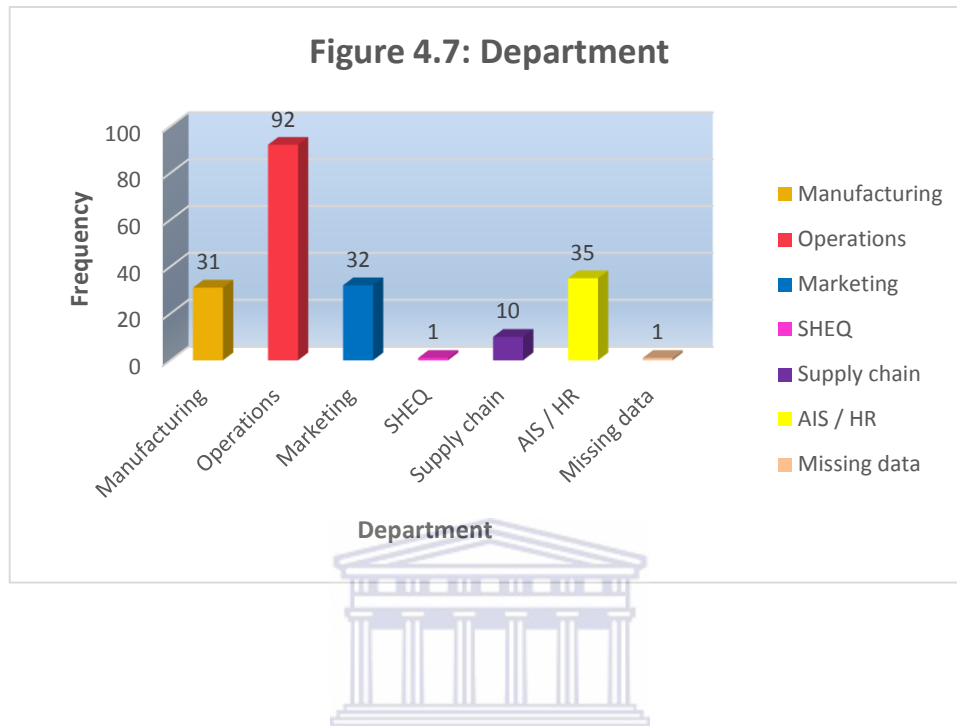


Figure 4.7 above indicates that the Manufacturing department represented 15.3% (n = 31) of the respondents who participated in the study with the majority of the participants 45.5% (n = 92) employed within the Operations department. The Marketing department represented 15.8% (n = 32) of respondents in the study. The least percentage of the respondents was 0.5% (n = 1) located within the SHEQ department. Participants from the Supply Chain department were representative of to 5.0% (n = 10) of the study. The second largest percentage of the participants was found within AIS/HR department with 17.3% (n = 35). One of the respondents 0.5% (n = 1) did not complete the question.

#### 4.2.2 Descriptive Statistics for the Organisational Culture and Organisational Commitment Questionnaires

Descriptive statistics in the form of arithmetic means and standard deviations were computed for the various dimensions in the Organisational Culture Survey and the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire. The results are indicated in Table 4.1 below.

**Table 4.1 Descriptive statistics for the dimensions of Organisational Culture and Organisational Commitment**

Variable	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis		
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
<b>Involvement</b>	202	33.00	69.00	53.8837	7.51566	-.430	.171	.106	.341
<b>Consistency</b>	202	32.00	72.00	51.5025	6.67018	.005	.171	-.037	.341
<b>Adaptability</b>	202	30.00	72.00	49.9134	7.42315	.184	.171	.952	.341
<b>Mission</b>	202	38.00	74.00	55.3589	7.70644	.139	.171	-.320	.341
<b>Affective commitment</b>	202	16.00	38.00	29.8837	4.15167	-.508	.171	.134	.341
<b>Normative commitment</b>	202	12.00	40.00	26.3936	5.42519	-.091	.171	-.132	.341
<b>Continuance commitment</b>	202	11.00	40.00	27.4431	5.77720	-.336	.171	-.443	.341
<b>OC Total</b>	202	47.00	110.00	83.7203	11.15538	-.075	.171	.458	.341
<b>Valid N (listwise)</b>	<b>202</b>								

From Table 4.1 it is apparent that for organisational culture, for the sub – dimensions involvement, there is a positive skewness (-.430) which indicates that respondents selected scores closest to the higher end of the likert scale. There is a negative skewness for the sub – dimensions consistency (.005), adaptability (.184) and mission (.139) which indicate that respondents selected scores toward the lower end of the likert scale. For involvement, the mean score (53.8837) is the highest with a kurtosis score of (.106). The mean score suggests that the respondents feel that their involvement in the organisation is neither high nor low.

Wuensch (2014) purports that the acceptable ranges for skewness ranges from -1.00 to +1.00. Accordingly, the organisational commitment variables, reported a positive skewness amongst the three scores: Affective commitment (-.508), Normative commitment (-.091), Continuance Commitment (-.336). The consistency in the negative scores in the organisational commitment dimensions indicate a positive skewness demonstrates that respondents tended to score favourably or more leniently on this scale. For the affective commitment dimension, the mean score (29.8837) is the highest value with a kurtosis score of (.134).

### **4.3 INFERENCE STATISTICS**

The inferential statistics computed for the sample are provided in the sections below. In order to test the research hypotheses of the study, Regression Analysis and ANOVA has been calculated to assist in conclusions drawn regarding the research hypotheses.

**4.3.1 HYPOTHESIS 1:** A significant proportion of the variance in organisational commitment is explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency (as dimensions of organisational culture) amongst staff within a beverage bottling organisation

**Table 4.2: Regression Analysis of H1**

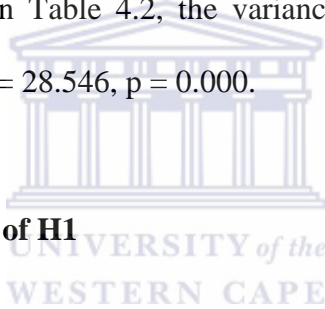
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.606 <sup>a</sup>	.367	.354	8.96551
<b>a. Predictors: (Constant), Mission, Involvement, Adaptability, Consistency</b>				

A regression analysis was completed where the dependent variable was Organisational Commitment and the independent variables are Mission, Involvement, Adaptability and Consistency. The statistics explain that 36.7% ( $R^2 = 0.367$ ) of change in organisational commitment is brought about by the independent variables. In other words, the dimensions explain 36.7% of the variance in organisational commitment.

**Table 4.3: ANOVA Analysis of H1**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
<b>1</b>	Regression	9178.021	4	2294.505	28.546	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	15834.926	197	80.380		
	Total	25012.947	201			
<b>a. Dependent Variable: OC Total</b>						
<b>b. Predictors: (Constant), Mission, Involvement, Adaptability, Consistency</b>						

Based on the statistics yielded in Table 4.2, the variance of 36.7% is regarded as being statistically significant,  $F(4,197) = 28.546, p = 0.000$ .



**Table 4.4: Coefficients Analysis of H1**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
<b>1</b>	(Constant)	30.770	5.247		5.864	.000
	Involvement	.462	.131	.311	3.531	.001
	Consistency	.172	.166	.103	1.035	.302
	Adaptability	-.186	.135	-.123	-1.371	.172
	Mission	.514	.143	.355	3.607	.000
<b>a. Dependent Variable: OC Total</b>						

Table 4.4 indicates that the most statistically significant predictors, based on standardised beta values, of organisational commitment are involvement and mission. According to the beta values, mission ( $\beta = 0.355$ ) contributes the greatest proportion of the variance.

**4.3.2 HYPOTHESIS 2:** A significant proportion of the variance in affective commitment is explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency (as dimensions of organisational culture) amongst staff within a beverage bottling organisation.

**Table 4.5: Regression Analysis of H2**

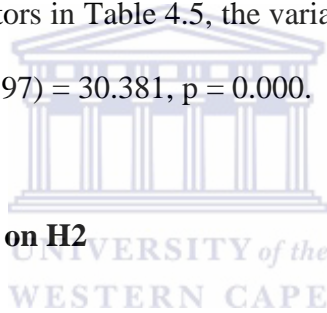
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.618 <sup>a</sup>	.382	.369	3.29799
<b>a. Predictors: (Constant), Mission, Involvement, Adaptability, Consistency</b>				

In Table 4.5 a regression analysis was computed based on the dependent variable (affective commitment) and the independent variables (mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency). The results indicate that the dimensions (independent variables) explain 38.2% ( $R^2 = 0.382$ ) of the variance for affective commitment.

**Table 4.6: ANOVA Analysis on H2**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1321.799	4	330.450	30.381	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	2142.717	197	10.877		
	Total	3464.516	201			
<b>a. Dependent Variable: Affective commitment</b>						
<b>b. Predictors: (Constant), Mission, Involvement, Adaptability, Consistency</b>						

Based on the results of the predictors in Table 4.5, the variance (38.2%) can be seen as strong and statistically significant,  $F(4,197) = 30.381, p = 0.000$ .



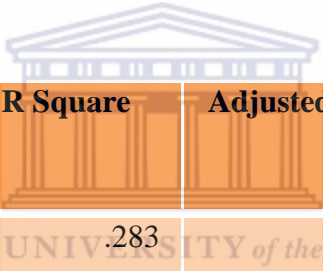
**Table 4.7: Coefficients Analysis on H2**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	11.432	1.930		5.923	.000
	Involvement	.246	.048	.445	5.112	.000
	Consistency	.085	.061	.137	1.398	.164
	Adaptability	-.173	.050	-.310	-3.483	.001
	Mission	.171	.052	.317	3.255	.001
<b>a. Dependent Variable: Affective commitment</b>						

Table 4.7 shows that the most statistically significant predictor which contributes to the highest share of the variance, based on standardised beta values, is involvement ( $\beta = 0.445$ ),  $p = (0.000)$ . However, adaptability and mission are also statistically significant predictors of affective commitment.

**4.3.3 HYPOTHESIS 3:** A significant proportion of the variance in normative commitment is explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency (as dimensions of organisational culture) amongst staff within a beverage bottling organisation.

**Table 4.8: Regression Analysis on H3**



Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.532 <sup>a</sup>	.283	.269	4.63887
<b>a. Predictors: (Constant), Mission, Involvement, Adaptability, Consistency</b>				

As seen in Table 4.8, a regression analysis was computed based on the dependent variable (normative commitment) and the independent variables (mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency). Based on the results above, the predictors contribute 28.3% ( $R^2 = .0283$ ) of the variance in normative commitment.



**Table 4.9: ANOVA Analysis on H3**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1676.690	4	419.173	19.479	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	4239.271	197	21.519		
	Total	5915.962	201			
<b>a. Dependent Variable: Normative commitment</b>						
<b>b. Predictors: (Constant), Mission, Involvement, Adaptability, Consistency</b>						

In the previous Table 4.8, the variance of 28.3% is found to be statistically significant,  $F(4,197) = 19.479, p = 0.000$ .



**Table 4.10: Coefficients Analysis H3**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.025	2.715		1.114	.267
	Involvement	.002	.068	.003	.030	.976
	Consistency	.233	.086	.287	2.717	.007
	Adaptability	.097	.070	.133	1.389	.166
	Mission	.115	.074	.164	1.563	.120
<b>a. Dependent Variable: Normative commitment</b>						

As specified by Table 4.10, the most significant predictor based on the beta value ( $\beta = 0.287$ ), for normative commitment is consistency with a statistical significance of  $p = 0.007$ .

**4.3.4 HYPOTHESIS 4:** A significant proportion of the variance in continuance commitment is explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency (as dimensions of organisational culture) amongst staff within a beverage bottling organisation

**Table 4.11: Regression Analysis H4**

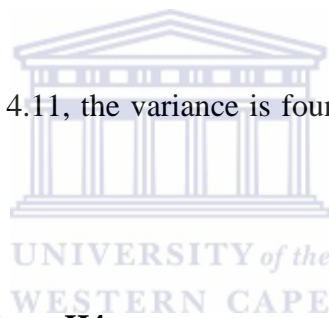
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.324 <sup>a</sup>	.105	.087	5.52013
<b>a. Predictors: (Constant), Mission, Involvement, Adaptability, Consistency</b>				

Based on the dependent variable (continuance commitment) and the independent variables (mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency) a regression analysis is conducted in Table 4.11. The results show that there is a 10.5% ( $R^2 = 0.105$ ) contribution by the predictors to the variance found in continuance commitment.

**Table 4.12: ANOVA Analysis on H4**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	705.638	4	176.409	5.789	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	6002.958	197	30.472		
	Total	6708.595	201			
<b>a. Dependent Variable: Continuance commitment</b>						
<b>b. Predictors: (Constant), Mission, Involvement, Adaptability, Consistency</b>						

Based on the predictors in Table 4.11, the variance is found to be statistically significant,  $F(4,197) = 5.789, p = 0.000$ .



**Table 4.13: Coefficients Analysis on H4**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	16.313	3.231		5.049	.000
	Involvement	.214	.081	.278	2.655	.009
	Consistency	-.147	.102	-.170	-1.438	.152
	Adaptability	-.109	.083	-.141	-1.313	.191
	Mission	.228	.088	.305	2.600	.010
<b>a. Dependent Variable: Continuance commitment</b>						

As shown in Table 4.13, the most significant predictor of continuance commitment is mission with a beta score of ( $\beta = 0.305$ ) and a statistical significance of  $p = 0.010$ . However, involvement is also a statistically significant predictor of continuance commitment.

#### 4.4 HYPOTHESES SUMMARY

**Table 4.14: Summary of the hypotheses highlighting the most statistical significant predictor**

Hypotheses	Most statistical significant predictor
<p><b>H1:</b> A significant proportion of the variance in organisational commitment is explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency (as dimensions of organisational culture) amongst staff within a beverage bottling organisation</p>	Mission
<p><b>H2:</b> A significant proportion of the variance in affective commitment is explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency (as dimensions of organisational culture) amongst staff within a beverage bottling organisation</p>	Involvement
<p><b>H3:</b> A significant proportion of the variance in normative commitment is explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency (as dimensions of organisational culture) amongst staff within a beverage bottling organisation.</p>	Consistency


**H4:**

A significant proportion of the variance in continuance commitment is explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency (as dimensions of organisational culture) amongst staff within a beverage bottling organisation

Mission

#### 4.5 RELIABILITY

**Table 4.15. Reliability of the Denison Organisation Culture Survey and Allen & Meyer's Organisational Commitment Questionnaire**



Scale	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha ( $\alpha$ )
Involvement	15	0.858
Consistency	15	0.765
Adaptability	15	0.819
Mission	15	0.853
Affective Commitment	8	0.599
Normative Commitment	8	0.787
Continuance Commitment	8	0.801

The alpha coefficients above were computed for organisational culture (involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission) as well as for organisational commitment (affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment) and can be considered satisfactory as a test or measure is considered reliable if the reliability score is at least 0.70 (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2005). However, an instrument with coefficient of 0.60 is regarded to have an average reliability whereas the coefficient of 0.70 and beyond indicates that the instrument

has a high reliability standard (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006; Nunally, 1967; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010 as cited in Maiyaki & Mokhtar, 2011). The highest reliability score yielded was for Involvement ( $\alpha = 0.858$ ) on the Denison Organisational Culture Survey and ( $\alpha = 0.801$ ) for continuance commitment on the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire. The lowest score was for affective commitment ( $\alpha = 0.599$ ) on the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire however, although reported at below the 0.7 threshold for reliability, it is still considered reliable.

#### **4.6 CONCLUSION**

The data in this chapter has been presented objectively through statistical analysis. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were discussed, with data being described as well as inferences drawn from the data presented by the sample. In the final chapter to follow, reference will be made to previous research conducted to either support or contradict the current findings. Limitations will be highlighted and suggestions for future research will be presented

## CHAPTER 5

### DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter five discusses the statistical results of the study. Findings based on other relevant research studies are used to substantiate the findings of the current research study. The limitations of the study are affirmed and proposing recommendations for future research is provided. Thereafter, conclusions are drawn and recommendations for the organisation are suggested.

#### 5.2 DISCUSSION



The summary and interpretation of findings are discussed below per hypothesis as outlined in Chapter 1.

##### **Hypothesis 1**

The first hypothesis aims to determine whether a significant proportion of the variance in organisational commitment is explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency (as dimensions of organisational culture) amongst staff within a beverage bottling organisation.

A substantial amount of change in organisational commitment is brought about by the independent variables (that is, mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency). Involvement and mission contributes to the statistical significance in organisational

commitment, with mission contributing the greatest proportion of the variance. This indicates that the organisational culture dimensions (namely, mission and involvement) have a considerable effect on the commitment levels of employees as they value empowerment, team orientation, capability, core values, agreement, coordination and integration, creating change, customer focus, organisational learning strategic direction and intent, goals and objectives and vision within the organisation. Furthermore, due to mission contributing the greatest variance in organisational commitment, this could be indicative of how the organisation provides information to employees by communicating the organisation's vision, strategy and way forward. Evidence of this is found in the organisation where the study was undertaken (through news boards, flash boards, meeting agendas and job competency profiles) as employees are made aware of the strategy, vision and purpose through their individual team strategies, visions and how this contributes to the organisation's way forward. This infers that although employees find that managing external changing environment needs improvement by management and that consistency is needed regarding processes and systems, employees are nevertheless still committed to the organisation.

Research studies conducted have indicated a significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment. A study conducted by Momeni, Marjani and Saadat (2012) on 264 general prosecutors in Tehran, shows that there is a significant relationship between all the components of organisational culture and organisational commitment. In the study conducted by Momeni et al. (2012) the beta values for mission ( $\beta = 0.607$ ) contributes the greatest proportion of the variance in organisational commitment, with adaptability ( $\beta = 0.454$ ), involvement ( $\beta = 0.462$ ) and consistency ( $\beta = 0.483$ ) contributing the respective variances towards organisational commitment. These findings are similar to that of the current study. This implies that although employees value being empowered by their work



environment, appreciate team orientation, value autonomy to do their work, strive towards ensuring that agreement is reached without compromising their core values, value coordination and integration, adapt to change, are customer focused and appreciate organisational learning (Allen & Meyer, 1990), it is their value of being aware of the strategic direction and intent, agreement to goals and objective, and having a clear vision which are considered most essential to employees. Employees are committed as they buy-in to the vision, mission, and goals that the organisation stands for.

Khalili (2014) in his study on 210 employees in an Iranian bank, seeking to determine the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment, also found mission to be the most significant determinant in organisational commitment. The researcher found positive and meaningful relationships amongst all components of organisational culture and commitment, but the dimension of culture (mission) explained the highest variance and affected organisational commitment the most. This result indicates that if there is a clearly communicated and defined vision, mission and strategy in an organisation, this contributes to ensuring highly committed employees.

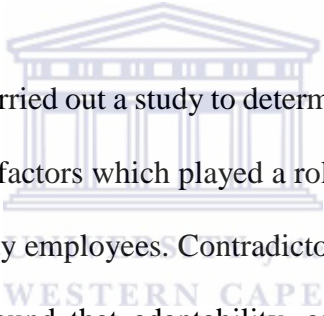
In support of the findings above, Khuong and Nhu (2015) found that both involvement and mission have a direct effect in organisational commitment on 300 employees in the tourism sector in Vietnam, however mission have the most significant effect on organisational commitment. The study was conducted for two reasons namely, (i) the tourism sector faces tough economic conditions as well as a high turnover rate and (ii) employees in the tourism sector wanted to be employed at an organisation who developed potential capability, empowered their employees, promoted respect and teamwork – all of which are evident in the tourism industry. The authors therefore sought to determine whether organisational culture

aided in ensuring that employees in this sector are committed to the organisation. The findings suggested that in order to increase organisational service delivery, organisational / employee commitment needed to be the focal point for employers in this sector. Furthermore, a suggestion is made by Khuong and Nhu (2015) is for manager's to continuously think of effective ways to ensure that skilled employees in this sector are retained so as to improve tourist service excellence in Vietnam.

Findings of a study conducted by Nongo and Ikyanyon (2012) however, produced mixed results. The researchers embarked on a research discovery which looked at the influence corporate culture had on organisational commitment in small to medium enterprises in Nigeria. Their study found involvement to be significantly correlated to commitment, while consistency and mission were not correlated to organisational commitment. The implications of this study found that employee commitment strongly depended on the extent to which the employee felt he / she had decision making power in the organisation, how well the organisation was able to receive and manage change, as well as how well the organisation demonstrated transparency of the vision, mission and objectives of the organisation to employees.

Furthermore, in a study shown by Firuzjaeyan, Firuzjaeyan and Sadeghi (2015) the authors found that involvement and consistency were the variables contributing to organisational commitment amongst high school teachers in Bandpey, Iran. The school teachers valued that there was consistency in processes implemented so as to ensure efficiency. They also valued that the task of not only attaining, but maintaining the vision and mission the school stands for was shared amongst all teachers. Furthermore, school teachers placed importance on developing capabilities, deepening values and working in teams. According to the researchers, the results are indicative that it is these factors which have a monumental impact on whether

the employees stay at the school or leave in search of better working prospects. The researcher's reasoning is that organisational culture (including mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency) has a positive, significant effect on affective, continuance and normative dimensions as the perceptions of organisational culture by the teachers have positive links with their commitment to their work, that is, when their perceptions to organisational culture is heightened, their reactions toward commitment in the organisation is heightened as well. Rastegar, and Aghayan (2012) found results consistent with the findings above and added that commitment determines customer (students) satisfaction, which is carried and presented by employees (teachers). Therefore, organisations need to ensure that commitment measurements should be constantly improved to ensure favourable organisational outcomes (productivity).



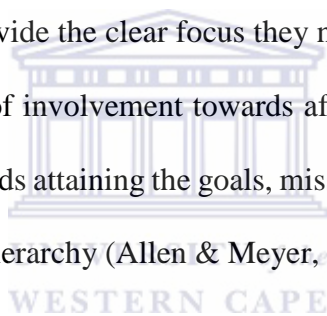
Sunarsih and Mashithoh (2016) carried out a study to determine the influence of organisational culture on commitment and other factors which played a role in the variance in organisational commitment amongst 90 university employees. Contradictory findings were reported to those of the current study as it was found that adaptability, and not mission and involvement, explained the highest significant variance in organisational commitment. Reasons provided for this significance were due to the organisations efficient response to changes in the outside environment and how efficiently the change was managed before being implemented. The researchers also alluded that the change in organisational culture amongst the sample were also affected by variables such as work satisfaction, leadership style, employee motivation and organisation citizenship behaviour.

## **Hypothesis 2**

The second hypothesis aims to determine whether a significant proportion of the variance in affective commitment is explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency (as

dimensions of organisational culture) amongst staff within a beverage bottling organisation.

The results of the study show that the organisational culture variables (mission, involvement and adaptability) has a high statistical significance attributed to affective commitment. Involvement, adaptability and mission contributes statistically significantly to the variance found in affective commitment, with involvement contributing the greatest proportion of the variance. This is an indication that employees have a high emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement with the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The employees share in the values of the organisation and have very little desire to leave the organisation as they feel valued, developed, aligned with the company culture and feel that the organisation will consistently provide the clear focus they need to be securely affiliated to the organisation. The high variance of involvement towards affective commitment indicates that employees work cohesively towards attaining the goals, mission and vision of the organisation, irrespective of the occupational hierarchy (Allen & Meyer, 1990).



There seems to be a paucity of research conducted on the variance of affective commitment as explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency. Nevertheless, research findings to support Hypothesis 2 are discussed.

With a strong focus on the identifying dominant cultures in the organisation, research conducted by Shurbagi (2014) on 227 employees at a national oil corporation looked at the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment. Due to the popularity of organisational culture and organisational commitment amongst practitioners, it was thus important to conduct this research in the most important petroleum sector. The results indicated that affective commitment was the more dominant organisational commitment

component, which indicates the strong affiliation the employee holds towards the organisation. In another study conducted by Matthew and Ogbonna (2009) on an Indian software organisation, the researchers found that affective commitment was the only dimension which could explain the variance in organisational culture. The reason provided was that employees valued the cohesion and unity experienced within the organisation.

A study investigating the dimensions of organisational culture on organisational commitment was conducted by Okediji (2013) on participants from both private and public institutions in Uyo, Nigeria. The purpose of this research was to investigate how relevant organisational culture, an organisational behaviour construct, is and its implications for commitment among employees. The researchers determined that the various dimensions of organisational culture elicits different commitment profiles among employees and found that mission (a dimension of culture), had the highest statistically significant influence on affective commitment. The findings state that employees who perceived greater awareness of the organisation's mission showed an emotional connection, identification and association with their organisation and its goals.

Azadi, Farsani, Farsani and Aroufzad (2013) carried out a research study exploring the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment among woman physical education teachers in Iran. Similar to the findings in the current study, the researchers found that there is a positive correlation between the dimensions of organisational culture (that is, mission, involvement and adaptability) and organisational commitment (that is, affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment) with the highest correlation being between mission and affective commitment. According to the researchers, this is indicative of employees who are personally aligned to the vision, mission and strategy

toward which the organisation is working. The employees felt an emotional investment as the vision, mission and strategy was aligned to their own personal visions, missions and strategies (Azadi et al., 2013).

### **Hypothesis 3**

The third hypothesis aims to determine whether a significant proportion of the variance in normative commitment is explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency (as dimensions of organisational culture) amongst staff within a beverage bottling organisation.

A good proportion of the variance in normative commitment is explained by the independent variables (that is, mission, involvement, adaptability, and consistency). Consistency was found to be the only statistically significant organisational culture dimension of the variance found in normative commitment, contributing the greatest proportion of the variance. This is indicative of the existence and consistency of processes in the organisation where the study was carried out. The employees have buy-in to these processes as they feel aligned to the processes implemented. This result indicates that employees do feel a good sense of obligation to stay with the organisation as they have built up a good affiliation with the organisation. The organisation's culture is suited to these individuals as they are satisfied with the way the mission, values and objectives in the organisation are articulated.

A paucity of research exist in support of, or contradictory to organisational culture dimensions (that is, mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency) explaining variances found in normative commitment. Nevertheless, the limited research found in support of Hypothesis 3 are outlined below.

Azadi et al. (2013) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment amongst physical education teachers in Isfahan, Iran. Their findings support the current research findings. The researchers also established that consistency contributes the highest variance in normative commitment amongst their sample of teachers. The physical education teachers, through their alignment in the efficient processes and systems of the school, felt that staying at the school was the right thing to do.

Having conducted research on 210 employees at a bank, Khalili (2014) found a strong relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment. However, upon further investigations into the dimensions of organisational culture and its influence on organisational commitment, the researcher's findings revealed that consistency shows the highest statistical significance to normative commitment. Findings of the current research concur with Khalili's (2014) results. The researcher sought to investigate if there was any evidence of obligation experienced by the employees and subsequently found that employees experienced satisfaction in knowing that the processes they follow on a daily basis were efficient, hence their commitment to fulfilling their work objectives.

Contrary to the findings above, Okediji (2013) found that consistency had no influence in explaining any variance in normative commitment in a study conducted amongst 200 participants in both private and public institutions in Uyo, Nigeria. The reason offered by the researcher for this result is that other commitments such as such as marriage, family, religion and other values could play a part in influencing commitment in the organisation.

#### **Hypothesis 4**

The fourth hypothesis aims to determine whether a significant proportion of the variance in

continuance commitment is explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency (as dimensions of organisational culture) amongst staff within a beverage bottling organisation.

A good amount of variance in continuance commitment is attributed to by two of the dimensions of organisational culture. Mission and involvement were found to be statistically significant to the variance found in continuance commitment, with mission contributing the greatest proportion of the variance. Insight into this study is provided by the findings which indicates that although employees have a shared vested interest in attaining goals, vision and mission of the organisation (Gillespie, Denison, Haaland, Smerek, & Neale, 2007), it is the benefits that the organisation offers the employee that keeps him/her committed to the organisation.



There seems to be a scarcity of research conducted on the variance of continuance commitment as explained by the dimensions of organisational culture. Nevertheless, research findings to support Hypothesis 4 are discussed as follows.

Manetje and Martins (2009) conducted research on a South African motor manufacturing organisation and aimed to investigate the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment. The rationale for this research was to investigate employees' perceptions on the existing and preferred cultures as a determinant of organisational commitment. The evidence indicated a clear increase in affective and normative commitment depending on the dominance of support cultures. Contrary to the findings of the current study, continuance commitment had little or no impact on the culture of the organisation. The findings of the research in the motor manufacturing organisation hence concluded that employees who find themselves affectively committed to the organisation are keen to maintain the relationship



with the organisation. However, much less can be expected of employees who find themselves normatively and continuance committed.

Rashid, Sambasivan and Johari (2002) conducted a study looking at the influence of corporate culture and organisational commitment on performance and found that 62.4 per cent of the respondents have continuance commitment. The reason for this high significance was that employees felt they needed to stay in the organisation as the risks involved in leaving the organisation was too high. Another reason provided by the authors was that Malaysian employees started working at a young age and have long-term family and financial commitments which make it difficult for them to leave the organisation.

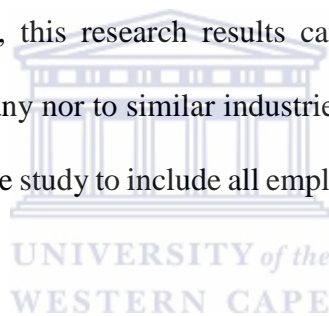
After making great contributions in determining that mission contributed the most significance to organisational commitment and that consistency explained the highest variance in normative commitment, the researcher further supported the findings of the current study for continuance commitment (Khalili, 2014). The researcher investigated all dimensions and found that the greatest predictor of continuance commitment was mission. The reason provided by Khalili (2014) was that employees had a high need for the role they are fulfilling due to the benefits attached to the role and therefore needed to be ensured that they find clarity in terms of the organisation's vision, mission and way forward. Furthermore, Shekari, Rahmdeland and Rajabian (2012) found that the antecedents of adaptability and mission did not improve or promote organisational culture in agricultural bank branches in Mashhad as there remained a lack of clear organisational values, incoherence between teams and a lack of coordination interdepartmentally.

Similar to the findings of the current study, Azadi et al. (2013) also found that involvement had

the highest variance of organisational culture in continuance commitment. Their study was conducted amongst 185 female physical education teachers in Isfahan, Iran. A reason provided for this finding by the researchers was that employees displayed commitment towards effectively attaining the mission, vision and goals of the organisation as they felt that they have costs or benefits to lose if they did not.

#### **5.4 LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

One of the major limitations of the current study is the sample used in this study. The research was conducted at one beverage organisation only, comprising of employees only in supervisory or management roles. Therefore, this research results cannot be generalised to the entire population at the beverage company nor to similar industries. A recommendation would be to widen the sample by expanding the study to include all employees at the organisation (Sekaran, 2001).



Another limitation of this study is the sampling method used. A non – probability sampling method in the form of convenience sampling was used. Although convenient due to the speed of collecting the data, non – probability sampling results in the researcher having limited control over the representation of managerial / supervisory staff in the various departments or plants who participated in the research. A recommendation is to use stratified random sampling which is achieved by dividing the population into smaller groups based on the groups' shared characteristics, thereby allowing a strong representation between the sample to that of the population under study. Stratified random sampling reduces sampling inaccuracies and improves the external validity of the research findings (Sekaran, 2001).

The questionnaires used in this study are self – report surveys which relies on and reflects individuals’ opinions and perceptions to their environment. This could lead to the possibility of misinterpretations of the questions which, in turn, leads to biases and misrepresentations. Sekaran (2001) states that a possible solution to reduce the biasness and misrepresentations are to use self – report surveys in addition to other qualitative methodology such as interviews, focus groups and participant observations. According to Patton and Cochran (2002), the qualitative research methodology aims at understanding the aspect under scrutiny by determining why and how a phenomenon has occurred rather than focussing on how many people were involved and the extent of the influence the phenomenon has had.

Additionally, a paucity of studies relating to the variance of affective, normative and continuance commitment as explained by mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency (that is, dimensions of organisational culture) exists and requires more exploration to add to the existing body of knowledge. Future studies could also include other variables such as job satisfaction, perceived organisational support and organisational citizenship behaviour.

## **5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE ORGANISATION**

According to Greenberg and Baron (2003), organisational culture can impact both individuals as well as organisational processes. Processes at times tend to pressurise employees to conform to the existing culture, or rather go against the foundations of the existing culture. However, it is this process of influence which could either enhance the employee’s commitment to the organisation or limit the efficiency of the culture.

In the organisation under study, although there are benefits to the employees, there are

opportunities for these benefits to be improved on, especially in the sales environment. There are factors which can assist in potentially increasing the contribution in employee continuance commitment to the organisation which are outlined below:

- According to Beheshtifar and Herat (2013), suggestions for eliciting increases in continuance commitment of employees is to improve compensation benefits and *create innovative schemes* to improve employee morale which will, in turn, increase employee continuance commitment.
- Similarly, Umoh, Amah and Wokocha (2014) found that employee benefits have a significant contribution to continuance commitment. The authors further suggest that there is a benefit in increasing employee benefits as it can be strategically aligned to drive organisational success. Guntur, Haerani and Hasan (2012) purport that low variances in continuance commitment could impact employee turnover intentions. The authors suggest that through *increasing intrinsic rewards* and *putting individual career plans* in place could increase the variance in continuance commitment. Umoh et al. (2014) are of the opinion that employers should *capitalise on rewards programmes to attract the right individuals to the organisation*. However, once these employees have been attained, employers should strategically align these rewards and recognition programmes to that which makes the organisation optimally operational.
- Employees tend to exchange performance and allegiance for measureable reimbursements and rewards, therefore Manetje and Martins (2009) states that the only way to retain employees who are continuance committed, is to *give more attention to those benefits* in order to boost the employee's morale.

- Employees who are *engaged* in the organisation are found to be highly continuance committed to the organisation as they are physically involved which could lead to an empathetic connection with other employees through sharing ideas, sharing beliefs and values and making personal connections with other employees. By engaging employees, this could lead to a decrease in turnover and other withdrawal behaviours (Ortiz & Lau, 2011).

## 5.6 CONCLUSION

Chapter five looked at the interpretation of the findings by comparing the current study's findings to other research findings. The aim of this study was to investigate the influence of organisational culture on organisational commitment amongst managerial and supervisory staff at a beverage bottling organisation in the Western Cape. The results of the current research shows that a significant proportion of variance in organisational commitment is explained by dimensions of organisational culture. The findings suggest that 36.7 % of change in organisational commitment is brought on by the dimensions in organisational culture (that is, mission, involvement, adaptability and consistency) and 38.2% of change in affective commitment contributes to the variance in the organisational culture dimensions. The findings further state that 28.3 % of change in normative commitment is contributed to by the dimensions in organisational culture. Lastly, continuance commitment has a 10.5% contribution to the variance in organisational culture dimensions.

Lok and Crawford (1999) purport that an organisational culture which sustains the commitment of employees has become vital in organisations as it relates to the sustainability of the organisation. Furthermore, Ghina (2012) states that the culture of the organisation affects the

employee's attitude toward commitment and therefore the importance of engaging the employee's commitment to the conditions prescribed by the organisation ensures a conducive and productive working environment.



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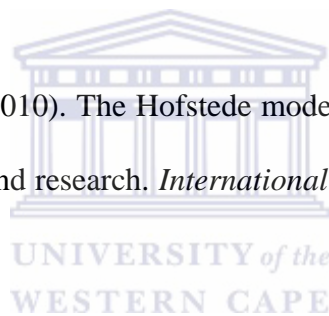
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