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Does Organizational Culture Influence Employee Behaviour in Public Administration? Evidence from HO Municipal Assembly, Ghana

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Abstract:

This study investigated the impact of organizational culture on employee work behaviour using Ho Municipal Assembly, a Local Government Authority in Ghana, as a case study. Using the mixed method approach, 93 employees completed questionnaires on organizational culture and employee behaviour. Eleven (11) senior management employees were also purposefully selected and interviewed. Results were analyzed using descriptive statistics, Pearson's correlation and content analysis approach. Findings revealed a significant positive relationship between organizational culture and citizenship behaviour. However, no significant relationship existed between organizational culture and counterproductive work behaviour. The dominant organizational culture of the selected organization was found to be power culture. This study concludes that enacting the appropriate organizational culture is indispensable to achieving desirable employee behaviours. It is therefore recommended that public sector recognize the potential influence of culture on employee behaviour in managerial all decisions.

1. Introduction

“Unless organizational culture improves, we cannot expect the landscape of corporate governance to improve”.¹

Organizational culture has been recognized as an influential factor in analyzing organizations in various contexts (Brown, 1995). The analysis of cultural factors contributes to a better understanding of individual and group behaviour within an organization. Culture recognizes that our working environments are but extension of ourselves and direct attention to symbolic significance (Dauber, Fink, and Yolles, 2012; Osibanjo and Adeniji, 2013). Thus organizational culture, to a large extent, shapes how the organizational members are expected to behave, in order to fit in, and approach their work (Ehtesham, 2011; Schein, 2011). Toward this end, Manetje and Martins (2009) emphasized that organizational culture is crucial to understanding organizational behaviour.

Organizational systems always set the rules for employee behaviour so as to maintain a balance in the system, even when that balance may be less than optimal for the organization's success. Managers and employees therefore do not behave in a value-free environment; they are governed and directed by the organization's culture (Brown 1998; Nwugwo, 2001). Wagner (1995), for example, states that organizational culture has a strong influence on employee behaviour and work attitudes. Notwithstanding the potential influence of culture on organizational and management practices, most Ghanaian public organizations do not ascribe much importance to the organizational culture construct. Hence, the huge pool of organizational culture studies has overly been conducted in Western cultures (Gordon and DiTomaso, 1992; Denison and Mishra, 1995; Deal & Kennedy, 2000; Ernst, 2001; Hofstede et al., 2010; Bulach et al. 2012; Kotter, 2012). However, organizational theories that have been developed and tested in western cultures may be inadequate to explain organizational phenomena in other cultures such as Ghana.

This study was thus prompted by the apparent substantial international body of theory and research that has emphasized the effect of organizational culture on employees behaviour (Nwugwo, 2001; Taylor, 2012), and the fact that there has been scarce Ghanaian research of the relationship between these concepts. This gap suggests the need for a research that will determine the relationship between the two variables of organizational culture and employee work behaviour in the Ghanaian context. It is a contention of this study that organizational culture, acting through norms and organizational belief systems, is an important determinant of public employee's behaviour at the workplace. The focus of this study, therefore, is to conduct an analysis of the potential influence of culture on public employee workplace behaviour using Ho Municipal Assembly as a case study. Hence, the thesis seeks to answer the following research questions:

- What is the existing organizational culture of HMA?
- Does organizational culture have any significant relationship with organizational citizenship behaviour?
- Is there any significant relationship between the organizational culture and counterproductive work behaviour?

¹Keynote address delivered by Professor Stephen Adei on “Increasing Public-Sector Effectiveness by Changing Organizational Culture”. Workshop on the Effectiveness of public organizations. December 3, 2003

2. Literature Review

2.1. Organizational Culture Defined

The concept of culture has been borrowed from anthropology where its meaning lacks consensus. From a cognitive perspective, culture is viewed as “a system of knowledge, of standards for perceiving, believing, evaluating and acting” but from an ecological-adaptationist perception, culture consists of “a system of socially transmitted behaviour patterns that relate human communities to their ecological settings” (Allaire and Firsirotu, 1984: 218-219). Every organization has its own *way of doing things* [culture] that shapes virtually every aspect of working environment – from dressing conservatively to customer-clientele relations. Thus, most theorists agree that organizational culture exists, and that it has definite effects, but an explicit definition of its true nature eludes capture. Lewis (2002) addressed that, though a universal definition of organizational culture has proven elusive, it is generally considered to be the shared values and beliefs that exist among employees that help guide and coordinate behaviour. While there is no single widely accepted definition, there appears to be some agreement that every definition should place emphasis on a range of social phenomena, including a common pattern of values, beliefs, symbols, meanings, and assumptions held by organizational members (Aycan et al., 2000; Ogbonna and Harris, 2002; Scott et al., 2003; Chow and Liu, 2009; Ngo and Loi, 2008). For the purpose of this study, organizational culture is construed to mean a system of shared values and beliefs that produces norms of behaviour and establish an organizational way of life towards the achievement of organizational goals.

2.2. The Concept of Employee Behaviour

According to Cooper et al. (2007), behaviour denotes the action of a person. It varies with circumstances and could be individual or group based. Thus, behaviour could be observed, repeated and measured. The actions of persons at workplace, good or bad, then constitute work behaviour. In the workplace, employees engage either in organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB), which increases organizational functioning (Podsakoff, Ahearne, and MacKenzie, 1997), or counterproductive work behaviour (CWB), which impairs organizational functioning (Dunlop and Lee, 2004). These behaviours; OCB and CWB could be considered opposites in the sense that the former benefits the organization whereas the latter harms it.

Organizational citizenship behaviour is generally defined as voluntary behaviour that goes beyond the formal requirements of the job which is beneficial to the organization. They are not related to the formal organizational reward system, but promote the effective functioning of the organization (Organ, 1988). Brief and Motowidlo (1986) compared OCB to pro-social organizational behaviour while Muchinsky (2000) states that it is sometimes referred to as pro-social organizational behaviour and extra-role behaviour. Gautam et al. (2005) maintained that OCB is enacted differently in diverse cultural contexts. Hence, citizenship behaviour within an organization may differ with change in geographic context. Since citizenship behaviours usually involve the subordination of self-interest, it is more likely that employees indicating collectivist orientations would exhibit more OCBs. This assertion concurs with Graham's (1989) definition of OCB as behaviour which supports the collective rather than individual self-interest. Niehoff and Yen (2004) assert that as more employees engage in OCB, the organization becomes more successful. Niehoff and Yen (2004) further add that the prevalence of OCBs enhance coworkers' or supervisors' productivity, help coordinate activities, increase the stability of organizational performance, and help the organization attract and retain employees. Jacqueline et al. (2004) suggest that, employees engage in OCB as a form of reciprocity based on the treatment of the organization. Todd (2003) also maintains that, OCB should have a particular impact on the overall effectiveness of organizations by adding to the social framework of the work environment. Notwithstanding the growing interest in citizenship-like behaviours, there is lack of consensus about the dimensionality of OCB. Examination of the literature by Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine, and Bachrach (2000) indicated that almost thirty (30) possibly different forms of citizenship behaviours were discovered. They found seven common themes or dimensions which are: Organizational Loyalty, Organizational Compliance, Helping Behaviour, Sportsmanship, Civic Virtue, Individual Initiative and Self Development (ibid, 2000).

Conversely, counterproductive work behaviour refers to “any intentional act(s) on the part of an organizational member viewed by the organization as contrary to its legitimate interests” (Gruys and Sackett, 2003, p. 30). Synonyms used in the literature for these behaviours include antisocial behaviours (Giacalone, Riordon, and Rosenfeld, 1997), deviance (Robinson and Bennett, 1995), destructive behaviours (Murphy, 1993; Warren, 2003), misbehaviours (Southey, 2010) and bad behaviours (Griffin and Lopez, 2005). These are broad terms that represent a host of specific negative workplace behaviours which individuals willfully choose to engage in. Counterproductive behaviours can range from minor offences such as petty lies to serious offences such as embezzling millions from an organization. They can occur at either the interpersonal level or at an organizational level (Robinson and Bennett 1995). Counterproductive behaviours at the interpersonal level are behaviours that affect the employees within the organization and include acts such as sexual harassment, favoritism, gossip, and verbal aggression. At the organizational level, they are behaviours directed towards the organization and include behaviours such as absenteeism and misuse of the organizational assets (ibid). In the view of Marcus and Schuler (2004), CWB is not merely deliberate but it is always destructive; it is not about sudden or unconscious behaviours. Marcus and Schuler (2004) noted that although individuals may intentionally engage in bad behaviours, they may not intend to cause harm. For example, an employee may deliberately miss a day of work with the private intention of attending to some personal business and not with the intention of negatively affecting organizational productivity. Robinson and Bennett (1995) also addressed that CWBs do not include unethical or illegal behaviours that contribute to an organization's goals, such as an investment banker using insider trading to increase the bank's profit – this would form part of unethical pro-organizational behaviours (UPBs). Broadly speaking, CWB is viewed as consisting of deliberate actions by employees with the aim to harm their organization or its stakeholders. Taylor (2012) thus accentuates that CWB is any deliberate unacceptable behaviour that has the potential to have negative consequences for an organization and its staff. The several

definitions allude that CWB portrays a lack of attention to explicit and implicit organizational rules, policies and values. Equally striking is the fact that a behaviour should be “premeditated and harmful” in order to qualify as counterproductive in a workplace (Schat and Kelloway, 2000; Gruys and Sackett, 2003; Marcus and Schuler, 2004, Taylor, 2012).

The triggers of CWB can be very broad and include environmental factors, inadequate training, worker personality, life changes, compensation as well and external variables (Gruys and Sackett, 2003; Taylor, 2012). Bennett and Robinson (2000), however, emphasized that CWB is typically the product of one’s personality and the quality of the interactions of individual with the work environment. Several typologies have been developed to identify and classify CWB in the workforce. For instance, Hollinger and Clark (1982) suggested CWB be divided into production deviance and property deviance. Robinson and Bennett (1995) however classified CWB into four categories of *property deviance* (e.g. theft or sabotage of equipment), *production deviance* (e.g. tardiness or goldbricking), *political deviance* (e.g. gossiping or favoritism), and *personal aggression* (e.g. sexual harassment or workplace bullying). Bennett and Robinson (2000), in their recent studies, reconsidered their categorization and suggested that CWB be categorized into two general dimensions of interpersonal deviance and organizational deviance. Though CWBs may be difficult to measure, studies describe CWBs within organizations as a huge issue with detrimental consequences. The presence of CWB in organizations thrives with huge economic concerns for many companies (Schat and Kelloway, 2000; Bennett and Robinson, 2003).

2.3. Organizational Culture and Employee Behaviour Interdependence

The notion that culture has a momentous impact on the effectiveness and behaviour of employees within organizations is widely underscored in the literature (Kotter and Heskett, 1991; Schein, 2004; Kandula, 2006). Kandula (2006) particularly notes that owing to organizational culture differences, same strategies do not yield same results for two organizations even in the same industry and same location. According to him a supportive and strong culture can stimulate an average employee to perform brilliantly whereas a negative and weak culture may demotivate an outstanding employee to underperform (*ibid*).

Ernst’s (2001) study of public organizations in the United States of America attributed the decline in employees’ productive behaviours to the corporate cultures which were incongruent to the changing expectation of stakeholders and stressed that organizational culture has the ability to improve corporate effectiveness. Ernst (2001) contends that without considering the impact of organizational culture, organizational practices could be counterproductive because the two are interdependent, and a change in one will impact the other.

Van Stuyvesant-Meijen (2007) conducted a study at a selected municipality in South Africa to assess the relationship between organizational culture and the organizational commitment of employees. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship between the existing organizational culture and the organizational commitment of employees.

Sokro (2012) explored the relationship existing between organizational culture, employee motivation and performance using a mixed method approach. The findings revealed that organizational culture has a direct influence on employee motivation and indirectly on organizational performance. Thus, if organizations embrace strong culture of acknowledging and rewarding employee’s efforts, it leads to increase motivation and significant enhancement of their performance.

Moorman and Blakely (1995), Paine and Organ (2000) and Podsakoff et al. (2000) have highlighted the need to consider the cultural context in employee behaviour studies. Moorman and Blakely (1995) for instance show that individuals holding more collectivistic values are more likely to perform organizational citizenship behaviours than those holding individualistic values. Paine and Organ (2000) also hypothesized that collectivist cultures would demonstrate more OCBs than individualist cultures, because OCBs would be seen as common, normal work behaviour within such cultures. They, however, argued that employees in high power distance cultures are less likely to engage in OCB behaviours (*ibid*).

In one group-level study, Bommer, Miles, and Grover (2003) found a strong relationship between individual employees’ OCBs and the aggregated OCBs of their respective work groups, suggesting that individual employees will tend to exhibit similar levels of OCB to the other members of the workgroup. Taylor (2012), in her study, also examined the relationship between culture and CWBs. A meta-analysis was conducted using 450 studies from 25 countries in the context of GLOBE’s cultural dimension model. Findings indicated that high scores on cultural dimensions were associated with low scores on interpersonal and organizational deviance.

Boerhannoeddin, Teh and Ismail (2012) investigated the relationship between organizational culture and a performance appraisal process and how it impacts on organizational citizenship behaviour of academic staff. The instrument used was a self-administered questionnaire involving 77 respondents from a Malaysian private higher-educational institution. The study found that seven dimensions of organizational culture as developed by O’Reilly (1989) are correlated with performance appraisal and have a significant impact on the OCB of academic staff.

Using Goffee and Gareth’s Double S Cube framework, Nwugwo (2001) examined the effect of organizational culture on employee behaviour and attitude. His study argued that organizational members are systematically consumed by assumptions and belief systems of their companies’ culture. The study shows that culture can be a very effective means of directing the behaviour of organizational members toward activities deemed important to organizational goals. He thus concludes based on 3 ideas; knowing the culture of an organization allows employees to understand the firm’s history and current approach; Organizational culture can foster commitment to corporate philosophy and values; Organizational culture serves as a control mechanism for employee behaviours.

A current study by Boon, Belschak, Den Hartog, and Pijenburg (2014) has explored how employees spend their work time and its consequence for organizations. The study was conducted with 1,626 employees in a Dutch governmental organization. The study focused on the role of perceived culture and psychological processes in explaining employee absenteeism. Though the authors allude that employees may absent from work for different reasons, and when at work employees make choices on how to

allot time for core task and contextual activities which may affect the organization; Boon et al. (2014) bemoaned situational factors such as corporate culture for being responsible for such employees' behaviour.

Sheridan (1992), in his *Organizational Culture and Employee Retention*, examined the retention rates of 904 college graduate employees of six public accounting firms hired over a period of six years. Sheridan (1992) opined that organizational values and beliefs varied significantly among the firms; thus had significant effects on the rate at which the employees voluntarily terminated employment. The study also revealed that relationships between the employees' work attitude and their retention also varied significantly with organizational culture (ibid). Sheridan (1992) thus corroborates Kerr and Slocum (1987) earlier studies, when the latter argued that corporate cultural values may moderate differences in the retention rates of strong and weak performers.

In their recent study, Zeitlin, Augsberger, Auerbach and McGowan (2014) using mixed methods examined the impact of perceived organizational culture on employees' intention to remain employed. An analysis of the data confirmed that organizational culture is related with employee retention. Thus workers whose values were more congruent with those of the organization were more likely to remain employed. Both the qualitative and quantitative findings highlighted the importance of positive agency relationships.

Kerr and Slocum (1987) declared that some organizations have cultures that emphasize values of security, teamwork and respect for their members. These values encourage loyalty and long-term commitment to the organizations among all workers, irrespective of their job performance. Many other organizations have cultures that stress personal initiative and individual rewards for accomplishing specific work objectives. These values promote entrepreneurial norms whereby the organization does not offer long-term security and the employees do not promise loyalty. Kerr and Slocum (1987) hence suggested that weaker performers would soon leave such a culture, and stronger performers would stay in order to 'exploit the organization until better rewards could be gotten elsewhere' (Kerr and Slocum, 1987, p. 103). Thus, employee retention rates may be consistently high for both strong and weak performers in some organizational cultures but in other cultures may vary significantly depending on employees' job performance.

2.4. Harrison and Stokes' Framework of Organizational Culture

The Harrison and Stokes (1992) conceptual framework for analyzing organizational culture is adopted to classify the different types of culture existing in the selected organization. This descriptive model creates an awareness of the existing and preferred cultures in an organization. Harrison and Stokes (1992) believe that every organization has a combination of the four cultural types; with each type evoking different behaviours and each are based on different human values. The cultural types are further discussed;

2.4.1. Power Dimension

Describes an organizational culture that is based on inequality of access to resources. It has a single source of power from which rays of influence spread throughout the organization. This means that power is centralized and organizational members are connected to the center by functional and specialist strings. Some of the features of this orientation include a strong and charismatic leader that rewards loyal followers. The leader acts unilaterally but in the best interest of the organization (Harrison, 1993). An advantage of this orientation is that swift decisions can be made due to the few rules that exist. Some disadvantages of the power orientation are; leaders are not questioned even when they seem to be wrong; people with power break the rules with impunity and at its worst power oriented organizations tend to rule by fear (Harrison, 1993; Harrison and Stokes, 1992).

2.4.2. Role Dimension

This typology is concerned with job description and specialization. Very important is the fact that rules and procedures form the basis of job description and tend to prioritize the realization of goals with limited emphasis on the personnel who function in the organization. Organizational life in role cultures is dominated by the use of privileges, rights, legality and legitimacy, with people having clearly delegated authorities in a highly defined structure. A weakness is that job functions are strictly defined with little room for innovation. Thus, deviation from the norm is discouraged and it is difficult to get changes approved.

2.4.3. Achievement Dimension

Refers to a task conscious organization which entails organizational members focusing on recognizing the set goals and aspirations of the organization. The main strategic objective of this culture is to bring the right people together, in order to achieve the organizational goals. Some advantages of an achievement orientation include employee enthusiasm and energy. A disadvantage is that employees may become disillusioned if results are not sustained or may experience burn out due to the high pressure (Harrison and Stokes, 1992).

2.4.4. Support Dimension

Describes an organizational environment that advocates mutual trust among the entire membership. A support-oriented organization exists solely for the individuals who comprise it, and may be represented diagrammatically as a cluster in which no individual dominates. An advantage of a support orientation is that there is a high degree of loyalty as members make sacrifices for one another (Harrison and Stokes, 1992). Some disadvantages of a support orientation include: the focus of people on relationships at the neglect of work. Also, when consensus cannot be reached, the group may become indecisive and decisions may take a long time as they would require everyone's approval.

2.5. Conceptual Model and Hypothesis

This study focuses on the relationship between organizational culture and employee behaviour. The behaviours considered are OCB and CWB. Based on the literature presented above, a research model is proposed as illustrated in Figure.1. Subsequently, it is also hypothesized as follows:

- Hypothesis 1: There is a significant positive relationship between organizational culture and organizational citizenship behaviour.
- Hypothesis 2: There is a significant negative relationship between organizational culture and counterproductive work behaviour.

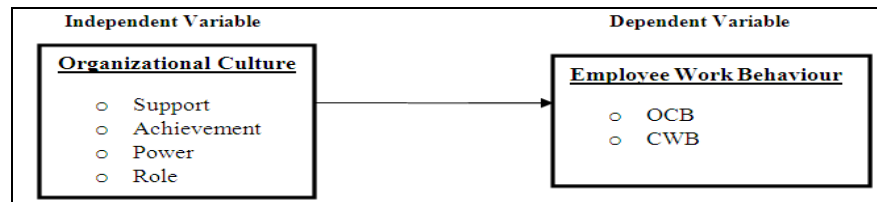


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Source: Authors' own construct, 2014 based on Harrison & Stokes (1992)

From the above framework, the independent variable - organizational culture - is assessed along the four cultural dimensions as proposed by Harrison and Stokes (1992). Subsequently, the dependent variables (i.e. OCB and CWB) are proposed to be influenced by existing organizational culture.

3. Research Methodology

3.1. The Study Area

The study was conducted in Ho Municipal Assembly; a local government authority under the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (MLGRD) of the republic of Ghana. The core business of this organization is local governance and administration. The Ho Municipal, one of the four municipalities in the Volta Region, was established by a Legislative Instrument L.I 2074 of 2012. The municipality has Ho as its capital which also serves as the capital and economic hub of the Volta Region. The Municipal Assembly is headed by a Municipal Chief Executive (M.C.E) who is the political head of the local administration. The M.C.E is assisted by a team of professional bureaucrats from the various departments of the Municipal Assembly, with staff strength of 142 permanent employees. Politically, the governance structure of the Ho Municipal Assembly is made up of 43 Assembly Members. These include 29 elected members and 14 government appointees. However, the Assembly Members are not employees and thus do not constitute part of the study population. In territorial terms, the Municipality is located between latitudes 6° 20''N and 6° 55''N and longitudes 0° 12'E and 0° 53'E. It shares borders with Adaklu and Agortime-Ziope Districts to the South, Ho West District to the North and West and the Republic of Togo to the East. The Ho Municipal Assembly was chosen because it is a cosmopolitan local authority with ability to attract diverse caliber of employees with varying professional qualification from all over the country owing to available infrastructure and social amenities. This brings on board, respondents from divers socio-cultural, economic and even political backgrounds.

3.2. Target Population/ Sample Size

The target population consists of 142 staff of Ho Municipal Assembly on the established scheme of Ghana's Local Government Service². They have different levels of employment, conditions of service and education. However, the actual study comprised 104 respondents, selected through a multi-stage sampling procedure. Thus, 11 key respondents were purposively selected and interviewed. These key respondents include the MCE, Municipal Coordinating Director (MCD), Human Resource Manager, and 8 Heads of Department. The MCE is the political head of the Municipal Assembly; the MCD is the head of the paid staff of the Municipal Assembly, the Human Resource Manager is in charge of personnel administration issues whilst the Heads of Department were the line managers of the various departments of the Assembly. The selection of these key respondents was based on their professional expertise, leadership roles and their appreciation of the issues addressed by the study. Apart from the 11 key respondents, the researchers also surveyed the views of 93 other employees to enhance the quality and representativeness of the study.

3.3. Sampling Technique

As part of the sampling procedure, the researchers employed both non-probability and probability techniques to gather data. For the non-probability, the researchers employed purposive sampling technique to select and interview the key respondents. Purposive sampling is based on the assumption that one wants to discover, understand, gain insight; therefore one needs to select a sample from which one can learn the most (Osuala, 2007). This sampling technique – purposive sample – allowed the researchers the discretion to tenaciously select respondents who have fair knowledge and appreciation of the key issues of interest to the

² It is one of the Public Services of Ghana. It particularly consist of public employees who work in the various Metro, Municipal and District Assemblies

study, hence the 11 key respondents. Alternatively, random sampling technique was also employed to survey additional 93 employees of HMA to augment the representativeness of the study. The study used a proportional stratified sampling technique to categorize the employees into strata on the basis of departments/units. Subsequently, a simple random sampling technique was employed to draw participants from the various departments/units. As a result, each individual in the selected department had an equal and calculable chance of being selected into the sample.

3.4. Data Collection and Analysis

The study employed a mixed method approach to collect primary data. Thus, in-depth interviews with 11 key respondents were conducted with the aid of an interview guide. Also, a self-administered questionnaire was also used to collect quantitative data. The questionnaire consists of three main sections. The first part of the questionnaire requires respondents' demography whereas the second part deals with key organizational culture characteristics. It thus contains a set of hypothesized statements to which respondents were expected to either agree or disagree using a five-point scale (5 = Strongly Agree; 4 = Agree; 3 = Undecided; 2 = Disagree; and 1 = Strongly Disagree). The final section of the questionnaire measured both Organizational Citizenship Behaviour and Counterproductive Work Behaviour. Under this section, the respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they engage in the listed behaviours using the Likert-scale format, with answers ranging from 1 to 5 (1 = Never, 2= Seldom, 3= Sometimes, 4= Often and 5 = Always). This questionnaire was developed by the researchers based on literature reviewed (Bennett and Robinson, 2003; Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994; Denison and Neale, n.d). In order to identify potential problems and to improve the internal validity of the questionnaire prior to the actual study, a sample of 20 respondents was used for the pilot study. The reliability of the scales measuring the various variables as obtained in the pilot study is as follows: Organizational culture (α .87), Organizational citizenship behaviour (α .82), and Counterproductive work behaviour (α .82). Therefore, the scale used for this survey can then be considered reliable.

The interview data was analyzed using qualitative content analysis approach whereas the quantitative data was analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences version 20. Hence, a comprehensive report from the analyzed data is presented to draw inference.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. Respondents' Demography

As indicated in Table 1 below, the sample size comprises of 64.5% males and 35.5% females, which is evident that the representation of the male is higher than the female counterpart. However, this also shows that both males and females are fairly represented, and women are not left behind in terms of staffing. Furthermore, the greater percentage of the respondents fall within the age bracket of 26 – 35 years of age (50.5%), followed by 36– 45years of age representing 30.1%; and the least in the age category is respondents within the age bracket of 18–25 (6.5%). It is therefore evident that the respondents could be considered as appropriate because the majority fall within the age bracket that are agile and drives the economy of any nation. Thus, an overwhelming 87.1% (falling within the ages of 18 – 45 years) of the staff of HMA are youthful and energetic.

	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Female	33	35.5%
Male	60	64.5%
Total:	93	100.0%
Age		
18-25	6	6.5%
26-35	47	50.5%
36-45	28	30.1%
46 & above	12	29.9%
Total:	93	100.0%
Years with Organization		
Less than a year	15	16.1%
1-5 years	45	48.4%
6-10 years	29	31.2%
11years & above	4	4.3%
Total:	93	100.0%
Educational Level		
Degree	44	47.3%
Diploma	29	31.2%
SSSCE/BECE	10	10.8%
Others	10	10.8%
Total:	93	100.0%

Table 1: Respondents Demography

Source: Survey, 2014

Generally, the respondents could be classified as relatively experienced and familiar with the organizational culture of HMA because 48.4% and 31.2% have worked between 1 – 5 years, and 6 – 10 years respectively for HMA. However, those within the bracket of 11 years and above appear insignificant representing 4.3%. This could be as a result of the high rate of employee transfer which is one of the characteristics of typical public sector organization like HMA. Moreover, 15 respondents representing 16.1% had less than a year experience with the HMA. Nevertheless, it does not necessarily mean they have limited work experience entirely. This is because some even had over ten years work experience but with different Metro, Municipal & District Assemblies (and have just been posted to the HMA within the last few months). The caliber of an organization’s human resources reveals a great deal of its corporate culture; hence the study considered the educational levels of the respondents. Table 1 demonstrates that, the majority (47.3%) of the respondents had University degree, followed by Diploma holders with 31.2%. Respondents with secondary and basic level of education (i.e. SSSCE / BECE) comprised 10.8%, and those who had “other” qualifications not explicitly stated in the table comprised 10.8% and they basically included Grade I and II stenographer secretaries, and other certificate qualifications from Technical and Professional Institutes. This clearly indicates that HMA is staffed by highly qualified and competent personnel since even the lowest auxiliary workers have some formal education.

4.2. The Existing Organizational Culture

The dominant organizational culture profile was identified using descriptive statistics, by calculating the mean scores of each organizational culture scale. Table 2 illustrates the dominant culture which is defined as the scale that recorded the highest overall mean across respondents. It is thus observed in Table 2 that power orientation attained the highest mean score of 15.02. This score indicates that the majority of employees of the selected municipality (HMA) identify the power culture as the dominant existing organizational culture.

Organizational Culture Scales	Mean Scores (N=93)
Power culture	15.02
Achievement culture	14.39
Support culture	12.99
Role culture	11.78

Table 2: Organizational Culture Scale Vs Mean Score
Source: Data Analysis, 2014

Employees of the Ho Municipal Assembly have identified that the leadership structure of HMA is hierarchical in nature and thus accentuates seniority–subordinate relationship. Basically, the success of the municipality depends on the person in power, whereas employees are expected to report to their supervisors during problems. This corroborates Martin’s (2002) assertions that there is a single source of authority who attempts to control employee behaviour, and where most of the important decisions regarding the municipality are made. As Harrison (1993) notes, the strength of power culture is the ability of the organization to react quickly to change, since there is only one source of power who deals with the change. The demerit however is that the consequences of questioning management are often uncertain and undesirable.

To ascertain the prevalence of power oriented cultures in HMA, the study focused on the leadership style, allocation of resources, relationship between management and subordinates, and respect for authority. Thus the researchers endeavored to establish as to whether management of HMA is democratic and willing to accept subordinates ideas. Figure 2 and 3 respectively illustrate the respondents’ views.

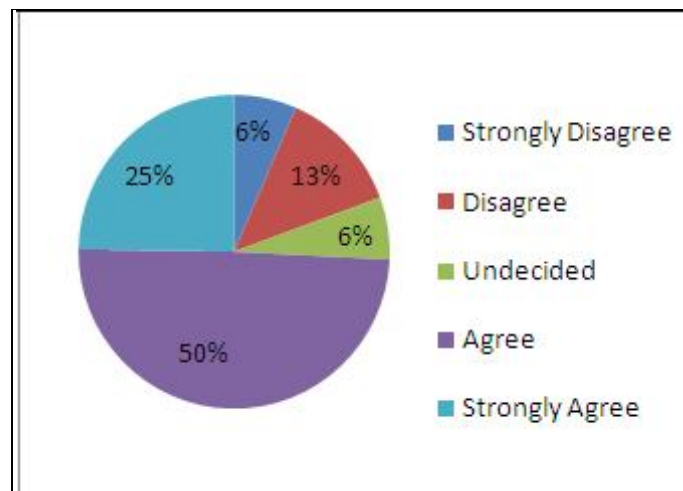


Figure 2: Management is democratic
Source: Data Analysis, 2014

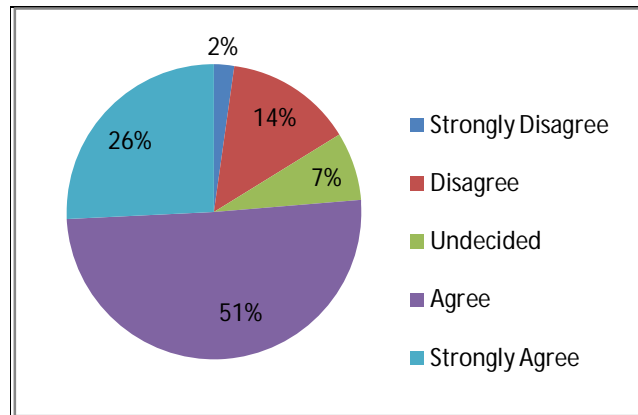


Figure 3: Managers and Staffs have Informal Discussion
Source: Data Analysis, 2014

As evident in Figure 2, an overwhelming 50% of the respondents agree that the management of HMA is democratic while 25% further strongly agree to the same assertion. Nevertheless, 13% of the respondents disagree, followed by 6% who also strongly disagree to the democratic trait of HMA management. 6% were however indecisive. Based on these findings, there is a prior reason to argue that management of HMA is quite democratic. Leaders who build such cultures and articulate same to followers typically exhibit a sense of participatory management style. Subordinates as well as core staff are encouraged to volunteer their views, and disagreement is seen as a positive attempt to improve things. If there is rivalry between departments or staffs, every effort is made to ensure that the outcome is positive for all concerned. Moreover, Figure 3 clearly demonstrates that managers of HMA have cordial relationship with their staff. This is because, although a total of 16 % disagree, as high as 51% of the respondents agree that apart from official meetings and discussions, managers and staffs often have informal discussion. Another 26% strongly agree with the same assertion. It is therefore evident that managers and subordinates communicate readily on an informal basis. Nevertheless, meticulous observation by the researchers revealed that communication is often written, formal, and top-down. Power is based on formal authority and decision making often runs through formal contacts. “Here we write memos and not verbal communication”, a respondent accentuated. Therefore, there is a positive relationship between the democratic management style of leadership and their relationship with subordinates since most democratic leaders are inclined towards maintaining cordial relations with workers. Owing to this positive culture of cordiality, employees are free to communicate problems or alert management of potential organizational threats. This informal discussion at the workplace bridges the culture of hierarchy and excessive redtapeism which usually characterized public organizations. Some of the respondents interviewed particularly confirmed that it is common practice to see directors walking around the various offices ‘just to say hello to junior staff’.

Furthermore, the results of this study suggest that allocation of resources such as stationeries, equipment, fuel, funds, etcetera, for staff to undertake official task is reasonably fair and devoid of bias. However, one cannot deny the fact that it is highly centralized and bureaucratic. There is a formal procedure an employee ought to observe in order to access working tool. This begins with filling a *Requisition Form* to be approved by the MCD for onward supply (subject to availability) by the Store Keeper. In the case of non-availability, the Procurement Officer takes over the process. Most interviewees, however, reported frustration associated with accessing resource to undertake official duties owing to organizational bureaucracy and inflexibility. Everything has to follow the procedural manual and if it doesn't it'll get sent back. Altogether, 60.2 % of respondents confirmed that allocation of resource for official duty is fair, with 34.4% dissenting. In an attempt to establish the extent rally behind management vision, majority of the respondents representing 81.7% confirmed that meeting demands of superiors are employees' top priority in HMA. This suggests a high degree of respect employees assign to management's directives to accomplish organizational set goals. All these are typical of power oriented culture organizations.

4.3. Relationship between Variables Analyzed

This section presents and discusses the relationship between Organizational Culture, OCB and CWB respectively. The correlation matrix presented in Table 3 illustrates the results of the relationships between the analyzed variables. From the correlation matrix (Table 3), organizational culture was significantly and positively related to organizational citizenship behaviour ($r = .29, p < .01$). Conversely, organizational culture was not related to counterproductive work behaviour ($r = -.12, p > .01$).

Variable	1	2	3
Organizational culture	—		
Organizational citizenship behaviour	.29**	—	
Counterproductive work behaviour	-.12	-.07	—

Table 3: Pearson's Correlation Matrix of Variables

** $P > .01, N = 93$

Source: Data Analysis, 2014

As indicated in Table 3 above, the data analysis that tested the proposed hypothesis relating Organizational Culture and OCB was supported. There was a significant positive relationship between Organizational Culture and OCB. This means that the more employees live by the organization's culture, the more likely they indulge in helpful behaviour. This implies that nurturing the right culture could engender OCB among employees to improve corporate performance. These findings therefore support studies that have looked at the positive aspects of culture in organizations (Bommer et al., 2003; Paine and Organ, 2000). This also confirms Wang and Wong (2011) study supporting a relationship between Chinese cultural values and organizational citizenship behaviour. Moreover, the results of this research also corroborate an earlier study by Van Stuyvesant-Meijen (2007) which was conducted in a South African municipality. Van Stuyvesant-Meijen (2007) found a strong positive relationship between the existing organizational culture of the municipality and the organizational commitment of employees. Sokro (2012) using a mixed method approach (just as adopted in this study) in an automobile firm found that organizational culture had a direct impact on employee motivation and indirectly on organizational performance. That is, if organizations develop a strong culture of rewarding and acknowledging employees' effort, it leads to increased motivation and their performance would significantly improve. On the other hand, organizations that fail to socialize their members into their culture would most likely have their employees not making much input into the promotion of the corporate objectives. In the case of HMA, the corporate objective is summarized as the delivery of public services. Organizations with weak cultures would experience more employee apathy, absenteeism, loafing, amongst others which in turn can affect organizational effectiveness. Thus, the finding of a positive relationship between Organizational Culture and OCB suggests that when the employees are socialized into the culture of an organization, they are most likely to demonstrate behaviours such as punctuality and general commitment to values and goals of the organization.

As evident in Table 3, the hypothesis testing the relationship between Organizational Culture and CWB was not supported. Thus, there was no significant relationship between the two variables. This denotes that occurrence of CWBs are not as a result of culture. The finding contradicts studies that found positive relationships between organizational culture and CWB. For instance, it contradicts Taylor's (2012) meta-analysis that found high scores on cultural dimensions related to low scores on CWB. The meta-analysis was conducted using GLOBE's cultural dimension model whilst this present study employed Harrison and Stoke (1992) cultural dimension model. The variations in the results may be attributed to the differences in these two models. The present study further challenges Warren (2003) assertion that internal factors such as organizational culture are responsible for CWBs. It could thus be argued vehemently that factors rather than culture account for CWBs. Since CWB consist of deliberate actions of employees with the intent to harm their organizations or its stakeholders, external forces may be more influential than situational factors. For instance, research shows that CWBs and personality are closely related (Bennett and Robinson, 2000).

5. Conclusion

This study assessed the influence of organizational culture on employee work behaviour in a Ghanaian public sector organization. Public sector employee work behaviour has become more important than ever to ensure value for public investment. This cannot happen in a vacuum but through deliberate policy actions influenced by research. The primary objective of this study was to identify the existing organizational culture of the selected organization based on Harrison and Stokes (1992) cultural dimension. The results of this study revealed that *power oriented culture* was dominant. The study established a significant positive relationship between Organizational Culture and OCB; however there was no significant relationship between Organizational Culture and CWB. This means that, the more employees live by the norms and values of the organization, the more likely they were to engage in behaviours that were beneficial to the organization. The results from the study provide support to claims that organizations can shape the orientations of employees by creating the right environment. Thus, organizations would have to encourage their employees to engage in OCB by embedding ethical values in their corporate culture. The cultural context of the organizations therefore cannot and should not be separated from the explanation of employee behaviours at the workplace. In sum, it must be emphasized that organizational culture is a powerful tool which can be manipulated to influence employee behaviours to enhance organizational effectiveness.

6. References

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