The Relationship between Organizational Culture and Change at United Nations-Economic Commission for Africa

By

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This is to certify that the thesis prepared by Lidya Shibekaw, entitled: *The Relationship between Organizational Culture and Change at UN-ECA* and submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts (Human Resource and Organizational Development in Education) complies with the regulations of the University and meets the accepted standards with respect to originality and quality.

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

ANOVA: Analysis of Variance

df: degree of freedom

GS: General Service

NO: National Officers

OCAI: Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument

OCRBS: Organizational Change Recipients Beliefs Scale

PO: Professional Officers

SD: Standard Deviation

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Science

UN-ECA: United Nations Economic Commission for Africa

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between organizational culture and change at UN-ECA. A correlation survey design was used to achieve the purpose of the study. The research sample was composed of 77 professional officers, 12 national officers and 153 general service staff. These samples were drawn from the total population using availability sampling for national officers and simple random sampling techniques for selection of sample professional officers and general service staff from the organization. Moreover, the data gathering tools for this research were two standardized questionnaires, observation and document analysis. Consequently, the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) and Organizational Change Recipients Belief Scale (OCRBS) standardized questionnaire were distributed for the respondents to gather the necessary data. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics such as percentages, mean average, standard deviation, as well as, t-test, one way ANOVA, correlation and regression analysis. Thematic analysis was used to analyze qualitative data. Finally, the study revealed that there was a statistically significant positive correlation between organizational culture and change. Based on the results of a Pearson product-moment correlation, the researcher concluded that there was a statistically significant positive correlation between organizational culture and change. Therefore, the leaders of the UNECA should be expected to organize workshops and meetings, where members raise their awareness and acquire the relevant organizational culture to the ongoing change efforts and also expected to encourage and motivate employees in the organization extrinsically and intrinsically.

Key words: *Organizational Culture and Organizational Change*

Chapter One

This chapter deals with background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, definitions of key terms and organization of the study.

1.1. Background of the Study

Mullins (1999) attests that culture helps to account for variations among organizations and managers, both nationally and internationally. Culture helps to explain why different groups of people perceive things in their own way and perform things differently from other groups. Culture can help reduce complexity and uncertainty. It provides a consistency in outlook and values, and makes possible the process of decision-making, co-ordination and control. .There is nothing accidental about cultural strengths. There is a relationship between an organizations culture and its performance. Schein (1999) suggests that organizational culture is even more important today than it was in the past. Increased competition, globalization, mergers, acquisitions, alliances and various workforce developments have created a greater need for: Co-ordination and integration across organizational units in order to improve efficiency, quality, and speed of designing, manufacturing and delivering products and services; Product and strategy innovation; Process innovation and the ability to successfully introduce new technologies and programmes; and Effective management of dispersed work units and increase workforce diversity.

Mullins (1999) draws further attention to the importance of culture by attesting to the fact that, without exception, the dominance and coherence of culture proved to be an essential quality of excellent companies. Moreover, the stronger the culture, the more it was directed to the marketplace, the less need was there for policy manuals, organization charts, or detailed procedures and rules. In these companies, people in all parts of the organization know what they are supposed to do in most situations because a handful of guiding values is very clear. Organizational culture evolves slowly over time and has a powerful influence on behavior within an organization (Slocum and Hellreigel, 2007).Every organization has a predefined culture which makes the way employees

behave vary from a positive to a negative attitude towards their jobs. Understanding the basics of culture is necessary to understand official and unofficial behavior of employees.

According to Wallach (1983) individual outcomes, like job satisfaction, depend on the match between an individual's characteristics and the organization's culture. An employee can be more effective in his/ her current job when the culture is appropriate to the business and a certain level of job satisfaction is reached. The bureaucratic culture is based on power and control which makes it difficult for some employees to be satisfied because they are for example achievement motivated. These employees are driven to improve their personal performance and not by doing everything in a regulated and ordered way.

Wallach (1983) identified that performance and job satisfaction depend on the match of personal characteristics and organizational culture. In the present market structures, organizations are strongly interested in implementing decision making processes that allow improving their internal and external functioning (Caetano, 1999). Competitive market dynamics have been pressuring organizations to develop a series of actions in order to stimulate their strategic development. This fact has been leading organizations to be focused on developing learning capabilities, in order to deal with all the complexity, diversity and challenges that describe the environments where they act. Managers have already concluded that knowing how to change and when to change has become critical for survival in modern economies. Many organizational changes occur based on dealing with changes in the responsibilities of workers, theirs tasks and with the re-structuring of workplaces. Understanding the relation between organizational change and job satisfaction is logic to explore. The role of effective organizational commitment should also be considered in the context of this relation, as the bond between the individual and the organization may play a key-role in this relation.

According to Linstone and Mitroff (1994), there were three factors to be considered in implementing change processes, that is the technological, organizational, and personal perspectives. Although people are the most important factor in making change, however, they are also the most difficult element to deal with. Therefore, managing the human part of the organization becomes a major challenge in handling change processes in the

organization as it involves values, preferences, beliefs and attitudes toward a particular activity. Organizational culture plays a pervasive and significant role in the organization. First, it complements the manager's "rational tools", such as organizational structure, policies, information systems, technology and strategy. With the rational tools, managers take actions designed to achieve their goals and objectives. By fostering an organizational culture and directing employee's attention to it, managers create a work atmosphere that implies what is important and accepted. Together, rational tools and organizational culture shape employee perceptions and behavior, which greatly determine the organization's overall performance. Organizational culture also has a socializing role. It subtly or explicitly informs new organization members how they should behave to fit in. If the organizational culture is potent, employees eventually mold their behavior accordingly without even wondering why. Because organizational culture consists of shared values and beliefs, it can be somewhat static. But in today's workplace, flexibility is a key to continued success. To bring about lasting change, organizations must deal with the organizational culture, overcoming resistance and encouraging a culture that embraces change. Culture can be very stable overtime, but they are never static. Once culture developed, it will affect most of the aspects of an organization its strategy, its structure, its processes, its rewards and control systems, and its daily routine. If the organization is unfrozen by external or internal events, it perceive, some of crisis that motivate a need to change, the change processes will typically start at the strategy, structure and procedure level. When managers create a climate for change and help changes succeed, they are managing their organization's culture. They are espousing a value of flexibility and enabling their employee to do the same (Schein, 1985' Kotter and Heskt1992).

Furthermore, as pointed out by More and Reimer (1956), an organizational change that provide intrinsic rewards more autonomy for decision making among operative workers resulted in increases in higher order need satisfaction (E.g., self actualization, an intrinsic need). Bandura (1986) stressed the importance of intrinsic valence in organization change efforts. Thus, from the research on valence, we felt there was a benefit to including both extrinsic and intrinsic valence. This component recognizes the importance of change agents addressing the personal needs of change recipients. An understanding of the

importance of these beliefs plus having the ability to gauge them among organizational change recipients should reveal useful information to change leaders that can be used to initiate process strategies and tactics that will facilitate the change process.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to assess the relationship between organizational culture and change in UN Organization: the case of UN-ECA. As stated on UNECA website, ECA was established by the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) of the United Nations (UN) in 1958 as one of the UN's five regional commissions, ECA's mandate is to promote the economic and social development of its member States, foster intra-regional integration, and promote international cooperation for Africa's development. To enhance its impact, ECA places a special focus on collecting up to date and original regional statistics in order to ground its policy research and advocacy on clear objective evidence; promoting policy consensus; providing meaningful capacity development; and providing advisory services in key thematic fields. ECA's thematic areas of focus are Macroeconomic Policy, Regional Integration and Trade, Social Development, Natural Resources, Innovation and Technology, Gender, Governance. ECA also provides technical advisory services to African governments, intergovernmental organizations and institutions.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

All organizations, everywhere, function within a specific culture, and it is becoming more widely recognized in contemporary discussions of organizational performance that managers and other organizational practitioners have to develop an understanding of their cultural settings if their organizations are to perform effectively. The main focus will be how to relate organizations more closely with their cultural settings in order to enhance optimal performance. Organizational change and reorganizations may influence job and organizational characteristics and, as a result, job satisfaction (Blunt and Jones, 1992). According to Mack et al. (1998), organizational change causes employees to alter their ways of working.

Based on their research Mack et al., (1998), conclude that, in general, organizational changes result in increasing levels of job dissatisfaction, mainly as a result of increased uncertainty during the process of change. Organizational change can take different forms: reorganizing the work practices, job redesign, organizational growth, organizational downsizing. Moreover, while some changes affect the entire organization, other changes affect only specific divisions, teams or jobs. The organizational change is very complex as it involves organizational downsizing, growth, job redesign and a change in organizational strategy, focusing on more business-like behavior.

The relationship between organizational culture and organizational change is distinct and works both ways. An organization's specific culture can make change easier or harder, can affect the way change is communicated and can impact the overall effectiveness of change. Significant organizational change can also have a profound effect on an organization's culture, (Mack et al. 1998). Organizational culture is the way that a company operates. It refers not to specific processes, such as when the fiscal year ends or what type of software is used, but rather to atmospheric and relational aspects of how an entity does business. For example, one company might be quite strict about start and end times while another might be more lenient or flexible. One company might offer on-site daycare and encourage employees to visit their children throughout the day, while another might expect that personal life be kept strictly separate. Other areas of cultural difference can be seen in how information is communicated within the company; how management styles vary; and the way employees are encouraged to treat vendors, clients and colleagues. Perhaps the most direct link between organizational culture and organizational change is adaptability. Some companies embrace change & culture; they constantly look for ways to improve operations and remain on the leading edge of innovation. Other companies are more traditional and prefer to continue to conduct business as they always have, regardless of market changes. Traditional companies do not generally adapt well to change; they may resist until well after the change is necessary and may fail to implement change effectively (Schein, 2004).

Another cultural factor affecting change is the effectiveness of communication channels. Companies who are set up to quickly, clearly and effectively communicate change and change strategies to employees, clients and vendors are likely to have more effective change initiatives. In addition, a company that encourages employee feedback is likely to experience less worker stress during times of change. The relationship between organizational culture and organizational change also is reflected in how change affects culture. Thus there exists the problem of a dearth of research focusing exclusively on the relationships between organizational change and culture. That is the reason why the researcher intended to study the relationship between organizational culture and change in UN Organization, the case of UN-ECA. In Addition to this the study also tried to seek answers for the following basic questions:

1) What is the existing and preferred culture of UN-ECA?
2) Is there a significant relationship between the Organizational Culture and Sub-variables of Change at UN-ECA?
3) What is the perception of employees towards change at UN-ECA?

1.3 Objective of the Study

1.3.1 General Objective

The general objective of this study was to assess the relationship between culture and change in United Nations Economic Commission for Africa.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of the study were:-

- To examine the existing and preferred culture of UN-ECA.
- To identify if there is any significant relationship between the Organizational Culture and Sub-variables of Change at UN-ECA.
- To examine the perception of employees towards change at UN-ECA.

1.4 Significances of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between culture and change in United Nations Economic commission for Africa. Therefore, the results of this study might have the following importance:-

1) It might give an insight to any of concerned bodies about the relationship between culture and change.

2) It might help UN-ECA to understand more clear how culture have an impact on organizational change and make necessary progress based on the findings of the study. It may provide some suggestions to concerned bodies that will help as input for future improvement of the relationship and to take corrective measures in the area of problems identified.

3) It might serve as a spring board for other researchers that have an interest to study in the area in a wider scope.

1.5. Delimitation of the Study

In order to make the research manageable, the study was delimited to United Nations Economic Commission for Africa only in Addis Ababa Main office on the basis of the availability of time and resources. The study also delimited to the study of organizational culture through its dimensions-clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market and organizational change through its dimensions discrepancy, appropriateness, principal support, efficacy and valance.

1.6Limitations of the Study

The study found no evidence of research findings on organizational culture and change in UN organizations in Ethiopia in general and specifically at UN-ECA. Therefore, this may hampered the researcher to compare the findings with other research findings in the area and to suggest whether there was an improvement or not.

1.7 Operational Definitions of Terms

Organizational Culture: "A pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved 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 of the organization as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems" (Schein, 1992, p. 12).

Organizational Change: is the set of different actions that results shifting in directions and/or processes that affect the way in which organizations work before (Hage, 1999).

1.8 Organization of the Study

This study was organized in to five chapters. The first chapter dealt with the background, statement of the problem, objectives, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, and definition of terms. The second chapter discussed about review of literature. The third chapter covered the research design and method of the study. The forth chapter discussed about presentation, analysis and interpretation of the data. The fifth chapter dealt with the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study. Finally, lists of the reference materials and appendices were attached at the end of the paper.

Chapter Two

Review of the Related Literature

The purpose of this research was to explore whether there was a relationship between organizational culture and change at UN-ECA. In line with this, this chapter discussed the concepts and definitions, classification and levels, and dimensions of organizational culture, concepts and definitions, and types of organizational change, and finally the relationship between organizational culture and change.

2. Organizational Culture

2.1. Concepts and Definitions of Organizational Culture

The term "culture" originally comes from social anthropology. According to them, concept of culture was coined to represent, in a very broad and holistic sense, the qualities of any specific group that are passed from one generation to the next. They have also produced a literature rich in descriptions of alternative cultural system containing profound implication for managers working outside their native countries (Kotter and Heskett, 1992). Schein (1992) defines organizational culture as: a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved 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 also states that these assumptions come to be taken for granted because they solve the group's problems repeatedly and reliably. Additionally, because these assumptions function unconsciously and instinctively, culture is often a challenging concept for organizational members to not only understand but, measure, and change (Kraut, 1996).

Schein also notes that culture can be analyzed at several different levels including artifacts, espoused values and basic underlying assumptions. Artifacts are defined as "visible organizational structures and processes" (Schein 1992). Examples of artifacts include dress codes, architecture, newsletters, signs, and banners. Another level of culture stated by Schein is Espoused Values. Espoused Values are audible and spoken, and

includes goals, sayings, philosophies, strategies and slogans. The third level described by Schein is Basic Underlying Assumptions. Basic Underlying Assumptions are "unconscious, taken-for-granted beliefs, perceptions, thoughts, and feelings". This includes assumptions that are not directly observable, consequently hard to analyze and change. Similar to Schein, Daniel Denison (1990) defines organizational culture as "underlying beliefs, values, and assumptions held by members of the organization, and the practices and behaviors that exemplify and reinforce them." Denison has conducted several studies examining the impact of organizational culture on performance and has identified four organizational culture traits that impact performance (1) Involvement, (2) Consistency, (3) Adaptability and (4) Mission. The identified traits are used in the Denison Organizational Culture Survey developed by Daniel Denison and William S. Neale (2003).

The survey breaks out the identified traits to provide a way to link organizational culture to bottom line performance measures such as profitability, quality, innovation, market share, sales growth, and employee satisfaction. Although Schein and Denison both provide excellent formal definitions of culture, a basic definition of culture has also been provided by Terrance Deal (2003), as "It's how things get done around here". Just as families and cities have a specific look and feel to them, so do organizations. This look and feel can represent culture, as it includes images, distinct methods of doing things and how it is perceived by others. Culture influences the behavior of all individuals and groups within an organization. It influences most aspects of organizational life, including how decisions are made, who makes them, how rewards are given, who is promoted, how people are treated, and how the organization responds to its environment. Culture to an organization is what personality is to an individual. It is that distinctive collection of beliefs, values, work styles, and relationships that distinguish one organization from another (Harrison R. and Stokes, 1992).

Langdon (2003), stated the following regarding culture change and influences: "An organization matures like a person. Moving from infancy to feisty adolescence, to maturity and balance in middle age. And just like personality, culture matures too. With history and experiences, culture becomes firmly established and starts to slip down from

the surface, getting layered and becoming harder to really define what is at the heart of why people do the things that they do. To change the culture in an organization you have to get at the root of why people do the things that they do. Tinkering at the surface gets you nowhere. The most basic assumptions need to be unearthed and people need to be aware of what really drives the thinking, feeling, and behavior in the organization. The more you wear the company clothes the harder it is to know why you started to wear them in the first place they become unchecked habits and routines that seem so normal." Corporate culture is one of those amorphous business concepts that leaders too often neglect because of its sheer intangibility. Yet culture – an effective culture – is arguably the most valuable intangible asset a company can own" (Clemente, 2003).

In addition, studies have repeatedly found that high performing organizations are aware of, and leverage the strengths of their corporate cultures, (Palmer, 1999). Organizational culture is not a simple statement developed by senior management and placed on a wall. These are only ideals. In order to work towards improving culture, an organization must find out "who" it is. A well-designed survey/assessment will enable a company to determine the gap between its current culture and the culture it needs to succeed (Palmer, 1999). Collins J. and Porras J. (2002) demonstrated that great enduring companies are usually built on both a solid foundation of timeless core values, but also the adaptability of their behavioral practices, secondary values, structures, and other cultural artifacts. According to Collins, the secret to a company that will last is its ability to manage both continuity and change.

Peffer (1994) stated that traditionally, product and process technology, protected or regulated markets, access to financial resources, and economies of scale have all provided business with a competitive advantage. Organizations can no longer count on some of these advantages. People and how they are managed is rapidly becoming the most important competitive advantage that an organization possesses. There is increasing evidence of a link between organizational culture (how work gets done) and its business (what actually gets done), (Kraut, 1996). Culture can either be an asset or a liability to an organization, (Marc and Farbrother, 2003). Many times culture is referred to as the "soft stuff", when in actuality, it can be considered the "hard stuff" to not only determine, but

monitor and change. It is difficult to manage, cumbersome to change, and almost impossible to measure (Juechter, Fisher, and Alford, 1998).

Culture defines, maintains, and sets limits of an organization's ability to function. Kraut (1996) states that culture is anything but soft. He noted that a computer system, accounting procedures, or even building an atomic bomb is all easily understood. All one would need to do, is take a class, read a book or access the internet to get the information needed to complete the task. However, finding the delicate balance in corporate culture, defining values, articulating a vision to all employees, surviving all the years of battle with competition, and redefining the mission of the organization at every crossroad to survive, can hardly be called soft. Additionally, all the organizational changes in the world do not present improved performance, unless an organization's culture and people are fully prepared and aligned to support that change. Culture is what distinguishes truly high performing organizations from others (Juechter et al., 1998).

According to Juechter et al., (1998), success does not revolve on any one reward system, training initiative or strategic plan. It is now being realized that true success stems from a strong, healthy culture. In order to manage culture, an organized approach is needed to get at the heart of the organization, which includes the attitudes, beliefs, habits, and expectations of all individuals from the organization. Changing culture is not like overnight surgery or the "flavor of the month" project, as it needs time and commitment in order to be changed. Changing culture is shaping beliefs, assumptions, values, and patterns of behavior. It is changing mindsets and coming to new ways of thinking (Pachuta J.,2003). The "bottom line" is important to all companies striving to achieve. Commonly, emphasis is placed on tying the bottom line to structure and dollars. Today, companies need to pay attention to more then just structure and dollars and include social, emotional, and behaviors. It is no longer just important to get the job done, (Buchel M., 2003). More importantly is how that job gets done and its influence on individual teams and the way in which it affects individuals and the learning that takes place (Pachuta J., 2003).

2.2. Types and Levels of Organizational Culture

2.2.1. Types of Organizational Culture

The four culture types of the competing values framework – Hierarchy, Market, Clan, and Adhocracy – are each rooted in a model of organizational theory research. Each theoretical foundation provides the organizational environment for the values and characteristics of each culture to take root and become prominently expressed. The concepts of each culture type as characterized by a set of six sub-dimensions that highlight a specific aspect of culture within the organization and serve as the assessment criteria for the OCAI, which is based off of the Competing Values Framework. The six sub-dimensions – dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, organization glue, strategic emphasis, and criteria for success – serve to describe the fundamental manifestations of culture within an organization. While not completely comprehensive, the six sub-dimensions do cover the major components of the culture. The dominant characteristics and organizational glue sub-dimensions address the basic assumptions within the organization. Next, the organizational leadership and management of employees sub-dimensions address interaction patterns within the organization. Finally, the strategic emphases and criteria of success sub dimensions address organizational direction. Each sub-dimension serves as a lens to view a slice of the culture within the organization. When compiled together, they create a comprehensive culture profile of the whole organization as intended by the OCAI assessment (Cameron and Quinn, 2011).

- **Hierarchy Culture**

The Hierarchy culture, characterized by stability and an internal focus, is made up of a formal structured chain of command and control that emphasizes constancy, predictability, and efficiency. The Hierarchy culture type is one of the earliest and most widely adopted organizational culture types, particularly in government entities. In this culture type, there are clear decision makers, rules, and procedures that control and govern all aspects of the organization. The classical organizational theory that developed with the industrial age of the early 1900s provides the theoretical foundation for this

cultural type. The fundamentals of this theory are that organizations will act rationally in order to maximize production through a systematic organization with labor division and specialization (Shafritz, Ott, and Jang, 2011).

Research by Weber (1922), Taylor (1916), and Gulick (1937) form the basis of this theory. Weber refined the distinctive traits of an effective bureaucracy: rules, specialization, meritocracy, hierarchy, separate ownership, impersonality, and accountability. Taylor developed a scientific management research method to hone in the one best way to perform a particular organizational process. Gulick provided a principle based management method by introducing key principles for management. In sum, the Hierarchy culture focuses on managers maintaining unity and control to meet internal goals of production and effectiveness. The Market culture, characterized by stability and an external focus, produces a competitive organization that emphasizes results and achieving goals. The organization functions similar to a market focused on outward transactions with external communities that interact with the organization, such as suppliers, customers, licensees, unions, and regulators (Cameron and Quinn, 2011). Stability and control arises through the competitive and economic drive to reach targets and grow the number of customers served, rather than through rules and specialized functions like a hierarchy.

- **Market Culture**

The Market culture type assumes that the external environment is hostile and requires the organization to fight and compete in order to improve its position and grow. Consequently the organization is driven by a constant push towards increasing productivity and making sure results are met. The organizational economics theory, which uses economics to study the internal structure and systems of an organization, provides the foundation for the Market culture. Introduced by Coase (1937) the organizational economics theory explains that the driving force for the formation of an organization is to internalize and reduce the costs of participating in the market for a given product or service. Specifically, Coase argues that organizations form in order to navigate an uncertain environment and to reduce the costs of transactions associated with delivering products and services to customers. Barney and Ouchi (1986), Jensen and

Meckling (1976), further the use of economic principles to improve organizational efficiency and effectiveness while still supporting management decisions and control.

- **Clan Culture**

The Clan culture, characterized by a flexible and internal focus, is a collaborative culture with a strong commitment to the people of the organization and their development, much like an extended family. Employees often work in semiautonomous teams and are rewarded based on production and goals achieved as a team, not as individuals. Employees are encouraged to actively participate in the development of the organization by providing their thoughts and input on how to improve production. Managers focus on empowering employees and help them development their skills. Facilitating this employee cultivation is designed to build commitment and loyalty from employees in order to have a more effective overall organization. The roots for this culture derive from the human resources movement that emphasizes the human dynamics of organizations such as how people fit into and function within their organization. The fundamental assumptions of the human resource theory are that: organizations exist to serve human needs, organizations and people need each other, and organization-people fit is important (Shafritz, Ott, and Jang, 2011).

Organizations need the energy, ideas, and skills people provide. People need the career, earnings, and sense of purpose that organizations provide. A poor fit between an organization and the individual leads to suffering for both, but a good fit will benefit both. Mayo's (1927) Hawthorne experiments introduced the human relations concept and bridged organizational thinking from classical organization theory to new ideas of interpersonal relationships, group norms, and differences in employee motivation based on each employee's needs. Follett (1926) emphasizes a relationship between leadership and employees in which both groups interact as relative equals when responding to a particular situation.

Maslow (1943) provides a hierarchical framework for making sense of the complex needs and motivations of humans. McGregor (1957) presents Theory X and Theory Y as contrasting managerial assumptions of employee motivation, where Theory X assumes

employees inherently dislike work and they must be directed or coerced into performing their work duties and Theory Y assumes employees are self-motivated to work if they are committed to the organization and its objectives. Ott, Parkes, and Simpson (2008) organize the concepts of the human resource theory into its most core themes of leadership, motivation, groups, work environments, power and influence, and organizational change.

- **Adhocracy Culture**

Finally, the Adhocracy culture, characterized by a flexible and internal focus, makes up a creative culture that promotes entrepreneurship, innovation, and unique ways to meet challenges and stay on the leading edge. This culture type epitomizes the rapidly changing world that requires an increasing amount of creativity. In this type of organization, emphasis is placed on having an eye towards the future and being ready for whatever it may bring, which requires a lot of time preparing to change to meet the needs of the future. To do this, the organization structures itself so that it can quickly change courses as necessary. With rapid change, standard procedures and rules become less important and creativity and innovation become more important. Members of the organization must be dynamic and able to produce solutions to new challenges quickly. This culture arises from open-systems theories where the focus is on an organization's interaction and interdependence with its external environment. Katz and Kahn (1966) frame this theory by looking at organizations as a part of a larger system where organizations continuously adapt as the environment changes.

2.2.2. Levels of Organizational Culture

Gagliardi in Tosi, and others (2000) developed three multidimensional and multilevel nature of organizational culture on the bases of basic values, the way they are reflected and modes of implementation. Rousseau (1990) in his critique of research, who concentrates one of few attributes, proposes a multi-layered model, which he structured as a ring. Rousseau's rings were organized from readily accessible i.e., outer layer to difficult to access i.e., inner layers. Rousseau's model appears to capture all the key elements of culture "a continuum from unconscious to conscious, from interpretative to

behavior, from inaccessible to accessible". But whilst Rousseau asserts that the layers of culture associated with values, beliefs, and expectations constitute the primary elements in organization researchers' conceptualization of culture it would appear from other critical researchers' view point that in fact most research has concentrated on those more visible outer layers. At this point it should be highlighted that many researchers use the same terms of organizational culture but for different meanings. Thus Rousseau's "values" are inner or hidden" and the primary elements in organizations, while Schein's "values" are visible "dominant values espoused by organization" i.e., values are not the primary elements in organizations. Rather, Schein's primary elements are assumptions. Many scholars in the field adopted Scheins (1985) classification of cultural levels. Schein's model consists of three layers that differ regarding their visibility within an organizations and their consciousness among organizational members.

The first level of Schein's classification scheme consists of artifacts and practices. In cultural artifacts, the basic assumptions, values and behavioral norms of the organization are visualized. For instance, symbolic objects to which organizational meanings has become attached-can include titles, parking places, special dining rooms, office size, location, and furnishings and other position and power (Pfeffer, 1981). In any organization, the specific symbols will be unique and related to the shared perspective of members. Symbols can also distinguish status and power differences between individuals and groups at the same level (Tosi, and others 2000). This level of culture also consists of practices. In these practices or behavioral patterns, the underlying assumptions, values and norms come to the surface. These practices are not the result of any formal agreement or arrangement between employees, but developed from socially accepted or reinforced behavior of employees (Deal, 1985). The second level consists of values and norms. Values refer to what organizational members believe to be good, right or desirable. Values, therefore, are to be considered standards of desirability; they reflect what is conceived to be important to pursue or worth striving for in organization (Maslowski, 2001). Although organization members are not always conscious of the values that guide their behavior, most are able to express their core values (Rossman, and others 1988). The third and the "deepest", least tangible level of culture consists of basic assumptions shared by organizational members, which comprises the core of organizational culture.

Assumptions refer to taken-for-granted beliefs that staff members perceived to be "true" (Schein, 1985, 2004). Because of their taken-for-granted nature, organizational members often are no longer aware of the assumptions that underlie the daily interpretations of their duties. These assumptions are likely to remain unconscious until other organizational members and other external body challenges them (Stolp and Smith, 1995).

Organizational structure: May reflects the leader has consciously held values. When leaders believe they must exert strong day- to- day control, they set up a centralized hierarchy with tight controls. Leaders who believe the organization competitive advantage lies in its people choose a decentralized structure that leader's authority (Wright and Noe, 1996).

Systems and procedures: Every organization has routines procedures, reports, and other regular tasks. Their existence gives employees a degree of certainty and predictability. They also reinforce the organization's culture. An organization that values collaboration among employees might set up regular meetings among employees from several functions. An organization that assumes top managers should have the final say would set up review processes in which top managers could make decisions and issues orders (Wright and Noe, 1996).

Rites and Rituals: When people think of "organizational culture", they often think of the organization's rites and rituals. These are ceremonies incorporating forms of cultural expression such as recounting legends. Typically, they have a prescribed form and are repeated according to the custom of the culture (Wright and Noe, 1996).

Stories, Legends and myths: Overtime, organizations create and preserve stories, legends, and myths. These (often-true) anecdotes are widely recounted within the organization. They tell of how the organization's leaders, handled a crisis or a surprise. These stores reinforce underlying assumptions and they teach new employees about the organization's assumptions. Stories, legends, and myths are a powerful but hard to manage category of artifacts. They are powerful because they can stir emotions and are readily passed from one employee to another. Managers can actively recount stories that

reinforce the values they consider important (Wright and Noe , 1996). Generally, it is clearly shown that organizational culture elements could be analyzed at deferent levels, based on the degree to which the cultural elements are visible to individuals. Some authorities focuses on the most outer or visible cultural elements while others on the most inner or invisible cultural elements.

2.3. Dominant and Sub Cultures

A dominant culture expresses the core values that are shared by a majority of the organizations members. It is the macro view of culture that gives an organization its distinct personality. On the other hand, sub cultures tend to develop in large organizations to reflect common problems, situations, or experiences that members face. These sub cultures are likely to be defined by department designations and geographical separation. Subculture will include the core values of the dominant culture, plus additional values unique to members of a given department similarly an office or unit of the organization that is physically separated from the organizations main operations may take on a different personality. The core values are essentially retained, but they are modified to reflect the separated unit's distinct situation. If organizations had no dominant culture and were composed only of numerous subcultures, the values of organizational culture as an explanatory concept would be significantly lessened because there would be no uniform interpretation of what represented appropriate and inappropriate behavior. The shared meaning aspect makes it a potent device for guiding and shaping behavior (Robbins and Judge, 2008).

People in an organization vary because of the occupation or profession, hierarchical level, work groups or teams they belong, which possess a specific characteristic that identifies them. Those individuals with common feelings, values, beliefs, through may come together to form sub units in an organization and reflect their own unique cultures. In line with this idea, Kotter and Heskett (1992), Cameron and Quinn (1999) wrote that within organizations there are multiple cultures usually associated with different functional departments, products groups and hierarchical levels. Kotter and Hestett (1992), further indicates that even within a relatively small sub units there may be multiple and even conflicting subcultures.

2.4. Organizational Change

2.4.1. Concepts and Definitions of Organizational Change

Damanpour (1988) defined organizational change as either responding to changes in its environment or as "a preemptive action". A change within an organization does not need to be an original or novel but simply a new idea within that particular working environment that may or may not prove to be successful (King, 1992). In developing a way to explain change, researchers have divided change into two distinct categories; namely, product and process (Poole, Ferguson, and Schwab, 2005; King, 1992). Product changes are the outputs and services that are distinctly different from the previous outputs. Process changes are changes in the technology, such as new tools or ways of working which increase the quality of a service or the working environment (Poole, Ferguson, and Schwab, 2005). For the purposes of this analysis, change is viewed as a process by which an organization identifies, examines, and potentially implements a new idea. The process of change includes individual and organizational factors that affect the generation and adoption of a new idea in an organization. Organizational factors have received the most attention with respect to the structural facilitators and barriers that promote and sustain organizational change (Frank, Zhao, and Borman, 2004; Àrad, Hanson, and Schneider, 1997). Individual factors have received less attention, resulting in major gaps in our understanding of the human process involved in change (Diamond, 1995; Jaskyte and Dressier, 2005).

2.4.2. Types of Change

According to Anderson (1986) defined the three most prevalent types of change occurring in organizations as developmental change, transitional change, and transformational change.

Developmental change: It represents the improvement of the existing skill, method, performance standards, or conditions that for some reason does not measure up to current or future needs. Metaphorically, developmental changes are improvements "within the box" of what is already known or practiced. Such improvements are often logical adjustments to current operations. They are motivated by the goal to do "better than" or

do "more off" what is currently done. The key focus is to strengthen or correct what already exists in the organization. The process of development keeps people vibrant, growing and stretching through the challenges of attaining new performance levels. There are two primary assumptions in developmental change. First, people are capable of improving, and second, they will improve if provided the appropriate reasons, resources, motivation and training. The most commonly used developmental change strategy is training in new skills, better communication, or new techniques or processes for accomplishing the higher goals. Leaders can use an assessment and problem solving approach to identify, remove, or resolve what has blocked better performance. They can also use the existing goal setting and reward systems to improve motivation and behavior Anderson (1986).

Transitional Change: Transitional Change is more complex. It is the required response to more significant shifts in environmental forces or market place requirement for success. Rather than simply improve what is, transitional change replaces what is with something entirely different. Transitional change begins when leaders recognize that a problem exists or that an opportunity is not being pursued and that something in the existing operation needs to change or be created to better serve current and/or future demands. Once executives, change leaders, or employee teams have assessed the needs and opportunities at hand, they design a more desirable future state to satisfy their distinct requirements Anderson (1986).

Transformational Change: It is the least understood and most complex type of change facing organizations today. Simply said, transformation is the radical shift from one state of being to another, so significant that it requires a shift of culture, behavior, and mindset to implement successfully and sustain overtime. In other words, transformation demands a shift in human awareness that completely alters the way the organization and its people see the world, their customers, their work and themselves. Organization change stems from changes in the environment or market place, coupled with the organizations inability to perform adequately using its existing strategy, organizational design, culture, behavior, and mindset. In developmental change, simply improving current operations is adequate. In transitional change, replacing current operations with new clearly defined

practices suffices. But in transformational change, the environmental and market place changes are so significant that a profound breakthrough in peoples world view is required to even discover the new state with which they replace current operations Anderson (1986).

2.4.3. Degree of Change

In addition to the type of change, it is important to note the degree of change created within an organization. Researchers have described an array of organizational change from minor to radical. For example. Burke and Litwan (1992) used the terms "incremental" and "transformative" where incremental aims at fixing a problem, modifying a procedure, or making an adjustment while transformative changes aim to alter the fundamental structure, systems, or strategies of the organization.

Nomiann (1971) used the terms "variation" and "reorientation"; the former describing refinements or modifications and the latter referring to fundamental changes in existing products or services. Knight (1967) and Nord and Tucker (1987) both used the terms "routine" and "non-routine" to describe the degree Of change. Routine suggests only minor changes while non-routine are changes in the internal or external environment of the agency. Grossman (1970) distinguished between "instrumental" and "ultimate" change with instrumental involving those factors that facilitate change and ultimate reforming to the change itself. Singh, House, and Tucker (1986) used "peripheral" and "core" to describe the different degrees. Peripheral changes in an organization's flexible and involve less institutional change. Core changes are those that change the least flexible aspects of an organization (i.e., goals, authority, and resources acquisition). Finally, Frey (1990) distinguished between "low risk" and "high risk" degrees of change. Low risk refers to those changes that have relatively little cost. High risk includes those changes that cannot easily be terminated or reversed, must be implemented in entirety, or conflict with the dominant values of the organization. The varying degrees of change are described in Figure 2. Despite the differing terminology, these terms all resemble one another. Reorientation, non-routine, ultimate, core, transformative, and high risk are all considered radical innovations because they produce fundamental changes in the activities of the organization and represent a departure from existing practices. The

concepts of variation, routine, services instrumental, peripheral, incremental, and low risk reflect minor degrees of change from the original state. For human service agencies, minor change involves the development of new changes to meet client needs, hiring staff to implement those changes, and the extension of hours of operation to provide the services (Pearlmutter, 1998). The minor changes seek to improve what is already in place and are viewed as less threatening to staff and easiest to manage (Proehl, 2001).

Damanpour (1988) found that: minor changes in organizations tend to be initiated by staff occupying the lower levels in the hierarchy of the organization. In essence, line workers tend to initiate small changes that enhance work activity but do not introduce large changes in organizational structure. A change in mission, a new service delivery system, or provision of service to an un served population would constitute radical change (Pearlmutter, 1998). Damanpour (1988) also stresses that workers higher in the organizational hierarchy initiate radical changes because radical change causes deeper changes in roles, status, and behavior of members of an organization. These substantial changes can create shifts in structure, roles, and power as well as produce feelings of anxiety and fear among lower level workers.

Radical change is the most threatening, difficult to control, and introduces the most unknown outcomes (Proehl, 2001). As a result, the introduction of a radical change needs to anticipate and address the conflict in roles, power, and status that accompany the change process. Radical and minor changes are not necessarily mutually exclusive because some changes fall in the middle of the continuum. Prior to the introduction of a change, a manager needs to assess the degree of change required by locating it on the continuum. This will shape the strategy for introducing and implementing the change. Drawing on the frameworks developed by Frey (1990) and King (1992), a manager can assess the location of a future change on the continuum from the perspective of risk and novelty. Risk is the relative costs that might be incurred if a proposed change fails to meet its objectives or the potential negative consequences of adopting the change. Risk can be assessed at all levels within the organization in order to determine its potential impact. The first aspect of risk is the amount of conflict the change may introduce within the organization. A change that conflicts with the dominant values of the organization or

its members is considered a high-risk innovation. The more the change promotes the perceived values of the majority of the organization, the closer it resembles the minor change domain of the continuum. Secondly, changes need to be assessed in terms of their implementation requirements. Changes implemented in small stages or in one department may involve lower risk and, therefore, represent a minor change. However, comprehensive changes involving substantial shifts are considered high-risk. Thirdly, changes that cannot be terminated without incurring substantial costs are considered high-risk, radical changes.

2.4.4. Employees Perception of Change and Change Dimensions

As pointed out by Rogers (2003:23) in explaining what people resist or embrace an innovation, "the individual's perceptions of the attributes of an innovation, not the attributes as classified objectively by experts or change agents, affect its rate of adoption". Therefore, it is the beliefs of the potential adopters that must be influenced. The five beliefs in determining the reactions of change recipients to organizational transformation, planning and implementing organizational change are discrepancy, appropriateness, efficiency, principal support and valence. Research that is more recent provides similar evidence that the change recipient beliefs play a key role in the ultimate success or failure of organizational change initiatives (Rogers, 2003).

Discrepancy: Employees must believe that a need for change exists. A difference between current and desired performance helps legitimate the need for change otherwise, the motive for a change may be perceived as arbitrary.

Appropriateness: The importance of identifying the unique attributes of an organizational situation so that the appropriate corrective action the discrepancy Rafferty and Griffin for example found that when an organizational change was perceived as being implemented, after careful deliberation and planning, change recipients expressed less uncertainty. Thus, in each of the studies described, the organizational scientists stress the necessity that the proposed chance addresses the cause(s) of the discrepancy.

Efficacy: In the context of organizational change, efficacy can be defined as the perceived capability to implement the change initiative (Bandura, 1986). Research demonstrated individuals commonly avoid activities that they believe exceed their coping capabilities. In contrast, individuals will undertake and perform those that they judge themselves to be capable. Thus, employees must believe they are capable of executing the new behaviors required by the change initiative.

Principal Support: Descries the support from change agents and opinion leaders. The term change agent may refer to the global (i.e., the highest level in the organization, the CEO and/or the local change agents (i.e., the immediate supervisor). Each individual in the organization senses non-verbal cues and explicit information in formulating a belief about the change. If the individual believe principal support (i.e, among the global and local change agents as well as the opinion leaders) for the change is inadequate this belief can influence whether the change initiative will be embraced.

Valence: The belief we label valence originated in Vrooms (1964) work on motivation and refers to the attractiveness (from the change recipients perspective) associated with the perceived outcome of the change. Valence can be segmented into extrinsic and intrinsic categories. Extrinsic valence refers to the rewards or benefits realized from adopting the new behaviors. Furthermore, as pointed out by More and Reimer (1956), an organizational change that provide intrinsic rewards more autonomy for decision making among operative workers resulted in increases in higher order need satisfaction (E.g., self actualization, an intrinsic need). Bandura (1986) stressed the importance of intrinsic valence in organization change efforts. Thus, from the research on valence, we felt there was a benefit to including both extrinsic and intrinsic valence. This component recognizes the importance of change agents addressing the personal needs of change recipients. An understanding of the importance of these beliefs plus having the ability to gauge them among organizational change recipients should reveal useful information to change leaders that can be used to initiate process strategies and tactics that will facilitate the change process.

2.5. The Relationship between Organizational Culture and Organizational Change

A comprehensive review of the literature on organizational culture and innovation by Jaskyte and Dressier's (2005) revealed that researchers have focused primarily on the positive attributes of organizational culture by identifying organizational values, norms, beliefs, and assumptions. Less attention had been given to the emerging debate about the role of organizational culture in facilitating or inhibiting change. While there is agreement that organizational culture has an impact, it is not clear what role it plays in facilitating change. On one side of the debate is the argument that strong, homogenous organizational cultures are essential for organizations to introduce, implement, and sustain changes because a strong culture can exert a greater degree of control over employee behaviors and beliefs, and therefore change within the organization is easier (Denison, 1990; Pervaiz, 1998). On the other side of the debate is the conviction that strong cultures are problematic for the introduction and maintenance of change because a strong culture creates uniformity, loyalty, and commitment and potentially "cult-like" behaviors that can inhibit an organization's ability to respond to change (Nemeth, 1997).

In a study of thirty-two nonprofit service agencies Jaskyte and Dressier's (2005) found that homogenous cultures might not be appropriate for fostering change. "The higher the cultural consensus on such values as stability, security, low level of conflict, predictability, rule orientation, team orientation, and working in collaboration with others, the less innovative the organization may be". The organizations with weaker cultural consensus placed higher value on willingness to experiment, pursuing opportunities, and taking risks.

According to Martin (1992) the discrepancy in the two theories can be explained by the role that strong organizational cultures can play in alleviating anxiety, helping control the uncontrollable, bringing predictability, and clarifying ambiguity. These characteristics, at the same time, can control any kind of behavior that might disrupt organization harmony and predictability and thereby block the introduction and maintenance of change. Public human service organizations were built to reduce error, increase efficiency, and improve

the reliability of services (Cahn, 2004). They were praised for being impervious to change, assuring that each member of the agency dispersed equal and accountable services to the public. By maintaining routines and reducing exposure to risk, public organizations were seen as implementing the will of the people and public employees were expected to competently carry out the wishes of the people as expressed by elected officials by limiting their own discretion (Cahn, 2004). This approach to organizational processes, while successful in many regards, has frequently created a culture that is either unwilling or unable to support the autonomy and risk-taking needed to create cultures that are accepting of change. By warding off any kind of potential chaos or uncertainty that is often associated with change, human service workers are rarely encouraged to challenge the status quo, exercise discretion, or to take risks. Organizational cultures with little room for dissent can inhibit the introduction or implementation of change and thereby generate considerable resistance. There is an increasing evidence of a link between organizational culture (how work gets done) and its business (what actually gets done), (Kraut, 1996).

Culture can either be an asset or a liability to an organization (Marc and Farbrother, 2003). Many times culture is referred to as the "soft stuff", when in actuality, it can be considered the "hard stuff" to not only determine, but monitor and change. It is difficult to manage, cumbersome to change, and almost impossible to measure (Juechter, Fisher, and Alford, 1998). Culture defines, maintains, and sets limits of an organization's ability to function. Kraut (1996) states that culture is anything but soft. He noted that a computer system, accounting procedures, or even building an atomic bomb is all easily understood. All one would need to do, is take a class, read a book or access the internet to get the information needed to complete the task. However, finding the delicate balance in corporate culture, defining values, articulating a vision to all employees, surviving all the years of battle with competition, and redefining the mission of the organization at every crossroad to survive, can hardly be called soft. Additionally, all the organizational changes in the world do not present improved performance, unless an organization's culture and people are fully prepared and aligned to support that change. Culture is what distinguishes truly high performing organizations from others (Juechter et al., 1998).

Success does not revolve on any one reward system, training initiative or strategic plan. It is now being realized that true success stems from a strong, healthy culture. In order to manage culture, an organized approach is needed to get at the heart of the organization, which includes the attitudes, beliefs, habits, and expectations of all individuals from the organization (Juechter et al., 1998). Changing culture is not like overnight surgery or the "flavor of the month" project, as it needs time and commitment in order to be changed. Changing culture is shaping beliefs, assumptions, values, and patterns of behavior. It is changing mindsets and coming to new ways of thinking (Pachuta J., 2003).

Summary

Schein (1992) defines organizational culture as: a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved 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 also states that these assumptions come to be taken for granted because they solve the group's problems repeatedly and reliably. Additionally, because these assumptions function unconsciously and instinctively, culture is often a challenging concept for organizational members to not only understand but, measure, and change (Kraut, 1996).

Culture influences the behavior of all individuals and groups within an organization. It influences most aspects of organizational life, including how decisions are made, who makes them, how rewards are given, who is promoted, how people are treated, and how the organization responds to its environment. Culture to an organization is what personality is to an individual. It is that distinctive collection of beliefs, values, work styles, and relationships that distinguish one organization from another (Harrison R. & Stokes, 1992, pg. 1).

Change is defined as the adoption of an idea or behavior-whether a system, process, policy, program, or service-that is new to the adopting organization (Aiken &Hage, 1971; Daft 1982, Damanpour& Evan 1984). Damanpour (1988) defined organizational change as either responding to changes in its environment or as "a preemptive action" (p. 546). A

change within an organization does not need to be an original or novel but simply a new idea within that particular working environment that may or may not prove to be successful (King, 1992).

The process of change includes individual and organizational factors that affect the generation and adoption of a new idea in an organization. Organizational factors have received the most attention with respect to the structural facilitators and barriers that promote and sustain organizational change (Jaskyte& Dressier, 2005; Frank, Zhao, &Borman, 2004; Àrad, Hanson, & Schneider, 1997). Individual factors have received less attention, resulting in major gaps in our understanding of the human process involved in change (Diamond, 1995; Jaskyte& Dressier, 2005).

A comprehensive review of the literature on organizational culture and innovation by Jaskyte and Dressier's (2005) revealed that researchers have focused primarily on the positive attributes of organizational culture by identifying organizational values, norms, beliefs, and assumptions. Less attention had been given to the emerging debate about the role of organizational culture in facilitating or inhibiting change. While there is agreement that organizational culture has an impact, it is not clear what role it plays in facilitating change. On one side of the debate is the argument that strong, homogenous organizational cultures are essential for organizations to introduce, implement, and sustain changes because a strong culture can exert a greater degree of control over employee behaviors and beliefs, and therefore change within the organization is easier (Denison, 1990; Pervaiz, 1998; Peters & Waterman, 1982). On the other side of the debate is the conviction that strong cultures are problematic for the introduction and maintenance of change because a strong culture creates uniformity, loyalty, and commitment and potentially "cult-like" behaviors that can inhibit an organization's ability to respond to change (Nemeth, 1997). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to assess the relationship between organizational culture and change at UN-ECA.

Chapter Three

3. Research Design and Methodology

3.1. The Research Design

The purpose of this study was to assess the relationship between organizational culture and change in UN Organizations: the case of UN-ECA. In order to achieve the purpose of the study quantitative research approach was used. In this research, a descriptive correlation survey design was employed to investigate the relationship between organizational culture and change. Descriptive survey design was appropriate to collect different types of data on situation that exists, opinions that are prevailed, trends that are developed and preferences that are sought (Best and James, 2005). Therefore, descriptive research was more contexts bound than other research designs. Moreover, to meet the purpose of the study, the researcher used observation and document analysis as a method of collecting qualitative data in order to maximize the validity of trustworthiness of the study procedures and results of the study.

3.2. Sources of Data

This research employed both primary and secondary sources of data. The primary data sources were Professional officers, National officers, and General staffs of UNECA. The secondary sources of data were documents such as books, journals, rules and regulations etc of the organization.

3.3. Sample and Sampling Techniques

The target population of this study comprises of 195 professional staff, 12 national officers and 388 general service staffs. From the total of 12 national officers all of them were included in the study using availability sampling procedures, because they were supposed to be key players of the organization's role and the size of their number was small. By using confidence levels of 95% and sampling errors of 5% probability technique (Cohen, Morrison and Manion, 2005), 230 staff members which account 39.45% out of the total 583 staff members (195 professional staff and 388 service staff) were selected for the study. These 230 sample respondents of professional staff and

service staffs were selected from each stratum using proportionate stratified sampling technique and simple random sampling technique. The reason why the researcher preferred proportionate stratified sampling technique was to increase the probability of including unique character of each member of the population as well as to ensure proportional representation of the population in the sample. In addition, in simple random sampling method, every member of the population had an equal and independent chance of being selected as sample and it was also appropriate to quantitative research design (Best and Kahn, 2006).

3.4. Instruments of Data Collection

The data gathering tools for this study were standardized questionnaires, observation and document analysis. Questionnaires were presented for 242 sample respondents. In addition to this, observation and document analysis were employed by the researcher by using checklists.

3.4.1. Questionnaires

Two types of standardized questionnaires the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) and the Organizational Change Recipients Beliefs' Scale items (OCRBS) are administered to respondents to assess and identify the existing and preferred culture, and the perception of members towards the change effort practiced by the organization.

The OCAI Questionnaire

A standard questionnaire (OCAI) which was developed by Cameron and Quinn was used in this study. Because the OCAI was an instrument that allows diagnosing the dominant culture of an organization's based on the four culture types. It also assisted a researcher in diagnosing the organizations cultural strength, cultural type and cultural congruence and the OCAI was currently used by 10,000 organizations world wide (OCAI report 2010). The OCAI consists of six questions. Each question has four alternatives. The respondents were asked to divide 100 points over four alternatives that correspond to the four culture types according to the present (existing) organization culture. After the responder

completes the "now" he /she found the same questions repeated under a heading of "preferred". His /her answered to these questions should be based on how he /she would like the organization to look five years from now.

The OCAI's reliability and validity was checked and approved by most scholars in the area and taken as standardized questionnaire for the organization culture study (www.ocai-online.com). Reliability of the instrument (i.e., the extent to which the instrument measures culture types consistently), had been tested by Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) with 796 executives from eighty-six different public utility firms. Cronbachs alpha coefficients, a reliability statistic type, were computed for each culture type. The coefficients were .74 for Clan culture, .79 for Adhocracy culture, .73 for Hierarchy culture, and .71 for Market culture. The results indicate that respondents tended to rate their organization's culture consistently across the various questions on the instrument (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Cameron and Freeman (1991) demonstrate the OCAI instrument measured the four types of organizational culture in a study of 334 institutions of higher education, with 12 – 24 individuals responding from each institution for a total of 3,406 individuals participating. After examining three dimensions of culture – cultural strength, congruence and type – and organizational effectiveness, the study found that cultural strength and cultural congruence were not nearly as powerful in predicting organizational effectiveness as culture type (http://www.linkedin.com/groups/Assessing-Reliability-OCAI).

Validity of the instrument was determined by matching the domain of effectiveness in which the organization excelled and the type of decision-making, structure and strategy employed.

Convergent validity and discriminate validity, using a multi-trait, multi-method analysis and a multi-dimensional scaling analysis, was also found by Quinn and Spreitzer (1991). To produce evidence of validity, Correlation coefficients in the same culture guardant should be significantly different from zero and of moderate magnitude (compbelland Fisk, 1959) Convergent validity was supported as it turned out, when the multitrait-multimethod correlation a matrix was examined. As required, all diagonal correlation coefficients were statistically different from zero ($P<.001$), and they ranged between .212

and .515, a moderate level of correlation. Discriminant validity was tested in three ways. In the first test, scales in the same culture quadrant were tested to see if they correlated more highly with each other than they did with scales of different culture quadrants measured by separate instruments. Twenty three out of twenty four comparisons were consistent with expectations, providing solid support for discriminant validity. In the second test, scales in the same culture were expected to correlate more highly with each other than with scales in a different culture quadrant measured by the same method. In sixteen of the twenty four scales, this was the case, providing moderate support for discriminant validity. In the third test, the same pattern of interrelationships was expected to exist within and between each of the independent methods. Kendall's coefficient of concordance was computed, which produced a coefficient of .764 ($p < .001$), indicating strong support for discriminant validity (Campbell and Fisk, 1959 cited in www.ocai-online.com).

The OCRBS Questionnaire

The standardized questionnaire developed by Armenakis et al., (2007) for assessing beliefs of members on organizational change was used to gauge the process of organizational change efforts of members of the UNECA. Moreover, the beliefs identified in terms of discrepancy, appropriateness, efficacy, principal support and valence helps in determining the reactions of change recipients to an organizational change. The instrument was chosen for the fact that it is useful for obtaining information that can serve as a barometer of the degree of buy-in among change recipients, assessment of deficiencies in specific beliefs that can be adversely impact the success of an organizational change and a basis for planning and executing actions to enhance buy in among organizational change recipients. The instrument contains 24 questions so that respondents' beliefs on organization change are rated on the five point likert scale which is grouped as strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree and strongly disagree. The likert scale is used because the data will 51 attitudinal measurements of continuous or equal interval nature (Singh, 2007). For better interpretation analysis mean scores of five scale is categorized in to 4.5-5= strongly agree, 3.5-4.49=agree, 2.5-3.49= undecided, 1.5-2.49=disagree and 1.00-1.49=strongly disagree. Armenakis et al (2007) indicated the

reliabilities of the five types of beliefs to an organizational change questionnaire were discrepancy (0.92), appropriateness (0.95), efficacy (0.86), principal support (0.87), and valance (0.90). The overall reliability of the questionnaire was (0.94).

It was not possible to map out culture's underlying assumption which were unconscious and poorly explained by questionnaire method alone because they measures views but not actions. Thus, in order to triangulate the data and to reach the underlying assumption it requires more detailed methods than questionnaire such as interview, observation and the analysis of documents.

3.4.2. Observation

Questionnaires and interview methods rely on self-report by respondents and sometimes information bias may be created (Gall and Others, 1996). For these writers, observation of the behavior and the environment being studied may fill this gap of information if used properly. Based on this, observation was conducted to collect data related to the artifacts, which are the most visible level of culture and the outward manifestation of existing culture (Schein, 1985). In this regard, actual observation of the setting and practice will be observed. In addition to this, observable artifacts of the organizational culture such as symbols members interaction, cultural facts, are observed in order to cross check the findings obtained through questionnaires.

3.4.3. Document Review

Apart from data that were gathered from standardized questionnaires, and observation, document analysis is also used to obtain additional data through reviewing the different documents and records such as strategic plan, internal legislation, policy, journals and annual reports. Therefore, standardized questionnaires, observation and document analysis are the major data collecting tools to accomplish the objective of this research paper.

3.5. Data Collection Procedures

Once the selection and development of data collection instruments was made, the instruments were commented by the researcher's advisor and improvement has been

made based on the feedback. The questionnaires will be prepared in the medium of English language. Then, questionnaires were distributed for respondents based on the sampling techniques. Finally, after collecting the questionnaires the data were coded and analyzed. In addition, after gaining permission from the concerned body of the organization, based on observation guide, things such as how members were treat other, observable artifacts, symbols, rites, are observed. At the end, various documents, pertaining to the issue of culture and organizational change of the organization were scrutinized carefully.

3.6. Variables of the Study

In this study, organizational culture through its dimensions-clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market and organizational change through its dimensions discrepancy, appropriateness, principal support, efficacy and valance were considered in this study. While organizational culture was treated as independent variable and organizational change was considered as the dependent variable to identify their linkages.

3.7. Method of Data Analysis

Data collected through different tools were analyzed and interpreted both quantitatively and qualitatively. The quantitative data that were secured through questionnaires were coded, tallied, tabulated, organized and treated with different statistical techniques for analysis and inferences. Different statistical tools like frequency counts, mean overage, weighted mean values, percentages, standard deviation, t-test, one way ANOVA were employed depending on the research questions and the specific nature of the data collected to show the average agreements and disagreements of the respondents, to check the existences of statistically significant difference or similarities on the perceptions of the respondents. Pearson's product moment correlation test were made to investigate the relationship between independent and dependent variables. And lastly a thematic analysis will be made for information's obtained through observation and document analysis to enrich the quantitative data obtained.

The scores for each of the items of the OCAI and the OCRBSI were entered into excel spreadsheets. These scores are divided into their appropriate categories according to their OCAI and OCRBSI and then calculated. The mean and standard deviation of the scores are calculated using software called SPSS version 20 to compare one set of scores to another. The variance was calculated to test for normal distribution of the scores of three samples or to measure how far each scores of the three samples from the mean. This is done using an F-test in the data analysis function of SPSS program. A t-test was undertaken to determine whether the three groups scores are significantly different or similar at a selected probability level (Davis, 2009).

One-way ANOVA was used to identify statistically significant difference and similarities, and degree of agreement and disagreement among the professional, national and general service staffs, and to check similarities and differences in demographic factors. The concept underlying ANOVA was that the total variation or variance of scores could be divided into two sources: variances between groups and variance within groups (Davis, 2009). An alpha level of .05 was used as the level of significance for this study. And finally, the strength of correlation between the two variables (organizational culture and change) and between their sub variables will be dealt using Pearson Correlation Coefficient. Pearson r Correlation Coefficient was the most appropriate measure when the variables to be correlated are expressed as either interval or ratio data. It was also the most suitable measure of correlation (Davis, 2009:316).

3.8. Ethical Considerations

Regardless of the approach, qualitative research may face ethical issue that would surface during data collection in the field, in analysis and in disseminating qualitative reports (Sarantakos, 2005). Bogdan and Biklen, 1992, group ethical issue into informed consent procedures, deceptions, confidentiality toward participants or sponsors and protecting the anonymity and privacy of research participants. Therefore, in this study the researcher consciously considered ethical issues in seeking consent, avoiding deceptions, maintaining the confidentiality, respecting the privacy and protecting the anonymity of respondents that will encountered during the study.

Chapter Four

Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation of Data

This chapter contains the presentation, analysis and interpretation of data. The points dealt with in the chapter are the general characteristics of the sample population and the computed t-test for organizational culture and change of UN-ECA staffs. Moreover, it includes correlations between organizational culture and change and variables.

4.1. Characteristics of Respondents

Table 1: Characteristics of Respondents in Relation to Sex

Items	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	151	62.4	62.4	62.4
Female	91	37.6	37.6	100.0
Total	242	100.0	100.0	

Table 1 deals with sex distribution of respondents. Accordingly, 151(62.4%) male and 91(37.6%) female respondents were involved during the study. The data show that, females' participation was medium in the organization. Therefore, immense efforts are expected from the organization to encourage females' participation in the areas.

Figure 1: Characteristics of Respondents by Educational Qualification

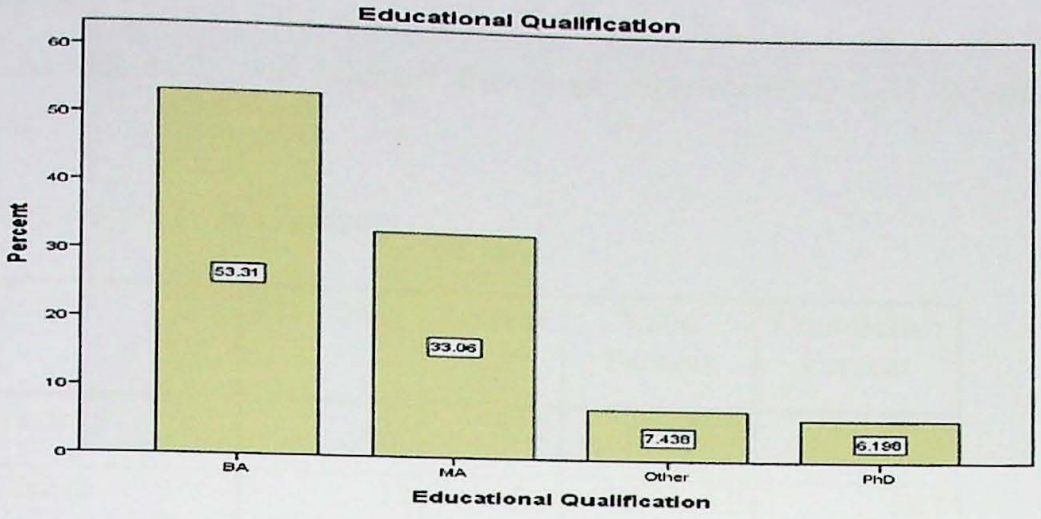

Figure 1 depicts the educational qualifications of respondents. Consequently, there were a total of 242 respondents who were involved in the study. As a result, 129(53.31%) of the respondents were BA/BSC holders, 80 (33.06) were MA, 15(6.2%) were PhD and the rest 18 (7.44%) were Diploma and certificate in their educational qualifications. Thus, from the data one can conclude that, this study tried to cover respondents from different educational qualifications.

Table 2: Respondents by Work Experience

Items	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Below3 Years	60	24.8	24.8	24.8
3-5 Years	31	12.8	12.8	36.8
6-10 Years	46	19.0	19.0	55.8
Above10 years	105	43.4	43.4	100.0
Total	242	100.0	100.0	

Table 2 shows characteristics of respondents by work experiences. Accordingly, as indicated in the table, the majority 105(43.4%) of the respondents were served above ten years, 31(12.8%) of the respondents were between three to five years, 46(19%) of the

respondents were between six to ten years, and the rest 60(24.8%) of the respondents were below three years of experiences in the UN-ECA. Therefore, it can be concluded that, data for this study was collected from least experienced to more experienced respondents.

Table 3: Respondents by Job Category

Job Category	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
General Service	153	63.2	63.2	63.2
National Officer	12	5.0	5.0	68.2
Professional Officer	77	31.8	31.8	100.0
Total	242	100.0	100.0	

Table 3 shows characteristics of respondents by job category. Accordingly, as indicated in the table, the majority 153 (63.2%) of the respondents were general service staffs, 77 (31.8%) of the respondents were professional officers, and the rest 12 (5%) of the respondents were national officers. Therefore, it can be concluded that, data for this study was collected from respondents of different job category in UN-ECA.

4.2. Reliability Analysis of the Instruments

Cronbach's alpha coefficients, a reliability statistic type, were computed for each standardized questioners (OCAI and OCRBS) by the researcher to test the extent to which the three instruments measured culture types and change effort practiced of the organization. Accordingly, the reliability coefficients were 0.86 and 0.93 for culture and change respectively. This implies that the questioners accurately measured the desired findings, because the reliability coefficient measured by the developers of these two standardized questioners ranged from 0.71-0.79 and 0.86-0.97 for OCAI and OCRBS respectively.

4.3. Analysis and Interpretation of Results on the relationship among the three Variables

The results were interpreted by using the means and standard deviations of the culture and change dimensions, then comparing the clan, adhocracy, market and hierarchy dimensions of culture and analyzing the dimensions of change. The results of the t-test analysis between culture and change, the results of correlation analysis and the analysis of variances were also discussed.

4.3.1. Descriptive Analysis of Organizational Culture Dimensions

Assessing an organization's culture is the first step that any leader must take before considering any if and how a culture needs to be built, adapted or changed. Regardless of cultural type, managing culture in the contemporary world requires extreme care. Because cultures like personalities of individuals, take a long time to develop and change in most cases one can achieve better results by using an existing culture, good or bad, then by destroying an old culture and by building a brand new one. In addition, an organization consists of sub groups whose perceptions, beliefs, values and assumptions have great influence on performance, relationships, motivations, change efforts, decision making process, and ultimately on the effectiveness and success of their organization. Therefore, identification of cultural patterns and dimensions and how they are perceived, desired by groups in the organization undoubtedly would enable to grow, excel in core areas and survive. Based on this fact, this study tried to assess the cultural profile of the UN-ECA. Data gathered for the study were analyzed using the Cameron and Quinn instrument scoring system in which the four ending statement in every beginnings represent the four cultural orientations, the clan, the adhocracy, the market and the hierarchy.

Table 4: Descriptive statistics of Organizational Culture Dimensions

Dimensions	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Clan	242	.83	3.50	2.23	.65
Adhocracy	242	.50	3.50	1.95	.73
Market	242	.67	3.83	2.21	.68
Hierarchy	242	1.33	3.50	2.50	.51
Valid N	242				

Table 4 indicates the means, standard deviations and maximum scores of the organizational culture dimensions. According to the data in table 4, the mean score for hierarchy (2.50) was the highest in comparison to the other organizational culture dimensions. The maximum score was 3.5 and the standard deviation was 0.51. It was therefore inferred that the dominant culture of UN-ECA was hierarchy. Meaning, the dominant characteristics reported are mostly of a formalized and structured environment where procedures govern what the person does. The data obtained through observation and also approved the above finding. As the researcher observed in the organization, starting from the get to the entire organization's work procedures the working environment was mostly of a formalized nature. The mean score for the clan dimension of organizational culture was 2.23 and the maximum score was 3.5. This therefore meant that the next dominant culture in the organization was clan, where the work environment has a family style atmosphere. With regard to market and adhocracy dimensions, the mean score were 2.21 and 1.95 respectively. This indicated that these two dimensions also exercised to some extent as sub cultures by the organization.

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics of the Dominant Characteristics of Organizational Culture

No	Dominant Characteristics	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.	242	0	4	1.8	1.01
2	The organization is a very dynamic entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.	242	0	4	1.6	1.02
3	The organization is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.	242	1	4	2.4	.91
4	The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.	242	0	4	2.7	1.07
	Valid N	242				

As indicated in table 5, the OCAI assessment survey asked participants about the mix of dominant characteristics that they believe is present in UN-ECA. Accordingly, the hierarchy culture score was highest with a mean score of 2.7. Meaning, the dominant characteristics reported are mostly of a formalized and structured environment where procedures govern what the person does. The traits of a market culture was second with 2.4 mean score. This means leaders were mostly perceived to be demanding and competitive. The other cultural types are less represented in this dimension with mean scores of 1.8 for the clan culture and 1.6 for an Adhocracy culture.

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics of the Organizational Leadership traits of Organizational Culture

No	Organizational Leadership	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.	242	0	3	2.3	.75
2	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovating, or risk taking.	242	0	4	1.9	1.09
3	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus.	242	0	4	2.0	.98
4	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency.	242	1	4	2.6	.80
	Valid N	242				

As indicated in table 6, the OCAI assessment survey asked participants about the mix of organizational leadership traits that they believe is present in UN-ECA. This sub-dimension focuses on how employees perceive the leadership style in the organization. The hierarchy and clan culture scores were highest with 2.6 and 2.3 mean points respectively. This means leaders were mostly perceived to be efficiency-minded with a focus on coordination and organization as well as leaders were considered to be mentors to others. The market culture with 2.0 mean score was third, where leaders were mostly perceived to be demanding and competitive. The adhocracy culture had fewer exhibited characteristics for this dimension with 1.9 mean score in which leaders were considered entrepreneurial risk takers.

Table 7: Descriptive Statistics of the Management of Employees

No	Management of Employees	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.	242	0	4	2.5	.97
2	The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.	242	0	3	1.9	.81
.3	The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.	242	1	4	2.6	.80
4	The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.	242	0	4	2.3	.93
	Valid N	242				

Table 7 depicts the OCAI assessment survey which asked participants about the management of employees in UN-ECA. This sub-dimension focuses on how respondents perceive the style of management within the organization. The employee management characteristics of the market culture, which is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement was the highest with a mean score of 2.6. The clan culture, which includes employee cohesion, participation, and teamwork, follows closely was the second with a mean score of 2.5. Hierarchy culture was the third with 2.3 mean score. These characteristics include employment security, predictability,

and stability. The individual risk taking and innovation of the adhocracy culture was last with 1.9 mean score.

Table 8: Descriptive Statistics of the Organizational Glue

No	Organizational Glue	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.	242	0	4	2.4	.94
2	The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.	242	0	3	2.1	.95
3	The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. Aggressiveness and winning are common themes.	242	0	4	2.3	1.07
4	The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important.	242	1	4	2.7	.72
	Valid N	242				

Table 8 indicates the questions which asked participants about the glue that holds the organization together. This sub-dimension measures the uniting characteristics that hold the organization together. The formal rules and policies of the hierarchy culture were reported as the highest culture with 2.7 mean score. Second and third, with 2.4 and 2.3 points were clan and market cultures with an emphasis on the characteristics of loyalty

and mutual trust and aggressively accomplishing achievements and goals as the unifying characteristics respectively. Again, the adhocracy culture of innovation and development was last among the mean scores (x=2.1).

Table 9: Descriptive Statistics of the Strategic Emphasis

No	Strategic Emphasis	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	The organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.	242	0	4	2.2	.89
2	The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.	242	0	4	2.3	.98
.3	The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.	242	0	4	2.1	1.04
4	The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.	242	0	4	2.7	.92
	Valid N	242				

As indicated in table 9, participants asked about what ECA emphasizes within the organization. The mean scores show that the organization currently emphasizes stability, efficiency, and control for a consistent operation. These characteristics match up with the hierarchy culture, which was rated highest with 2.7 mean score. Adhocracy culture was again second with a mean score of 2.3, which emphasizes new challenges and opportunities. Clan culture was third with 2.2 score, which emphasizes human

development. Competitive action and attaining targets and goals of the market culture was fourth with 2.1 mean score.

Table 10: Descriptive Statistics of the Criteria of Success

No	Criteria of Success	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.	242	0	4	2.4	1.04
2	The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.	242	0	4	2.1	1.12
.3	The organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.	242	0	4	1.9	1.11
4	The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical.	242	0	4	2.3	1.15
	Valid N	242				

In table 10, the participants asked about the criteria ECA uses to measure success. The sub-dimension for the criteria of success examines the definitions of success within the organization.

Success determined by the personal and professional development of employees, teamwork, and employee commitment was high as the clan culture scored 2.4 mean score. Success based on efficient, effective, and dependable delivery of services was

rated second with 2.3 mean scores for the hierarchy culture. The adhocracy culture of success based on innovating new products was third with 2.1 mean score. The market culture of success based on being competitive in the marketplace was low with a mean score of 1.9.

4.3.2. Paired Sample t-test

Table 11: Paired Sampled t-test between Correlation of Organizational Culture and Change

Paired Samples Test

Dimensions		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Organizational Culture - Organizational Change	-.56047	.66593	.04281	-.64479	-.47614	-13.093	241	.000

As indicated in table 11, a paired sample t-test was conducted to evaluate the impact of the organizational culture on the organizational change. Accordingly, there was statistically significant difference between the mean score of organizational culture (x=2.2) and organizational change (x= 2.8) of UN-ECA ($P<0.05$). The percentage of variance accounted for the organizational culture and the organizational change were 42% and 78% respectively. And the magnitude of the difference in the means were large (eta squared = 0.42 and 0.78 for culture, and change respectively). This therefore implies that the impact of the organizational culture of UN-ECA had its own impact on the organizational change process of the organization.

4.3.3. The Current Change Effort Practiced in the UN-ECA

According to Rogers (2003) to be successful, change leaders should execute a process to influence the beliefs of the change recipient and monitor those beliefs as the way of assessing progress. A belief is an opinion or a conviction about the truth of something that may not be readily obvious or subject to systematic verification. As pointed out by Rogers (2003) in explaining what people resist or embrace an innovation, "the individual's perceptions of the attributes of an innovation, not the attributes as classified objectively by experts or change agents, affect its rate of adoption". Therefore, it is the beliefs of the potential adopters that must be influenced.

The five beliefs in determining the reactions of change recipients to organizational transformation, planning and implementing organizational change are discrepancy, appropriateness, efficiency, principal support and valence. Research that is more recent provides similar evidence that the change recipient beliefs play a key role in the ultimate success or failure of organizational change initiatives. An understanding of the importance of these beliefs plus having the ability to gauge them among organizational change recipients should reveal useful information to change leaders that can be used to initiate process strategies and tactics that will facilitate the change process.

Table 12: ANOVA Result on Respondents' Opinion on Organizational Change Dimensions

Dimensions		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Discrepancy	Between Groups	52.034	28	1.858	8.689	.000
	Within Groups	45.556	213	.214		
	Total	97.590	241			
Appropriateness	Between Groups	88.164	28	3.149	14.461	.000
	Within Groups	46.379	213	.218		
	Total	134.543	241			
Efficacy	Between Groups	86.197	28	3.078	17.876	.000
	Within Groups	36.680	213	.172		
	Total	122.878	241			
Principal Support	Between Groups	71.780	28	2.564	16.634	.000
	Within Groups	32.827	213	.154		
	Total	104.608	241			
Valence	Between Groups	104.300	28	3.725	23.501	.000
	Within Groups	33.761	213	.159		
	Total	138.061	241			

[4.50-500= To a very great extent, 3.50-4.49 = To a great extent, 2.5-3.49 = To a moderate extent, 1.5-2.49 = To a slightly extent, 1.00-1.49 = Not at all]

In table 12, the ANOVA test result (Sig = .000, P<0.05) shows that there was statistically significant differences in the level of agreement among the three groups of respondents on discrepancy dimension of change (x=3.14). The effect size was very large (Eta squared =0.52). From this one can deduce that the organization had taken the change on

the way the staff have done something in the organization on the right time, to improve their operation and effectiveness.

As show in table 12 item 2, respondents were asked to rate their opinions on the variables of appropriateness of organizational change; namely, favorable effect of change on operations, effects of change on performance improvement, and suitability of change to the situation. The ANOVA test result also shows that ($P < 0.05$) for all responses. This implies that there was statistically significant difference in perceptions among groups of respondents. From this, one can deduce that the culture introduced by the organization, was appropriate to the situation to improve performance of staff and bring favorable effect on their operation. Therefore, we can state that the desired for cultural change at a moderate level reinforced for appropriateness of organizational change to some extent.

On the table 12 above item 3, the respondents were asked whether they were capable enough to implement the change and successfully accomplish their jobs. Accordingly, the ANOVA test result ($P<0.05$) proved that there was a statistically significance difference in perceptions among all groups of respondents on efficacy indicators or variables. The effect size was very large (Eta Squared=0.49). From this, one can deduce that while some respondents of the organization had the capacity to accomplish their jobs successfully after the change and implement the change effectively to achieve the goal of the organization some may not.

Under the principal support, items there are six questions related to the support of top leaders, supervisions and peers towards the change effort and dedication of members to implement the change. The ANOVA test result (sig=.000, $P<0.05$) indicates that there was statistically significant difference among groups of respondents. This implies that while some leaders /supervisors were support the changes, encourage their peers and their subordinates to support the change; members were embraced and dedicated to implement the change some may not. Form the organization change dimension the principal support indicators showed at a slight level. Therefore, this implies limited support among leaders and peers for the change effort.

As shown in the same table item 5, respondents asked to rate their opinion as whether members benefited are experience more self-fulfillment earn higher pay, and increase their feelings of accomplishment in their job assignments after the change. The ANOVA test result ($P<0.05$) shows that there was statistically significant difference among groups of respondents and the magnitude of the difference was high (Eta squared =0.4). From this, one can deduce that so long as respondents feel the change is beneficial for them, they will strive to realize the change efforts of the organization and accomplish their jobs successfully.

4.4. Correlation Analysis

The results of the correlation analysis of Independent Variable (Culture) and Dependent Variables (Change) are presented in this section.

Figure 2: Correlation Strength Determination for Correlation Analysis

Correlation strength	Positive values	Negative values
Small	r=0.10 to 0.29	r = -10 to -.29
Medium	r=.30 to .49	r= .30 to -.49
Large	r=.50 to 1.0	r= -.50 to -1.0

Source: Cohen (1988)

The range of possible correlation coefficient values are form -1 to +1. A Pearson r correlation value without a sign indicates that the relationship is positive, whereas, negative sign in front of the Pearson correlation coefficient indicates the relationship is negative. A positive relationship means when scores increase (or decreases) in one variable, they increase (or decrease) in the other variable-thus, scores change in the same direction. A negative relationship means the scores change in the opposite direction.

4.4.1. Correlation between Organizational Culture and Change

Table13: Correlation between Organizational Culture and Change

Variables		Discrepancy	Appropriateness	Efficacy	Principal Support	Valence
Clan	Pearson Correlation	.025	.221**	.234**	.357**	.218**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.347	.000	.000	.000	.000
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	2.533	25.772	26.053	36.674	25.777
	Covariance	.011	.107	.108	.152	.107
	N	242	242	242	242	242
Adhocracy	Pearson Correlation	-.048	.314**	.209**	.392**	.186**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.230	.000	.001	.000	.002
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-5.332	41.290	26.267	45.451	24.789
	Covariance	-.022	.171	.109	.189	.103
	N	242	242	242	242	242
Market	Pearson Correlation	.067	.417**	.328**	.534**	.340**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.151	.000	.000	.000	.000
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	6.913	50.772	38.166	57.251	41.846
	Covariance	.029	.211	.158	.238	.174
	N	242	242	242	242	242
Hierarchy	Pearson Correlation	.249**	.257**	.253**	.441**	.171**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.004
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	19.358	23.421	22.062	35.477	15.841
	Covariance	.080	.097	.092	.147	.066
	N	242	242	242	242	242

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

As indicated in table 13, a Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted to evaluate the relationship between organizational culture and change dimensions (Discrepancy, Appropriateness, Efficacy, Principal Support and Valence). Accordingly, the correlation between clan, adhocracy and market with discrepancy (sig= .347, .230 and .151 respectively), was not statistically significant. As indicated in table 13, there was a statistically significant positive correlation between all variables of culture and change ($p< 0.05$ for all).

The Pearson correlation coefficient between the perceptions of respondents on the existing dominant culture (hierarchy) and discrepancy on change was r=0.25. This shows a statistically significant weak positive association between existing hierarchy culture and discrepancy. Therefore, the dominant culture weakly reinforces members' perceptions to change, improve the way they did something, and effectiveness in the organization. The appropriateness and efficacy indicate of the change effort were (r=0.25) and (r=0.26) respectively. This shows the dominant hierarchy oriented culture had no significant effect with the perceptions of respondents on the appropriateness and efficacy of the change effort practiced by the organization. Pearson coefficient of correlation between hierarchy dominant existing culture and perception of respondents on support indicators of change (r=0.44) shows the existence of moderately positive association between them. This implies that the existing hierarchy oriented culture, which focuses on rules, regulations, and systems hindered the perception of respondents on support schemes of change efforts. On the other hand, Pearson coefficient of correlation indicates a weak positive association between perceptions of respondents on dominant existing hierarchy oriented culture and valence of the change indicators (r=0.18). This may imply that respondents perceived that the application of well-managed rules, regulations, systems and procedures ensures their perceived benefits from the change effort.

A comprehensive review of the literature on organizational culture and innovation by Jaskyte and Dressier's (2005) revealed that researchers have focused primarily on the positive attributes of organizational culture by identifying organizational values, norms, beliefs, and assumptions. Less attention had been given to the emerging debate about the role of organizational culture in facilitating or inhibiting change. While there is

agreement that organizational culture has an impact, it is not clear what role it plays in facilitating change. On one side of the debate is the argument that strong, homogenous organizational cultures are essential for organizations to introduce, implement, and sustain changes because a strong culture can exert a greater degree of control over employee behaviors and beliefs, and therefore change within the organization is easier (Denison, 1990; Pervaiz, 1998; Peters & Waterman,1982). On the other side of the debate is the conviction that strong cultures are problematic for the introduction and maintenance of change because a strong culture creates uniformity, loyalty, and commitment and potentially "cult-like" behaviors that can inhibit an organization's ability to respond to change (Nemeth, 1997). In a study of thirty-two nonprofit service agencies Jaskyte and Dressier's (2005) found that homogenous cultures might not be appropriate for fostering change. "The higher the cultural consensus on such values as stability, security, low level of conflict, predictability, rule orientation, team orientation, and working in collaboration with others, the less innovative the organization may be" (p. 35). The organizations with weaker cultural consensus placed higher value on willingness to experiment, pursuing opportunities, and taking risks. According to Martin (1992) the discrepancy in the two theories can be explained by the role that strong organizational cultures can play in alleviating anxiety, helping control the uncontrollable, bringing predictability, and clarifying ambiguity. These characteristics, at the same time, can control any kind of behavior that might disrupt organization harmony and predictability and thereby block the introduction and maintenance of change.

4.4.2. Correlation between Organizational Culture and Change

Table14: Correlation between Organizational Culture and Change

Variables		Organizational Culture	Organizational Change
Organizational Culture	Pearson Correlation	1	.347**
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.000
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	69.930	28.019
	Covariance	.290	.116
	N	242	242
Organizational Change	Pearson Correlation	.347**	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	28.019	92.983
	Covariance	.116	.386
	N	242	242

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

As indicated in table 14, a Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted to evaluate the relationship between organizational culture and organizational change. Accordingly, there was a statistically significant positive correlation between organizational culture and change (r= .35 and sig= .000).

Most of the literature on managing organization culture features the for-profit sector and very little of the literature features the nonprofit sector. Since managing an organization's culture is seen as crucial to the improvement of overall performance (Khademian, 2002), private sector managers have come to see the management of organizational culture as a top priority. Public sector managers, on the other hand, have been constrained in their efforts to manage the organization's culture. The constraints include rules for contracting, hiring and firing, budgeting, goal setting, and benchmarking for accountability. While several human service organizations have built upon their organizational culture to promote the use of effective management techniques, a debate has emerged around the capacity of managers to actually modify organizational cultures (Hodges & Hernandez, 2002; Lawler &Bilson, 2004). The debate revolves around the feasibility of managing,

shaping, or changing an organization's culture (Hodges & Hernandez, 1999; Khademian, 2002).

While there is agreement that organizational culture has an impact, it is not clear what role it plays in facilitating change. On one side of the debate is the argument that strong, homogenous organizational cultures are essential for organizations to introduce, implement, and sustain changes because a strong culture can exert a greater degree of control over employee behaviors and beliefs, and therefore change within the organization is easier (Denison, 1990; Pervaiz, 1998). On the other side of the debate is the conviction that strong cultures are problematic for the introduction and maintenance of change because a strong culture creates uniformity, loyalty, and commitment and potentially "cult-like" behaviors that can inhibit an organization's ability to respond to change (Nemeth, 1997). In a study of thirty-two nonprofit service agencies Jaskyte and Dressier's (2005) found that homogenous cultures might not be appropriate for fostering change. "The higher the cultural consensus on such values as stability, security, low level of conflict, predictability, rule orientation, team orientation, and working in collaboration with others, the less innovative the organization may be" (p. 35). The organizations with weaker cultural consensus placed higher value on willingness to experiment, pursuing opportunities, and taking risks. According to Martin (1992) the discrepancy in the two theories can be explained by the role that strong organizational cultures can play in alleviating anxiety, helping control the uncontrollable, bringing predictability, and clarifying ambiguity. These characteristics, at the same time, can control any kind of behavior that might disrupt organization harmony and predictability and thereby block the introduction and maintenance of change.

4.4.3. Regression Analysis of Organizational Culture and Change

Table 15: Linear Regression Analysis Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.347[a]	.121	.117	.58365	.121	32.956	1	240	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Organizational Culture

As indicated in table 15, while organizational culture accounts 11.9% variability on organizational change (R^2=0.119). This implies that the strength of the correlation between organizational culture and change was weak at UN-ECA.

Chapter Five

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

This chapter deals with the summary of major findings, conclusions and recommendations.

5.1. Summary of Major Findings

This study was aimed at assessing the link between organizational culture and change at UN-ECA. Consequently, the study also tried to answer the following basic questions:

1. What is the existing and preferred culture of UN-ECA?
2. Is there a significant relationship between the Organizational Culture and Sub-variables of Change at UN-ECA?
3. What is the perception of employees towards change at UN-ECA?

In order to address these basic questions, questionnaires, observation and document analysis were employed to gather information. The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) and the Organizational Change Recipients Beliefs' Scale items (OCRBS) were administered to 242 respondents to assess and identify the existing culture and the perception of members towards the change effort practiced by the organization. All the questionnaires distributed were properly filled and returned. At last the study came up with the following major findings.

Characteristics of the respondents

151(62,4%) male and 91 (37.6%) female respondents were involved during the study. 129(53.3%) of the respondents were BA/BSC holders, 80(33.1%) were MA, 15 (6.2%) were PhD, and the rest 18(7.4%) were Diploma in their educational qualifications. Majority 105(43.4%) of the respondents were above ten years work experience, 60(24.8%) of the respondents were below three years, 46(19%) of the respondents were between six to ten years, and the rest 31(12.8%) of the respondents were between three to five years of experiences in the organization under studied. Regarding their job category,

77(31.8%) professional officers, 12(5%) national officers, and 153(63.2%) general service staff respondents were participated in the study.

Descriptive Analysis of Organizational Culture

According to the findings, the means score for hierarchy (2.5) was the highest in comparison to the other organizational culture dimensions. The maximum score was 3.5 and the standard deviation was 0.51. It was therefore inferred that the dominant culture of UN-ECA was hierarchy. Meaning, the dominant characteristics reported are mostly of a formalized and structured environment where procedures govern what the person does. The mean score for the clan dimension of organizational culture was 2.23 and the maximum score was 3.5. This therefore meant that the next dominant culture in the organization was clan, where the work environment has a family style atmosphere.

Analysis of Variances

A one- way ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the respondents' opinion on organizational change. Accordingly, the ANOVA test result (Sig = .000, $P<0.05$) showed that there was statistically significant differences in the level of agreement among the three groups of respondents. The effect size was very large (Eta squared =0.52).

All groups of respondents agreed to a moderate extent on the variables of appropriateness of organizational change; namely, favorable effect of change on operations, effects of change on performance improvement, and suitability of change to the situation. Because, the ANOVA test result also shows that ($P < 0.05$) for all responses. This implies that there was statistically significant difference in perceptions among groups of respondents.

The ANOVA test result of valence ($P<0.05$) shows that there was statistically significant difference among groups of respondents and the magnitude of the difference was high (Eta squared =0.4). From this, one can deduce that so long as respondents feel the change is beneficial for them, they will strive to realize the change efforts of the organization and accomplish their jobs successfully.

Relationship between Dimensions of Organizational Culture and Change

A Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted to evaluate the relationship between organizational culture and change dimensions (Discrepancy, Appropriateness, Efficacy, Principal Support and Valence). Accordingly, the correlation between clan, adhocracy and market with discrepancy (sig= .347, .230 and .151 respectively), was not statistically significant. As indicated in table 15, there was a statistically significant positive correlation between all variables of culture and change ($p< 0.05$ for all).

The Pearson correlation coefficient between the perceptions of respondents on the existing dominant culture (hierarchy) and discrepancy on change was r=0.25. This shows a statistically significant weak positive association between existing hierarchy culture and discrepancy. Therefore, the dominant culture weakly reinforces members' perceptions to change, improve the way they did something, and effectiveness in the organization. The appropriateness and efficacy indicate of the change effort were (r=0.25) and (r=0.26) respectively. This shows the dominant hierarchy oriented culture had no significant effect or association with the perceptions of respondents on the appropriateness and efficacy of the change effort practiced by the organization. Pearson coefficient of correlation between hierarchy dominant existing culture and perception of respondents on support indicators of change (r=0.44) shows the existence of moderately positive association between them. This implies that the existing hierarchy oriented culture, which focuses on rules, regulations, and systems hindered the perception of respondents on support schemes of change efforts. On the other hand, Pearson coefficient of correlation indicates a weak positive association between perceptions of respondents on dominant existing hierarchy oriented culture and valence of the change indicators (r=0.18). This may imply that respondents perceived that the application of well-managed rules, regulations, systems and procedures ensures their perceived benefits from the change effort.

Relationship between Organizational Culture and Change

A Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted to evaluate the relationship between organizational culture and organizational change. Accordingly, there was a statistically significant positive correlation between organizational culture and change (r= .35 and sig= .000).

5.2. Conclusions

In this study, the link between organizational culture and change was investigated. Accordingly the study reached the following conclusions:

From the findings of the study, one can concluded that the dominant culture of ECA in the current situation was hierarchy with a mix of clan culture. This shows that a desire of the staffs for hierarchy culture. This type of culture emphasizes an environment that is relatively stable, where tasks and functions are integrated and coordinated structurally and procedural. Uniformity of services, procedures, efficiency and predictability are the characteristics of this culture type. Leaders are generally considered to exemplify co-ordination, organizing or smooth running efficiency. The clan culture which scored the second highest mean score in the study was characterized by a very pleasant place to work where people share a lot of themselves and commitment is high. Therefore, the concerned bodies of the organization are expected to give due attention in the area and introduce a new mix of culture types in the future.

Based on the results of a Pearson product-moment correlation, one can concluded that there was a statistically significant positive correlation between organizational culture and change. From a practical point of view, this study brings important ideas, both for human resources as to organizational communication managers. Human resources managers recommended to be aware of that developing change processes affects the bond between organization and workers. In addition, change processes affect indirectly the relation with job satisfaction. Developing change processes would be performed with the criteria of involving the workers in it, as its impact on workers performance is evident.

5.3. Recommendations

Based on the findings obtained and conclusions reached, the following recommendations were forwarded. The identification of cultural profile of an organization is very indispensable to assess the cultural patterns of sub groups in an organization. The study revealed the UNECA as characterized by hierarchy culture in existing situation. This culture focuses on rules and regulation, systems, procedure which lacked flexibility. Therefore, to transform the existing culture the following recommendations were forwarded.

1. In order to implement the change effort of the organization, it is advisable to carry out detailed cultural survey to identify values, beliefs and assumptions that need to improve in the context of change effort. To do so, the leaders of the UNECA are recommended to give concern for the research and development department; allocate enough resources such as material, financial and assign qualified experts. They should include in their annual plan; how to follow up, monitor, evaluate the progress of the study and encourage and motivate experts extrinsically and intrinsically. The organization is also recommended to organize workshops and meetings, where members raise their awareness and acquire the relevant organizational culture to the ongoing change efforts.

2. As the ongoing organizational change effort is found appropriate and accepted by all members of the respondents', the organization should reinforce the motivation of members and its commitment to the change as articulated. Leaders of the UNECA should clearly understand the existing perception of the members; create a good work climate. They should create an opportunity to participate members in every issue. They should treat members equally, respecting their ideas. Moreover, they are expected to follow and implement properly the policies, regulations and rules.

3. From a practical point of view, this study brings important ideas, both for human resources as to organizational communication managers. Human resources managers should be aware that developing change processes affects the bond between organization and workers. Developing change processes would be performed with the criteria of involving the workers in it, as its impact on workers performance is evident. It is imperative for the organization to revise rules, regulations and procedures that enable members to use their potential, and be creative, innovative, and effective for the successful implementation of the change. Since some working rules and procedures are rigid barriers for new ideas are, innovations, the organization should identify critically those obstacles and propose effective and efficient working methods.

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Addis Ababa University

Department of Educational Planning and Management

Human Resource and Organizational Development Stream

Questionnaire to be filled by UNECA Staffs

Dear Respondent:

This questionnaire is designed to solicit the relevant information for the research carried out on the topic "**The Relationship between Organizational Culture and Organizational Change**". The study is conducted for academic purpose for partial fulfillment of the requirements of the Master of Art Degree in Human Resource and Organizational Development in Education. Hence, your responses will be kept confidential. The soundness and the validity of the findings highly depends on your kind and genuine responses. Therefore, I kindly request you to fill the questionnaire carefully and back to me as much as possible as per the indicated time. /To be returned within a week/

Thank you in Advance!

General Directions

1. **No need of writing your name**
2. **Please put a tick (✓) mark in the box ☐ your answer and for the number of your choice for the alternatives given.**
3. **If you require further clarification or details, please contact me with either of the following address:** E-mail: lidiyanat@yahoo.com

Part I. Information about Demographic Data

1. Sex A. Male ☐ B. Female ☐
2. Educational Qualification
   - A. BA/BSC ☐ C. PhD ☐
   - B. MA/MSC ☐
   - D. If any, Please specify _____

3. Year of service in the organization
   A. Below 3 years ☐
   B. 3-5 years ☐
   C. 6-10 years ☐
   D. Above 10 years ☐
4. Your job category in the organization
   A. Professional Officer ☐
   B. National Officer ☐
   C. General Service ☐
   D. Any Other _____

Part II. Diagnosing Organizational Culture in your Organization

This part of the questionnaire consists of items taken from the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI). The main purpose of the instrument is to assess six key dimensions of institutional culture in your organization. If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave it blank. Judge how frequently each statement fits the institutional culture in your organization (UN-ECA).use the following rating scale, and put "√" mark for each rating.

Not at all extent	To a slight extent	To a moderate extent	To a great extent	To a very great extent
0	1	2	3	4

	Dominant Characteristics	0	1	2	3	4
1.1	The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.					
1.2	The organization is a very dynamic entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.					
1.3	The organization is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.					
1.4	The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.					
2	**Institutional Leadership**	0	1	2	3	4
2.1	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.					
2.2	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovating, or risk taking.					
2.3	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus.					
2.4	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running					

	efficiency.					
3	**Management of Employees**	0	1	2	3	4
3.1	The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.					
3.2	The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.					
3.3	The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.					
3.4	The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.					
4	**Organizational Glue**	0	1	2	3	4
4.1	The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.					
4.2	The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.					
4.3	The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. Aggressiveness and winning are common themes.					
4.4	The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important.					
5	**Strategic Emphasis**	0	1	2	3	4
5.1	The organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.					
5.2	The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.					
5.3	The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.					
5.4	The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.					
6	**Criteria of Success**	0	1	2	3	4
6.1	The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.					
6.2	The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.					
6.3	The organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.					
6.4	The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical.					

Part III. The *Organizational Change Recipients' Beliefs Scale* (OCRBS)

Below is series of statements, which represents the five important constructs of organizational change recipients' beliefs scale items. The constructs are including discrepancy items, appropriate items, efficacy items, principal support items and valence items. Read each statement carefully and indicate your opinion about the current change effort implemented by the organization, use the following rating scale, and put "√" mark for each rating.

Not at all extent	To a slight extent	To a moderate extent	To a great extent	To a very great
0	1	2	3	4

No	Organizational change recipients beliefs' scale items	0	1	2	3	4
1	This change will benefit me.					
2	Most of my respected peers embrace the proposed organizational change.					
3	Believe the proposed organizational change will have a favorable effect on our operations.					
4	I have the capability to implement the change that is initiated.					
5	We need to change the way we do some things in this organization.					
6	With this change in my job, I will experience more self-fulfillment.					
7	The top leaders in this organization are "walking the talk."					
8	The change in our operations will improve the performance of our organization.					
9	I can implement this change in my job.					
10	We need to improve the way we operate in this organization.					
11	The top leaders in our organization support this change.					
12	The change that we are implementing is correct for our situation.					
13	I am capable of successfully performing my job duties with the proposed organizational change.					
14	We need to improve our effectiveness by changing our operations.					
15	The change in my job assignments will increase my feelings of accomplishment.					
16	The majority of my respected peers are dedicated to making this change work.					
17	When I think about this change, I realize it is appropriate for our organization.					
18	I believe we can successfully implement this change.					
19	A change is needed to improve our operations.					
20	My immediate manager is in favor of this change.					
21	This organizational change will prove to be best for our situation.					
22	We have the capability to successfully implement this change.					
23	We need to improve our performance by implementing					
24	My immediate manager encourages me to support the change.					

Thank you!

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the study entitled "*The Relationship between Organizational Culture and Change at UN-ECA*" is my original work and has not been presented in Addis Ababa University or any other University, and that all sources of material used for the study have been duly acknowledged.

Name of the researcher: **Lidya Shibekaw**

Signature _____

Date of submission 29/07/15

Advisor: Ayalew Shibeshi (Assoc. Prof.)

Signature _____

Date of submission 29-7-2015