INVESTIGATING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT IN A PUBLIC SERVICE DEPARTMENT

By

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SUPERVISOR: PROF N MARTINS

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FOR THE ATTENTION OF THE READER

SCOPE OF THE DISSERTATION

For this Master's dissertation of limited scope (50% of the total Master's degree) the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology recommends a boundary of approximately 60 to 80 pages. The department prescribes an article format that involves four chapters – an introductory and a literature chapter (Chapters 1 and 2), a research article (presented in Chapter 3), and a final chapter, containing the conclusion, limitations, and recommendations of the study (Chapter 4).

TECHNICAL AND REFERENCE STYLE

In this dissertation, I have chosen the publication guidelines of the South African Journal of Industrial Psychology to structure my dissertation and article. Therefore, the APA referencing style was followed in terms of the technical editing and referencing.
DECLARATION

I, Joseph Sipho Moela, student number 35128887 declare that this dissertation of limited scope, titled “Investigating the relationship between organisational culture and employee engagement in a Public Service Department”, is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or have quoted from have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

I further declare that ethical clearance to conduct the research was obtained from the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, University of South Africa, as well as from the participating organisation.

______________________________  _____________________________
JOSEPH SIPHO MOELA  15 DECEMBER 2016
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SUMMARY

INVESTIGATING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT IN A PUBLIC SERVICE DEPARTMENT

by

JOSEPH SIPHO MOELA

SUPERVISOR : Prof N Martins

DEPARTMENT : Industrial and Organisational Psychology

DEGREE : MCom (Industrial and Organisational Psychology)

This dissertation focuses on investigating the relationship between organisational culture and employee engagement in a Public Service department. In this quantitative study, undertaken in a South African Public Service department (North West province), dimensions of organisational culture (measured by the South African Culture Instrument) were correlated with the dimensions of employee engagement (measured by the South African Engagement Measurement). Correlational analyses revealed a statistically significant positive relationship between each of the dimensions of organisational culture and employee engagement, respectively. ANOVA statistical technique was used to determine whether significant differences exist between groups. Regression analyses revealed that leadership, employee needs and objectives, vision and mission, management processes and internal relationships would predict employee engagement. Leadership made the most significant predictor of employee engagement. The means to achieve objectives dimension showed no effect in predicting employee engagement. This indicates that positive perceptions of organisational culture are likely to be related to higher levels of employee engagement.
Keywords: antecedents, employee engagement, government, leadership, organisational culture, public service department
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CHAPTER 1

SCIENTIFIC ORIENTATION TO THE RESEARCH

This dissertation focuses on investigating the relationship between organisational culture and employee engagement in a public service department. The aim of this chapter is to provide the background and motivation for this research. The problem statement will be discussed, and the aims will be specified. The paradigm perspectives of the research will be given, including the relevant paradigms, meta-theoretical statements and theoretical models. Thereafter, the research design and methodology will be presented, and the chapter layout will be given. The chapter will end with a chapter summary.

1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

The context of the study is organisational culture and employee engagement in a public service department. The role of organisational culture (OC) is crucial to understanding organisational behaviour. According to Wagner (1995), organisational culture has a strong influence on employees' behaviour and attitudes. Organisational culture involves standards and norms that prescribe how employees should behave in any given organisation (Martins & Martins, 2003). Managers and employees do not therefore behave in a value-free vacuum; they are governed, directed and tempered by the organisation's culture (Manetjie & Martins, 2009). Employees' behaviour includes their commitment to their respective organisations. Given the dynamics of culture and human behaviour, it is important to study how employees commit themselves to their organisation.

If an organisation does not have employees who are committed to the organisations and engaged in their work, strategy implementation and execution, as well as change, will be difficult, if not impossible (Naidoo & Martins, 2014). An engaged employee is one who knows what his/her organisation does, can articulate its competitive advantage accurately and with passion, cares about its customers, and communicates with colleagues even in informal settings (Nienaber & Martins, 2015). Understanding the conditions under which individuals would actively engage, while others would disengage, is highly relevant for both employees and employers. Thus,
both the organisational culture and the employee engagement of employees are in danger when employees’ personal values are incongruent with those of the organisation. The implication that OC may influence levels of employee engagement therefore, potentially, has a far-reaching impact, and the implied link between these constructs makes this an important relationship to study and understand. The growing importance of engagement has generated a large number of studies from academics, consultancies and organisations that look at the impact of high levels of engagement on outcomes for most business organisations worldwide (Ncube & Jerie, 2012). Organisations that truly engage and inspire their employees produce world-class levels of innovation, productivity and enhanced performance, which result in competitive advantage (Ncube & Jerie, 2012).

The South African public sector has been characterised by inefficiency and ineffectiveness in terms of meeting its mandate of providing quality service delivery (Mafini & Dlodlo, 2014). In contrast, the private sector in the same country is reputed for its world-class services. It has been suggested that such discrepancies may, in part, be attributed to the fact that public sector employees are often faced with a number of adverse factors that impact on their overall well-being. These factors include, inter alia, a lack of motivation as well as low levels of job and life satisfaction (Mafini & Dlodlo, 2014). Dissatisfied and demoralised employees tend to have low levels of commitment at work, which, in turn, impacts negatively on performance and the achievement of organisational goals (Mafini & Dlodlo, 2014). As public servants, it is important to provide quality services that are responsive to the needs of members of the public.

The North West Department of Finance, which manages the North West provincial finances, has, experienced high employee turnover rates lately, with highly talented employees leaving the organisation for other public service departments or private sector organisations. The department also struggles to attract and retain these highly talented people, especially in the areas of economics, accounting, auditing and strategic supply chain management, from other public service departments or private sector organisations. This calls for departmental employees to be fully engaged in their work, occupational and professional roles, and improve their relationship with their organisation, in order to deliver world-class services to the citizens. The
department should understand their organisational culture profile and engagement levels of their employees, so that the following can be significantly enhanced:

- Job satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour
- Reduction of high turnover rates
- Attracting and retaining highly talented employees
- Improving service delivery through the transformation and improvement of human resources and the improvement of service delivery practices

The focus of this study is an investigation of the relationship between organisational culture and employee engagement. The study therefore aims to benefit not only industrial and organisational psychologists and human resources (HR) practitioners, but also the public service department, in understanding why employees leave and others are not engaged in their employment.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Existing literature pertaining to employee engagement and/or commitment highlights its contribution to organisational results, and on how organisational culture and climate impact on organisational performance (Joubert & Roodt, 2011). Engaged employees typically experience a compelling purpose and meaning in their work, and apply their distinct abilities and efforts to advance the organisation’s objectives (Paul, 2012). Scientists have also found that work engagement has been shown to relate to several positive work outcomes, and dimensions of organisational culture correlate positively with work engagement dimensions. Although a large number of studies investigate the link between employees’ work engagement and organisational variables, there remains a dearth of scientific research on organisational culture and its impact on work engagement (Naidoo & Martins, 2014). As work engagement is shown to relate to several positive work outcomes, it makes sense for organisations to increase their employees’ levels of work engagement by addressing and improving organisational culture.
This study is similar to the study by Naidoo and Martins (2014), which investigated the relationship between OC and work engagement, in an effort to determine whether employees’ perceptions of OC are related to their level of work engagement in a South African Communication company. This study, however, differs in that it was conducted in a different work context of a public service department, because a study of this nature has not been done in public service departments. The aim of public service departments in South Africa is to improve service delivery through the transformation and improvement of human resources and the improvement of service delivery practices (Sewdass, 2012). Service delivery has always been the *raison d’être* of the public service in a democratic dispensation (Veeran, 2011).

1.2.1 Research question

Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2006) define a research question as the question that the study wants answered. Flowing from the problem statement and literature review, the following research questions were posed:

1.2.1.1 General Research Question

Is there a statistically significant relationship between organisational culture and employee engagement in the public service department?

1.2.1.2 Specific Research Questions

In terms of the literature study, the following specific research questions were posed in this research:

- How can organisational culture be conceptualised and what are its key characteristics?
- How can organisational culture be measured?
- How can employee engagement be conceptualised and what are its key characteristics?
- How can employee engagement be measured?
• Is there a theoretical relationship between organisational culture and employee engagement concepts?

In terms of the empirical study, the following specific research questions were posed in this research project:

• What is the organisational culture profile in a public service department?
• Are the employee engagement and organisational culture instruments valid and reliable for the public service department?
• What are the employee engagement levels in a public service department?
• Does a statistically significant relationship exist between each of the dimensions of organisational culture and the employee engagement in a public service department?
• Do significant differences exist between biographical groups?
• Is organisational culture is a statistically significant predictor of employee engagement?
• What recommendations can be formulated for industrial psychology, based on the findings of this research?

1.3 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

Given the specific problem to be investigated, the aims of this research project are listed below.

1.3.1 General Aims

The main objectives of the study were to do the following: (1) Investigate the relationship between organisational culture and the dimensions of employee engagement, respectively; (2) determine if organisational culture is a statistically significant predictor of employee engagement; and (3) investigate the significant differences between demographical groups.
1.3.2 Specific Aims

The following research aims were formulated for the literature review and empirical study:

1.3.2.1 Literature review

- Conceptualise organisational culture and determine its key characteristics.
- Determine how organisational culture can be measured.
- Conceptualise employee engagement and determine its key characteristics.
- Determine how employee engagement can be measured.
- Is there a theoretical relationship between organisational culture and employee engagement?

1.3.2.2 Empirical study

- Investigate the organisational culture in a public service department.
- Investigate whether the employee engagement and organisational culture instruments are valid and reliable for the public service department.
- Investigate employee engagement levels in a public service department.
- Investigate whether a statistically significant relationship exists between organisational culture and the dimensions of employee engagement in a public service department.
- Investigate whether significant differences exist between biographical groups.
- Investigate whether organisational culture is a statistically significant predictor of employee engagement.
- Formulate recommendations for industrial psychology and further research, based on the findings of this research.

1.4 PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE

Paradigms refer to interrelated systems of thinking and practice that govern the nature and the manner in which to enquire and on which to base assumptions (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2004). Paradigms act as a perspective that provide a rationale for the research, and commit the researcher to particular methods of data collection,
observation and interpretation (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006). Through the use of a particular paradigm, the researcher is provided with the rationale for the research to commit to certain methods of data collection, observation and interpretation (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2004). This research study followed the positivist paradigm. The positivist approach is concerned with gathering information about social facts in an objective and detached manner, often making use of quantitative indices.

The overall approach of this research was from a systems perspective. The systems perspective indicates that the individual is seen as a subsystem within a hierarchy of larger systems (Davidson, 2003). These subsystems have recognisable relationships that are systematically arranged to serve a perceived purpose (Davidson, 2003). The organisation can be regarded as one of the larger systems, and was the framework within which this research took place. Other paradigm perspectives that were applicable to this research were the behaviourist and humanist paradigms that relate to the literature review on organisational culture and employee engagement.

Davidson (2003) indicates that the behaviourist paradigm maintains that observable behaviour is psychology’s sole object of study, and that unobservable phenomena such as thoughts, feelings and values, are regarded as inaccessible to scientific study. Behaviourists indicate that learning takes place through stimuli and responses which are combined through learning experiences. The prediction of human behaviour is regarded as the goal of scientific endeavour. The humanist paradigm presents human beings as integrated persons who actively and consciously strive towards the actualisation of their potential. Humanists acknowledge the subjective experiential world of the individual, and conceptualise human nature as positive. They focus on conscious processes and on the individual as an active participant in the determination of his or her own behaviour (Davidson, 2003).

1.4.1 Intellectual climate

Intellectual climate refers to the variety of meta-theoretical values or beliefs which are held by the practitioners within a discipline at any given point in time (Mouton & Marais, 1996). This research project was undertaken in the context of industrial
psychology, which can be defined as the scientific study of human behaviour, and the application of this knowledge to minimise some of the human problems that inevitably arise in the workplace (Davidson, 2003).

1.4.2 Disciplinary framework

The research falls within the discipline of industrial and organisational psychology under the domain of organisational psychology. The literature study focuses on the variables that constitute organisational culture and employee engagement. Industrial/organisational psychology is a specialised field within the broader field of psychology that focuses on the workplace or organisations (Van Vuuren, 2010). According to Veldsman (2001), the core identity of industrial psychology can be profiled as a field of enquiry, a discipline, a domain of practice and a profession focusing on people’s world of work from a psycho-social perspective, by striving for an understanding and enhancement of that world through the generation and utilisation of its theoretical knowledge objects.

The relevant subfield of industrial psychology that is included in this research is organisational behaviour. Organisational behaviour can be defined as the study of human behaviour, attitudes and performance within an organisational setting, drawing on theory, methods and principles from such disciplines as psychology, sociology and cultural anthropology, to learn about individual perceptions, values, learning capacities and actions, while working in groups and within the total organisation, as well as analysing the external environment’s effect on the organisation and its human resources, mission, objectives and strategies (Davidson, 2003). This particular sub-discipline seeks to answer the question as to why employees behave as they do in organisations. In this research, the South African Culture Instrument (SACI) and the South African Engagement Measurement (SAEM) were used to measure organisational culture and employee engagement.

1.4.3 Meta-theoretical assumptions

According to Mouton and Marais (1996), it is generally accepted in the philosophy of science today, that no scientific finding can be conclusively proven on the basis of
empirical research data. In different stages of the scientific research process, and for different reasons, the researcher is compelled to make assumptions justifying specific theories and methodological strategies that are not tested in the specific study. One important category of such assumptions is the meta-theoretical assumptions underlying the theories, models and paradigms that form the definitive context of the study. The argumentative nature of scientific communication demands that this often tacit dimension of scientific practice should be made explicit.

1.4.4 Theoretical framework

In this research, the theoretical models were based on the theory of organisational culture and employee engagement. This provided a framework within which the link between the organisational culture and the employee engagement of the organisation was assessed.

1.4.5 The Hypotheses

H1: There is a statistically significant positive correlation between organisational culture and the dimensions of employee engagement, respectively.

H2: Organisational culture is a statistically significant predictor of employee engagement.

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is a strategic framework for action that serves as a bridge between research questions and the execution or implementation of the research (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006). According to Mouton and Marais (as cited in Terre Blanche et al., 2006), the aim of a research design is to plan and structure a given research in such a manner that the eventual validity of the research findings is maximised.

The present research adopted a quantitative approach to the study of organisational culture and employee engagement, since this approach has benefits such as the covering of large samples with ease, being applicable even if there should be time
constraints, and having a lower level of intrusiveness than many quantitative methods, in agreement with the reasons given by Martins and Von der Ohe (2006) for making more use of validated quantitative tools. A quantitative research approach implies that the hypothesis will be explicitly stated, formulated beforehand, and measurable through the use of measuring instruments. The research was conducted with a view to testing the hypothesis and, ultimately, either accepting or rejecting the formulated hypothesis. The systematic sampling method was used. Systematic sampling is a procedure of selecting a probability sample where every element of a randomly ordered list is included in the sample (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006). The study was descriptive in nature, as the relationship between organisational culture and employee engagement should be described through the research.

1.5.1 Research variables

Terre Blanche et al. (2006) define a variable as a concept that has two or more values. It can either be independent or dependent. An independent variable is a variable that the experimenter manipulates, to determine its effects on the dependent variable. The dependent variable is the result or outcome of another variable. In this study, the independent variable was organisational culture, and the dependent variable employee engagement. In this study, however, it was not possible to manipulate the independent variable directly. The culture profile was, however, likely to vary across departments, and thus the departments were used as a source of differentiation.

1.5.2 Methods used to ensure reliability and validity

There were measures in place to ensure a valid and reliable research process:

1.5.2.1 Validity

Research should be properly designed, in order to ensure that it is both internally and externally valid. Research is internally valid when the constructs are measured in a valid way, and the data that is measured is accurate and reliable. The analysis should be relevant to the type of data collected, and the final solutions should be
adequately supported by the data (Mouton & Marais, 1994). Validity was confirmed by means of principal component factor analysis. Validity refers to the degree to which an instrument measures what it is intended or claims to measure (Moerdyk, 2009). Anastasi and Urbina defined validity as “what the test measures and how well is does so” (Lopes, Roodt & Mauer, 2001). Terre Blanche et al. (2006, p.147) define validity as the degree to which a measure does what it is intended to do. Internal and external validity are imperative for a good research design. Internal validity refers to the extent that causal conclusions can be drawn, and external validity refers to the extent to which it possible to generalise from the data and context of the research study to the broader populations and settings (Terre Blanche et al., 2006, p.165).

Theoretical validity, which postulates the clarity of concepts and their scope, should be addressed in the literature review (Davidson, 2003). In order to address theoretical validity in this research project, chapters 2 and 3 of the research report involve the detailed conceptualisation of the terms 'organisational culture' and 'employee engagement', respectively, in order to ensure that the concepts were clear and well defined. These conceptualisations were extracted from relevant literature, to ensure that the subjective choice of constructs, concepts and dimensions were removed from this research. In addition, the meanings of each of these concepts are operationally defined and all the subcomponents listed. The latest literature was explored in this research; however, a number of classical sources are also referred to, due to their relevance to the concepts, and to provide a historical perspective on the emergence of the concepts.

Criterion-related validity refers to the degree to which a measure or test score successfully predicts performance on some external criterion of interest (Moerdyk, 2009). Concurrent validity refers to how well the test predicts a criterion behaviour at the present time, and predictive validity refers to how well the test predicts a criterion behaviour in the future (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002). Content validity refers to the extent to which the questions in a test or other measure represent the universe or domain that is being assessed (Moerdyk, 2009). Construct validity refers to the degree to which an instrument accurately relates to a given construct and to other measures of the same or similar constructs, as predicted by the theory (Moerdyk, 2009).
In the empirical research, construct validity was ensured through the use of appropriate measuring instruments. Validation studies have been conducted for the South African Engagement Measurement (Nienaber & Martins, 2015) and the South African Culture Instrument (Naidoo & Martins, 2014). In order to determine whether this measurement instrument would be valid in the public sector context, the empirical research addressed the validation of the instrument in the research organisation. All employees were invited to form part of the research sample, and the final sample was thus likely to be representative of the job levels and departmental breakdown of the organisation.

1.5.2.2 Reliability

Reliability refers to a measure’s consistency in measuring what it measures (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2005). Reliability is the degree of consistency of a measure and/or the degree to which it is free of random error (Moerdyk, 2009). Reliability was determined by means of an item analysis. Test-retest reliability is the reliability of the instrument overtime, this form of reliability is tested by measuring individuals on the same instrument on different occasions and determining whether the scores correlate (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

The Cronbach’s alpha test was conducted to confirm the reliability of the measuring instruments. The Cronbach’s alpha test is a coefficient ranging from 0 to 1, indicating the internal consistency of a scale. Cronbach’s coefficient alpha is an estimate of consistency of responses to different scale items (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002). Cronbach’s alpha coefficients were used to establish internal consistency and resultant reliability of the instruments used to collect the data. According to Davidson (2003), a reliability coefficient of between 0.60 and 0.90 is recommended.

1.5.3 Methods to ensure ethical research principles

According to Terre Blanche and Durrheim (2004), there are three ethical principles to research (autonomy, non-maleficence and beneficence), and the ethical guidelines relate to consent, confidentiality and researcher competence. Ethical guidelines, as
stipulated by the Health Professions Councils of South Africa (HPCSA), formed the basis of the study. Ethical clearance to conduct the study was applied for through the Research Committee of the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology. Informed consent was obtained from the participants, and all data and results were handled confidentially. In ensuring confidentiality, the participants were assured that their identity and data were kept according to HPCSA ethical guidelines. The results obtained were communicated only to the organisation from which the data was collected, and recommendations made were for the benefit of the organisation. No harm was done to the participants during the study (Babbie & Mouton, 2009; Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

1.5.4 Research Procedure

Sampling

Only staff from the Department of Finance was invited to participate in the study. Permission was granted by the acting head of the department, to collect data among its staff members/employees. A list of all employees was obtained from the HR department. A letter from management explaining the importance of the study, an informed consent form, and the SAEM and SACI, were distributed to all employees, informing them of the upcoming survey.

Measurement instrument administration

A letter from management explaining the importance of the study, an informed consent form, and the SAEM and SACI were distributed via a secure online link to the sample population. The researcher was the only person who administered, and had access to, the questionnaire responses.

Data collection

The completed SAEM and SACI were captured electronically, as the sample population submitted the responses via the secure online link.
Data management

All data collected was stored electronically by the researcher. Access to this information was restricted to the researcher and an approved statistician.

Data analysis

Basic quantitative analysis was used for the study, and the data was statistically processed and analysed by means of descriptive statistics (frequency distribution by demographics), measures of central tendency (mode, mean and median), measures of variability (range and variance), and inferential statistics (to test hypothesis by using \( t \) tests, \( F \)-statistic, correlation: \( r \) coefficient and Chi Square). The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS Version 23) programme was used to analyse the data, to ensure reliability in analysis. Factor analysis was used to analyse the correlations between a large number of variables, to determine common underlying dimensions (factor), and Cronbach’s alpha coefficients were used to determine internal consistency reliability properties of the South African Engagement Measurement (SAEM) and the South African Culture Instrument (SACI). Spearman’s rho correlation coefficients were calculated to describe the relationship between the variables (organisational culture and employee engagement). The ANOVA statistical technique was used to determine if significant differences existed between groups. Multiple regression analysis was used to determine the percentage variance explained by the independent variable (organisational culture) and the dependent variable (employee engagement).
1.6. **RESEARCH METHOD**

1.6.1 **Phase One: Literature review**

The following was proposed in this phase:

- Conceptualise organisational culture and to determine its key characteristics.
- Determine how organisational culture can be measured.
- Conceptualise employee engagement and determine its key characteristics.
- Determine how employee engagement can be measured.
- Theorise the concepts of organisational culture and employee engagement.

1.6.2 **Phase Two: Empirical study**

The empirical study was conducted as follows:

- Investigate the organisational culture in a public service department.
- Investigate employee engagement levels in a public service department.
- Investigate whether the employee engagement and organisational culture instruments are valid and reliable for the public service department.
- Investigate whether a statistically significant relationship exists between organisational culture and the dimensions of employee engagement in a public service department.
- Investigate whether significant differences exist between biographical groups.
- Investigate whether organisational culture is a statistically significant predictor of employee engagement.
- Formulate recommendations for industrial psychology and further research, based on the findings of this research.

1.6.3 **Population and sample**

The population for this study was 497 employees within a single public service department. All the employees in the organisation were invited to participate in the research.
1.6.4 Measuring instrument

The measuring instruments used for data collection in this study were the South African Engagement Measurement (SAEM) and the South African Culture Instrument (SACI). These questionnaires are considered relevant and applicable to this study.

South African Engagement Measurement (SAEM)

Nienaber and Martins (2015) developed a scale, measuring employee engagement concurrently at the individual and organisational level, for a diverse, multicultural context (South Africa). The instrument consists of two sections: one collecting biographical/demographic information (gender, qualifications, experience and tenure), and one soliciting responses, using a five-point Likert scale, on statements about engagement at the individual level (50 statements such as “I feel positive about my work”), team/departmental level (12 statements such as “my team continuously strives to improve performance in line with our business objectives”) and organisational level (10 statements such as “our top management communicates the vision and mission to us”).

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to determine the factorial structure, and Cronbach’s alpha was used to establish the internal reliability of the scale and its subscales. The internal reliability and construct validity were confirmed by means of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The reliability analysis was calculated for all dimensions and sub-dimensions. All yielded adequate Cronbach’s alpha values between .895 and .951, and minimum cut-off of 0.70 was recommended (Nienaber & Martins, 2015).

South African Culture Instrument (SACI)

The South African Culture Instrument (SACI) was locally developed for the South African context, and measures the extent to which employees identify with the various elements of the organisation’s existing and ideal culture (Naidoo & Martins, 2014). Respondents make use of a 5-point Likert scale to rate each statement. A low rating (1) indicates that the respondent strongly disagrees, and a high rating (5)
indicates strong agreement. A typical question for the Leadership dimension is – “My immediate manager sets an example everyone can follow – he/she walks the talk.” A typical question for Means to achieve objectives, is – “Conflict between divisions/functions in the company does not cause a waste of resources.” All factors are scored such that a low score indicates non-acceptance of the cultural dimension, while a high score indicates acceptance (Naidoo & Martins, 2014).

The overall reliability (Cronbach's alpha coefficient) of the SACI was measured at 0.94, and the internal consistency of the dimensions ranged from 0.73 to 0.94 (Naidoo & Martins, 2014).

1.6.5 Research process

Permission was granted by the acting head of the department to collect data among its staff members/employees. A list of all employees was obtained from the HR department. A letter from management explaining the importance of the study, an informed consent form, and the SAEM and SACI were distributed via a secure online link to the sample population. The researcher was the only person who administered, and had access to, the questionnaire responses.

1.6.6 Data gathering

The organisational culture and employee engagement data was collected from individuals via a secure online link. The completed SAEM and SACI were captured electronically, as the sample population submitted the responses via the secure online link. All data collected was stored electronically by the researcher. Access to this information was restricted to the researcher and an approved statistician.

1.6.7 Data analysis

Each questionnaire response was captured onto a computer software programme for the purpose of analysis and control. Statistical Programmes for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse the research data.
1.6.8 Discussion

The research findings were discussed in accordance with the research topic and the literature. Any contradictory findings were highlighted. Limitations of the study were mentioned, and recommendations for further research were suggested.

1.7 CHAPTER LAYOUT

The structure of the study, in terms of chapter layout, is as follows:

Chapter 2: Literature review
The aim of this chapter is to provide a conceptual analysis of the research variables, namely organisational culture and employee engagement. The practical implications of the relationship between organisational culture and employee engagement will be discussed.

Chapter 3: Empirical Study
This structure of this chapter will take the form of a research article. The methodology, data collection and analysis will be presented in this chapter. The measuring instruments will be disclosed, and statistical information from the data analysis, pertinent to the study objective, and the hypotheses, will be discussed.

Chapter 4: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations
The final chapter will contain an integrated discussion and conclusion of the results. Recommendations for the organisation will be presented, as well. Limitations experienced during the study will be noted, and recommendations made for future research and for the field of industrial and organisational psychology.

1.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The purpose of this research was to determine whether there is a relationship between organisational culture and employee engagement within a public service department. This chapter began by describing the background and motivation for the research. The aim of the study was then discussed. The paradigm perspective, research design, research method and the logical flow of the research were then
explained. The chapter concluded by providing an outline of the chapters to follow. Chapter 2 presents the first step in the literature study which conceptualises organisational culture.
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW: ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

The aim of this chapter is to review literature regarding the concept of organisational culture and its evaluation. The chapter will address key theoretical concepts relating to organisational culture, how it can be defined, development and aspects of culture, and the models used to describe the concept. It will further discuss the role that organisational culture plays in an organisation, as well as culture change, and will explore ways in which it can be measured.

The chapter will also address key theoretical concepts relating to employee engagement, how it can be defined and differentiated from other similar concepts, and the theories used to describe the concept. It will further discuss the development and antecedents of employee engagement in an organisation, and explore ways in which it can be measured. Lastly, the integration of the relationship between organisational culture and employee engagement will also be discussed.

2.1 INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE FOR STUDYING ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

According to Khan and Afzal (2011), organisational culture is an important aspect to be considered by dynamic organisations, in order to develop some competitive advantage to ensure enhanced organisational performance. Leaders can influence the way cultures evolve, positioning their organisation for a sustained competitive advantage which cannot be easily copied by competitors. One can view organisations’ cultures as the invisible webs their members spin over a period (Parumasur, 2012). They net values and expectations, and knit groups of people. A cultural web is the interplay of organisations’ paradigms, control systems, structures, power structures, symbols, rituals and routines, stories and myths (Parumasur, 2012). Visser and Van Dyk (2011) argue that organisational culture provides consistency in an institution by integrating diverse elements into a coherent set of assumptions, beliefs, norms, values and consequent behaviours. In fact, the
consistency, adaptability, and member involvement in an organisation’s culture, as well as the clarity of its mission, can predict organisational effectiveness.

Managers therefore use organisational culture to support the organisation’s strategy, prescribe acceptable ways to interact with external consistencies, guide staffing decisions, set performance criteria, select appropriate management styles, and enhance the performance and success of the organisation (Visser & Van Dyk, 2011). Organisational culture seems to offer a solution to improving organisational performance, and, hence, research into the culture of organisations has attracted much attention, due to its potential as a powerful management tool to improve the company’s performance (Oyewobi, Ibrahim, Ganiyu & Okwori, 2011). Organisational culture can function as a safety network to protect and guide an organisation. Organisational culture can thus be said to give organisations the competitive edge.

2.1.1 CONCEPTUALISATION OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Davidson (2003) argues that conceptualising organisational culture is a difficult task, due to the fact that there is little agreement on what the concept means, how it should be observed and measured, and how it relates to more traditional industrial and organisational psychology theories. Recently there seems to be a general agreement that organisational culture refer to a system of shared meaning held by members, distinguishing the organisation from other organisations (Robbins, Judge, Odendaal, & Roodt, 2015). This also supported by Hasan (2011) who indicated that the concept of organisational culture has gained wide acceptance as a way to understand human systems. Research suggests that there are seven primary characteristics that, in aggregate, capture the essence of an organisation’s culture (Robbins et al., 2009):

- **Innovation and risk-taking**: the degree to which employees are encouraged to be innovate and take risks.
- **Attention to detail**: the degree to which employees are expected to exhibit precision, analysis, and attention to detail.
- **Outcome orientation**: the degree to which management focus on results or outcome rather than on the techniques and process used to achieve these outcomes.
- **People orientation**: the degree to which management decisions take into consideration the effect of outcomes on people within the organisation.
- **Team orientation**: the degree to which work activities are organised around teams rather than individuals.
- **Aggressiveness**: the degree to which people are aggressive and competitive rather than easy-going.
- **Stability**: the degree to which organisational activities emphasise maintaining the status quo in contrast to growth.

In a research study undertaken by Weeks and Lessing (Weeks, 2010), it was found that organisational culture traditionally tended to be defined in terms of what could be described as being a set of cultural attributes, namely expectations, norms, philosophies, assumptions, values and beliefs, which employees of the organisation come to share through a group learning process, and that are manifest in organisational symbolism. It was further determined that the symbolic construction served as a means for organisational conceptualisation and as a means for deciphering the organisation’s culture, as well as achieving cultural change via symbolic manipulation (Weeks, 2010). Several constructs are commonly agreed upon – that organisational culture is holistic, historically determined, related to anthropological concepts, socially constructed, soft, and difficult to change (Hasan, 2011). In fact, for many companies, organisational culture can end up being more valuable than its own tangible assets.

A distinction is often made between dominant cultures and subcultures, strong culture and weak culture (Olasupo, 2011). The dominant culture represents the organisation’s core values. This has been interpreted to mean distinctive organisational “personality”, while subcultures are found in departments, divisions and geographical areas, and represent the common experience of employees who reside in those areas. In the case of large corporate organisations, the dominant culture resides in the corporate/head office (Olasupo, 2011). The subcultures of
various departments and geographical units must complement the dominant culture in the corporate office.

Given the various definitions and descriptions of the concept of ‘organisational culture’ that have been discussed in this section, the appropriate and applicable definition for this study is given by Naidoo and Martins (2014) as an integrated pattern of human behaviour which is unique to a particular organisation, and which originated as a result of the organisation’s survival process and interaction with its environment. In other words, organisational culture includes those qualities of the organisation that give it a particular climate or feel.

Research has placed a great deal of emphasis on whether culture and climate are different or similar, and, more recently, looked at how and why these two constructs can be interrelated, to offer a more complete and parsimonious interpretation of higher order social structures of an organisation (Naidoo & Martins, 2014). According to Denison (1996), climate develops from the deeper core of culture. The present study adopted the view taken by Denison and Schneider, who stated that culture and climate are not strongly differentiated, but are complementary constructs that represent different but overlapping interpretations of the nuances in the psychological life of organisations (Naidoo & Martins, 2014).

2.1.1.1 Defining Organisational Culture

The notion of culture, as recognised by the scientific community, has been around for a while. Organisational culture, as a construct of interest to organisational psychologists, emerged from thinking more closely aligned with anthropology and sociology (Zedeck, 2011). Before becoming relevant to the fields of psychology, education and management, it had been delineated and studied by archaeologists and anthropologists, who focused mainly on languages, traditions and artefacts (Vaimana & Brewster, 2015). So, various definitions of the concept of organisational culture have been given in the context of anthropology, organisational psychology and management theory (Struwig & Smith, 2000).
This argument is in line with the findings of Vaimana and Brewster (2015), who stated that there are numerous definitions of culture, and, taking into consideration different proxies used in social science literature (e.g. country of origin, world outlook and philosophy of life) to equate to culture, it is becoming increasingly difficult to come up with one definition that would satisfy everyone.

Organisational culture is a well-researched topic. A focus on organisational culture is of fairly recent origin. It is only from about the beginning of the 1980s that organisational culture studies have received serious attention from scholars (Peters & Waterman, 1982). This focus on organisational culture was strongly influenced by Japanese researchers such as Ouchi and Jaeger (1978), who claimed that a strong organisational culture resulted in economic success, as demonstrated by the accomplishments of numerous Japanese companies (Altman & Baruch, 1998). Culture is a powerful, tacit and often unconscious force which determines the behaviour of both the individual and the group, the way they perceive things, their thought patterns and their values (Harinarain, Bornman & Botha, 2013).

In his explanation of the origin of organisational culture, Schein (1985: p20) defined it as a group’s shared learning, or the development of its ability to survive (Harinarain et al., 2013). In order to survive, a company needs to have a mission or a reason for existing, definite goals relating to the mission, and sufficient means, such as structures, to reach its set goals. Organisational culture can be described as a “system of shared actions, values and beliefs that develops within an organisation and guides the behaviour of its members” (Weeks, 2010). Of specific relevance in this definition is the reference to culture as a system of shared cultural attributes that serve as a behavioural determinant. Schein (1985) characterised culture in three forms artifacts (technology, art, and visible and audible behaviour patterns), values (testable in the physical environment, testable only by social consensus), and basic assumption (relationship to environment, nature of reality, time and space, nature of human nature, nature of human activity, nature of human relations).

Schein (1985) described organisational culture as a pattern of basic assumptions invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough
to be considered valid, and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. It reflects the underlying assumption about the way the work is performed, about what is acceptable and not acceptable, and what behavior and actions are encouraged and discouraged cum the dos and don'ts in an organisation. (Olasupo, 2011, p. 161).

The present study adopted the following definition of organisational culture:

- ....an integrated pattern of human behavior which is unique to a particular organisation and which originated as a result of the organisation’s survival process and interaction with its environment. Culture directs the organisation to goal attainment. Newly appointed employees must be taught what is regarded as the correct way of behaving. (Naidoo & Martins, 2014, p. 433).

This definition is in line with, and also portrays, most of the characteristics of Schein’s (1990) definition.

2.1.1.2 The Development of Organisational Culture

When people join an organisation, they bring with them the values and beliefs they have been taught, but quite often these values and beliefs are insufficient for helping the individual succeed in the organisation (Luthans, 2008). Individuals also need to learn how the particular enterprise does things (Luthans, 2008). According to research in South Africa, culture building starts at the top of the organisation, with the chief executive (Robbins et al., 2009). He or she knows what kind of culture they want, and steers management towards the culture. Organisational climate, however, has a longer research tradition, due to the fact that it is directly observable and measurable (Davidson, 2003). Organisational culture is the younger sibling, and when the younger sibling arrived, it was initially more popular than organisational climate was in that period (roughly 1980-1995), as mentioned by Zedeck (2011).
At some time in the 1950s, interest began to grow in the study of organisations, by industrial psychologists. This area had, for a long time, been the focus of sociologists. In the 1960s, industrial psychology research took on a stronger organisational flavour, and more attention was given to social influences that impinge on behaviour in organisations (Muchinsky, Kriek & Schreuder, 2005). The focus of scholars in this field was on the human issues surrounding organisational effectiveness, especially on the roles of leadership and the larger social system in which people worked. During this period, organisational psychology began to differentiate itself from industrial psychology. Organisational psychology emphasises the psychological experience of the worker, examining how the relationships among people at work influence their job satisfaction and commitment, as well as their efficiency and productivity. Also, organisational psychologists assist employers in creating an organisational structure and culture that will motivate employees to perform well, give them the necessary information to do their jobs, and provide working conditions that are safe – resulting in an enjoyable and satisfying work environment.

Schein (as cited in Boehm-Davis, Durso and Lee, 2015) argued that the culture is created and changed by leaders, and that leadership and culture are two sides of the same coin. According to Schein, an organisation’s culture is created when a small group of people come together to work towards a common goal. In contrast, other researchers have argued that culture is the result of shared experience resulting in shared knowledge (Boehm-Davis et al., 2015). This is not to say that all experience leads to knowledge, and that all knowledge leads to culture. First of all, because culture is shared, knowledge should be shared, too. Moreover, for experience to become shared knowledge, it should be shared among (some of) the members of a group, and an agreement should be reached on what the experience is about and what the knowledge should entail (Boehm-Davis et al., 2015). Guldenmund (as cited in Boehm-Davis et al., 2015) has presented a more comprehensive model of how culture develops within a group.

Guldenmund’s model (shown in Figure 2.1) describes the process of organisational culture formation and its internalisation over time (Boehm-Davis et al., 2015). The model presents a continuous process of culture development that contains five
interrelated stages. The first stage is labelled "experiencing and explaining", and it involves group members trying to make sense of the experiences and events that they encounter. The second stage is labelled "agreeing and adjusting", and it involves group members sharing their understanding of reality through interaction and communication (i.e. dialogue, discussion and correction), resulting in mutual adjustments, agreements, and various expectations of each other’s behaviours. The third stage is labelled "standardising, norming, and institutionalising", and it involves the establishment of norms and the institutionalisation of behaviour and expectations. The fourth stage is labelled "collective experience and agreement". This stage involves the development of agreement that norms, standards and expectations are accepted, and are considered the best (or perhaps the only) way of doing things. This is often accomplished through training or, more informally, enculturation. The fifth stage is labelled "internalising", and it involves group members internalising the group understanding of reality to form the basic assumptions by which individuals within the group understand reality.

Figure 2.1: The development of organisational culture. Source: Adapted from Boehm-Davis et al. (2015).

Guldenmund’s model is in contrast to Schein’s (1990) model, wherein leaders directly create and shape the culture. Guldenmund’s model explains the development of culture for a group from the beginning of group formation, and presents culture formation and development as a fuzzy process that occurs over time, which makes it difficult to predict the outcome. Guldenmund has argued that attempts to impose particular standards without group consensus may not be
internalised but rather viewed as obligations (i.e. “the way we have to do things around here” instead of “the way we do things around here”) (Boehm-Davis et al., 2015). Although Schein (1990) argues that leaders shape the culture, he is not claiming that they impose the culture. Leaders shape the culture by creating specific experiences, and engaging with the group to guide culture development.

Denison and Mishra (1995) highlight that there have been two general approaches to culture research:

- the phenomenological approach, which emphasises the emergent and epiphenomenal nature of organisations, and
- the functionalist approach, which emphasises the predictable impacts of purposive, intentional forms of social organisation.

Several authors have attempted to integrate these two approaches, to try and improve the theoretical quality of the concept of organisational culture. Organisational culture is a notoriously complicated, abstract and complex construct field with many competing theories; therefore, it is not possible to provide a comprehensive review. On an empirical level, there is also increasing attention paid to the integration of approaches. Denison (1990) and Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv and Sanders (1990) each present empirical research that incorporates both qualitative and quantitative data, and that acknowledges the importance of both the functionalist and phenomenological perspectives. Other researchers have built on these principles, in an attempt to characterise and compare organisational cultures by means of empirical studies (Denison & Mishra, 1995).

2.1.1.3 Aspects of organisational culture

Certain aspects that are key to understanding the concept of organisational culture are outlined below.

a. Types and dimensions of organisational culture

There are two main types of models: dimensional models and typologies (Boehm-Davis et al., 2015). Dimensional models identify a range of aspects that can be used
to describe a culture. *Cultural typologies* describe a range of different types of cultures that can be used to classify organisations. Although culture can be said to be unique to each firm, in scope and content, some researchers divide organisational culture into various types (Davidson, 2003). This typology of organisational culture assists in understanding the ideological conflicts that arise within firms, and the deep-seated beliefs that exist about the way in which work should be done.

Several typologies characterise organisational cultures. The current study has focused on three typologies: those of Deal and Kennedy (1982), Handy (1985) and Schein (1985) (as cited in Parumasur, 2012).

Deal and Kennedy (1982) classify four organisational cultures types, which are described by Parumasur (2012) as follows:

- The ‘tough-guy macho’ culture, which is characterised by quick feedback, high rewards and stress.
- The ‘work hard, play hard’ culture, which is characterised by few risks and rapid feedback.
- The ‘bet your company’ culture, which is characterised by taking big stake decisions (and the passage of several years before any results materialise).
- The ‘process’ culture, with little (if any) feedback and few bureaucratic processes, but which produces consistent results.

Handy (as cited in Parumasur, 2012) classified four organisational culture types, as follows:

- **Power culture**, where a few people, who control the system with few rules and little bureaucracy, have all the power and make decisions effectively.
- **Role culture**, where people have clearly-delegated authority within a clearly-defined structure. It has hierarchical bureaucracies, and people’s positions determine their power.
- **Task culture**, where teams form to solve problems and manage projects or tasks. It thrives on expert power.
• **Person culture**, where people believe that they are superior to the organisation. People work and exist entirely for themselves.

Schein (1985) developed an organisational model that comprises three cognitive levels of organisational cultures, which are described by Parumasur (2012) as follows:

• The first and most cursory level comprises organisational attributes (e.g. facilities, offices, visible awards and recognition, furniture, dress, and interpersonal and intrapersonal employee interaction) that outsiders can see, feel and hear.

• The second level depicts the culture (such as company logos or trademarks, mission statements and value systems) of the members of the organisation.

• The third and deepest level comprises the organisation's unspoken, unseen and unconscious assumptions. They may relate to the nature of employee interaction, and may depict elements of the cultures that are taboo to discuss.

b. **Models of Organisational Culture**

• **Schein's Three Layer Organisational Model**: Schein (1985) differentiates between the elements of culture by treating basic assumptions as the essence or the core of culture, and values and behaviours as observed manifestations of the cultural essence. He contends that these are levels of culture, and that they should be carefully distinguished in order to avoid conceptual confusion:

  **Level 1: Artifacts.** The most visible level of culture is its artifacts and creations, consisting of its constructed physical and social environment. At this level, the researcher can examine the physical space, the technological output, written and spoken language, artistic productions and overt behaviour of the group. It is easy to observe artifacts, but it is difficult to figure out what they mean, how they interrelate and what deeper patterns, if any, they reflect (Schein, 1985).
Level 2: Values. Values are conscious, affective desires or wants, and they represent the things that are important to people (Davidson, 2003). In a sense, all cultural learning ultimately reflects someone’s original values, usually those of the founder of the organisation. The founder has convictions about the nature of reality and how to deal with it, and will propose a solution based on those convictions. If the solution works and the group has a shared perception of that success, the value gradually starts a process of cognitive transformation into a belief and, ultimately, an assumption. As they become assumptions, they drop out of consciousness, just as habits become unconscious and automatic. Many values, however, remain conscious and are explicitly articulated, because they serve as the moral function of the guiding members of the group in how to deal with certain situations (Schein, 1985).

Level 3: Basic Underlying Assumptions. When a solution to a problem works repeatedly, it comes to be taken for granted. What was once a hypothesis, supported only by a hunch or a value, is gradually treated as a reality. Basic assumptions become so taken for granted that one finds little variation within a cultural unit (Schein, 1985). Basic assumptions guide behaviour, and tell people how to perceive, think and feel about work, performance goals, human relationships and the performance of colleagues (Davidson, 2003). Basic assumptions are not generally confronted or debated, and can have the propensity to distort data in certain situations.

- Kotter and Heskett’s Culture Model: Kotter and Heskett describe culture as having two levels which differ in terms of their visibility and their resistance to change (Davidson, 2003). At the deeper, less visible, level, culture refers to values that are shared by the people in a group and that persist over time, even when the group membership changes. These notions about what is important in life can vary greatly from company to company. At this level, culture can be extremely difficult to change – partly because group members are often unaware of the values that bind them together. At the more visible level, culture represents the behaviour patterns or style of an organisation that
new employees are automatically encouraged to follow. Culture in this sense is still difficult to change, but not nearly as difficult as the level of basic values.

Kotter and Heskett further highlight that culture is not synonymous with a firm’s strategy or structure, although the terms are sometimes used interchangeably because they play an important part in shaping people’s behaviour (Davidson, 2003). The beliefs and practices called for in a strategy may or may not be compatible with a firm’s culture.

- Hofstede’s Manifestations of Culture: Hofstede et al. (1990) classify the manifestation of culture into four categories, namely symbols, heroes, rituals and values. Symbols are words, gestures, pictures or objects that carry a particular meaning within a culture. Heroes are persons, alive or dead, real or imaginary, who possess characteristics highly prized in the culture, and who thus serve as models for behaviour (Davidson, 2003). Rituals are collective activities that are technically superfluous but socially essential within a culture, and can be considered to be carried out for their own sake.

Symbols, heroes and rituals can be subsumed under the term ‘practices’ because they are visible to an observer, although their cultural meaning lies in the way they are perceived by insiders (Davidson, 2003). The core of culture is formed by values, in the sense of broad, non-specific feelings of good and evil, beautiful and ugly, normal and abnormal, rational and irrational, that are often unconscious and rarely discussable (Hofstede et al., 1990). These values cannot be observed as such, but are manifested in alternatives of behaviour (Hofstede et al., 1990).

- Denison’s Culture and Effectiveness Model: Denison’s (1990) model of culture and effectiveness presents the interrelations of an organisation’s culture, its management practices, its performance and its effectiveness. The model highlights the importance of linking management practices with underlying assumptions and beliefs when studying organisational culture and effectiveness. The values and beliefs of an organisation give rise to a set of
management practices, which are concrete activities usually rooted in the values of the organisation. These activities stem from, and reinforce, the dominant values and beliefs of the organisation. There are four key cultural traits:

**Involvement:** This trait consists of building human capability, ownership and responsibility. Organisational cultures characterised as highly involved strongly encourage employee involvement and create a sense of ownership and responsibility. They rely on informal, voluntary and implied control systems, rather than formal, explicit, bureaucratic control systems (Denison, 1990).

**Consistency:** Consistency provides a central source of integration, coordination and control. Consistent organisations develop a mindset of organisational systems that create an internal system of governance based on consensual support (Denison, 1990).

**Adaptability:** Adaptability is the ability to translate the demands of the business environment into action. Organisations hold a system of norms and beliefs that support the organisation's capacity to receive, interpret and translate signals from its environment into internal behaviour changes that increase its chances for survival and growth (Denison, 1990).

**Mission:** This trait consists of the definition of a meaningful, long-term direction for the organisation by defining a social role and external goals for the organisation. It provides a clear direction and goals that serve to define an appropriate course of action for an organisation and its members (Denison, 1990).

- **Martins model:** The model is based on the work of Schein (1985) to describe organisational culture, and is useful to managers who are trying to understand and manage culture. The model is based on the interaction between three key elements: the organisation's subsystems (goals and values, and structural, managerial, technological and psych-sociological
subsystem), survival functions – namely the external environment (social, industrial and corporate culture), internal systems (artefacts, values and basic assumptions) and the dimensions of culture (Martins & Von der Ohe, 2006). These dimensions encompass the following: leadership, means to achieve objectives, vision and mission, image of the organisation, management processes, employee needs and objectives, internal relationships, external environment, and diversity strategy.

c. The Role of Culture in the Organisation

According to Brown (1995), many researchers emphasise that culture is an asset, and that a large number of functions in the organisation can be attributed to organisational culture. Davidson (2003) suggests that the culture of an organisation defines appropriate behaviour and bonds, motivates individuals, and asserts solutions where there is ambiguity. It is also important to explore the role of organisational culture in order to gain a deeper understanding of its benefits. The role of organisational culture is crucial to the understanding of organisational behaviour, and organisational culture has a strong influence on employees' behaviour and attitudes (Manetjie & Martins, 2009). Employees' behaviour includes their commitment to their respective organisation (Manetjie & Martins, 2009).

The role that organisational culture plays in an organisation can be divided into the functions of organisational culture and the influence that organisation culture has on the different processes in the organisation (Luqman, Ahmed, Bashir & Inalegwu, 2011). The functions of organisational culture can be summarised as internal integration and coordination. Internal integration can be described as the socialising of new members in the organisation, creating the boundaries of the organisation, the feeling of identity among personnel and commitment to the organisation, while the coordinating function refers to creating a competitive edge, making sense of the environment in terms of acceptable behaviour and social system stability – which is the social glue that binds the organisation together.
Brown (as cited by Luqman et al., 2011) indicates that the following are the more widely commented-upon functions of culture:

- **Conflict reduction.** Culture has been described as the cement or glue that bonds an organisation together, and plays a large role in fostering social cohesion. A common culture promotes consistency of perception, problem definition, evaluation of issues and opinions, and preferences for action. Given that there are strong tendencies for organisations to be highly conflictual and antagonistic, culture is a useful source for integration and consensus.

- **Coordination and control.** Culture, in the form of stories and myths, provide the agreed norms of behaviour or rules that enable individuals to reach agreement on how to organise, in general, and the process by which decisions should be reached, in particular. Where a complex decision has to be taken, organisational culture may even help narrow the range of options to be considered. Culture is also a powerful means of control in organisations, in the form of values, beliefs, attitudes and, especially, basic assumptions. Cultural preconceptions effectively delimit the extent to which employees are free to express their individuality in a way which is far more subtle and beguiling than an organisation’s formal control systems, rules and procedures.

- **Reduction of uncertainty.** The transmission of learning or cultural knowledge to new recruits is an important function of culture. It is through the adoption of a coherent culture that members learn to perceive reality in a particular way, to make certain assumptions about which things are important, how things work, and how to behave. The adoption of a cultural mind frame is an anxiety-reducing device which simplifies the world, and makes choices and rational action seem possible. All organisations are confronted with overwhelming uncertainty, conflicts of interest and complexity. However, through a culture’s myths, metaphors, stories and symbols, an organisation is able to construct its own world. This is usually a world in which complexity is reduced, uncertainties are neutralised, and the organisation’s ability to exert control over its own activities is maximised.
• **Motivation.** Organisational culture can be an important source of motivation for employees, and thus has a significant influence on the efficiency and effectiveness of the organisation. Organisations often attempt to use extrinsic factors to motivate employees, but motivational attempts are far more effective if employees are also motivated by intrinsic factors. Organisational culture is of great importance here, as an appropriate and cohesive culture can offer employees a focus of identification and loyalty, foster beliefs and values which encourage employees to think of themselves as high performers doing worthwhile jobs, and promulgate stories, rites and ceremonies which create feelings of belonging.

• **Competitive advantage.** A strong organisational culture can be a source of competitive advantage, because a strong culture promotes consistency, coordination and control, reduces anxiety, enhances motivation, facilitates organisational effectiveness – and therefore improves the chances of being successful in the marketplace.

2.1.1.4 Changing Organisational Culture

In theory, culture change programmes start with an analysis of the existing culture (Armstrong, 2006). Companies appear to be increasingly concerned with the necessity to focus on change. Culture diagnoses help organisations to at least know where they are, before changing for any of these reasons, and all of these changes have cultural implications (Zedeck, 2011). For instance, a focus on efficiency may result in changes in core assumptions about people and the implicit obligations between the organisation and its employees. According to Luthans (2008), sometimes an organisation determines that its culture has to be changed, based on current environmental context, and has undergone drastic change such as advanced information technology and economy.

On the other hand, changing culture is much more difficult than changing climate. The organisational climate is different from organisational culture, and is defined as people’s perceptions and attitudes about the organisation – whether it is a good or bad place to work, friendly or unfriendly, hardworking or easy-going, and so forth (French & Bell, 1999).
Organisational climate is the team spirit or psychological climate at organisational level, because it represents the shared perceptions, by the employees, of organisations and their work environments. These perceptions are relatively easy to change, because they are built on employees’ reactions to current managerial and organisational practices. Researchers found that psychological climates relate strongly to employees’ levels of job satisfaction, involvement, commitment and motivation (Martins & Coetzee, 2011).

When cultures are strong, they are naturally more difficult to change, and may not respond immediately to changes in business strategy. If the leaders of the organisation want new behaviour and values to be adopted in order to ensure the survival of the organisation, they cannot merely formulate a strategy and expect it to be implemented if it involves a change in culture (Davidson, 2003). The members of the organisation will have to experience an initial incidence of success before they will be convinced that the new direction and associated values, actions and behaviours required are acceptable (Davidson, 2003).

In a strong organisational culture, employees value the organisation’s core values and share them, and this reduces employee turnover because it demonstrates high agreement about what the organisation represents (Martins & Coetzee, 2011). When group members agree about work values, they will develop a strong culture, and reach value consensus using visible similarities between group members. 'Organisational values' refers to some of the deep-level diversity characteristics that people share (Martins & Coetzee, 2011). It is very difficult, both theoretically and empirically, to prove that all values relating to human behaviour and attitudes in a workplace are determined by culture: "A simple test of significance of the difference between group means is not sufficient to conclude that differences between the entities are indeed cultural" (Vaimana & Brewster, 2015, p155).

A comprehensive change programme may be a fundamental part of an organisational transformation programme (Armstrong, 2006), but culture change programmes can focus on particular aspects of the culture – for example, performance, commitment, quality, customer service, teamwork and organisational learning (Armstrong, 2006). The ultimate conclusion of a number of culture
researchers is that the best way for organisations to handle organisational change is to create a culture that has, at its core, the values of constant improvement and adaptation (Zedeck, 2011). Schein (1985) describes the creation of organisational culture as a dynamic learning process.

Armstrong (2006) mentions levers of change. These levers could include, as appropriate:

- **Performance** – performance-related or contribution-related pay schemes, performance management processes, gainsharing, leadership training and skills development;
- **Commitment** – communication, participation and involvement programmes, developing a climate of cooperation and trust, and clarifying the psychological contract;
- **Quality** – total quality and continuous improvement programmes;
- **Customer service** – customer care programmes;
- **Teamwork** – team building, team performance management and team rewards;
- **Organisational learning** – taking steps to enhance intellectual capital and the organisation’s resource-based capability, by developing a learning organisation; and
- **Values** – gaining understanding, acceptance and commitment through involvement in defining values, performance management processes and employee development interventions.

Brown (1995) indicates that culture change is difficult to realise, because most employees in an organisation have a high emotional stake in the current culture. People who have been steeped in the traditions and values of an organisation, and whose philosophy of life may well be caught up in the organisation’s cultural assumptions, will experience considerable uncertainty, anxiety and pain in the process of change. For many middle and senior managers, change may also seem to bring a loss in status, loss of power over resources, and less security. Even if there are personal gains to be made from altering the habits of a lifetime, these are
likely to be seen as potential or theoretical only, in comparison with the certainty of
the losses. These multiple sources of perceived risk will usually result in resistance
to change – which is often culturally based, gradually leading to the failure of the
culture change strategy.

Organisational culture is an essential part of organisational success. Armstrong
(2006) maintains that a good culture exerts a positive influence on organisational
behaviour, and it could help to create a ‘high-performance’ culture, one that will
produce a high level of business performance. This is supported by cultural change,
which has a real influence on financial return (Khan & Afzal, 2011). Core
organisational values typically emphasise special themes such as performance
excellence, innovation, social responsibility, worker involvement, and quality of work
life (Khan & Afzal, 2011). Armstrong (2006) also expresses that the effectiveness of
culture change programmes largely depends on the quality of change management
processes. Luthans (2008) cautions that pragmatically changing an organisational
culture affects almost every aspect of the business. Robbins et al. (2015) state that
goals of planned change include improving the ability of the organisation to adapt to
changes in its environment. Luthans (2008, p. 85) mentions certain guidelines for
change that could be useful:

- Assess the current culture.
- Set realistic goals that impact the bottom line.
- Recruit experienced outside personnel to interact with organisational
  personnel regarding the change.
- Make changes from the top down – this promotes consistency.
- Include employees in the change process – especially when making decisions
  that will affect them.
- Take away all the trappings/reminders of the old culture.
- Expect some problems and losses early on – work with the people who are
  willing to move/change.
- Move quickly and decisively in order to sustain momentum.
- Stay on course – be persistent.
When a problem or opportunity arises which requires change, employees have much to contribute in terms of defining whether change really is required, and, if so, what form it should take. The researcher found the following challenges within public service departments, in terms of changing organisational culture (North West Department of Finance, 2014; DPSA, 2013; HR Survey, 2010):

- Inappropriate interference of politics in running of department administration
- Organisational culture that does not involve public servants in decision making.
- Public servants don’t know and understand their public service values that will influence them to feel that they belong to the public service.
- Manifestations of unethical behaviour by political and administrative leadership
- Consistent change in leadership may therefore create uncertainty and force changes insensitive to existing institutional norms and values, and cause employees who have critical expertise, and professionals, leave the department or public service. This may also lead to institutional memory loss and employees being disengaged.
- Power struggles between political office (as presented by Member of Executive Committee) and administration (as presented by Head of Department), between subcultures (professionals and general employees, and between leaders (senior, middle and junior managers)

It has been argued that one of the key methods of avoiding severe repercussions and resistance to change is to involve those affected in assessing the need for, and implementing, changes (Davidson, 2003).

2.1.1.5 Measurement of organisational culture

The challenge of assessing specific aspects concerning organisational culture has been considered and questioned for several decades (Hofstettera & Harpaz, 2015). In general, experts tend to use the term assessment instead of measurement to describe efforts to understand an organisation’s culture (Boehm-Davis et al., 2015).
A cultural assessment is a process intended to enable change agents to understand the basic assumptions that drive employee behaviours, appreciate the role that the leadership has played in embedding and reinforcing these behaviours, and realise how these assumptions will affect a contemplated change (Norton & Fox, 1997). Whether the change is more effective utilisation of a diverse workforce, installing self-directed teams, downsizing, re-engineering, reorganisation, the formation of a strategic alliance, or restructuring, the information will be invaluable in developing strategies to ensure success. Norton and Fox (1997) state that the purpose of the assessment is to bring to the surface implicit assumptions that are not a part of the employees' consciousness, and it is essential that the cultural assessment be done by an external consultant. According to Schein (as cited in Norton & Fox, 1997), there are two types of cultural assessment: (1) one that is done for those inside the organisation, to help them manage diversity issues for a specific aim or purpose; and (2) one that seeks to describe the full culture of an organisation in detailed terms for use in research or to define the culture for outsiders.

Guldenmund (as cited in Boehm-Davis et al., 2015) mentions that there are three main approaches to assessing organisational culture:

- **The anthropological approach** attempts to describe the culture, rather than to evaluate it. In this approach, one actively avoids trying to fit the organisational culture to some pre-existing model or framework, but instead tries to understand the culture without judging or evaluating it. Culture is not viewed as something that an organisation has, but rather as what the organisation is. A wide range of qualitative methods (e.g. ethnography, interviews and observation) is used to gain a deep understanding of a particular organisational culture.

- The **psychological approach** to assessing culture involves capturing employees' perceptions of the culture, using self-completion questionnaires that require participants to rate their level of agreement with a range of statements using a Likert-type scale. It is generally agreed that this methodology captures the climate and not the deeper aspects of the culture. Even if it is accepted that this approach is not capturing the entire depth of
culture, it can capture the outer layers of the culture and therefore provide valuable information.

- The **normative approach** to assessment involves comparing the culture to a predetermined ideal or cultural typology. This may involve determining the extent to which the organisational culture exhibits each of a list of traits or practices. Organisations can use these attributes to assess the extent to which their culture meets the requirements of a positive safety culture. Another normative strategy involves assessing the culture against a maturity model. This is done by placing an organisation’s culture on a continuum from poor to good, based on a theoretical framework or typology.

This study adopted the psychological approach. The main purpose is to capture employees’ perceptions of the organisational culture.

According to Boehm-Davis et al. (2015), there are four main phases to assessing organisational culture (i.e. initiation, implementation, interpretation and integration), regardless of the particular approach adopted:

- **Initiation phase**: Before attempting to assess organisational culture, it is necessary to create an assessment team with the knowledge and skills to undertake the assessment.

- **Implementation phase**: The form of the cultural assessment and how it is undertaken will be very different, depending on the methodology adopted, and, ideally, a multimethod approach should be adopted when assessing culture. Assessment methods that are commonly used include self-completion questionnaires, interviews, focus groups, observation and document analysis.

- **Interpretation phase**: Each of the methodologies outlined in this section uses different strategies (such as statistical analysis, thematic analysis and document analysis) for managing and interpreting the information produced.

- **Integration phase**: If a multimethod approach has been adopted, then the first step involves integrating the findings from the different methods by identifying commonalities among them.
The South African Culture Instrument (SACI) was locally developed for the South African context, and measures the extent to which employees identify with the various elements of the organisation’s existing and ideal culture (Naidoo & Martins, 2014). The SACI questionnaire, as a quantitative measurement, is usually supported by qualitative analysis such as focus groups and interviews (Martins & Von der Ohe, 2006). Several researchers adopted an empirical research approach in an attempt to measure organisational culture quantitatively, such as Harrison (1993), who developed a questionnaire based on his typology of cultures, which was employed in a study of organisational culture, Cooke and Lafferty’s (1989) Organisational Culture Inventory, the Organisational Culture Profile, the Organisational Norms Opinionnaire and Denison's Organisational Culture Survey. The SACI measures the following dimensions of culture: leadership means to achieve objectives, vision and mission, management processes, employee needs and objectives, internal relationship, external environment, and diversity strategy. The SACI adopted the Martins Model (1989).

In the past, researchers found that one of the problems eventually encountered in the organisational culture stream of research, like that in climate research, was the inability of culture researchers to demonstrate a relationship of their diagnoses with organisational effectiveness.

The researcher believes that the diagnosed findings demonstrate a relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness. This is supported by research findings of the roles and functions of organisational culture in the organisations, and is also supported by the findings of Zedeck (2011), who stated that the direct empirical link of organisational culture to organisational performance and effectiveness had been somewhat elusive until the more recent survey approaches to assessing culture demonstrated such relationships. Cross-sectional studies demonstrate that organisational behavior and culture are correlated with company performance (Kazdin, 2000). Lastly, assessing organisational culture is a complex process that requires both expertise in a range of methods and the skills to interpret and integrate the output of these methods.
2.2 INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE FOR STUDYING EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

Employee engagement is important, as it contributes to an organisation’s competitive advantage and improved performance (Nienaber & Martins, 2014). Employee engagement was described more recently by Marais and Hofmeyr (2013, p.11 as a complex phenomenon, defined physically, intellectual and emotionally as follows: “I am here; my mind and my feelings are on the job and with the people around me”. Employee engagement is a two-way relationship between employer and employee that exists to create positive organisational performance. In this decade, as mentioned by Marais & Hofmeyr (2013) competitive advantage is determined by staff improvement and engagement.

Engagement has been shown, through meta-analysis, to relate to indicators of performance such as customer satisfaction, turnover, safety and productivity (De Waal & Pienaar, 2013). Employee engagement is a desirable condition, has an organisational purpose, and connotes involvement, commitment, passion, enthusiasm, focused effort and energy, so it has both attitudinal and behavioural components (Janse van Rensburg et al., 2013). Higher levels of employee engagement are associated with increased return on assets, higher earnings per employee, higher performance, greater sales growth, and lower absenteeism (Xu & Thomas, 2011).

In 2009, the UK government commissioned a research study to review employee engagement. The researchers found compelling evidence that there is a correlation between better organisational outcomes and higher levels of employee engagement – and, more specifically, between higher levels of profitability and higher levels of employee engagement (MacLeod & Clarke, 2010). The research evidence linking employee engagement with performance and other important organisational outcomes, has generated a widespread belief among senior executives and HR practitioners that improving and sustaining high levels of employee engagement is good for business (Robertson, Birch & Cooper, 2012).

When engaged, an employee is understood to be physically involved, cognitively alert and emotionally attached (Simpson, 2008). Engaging employees is an
important strategy for organisations, for various reasons, one being that engagement may contribute to the psychological well-being of individuals at work (Rothmann & Baumann, 2014). The physical component of engagement refers to having high levels of energy and mental flexibility while working, being willing to put extra effort into one’s work, and persisting in the face of difficulties. The emotional component entails a strong involvement with one’s work, and also when one experiences a sense of worth, interest, self-importance and challenge. The cognitive component refers to being completely focused and contently immersed in one’s work, but experiencing difficulty to disconnect from the work as time draws nearer to leave one’s work until the next day.

It should be noted that various researchers have argued for the significance in differentiating between the types of engagement, because they differ in their respective antecedents and consequences (Simpson, 2008). Rothmann and Welsh (2013) state that engaged employees have a sense of purpose and focused energy that is displayed in personal initiative, adaptability, effort and persistence towards an organisation’s goals. Rothmann, Jorgensen and Marais (2011) also state that engaged employees are able to deal with the demands of their position.

Employees, firstly, have the capacity to engage when organisations provide the necessary information and training opportunities to do the job well, as well as a supporting structure which contributes to the employee’s ability to perform (Engelbrecht, Heine & Mahembe, 2014). Secondly, employees will be motivated to engage in their work when they are treated with respect and are valued by the organisation (Engelbrecht et al., 2014). Employee engagement is a specific type of well-being that is strongly influenced by the intrinsic motivation of individuals (Van Schalkwyk, Du Toit, Bothma & Rothmann, 2010).

In addition to humanistic reasons for pursuing engagement, there are also commercial incentives: higher levels of employee engagement are associated with an increased return on assets, higher earnings per employee, higher performance, greater sales growth and lower absenteeism (Xu & Thomas, 2011). Further, greater engagement is associated with decreased costs – including reduced turnover, lower costs of goods sold, and fewer quality errors. Lastly, the needs of businesses to
maximise the inputs of employees have also contributed to the interest in engagement, and within the public service environment it is to improve service delivery and outcomes for their communities.

2.2.1 CONCEPTUALISATION OF EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

Maslach and Leiter (2008) state that conceptualised engagement is the opposite of burnout: the former stands for a feeling of involvement, energy and being effective, as opposed to feeling exhausted, or being cynical and ineffective, which are the manifestations of burnout. This fits with other recent psychological approaches that draw on positive psychology, and focus on making the best use of individual strengths (Xu & Thomas, 2011). Thus, employees who are engaged in their work have an energetic, enjoyable and effective connection with their work. Conceptualisation of employee engagement resonates with established debates in the literature on organisational culture, particularly questions of organisational actors belonging to an organisation (Reissner & Pagan, 2013). Kahn introduced the concept of employee work engagement in the academic literature. He conceptualised engagement as “the harnessing of organisation members’ selves to their work roles: in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, emotionally and mentally during role performances” (Hartung, Savickas & Walsh, 2015, p.427).

The concept of engagement was developed to explain what traditional studies of work motivation overlooked, namely that employees offer up different degrees and dimensions of themselves according to some internal calculus that they consciously and unconsciously compute (Dik, Byrne & Steger, 2013). The engagement concept is framed on the premise that workers are more complicated than this, and the concept also captures the process of moving in and out of roles. Engagement can also be the steady state, punctuated by interludes of relative disengagement (Dik et al., 2013). Engagement refers to the emotional, rational and motivational connection that people have with their organisation (Marais & Hofmeyr, 2013). Theoretically, engagement is grounded in desire theory (Van Zyl, Deacon & Rothmann, 2010), which focuses on need gratification, rather than the pursuit of pleasure, to increase happiness. Xu and Thomas (2011) mention that employee engagement concerns the
degree to which individuals make full use of their cognitive, emotional and physical resources to perform role-related work.

Masson, Royal, Agnew and Fine (2008) point out that the engagement concepts used by consultants encompass, in some combination, affective commitment (pride in the organisation, willingness to recommend the organisation as an employer), continuance commitment (intention to remain with the organisation), discretionary effort (feeling inspired by the organisation, being willing to go above and beyond formal role requirements), and linking engagement to the organisational level. The academic literature, however, generally refers to engagement at the work level (Nienaber & Martins, 2014). Employee engagement consists of three dimensions, namely vigour, dedication and absorption (Stander & Rothmann, 2010). Vigour is characterised by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working. Dedication refers to being strongly involved in one’s work and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge. Absorption is characterised by being fully concentrated on, and happily engrossed in, one’s work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulty detaching oneself from work. Marais and Hofmeyr (2013, p.14) mention a similar three dimensions of employee engagement, shown in Figure 2.2, below:

- **Cognitive think**: How well employees understand their roles and responsibilities (the “thinking” part of the equation)
- **Affective feel**: How much passion and energy they bring to their work (the “feeling” part of the equation)
- **Behavioural act**: How well they perform in their roles (the “acting” part of the equation)
Individual purposes are the broader context in which to ground one's understanding of engagement and meaningful work (Dik et al., 2013). Engagement that represents the foreground of a worker's role performance requires individuals to feel some connection with the work that they do.

Because employee engagement will vary among individuals in the same job, and from task to task, it is important to understand the psychological conditions contributing to employee engagement, as well as its antecedents (Rothmann & Welsh, 2013). Engagement at work is not simply about the effort and vigour that people put forth, it is also about people fully employing their selves—calling forth and expressing their selves in the performance of their roles (Dik et al., 2013).

Macey and Schneider (2008) distinguish between three broad conceptualisations of employee engagement, namely state engagement (feelings of energy, absorption, satisfaction, involvement, commitment and empowerment), trait engagement (positive views of life and work, proactive personality, autotelic personality, trait positive effect and conscientiousness) and behavioural engagement (extra role...
behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), proactive and personal initiative, role expansion and adaptation). State engagement can be seen as an extension of the self to a role, is central to the engagement issue, and is an antecedent of behavioral engagement (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Trait engagement (engagement as disposition) “can be regarded as an inclination or orientation to experience the world from a particular vantage point and that this trait engagement gets reflected in psychological state engagement” (Cowardin-Lee & Soyalp, 2011). Behavioural engagement “can be regarded as a directly observable behaviour in the work context” (Cowardin-Lee & Soyalp, 2011, p.274).

2.2.1.1 Defining employee engagement

A great deal of disagreement exists among researchers on the definition of engagement. But the widely cited definition in the literature is that of emotional and intellectual commitment to the organisation (Mishra, Sharma & Bhaskar, 2015). Schneider (as cited in Mishra et al., 2015) defines engagement as enthusiasm regarding work, absorption in work, and high energy towards work. According to Bhuvanaiah and Raya (2014), when the approach is to identify the advantages associated with engagement concerning the organisation, the definitions derived accordingly are represented in Table 2.1, below. Various definitions furnished in the table give a common notion that is, engagement is a degree, which exists to certain extent.
Table 2.1: Definitions of Employee Engagement. **Source:** Adapted from Bhuvanaiah and Raya (2014, p.63).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Perspective</th>
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<tr>
<td>Kahn (1990)</td>
<td>The harnessing of organisation members' selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively and emotionally during role performances.</td>
<td>The study unearthed the engagement concept from individual perspective. Very initially, identified that the engagement levels in an individual varies and proposed three psychological conditions essential for an employee to be engaged: meaningfulness, safety and availability.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kerstin, Alfes et al. (2010)</td>
<td>Being positively present during the performance of work by willingly contributing intellectual effort, experiencing positive emotions and meaningful connections to other.</td>
<td>Organisational perspective. The report emphasised on identifying engagement levels in different settings to suggest organisations to develop strategies for engaged workforce.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors</td>
<td>Definition</td>
<td>Perspective</td>
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<tr>
<td>Harter, Schmidt and Hayes</td>
<td>Individual's involvement and satisfaction with, as well as enthusiasm for, work.</td>
<td>Organisational perspective. The study reviewed business outcomes associated with employee engagement meta analytically and identified that higher level of engagement is positively associated with business outcomes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DDI (2005)</td>
<td>The extent to which people value, enjoy, and believe in what they do.</td>
<td>Individual perspective. The report worked on extensively identifying various factors that result in to higher levels of engagement. The study focused on conceptual understanding and conditions favourable for employee to be engaged.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schaufeli and Salanova (2002)</td>
<td>Positive, fulfilling, work related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption.</td>
<td>Individual perspective. The definition speaks about employee engagement with work activities. The study brought out the concept from burnout literature. Focused on core aspects of engagement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Truss et al. (2006)</td>
<td>Passion for work.</td>
<td>Organisational perspective. Broadened the scope of Kahn's (1990) study. The report undertook a study to identify factors that raise the level of motivation and thereby engagement levels of employees in the UK.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors</td>
<td>Definition</td>
<td>Perspective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Leadership Council (2004)</td>
<td>The extent to which employees commit to something or someone in their organisation, how hard they work and how long they stay as a result of that commitment.</td>
<td>Organisational perspective. The report focused on key business outcomes associated with employee engagement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robinson (2004)</td>
<td>A positive attitude held by the employee towards the organisation and its values. An engaged employee is aware of business context and works with colleagues to improve performance within the job for the benefit of the organisation. The organisation must work to develop and nurture engagement which requires a two-way relationship between employer and employee.</td>
<td>The study even though emphasized on aspects of engagement. The focus is on exhibiting the advantages associated with engaged employees in an organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wellins and Concelman (2004)</td>
<td>Illusive force that motivates employees to higher levels of performance.</td>
<td>Organisational perspective. The focus of the study is to identify the contribution of engagement in achieving higher performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors</td>
<td>Definition</td>
<td>Perspective</td>
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<td>---------------------------------</td>
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<td>-------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Janson and Janson</td>
<td>The degree to which employees are satisfied with their jobs, feel valued, and experience collaboration and trust. Engaged employees will stay with the company longer and continually find smarter, more effective ways to add value to the organisation. The end result is a high performing company where people are flourishing and productivity is increased and sustained.</td>
<td>Organisational perspective.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(as cited in Catteeuw, Flynn &amp; Vonderhorst (2007))</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macey, Schneider, Barbera and Young (2009)</td>
<td>Individual's sense of purpose and focused energy, evident to others in the display of personal initiative, adaptability, effort, and persistence directed toward organisational goals.</td>
<td>Individual perspective. The study addressed the problem of conceptual ambiguity by providing definition of engagement. Engagement was described in terms of energy an employee experiences and exhibits to others in the process of accomplishing tasks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors</td>
<td>Definition</td>
<td>Perspective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
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<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blessing and White (2008)</td>
<td>Engagement as pertaining to maximum job satisfaction and maximum contribution.</td>
<td>Organisational perspective. The institute contributed an engagement model that gives a picture of different engagement levels of an individual according to his/her level of satisfaction and willingness to contribute to accomplishing tasks. The survey aims at identifying engagement levels worldwide and their impact on the organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenexa Work Trends Report (2012)</td>
<td>The extent to which employees are motivated to contribute to organisational success and are willing to apply discretionary effort to accomplishing tasks important to the achievement of organisational goals.</td>
<td>Organisational perspective, this report provides the five-year trend of engagement levels there by stating the role of employee engagement in predicting organisational outcomes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nienaber and Martins (2015)</td>
<td>Engaged employees at both the individual and organisational level, who are fully absorbed by, and enthusiastic about, their work, and so take positive action to further the organisation’s reputation and interests.</td>
<td>Individual and organisational perspective.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The researcher adopted the definition of Nienaber and Martins (2015, p.5), in that employee engagement refers to ‘engaged employees’ at both the individual and organisational level, who are fully absorbed by, and enthusiastic about, their work, and so take positive action to further the organisation’s reputation and interests.

2.2.1.2 The development of employee engagement

Engagement is seen as developing from a perspective of positive psychology, and focuses on human strengths and optimal performance, rather than on weaknesses and malfunctioning (De Waal & Pienaar, 2013), as engagement is a construct that falls within the same positive organisational behaviour paradigm (Bezuidenhout & Schultz, 2013). Engagement stresses the notion of positive attachment and optimal performance in the work environment in terms of well-being, with high levels of energy, involvement and commitment invested in one’s work (De Waal & Pienaar, 2013). Engagement is thus a positive, work-related state of well-being or fulfilment, where engaged employees have high levels of energy, are enthusiastic about, and show strong identification with, their work (De Waal & Pienaar, 2013).

According to the reviewed literature, six types of work-related engagement were identified: job engagement, organisation engagement, personal engagement, burnout/engagement, work engagement and employee engagement. It has been reported that employee engagement is likely to be connected to employees’ attitudes, intentions and behaviours, and that work engagement shows potential to constructively contribute to the employing organisations of the engaged employees (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010). In his model of engagement as an extension of the self, Kahn (1990) identifies three psychological conditions, psychological meaningfulness, psychological availability and psychological safety that shape personal engagement through contexts at work.

Psychological meaningfulness is defined as the feeling that one is receiving a return on investment of one’s self in a currency of physical, cognitive or emotional energy, while psychological availability refers to the readiness and confidence of an individual to engage in his/her work role (Rothmann & Baumann, 2014). Activities outside the workplace could draw individuals’ energies away from their work, and
make them less psychologically available for their work roles. These activities – and the time demands associated with them – are likely to distract an individual’s attention, so that he/she is unable to focus on his/her role tasks. Psychological safety refers to the experience of being able to act in a way that is natural, and to be able to use and employ all skills and knowledge in a role without having to fear ridicule or negative consequences (Rothmann & Baumann, 2014).

The Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) model is another theoretical approach to engagement. According to the JD-R model, the work environment can be divided into demands and resources (Saks, 2008). Job demands refer to physical, psychological, social or organisational features of a job that require physical and/or psychological effort from an employee, and are related to physiological and/or psychological costs (e.g. work overload, job insecurity, role ambiguity and role conflict) (Saks, 2008). Job resources refer to physical, psychological, social or organisational features of a job that are functional, in that they help achieve work goals, reduce job demands, and stimulate personal growth, learning and development (job control, performance feedback and social support) (Saks, 2008). When demands are low and individuals have the necessary resources to perform their roles and cope with demands, they will be more engaged. In addition, different theories such as the exchange theory and motivation theories are also used to explain engagement (Nienaber & Martins, 2014).

MacLeod and Clarke (2010) identify four key enablers/drivers to successful engagement:

- **Leadership** – provides a strong strategic narrative which has widespread ownership and commitment from managers and employees at all levels. The narrative is a clearly expressed story about what the purpose of an organisation is, why it has the broad vision it has, and how an individual contributes to that purpose. Employees have a clear line of sight between their job and the narrative, and understand where their work fits in. These aims and values are reflected in a strong, transparent and explicit organisational culture and way of working.
• **Engaging managers** – are at the heart of this organisational culture— they facilitate and empower, rather than control or restrict their staff. They treat their staff with appreciation and respect, and show commitment to developing, increasing and rewarding the capabilities of those they manage. Above all, they treat their staff and teams as human beings, not ‘human resources’.

• **Voice** – an effective and empowered employee voice – employees’ views are sought out. They are listened to, and see that their opinions count and make a difference. They speak out and challenge when appropriate. A strong sense of listening and responsiveness permeates the organisation, enabled by effective communication.

• **Integrity** – behaviour throughout the organisation is consistent with stated values, leading to trust and a sense of integrity. Organisations need to exhibit trust and authenticity where the espoused values of an organisation are lived for real – in other words, there is no gap between the rhetoric and the reality.

Bhuvanaiah and Raya (2014) suggested three forms of engagement (trait, state and behavioural) that would explain the multifaceted nature of engagement, in which engagement is considered to be not merely a psychological state, behaviour or attitude, but a combination that results in a complex construct. State engagement reflects the feelings of being engaged, while trait engagement focuses on the individual’s disposition to be engaged (Purcell, 2014). The behavioural engagement relates to the managerial practices that appear to be linked to employees becoming engaged (Purcell, 2014).

2.2.1.3 **Antecedents of employee engagement**

Employee engagement is one of the emerging concepts that will address multiple challenges organisations are facing – such as attrition, customer loyalty, customer satisfaction, profitability and business productivity (Bhuvanaiah & Raya, 2014). There is an argument from some researchers that employee engagement is similar to relative constructs such as job satisfaction (JS), organisational commitment (OC) and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Job satisfaction is an evaluation of an emotional state which results from both what an employee feels (affect) about his/her job and what he/she thinks (cognition) about the various aspects of his/her
Organisational commitment is a psychological state that drives employee–organisation bonding by governing an employee’s decision whether to continue their membership of the employing organisation and to exert their efforts to achieve organisational goals (Yalabik et al., 2013, p2803). Organ (as cited in Luthans, 2008) defines OCB as “individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promote the effective functioning of the organisation”.

Some researchers argue that employee engagement is a specific construct and it is distinct from other constructs such as OC, job involvement (JI) and OCB. Job involvement is primarily an individual function, and it is plausible to assume that in a motivational model it would be considered as a personal resource variable (Scrima, Lorito, Parry & Falgares, 2014). Robinson et al. (as cited in Bhuvanaiah & Raya, 2014) state that OC and OCB both have elements similar to those of engagement, but neither of the two constructs is equivalent to engagement, in nature. Engagement is not an attitude such as organisational commitment, in the degree to which an individual is absorbed with role performance. While OCB involves voluntary and informal behaviours that can help co-workers and the organisation, the core focus of engagement is one’s formal role performance, rather than extra-role and voluntary behaviour. Building on the personal engagement model, Saks (2006) adds two additional antecedents of employee engagement, namely rewards and recognition, and organisational support that might explain additional variance in employee engagement (Rothmann & Welsh, 2013).

Concerning rewards and recognition, Saks (2006) believes that employees vary in their engagement as a function of their perceptions of the benefits they receive from a role (e.g. a pay raise, job security, promotion, more freedom and opportunities, respect from co-workers, praise from the supervisor, training and development opportunities, more challenging work assignments, public recognition, or a reward or token of appreciation). Perceptions of return on investment can originate from external rewards and recognition, in addition to work being challenging and meaningful; therefore, employees will be more likely to engage in work if they perceive more rewards and recognition for their efforts (Rothmann & Welsh, 2013).
‘Perceived organisational support’ is defined as a general belief that an organisation cares about and supports its employees, and contributes to the satisfaction of employees’ needs for approval, esteem and affiliation (Rothmann & Welsh, 2013).

Positive antecedents to employee engagement within a management perspective are management principles and the management process, according to Medlin and Green (2014, p.26). As these authors point out, Fayol viewed principles as “the code that represented the sum total of truths at any given moment”, providing a general management perspective for practitioners that was flexible and adaptable to change and need. Violations of the management principles cause unnecessary frustration in employees, impeding their progress and success (Medlin & Green, 2014). The same researchers state that the management process relates directly to the functions of management (planning, organising, commanding, coordinating and controlling). Not adhering to the steps in the management process results in employees not knowing what is expected of them – also impeding progress and success.

2.2.2 MEASURING EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

It is interesting that despite this widespread interest in engagement, there is actually very little firm agreement on what exactly is meant by the term, and it is clearly the case that different practitioners make use of a variety of different items and scales to measure what they refer to as engagement (Robertson et al., 2012). This also mentioned by Meyer and Gagne (2008), in that there is currently a lack of consensus regarding the measurement of engagement and self-determination theory has been used to guide the measurement of engagement-relevant variables (e.g. need satisfaction, motivational states, psychological and behavioural outcomes) in a variety of contexts. It is argued that the construct itself and its measurement are not well developed (Nienaber & Martins, 2014). Typically, questionnaires used to measure this type of employee engagement use items that focus on commitment and other positive attitudes such as job satisfaction and attachment (Robertson et al., 2012). According to Meyer and Gagne (2008), engagement measures currently in use are not well suited to identify employees who may be actively disengaged.
One view of engagement, taken by some specialists, involves placing more emphasis on how the employee feels when he or she is completely engaged. This kind of approach sees the engaged employee as someone who is immersed in his or her work – sometimes even experiencing a state referred to as “flow” – a state that involves an intense period of concentration on what one is doing, to the extent that time distorts, seems to pass more quickly, and one’s awareness of self is minimal or even lost completely (Robertson et al., 2012). On the other hand, the view of engagement held by senior managers in organisations is that an engaged employee is aware of business context, and works with colleagues to improve performance within the job for the benefit of the organisation.

With its emphasis on the business context, performance and benefits to the organisation, this approach suggests a “business outcomes” perspective on engagement, in which employee engagement incorporates – and emphasises – constructs that are most closely connected with the relevant business outcomes (Robertson et al., 2012). This approach is much better aligned with the perspective taken by senior managers and by practitioners and researchers who promote the business benefits of employee engagement (Robertson et al., 2012). Robinson et al. (as cited in Robertson et al., 2012) also note that this formulation of engagement contains aspects of two established psychological constructs: organisational citizenship and commitment, although they also note that engagement is a broader construct and is not entirely synonymous with either.

Robertson and Cooper (2010) discussed the potential consequences of neglecting psychological well-being in conceptualising and measuring employee engagement, and point out that a narrow focus on positive attitudes such as employee commitment, organisational citizenship and employee attachment, although important for the leadership of the organisation, may be of less importance to employees. Robinson and Hayday (as cited in Marais & Hofmeyr, 2013), assert that research in the past focused on employee satisfaction, employee commitment and motivational approaches, whereas employee engagement encompasses all of these, including an individual’s emotional state.
2.2.2.1 South African Engagement Measurement (SAEM)

Nienaber and Martins (2015) developed a scale measuring employee engagement concurrently at the individual and organisational level, for a diverse, multicultural context (South Africa). The instrument consists of two sections: one collecting biographical/demographic information (gender, qualifications, experience and tenure) and one soliciting responses, using a five-point Likert scale, on statements about engagement at the individual level (50 statements such as “I feel positive about my work”), team/departmental level (12 statements such as “my team continuously strives to improve performance in line with our business objectives”) and organisational level (10 statements such as “our top management communicates the vision and mission to us”). The SAEM measures the following dimensions of employee engagement: customer service, immediate manager, organisational commitment, organisational satisfaction, team, strategy and implementation.

2.2.2.2 Utrecht Work Engagement Scale

Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma and Bakker (as cited in Saks, 2008, p.42) define engagement as “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption”. These authors designed a scale known as the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) that measures each of the three factors (vigour, dedication and absorption). The scale consists of 17 items that measure vigour (six items), dedication (five items) and absorption (six items). High levels on these three scales indicate that a person experiences a high level of engagement. Items are arranged along a Likert scale varying from 0 (‘never’) to 6 (‘every day’)

This conceptualisation of engagement is the most theoretically and empirically developed engagement construct in the literature. Work engagement is considered to be the positive opposite of burnout. According to Yalabik et al. (2013), work engagement is the most discussed and empirically validated form of employee engagement in the current academic literature, but it is not beyond criticism. Some studies suggest that the work engagement construct overlaps with other well-
established constructs such as job involvement, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, while other studies indicate the uniqueness of the work engagement construct compared with other employee attitudes (Yalabik et al., 2013). The UWES has been developed to identify the presence or absence of employee engagement and turnover intentions (Reissner & Pagan, 2013).

A number of measurement instruments are, nevertheless, available to measure the construct from different perspectives (Nienaber & Martins, 2015). Some authors raise issues in connection with these measurement instruments, and thus call for further research to clarify the current theories about engagement and to further develop – or at least refine – engagement measurement instruments (Nienaber & Martins, 2015).

2.2.2.3 **Gallup Model of Engagement**

This model was developed by Harter, Schmidt and Keyes (2003), and is based on Maslow's "hierarchy of needs", developed in 1970 (Ncube & Jerie, 2012). Starting at the bottom of the hierarchy, basic needs involve clarity of expectations and provision of basic materials such as PCs and faxes. At the next level, employees need to feel a sense of belonging. This involves participative decision making, and having meaningful relationships with co-workers and supervisors. Such resources reinforce communication and creativity. The peak of this hierarchy – in line with Maslow’s (1970) notion of self-actualisation, is self-development (Ncube & Jerie, 2012). For this to occur, employees need to be allowed to discuss their progress, and be given the opportunity to learn new skills and develop existing ones. When these factors come together, Harter et al. (2003) argue that they create the type of environment in which employees became engaged, and therefore more productive, hence a competitive advantage to the organisation.

2.3 **INTEGRATION: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT**

In a strong culture, the organisation’s core values are widely shared; therefore, the more the values are accepted by the employees, the more likely the employees are to be committed to the values, and the culture will be stronger (Martins & Martins, 2003). Organisational culture is deemed to be either strong or weak (Van Stuyvesant
Meijen, 2007). Muller (2009) states that the relationship between engagement and leadership behaviour suggests that engagement will improve when leaders are perceived to be inspiring. According to Schein (1990), there is now abundant evidence that corporate culture makes a difference to corporate performance (Caplan, 2011). An engaged employee is aware of the business context, and works with colleagues to improve performance within the job, for the benefit of the organisation. This is supported by the Towers Perrin-ISR annual survey, which showed that companies with high employee engagement levels also experienced a higher operating margin (up to 19 percent higher), net profit margin, revenue growth and earnings per share (up to 28 percent higher than companies with low employee engagement (Caplan, 2011).

Schultz, Van der Walt and Bezuidenhout (2011) cite key actions on two levels, required to create a culture that will facilitate engaged employees:

**Top management responsibility:**

- Formulating an organisational vision and mission that facilitates and encourages employees’ engagement on all levels.
- Managing employees’ talent through effective career development and talent management strategies.

**Middle management responsibility:**

- Move from being solution-generating goal achievers to becoming facilitators, coaches and mentors. Ensure that each person has an equal opportunity to make a distinctive contribution, and the sharing of information and ideas is imperative.
- Cooperation with co-workers that revolves around teamwork. Cooperation between co-workers should be instilled by ensuring the necessary resources, time and challenging work.
- The establishment of clear goals and expectations, aligned with the vision of the organisation.
- Unambiguous goals and expectations should be agreed upon by the manager and the employee.
• The level of trust in the workplace. The old saying still counts: "first trust others, then you will be trusted".

• Use clear, direct 360-degree communication. Downward communication (meetings, written documents, communicating through the union), upward problem solving (quality circles), task participation and financial involvement are ways to involve employees.

• Employees' responsibility to actively seek opportunities to grow knowledge, expand skills, and experience new challenges. It is a good idea that the manager and employee should generate a personal development plan at the beginning of each year. During this discussion with the employee, the necessary commitment can be explained to him or her.

• Employees must think of themselves as operating their own businesses, as suppliers of valuable services that are in high demand. Employees should be introduced to the concept of being intrapreneurs, and become 'business minded' within an organisation.

• Employees should have a clear, shared picture and understanding of the importance of their efforts in the overall success of the business. This conviction ensures the completeness of the circle – which brings one back to Step 1, namely alignment with the vision of the organisation.

Research indicates that an organisational culture and employee engagement create excellent organisational performance (Paul, 2012). Organisational culture in general has been strongly linked with excellent organisational performance (Paul, 2012). High-performing organisations do not take organisational culture change, brought on by events such as mergers, for granted. Instead, they build a strong capacity to change, in order to sustain employee engagement – which is considered to be a critical attribute. Paul also maintains that it is possible to create an engaged workforce and establish a post-merged organisational culture of excellent performance by implementing employee engagement by means of the "ten Cs of employee engagement":

• Connect. Leaders need to demonstrate that they value employees. Employee engagement is a direct reflection of how employees perceive their relationship with their immediate superiors.
- **Career.** Leaders are required to provide challenging and meaningful work with relevant career advancement opportunities.
- **Clarity.** Leaders need to communicate a clear vision to their employees. Employees, on the other hand, need to understand what the organisation’s goals are, why they are important and how the goals can best be attained.
- **Convey.** Leaders need to clarify their expectations about employees and provide feedback on their functioning in the organisation.
- **Congratulate.** Employees require feedback and recognition. Leaders, in turn, provide coaching and mentoring to ensure sustained achievement.
- **Contribute.** Employees want to know that their contributions are making a difference and that they are adding value to the organisation’s success in a meaningful way.
- **Control.** Employees value the opportunity to take charge of the flow and pace of their jobs, and leaders can create an environment in which employees can exercise this control.
- **Collaborate.** Leaders should foster an environment in which employees are encouraged to enter into collaborative efforts. Studies show that when employees work in teams, and have the trust and cooperation of their team members, they outperform those who do not have good relationships.
- **Credibility.** Leaders should strive to maintain the organisation’s reputation, and demonstrate their allegiance to the values of the organisation through consistently high ethical standards.
- **Confidence.** Leaders need to instil confidence among employees in the organisation by demonstrating high ethical and performance standards.

The Towers Perrin study also found ten top drivers of engagement in both Europe and the United States of America – as illustrated in Table 2.2 (Bussin, 2012). Organisational culture is acquiring support as a predictive and explanatory construct in organisational studies, has been linked to job satisfaction and commitment, and is perceived to be a central determinant of overall organisational efficacy (Naidoo & Martins, 2014). According to Nienaber and Martins (2014), the role employee engagement plays in sustaining competitive advantage could lead to improved business results and successful organisational performance. Naidoo and Martins’s
(2014) research study found that most of the dimensions of organisational culture correlate positively with work engagement dimensions.

Byrne (2015) mentions the following drivers or factors that encourage engagement: meaningfulness, alignment, relationship, communication, the job itself, personal values and good leadership.

Table 2.2: Top 10 drivers in Europe and United States of America. **Source:** Adapted from Bussin (2012).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Europe 10 top engagement drivers</th>
<th>United States of America</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senior management interest in employees</td>
<td>Senior management interest in employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to improve skills</td>
<td>Challenging work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior management to demonstrate values</td>
<td>Decision-making authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenging work</td>
<td>Company focus on customer satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision-making authority</td>
<td>Career advancement opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company reputation as a good employer</td>
<td>Company reputation as a good employer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to influence company decisions</td>
<td>Collaboration with co-workers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company focus on customer satisfaction</td>
<td>Resources to get job done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair and consistent pay determination</td>
<td>Ability to influence company decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall work environment</td>
<td>Senior management vision</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research to date suggests seven actions to create a culture for employees to become engaged:

- the right amount of resources;
- an ability to manage work stressors;
- trust to feel safe to fully invest themselves in the work task;
- an interpersonal leader creating connection and a meaningful vision;
- ability to create and find meaning in the work;
- support and connection with others at work, allowing them to focus on the job and align themselves with the organisation’s values; and
• job-organisational fit

These are illustrated and summarised in Table 2.3. One way to provide these seven components to employees is to have an organisation with an organisational culture that supports the components, as well as employees who proactively seek ways to become and stay engaged (Byrne, 2015). Employees’ experience of organisational culture tells them what to believe about the workplace, how to behave at work, what they will be rewarded for, the organisation’s values, and to what extent they become connected to the organisation and its members (Byrne, 2015). Organisations that create a culture for engagement maximise the probability that their employees will be engaged at work, because they have provided the resources and fostered the relationships that are believed to trigger engagement (Byrne, 2015).

Table 2.3: Actions organisations can take to create culture for engagement. Source: Adapted from Byrne (2015).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Actions</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Resources</td>
<td>• Training, scheduling flexibility, mentors or expert employees, organisational support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Transformational or interpersonal leaders who emphasise both vision and employee relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Access to necessary information, equipment or materials for creativity and job task completion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Scheduling flexibility, workload distribution strategies, job control, voice to suggest process improvements, appropriate autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing work stressors</td>
<td>• Supervisory support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>• Job fit for stress-tolerant or hardy personalities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Leadership trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Transparent and frequent communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Climate of justice or fairness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>Connection</td>
</tr>
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<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Interpersonal and/or transformational</td>
<td>• Create climate that promotes and encourages friendship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• High accountability</td>
<td>• Matrix structures that require cross-team collaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Trustworthy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Empowerment</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Byrne (2015) states that research in engagement and leadership shows that transformation leadership is positively related to engagement. Organisational cultures differ, as do country cultures. Examining cross-cultural research on organisational commitment, job involvement and citizenship behaviour may provide insight into the development of hypotheses about engagement across cultures (Byrne, 2015). According to Byrne (2015), engagement needs to be defined and understood from within each country's culture perspective – for example, there are eleven (11) official languages in South Africa, with each reflecting a unique culture.

Employee engagement promotes a positive service climate and customer loyalty. Organisational resources and employee engagement predict service climate which, in turn, predicts employee performance and then customer loyalty (Cascio & Boudreau, 2008). In achieving competitive advantage, organisations must find a way to create and then sustain the level of energy and passion that people bring to their work. The way to do that is by creating and sustaining a culture where engagement is not only the norm, but one which attracts the kinds of people who are disposed to...
doing well in that kind of environment (Macey, Schneider, Barbera & Young, 2009). Employee attitudes drive not only customer service, but also turnover (Macey et al., 2009).

Culture may have an impact on engaging employees for, instead, workers place high priority on financial rewards in relation to how satisfied they are at work, but elsewhere it’s about simple connections and involvement, meeting the more altruistic and basic human needs of feeling connected, and being an important part in something bigger (Engage your employees, 2014), and whether it’s participating in community events, celebrating co-workers or fostering more open communication, organisations that build a culture where employee involvement matters can "nail" employee engagement and create a great place to work. Essentially, as employee engagement strategy falls within the domain of HR, industrial and organisational psychologists and HR professionals are tasked with the responsibility of creating the employee value proposition that influences employees' experience of an organisation, its values and culture.

Naidoo and Martins (2014) conducted research at an ICT company in South Africa, and the aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between organisational culture and work engagement, utilising both the (SAEM) and the (SACI). In line with previous research, correlation analysis indicated a statistically positive relationship between each of the variables of organisational culture and work engagement, respectively. Regression analysis revealed that leadership, management processes and goals, as well as objectives, made the strongest statistically unique contribution in predicting the dimensions of work engagement.

As work engagement is shown it relate to several positive work outcomes, it makes sense for organisations to increase their employees' levels of work engagement by addressing and improving organisational culture, as it was mentioned previously that work engagement dimensions overlap with employee engagement dimensions. Employee engagement is a broader concept than work engagement – which may include the employee’s professional or occupational role and his or her relationship with the organisation, while work engagement refers to the (individual) employee’s work (Nienaber & Martins, 2014). Figure 2.3 provides an overview of the dimensions
of organisational culture and employee engagement which was investigated in this research.

![Diagram of organisational culture and employee engagement dimensions](image)

*Figure 2.3: Model of organisational culture and employee engagement dimensions. Source: Own.*

Lastly, as employee engagement strategy falls within the domain of HR, industrial and organisational psychologists and the HR professionals are tasked with the responsibility of creating the employee value proposition that influences employees' experience of an organisation, its values and culture.

### 2.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter began with the rationale for studying organisational culture, and an overview of its conceptualisation, how it can be defined, and the development of the concept. In order to understand the concept of culture in more detail, the components of culture were then described, including the types of culture and the theoretical models that are used to describe its various components. The role that culture plays in an organisation was also described, and the debate about the ability
to change the culture of the organisation was mentioned. The measurement of organisational culture was also discussed.

The second part of the chapter studied the rationale of employee engagement, as well as an overview of its conceptualisation, how it can be defined, and the development of the concept, in order to understand the concept of engagement in more detail, and also the components of engagement. The antecedents of employee engagement in an organisation were also described. The discussion of measurement of employee engagement was briefly mentioned. The chapter concluded with the integration of the relationship between organisational culture and employee engagement. In the next chapter, Chapter 3, the empirical findings of the study are discussed, in the form of a research article.
CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH ARTICLE: INVESTIGATING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT IN A PUBLIC SERVICE DEPARTMENT

ABSTRACT

Orientation: An organisation that establishes a culture for engagement maximises the probability that its employees will be engaged at work because it has provided the resources and fostered the relationships that are believed to trigger engagement.

Research Purpose: The main purpose of the present study was to investigate the relationship between organisational culture and employee engagement. A secondary aim was to investigate whether organisational culture predicts employee engagement.

Motivation for the study: To determine whether any relationship exists between organisational culture and employee engagement in a public service department.

Research design, approach and method: A quantitative research design was undertaken in a public service department. The systematic sampling method was used. The population consisted of the 453 permanent employees of the North West Department of Finance (n=453). All the employees were formally invited to participate in the research, but the eventual sample consisted of 162 (n=162) respondents who completed the SACI and SAEM questionnaire. Descriptive statistical analysis, factor analysis and regression analysis, as well as reliability analysis and correlation calculations, were performed.

Main findings: Correlation analysis showed that certain dimensions of organisational culture correlated positively with employee engagement dimensions. Furthermore, regression analysis revealed that the culture dimension of leadership
made the strongest statistically unique contribution in predicting the dimensions of employee engagement.

**Practical implications:** The research findings showed that certain employee engagement dimensions relate to several positive work outcomes. It therefore makes sense for the organisation to establish a culture of engagement, in order to maximise the probability that its employees will be engaged at work.

**Contribution/Value add:** The findings of this study indicate that there is a relationship between organisational culture and employee engagement. This is supported by previous findings, and suggests that organisational culture relates to employee engagement. The results also indicate that certain dimensions of culture predict employee engagement. In an industrial and organisational psychology context, scientific understanding of the potential relationship between these constructs can be beneficial, and contribute to the mounting body of knowledge related to the theory of organisational culture, organisational behaviour, employee engagement and positive psychology in the work domain.

**Keywords:** antecedents, employee engagement, government, leadership, organisational culture, public service department

*Please note: the guidelines provided by the South African journal of Industrial Psychology have been applied as a broad and general framework for the research article.*

### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

The following section intends to clarify the focus and background of the study. General trends found in the literature will be presented, as well as the objectives and potential value added by the research.

#### 3.1.1 Key focus of the study

Organisations all over the world are changing rapidly (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011). These changes are in terms of structure, workforce composition, reward system,
service contracts, technology and information, and are the results of technological, economic and political developments. These changes also affect other aspects of the functioning of the organisations, such as organisational culture (OC) and organisational commitment. For decades, researchers have determined that an organisation's culture leads to a significant competitive advantage in the business environment (Naidoo & Martins, 2014). An organisational culture can also be of competitive advantage in public service departments. The public service departments have undergone significant changes, in order to redress the injustices of the past. The public service departments should understand their organisational culture profile and engagement levels of their employees, so that workforce diversity and transformation can be significantly enhanced.

The ubiquitous and permeating nature of an organisation's culture demands that organisations identify the fundamental dimensions of their OC and the effects thereof on employee-related variables such as work engagement (Naidoo & Martins, 2014). Since public servants are expected to be committed and engaged to their work; therefore, the current research focused on employee engagement, because it is a broader concept than work engagement, which may include the employee’s professional or occupational role and his or her relationship with the organisation, while work engagement refers to the (individual) employee’s work (Nienaber & Martins, 2014).

Higher levels of employee engagement are associated with increased return on assets, higher earnings per employee, higher performance, greater sales growth, and lower absenteeism (Xu & Thomas, 2011). Engagement has, through meta-analysis, been shown to relate to indicators of performance such as customer satisfaction, turnover, safety and productivity (De Waal & Pienaar, 2013). An organisation that establishes a culture for engagement maximises the probability that its employees will be engaged at work because it has provided the resources, and fostered the relationships, that are believed to trigger engagement (Byrne, 2015).

3.1.2 Background to the study
According to Wagner (1995), organisational culture has a strong influence on employees' behaviour and attitudes. Organisational culture involves standards and norms that prescribe how employees should behave in any given organisation (Martins & Martins, 2009). Managers and employees do not, therefore, behave in a value-free vacuum; they are governed, directed and tempered by the organisation's culture (Manetjie & Martins, 2009). Employees' behaviour includes their commitment to their respective organisations. Given the dynamics of culture and human behaviour, it is important to study how employees commit themselves to their organisation.

If an organisation does not have employees who are committed to the organisation and engaged in their work, strategy implementation and execution, as well as change, will be difficult – if not impossible (Naidoo & Martins, 2014). According to Dyer (2009), an engaged employee is one who knows what his/her organisation does, can articulate its competitive advantage accurately and with passion, cares about its customers, and communicates with colleagues even in informal settings. Understanding the conditions under which individuals would actively engage, while others would disengage, is highly relevant for both employees and employers. This study focused on organisational culture and employee engagement in a public service department. The current research focused on employee engagement – which is a broader concept than work engagement, and which may include the employee’s professional or occupational role and his or her relationship with the organisation, while work engagement refers to the (individual) employee’s work. As far as could be ascertained, a study of this nature had not been done in public service departments, up to the present time.

3.1.3 Trends from the literature research

The following section provides a brief discussion of the literature on the constructs of organisational culture and employee engagement.

3.1.3.1 Organisational culture
Davidson (2003) argues that conceptualising organisational culture is a difficult task, due to the fact that there is little agreement on what the concept means, how it should be observed and measured, and how it relates to more traditional industrial and organisational psychology theories. Leaders can influence the way cultures evolve, positioning their organisation for a sustained competitive advantage, which cannot be easily copied by competitors.

According to Khan and Afzal (2011), organisational culture is an important aspect to be considered by dynamic organisations, in order to develop some competitive advantage to ensure enhanced organisational performance. Visser and Van Dyk (2011) argue that organisational culture provides consistency in an institution by integrating diverse elements into a coherent set of assumptions, beliefs, norms, values and consequent behaviours. In fact, the consistency, adaptability and member involvement in an organisation’s culture, and the clarity of its mission, might influence organisational effectiveness.

Managers use organisational culture to support the organisation’s strategy, prescribe acceptable ways to interact with external consistencies, guide staffing decisions, set performance criteria, select appropriate management styles and enhance the performance and success of the organisation (Visser & Van Dyk, 2011). Culture is a powerful, tacit and often unconscious force which determines the behaviour of both the individual and the group, the way they perceive things, their thought patterns and their values. These cultural elements determine strategy, goals and modes of operation. One can view organisations’ cultures as the invisible webs their members spin over a period (Parumasur, 2012).

Recently, there seems to be a general agreement that organisational culture refers to a system of shared meaning held by members, distinguishing the organisation from other organisations (Robbins et al., 2016). Schein (1985) describes organisational culture as a pattern of basic assumptions invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. (Schein, 1985).
The present study adopted the following definition of organisational culture:

- ... an integrated pattern of human behaviour which is unique to a particular organisation and which originated as a result of the organisation's survival process and interaction with its environment. Culture directs the organisation to goal attainment. Newly appointed employees must be taught what is regarded as the correct way of behaving (Naidoo & Martins, 2014, p. 433).

This definition is in line with, and also portrays most of the characteristics of, Schein's (1990) definition. There also seems to be a wealth of OC models, such as Schein's Three Layer Organisational Model (1985), Kotter and Heskett’s Culture Model (1992), Hofstede's Manifestations of Culture (1990) and Denison’s Culture and Effectiveness Model (1990), which attempt to explain the relationships between OC and related constructs. Martins (1989) also developed a model based on the work of Schein (1985), to describe OC (Naidoo & Martins, 2014). The model is based on the interaction between three key elements: the organisation’s subsystems, survival functions and the dimensions of culture (Naidoo & Martins, 2014). More relevant to the present study are the following dimensions of culture: leadership, means to achieve objectives, vision and mission, management processes, employee needs and objectives, internal relationship, external environment and diversity strategy.

The present study adopted Martin's Model (1989). The model is based on the interaction between three key elements: (1) the organisation’s subsystems (goals and values, and structural, managerial, technological and psych-sociological subsystem); survival functions (namely the external environment – social, industrial and corporate culture, and internal systems (artefacts, values and basic assumptions); and, the dimensions of culture (Martins & Von der Ohe, 2006).

The challenge of assessing specific aspects concerning organisational culture has been considered and questioned for several decades (Hofstettera & Harpaz, 2015). In general, experts tend to use the term assessment instead of measurement to describe efforts to understand an organisation’s culture (Boehm-Davis et al., 2015).
A cultural assessment is a process intended to enable change agents to understand the basic assumptions that drive employee behaviours, appreciate the role that the leadership has played in embedding and reinforcing these behaviours, and realise how these assumptions will affect a contemplated change (Norton & Fox, 1997).

Changing culture is much more difficult than changing climate (French & Bell, 1999). The organisational climate is different from organisational culture. Organisational climate is defined as people’s perceptions and attitudes about the organisation – whether it is a good or bad place to work, friendly or unfriendly, hardworking or easy-going, and so forth (French & Bell, 1999, p. 76). When cultures are strong, they are naturally more difficult to change and may not respond immediately to changes in business strategy. If the leaders of the organisation want new behaviour and values to be adopted in order to ensure the survival of the organisation, they cannot merely formulate a strategy and expect it to be implemented if it involves a change in culture (Davidson, 2003).

3.1.3.2 Employee engagement

Maslach and Leiter (1997) conceptualised engagement as the opposite of burnout: the former stands for a feeling of involvement, energy and being effective, as opposed to feeling exhausted, or being cynical and ineffective – which are the manifestations of burnout. When engaged, an employee is understood to be physically involved, cognitively alert, and emotionally attached (Simpson, 2008). Employee engagement was described more recently by Marais and Hofmeyr (2013, p.11) as a complex phenomenon, defined physically, intellectual and emotionally as follows: “I am here; my mind and my feelings are on the job and with the people around me”. Employee engagement is a two-way relationship between employer and employee that exists to create positive organisational performance.

In this decade, competitive advantage is determined by staff improvement and engagement (Marais & Hofmeyr, 2013). Rothmann and Welsh (2013) state that engaged employees have a sense of purpose and focused energy that is displayed in personal initiative, adaptability, effort and persistence towards an organisation’s goals. Employee engagement is important, as it contributes to an organisation’s
competitive advantage and improved performance (Nienaber & Martins, 2014). Engaging employees is an important strategy for organisations.

For various reasons, in addition to humanistic reasons for pursuing engagement, there are commercial incentives also, in that higher levels of employee engagement are associated with increased return on assets, higher earnings per employee, higher performance, greater sales growth and lower absenteeism (Xu & Thomas, 2011). Further, greater engagement is associated with decreased costs – including reduced turnover, lower costs of goods sold, and fewer quality errors. Lastly, the needs of businesses to maximise the inputs of employees have also contributed to the interest in engagement, and within the public service environment it is to improve service delivery and outcomes for the communities involved.

Marais and Hofmeyr (2013, p.14) mention three dimensions of employee engagement (Figure 3.1):

**Cognitive think:** How well employees understand their roles and responsibilities (the “thinking” part of the equation)

**Affective feel:** How much passion and energy they bring to their work (the “feeling” part of the equation)

**Behavioral act:** How well they perform in their roles (the “acting” part of the equation)

Kahn introduced the concept of employee work engagement in the academic literature. This fits with other recent psychological approaches that draw on positive psychology and focus on making best use of individual strengths (Xu & Thomas, 2011). Engagement may contribute to the psychological well-being of individuals at work (Rothmann & Baumann, 2014). Kahn conceptualised engagement as “the harnessing of organisation members’ selves to their work roles: in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, emotionally and mentally during role performances” (Hartung et al., 2015, p.427).
Kahn (1990) defines employee engagement as the harnessing of organisation members’ selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performance. Robinson (2004) describes employee engagement as a positive attitude held by the employee towards the organisation and its values. The researcher adopted the definition of Nienaber and Martins (2015), in that employee engagement refers to ‘engaged employees’ at both the individual and organisational level, who are fully absorbed by, and enthusiastic about, their work, and so take positive action to further the organisation’s reputation and interests.

There is an argument from some researchers that employee engagement is similar to relative constructs such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job involvement and organisational citizenship behaviour, and some researchers argue that employee engagement is a specific construct and is distinct from them. It is argued that the construct itself, and its measurement, are not well developed (Nienaber & Martins, 2014). Typically, questionnaires used to measure this type of employee engagement use items that focus on commitment and other positive attitudes such as job satisfaction and attachment (Robertson et al., 2012). According to Meyer and Gagne (2008), engagement measures currently in use are not well
suited to identify employees who may be actively disengaged. More relevant to the present study are the dimensions of employee engagement, namely customer service, immediate manager, organisational commitment, organisational satisfaction, team, strategy and implementation, as developed by Nienaber and Martins (2015).

3.1.3.3 The relationship between organisational culture and employee engagement

Research found that strong organisational culture and employee engagement create excellent organisational performance (Paul, 2012). Organisational culture, in general, has been strongly linked to excellent organisational performance (Paul, 2012). High-performing organisations do not take organisational culture change, brought on by events such as mergers, for granted. Instead, they build a strong capacity to change, in order to sustain employee engagement – which is considered to be a critical attribute. Paul (2012) also maintains that it possible to create an engaged workforce and establish a post-merged organisational culture of excellent performance by implementing employee engagement by means of the ‘ten Cs of employee engagement:

- **Connect.** Leaders need to demonstrate that they value employees. Employee engagement is a direct reflection of how employees perceive their relationships with their immediate superiors.
- **Career.** Leaders are required to provide challenging and meaningful work, with relevant career advancement opportunities.
- **Clarity.** Leaders need to communicate a clear vision to their employees. Employees, on the other hand, need to understand what the organisation’s goals are, why they are important, and how the goals can best be attained.
- **Convey.** Leaders need to clarify their expectations about employees, and provide feedback on their functioning in the organisation.
- **Congratulate.** Employees require feedback and recognition. Leaders, in turn, provide coaching and mentoring, to ensure sustained achievement.
- **Contribute.** Employees want to know that their contributions are making a difference, and that they are adding value to the organisation’s success in a meaningful way.
Control. Employees value the opportunity to take charge of the flow and pace of their jobs, and leaders can create an environment in which employees can exercise this control.

Collaborate. Leaders should foster an environment in which employees are encouraged to enter into collaborative efforts. Studies show that when employees work in teams, and have the trust and cooperation of their team members, they outperform those who do not have good relationships.

Credibility. Leaders should strive to maintain the organisation’s reputation, and demonstrate their allegiance to the values of the organisation through consistently high ethical standards.

Confidence. Leaders need to instil confidence among employees in the organisation by demonstrating high ethical and performance standards.

According to Sirisetti (2012), developing a culture where people know that their work matters and that their contributions to the organisation's goals are valued, are two of the most important factors when it comes to engaging employees. Other factors that are important to employees are the following:

- Interesting/challenging work
- Good rapport/interaction with co-workers/colleagues/managers
- Opportunities for professional growth and development
- Receiving regular, balanced feedback from managers (redirect and reinforcing)
- Clear objectives and expectations
- Meaningful recognition, being valued and respected
- Receiving fair pay

Employee engagement promotes a positive service climate and customer loyalty. Organisational resources and employee engagement predict service climate, which in turn, predicts employee performance and then customer loyalty (Cascio & Boudreau, 2008). In achieving competitive advantage, organisations must find a way to create and then sustain the level of energy and passion that people bring to work. The way to do that is by creating and sustaining a culture where engagement is not only the norm but one which attracts the kinds of people who are disposed to doing
well in that kind of environment (Macey et al., 2009). Employee attitudes drive not only customer service, but also turnover (Macey et al., 2009). Culture may have an impact on engaging employees, for, instead, workers place high priority on financial rewards in relation to how satisfied they are at work, but elsewhere it’s about simple connections and involvement, meeting the more altruistic and basic human needs of feeling connected, and being an important part in something bigger.

More relevant to the present study are the dimensions of organisational culture and employee engagement, as illustrated in Figure 3.2.

![Figure 3.2: Model of organisational culture and employee engagement. Source: Own.](image)

In the light of the literature study, the following hypotheses were empirically set:
H1: There is a statistically significant positive correlation between each of the dimensions of organisational culture and employee engagement, respectively.

H2: Organisational culture is a statistically significant predictor of the dimensions of employee engagement.

3.1.4 Research objectives

The main objectives of the study were to do the following: (1) investigate the relationship between each of the dimensions of organisational culture and employee engagement, respectively; (2) determine if organisational culture dimensions are statistically significant predictor of the dimensions of employee engagement; and (3) investigate the significant difference between demographical groups.

3.1.5 Potential value add of the study

Investigating the relationship between organisational culture and employee engagement scientifically could greatly increase the new body of knowledge for both theories of organisational culture and employee in the work domain. It can be seen from the literature and research findings of the present study, that the organisational culture and employee engagement play significant roles in the lives of employees and organisations. An investigation of the relationship between organisational culture and employee engagement could make a unique contribution towards the understanding of organisational behaviour. The public service department's capacity to retain its employees triggered a need to foster a positive culture, and to ensure that employees remain engaged in their work. The present study goes further by empirically testing the relationship between the two constructs.

3.1.6 What will follow

The following section will provide an explanation of the research design, outlining the research approach and method applied. The results will then be presented, followed by a discussion of the findings, with a focus on significant results and the interpretation of these in the light of previous research. Conclusions will be
presented and discussed, and limitations pointed out. Finally, implications for practice and recommendations for future research will be proposed.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is a strategic framework for action that serves as a bridge between research questions and the execution or implementation of the research (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). The research design and the methodology were outlined in Chapter 1.

3.2.1 Research approach

A scientific quantitative survey was used to achieve the research objectives and to test the hypotheses. A quantitative research approach implies that the hypotheses were explicitly stated, formulated beforehand, and measured through the use of measuring instruments. The systematic sampling method, correlation and regression data analysis techniques were applied, which offered plausible ex post facto explanations for the relationships between each of the dimensions of organisational culture and employee engagement, respectively, and the predictive value of the dimensions of organisational culture.

3.2.2 Research method

3.2.2.1 Participants and sampling

The population consisted of the 453 permanent employees of the North West Department of Finance (N=453). Employees from 23 different departments and one (1) sub-directorate within two (2) branches, as well as one (1) chief directorate, were involved in the study. All the employees were formally invited to participate in the research, but the eventual sample consisted of 162 (N=162) respondents who completed the questionnaire. Several of the employees were away on leave or business, or had to attend to tasks that did not allow them to participate in the survey. A total of 7% (12) usable questionnaires were captured manually, and 93% (150) were completed directly via an online link, by participants. A response rate of 36% of the population was attained.
Table 3.1: Biographical and demographic profile of the respondents (N= 162).
Source: Own.

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<td>Branch: Sustainable</td>
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<td>Chief Directorate: Macro-Economic Analysis and</td>
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3.2.2.2 Measuring instruments

South African Engagement Measurement (SAEM)

Nienaber and Martins (2015) developed a scale that measures employee engagement concurrently at the individual and organisational level, for a diverse, multicultural context (South Africa). The instrument consists of two sections: one collecting biographical/demographic information (gender, qualifications, experience and tenure) and one soliciting responses, using a five-point Likert scale, on statements about engagement at the individual level (50 statements such as “I feel positive about my work”), team/departmental level (12 statements such as “my team continuously strives to improve performance in line with our business objectives”) and organisational level (10 statements such as “our top management communicates the vision and mission to us”). The SAEM measures the following dimensions of employee engagement: customer service, immediate manager, organisational commitment, organisational satisfaction, team, strategy and implementation.

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to determine the factorial structure, and Cronbach’s alpha was used to establish the internal reliability of the scale and its subscales. The internal reliability and construct validity were confirmed by means of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The reliability analysis was calculated for all dimensions, and all yielded adequate Cronbach’s alpha values between 0.895 and 0.951. The minimum cut-off of 0.70 was recommended (Nunnally, 1978).
South African Culture Instrument (SACI)

The South African Culture Instrument (SACI) was locally developed for the South African context, and measures the extent to which employees identify with the various elements of the organisation’s existing and ideal culture (Naidoo & Martins, 2014). Respondents make use of a 5-point Likert scale to rate each statement. A low rating (1) indicates that the respondent strongly disagrees, and a high rating (5) indicates strong agreement. A typical question for the Leadership dimension is “My immediate manager sets an example everyone can follow – he/she walks the talk.” A typical question for Means to achieve objectives is: “Conflict between divisions/functions in the company does not cause a waste of resources.” All factors are scored such that a low score indicates non-acceptance of the cultural dimension, while a high score indicates acceptance (Naidoo & Martins, 2014). The SACI measures the following dimensions of culture: leadership, means to achieve objectives, vision and mission, management processes, employee needs and objectives, internal relationship, external environment and diversity strategy.

The overall reliability (Cronbach's alpha coefficient) of the SACI was measured at 0.94, and the internal consistency of the dimensions ranged from 0.73 to 0.94 (Naidoo & Martins, 2014).

3.2.3 Research procedure

Permission to conduct the study was obtained from the head of the department within which the study was conducted. The survey was conducted by means of a web-based questionnaire application, and a hard copy was attached for those participants who preferred to complete it manually. Survey questionnaires were sent electronically via the department’s electronic communication system, to 453 employees.

In the invitation e-mail, it was clearly stated that participation was voluntary, and that no information provided would be linked to the identity of a specific person (i.e. anonymity would not be compromised). The collected information was captured via a database management system commonly referred to as SharePoint 2010, which was also used to monitor and ensure that all the electronically submitted
questionnaires were received correctly. The collected data was analysed and cleaned by eliminating incomplete responses and extreme scores (outliers). The collected data was included in the final data set for statistical analysis.

3.2.4 Statistical analysis

The data was analysed by means of the Statistical Program for Social Science (SPSS) Version 22. The statistical techniques employed were descriptive statistical analysis and inferences statistics (factor analysis, reliability analysis, and correlation and regression analysis).

3.3 RESULTS

The purpose of the research study was to investigate the relationship between each of the dimensions of organisational culture and employee engagement, respectively, and to determine if the dimensions of organisational culture predict employee engagement. In this section, the culture profile, engagement levels, factor and regression analysis, and reliability and intercorrelations of the measuring instruments, are presented. This is followed by multiple regression analysis to test Hypothesis 2.

3.3.1 Factor and reliability analysis SACI and SAEM Questionnaire

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) was used to determine measurement sample adequacy. As indicated in Table 3.2, below, the KMO test for measuring sample adequacy, and Bartlett's test of sphericity, displayed satisfactory results. The KMO value (0.901) was greater than 0.7, which means that the data set was likely to factor well, while Bartlett's test of sphericity reached statistical significance (p=.000). Both diagnostic tests confirmed that the data was suitable for factor analysis.
Table 3.2: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity of the South African Culture Instrument. Source: Own.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy</th>
<th>0.901</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Approx. Chi-Square</td>
<td>7435.245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bartlett's test of sphericity</td>
<td>df 1770</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.3 illustrates that the KMO-MSA value was measured at (0.896), the value is greater than 0.7, which means that the data set was likely to factor well, while Bartlett’s test of sphericity reached statistical significance (p=.000). Both diagnostic tests confirmed that the data was suitable for factor analysis.

Table 3.3: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity of the South African Engagement Measurement. Source: Own.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy</th>
<th>0.896</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Approx. Chi-Square</td>
<td>6050.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bartlett's test of sphericity</td>
<td>df 1225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The underlying structures of the SACI and SAEM used in the research were determined through principle component factor analysis – a statistical method that estimates how much variance, due to common factors, is shared between a set of variables (communality) (Naidoo, 2014).

Five factors of employee engagement and six factors of organisational culture were postulated, according to Kaiser’s criterion, and extracted by means of a principal component analysis – also called principal axis factoring. The initial factors of engagement were six, and of culture were seven. All factors with an eigenvalue of
less than one were eliminated for both engagement and culture, which resulted in a total of eleven factors. Principal axis factoring was used to assess whether the instrument measured substantive constructs. The dimensions are presented in tables 3.4 and 3.5. One dimension from the culture questionnaire was eliminated due to low loadings, namely *External environment*. With regard to the employee engagement questionnaire, the dimensions of *Organisational satisfaction* and *Organisational commitment* were combined into one dimension, namely *Organisational satisfaction*. (See Annexure A for the factor analysis and Annexure B for the organisational culture and employee engagement questionnaire.

Reliability of the culture and engagement subscales was determined using Cronbach’s alpha coefficient, and is presented in tables 3.4 and 3.5. The Table 3.4 results of the culture reliability analysis show that the construct reliability coefficients ranged from 0.86 to 0.94. As explained previously, the recommendation for a suitable criterion for established instruments is around 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>N of items</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Means to Achieve Objectives</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vision and Mission</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management Processes</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee Needs and Objectives</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Relationships</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.4: Reliability of the culture questionnaire. *Source*: Own.
Table 3.5: *Reliability of the engagement questionnaire.* **Source:** Own.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>N of items</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Customer Service</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immediate Manager</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategy and Implementation</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational Satisfaction</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.5 indicates the results of the reliability analysis for employee engagement. All yielded adequate Cronbach’s alpha values between 0.77 and 0.93.

### 3.3.2 Descriptive statistics

The culture of the organisation was measured using the SACI, and employee engagement was measured using the SAEM, as discussed earlier in this chapter. The results are presented below.

#### 3.3.2.1 Descriptive statistics of the South African Culture Instrument (SACI)

The items of the SACI can be found in Annexure A3. The descriptive statistics of the dimensions of the SACI appears in Table 3.6, which includes the mean, standard deviation and Cronbach’s alphas.
Table 3.6: Descriptive statistics for the dimensions of the South African Culture Instrument. Source: Own.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alphas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Means to Achieve</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objectives</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vision and Mission</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management Processes</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee Needs and Objectives</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Relationships</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mean of 3.20 was used to distinguish between possible positive and negative perceptions, with scores above 3.2 indicating a positive perception, and scores below 3.2 indicating a negative perception of that dimension. According to the Human Sciences Research Council (1994) (as cited in Odendaal & Roodt, 1998), research shows that an average of 3.20 can be seen as a reasonable cut-off point to differentiate between positive and negative perceptions. The research findings by Naidoo and Martins (2014) found that similar dimensions had a mean value greater than the middle category (3.2), with an overall mean score of 3.27 across all dimensions (on a scale of 1-5, Strongly disagree to Strongly agree).

The results presented in Table 3.6 indicate that Internal Relationships (3.60), followed by Vision and mission (3.48), Employee needs and objectives (3.38), Management processes (3.32) and Means to achieve objectives (3.25) were positively perceived by employees, meaning that the majority of the organisational culture dimensions were positively viewed by employees. One dimension perceived negatively by employees was Leadership (3.10), which scored less, suggesting that employees experience poor leadership and management.
3.3.2.2 Descriptive statistics of the South African Engagement Measurement (SAEM)

As in the organisational culture dimension, the mean score was used to indicate overall employee engagement in the organisation. A mean score of less than 3.20 indicated challenging or developmental dimensions, whereas a mean score of above 3.20 indicated positive dimensions. Table 3.7 indicates overall positive engagement dimensions, with the mean score of above the cut-off point 3.20.

Table 3.7: Descriptive statistics for the dimensions of the South African Engagement Measurement. Source: Own.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alphas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Customer Service</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immediate Manager</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategy and Implementation</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational Satisfaction</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3.3 Inter-correlations between dimensions

The intercorrelations between the dimensions were calculated using Spearman’s rho correlation coefficient to measure the nature and strength of the relationship between the variables. The correlations between values of $r (n) = 0.1$ and $0.3$ pose a small effect, $r (n) >0.3$ to $0.5$ pose a moderate effect, and those greater that $r (n) = 0.5$ pose a large effect size, as stated by Cohen (1988). Any value less than $r (n = .1$ is not statistically significant.

In this study, the intercorrelations matrix was used to test H1, which posed that each of the dimensions of organisational culture is positively related to the dimensions of employee engagement. The intercorrelations matrix for the study is reflected in Table
3.8. The results of the correlation analysis indicate that all culture dimensions correlate positively with the dimensions of employee engagement. There were, however, differences in the effects sizes; more specifically, the results indicate that Leadership correlated significantly and positively with Immediate manager \((r = 0.649; \text{large practical effect}; p \leq 0.01)\) followed by Internal relationship, which correlated significantly and positively with Strategy and implementation \((r = 0.512; \text{large practical effect}; p \leq 0.01)\), and Management processes correlated significantly and positively with Strategy and Implementation \((r = 0.502; \text{large practical effect}; p \leq 0.01)\).

However, a statistically significant weak relationship was found between Internal relationships and Team \((r = 0.135; \text{small practical effect}; p \leq 0.01)\), Internal relationships and Customer service \((r = 0.210; \text{small practical effect}; p \leq 0.01)\) and Employee needs and objectives and Team \((r = 0.214; \text{small practical effect}; p \leq 0.01)\). A summary is presented in Table 3.8.
Table 3.8: *Inter-correlations matrix (Spearman’s rho correlations) of different constructs. Source: Own.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employee Needs and objectives</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>.446**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vision and mission</td>
<td>.412**</td>
<td>.459**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management Processes</td>
<td>.592**</td>
<td>.492**</td>
<td>.645**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Means to Achieve Objectives</td>
<td>.550**</td>
<td>.634**</td>
<td>.597**</td>
<td>.647**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Relations</td>
<td>.717**</td>
<td>.308**</td>
<td>.391**</td>
<td>.516**</td>
<td>.526**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immediate Manager</td>
<td>.427**</td>
<td>.649**</td>
<td>.290**</td>
<td>.363**</td>
<td>.416**</td>
<td>.266**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team</td>
<td>.214**</td>
<td>.479**</td>
<td>.295**</td>
<td>.238**</td>
<td>.307**</td>
<td>.135**</td>
<td>.658**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategy and Implementation</td>
<td>.476**</td>
<td>.490**</td>
<td>.405**</td>
<td>.502**</td>
<td>.488**</td>
<td>.512**</td>
<td>.417**</td>
<td>.295**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational Satisfaction</td>
<td>.405**</td>
<td>.365**</td>
<td>.404**</td>
<td>.434**</td>
<td>.392**</td>
<td>.383**</td>
<td>.383**</td>
<td>.258**</td>
<td>.655**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer Service</td>
<td>.295**</td>
<td>.452**</td>
<td>.370**</td>
<td>.293**</td>
<td>.393**</td>
<td>.210**</td>
<td>.563**</td>
<td>.533**</td>
<td>.341**</td>
<td>.322**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). \( r \geq 0.1 \) - small practical effect; \( r \geq 0.30 \leq 0.49 \) – medium practical effect; \( r \geq 0.50 \) – large practical effect.
Based on the above findings, H1 – There is a statistically significant positive correlation between certain dimensions of organisational culture and employee engagement, is partially accepted.

3.3.4 Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

In this study, the researcher used ANOVA to determine whether there were statistically significant differences across demographic variables with more than two levels (year born, years of service and structure/unit).

Table 3.9: ANOVA: Variables and units for employee engagement. Source: Own.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Team</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>6,139</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3,069</td>
<td>5,596</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>86,657</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>.548</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>92,796</td>
<td>160</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>6,336</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3,168</td>
<td>6,695</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>74,764</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>.473</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>81,101</td>
<td>160</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Custom service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>6,121</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3,061</td>
<td>4,921</td>
<td>.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>98,256</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>.622</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>104,377</td>
<td>160</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 3.9, after ANOVA was conducted, three dimensions of employee engagement were found significant within different units. No results of the dimensions that were not significant are displayed.

Table 3.10 of the ANOVA- Post hoc test indicates ANOVAs which are significant. Post hoc tests consist of pairwise comparisons that are designed to compare all different combinations of the treatment groups (Field, 2009).
Table 3.10: ANOVA- Post hoc test: Variables and units for employee engagement. Source: Own.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
<td>Upper Bound</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainable resource management</td>
<td>.42717</td>
<td>.15277</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>.0497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial governance</td>
<td>-0.00391</td>
<td>.14091</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.3521</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate services</td>
<td>-.42717</td>
<td>.15277</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>-.8047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial governance</td>
<td>-0.43108</td>
<td>.14091</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>-.7793</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate services</td>
<td>.00391</td>
<td>.14091</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>-.3443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainable resource management</td>
<td>.43108</td>
<td>.14091</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>.0829</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial governance</td>
<td>-0.42066</td>
<td>.15004</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>-.7914</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate services</td>
<td>.01905</td>
<td>.15004</td>
<td>.0992</td>
<td>-.3898</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial governance</td>
<td>-.43972</td>
<td>.16267</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td>-.8417</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate services</td>
<td>.01905</td>
<td>.15004</td>
<td>.0992</td>
<td>-.3898</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainable resource management</td>
<td>-.42066</td>
<td>.15004</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>-.7914</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Team: Sustainable resource management; Financial governance; Corporate services
Financial governance: Sustainable resource management; Corporate services
Corporate services: Sustainable resource management; Financial governance
The findings in Table 3.10 indicate that sustainable resource management is significantly (.022) more positive than employees from financial governance, for the dimension *Team*. Corporate services is also more significant (.011) than financial governance, for the dimension *Team*. The results also indicate that the respondents from sustainable resource management (.005) are significantly more than other colleagues from corporate services, for the dimension of *Organisational satisfaction*.

Table 3.10 further illustrates that employees from financial government (.023) are significantly more positive than respondents from corporate services, for the dimension of *Organisational satisfaction*. Again, sustainable resource management is significantly (.028) more positive than employees from financial governance, for the dimension of *Customer service*. The results further indicate that corporate services is more significantly (.022) than financial governance employees, for the dimension of *Customer service*. This indicates that the *Team*, *Organisational satisfaction* and *Customer service* dimensions of employee engagement have an impact within these units.
Table 3.11: ANOVA: Variables and years of service for employee engagement and organisational culture. Source: Own

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organisational Culture</strong>:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal relationships</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>4,808</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1,603</td>
<td>2.707</td>
<td>.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>93,549</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>.592</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>98,356</td>
<td>161</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employee Engagement</strong>:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategy and Implementation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>3,781</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1,260</td>
<td>2.691</td>
<td>.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>74,008</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>.468</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>77,789</td>
<td>161</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.11 further confirms that *Internal relationships* as culture dimension, and *Strategy and implementation* as engagement dimension, were found significant within years of service. However, no significant differences were found after the post hoc test was conducted.
3.3.5 Inferential statistics: Multiple regression

Multiple regression analysis was performed to determine the degree to which different dimensions of organisational culture predict the dimensions of employee engagement.

3.3.5.1 Regression analysis for dependent variable: Immediate Manager

According to Table 3.12, the dimensions of organisational culture explained 44.0% of the variance in Immediate manager. This finding was confirmed by the significance of the F-value ($p \leq 0.000$) in the ANOVA calculation. Leadership made the strongest statically unique contribution in predicting Immediate manager ($\beta = 0.630; (p \leq 0.000)$. This was followed by Employee needs and objectives ($\beta = 0.218; (p \leq 0.01)$, the results showing that the Employee needs and objectives dimension of organisational culture made a slightly less, but nonetheless statistically unique, contribution in predicting Immediate manager. The following dimensions of organisational culture, Vision and mission ($\beta = -0.025; (p \leq 0.750)$, Management processes ($\beta = 0.052; (p \leq 0.576)$, Means to achieve objectives ($\beta = -0.083; (p \leq 0.375$) and Internal relationship ($\beta = -0.094; (p \leq 0.293$) with Immediate manager, were insignificant, indicating that they did not make much significant contribution to the prediction of Immediate manager. The dimensions of Leadership and Employee needs and objectives were statistically significant predictors of the dimension of Immediate manager.
Table 3.12: *Multiple Regression Analysis: dimensions of organisational culture predicting immediate manager. Source: Own.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MODEL SUMMARY</th>
<th>ANOVA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>R</strong></td>
<td><strong>R Square</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.679(^a)</td>
<td>0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>Coefficients</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>Unstandardised Coefficients</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Predictors</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>1.129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee needs and objectives</td>
<td>0.222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>0.625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vision and mission</td>
<td>-0.026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management processes</td>
<td>0.055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Means to achieve objectives</td>
<td>-0.097</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal relationship</td>
<td>-0.099</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Regression analysis for dependent variable: Team

According to Table 3.13, the dimensions of organisational culture explained 23.6% of the variance in Team. This finding was confirmed by the significance of the F-value ($p \leq 0.000$) in the ANOVA calculation. Leadership made the strongest statistically unique contribution in predicting team ($\beta = 0.493; (p \leq 0.000$). This indicates that leadership is the only dimension of organisational culture that made a statistically unique contribution in predicting Team. The following dimensions of organisational culture Employee needs and objectives ($\beta = 0.029; (p \leq 0.789$), Vision and mission ($\beta = 0.113; (p \leq 0.227$), Management processes ($\beta = -0.041; (p \leq 0.707$), Means to achieve objectives ($\beta = -0.016; (p \leq 0.885$) and Internal relationship ($\beta = -0.055; (p \leq 0.600$) with Team was insignificant, indicating that they did not make much significant contribution to the prediction of Team. The dimension of Leadership was a statistically significant predictor of the dimension of Team.
Table 3.13: Multiple Regression Analysis: dimensions of organisational culture predicting team. Source: Own.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MODEL SUMMARY</th>
<th>ANOVA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>R Square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>R Square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.515&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>Unstandardised Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>1.900</td>
<td>0.303</td>
<td>6,268</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee needs and objectives</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>0.105</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>0.268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>0.458</td>
<td>0.086</td>
<td>0.493</td>
<td>5.317</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vision and mission</td>
<td>0.109</td>
<td>0.090</td>
<td>0.113</td>
<td>1.214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management processes</td>
<td>-0.040</td>
<td>0.107</td>
<td>-0.041</td>
<td>-0.377</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Means to achieve objectives</td>
<td>-0.017</td>
<td>0.119</td>
<td>-0.016</td>
<td>-0.145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal relationship</td>
<td>-0.054</td>
<td>0.102</td>
<td>-0.055</td>
<td>-0.526</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.3.5.3 Regression analysis for dependent variable: Strategy and implementation

Table 3.14 reflects that the dimensions of organisational culture explained 41.5% of the variance in strategy and implementation. This finding was confirmed by the significance of the F-value ($p \leq 0.000$) in the ANOVA calculation. Leadership made the strongest statistically unique contribution in predicting strategy and implementation ($\beta = 0.276; (p \leq 0.001$). This was followed by Internal relationship ($\beta = 0.251; (p \leq 0.007$) and Management processes ($\beta = 0.234; (p \leq 0.014$), indicating that these organisational culture dimensions made a slightly less, but nonetheless statistically unique, contribution in predicting Strategy and implementation.

The relationship between the organisational culture variables Employee needs and objectives ($\beta = 0.052; (p \leq 0.588$), Vision and mission ($\beta = -0.036; (p \leq 0.659$), Means to achieve objectives ($\beta = 0.042; (p \leq 0.661$) and Strategy and implementation, was insignificant, suggesting that these variables did not make a significant contribution to the prediction of Strategy and implementation. The dimensions of Leadership and Internal environment are statistically significant predictors of the dimension of Strategy and implementation.
Table 3.14: *Multiple Regression Analysis: dimensions of organisational culture predicting strategy and implementation*. Source: *Own*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MODEL SUMMARY</th>
<th>ANOVA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>R Square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>33,947</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>43,842</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>77,789</td>
</tr>
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</table>

**Coefficients**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>Unstandardised Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>1,002</td>
<td>0,241</td>
<td>4,163</td>
<td>0,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee needs and objectives</td>
<td>0,045</td>
<td>0,083</td>
<td>0,52</td>
<td>0,542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>0,232</td>
<td>0,068</td>
<td>0,276</td>
<td>3,401</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vision and mission</td>
<td>-0,032</td>
<td>0,072</td>
<td>-0,036</td>
<td>-0,443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management processes</td>
<td>0,211</td>
<td>0,085</td>
<td>0,234</td>
<td>2,484</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Means to achieve objectives</td>
<td>0,042</td>
<td>0,095</td>
<td>0,042</td>
<td>0,439</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal relationship</td>
<td>0,223</td>
<td>0,081</td>
<td>0,251</td>
<td>2,744</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.3.5.4 Regression analysis for dependent variable: Organisational satisfaction

As can be seen in Table 3.1, the dimensions of organisational culture explained 24.7% of the variance in Organisational satisfaction. This finding was confirmed by the significance of the F-value ($p \leq 0.000$) in the ANOVA calculation. No significant contribution was found for the organisational culture dimensions in predicting employee engagement, as seen in Table 3.15, below.
Table 3.15: *Multiple Regression Analysis: dimensions of organisational culture predicting organisational satisfaction.* **Source:** Own.

### MODEL SUMMARY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of Estimate</th>
<th>Immediate Manager Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Residual Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Total Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.525 a</td>
<td>0.276</td>
<td>0.247</td>
<td>0.61577</td>
<td>22,353</td>
<td>58,773</td>
<td>81,125</td>
<td>3,725</td>
<td>9.825</td>
<td>000 b</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### ANOVA

### Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>Unstandardised Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>1.605</td>
<td>0.279</td>
<td>5.760</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee needs and objectives</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>0.096</td>
<td>0.596</td>
<td>0.552</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>0.136</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td>0.159</td>
<td>0.086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vision and mission</td>
<td>0.143</td>
<td>0.083</td>
<td>0.160</td>
<td>0.086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management processes</td>
<td>0.148</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>0.161</td>
<td>0.134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Means to achieve objectives</td>
<td>-0.026</td>
<td>0.110</td>
<td>-0.025</td>
<td>0.814</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal relationship</td>
<td>0.140</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>0.154</td>
<td>0.140</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.3.5.5 Regression analysis for dependent variable: Customer service

As can be seen in Table 3.16, the dimensions of organisational culture explained 22.9% of the variance in Customer service. This finding was confirmed by the significance of the F-value (p ≤ 0.000) in the ANOVA calculation. Leadership made the strongest statically unique contribution in predicting Customer service ($\beta = 0.321$; (p ≤ 0.001). This was followed by Vision and mission ($\beta = 0.248$; (p ≤ 0.001), indicating that these organisational culture dimensions made a slightly less, but nonetheless statistically unique, contribution in predicting Customer service.

The association between the organisational culture variables Employee needs and objectives ($\beta = 0.101$; (p ≤ 0.361), Management processes ($\beta = -0.088$; (p ≤ 0.417), Means to achieve objectives ($\beta = 0.031$; (p ≤ 0.779), Internal relationship ($\beta = 0.000$; (p ≤ 1.000) and Customer service, was insignificant, suggesting that these variables did not make a significant contribution to the prediction of Customer service. The dimensions of Leadership and Vision and mission were statistically significant predictors of the dimension of Customer service.
Table 3.16: *Multiple Regression Analysis: dimensions of organisational culture predicting customer service. Source: Own.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MODEL SUMMARY</th>
<th>ANOVA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>R</strong></td>
<td><strong>R Square</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.508*</td>
<td>0.258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Coefficients**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardised Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Predictors</strong></td>
<td><strong>B</strong></td>
<td><strong>Std. Error</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>1.260</td>
<td>0.321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee needs and objectives</td>
<td>0.101</td>
<td>0.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>0.314</td>
<td>0.091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vision and mission</td>
<td>0.252</td>
<td>0.095</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management processes</td>
<td>-0.092</td>
<td>0.113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Means to achieve objectives</td>
<td>0.036</td>
<td>0.126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal relationship</td>
<td>7.610</td>
<td>0.108</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on the above findings, H2 – The dimensions of organisational culture are a statistically significant predictor of the dimensions of employee engagement, is partially accepted.

3.4 DISCUSSION

The main objectives of the study were to (1) investigate the relationship between each of the dimensions of organisational culture and employee engagement, respectively, (2) determine whether organisational culture is a statistically significant predictor of employee engagement, and (3) investigate the significant difference between demographical groups.

3.4.1 Organisational Culture Profile

The overall departmental organisational culture profile picture looks positive. The positive dimensions are internal relationship, external environment, employee needs and objectives, and vision and mission. The lowest dimensions are means to achieve objectives, management processes and leadership, in terms of internal relationship, thereby indicating that the organisation recruitment and selection practices, and other HR resources systems and practices, are line with employment equity and diversity strategies. When examining the results further, in the area of the employee needs and objectives dimension, it appears that there is a good remuneration system in place, trust is enhanced and promoted between employees and management, the organisation takes care of employees by promoting equal opportunities, and no form of unfair discrimination is tolerated.

The majority of participants believe that they understand the vision and mission of the organisation. Davidson (2003) found that high-performing organisations are where employees fully understand the mission and overall objectives, and core values are integrated into organisational activities. Liu, Wei and Zhang (2008) argue that corporate culture reflects the beliefs and values of the leader of the organisation, as well those of the people in the organisation (embedded), and shapes the people’s behaviour as well as affecting performance. It is therefore vital that these values and beliefs are aligned with the organisation’s vision and can be translated into the
strategy. Corporate culture requires employees to be mobilised to exhibit certain behaviours to support strategy (Liu et al., 2009).

Three key areas of concern can be highlighted. The first is leadership, which obtained the lowest percentage, compared to other dimensions of culture, but is a strong predictor for the dimensions of engagement. This indicates that most of the participants perceive poor leadership in the organisation. The second area of concern is means to achieve objectives. The majority of the participants perceive some conflicts, duplication of work and workload, and poor technology. The last area of concern is management processes, which indicates that rules and regulations are not up to standard, talent is not valued and retained, there are unclear work procedures and methods, change is not well planned, and performance/achievement is not evaluated objectively.

3.4.2 Employee Engagement Level

The overall departmental employee engagement level picture looks good. The organisational satisfaction dimension obtained the highest percentage, indicating that the majority of the participants' values are aligned with those of organisational values, they are committed to their organisation, and have a bright future in the organisation. With regard to the organisational satisfaction dimension, 61% of participants feel positive about their work, and, also, their jobs inspire them. The participants in the area of strategy and implementation indicate there is some clear communication with regard to objectives and the direction in which the organisation is headed, and risk taking is encouraged.

Three key areas of concern can be highlighted. The first is immediate manager, for which the organisation obtained the lowest score (42%). This indicates that most of the participants perceive mistrust between them and the managers, and poor support and work performance feedback from managers. The second area of concern is customer service. The majority of the participants indicated that not enough is being done in customer service. The third area of concern is team, which indicates that most of the participants experience team ineffectiveness. This is supported by the findings of Nienaber and Martins (2015), in that teamwork and
immediate manager indicated the lowest correlations with the other dimensions (all below .70).

As stated by Sirisetti (2012), building positive working relationships with the members of one's department, area or team is considered to be one of the most important drivers for employee engagement. When managers engage their employees, they communicate regularly, again connecting the daily work of the employee to the overall purpose of the organisation and its success. Effective managers set clear objectives, provide regular feedback and encouragement, and build on the strengths of their employees (Sirisetti, 2012).

As highlighted above, research results shows that the majority of the respondents experience a high level of engagement, indicating that they are committed and prepared to improve organisational performance. This is supported by the Towers Perrin-ISR annual survey, which concluded that companies with high employee engagement levels also experienced a higher operating margin (up to 19 percent higher), net profit margin, revenue growth and earnings per share (up to 28 percent higher than companies with low employee engagement) (Caplan, 2011).

3.4.3 Psychometric Properties of Organisational Culture and Employee Engagement Instruments

3.4.3.1 Organisational Culture Instrument valid and reliable

When examining the results of the subscales, all yielded adequate Cronbach’s alpha values between 0.86 and 0.94. As explained previously, the recommendation for a suitable criterion for established instruments is around 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978). Theoretical validity was achieved by the latest and classic literature reviews, the conceptualisation and scope of organisational culture.

3.4.3.2 Employee Engagement Instrument valid and reliable

When examining the results of the subscales, all yielded adequate Cronbach’s alpha values between 0.77 and 0.93. In terms of Cronbach’s alpha, a high score indicates acceptance. Theoretical validity was achieved by latest and classic literature reviews, the conceptualisation and scope of employee engagement.
3.4.4 Relationship exists between organisational culture and the dimensions of employee engagement

Correlation analysis indicated a statistically positive relationship between some variables of organisational culture and employee engagement dimensions. The findings of the study therefore partially confirm Hypothesis 1, which postulated a positive relationship between certain of the dimensions of organisational culture and employee engagement, respectively. This indicates that positive perceptions of organisational culture are likely to be related to higher levels of employee engagement. This supports the findings of previous studies that investigated the relationship between organisational culture and work engagement (Naidoo & Martins, 2014). The present study provides evidence that organisational culture is a fundamental key consideration in understanding employee engagement.

Table 3.17: Summary. H1: There is a statistically significant positive correlation between each of the dimensions of organisational culture and employee engagement, respectively. Source: Own source.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisational Culture Dimensions</th>
<th>Employee Engagement Dimensions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employee needs and objectives</td>
<td>Correlated significantly <strong>negatively</strong> with team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>Correlated significantly <strong>positively</strong> with immediate manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vision and mission</td>
<td>Correlated significantly <strong>negatively</strong> with team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management processes</td>
<td>Correlated significantly <strong>positively</strong> with strategy and implementation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Means to achieve objectives</td>
<td>Correlated significantly <strong>positively</strong> with customer service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal relationships</td>
<td>Correlated significantly <strong>positively</strong> with strategy and implementation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.4.5 Significant differences between biographical groups

The ANOVA statistical technique was used, to determine whether significant differences exist between groups. The team, organisational satisfaction and customer service dimensions of employee engagement indicated significant differences between the different units. After the post hoc test was conducted, the sustainable resource management unit was significantly more positive than employees from financial governance, for the dimension team, and corporate services significantly more positive than financial governance. The results also indicate that the respondents from the department of sustainable resource management are significantly more positive than other colleagues from corporate services for the dimension of organisational satisfaction. Employees from financial government are significantly more positive than respondents from corporate services for organisational satisfaction. Again, employees from sustainable resource management are significantly more positive than employees from financial governance for the dimension customer service, and corporate services is significantly more positive than financial governance employees. This indicates that team, organisational satisfaction and customer dimensions of employee engagement have an impact within these units.

3.4.6 Organisational culture is a statistically significant predictor of employee engagement

The regression model confirmed that five dimensions of organisational culture (leadership, employee needs and objectives, vision and mission, management processes and internal relationships) would predict employee engagement. Leadership made the most significant predictor of employee engagement. The means to achieve objectives dimension showed no effect in predicting employee engagement. However, the leadership dimension indicated the strongest predictor of the employee engagement dimension, and followed by vision and mission. Employee needs and objectives, and management processes dimensions showed small effect in predicting employee engagement variables. The findings of the study therefore provide partial support for Hypothesis 2, which postulates that some dimensions of organisational culture would significantly predict the dimensions of employee engagement.
Table 3.18: **Summary. H2: Organisational culture is a statistically significant predictor of the dimensions of employee engagement. Source: Own source.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisational Culture Dimensions</th>
<th>Employee Engagement Dimensions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employee needs and objectives</strong></td>
<td><em>Slightly less</em> but nonetheless statically unique contribution in predicting immediate manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Leadership</strong></td>
<td><em>Strongest</em> statically unique contribution in predicting immediate manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Strongest</em> statically unique contribution in predicting team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Strongest</em> statically unique contribution in predicting strategy and implementation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Strongest</em> statically unique contribution in predicting customer service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Vision and mission</strong></td>
<td><em>Slightly less</em> but nonetheless statically unique contribution in predicting customer service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Management processes</strong></td>
<td><em>Slightly less</em> but nonetheless statically unique contribution in predicting strategy and implementation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Means to achieve objectives</strong></td>
<td><em>No</em> significant contribution was found in predicting employee engagement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Internal relationships</strong></td>
<td><em>Slightly less</em> but nonetheless statically unique contribution in predicting strategy and implementation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the research findings, it appears that leadership factors such as good people management, empowerment, coaching and mentoring, communication, and the vision and values, influence strategic direction, and leadership competence does have a significant influence on employees’ levels of employee engagement.

According to Muller (2009), the relationship between engagement and leadership behaviours suggests that engagement will improve when leaders are perceived to be
inspiring. Employees acknowledge that their supervisors and senior management should have certain leadership competences such as removing obstacles that hinder productivity, good people management, and creating an environment that triggers high performance, which would also promote an increased level of engagement.

It is within the core competence of top leadership and other management to ensure that their behaviour is the one that encourages subordinates to give their opinion regarding work matters, which could lead to an increase in their levels of employee engagement. The organisational management should create a culture that promotes a high level of employee engagement, through their HR systems and practices. An organisation that establishes a culture for engagement maximises the probability that their employees will be engaged at work, because they have provided the resources and fostered the relationships that are believed to trigger engagement (Byrne, 2015).

Clear understanding of the mission, strategy and overall objectives of the organisation is imperative, and aligns with employees own personal goals and objectives, triggering directly with employee engagement. Schultz, Van der Walt and Bezuidenhout (2011) state the key actions required to create a culture that will facilitate engaged employees: top management's responsibility for formulating an organisational vision and mission that facilitates and encourage employees' engagement on all levels and manages employees' talent through effective career development and talent management strategies.

Furthermore, employees may be more engaged when they are able to see that their efforts are well remunerated and that there are equal opportunities. A focus on the way in which management processes are carried out, including commitment to change, clear setting and implementing of goals, efficient work procedures and methods, and effective delegation, appear to have a direct effect on the employee engagement level. Schultz et al. (2011) support this, by stating that middle management has the responsibility to establish clear goals and expectations, aligned with the vision of the organisation, and unambiguous goals and expectations should be agreed upon by the manager and the employees.
According to Catteeuw et al. (2007), modern society calls for a culture of innovation, and this cannot be achieved without employee engagement. In addition, there are survey statistics which show that disengaged employees result in low productivity. Catteeuw et al. (2007) further argue that engaged employees will stay with the company longer, and find smarter, more effective ways to add value to the organisation.

3.5 CONCLUSION

According to Sirisetti (2012), developing a culture where people know that their work matters, and that their contributions to the organisations goals are valued, are two of the most important factors when it comes to engaging employees. The present study is among the first to investigate culture and engagement in a public service department. Locally developed questionnaires were used. The public service department under study experienced high employee turnover, and also struggled to attract and retain highly talented staff in the areas of economics, accounting, auditing and strategic supply chain management.

The findings of the study not only indicate that organisational culture is positively linked to employee engagement, but that the leadership dimension of organisational culture is a major, statistically significant predictor of the dimensions of employee engagement. According to Muller (2009), the relationship between engagement and leadership behaviours suggests that engagement will improve when leaders are perceived to be inspiring. This is supported by Byrne (2015), who states that organisations that establish a culture for engagement maximise the probability that their employees will be engaged at work, because they have provided the resources and fostered the relationships that are believed to trigger engagement. This result is in line with previous research, where a strong relationship between organisational culture and employee engagement was confirmed (Paul, 2012).

Furthermore, the organisational culture dimensions of employee needs and objectives, vision and mission, management processes and internal relationships showed greater predictors of certain employee engagement dimensions of immediate manager, team, strategy and implementation and customer service. None
of the dimensions of organisational culture predicted organisational satisfaction as a dimension of employee engagement. Organisations can utilise the following factors to create a culture of engagement: resources, managing work stressors, trust, leadership, meaning, connection and congruence (Byrne, 2015). These factors may also assist employees in becoming engaged.

3.6 LIMITATIONS

The main limitation was that the research was being conducted in a single public service department, resulting in a small sample size. Although the study took place in the public service department, its results may not be generalisable to all public service departments and the private sector, due to the small sample size.

3.7 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings, the researcher makes the following recommendations for the department:

The department should communicate the findings of the study to the employees, in order to create awareness of the organisational culture and employee engagement. The strengths of the leadership, followed by employee needs and objectives, vision and mission, management processes and internal relationships dimensions of organisational culture in predicting employee engagement, should be highlighted and maintained. The department should also do more to address the issues of employee needs and objectives, management processes, and internal relationships, as they reflected less in predicting employee engagement. Leadership should be prioritised as a key developmental strategy in management and leadership development programmes for the department.

The departmental management must ensure that each person has an equal opportunity to make a distinctive contribution, and the sharing of information and ideas is imperative. The establishment of clear goals and expectations, aligned with the vision of the organisation and unambiguous goals and expectations, should be agreed upon by the manager and the employees. Employees should have a clear,
shared picture and understanding of the importance of their efforts in the overall success of the business. This conviction ensures the completeness of the circle, which brings one back to alignment with the vision of the organisation. Employee needs and objectives were viewed slightly less positive by employees, suggesting that aspects such as the remuneration system, equal opportunities, trust and openness, and participation in decision-making need to be addressed by the organisation. The organisation need to revise all systems, policies and procedures, including the compensation system. Conflict management strategies should be put in place to address different conflicts, as the results reflected poorly in the dimension of means to achieve objective.

3.8 SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The researcher recommends that further research be conducted on the following aspects of organisational culture:

- The relationship between organisational culture and employee engagement in the broader public service sector, to improve the generalisability of the results, and with larger populations.
- Industrial psychologists working in the field of organisational culture and employee engagement to investigate whether certain dimensions of organisational culture predict employee engagement in both the private and public sector. The findings of the present study indicate that the leadership dimension strongly predicted the following dimensions of employee engagement: immediate manager, team, strategy and implementation, and customer service. It failed to predict the organisational satisfaction dimension.

3.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provided an in-depth discussion of the findings of the empirical research. Descriptive, Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and inferential statistics were used to examine the relationship between each of the dimensions of organisational culture and employee engagement, respectively. The results were analysed,
interpreted and integrated to reveal important observations relating to the relationship between the variables examined in the study. Chapter 4 discusses the conclusions and limitations of the study, in detail. Furthermore, recommendations for future research are made.
CHAPTER 4
CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The aim of this chapter is to formulate conclusions on the basis of the literature review and the results of the empirical research. The limitations will then be discussed and recommendations made for further research.

4.1 CONCLUSIONS

The theoretical objectives were defined and described (conceptualised) for organisational culture and employee engagement, as well as the theoretical relationship between the concepts, and how they are measured. These theoretical objectives were achieved by means of the literature review on organisational culture and employee engagement. The empirical objectives were to investigate whether a statistically significant positive correlation existed between organisational culture and dimensions of employee engagement, respectively, and to determine whether organisational culture is a statistically significant predictor of employee engagement.

The following conclusions were drawn on the basis of the literature:

4.1.1 Conclusions regarding the literature review

4.1.1.1 The first aim: to conceptualise organisational culture and to determine its key characteristics

This aim was addressed in Chapter 2, and the following conclusions can be drawn:

The first aim of the literature study was to conceptualise organisational culture. The various definitions of organisational culture were presented, and a definition specific to the study was formulated as “organisational culture is an integrated pattern of human behaviour which is unique to a particular organisation and which originated as a result of the organisation’s survival process and interaction with its environment”. The development of organisational culture was discussed. Culture is developed when people join an organisation. They bring with them the values and beliefs they have been taught, but quite often these values and beliefs are insufficient for helping the individual succeed in the organisation (Luthans, 2008).
According to research in South Africa, culture building starts at the top of the organisation with the chief executive (Robbins et al., 2015). He or she knows what kind of culture they want, and steers management towards the culture.

The various aspects and models of organisational culture were discussed, with specific emphasis on dimensional models and typologies: Schein’s Three Layer Organisational Model, Kotter and Heskett’s Culture Model, Hofstede’s Manifestations of Culture and Denison’s Culture and Effectiveness Model – each of which appears to have its advantages and disadvantages. For the purposes of the present study, the model developed by Martins (1989), based on the work of Schein (1985), to describe organisational culture, was used. The model is based on the interaction between three key elements: the organisation’s subsystems, the external environment, the internal systems and the dimensions of culture (Martins & Von der Ohe, 2006). The role of culture was cited: the role that organisational culture plays in an organisation can be divided into the functions of organisational culture and the influence that organisation culture has on the different processes in the organisation (Luqman et al., 2011).

4.1.1.2 The second aim: to determine how organisational culture can be measured

Culture change was discussed. According to Armstrong (2006), culture change programmes start with an analysis of the existing culture. Culture diagnoses help organisations at least know where they are, before changing for any of these reasons, and all of these changes have cultural implications (Zedeck, 2011). The challenge of assessing specific aspects of organisational culture has been considered and questioned for several decades (Hofstettera & Harpaz, 2015). In general, experts tend to use the term ‘assessment’ instead of ‘measurement’ to describe efforts to understand an organisation’s culture (Boehm-Davis et al., 2015). The present study adopted The South African Culture Instrument (SACI), which was locally developed for the South African context, and measures the extent to which employees identify with the various elements of the organisation’s existing and ideal culture (Naidoo & Martins, 2014).
The third aim: to conceptualise employee engagement and determine its key characteristics

The various definitions of 'employee engagement' were presented, and a definition specific to the study was formulated as “employee engagement refers to ‘engaged employees’ at both the individual and organisational level, who are fully absorbed by and enthusiastic about their work, and so take positive action to further the organisation’s reputation and interests” (Nienaber & Martins, 2015, p.5). The development of employee engagement was discussed. Engagement is seen as developing from a perspective of positive psychology, and focuses on human strengths and optimal performance rather than on weaknesses and malfunctioning (De Waal & Pienaar, 2013).

Engagement is thus a positive, work-related state of well-being or fulfilment, where engaged employees have high levels of energy, are enthusiastic about, and show strong identification with, their work (De Waal & Pienaar, 2013). The antecedents of employee engagement, as mentioned above, were also discussed. There is an argument from some researchers that employee engagement is similar to relative constructs such as Job Satisfaction (JS), Organisational Commitment (OC), Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) and Job Involvement (JI). Robinson et al. (as cited in Bhuvanaiah & Raya, 2014) state that OC and OCB both have elements similar to those of engagement, but neither of the two constructs is equivalent to engagement in nature. Engagement is not an attitude such as organisational commitment in the degree to which the individual is absorbed with role performance. Positive antecedents to employee engagement within a management perspective are management principles and management process, according to Medlin and Green (2014).

It is interesting that despite this widespread interest in engagement, there is actually very little firm agreement on what exactly is meant by the term, and it is clearly the case that different practitioners make use of a variety of different items and scales to measure what they refer to as engagement (Robertson et al., 2012). One view of engagement, taken by some specialists, involves placing more emphasis on how the employee feels when he or she is completely engaged. This kind of approach
regards the engaged employee as someone who is immersed in his or her work – sometimes even experiencing a state referred to as “flow”, a state that involves an intense period of concentration on what one is doing, to the extent that time distorts and seems to pass more quickly, and one’s awareness of self is minimal or even lost completely (Robertson et al., 2012). On the other hand, the view of engagement held by senior managers in organisations is that an engaged employee is aware of the business context, and works with colleagues to improve performance within the job for the benefit of the organisation.

4.1.1.4 The fourth aim: to determine how employee engagement can be measured

From the literature review, it was difficult to define exactly what engagement it is. Different researchers use work engagement instruments to measure employee engagement, although these two concepts are not the same. As mentioned in Chapter 2, employee engagement is a broader concept than work engagement, which may include the employee’s professional or occupational role and his or her relationship with the organisation, while work engagement refers to the (individual) employee’s work. This was supported by Robertson et al. (2012). It is interesting that despite this widespread interest in engagement, there is actually very little consensus on what exactly is meant by the term, and it is clearly the case that different practitioners make use of a variety of different items and scales to measure what they refer to as engagement. Meyer and Gagne (2008) also mention that there is currently a lack of consensus regarding the measurement of engagement, and self-determination theory has been used to guide the measurement of engagement-relevant variables (e.g. need satisfaction, motivational states, and psychological and behavioural outcomes) in a variety of contexts. It is argued that the construct itself and its measurement are not well developed (Nienaber & Martins, 2014).

Various employee engagement instruments were reviewed, namely the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, the Gallup Model of Engagement and Nienaber and Martins’s (2015) measuring scale for assessing employee engagement. The present study adopted Nienaber and Martins (2015) measuring scale for assessing employee engagement, which is a South African developed employee engagement instrument.
Typically, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, the Gallup Model of Engagement, and other questionnaires used to measure this type of employee engagement, use items that focus on commitment and other positive attitudes such as job satisfaction and attachment (Robertson et al., 2012). According to Meyer and Gagne (2008), engagement measures currently in use are not well suited to identify employees who may be actively disengaged.

4.1.1.5 The fifth aim: to theorise whether there is a theoretical relationship between the concepts of organisational culture and employee engagement

The final aim was to conceptualise the theoretical relationship between the dimensions of organisational culture and employee engagement. The literature review supports that a strong organisational culture encourages employees to be fully engaged. Martins and Martins (2003) state that the organisation’s core values are widely shared; therefore, the more the values are accepted by the employees, the more likely the employees are to be committed to the values, and the culture will be stronger. Research further indicates that an organisational culture and employee engagement create excellent organisational performance (Paul, 2012).

Research to date suggests seven actions to create culture for employees to become engaged: (a) the right amount of resources; (b) an ability to manage work stressors; (c) trust to feel safe to fully invest themselves in the work task; (d) an interpersonal leader creating connection and a meaningful vision; (e) ability to create and find meaning in the work; (f) support and connection with others at work, allowing them to focus on the job and align themselves with the organisation’s values; and (g) job- organisational fit (Byrne, 2015).

4.1.2 Conclusions regarding the empirical study

This empirical study had seven aims:

(1) To investigate the organisational culture in a public service department.
(2) To investigate employee engagement levels in a public service department.
(3) To investigate whether the employee engagement and organisational culture instruments are valid and reliable for the public service department.
(4) To investigate whether a statistically significant relationship exists between organisational culture and the dimensions of employee engagement in a public service department.

(5) To investigate whether significant differences exist between biographical groups.

(6) To investigate whether organisational culture is a statistically significant predictor of employee engagement.

(7) To formulate recommendations for industrial psychology and further research, based on the findings of this research.

The following conclusions were drawn on the basis of the empirical research:

4.1.2.1 The first aim: to investigate the organisational culture in a public service department

The overall departmental organisational culture profile picture looks positive. The positive dimensions are internal relationship, external environment, employee needs and objectives, and vision and mission. The lowest dimensions are means to achieve objectives, management processes and leadership. The results indicate that the organisational recruitment and selection and other HR systems and practices are in line with employment equity and diversity strategies. The organisation needs to improve in the areas of leadership, conflict resolution, and overall management processes.

4.1.2.2 The second aim: to investigate employee engagement levels in a public service department

The overall departmental employee engagement level picture looks good. The organisational commitment dimension of employee engagement obtained the highest percentage. This indicates that the majority of the participants' values are aligned with those of the organisational values that they are committed to their organisation, and perceive they have a bright future in the organisation. The majority of participants in the area of the organisational satisfaction dimension feel positive about their work, and their jobs also inspire them. The participants in the area of Strategy and implementation indicate there is some clear communication with regard
to objectives and the direction in which the organisation is headed, and risk taking is encouraged. The areas of concern are immediate manager and customer service, for which the organisation obtained the lowest score. The organisation needs to develop and implement strategies that improve customer service and managers’ supervisory skills.

4.1.2.3 The third aim: to investigate whether the employee engagement and organisational culture instruments are valid and reliable for the public service department

The results of the subscales all yielded adequate Cronbach’s alpha values between 0.77 and 0.93 for employee engagement and organisational culture, between 0.86 and 0.94. In terms of Cronbach’s alpha, a high score indicates acceptance. Principal axis factoring was used to assess whether the instrument measured substantive constructs. The results were as follows: one dimension from the culture questionnaire was eliminated due to low loadings, namely external environment. With regard to the Employee engagement questionnaire, the dimensions of Organisational satisfaction and Commitment were combined into one dimension, namely organisational satisfaction.

4.1.2.4 The fourth aim: to investigate whether a statistically significant relationship exists between organisational culture and the dimensions of employee engagement in a public service department

The results of the correlation analysis indicate that all culture dimensions correlate positively with the dimensions of employee engagement. There were, however, differences in the effects sizes. Leadership correlated significantly positively with immediate manager. Management processes and internal relationship correlated significantly positively with strategy and implementation, and means to achieve objectives correlated significantly positively with customer service. This indicates that positive perceptions of organisational culture are likely to be related to higher levels of employee engagement. The results were illustrated in Table 3.17. The findings of the study therefore partially confirm Hypothesis 1, which postulates a positive relationship between certain of the dimensions of organisational culture and employee engagement, respectively.
4.1.2.5 The fifth aim: to investigate whether significant differences exist between biographical groups

This aim was achieved by the ANOVA statistical technique, to determine whether significant differences exist between groups. The results indicate that team, organisational satisfaction and customer service dimensions of employee engagement were found to differ significantly within different units. A post hoc test was also conducted for ANOVAs, which were significant. After the post hoc test was conducted, different units' employees perceived more positive significantly in team, organisational satisfaction and customer service dimensions of employee engagement, compared to other units. This indicates that dimensions of employee engagement have different impacts within these units. The ANOVA analysis also confirmed that internal relationships as culture dimension, and strategy and implementation as engagement dimension, were found significant for the years of service groups.

4.1.2.6 The sixth aim: to investigate whether organisational culture is a statistically significant predictor of employee engagement

The regression model confirmed that five dimensions of organisational culture (leadership, employee needs and objective, vision and mission, management processes and internal relationships) would predict employee engagement. Leadership was the most significant predictor of employee engagement. The means to achieve objectives dimension showed no effect in predicting employee engagement. This suggests that leadership factors such as good people management, empowerment, coaching and mentoring, communication, and the vision and mission influences strategic direction and leadership competence. The study provides evidence that organisational culture is a key consideration in understanding employee engagement. The organisational culture dimension of Means to achieve objectives does not make a significant contribution to the prediction of employee engagement.

4.1.2.7 The seventh aim: to formulate recommendations for industrial psychology and further research, based on the findings of this research
The findings of the study not only indicate that organisational culture is positively linked to employee engagement, but also that the leadership dimension of organisational culture is a major, statistically significant predictor of the dimensions of employee engagement.

The department should communicate the findings of the study to the employees, in order to create awareness of the organisational culture and employee engagement. The importance of leadership, followed by employee needs and objectives, vision and mission, management processes and internal relationships dimensions of organisational culture in predicting employee engagement, should be highlighted and maintained. The department should also do more to address the issues of employee needs and objectives, management processes, and internal relationship. The means to achieve objective and leadership dimensions should be prioritised, as they showed the lower mean scores. These results are illustrated in Table 3.18.

4.1.3 Conclusions regarding the hypothesis

Overall results of this study indicate that the hypothesis H1 is herewith partially accepted. The first hypothesis of the study stated that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between dimensions of organisational culture and employee engagement, respectively. The second hypothesis is partially accepted, as it shows that leadership, followed by vision and mission, management processes and internal relationships dimensions of organisational culture, are statistically significant predictors of employee engagement. The means to achieve objectives dimension showed no effect in predicting employee engagement.
Table 4.1: Hypothesis H1 and H2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis H1</th>
<th>Hypothesis H2</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There is a statistically significant positive correlation between each of the dimensions of organisational culture and employee engagement, respectively.</td>
<td>Organisational culture is a statistically significant predictor of employee engagement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothesis is accepted, based on the findings of the research.</td>
<td>Hypothesis is partially accepted, based on the findings of the research.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The first limitation was that the research was conducted in a single public service department, resulting in a small sample size. Although the study took place in a public service department, its results may not be generalisable to all public service departments and the private sector, due to the small sample size.

Secondly, the fact that limited research had been conducted on the relationship between organisational culture dimensions and employee engagement in the South African public service sector context, made it difficult to refer to other studies.

4.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

It is recommended that the measures be used in a larger study, with respondents from different public service departments and organisational cultures. It is also recommended that leadership, followed by employee needs and objectives, vision and mission, management processes and internal relationships dimensions of organisational culture are good in predicting employee engagement in the department. The department should communicate the findings of the study to the employees, in order to create awareness of the organisational culture and employee engagement. The strengths of employee engagement, should be highlighted and maintained. The department should also do more to address the issues of employee needs and objectives, management processes, and internal relationships, as they reflected less in predicting employee engagement. Leadership should be prioritised
as key developmental strategy in management and leadership development programmes for the department.

The department management should ensure that each person has an equal opportunity to make a distinctive contribution, and the sharing of information and ideas is imperative. The establishment of clear goals and expectations, aligned with the vision of the organisation and unambiguous goals and expectations, should be agreed upon by the manager and the employee. Employees should have a clear, shared picture and understanding of the importance of their efforts in the overall success of the business. This conviction ensures the completeness of the circle, which brings one back to alignment with the vision of the organisation.

Conflict management strategies should be put in place to address different conflicts within the organisation. Employee needs and objectives dimension was also viewed positively by employees, suggesting that aspects such as the remuneration system, equal opportunities, trust and openness, and participation in decision making need to be continuously addressed by the organisation. The leadership dimension of organisational culture was negatively viewed by participants, suggesting that aspects such as people management, coaching, leaders’ competencies and visibility need to be addressed. The organisation should also keep up to date all systems, policies and procedures, including the compensation system.

The main objective of the study was hereby achieved. Based on the results, a number of recommendations are presented that can assist the organisation in increasing levels of employee engagement. Table 4.2, a summary of the recommendations, based on the findings, is displayed.

Table 4.2: **Summary of recommended organisational culture interventions.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recommendations</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Improve management processes:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Ensure that rules and regulations are reviewed and upgraded to cope with change</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Communicate expectations clearly in all stages of goal attainment</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
• Develop standards based on the correct work methods and procedures
• Set goals that clearly support the organisational vision and strategy

Strengthen leadership:
• Maintain good people management
• Leaders should empower, coach and mentor their employees
• Implement leadership competence framework
• Increase leadership visibility and accessibility

Deal with key employee needs and objectives:
• Encourage employee involvement in goal setting, problem solving and decision making
• Realign reward system with desired behaviours and culture attributes

Communicate the vision and mission:
• Establishment of clear goals and expectations, aligned with the vision of the organisation and unambiguous goals
• Communicate the strategic plan clearly and openly

Enhance means to achieve objectives:
• Develop effective conflict management strategy/policy
• Align organisational structure/design with strategy plan, service delivery model and employee job profile.

4.4 FUTURE RESEARCH

As this research was conducted in a single public service department, a research study on the relationship between organisational culture and employee engagement is needed, with larger populations in the broader public service sector to improve the generalisability of the results. Industrial psychologists working in the field of organisational culture and employee engagement should further investigate whether certain dimensions of organisational culture predict employee engagement in both the private and public sector.

4.5 INTEGRATION OF THE STUDY
This study investigated the relationship between the dimensions of organisational culture and employee engagement, respectively. The results suggest that a relationship does exist, and that, furthermore, some dimensions of organisational culture (namely leadership, employee needs and objectives, vision and mission, management processes and internal relationships) indeed have a direct effect on the level of employee engagement. The organisational culture dimension *Means to achieve objectives* showed no effect in predicting the levels of employee engagement. Overall organisational culture can either help the organisation to achieve its objectives, goals, attract and retain best talent, improve organisational productivity and customer satisfaction, or else hinder organisational performance. Also, the role employee engagement plays in sustaining competitive advantage could lead to improved business results and successful organisational performance. The research found that both organisational culture and employee engagement create excellent organisational performance.

Organisational culture and employee engagement have been shown to relate to most positive organisational work outcomes. It therefore makes sense for organisations that establish a culture for engagement maximise the probability that their employees will be engaged at work, because they have provided the resources and fostered the relationships that are believed to trigger engagement. The public service departments’ capacity to retain their employees trigger a need to foster a positive culture, and ensure that employees remain engaged in their work. The present study was conducted in a government department, and found that the leadership dimension of organisational culture strongly predicted employee engagement.

### 4.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the conclusions of both the theoretical and the empirical findings. Limitations of the study were highlighted, and recommendations for future research were proposed. This research study concluded with an integration of the study, providing support for a positive relationship between the dimensions of organisational culture and employee engagement, respectively. The study is herewith concluded.
REFERENCES


DPSA see Department of Public Service and Administration


