

**AN ASSESSEMENT OF ORGANAIZATIONAL
CULTURE AND PERFORMANCE OF OROMIA
BUREAUS**

By:

Desta Tesemma



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Addis Ababa

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A Thesis Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies of Addis Ababa
University in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
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Table of Content

	Pages
Acknowledgements.....	i
Table of Contents.....	ii
List of Tables	v
List of Figures.....	vi
Abstract.....	
Chapter One: The Problem and Its Approaches	1
1.1. Background	1
1.2. Statement of the Problem.....	4
1.3. Objectives of the Study	6
1.3.1. General Objective	7
1.3.2. Specific Objectives	8
1.4. Significance of the Study	8
1.5. Delimitation of the Study	8
1.6. Limitations of the Study.....	9
1.7. Definition of Terms.....	9
1.8. Organization of the Study	10
Chapter Two: Review of Related Literature.....	11
2.1. The Concept of Organizational Culture.....	11
2.2. Definition and Characteristics of Organizational Culture.....	13
2.3. Elements of Organizational Culture and the Levels at which Analyzed.....	15
2.4. Content, Homogeneity and Strength of Culture.....	18
2.5. Classifications or Types of Organizational Culture	19
2.5.1. The Hierarchy Culture.....	21
2.5.2. The Market Culture.....	21
2.5.3. The Clan Culture.....	22
2.5.4. The Adhocracy Culture.....	22

2.6. Creation of Organizational Culture.....	24
2.6.1. Internal Factors.....	25
2.6.2. External Factors.....	27
2.7. The Role and Value of Organizational Culture.....	29
2.7.1. Management's Perspective.....	29
2.7.2. Individual's Perspective.....	31
2.8. The Role of Organizational Culture in Major/Radical Change	31
2.9. How to Change Culture.....	32
2.9.1. Leadership Directed.....	32
2.9.2. Leadership Enabled.....	34
Chapter Three: Research Methodology.....	38
3.1. Method.....	38
3.2. Sample Population and Sampling Techniques.....	40
3.3. Sources of Data.....	41
3.4. Data Gathering Instruments and	41
3.5. Procedures of Data Collection.....	44
3.6. Method of Data Analysis.....	45
3.7. Variables of the Study.....	46
Chapter Four: Data Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation ...	47
4.1. Characteristics of Respondents.....	47
4.1.1. Demographic Characteristics of Respondents.....	48
4.1.2. Educational Characteristics of Respondents.....	49
4.1.3. Employment Characteristics of Respondents.....	49
4.2. Dimensions of Organizational Culture.....	49
4.3. Factors Affecting Culture and Performance.....	58
4.3.1. Descriptions and Analysis of Internal Factors.....	59
4.3.1.1. Organizational Mission.....	60
4.3.1.2. Recruitment Criteria.....	61
4.3.1.3. Performance Expectation and Evaluation.....	62
4.3.1.4. Employee Recognitions and Sanctions.....	63

4.3.1.5. Autonomy in Personnel and Budgetary Issues...	65
4.3.2. Descriptions and Analysis of External Factors.....	65
4.3.2.1. Specificity of the Organization’s Tasks.....	66
4.3.2.2. Political Interference.....	67
4.3.2.3. Client Demand and Oversight.....	68
4.3.2.4. Incentive System.....	69
4.4. Elements of Organizational Culture Changed and Techniques Used.....	71
4.4.1. Descriptions and Analysis of Culture Levels Changed....	71
4.4.1.1. Elements of the Artifacts and Behavioral Patterns..	72
4.4.1.2. Elements of the Behavioral Norms, Values, and Beliefs and Assumptions.....	74
4.4.2. Reasons for Cultural Change Techniques Used.....	77
4.4.3. Effectiveness of the Cultural Techniques Used.....	78
4.4.4. Opinion of Changing the Inner Cultural Elements.....	80

Chapter Five: Summary of Major Findings, Conclusion and

Recommendations	82
5.1. Summary of Major Findings.....	82
5.2. Conclusion.....	85
5.3. Recommendations.....	86

Bibliography

Appendix

List of Figures and Tables

	Page
Tables: 1. Bureaus Included in the Study.....	40
Tables: 2. Demographic, Educational and Employment Characteristics of Respondents.....	48
Tables: 3. Dominant Characters of Good and Poor Performing bureaus.....	50
Tables: 4. Organizational Leaders of Good and Poor Performing bureaus.....	51
Tables: 5. Management of Employees of Good and Poor Performing bureaus ...	52
Tables: 6. Organizational Glue of Good and Poor Performing bureaus.....	53
Tables: 7. Strategic Emphasis of Good and Poor Performing bureaus.....	54
Tables: 8. Criteria of Success of Good and Poor Performing bureaus.....	55
Tables: 9. The Overall Core Culture Type of Good and Poor Performing bureaus...	56
Tables: 10. Test of Difference between Means for Internal Factors Indicators of Good and Poor Performers.....	59
Tables: 11. Test of Difference between Means for External Factors Indicators of Good and Poor Performers.....	66
Tables: 12. Descriptions of Cultural Elements or Layers and Categories of Cultural Change Techniques.....	71
Tables: 13. Test of Difference between Means for the Artifacts and Behavioral Patterns Indicators of Good and Poor Performers.....	72
Tables: 14. Test of Difference between Means for the Behavioral Norms, Values, and Beliefs and Assumptions of Good and Poor Performers.....	74
Tables: 15. Responses of Respondents on the Reasons Why the Cultural Change Techniques were Chosen.....	77
Tables: 16. Test of Difference between Means for Behavioral Improvements of Good and Poor Performers.....	78
Tables: 17. Test of Difference between Means for Views of Good and Poor Performers on Changing the Deeply Held Employee Values and Beliefs.....	80

List of Figures

	Page
Figures: 1. Layers of Culture.....	15
Figures: 2. Levels of Culture and their Interaction.....	17
Figures: 3. Culture Quadrant.....	20
Figures: 4. Four Types of Fit or Congruence.....	20
Figures: 5. The Competing Values of Leadership Effectiveness and Organizational Theory.....	22
Figures: 6. Measurement and Performance of Each Type of Corporate Culture.....	30
Figures: 7. Culture Profile of the Good Performers.....	57
Figures: 8. Culture Profile of the Poor Performers.....	57

ABSTRACT

Public sector reform programs implemented across Africa, including the World Bank's "first" and "second" generation reforms, are based on the assumption that all public organizations are inefficient. This study with the particular purpose of assessing the organizational culture and performance of Oromia bureaus, however, argues that this assumption is problematic and has had significant implications for organizational change policy. By failing to recognize that not all public organizations perform poorly and to consider the specific situations of organizations, policy makers may ignore any potential lessons that could have been learnt from the experiences of organizations that have managed to perform effectively under the same social, political, economic and organizational environments, and public-sector change policies that could have been tailored to specific organizations. The study survey 10 Oromia bureaus classified as the good and poor performers using descriptive survey research method and both quantitative and qualitative data gathered from 223 respondents and 10 interviewees through questionnaire and interview respectively. Based on these data, the study analyzed the characteristics of poor and good performing bureaus using both descriptive and inferential statistics in identifying the organizational culture and performance differential of the two types of organizations. In these processes, the study found that good and poor performing bureaus in Oromia were significantly different in respect of: the current core organizational culture type, recruitment practices, employee recognitions and sanctions, remuneration, leaders' consistency in exhibiting behaviors required of employees, employees' commitment to the organization and cooperative team working. To the extent that the characteristics of an organization determine the organization's culture and performance, the findings results suggest that different organizations—even those in the same region and/or in the same sector often have different culture(s) and performance which is may be partly attributed to differences in the core organizational culture type, employees recruitment procedures, recognition and sanction as well as incentive systems, leaders' behavioral norms and actions, and to differences in the employees commitment and cooperative team working. And, creating effective public sector organization requires taking situations in the specific organizations into consideration and focusing on those internal and external variables, in which the two groups of organizations differed, rather than one-size-fits-all approaches or solutions.

CHAPTER ONE

THE PROBLEM AND ITS APPROACH

This chapter presents the background of the study, the statement of the problem, the research questions related to the problem and that the study attempts to address, the objectives of the study, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, limitations of the study, definition of terms, and organization of the study.

1.1. Background of the Study

Organizational culture is the important concept that helps to explain some of the more seemingly incomprehensible and irrational aspects of what goes on in organizations and be less likely to be puzzled, irritated, and anxious when one encounter these aspects and to normalize them. However, it is not always easy to observe and understand organizational culture, for it tends to subtly permeate most aspects of organizational life. As a result, it is not rare that one can find a variety of elements that people perceive to be “culture”, leading to a formal definition that puts emphasis on shared learning experiences at the expense of the essence of culture—i.e., shared and taken-for-granted basic assumptions held by members of the organization and that determines much of the organization’s behavior (Schein, 1985, 2004).

Though the essence of an organization’s culture is its pattern of shared, basic taken-for-granted assumptions, the culture will manifest itself at the level of observable artifacts and shared espoused beliefs and values. So that, in assessing or analyzing organizational culture, it is important to recognize the basic elements of culture sorted into layers or levels based upon the degree to which the culture phenomenon is visible to the observer. The levels are ranging from the very tangible overt manifestations that one can see and feel (i.e. artifacts), but difficult to decipher to the deeply embedded and unconscious (i.e. basic underlying assumptions). In between these layers are various espoused beliefs, values, and norms of behavior that members of the culture use as a way of depicting the culture to themselves and others, but may only reflect rationalizations and aspirations. Therefore, in analyzing an organization’s culture, one must attempt to get at its shared basic assumptions and understand the shared learning process by which such basic assumptions come to be (Rousseau, 1990; Schein, 1985, 2004).

Organizational culture and leadership are two sides of the same coin, in that leaders can play a major role in creating, developing and changing the organizational cultures. On the other hand, once organizational cultures formed they determine the criteria for leadership and thus determine who will or will not be a leader. Culture and change can also affect each other. For instance, an organizational change endeavor that is not taking into account the members' basic assumptions or culture create stress and is more vulnerable to fierce resistance and failure, which would in turn, be a tough challenge for leadership. Conversely, organizational change made in response to organizational crisis may necessitate the cultural change and immediate leadership reaction accordingly. But if elements of a culture and organization system become dysfunctional, it is the unique function of leadership to be able to perceive the functional and dysfunctional elements of the existing culture and organization system as well as to manage and change them in such a way that the organization can be effective and survive in a changing environment (Grindle, 1997; Schein, 2004; 1985).

Indeed, different authorities point out that there is a significant inter-play or strong tie among organizational culture, leadership, change and/or performance and that they all need due consideration: on this point Deal and Kennedy (1982:164) are very explicit, "The Business of change is cultural transformation" and criticizes most managers or leaders who "worry a lot about change but neglect culture issues of changing." Others like Benjamin and Maybe (1993:182) believe that success is dependent on those initiating change recognize that "they themselves will need to revise their attitude and behaviors and perhaps even their values." While George and Jones (2005) warn that leaders at different levels should be able to bear in mind that the ability of an organizations' culture to motivate employees and increase its effectiveness is directly related to the way in which members learn the organization's values and develop more consistency and increase service delivery in the work place.

Moreover, there is a growing body of knowledge and experience on excellence in public management that the leaders in government organizations can increasingly draw on it for their own planning and thinking about cultural change. They can also hold these knowledge and experience up to others in their organizations. They can point to them as evidence that while government setting may often impose obstacles to improving organizational culture, leaders of

government agencies can overcome these obstacles and develop effective organizational culture (Rainey, 1996 a).

Further moreover, the need to create and develop strong organizational culture as a means to improve the performance of organizations is stressed by different authorities. For instance, Deal and Kennedy (1982:181-6) state that “a strong culture is a powerful lever in guiding behavior and that culture have an edge.” This edge is shown in terms of productivity or performance. “The impact of a strong culture on productivity is amazing “and it also makes employees” feel better about what they do, so they are more likely to work hard.” Moreover, Peters and Austin (1985:330-4) echo this theme “shared organizational values affect individual performance” because shared values set a framework whereby employees can flexibly and speedily respond to new day to day solutions, where as “rules and procedures not shared and valued can be a strait-Jacket.”

Therefore, the basic assumption of the need for understanding and managing culture is that it has been recognized as the powerful forces that are created in social and organizational situations and a key predicator of competitive performance, organizational behavior and leadership attributes most valued. This is the greater implication to all parties aiming at the improvement of public organizations, but more importantly, to leaders that there should be an emphasis on organizational culture. Thus, to be familiar with what is going on inside an organization and deal with appropriately as Schein (2004:23) echoes this theme “perceiving and deciphering organizational culture is desirable for all of us, but it is essential for leaders if they are to lead” the organizational change and improve performance.

The above arguments are also true to the conditions of public organizations in Ethiopia including Oromia Regional State this study uses as a subject. Therefore, visionary leaders and cultural change of public organizations in Oromia is crucial for the improvement of performance and all rounded development of the region, which in turn contributes a lot to the development of the country. It is at this point that the need for assessing, understanding, developing or creating or changing the organizational culture comes to its highest relevance.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

The importance of well-functioning public-sector in the development process is indisputable. Indeed, the proliferation of concepts such as “public-sector improvement program,” “capacity building,” “good governance,” and “business process reengineering” in the development literature are indications of a near-expert-consensus on the need for effective public-sector organizations. The challenge is to find ways to make or create effective public-sector organizations capable of responding to customer needs and facilitating development (World Bank, 2002).

In response to this challenge, the African governments implemented various strategies for reforming its inefficient public organizations. Among such initiatives to mention some: “Civil Service Improvement Program”, “Capacity Building Program”, and “Business Process Reengineering.” Even then, the improvement of public-sector organizations is still questionable (World Bank, 2002).

Several reasons have been advanced for the apparent failure of these reforms and non improvement of public-sector organizations in Africa. Among these to cite some, it is due to a series of external constraints, including colonial legacies (Ekeh, 1975; Alemika, 1993); the use of public organizations as a tool of popular patronage instead of a mechanism for providing public goods and services (Standbrook and Oelbaum, 1999); the broader culture in which the organizations are immersed (Dia, 1996); the changing live hood of employees in response to the economic crisis and reforms (Owusu, 2005); the influences of all these factors on the performance of different organizations may hold the key to organizational culture change and hence performance (Kotter and Heskett, 1992; Rainey, 1996 b). But more importantly, World Bank (2000 a; 2002) points out that there is now a sober realization that improving the performance of public-organizations is a difficult and multifaceted task that must involve fundamental changes in the “rules of the game”—i.e., changing culture(s) of public organizations. It also requires long-term, high-level commitment, in-depth knowledge and extensive support by civil servants, the national leaders and international community.

Moreover, Kotter’s (1996) argues that visionary leadership that create organizations in the first place or adapt them to significantly changing circumstances, defines what the future should look

like, aligns people with that vision, and inspires them to make it happen despite obstacles is important for organizational effectiveness. Yet, lack of visionary leadership is a serious problem, particularly in public sector where a poor incentive system, lack of resources, excessive bureaucratic rules and regulations and political interference in the running of public organizations make it extremely difficult to attract and retain such people.

Further more, authorities point out that the past public-sector reform policies which was based on the assumption that “all public organizations are ineffective” is a problematic and has had significant implications for organizational change policy. This assumption has become the norm, because the public sector in Africa has historically performed poorly, and is generally perceived as an obstacle to development (Stein, 1994). Yet not all public sector organizations in Africa perform poorly, indeed; in every African country one can find some organizations that perform relatively well given the constraints that they face. However, the reasons for the differential performance of public organizations within countries have not systematically studied (Grindle, 1997; Owusu, 2005).

To create public-sector organizations capable of playing major roles in the development programs of the African countries is the aim and expectation of an international community’s change initiatives and supports as well. But the performance of public-sector organizations in Africa is found not to be to the expectation (World Bank, 2002). As part of the solution, realizing the existence and extent of the problem is important, but the most important is the need for thorough investigation and understanding the root causes of this deep-rooted and long-aged phenomenon and finding the ways to go out of it.

In short, the ongoing search for effective public sector organizations needs a more comprehensive public-sector reform strategy that fore fronting organizational culture and those variables influencing it (i.e., both internal and external factors) to address the perennial problem of poor performance of public organizations.

The public organizations in Oromia Regional State are not exceptional in these respects. Oromia is one of the regional states that have implemented various reforms to improve public organizations at all levels in the past. It is also implementing “Business Process Reengineering” for the second time. Though there are some improvements as a result of the change process, the

performance of public organizations in Oromia is still not up to the need of the citizens and expectations of the government. Since the success of development in the region partly depends on the effectiveness of public sector organizations, the repeated report about the high prevalence of problems in Oromia with regard to public-sector performance deserve serious research attention.

Thus, the purpose of this study is assessing the organizational culture and performance of Oromia Regional Government State Bureaus as the subject and to come up with valuable findings that may contribute to the search for effective public sector organizations and/or give vital recommendations that enable overcome the challenges encountering with respect to identifying gaps, creating or developing or changing organizational culture, improving organizational performance and change process so that they could commence provision of effective and efficient services to tax payers as well as contribute to the change and development of the region and the country.

To this end, the study tries to search for valid answers to the following basic questions:

1. What are the dominant current and preferred cultures of the good and poor performing Oromia Bureaus?
2. What are the major internal and external factors influencing the culture and performance of the good and poor performing Oromia Bureaus?
3. Do leaders of the good and poor performing Oromia Bureaus think organizational culture could be changed? If so:
 - 3.1. At what levels do they try to change?
 - 3.2. What types of techniques are used?
 - 3.3. How effective do they think these changes are?

1.3. Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study emanate from the very nature of the problem discussed above. To this effect, they are discussed in two different sections as general and specific objectives in the subsequent sections.

1.3.1. General Objective

The prime objective of this study is addressing the following three major related issues: First, it addresses the past public-sector reform policies' assumption that "all public organizations are ineffective"—this assumption has become the norm, because the public sector in Africa has historically performed poorly, and is generally perceived as an obstacle to development (Stein, 1994). Yet not all public sector organizations in Africa perform poorly, indeed; in every African country one can find some organizations that perform relatively well given the constraints that they face. However, the reasons for the differential performance of public organizations within countries or regions have not been systematically studied (Grindle, 1997; Owusu, 2005). Thus, by identifying which organizations perform well in a given country or region and providing an explanation of why or how such organizations defy the norm could contribute to the ongoing search for effective public sector reform strategies.

Second, the study does not only identify the differential performance of public organizations in the region, it also explores the relationship between organizational culture and performance. Specifically, it brings the concept of organizational culture which has recently found widespread application in the private and public sector in many developed countries into the public sector organizations, while exploring the core current and preferred culture type and major factors influencing culture and performance in Oromia bureaus. The basic premise is that "good-and poor performing organizations have different cultures" that are the product of the interaction between internal and external factors that impinge on the organization. As a result, some organizations develop a culture(s) that encourage higher performance while others develop that perpetuates poor performance (Schein, 1992; 1999).

The third general objective of this study was identifying the elements of culture leaders of good and poor performers think more important and the ways they were attempting to change it and/or cultural change techniques used. In the process, the study not only brings the useful or applicable techniques for changing organizational culture into the public sector organizations but also makes bold that any effort to transform inefficient organizations that do not include systematic strategies for diagnosing, creating or developing or changing organizational culture in appropriate way is bound to fail (Lowe, 2004). The basic assumption is: organizations tackle artifacts and behavioral patterns as these are promoted by management consultants, they are

more visible, and are believed to produce quicker results. As a result, they do not try to change the inner elements of values and beliefs (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Peters and Waterman, 1982; Kono, 1990).

1.3.2. Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of the study designed to address the general objective of the study are:

1. To identify the well-and poor performing Oromia Bureaus.
2. To identify the major culture difference that may exist between the good and poor performing Oromia Bureaus.
3. To investigate the major factors those are influencing the culture and performance of good and poor performing Oromia bureaus.
4. To examine an attempt made and techniques employed to change organizational culture in the good and poor performing Oromia bureaus.
5. To examine how effective was the cultural change endeavor in the good and poor performing Oromia Bureaus while implementing the BPR project.

1.4. Significances of the Study

Familiarity with alternative pathways to organizational culture and performance is essential for today's dynamic world. This study, as stated in its objectives, is aimed to assess organizational culture and performance in Oromia bureaus. In doing so, the output of the research may have the following significant roles:

1. It may suggest possible strategies to nurture strong organizational culture and there by improve the effectiveness of Oromia bureaus.
2. It may serve as a spring board for other researchers who have an interest to study the problem in a wider scope.
3. It may contribute its share to the development of a body of knowledge in the field.
4. It may shed light upon some important strategies that the policy makers should consider in public organizations change programs.

1.5. Delimitation of the Study

The study is all limited to 10 Bureaus in Oromia to make the study manageable. The bureaus were chosen for three reasons. First, they are relatively easier to access to different valuable

documents, the respondents and administer the research instrument three times (i.e. administering the instruments designed for identifying the good and the poor performing bureaus, pilot testing the instruments designed for the next phase of the study, and final administration of the instrument or collection of data). Second, the researcher was serving in Oromia at bureau level at the time the problem of the study recognized. Third, it is supposed that the organizational culture and performance has to do with organizational structure and studying the problem at the higher or bureau level could have an implication on the organizational culture and performance of the lower levels (zone and woreda) organizational structures.

1.6. Limitations of the Study

For the lack of related ample literature that describes theoretical perspectives and empirical findings from domestic sources, the study was forced to totally rely on theories and practices that do not correspond with local practices. Moreover, lack of adequate financial resources limited the size and nature of the subject that could have been included in the sample population.

1.7. Definition of Terms

Artifacts: are the visible products of the organization, such as the architecture of its physical environment, its language, its technology and products, its artistic creations, its style, as embedded in clothing, emotional displays, and myths and stories told about the organization (Schein, 2004).

Basic assumptions: is the inner and invisible, to a considerable degree unconscious and taken-for-granted belief, perceptions, thoughts and feelings that provides individuals in the organization a sense of common direction (Schein, 2004).

Culture: is a pattern of shared basic assumptions invented, discovered or developed by a group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems (Schein, 1985, 2004).

Rites and Rituals: are the every day activities and celebrations that characterize the organization (George, 1989).

Organizational Culture: is the values, rules, practices, rituals and norms through which business is conducted; simply, it is the way you do things... strategy delineates the boundaries of the organization's pond; culture is water you swim (Brache, 2002).

Values and norms: Values refers to what people believe to be good, right or desirable or a sense of what ought to be done. While norms are unwritten rules according to which others are expected to behave and also reflect what is not done in the organization (Maslowski, 2001).

1.8. Organization of the Study

The research paper is organized into five chapters. Chapter one discusses the background, the problem, the objectives, the significance, the delimitation and limitation of the study. It also contains definition of terms used in the study and how the research paper is organized. Chapter two reviews the related literature that describes the theoretical perspectives and empirical findings regarding the problem at hand. Whereas, chapter three discusses the research methods, instruments and procedures of data collection, sources of data, method of data analysis and variables of the study. Chapter four focuses on descriptions of variables, data presentation, analysis and interpretation, while chapter five deals with the summary of major findings, conclusion and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITRATURE

This part of the study generally deals with theoretical and empirical evidences of organizational culture. Organizational members may imagine that *what* happens in organizations is fairly easy to observe; but face difficulty in the effort to understand *why* such things happen—i.e., where culture as a concept comes into its own (Schein, 2004). Thus, the literature review will proceed with the concept, definition and characteristics of organizational culture. To be more familiar with the concept of organizational culture, one should be able to acquaints with the elements culture made of and identify the levels at which they are categorized and analyzed. To this end, the review briefly discusses on the elements and levels of culture; followed by types of cultures and their classifications schemes. The literature review also covers theoretical as well as empirical evidences on the factors playing roles in the creation of organizational culture, the role and value of culture in enhancing organizational performance and major changes. Finally, the review focuses on mechanisms available for leaders to change culture so as to align to the organizational mission.

2.1. The Concept of Organizational Culture

Culture as a concept is an abstraction—“an empirically based abstraction” as Schein (2004) calls it. As a result, culture as a concept has been used by different groups in different ways. It has been used by layman as a word to indicate sophistication, as when we say that someone is very “cultured”. It has been used by anthropologists to refer to the customs and rituals that societies develop over the course of their history. In the last several decades, it has been used by some organizational researchers and managers to refer to the climate and practices that organizations develop around their handling of people, or the espoused values and credo of an organization (Schein, 1985, 2004).

In this context or usage, managers for example, speak of developing the “right kind of culture”, suggesting that culture has to do with certain values that managers are trying to inculcate in their organizations. Also implied in this usage is the assumption that there are better or worse cultures. However, Schein criticizes that many of these usages of the word *culture* display not only a superficial and incorrect view of culture, but also a dangerous tendency to evaluate particular

cultures in an absolute way and to suggest that there actually are “right” cultures for organizations and argue that whether or not a culture is “good” or “bad”, depends not on the culture alone, but on the relationship of the culture to the environment in which it exists (Schein, 1985, 2004).

The most intriguing aspects of culture as a concept is that it points us to phenomena that are below the surface, that are powerful in their impact but invisible and to a considerable degree unconscious. In this sense, culture is to a group what personality or character is to an individual. We can see the behavior that results, but often we can not see the forces underneath that cause certain kinds of behavior. Yet, just as our personality and character guide and constrain our behavior, so does culture guide and constrain the behavior of members of a group or an organization through shared norms that are held in that organization. Thus, culture as a concept is an abstraction but its behavioral and attitudinal consequences are very concrete indeed (Schein, 1985; 2004; Rousseau, 1990).

If an abstract concept is to be useful to our thinking, it should be observable and also increase our understanding of a set of events that are otherwise not well understood. Culture as a concept will also be most useful if it helps us to better understand the hidden and complex aspects of life in groups and organizations. For example, most of us in our roles as students, employees, managers, consultants, etc, work in and have to deal with groups and organizations of all kinds. Yet, we continue to find it amazingly difficult to understand and justify much of what we observe in our organizational life. Too much seems to be bureaucratic or political or just plain irrational—i.e., as when people in positions of authority often frustrate us; as managers, when we try to change the behavior of subordinates, we often encounter resistance to change to an extent that seems beyond reason; as teachers, we encounter the sometimes mysterious phenomenon that different classes behave completely differently from each other, even though our material and teaching style remains the same, and so on (Rousseau, 1990; Schein, 1985; 2004).

Indeed, Schein (2004:7) argues that the concept of culture helps to explain all of these phenomena and to normalize them. If we understand the dynamics of culture, we will be less likely to be puzzled when we encounter the unfamiliar and seemingly irrational behavior of people in organizations, and we will have a deeper understanding not only of why various groups of people or organizations can be so different, but also why it is so hard to change them. Even

more important, if we understand culture better we will better understand ourselves. However, the author warns that we cannot obtain this understanding unless “we taking a cultural perspective; learning to see the world through *cultural lenses*; becoming competent in cultural analysis”; we must avoid the superficial models of culture and build on the deeper, more complex anthropological models, and avoid using superficial definitions.

In sum, this section of the review has introduced that culture as a concept is an abstraction that points us to phenomena that are below the surface. As a result, that it has been used by different groups in different ways and leading to an incorrect view of culture. It has also argued that if we understand the concept of culture thoroughly, it helps us to better understand the hidden and complex aspects of life in groups and organizations. This is, in turn, requires being competent in cultural analysis and avoid the superficial models of culture and build on the deeper ones.

2.2. Definition and Characteristics of Organizational Culture

We all may have a commonsense notion of organizational culture. In talking about organizational culture with colleagues and members of organizations, we may often find that we agree that “it” exists and that it is important in its effects, but when we try to describe or define it, we may have completely different ideas of what “it” is. Similarly, whether the case is due to the abstraction of culture as a concept or the purpose why they are engaged in the study process or the aspects of culture emphasis on, many of the authorities who have studied organizational culture often come up with rather differing definitions. For instance, the following definitions have been used to describe organizational culture:

1. *Espoused values*: the articulated, publicly announced principles and values that the group or organizational members claims to be trying to achieve, such as “product quality” or “price leadership” (Deal and Kennedy, 1982, 1999).
2. *Formal rituals and celebrations*: the ways in which a group or organization celebrates key events that reflect important values or important “passages” by members, such as promotion, completion of important projects, and milestones (Deal and Kennedy, 1982).

From the point of view of such scholars as (Cameroon and Quinn, 2006; Schein, 2004; Rousseau, 1990) and others, the commonly used words relating to culture in these definitions are not only varying but also emphasize the observable behavioral regularities and one of its critical aspects, but they can not usefully be thought of as the culture of an organization. Such a lack of

consensus on the aspects of culture is one of the most subjects that have been posing debate among scholars. In fact, as to these authorities, this debate is a healthy sign in that it testifies to the importance of culture as a concept, but at the same time it creates difficulties for both the scholar and the practitioner if definitions are fuzzy and usages are inconsistent. And, they argue that there is the need to offer an embracing, and formal definition that makes the most sense and/or that capture an essence of an organizational culture.

Accordingly, scholars have provided definitions of organizational culture they suppose to be more formal and embracing from their own point of views. For example, Schein has offered the following definition:

"a pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group 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, 2004, p.17).

On the basis of this definition the critical elements or characteristics of culture suggested by Schein (2004) are: shared learning, structural stability, depth, breadth, and patterning or integration—the accumulated shared learning of a given organization, covering behavioral, emotional, and cognitive elements of the organization members' total psychological functioning. For such shared learning to occur, there must be a history of shared experience that, in turn, implies some stability of membership in the organization. Given such stability and a shared history, the human need for stability, consistency, and meaning will cause the various shared elements to form into patterns that eventually can be called a culture (pp.14-17).

Whilst the context part of this definition (i.e. how culture is created, the group aspects and shared learning) is generally accepted by most authorities, whether culture is "patterns of basic assumptions", invisible or visible one is open to debate. This visible/invisible distinction applies to other non behavioral attributes of culture which many researchers tend to emphasis. As to Schein (2004), some of such variations in emphasis and/or the confusion surrounding the definition of what culture really is results from not differentiating its basic elements and the levels at which it manifests itself, with the term level meaning the degree to which the cultural phenomenon is visible to the observer.

To sum up, it is pointed out that we all may have a commonsense notion of organizational culture and agree that “it” exists and that it is important in its effects, but when we try to describe it, we may have completely different ideas of what “it” is. Similarly, for what ever reasons it is, many of the authorities who have studied organizational culture often come up with rather differing definitions. The variety of elements that people perceive to be ‘culture’ was reviewed, leading to formal definition that puts emphasis on shared learning experiences that led, in turn, to shared, taken-for-granted basic assumptions held by the members of the organization.

2. 3. Elements of Organizational Culture and the Levels at which Analyzed

Scholars vary in the elements or levels of culture they emphasis on in analyzing or studying organizational culture. For instance, Peters and Waterman (1982), and Deal and Kennedy (1982) emphasis the cultural elements of "business environment", "values", "heroes", "rites and rituals", and "cultural network". Whilst Organizational Development practitioners, such as Schein(1985; 2004), emphasis the cultural elements of “basic assumptions and beliefs”.

Rousseau (1990), in his critique of researchers who concentrate on one or a few attributes, proposes a multi-layered model which he structured as a ring (see figure 2.1 below). Rousseau's rings were "organized from readily accessible [outer layers] to difficult to access [inner layers]”.

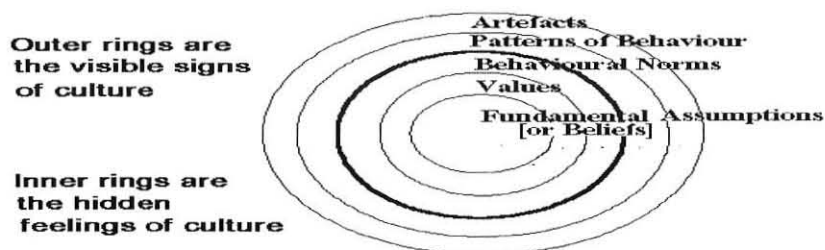


Figure 2.1: Layers of Culture, Rousseau (1990, p.158) with additional annotation.

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' conceptualizations of culture"(p159) it would appear from other critical researchers' view points 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 the "inner/ hidden" and the primary elements in organizations as noted above, while Schein's "values" are visible "dominant values espoused by an organization"—i.e., values are not the primary elements in organizations. Rather, Schein's primary elements are *assumptions*.

Many scholars in the field adopt Schein's (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. These levels of culture and their interaction are summarized blow in figure 2.2.

The first level in Schein's classification scheme consists of artifacts and practices. In cultural artifacts, the basic assumptions, values and behavioral norms of an organization are "visualized". Myths, for instance, articulate which past events have been important for members of the organization (Deal, 1985). These "critical" events are rendered in stories that are frequently called upon. Myths are often centered on actions or decisions taken by the heroes or heroines of the organization. These people represent certain individual characteristics that reflect what members of the organization value. As such, they serve as role models for the employees (Deal, 1985). As to Schein a first level artifact is made up of organizational symbols. These symbols relay compact information concerning what meaning organizational members ascribe to various functions or organizational processes.

The first layer 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 develop from socially accepted or reinforced behavior of employees (Deal, 1985). Practices essentially refer to the customs, "the way we do things around here", or to the rituals in organization. In organizations, one may think of the ceremony that takes place when an employee retires, awarded for best performance and so on. These events often take place according to a fixed protocol, consisting of several activities that emphasize their solemnity to the participants. Rituals, therefore, take place around events that are infused with meaning in the eyes of organizational members. Thus, at the first and most cursory level of Schein's model is organizational attributes that can be seen, felt and heard by the uninitiated observer. Included are the facilities, offices, furnishings, and the way that its members

dress (are also the elements of Rousseau’s Layer 1), visible awards and recognition, and how each person visibly interacts with each other and with organizational outsiders.

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 employees are not always conscious of the values that

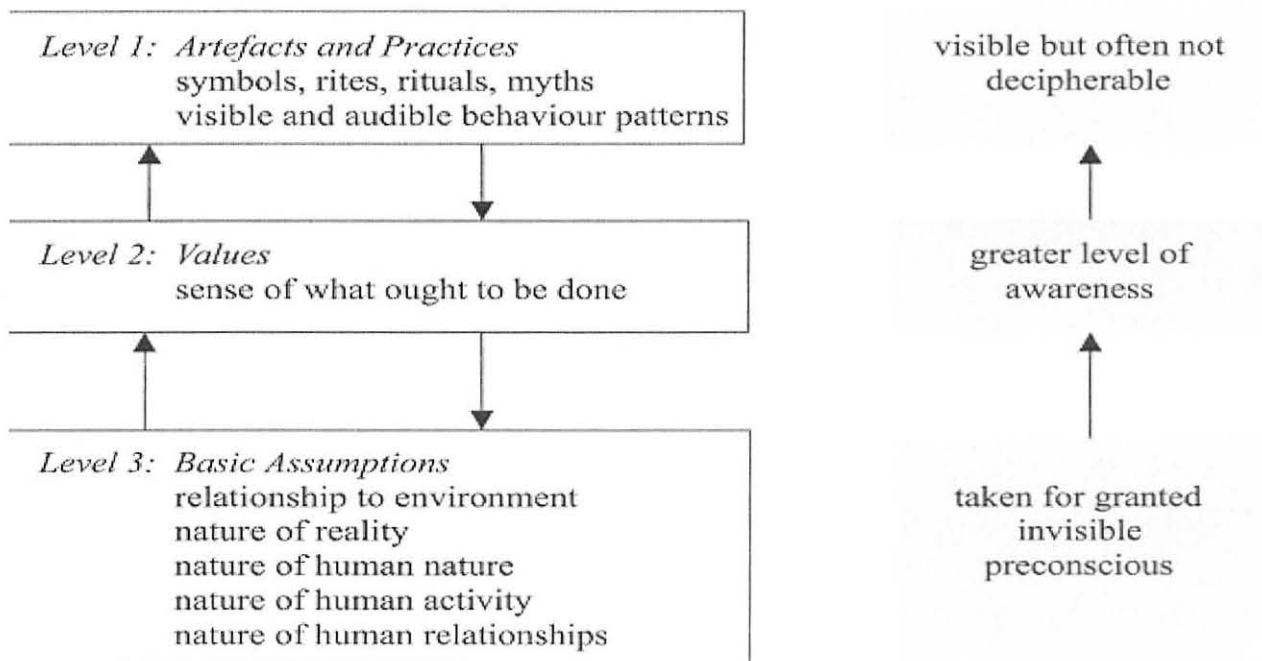


Figure 2.2: Levels of culture and their interaction (Schein, 1985, p14)

guide their behavior, most are able to express their core values (Rossman et al., 1988). Values are often “translated” into norms for behavior. Such behavioral norms, in fact, are unwritten rules according to which others are expected to behave. They also reflect what is not done in organization. This level generally deals with the professed culture of an organization's members. At this level, organizational slogans, mission statements and other operational creeds are often expressed, and local and personal values are widely expressed within the organization (Schein, 1985, 2004).

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 perceive to be “true” (Schein, 1985; 2004). Because of their taken-for-granted nature, employees often are no longer aware of the assumptions that underlie the daily interpretation of their duties. These assumptions are likely to remain unconscious until another organizational member; customer or stakeholder challenges them (Stolp and Smith, 1995).

In sum, it is noted that the elements of organizational culture could be analyzed at different levels, depending upon the degree to which the cultural phenomenon is visible to the observer. While some authorities emphasize on the most outer visible cultural elements, others emphasize on the most inner or invisible ones. It is also noted that many researchers use the same terms of organizational culture but for different meanings. Among different classification schemes, Rousseau’s 5 cultural layers encompassing the elements of the most visible artifacts, less visible patterns of behavior, behavioral norms in between classed as neutral, the soft/ invisible value, and the most soft or inner fundamental assumptions or beliefs, and Schein’s 3 cultural levels consists of most visible/ outer elements of artifacts, values in between, and the most invisible basic assumptions are stressed in the review.

2.4. Content, Homogeneity and Strength of Culture

In addition to those layers of organizational culture, three aspects of culture can be identified: content, homogeneity and strength (Maslowski, 2001). The content or substance of culture refers to the meaning of basic assumptions, norms and values as well as cultural artifacts shared by the organizational members. The content is often characterized by means of dimensions (Cavanagh and Dellar, 1998). Schein raises question regarding to the content of culture that “if a group’s culture is the result of that group’s accumulated learning, how do we describe and catalogue the content of that learning?” and replies to it that “all group and organizational theories distinguish two major sets of problems that all groups, no matter what their size, must deal with: (1) survival, growth, and adaptation in their environment; and (2) internal integration that permits daily functioning and the ability to adapt and learn” (p18). Both of these areas of group functioning will reflect the larger cultural context in which the group exists and from which are derived

broader and deeper basic assumptions about the nature of reality, time, space, human nature, and human relationships (Schein, 2004).

The *homogeneity* of culture refers to the extent to which basic assumptions, norms, values and cultural artifacts are shared by the organizational members. A culture is homogeneous if (nearly) all organizational members ascribe to the same assumptions, norms and values. Different values and norms do not imply, however, that a culture is heterogeneous, as Siskin (1991) has argued. Across departments, subcultures may emerge, which are themselves relatively homogeneous. This is often referred to as “cultural differentiation, cultural segmentation or the balkanization of culture in organizations” (Maslowski, 2001).

The *strength* of culture is generally defined as “a combination of the extent to which norms and values are clearly defined and the extent to which they are rigorously enforced” (Cox, 1993, p162). Cultural strength, therefore, refers to the extent to which the behavior of organizational members is actually influenced or determined by the assumptions, values, norms and artifacts that are shared in organization. *Weak* cultures do not informally put great pressure on organizational members to behave in certain ways, but simply offer a guideline for their behavior instead. As Kilmann et al. (1985) word it, “the weak culture only mildly suggests that they behave in certain ways” (p4). Stated otherwise, weak cultures do not prescribe how organizational members must behave, but rather how they might behave.

2.5. Classifications or Types of Organizational Culture

This section will briefly identify some models of cultural types as these are often linked to the way organizational culture is perceived to be created. Harrison (in Hampden-Turner, 1990) defined a four quadrant model based on the twin axis of Formulation (high-low) and Centralization (high-low) to give the four cultures of Role, Task, Atomistic (Person) and Power as shown in figure 3.3. Handy (1985) uses a similar model but names his 4 types as Apollo, Athena, Dionysus and Zeus respectively, after the Greek Gods displaying those characteristics. Indeed, Handy popularized the 1972 work of Roger Harrison of looking at culture which some scholars have used to link organizational structure to organizational culture. Handy describes Harrison's four types thus:

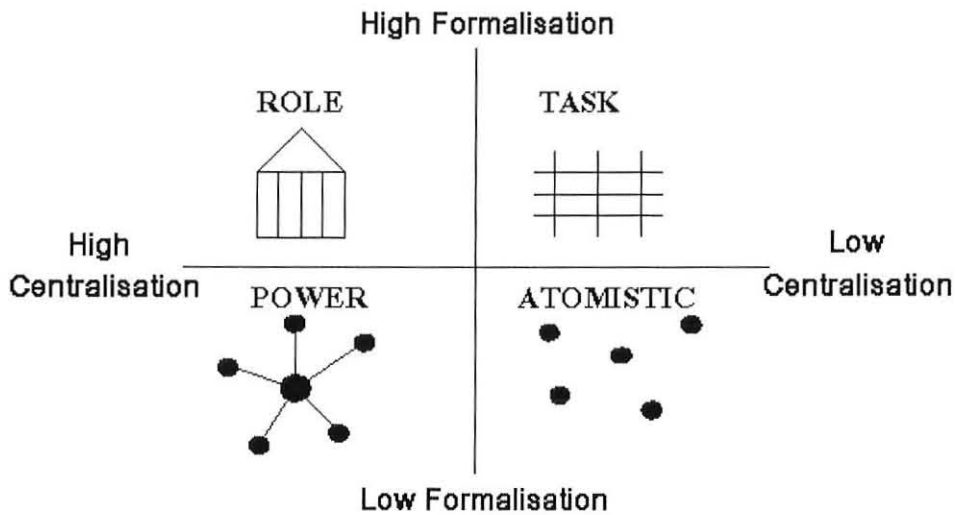


Figure 3.3: Culture Quadrants after Harrison (1972)

A *Power Culture* which concentrates power among a few. Power Cultures have few rules and little bureaucracy; swift decisions can ensue. In a *Role Culture*, people have clearly delegated authorities within a highly defined structure. Typically, these organizations form hierarchical bureaucracies. Power derives from a person's position and little scope exists for expert power. By contrast, in a *Task Culture*, teams are formed to solve particular problems. Power derives from expertise as long as a team requires expertise. These cultures often feature the multiple reporting lines of a matrix structure. A *Person Culture* exists where all individuals believe themselves superior to the organization. Survival can become difficult for such organizations, since the concept of an organization suggests that a group of like-minded individuals pursue the organizational goals. Some professional partnerships can operate as person cultures, because each partner brings a particular expertise and clientele to the firm.

Whilst Quinn and McGrath (1985) develop the idea of four types of organizational form (Hierarchy, Market, Clan and Adhocracy) based on 4 cultural types, (or "Transactional Expectations or Governing Rules"), of Hierarchical, Rational, Consensual and Ideological.

Environmental Conditions	Organizational Culture and Form	Leadership Style
High uncertainty - high intensity	Development culture (adhocracy)	Idealistic, prime mover
High uncertainty - low intensity	Rational culture (market)	Rational achiever

Low uncertainty - low intensity	Hierarchical culture (hierarchical)	Empirical expert
Low uncertainty - high intensity	Consensual culture (clan)	Existential team builder

Figure 2.4: Four Types of Fit or Congruence (Quinn and McGrath, 1985, p330).

Quinn and McGrath’s four types of organizational form and culture model are based on the theoretical framework model known as Competing Values Framework that was developed by Cameron and Quinn (2006). It is a broadly applicable model that is intended to foster successful leadership; improve organizational effectiveness; and promote value creation. It helps leaders think differently about value creation and shows them how to clarify purpose, integrate practices and lead people. The Competing Values Framework has been studied and tested in organizations for decades and is used by firms as a map, an organizing mechanism, a sense-making device, a source of new ideas and a learning system. The Competing Values Framework can tell you if your organization’s predominant culture falls into one or two of four types: the *hierarchy culture*; the *market culture*, the *clan culture*; or the *adhocracy culture* (Cameron and Quinn, 2006).

2.5.1. The Hierarchy Culture

A hierarchy culture is often found in formal, structured organizations that emphasize smooth running, stability, predictability and efficiency. These organizations rely on formal rules and policies. Because the environment is relatively stable, tasks and functions are usually integrated and coordinated and uniformity in products and services is maintained. Hierarchical organizations tend to rely on clear lines of decision-making authority, standardized rules and procedures. Control and accountability mechanisms are valued as the keys to success (Cameron and Quinn, 2006).

2.5.2. The Market Culture

Market culture organizations tend to be oriented toward the external environment and are focused on transactions with external constituencies such as suppliers, customers, contractors, licensees, unions and regulators. Unlike a hierarchy, where internal control is maintained by rules, specialized jobs, and centralized decisions, the market culture operates primarily through economic market mechanisms, such as monetary exchange. Profitability, bottom-line results, strength in market niches, stretch targets, and secure customer bases are primary objectives of the

organization. Market oriented cultures are results-oriented and emphasize winning (Cameron and Quinn, 2006).

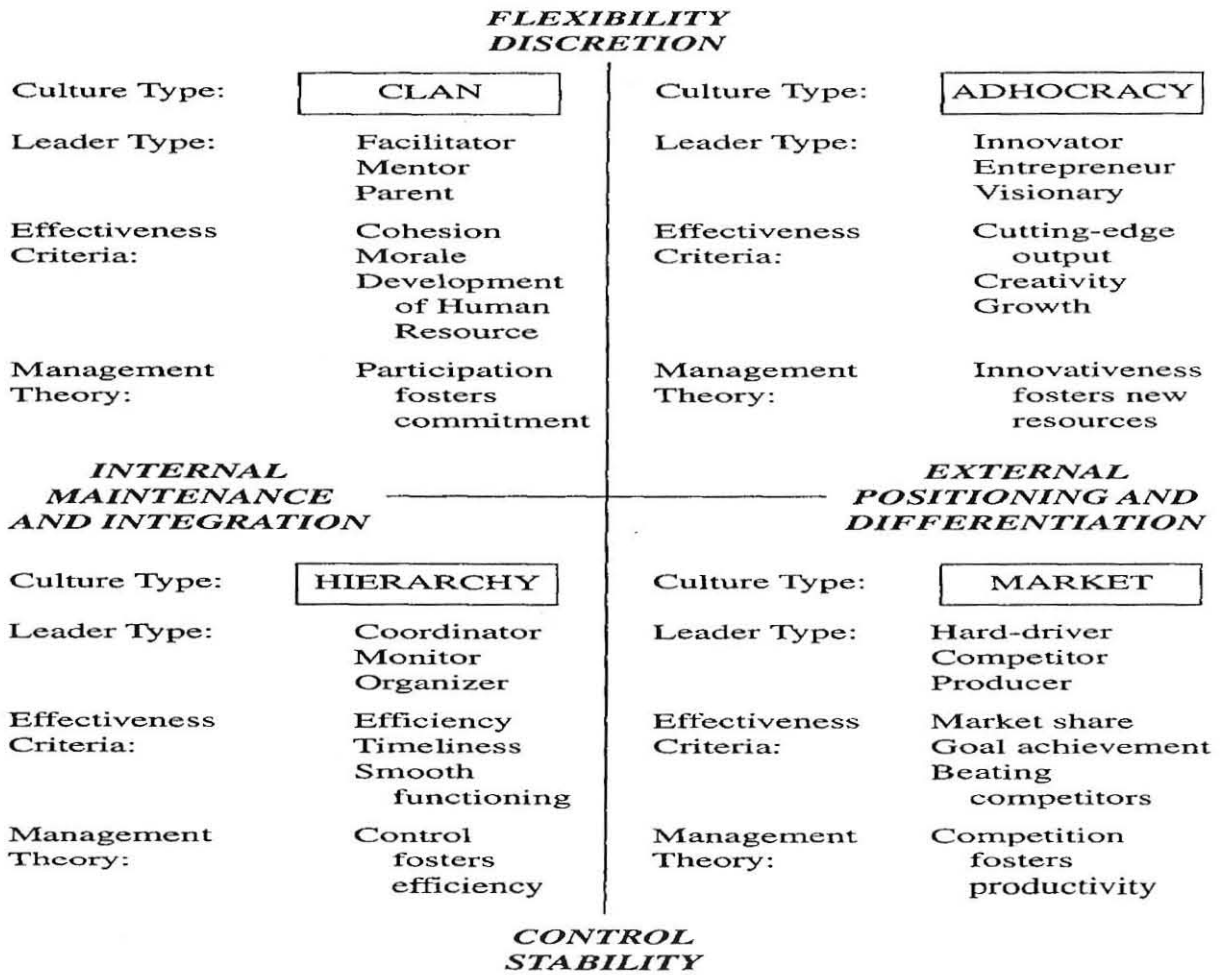


Figure 2.5: The Competing Values of Leadership Effectiveness and Organizational Theory (Cameron and Quinn, 2006)

2.5.3. The Clan Culture

Organizations with a clan culture are family type organizations that emphasize shared values and goals, cohesion, inclusion, individuality and a sense of engagement. They sometimes seem more like extended families than economic entities. Rather than relying on rules and procedures, clan-type organizations focus on teamwork, employees' involvement programs and corporate commitment to employees (Cameron and Quinn, 2006).

2.5.4. The Adhocracy Culture

The root word of adhocracy is ad hoc, implying something temporary, specialized and dynamic. Adhocracies are often characterized as "tents rather than palaces" in that they can reconfigure

themselves rapidly when new circumstances arise. A major goal of an adhocracy is to foster adaptability; flexibility and creativity where uncertainty, ambiguity and information overload are typical. In an adhocracy culture, the emphasis is often on individuality, risk-taking and anticipating the future (Cameron and Quinn, 2006).

Whilst the above types of cultures reflect a structural view of organizations, others have a more action oriented view. Kono (1990) in his survey of 88 Japanese companies identified 5 culture types: “Vitalized, Follow the leader and vitalized, Bureaucratic, Stagnant, Follow the leader and stagnant”. Deal and Kennedy (1982) define organizational culture as *the way things get done around here*. They measured organizations in respect of: *Feedback* - quick feedback means an instant response. This could be in monetary terms, but could also be seen in other ways, such as the impact of a great save in a soccer match, and *Risk* - represents the degree of uncertainty in the organization’s activities. Using these parameters, they were able to suggest four classifications of organizational culture:

(1) *The Tough-Guy Macho Culture*-feedback is quick and the rewards are high. This often applies to fast moving financial activities such as brokerage, but could also apply to a police force, or athletes competing in team sports. This can be a very stressful culture in which to operate. (2) *The Work Hard/Play Hard Culture*-is characterized by few risks being taken, all with rapid feedback. This is typical in large organizations, which strive for high quality customer service. It is often characterized by team meetings, jargon and buzzwords. (3) *The Bet your Company Culture*-where big stakes decisions are taken, but it may be years before the results are known. Typically, these might involve development or exploration projects, which take years to come to fruition, such as oil prospecting or military aviation, and (4) *The Process Culture*-occurs in organizations where there is little or no feedback. People become bogged down with how things are done not with what is to be achieved. This is often associated with bureaucracies. While it is easy to criticize these cultures for being overly cautious or bogged down in red tape, they do produce consistent results which are ideal in, for example, public services.

This section has reviewed different types of organizational cultures. In general ,these differing models of culture types reflect the different underlying principles as to whether culture is something an organization is (action view) or something an organization has (structural view), or whether culture is primarily about people (behavioral view) rather than organizations. But as will

be seen in the next section, others see cultural categorization as being too simplistic, even a management tool for emphasizing a single organizational perspective.

2.6. Creation of Organizational Culture

To understand how organizations with similar environments, working in similar technologies on similar tasks and with founders of similar origins, come to have a significant difference in ways of operating and performing over the years; one needs to be familiar with the cultures and forces playing role in creating and operating the culture of those organizations. In line to this, authorities such as (Schein, 1992; Grindle, 1997; Israel, 1987) assume that the ways in which organizations adapt to the external environment and ensure internal integration create the culture and identity of the organization.

Scholars those who emphasizing that organizational culture is created by factors 'within' and 'without' the organization, belief these factors or issues are interdependent. The environment sets limits on what the organization can do, but within those limits not all solutions will work equally well. Feasible solutions are also limited by the characteristics of the leaders and members of the organization. If an organization is to accomplish tasks that enable to adapt to its external environment, it must be able to develop and maintain a set of internal relationships among its members that enable to solve problems and accomplish tasks (Schein, 2004). This will happen as Michael J., et al. (2008) argues through appropriate organizational communication and members understanding.

Indeed, the culture of any organization is created and impacted by several interrelated variables. Among others, one of the most obvious variables is the 'leader' of the organization. The reason, as Schein (2004) argues, is that all things flow from the head, and thus the values of the leader of any organization are reflected in the culture of the organization. The second variable is the influence of the members of the organization—organizational culture and performance is impacted by those joined to serve its mission. This is in line with Kaufman's (2002) arguments stated as: "An organization is only as good as its people". These first two variables influence from "within" and thus are referred to as internal cultural factors. The culture of an organization can also be influenced by variables from "without" and thus are referred to as external cultural factors. This influence comes from the environment. As Schein (1992) remarks, though the

impact of external variables may not be seen or felt directly, they are critical to the understanding of organizational culture and should not be ignored.

In general term, the major factors assumed playing role in the creation of organizational culture can be classified broadly into internal and external factors. These two categories or perspectives and others related views will briefly be highlighted in this subsections blow.

2.6.1. Internal Factors

Internal forces creating an organizational culture are factors internal to individual organizations—i.e. things that leaders and employees can initiate without resorting to outside help. Overall, these internal forces may include such factors as worker commitment and trust, specificity of tasks, internal competition and corruption (Israel, 1987); employees' belief in the organization's mission; recruitment and induction training; setting employee performance expectations and evaluation; employee recognition and sanctions; organizational and employee autonomy, communication and understanding among members, distribution of power and status (Schein,1985; 2004); the Four Conditions of Work—i.e. low control, low reward, high effort, and high demand (Shain, 2001), and so on. The review provides the description of some factors (see blow).

Organization mission is the general social contribution and purpose of an organization and its related general goals (Rainey and Steinbauer, 1999). Organizations whose missions are established through an interactive process involving external stakeholders and members of the organizations and is broadly shared and internalized by employees tend to develop strong culture and perform better (Grindle, 1997). Whereas *Recruitment and induction training* is the procedures that can be used to communicate to employees in very specific terms the organization's performance expectations. Open and competitive recruitment procedures are known to produce highly professional and capable staff (Grindle, 1997). Similarly, well-thought out induction training communicates the desired norms of the organization to new employees (Schein, 1985, 2004).

Indeed, *Performance expectation and evaluation* are the closely related internal factors playing role in the creation and development of culture in organizations. Performance expectation refers to the degree to which employees are given clear signals about how diligently they should work and about the quality of work expected of them (Grindle, 1997). Performance evaluation refers to

the degree to which employees know and understand, on a continuous basis, how effectively they are performing (Hackman and Oldman, 1975). Organizations that have clear and consistent policies about performance expectations and evaluation procedures would be expected to have strong culture and perform better.

The other internal factors *that* are interconnected and have similar effect on organizational culture and performance are *employee recognition and sanctions*. A transparent process for recognizing employees who go beyond the call of duty in the performance of their tasks can motivate other employees to perform well even in the face of other problems, such as low salary. Similarly, sanctioning employees who perform below expectations and disregard organization's rules and regulations based on transparent, fair and unbiased criteria could discourage such practices (Hackman and Oldman, 1975). Though the *reward system* is not considered as internal factors in this particular study with reason, Schein (2004) argues in line to the above idea that when studying the culture and performance of organizations, one must investigate the reward and punishment system because it reveals fairly quickly some of the important rules and underlying assumptions in that organization. Once one identified what kinds of behavior are considered "heroic" and what kinds of behavior are "sinful," one can to infer the assumptions that lie behind or enforce that culture.

Moreover, one of the variables within the organization that impact culture and performance is autonomy. *Autonomy* is the degree to which employees are offered the freedom, independence and discretion to make decisions pertaining to the substantive and procedural aspects of their jobs, such as scheduling and determining the procedure to be used in executing the task (Hackman and Oldham, 1975). The impact of autonomy on culture and performance can vary at different levels of an organization. For instance, autonomy from civil service rules and regulations may allow management to use creative ways to deal with the day-to-day problems of the organization. Similarly, employees would be less motivated if they had to refer every little decision to management. While complete lack of autonomy can stifle relationships and performance, too much autonomy also can have a negative effect by creating "extreme isolation from communication and exchange with external stakeholders" (Rainey and Steinbauer, 1999, p16). Therefore, the key to strong culture and effective performance is "responsive autonomy."

2.6.2. External Factors

External factors which effect organizational culture and performance are factors that emanate from the broader socioeconomic and political environment and are considered to be beyond the control of individual organizations, including inappropriate macroeconomic policies, governments that take on too much responsibility, political interference, goal or mission specificity; client demand and oversight, and the patronage system, low and declining salary scales or incentive system (Manning, et al. 2000; Bartel and Harrison, 2000; World Bank, 1994), and so on. However, the review will cover or describe only some of them following.

One of the external factors assumed to play role in the organizational culture and performance is the specificity of tasks. *Specificity of tasks* refers to the clarity of instructions and policies that come from the government and its agencies. Public organizations that have objective, measurable written standards of performance have been shown to perform better (Israel, 1987). Whereas *political interference* refers to the political context in which organizations operate, including the extent to which they are politically autonomous and operate free from intrusion from politicians (Wolf, 1993). Political interference has been blamed for poor work culture as well as performance of public organizations in Africa (Sandbrook, 1993).

Another external force assumed to impact the organizational culture and, in turn, performance is client demands and oversight. *Client demands and oversight* is a measure of the effectiveness of civil society in demanding an appropriate services or quality goods and high performance from public organizations. The importance of effective monitoring of public organizations by citizens and the media in influencing ethical norms and performance has been documented (Grindle, 1997; Deininger and Mpuga, 2004). Whereas *Incentive system* includes wages and salaries received by employees for services rendered as well as discretionary payments other than direct wages (i.e. fringe benefits). It is generally believed that better benefits packages promote higher motivation and performance (Mills, et al. 1994; Kiltgaard, 1997).

Moreover, authorities emphasizing on the creation of organizational culture by external factors illustrate their arguments by examining the relationship between government policies (or political interference tried to highlight above) and the organizational culture and performance with particular reference to public organizations in Africa as follows:

African government policies towards organizations differ explicitly or implicitly and this is why it is not uncommon to find relatively efficient and professional attitudes in some public organizations while others consistently exhibit signs of inefficiency and lack of professionalism. For instance, organizations that are considered critical to the survival of government, including those that generate revenue for the government, such as the department of customs and excise, and those whose functions directly affect the economy, such as the Central Bank, are often provided with skilled personnel, resources and leadership to help them succeed (because of this, they also attract qualified personnel). Over time, efficiency and professionalism become the norm in such organizations as the government and the international development community, and the leadership of such organizations work together to promote efficiency. Gradually these organizations develop a culture and corporate identity characterized by professionalism, hard work and efficiency, which promotes effectiveness—what Grindle(1997, p488) calls “organizational mystique”—i.e., a sense among employees that society regards their organization as “competent, respectable and relatively free of the political entanglements characterizing most public-sector organizations” (Sandbrook and Oelbaum, 1999; World Bank, 1994, 2000).

Conversely, organizations that are peripheral to regime survival are generally starved of the resources, skilled personnel and leadership needed to make them effective. As a result, they also seldom attract qualified workers—they simply become the tools of “political patronage that provide jobs for the middle class and supporters of those holding power”. Even when such peripheral organizations are provided with some support, “their centrality to the national development agenda often vacillate in response to the changing focus of the government and support from the international community”. Over time, these organizations also develop an “organizational culture; albeit one that fosters commitment to political elites rather than professional expectations” (Sandbrook and Oelbaum, 1999; World Bank, 1994, 2000).

Though it is the unique function of leadership to be able to perceive the functional and dysfunctional elements of the existing culture and to manage cultural evolution and change in such a way that the organization can survive in a changing environment, Schein warns one should not imply that culture is easy to create or change, or that formal leaders are the only determiners of culture. On the contrary, culture refers to those elements of a group or organization that are most stable and least malleable. At the same time, culture is not always

lending itself for leadership manipulation and passive in its effect. Rather, cultural norms define how a given organizations will define leadership—who will get promoted, who will get the attention of followers. The above arguments imply that the role of the organizational members should not be undermined (Schein, 1985, 2004).

In sum, the culture that eventually develops in a particular organization is thus a complex outcome of external pressures (e.g., such as political interferences, client demand and oversight, etc.) internal potentials (i.e., performance expectations and evaluation, recruitment process, recognition and sanctioning systems, and so on), response to critical events (such as crisis), and, probably to some unknown degree, factors that could not be predicted from a knowledge of either the environment or the members. In the process, some organizations develop cultures that support, encourage and reward high performance; whereas others adopt a culture that perpetuates poor performance.

2.7. The Role and Value of Organizational Culture

Given the above perspectives, it is no surprise to find that any role or value associated with culture reflects those perspectives. Thus objective researchers, such as management consultants, see culture as another resource in management's armory, to be used for instance in pursuit of organization strategy. Subjective researchers see the exact opposite, where culture belongs to the individuals, shouldn't be manipulated by others and should even determine an organization's strategy.

2.7.1. Management's Perspective

Whilst Schein (2004) argues that however culture as a concept is an abstraction, it is useful in explaining organizational situations seemingly irrational or mysterious and to normalize them. Whereas, Deal and Kennedy (1982) state that "a strong culture is a powerful lever in guiding behavior" and companies that cultivate their cultures "have an edges" (p15). This edge is shown in terms of productivity: "The impact of strong cultures on productivity is amazing" and it also makes employees "feel better about what they do, so they are more likely to work harder" (p16). This causal link between culture and performance is strongly asserted by the objective school.

Peters and Austin (1985) echo this theme: "shared company values affect individual performance" (p330) because shared values set a framework whereby employees can flexibly

and speedily respond to new day to day situations, whereas rules and procedures can be a strait-jacket. Thus leaders can spend more time coaching in these values rather than fixing employee errors (pp333-4). Similarly, Hickman and Silva assert: "a rational yet visionary blend of both strategic planning and corporate-culture building approaches for a winning, strategy-driven culture that can take you and your company into the twenty-first-century with the confidence that gets result" (Hickman and Silva, 1985, inside front cover). Performance and culture are clearly linked: "The stronger the behavior norms, the more consistent and co-coordinated behavior becomes. There is evidence ... that organizations with well-understood norms of behavior produced focused, high performing employees" (Johansson et al, 1993, pp196-7).

Shain (2001) also states that organizations those value proper handling of the psychosocial work environment, the organization of work and the management culture of the workplace that can have a dramatic impact on employee stress and health outcomes are addressing those issues existing with regard to employee outcomes, the ability of the organization to meet or exceed performance indicators. Moreover, Malick (2001) indicates that organizations with strong, healthy cultures tend to outperform organizations with weaker cultures.

Nether-the-less, authorities also warn that there is a danger in simply equating 'strong culture' with 'desirable cultures'. (Schein, 1985, p291) A strong culture could exhibit traits that cause a negative impact on performance. For example, a monopoly bureaucratic company thrust into a competitive market place. Here the culture is at odds with the requirements of the environment, and with the strategy, if this has been realigned with the environment.

Kono (1990) has published the results of an analysis of 88 Japanese companies (265 persons, and up to 126 questions, 67 on culture). Results were measured in terms of company performance using yearly growth rate of sales, rate of return on total asset, and equity ratio. The results are displayed in figure 2.6.

Culture >	Vitalized	Follow the leader and vitalized	Bureaucratic	Stagnant	Follow the leader and stagnant
Performance >	28.3	40.5	20.0	12.5	17.5

Figure 2.6: Measurement and Performance of each type of corporate culture (Kono, 1990)

Kono's conclusions are that the poor types of culture relate to size of company ("the larger the company, and the more rules, the more bureaucratic the company becomes"), relates to the average age of the employees ("the older they are, the more the knowledge and experience of employees tends to become outdated, and the company becomes less vibrant"), and to the lack of fit between environment, a new strategy and the old culture.

2.7.2. Individual's Perspective

Schein highlights the value of culture from an individual's view-point in that it "reduces the anxiety that humans experience when they are faced with cognitive uncertainty or overload" (p82). He categorizes anxiety as: (1) Primary existential anxiety [cognitive anxiety effecting one's basic survival that can only be reduced by cultural solutions that serve as avoidance mechanisms]. (2) Secondary role-related anxiety [job related anxieties that can be safely confronted and tested, and thereby managed]. (3) Tertiary anxiety [anxiety caused through addressing the primary and secondary anxieties - "resulting in a paradoxical 'Catch-22' situation]" (Schein, 1985, pp179-183). Text in [] is a paraphrase. These values of culture match closely to the Shain's (2001) views of the value of four conditions of work in reducing employees' stress and increasing satisfaction; and to Jones's (2005) research findings of the value of job control in addressing employees' stress and satisfaction, and, in turn, health [workplace and employee health].

2.8. The Role of Organizational Culture in Major or Radical Change

Deal and Kennedy (1982) are very explicit: "The business of change is cultural transformation" and laments most managers who "worry a lot about change, but neglect cultural issues of changing" (p164). Others like Benjamin and Maybe (1993) see two parallel processes being necessary: analytical/systematic change and soft cultural changes. They do also believe that success is dependent on those initiating change recognizing that "they themselves will need to revise their attitudes and behaviors and perhaps even their values" (p182). Walsham (1993) and others see the high degree of failures due to an over-reliance on management science techniques (MST) which are inadequate on their own. MST, Walsham asserts, emphasizes content and at the expense of context and process (power and cultural). This need for context and process is a theme echoed by Pettigrew (1987, 1993).

Andrews and Stalick (1994) believe that "changing embedded corporate values is perhaps the most powerful form of change" (p7) but recognize this is not easy and can take time. It also "requires organization executives to demonstrate leadership" and "requires fundamental changes in the values held by executives" (p8). They also argue that it is not surprising that changing the culture or underlying beliefs is first, given that they attribute a 66% BPR failure rate to this factor alone

Wille (1989) undertook a survey which reinforced Deal and Kennedy's feelings. This survey showed that in UK only 29% companies (N=39) responded to a significant change making event by instigating cultural change amongst other change initiatives. (Other data were US 39% (N=54), Europe 7% (N=31), average 30% (N=178)). These figures suggest theory is not followed in practice or companies don't explicitly undertake cultural change. Barrett (1992) has similar figures, stating that only 25% of companies were involved in a cultural change program in the previous 5 years to 1988.

2.9. How to Change Organizational Culture

This section is naturally biased to those who believe culture can be changed and that such change is ethical. Given the complexity of the subject, there are numerous 'solutions' to changing culture, some prescriptive (directive) others more philosophical (enabling), and procedural (process). Researchers and practitioners also differ at what level they address within the cultural framework: the outer visible symbols and artifacts, people's behavioral patterns, or on people's underlying beliefs. Authors highlight that to-day; the need for a change in culture is invariably precipitated by some significant, even critical, external environmental change (Kennedy, 1993). For example, a shift in consumer's expectations or behavior. This in itself often provides an incentive for change, provided it is recognized within the organization (Schein, 1993, p292).

2.9.1. Leadership Directed

Culture change through the actions and behavior of leaders is touted by many authorities. Rather than a process they prescribe a set of actions to create an environment. At one extreme, Peters and Austin (1985) equates business and leadership with "show business" and thus the need to create the right atmosphere. So they advocate "shaping values, symbolizing attention" even to the point of saying "it is the opposite ofProfessional management" (p265}. Symbols reflect areas of concern and priorities as in the example of "Perdue's obsession with the hairs on a chicken

wing and quality in general" (p271). Drama can be just for impact and creating stories that get told time and time again, such as the when the founder of McDonalds ordered all manager's chair backs to be sawn off so they would be more inclined to get out and meet the customer (p275). Preaching the vision and coaching are all important to Peters and Austin. The result of these "common sense" actions is, according to them, "superior customer service, constant innovation, and the full use of the abilities of every company employee" (back cover).

Deal and Kennedy (1982) for instance advocate: consensus building based on sharing; developing high-trust between individuals; allow time for people to change; to set the direction but allow the employees to work out the details (i.e., 'empowerment'); and in another, more direct intervention, provide the training to develop the new skills needed. They see middle management's role changing dramatically, even becoming obsolete (pp164-7). Within "atomized organization" leaders "will be both the bearers of culture as well as its promoters" (p189).

Thompson and Luthans (1990, p.330) highlight this need for a more systematic approach: Changing culture in the light of this behavior-consequence concept involves comprehensive planning and execution. Consistent messages must be conveyed through behavioral interactions and through changes in the employees' environment. Through behavioral actions people communicate ideas and values. People learn more from behaviors than from printed statements and company policies. Many writers however do introduce some form of process. Hickman and Silva (1985), advocate developing creative insight, creating a vision of the future, anticipating change, and implementing change. Patience, culture building and matching strategy to culture are seen as important attributes of leaders. This mixing of hard strategy and soft culture is advocated by many others including Mayon-White (1993), and Benjamin and Mabey (1993).

Kono again concludes from his research of 88 Japanese companies a cause and effect approach. Business philosophy (assumptions and values) determines strategy and required behavioral norms. Behavioral patterns achieve implementation strategy which delivers the required performance. However, he does modify the cause-effect according to "the initial conditions of corporate culture". Thus when culture is lively (vitality) then culture and long range planning can together create an innovative strategy and in turn that creates a revitalized strategy. When the culture is stagnant either 1) a partial plan followed by incremental change of both strategy and culture together; or 2) change the culture first followed partial change of strategy followed by

long range planning and then a comprehensive strategy change—this is opposite to the Hammer and Champy's (1993) approach that place cultural change last or that consider cultural change is the result of process redesign. In all this the author defines culture as "the actual decision making patterns, because these patterns are easier to observe and measure"(Kono, 1990, pp9-15).

Despite their differing approaches, most of these writers would confer that changing an organization's culture is a long term process and is difficult. Thompson and Luthans (1990) may be a suitable person to conclude this section, in that they highlights the need to work at all levels of cultural characteristics and the need for a process: "it is clear that while organizational culture is a cognitive construct, it is still built and demonstrated by antecedents, behaviors, and consequences. Hence, these three elements ought to be the main focus in understanding what culture is and how it is to be changed"(p.330). Behaviors are the primary unit... The antecedent conditions consist of environmental factors that would influence the behavior of the individual. In order for management's desires to remain believable... management has to be consistent in its actions. That is why clear communications and demonstrations of how a policy or practice works helps to increase the probability that individuals will have a better understanding of the process.

2.9.2. Leadership Enabled

Schein clearly see the leadership role of management being instrumental: When culture becomes dysfunctional, leadership is needed to help the group unlearn some of its cultural assumptions and learn new assumptions. Leaders encourage groups to under-go group therapy (usually using an outside facilitator knowledgeable and skilled in group dynamics, leadership theory and learning theory). The aim is to surface the unconscious assumptions and values of the group as a prelude to changing them to meet the needs of a new environment. Schein does have other process models besides this therapeutic one: (1)"General Evolutionary Process [this is change from within a group that is natural and inevitable and passes through predictable stages]. (2)Adaptation, Learning, or Specific Evolutionary Process [here the environment causes responses by which the group learns and adapts]. (3)Revolutionary Process [in this power is a key variable]. (4) Managed Process [here there is a focus on what can and cannot be changed]" (Schein, 19985, pp 303-9; 2004, pp291-316) Text in [] is a paraphrase, and proposes that leaders are responsible for which model to adopt and for ensuring the members knows and agrees which model it is using otherwise "they are likely to end up in confusion and disagreement."

Schein's OD approach uses Lewin's (1948) 'Unfreeze-Change-Refreeze' model which has been widely taken up by others, though they differ in what they are trying to unfreeze. Some like Goodstein and Burke (1993) talk about unfreezing "present patterns of behavior" (p165) whereas Schein (1985) appears to be also tackling the unconscious values and assumptions. Schein sees this unfreezing being precipitated by external changes (e.g. significant increase in raw material costs) or by internal changes ("e.g. "a destructive internal power struggle" (p284). Goodstein and Burke talk about management actions at different levels (individual, structural such as "terminating employees" and climate). The aims are the same: "to make organizational members address that level's need for change, heighten their awareness of their own behavior patterns, and make them more open to the change process".

Having unfreezes, other than the "Change Mechanism" that can be used to manage the overall change process in each organizational development stage, Schein advocates that leaders must undertake more direct activities as described in the previous section. These include a set of "Primary mechanisms": (1) "What the leaders pay attention to, measure and control. (2) Leaders' reactions to critical incidents and organizational crisis. (3) Deliberate role modeling, teaching and counseling by leaders. (4) How leaders allocate resources. (5) Criteria for allocation of rewards and status. (6) Criteria for recruitment, selection, promotion, retirement and ex-communication" (Schein, 1985, pp. 224-37; 2004, p.246). To these there are a number of "Secondary Articulation and Reinforcement Mechanisms": (1) Organization's design and structure. (2) Organizational systems and procedures. (3) Rites and rituals of the organization. (4) Design of physical space, facades, and buildings. (5) Stories, legends, myths, and parables about important events and people. (6) Formal statements of organizational philosophy, creeds, and charters (Schein, 1985, pp 237-242, 2004, p246).

The final stage is to refreeze the new behavior patterns, values and/or beliefs. Actions may include formalizing new behavior in rules and procedures, hiring new people with the new values and beliefs, revised training programs, and changing rewards systems to mirror the new expectations (Goodstein and Burke, 1993, p167).

In line to eight distinct stages mentioned by Kotter (1995), Cummings and Worley (2005, p.490-2) give the following six guidelines: (1) *Formulate a clear strategic vision* (stage 1, 2 and 3 of Kotter, 1995, p. 2). This vision provides the intention and direction for the culture change. (2)

Display Top-management commitment (stage 4 of Kotter, 1995, p. 2). Culture change must be managed from the top of the organization, as willingness to change of the senior management is an important indicator. The top of the organization should be very much in favor of the change in order to actually implement the change in the rest of the organization. (3) *Model culture change at the highest level* (stage 5 of Kotter, 1995, p. 2). In order to show that the management team is in favor of the change, the change has to be notable at first at this level. The behavior of the management needs to symbolize the kinds of values and behaviors that should be realized in the rest of the company. It is important that the management shows the strengths of the current culture as well; it must be made clear that the current organizational does not need radical changes, but just a few adjustments. (4) *Modify the organization to support organizational change*. The fourth step is to modify the organization to support organizational change and culture. (5) *Select and socialize newcomers and terminate deviants* (stage 7 and 8 of Kotter, 1995, p. 2). A way to implement a culture is to connect it to organizational membership, people can be selected and terminate in terms of their fit with the new culture. (6) *Develop ethical and legal sensitivity*. Changes in culture can lead to tensions between organizational and individual interests, which can result in ethical and legal problems for practitioners. This is particularly relevant for changes in employee integrity, control, equitable treatment and job security.

Besides these steps, they argue that change of culture in the organizations is very important and inevitable. People often resist changes hence it is the duty of the leaders to convince people that likely gain will outweigh the losses. Besides institutionalization, deification is another process that tends to occur in strongly developed organizational cultures. The organization itself may come to be regarded as precious in itself, as a source of pride, and in some sense unique. Organizational members begin to feel a strong bond with it that transcends material returns given by the organization, and they begin to identify with in. The organization turns into a sort of clan.

To this process many researchers highlight the importance of timing the use of these change mechanisms and of the length of time it takes to change organizations. For example, Pettigrew (1987, p668) who emphasis on context and process but advocating more sensitive, interactive and multi-level use of change mechanisms, carried out research into ICL and highlighted that some changes proposed by Beaching in 1967 were not implement until a decade later in 1970. Pettigrew attributes this to the fact that significant change "involves a process of ideological and political change" which "represents a fundamental challenge to the dominating ideas and power

groups of the organization", which as Pettigrew suggests can span a decade. Similarly, Burman and Evans (2008) argue that in changing an aspect of the culture of an organization one has to keep in mind that this is a long term project. Corporate culture is something that is very hard to change and employees need time to get used to the new way of organizing. For companies with a very strong and specific culture it will be even harder to change.

It seems important to conclude this section with Andrews and Stalick's (1994) arguments and evidences: they warn leaders using "negative reinforcement" but to encourage an environment that is reflective, open, problem solving, communicative, involving, facilitating, full of ideas, learning ..." (p17). Moreover, Andrews and Stalick argue that changing assumptions and beliefs first, given that they attributes a 66% BPR failure rate to this factor alone. They also argue that allowing people to participate in "The Visioning and Goal Setting Process" is seen as the first step to changing assumptions and beliefs (p46). But they also see the need to send strong messages by "eliminating or changing of symbols" (e.g. "eliminating reserved parking spaces") (p114), by BPR sponsors "modeling the communications and transformation behavior wanted for the rest of the organization" (p79), and by changing the organization's beliefs (e.g. "through fair and equitable support and assistance during down-sizing" to demonstrate "capacity to value people as unique individuals regardless of their function or performance" (p:115) .

CHAPTER THREE

RESEACH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter deals with the research method, sample population and sampling techniques, data sources, data gathering instruments and data analysis techniques.

3.1. Method

The study is designed to assess the differences in characteristics of good and poor performing Oromia bureaus, with particular emphasis on the dominant current and preferred organizational culture types, major internal and external factors influencing organizational culture and performance, and the techniques used to change culture while implementing the BPR project. Since the ultimate goal of the study is to learn about a large population (i.e., the organizational culture and performance of Oromia bureaus as a whole) by surveying the sample population, descriptive survey method was preferred assuming that it is an appropriate method to mirror out the status of those characteristics in the larger population using both quantitative and qualitative data.

Classifying bureaus into good and poor performers is assumed to have a greater importance in identifying the differences of those characteristics. However, the process was challenging for the following reasons: first, though such a classification of bureaus by the regional government which could be considered legitimate readily available, it was assumed unreasonable to totally rely on it where there is no any evidence about the performance indicators or measures used. Second, finding a reliable indicators and objective measures for such a performance based classification scheme, particularly for public organizations is a difficult matter for several reasons. Unlike private organizations where profits are often used as a measure of performance, there is no single performance indicator that can compare the different types of organizations that make up the public sector (Rainey and Steinbauer, 1999). Moreover, as Manning, Mukherjee, and Gokcekus (2000, p.9) argue, public sector organizations often provide goods of both “low contestability and measurability,” and therefore it is difficult to find good performance measures.

To overcome these challenges, the reputation method (asking knowledgeable persons who are well-informed about the functioning of public organizations) which has been used extensively in sociological studies of formal and informal power structures within communities (Henslin, 1999)

was used in combination with the regional government classification for measuring performance of the organizations and selecting them to study. Even then, the method used in this study to classify the organizations into good and poor performers is admittedly subjective and therefore assesses only the relative performance of organizations. The following four-step classification method was employed:

Step1. Ranking by the Regional Government: A list of 20 Bureaus (i.e., 10 high ranked and 10 low ranked) was identified on the basis of 2009 fiscal year performance evaluation results obtained from Oromia Regional Government.

Step2. Identifying the 'knowledgeable': The researcher compiled totally a list of 20 individuals who are assumed to be 'knowledgeable.' That is, persons who are well-informed about the functioning of public organizations and the performance of Oromia bureaus. The knowledgeable included 10 officials in government agencies and 10 employees working in different bureaus.¹

Step3. Ranking by the 'knowledgeable': Using survey questionnaire, the knowledgeable individuals were asked to rank the 20 bureaus on a scale of 1 to 5 (1 for poor performer; 5 for best performer) based on their capacity to perform the major tasks for achieving their main functions. The results from the survey of knowledgeable individuals were tabulated and the mean score for each organization was determined.

Step4. Final ranking of organizations: The final performance indicators of the organizations were determined by combining or matching the ranking by the regional government in Step 1 (weighted 0.5) with the ranking by the knowledgeable individuals in Step 3 (weighted 0.5). The organizations were ranked according to their mean score, and the 5 top-ranked bureaus were labeled as good performers and the 5 bottom-ranked bureaus were labeled as poor performers, and the 10 bureaus (listed in Table 3.1 below) were selected for the next phase of the study.

¹ The knowledgeable were asked the following question: "Please rank the following bureaus in Oromia on a scale of 1 to 5 (1 for poor performer; 5 for best performer). Please draw on your knowledge of their activities as well as your official contacts with them to evaluate their capacity to perform major tasks for achieving their main functions. Please select N/A if you do not feel competent in ranking a particular bureau."

or indicators those assumed be a significant aspect of the subject under investigation were set as measures of each variable or factor.

Second, the literature identified that the cultural levels (the soft/invisible or hard/visible part) to be treated, the behavioral patterns and norms leaders demonstrate, and the actions to be taken or techniques to be applied (coercive or passive; primary or secondary) by management to enforce the process are major factors that matters to create or develop or change the organizational culture. Following this, an instrument that was assumed to enable examine the elements culture and techniques leaders of the two groups think more important and used to create or develop or change organizational culture and its effectiveness (i.e., finding answer to the 3rd basic question), was adopted using Rousseau's culture layers and Schein's cultural embedding and changing model, and was agreed that this instrument include 4 areas of contents: Culture levels/elements changed and techniques used, reasons why culture was changed, effectiveness of the change, and opinion of changing the deeply held beliefs and assumptions.

Because it was considered that the concept or terminology for the *cultural levels or layers and elements* as well as the *primary or secondary and coercive or passive techniques* was less familiar to the respondents, these were avoided and 3 examples given for each of the 5 culture levels/layers instead. The examples were adopted from the literature. In the checklist question that aims to test the hypothesis by ascertaining the driving forces behind the cultural change techniques that were chosen, however, the 3 driving forces stated in the hypothesis are listed alongside 2 more neutral ones, and the free choice provided by 'Other' as 'good' alternatives. To ascertain the effectiveness of techniques used, it was considered that simply asking respondents to rate the effectiveness of the changes was open to inconsistencies in the responses and a possible tendency to rate high. As most culture writers look to changes in behavioral patterns as the outcome of changes in culture elements, then respondents were asked to select from a checklist of different behavior changes expected from BPR.

In general, in constructing or deciding on the questions to include in the above instrument, models derived from the literature were used. The issues and basic questions also form the drivers for the content of the questionnaire. Open-ended questions have been avoided because of the difficulties in classification, and more importantly, it is assumed that the terminologies of culture could be less familiar to some respondents. For the same reasons closed-ended questions

have also been avoided. As a result, structured questions have been provided. Moreover, except the check-list used for describing the 'reasons why culture was changed', all factors in the two sets of instruments made be measured using five point scales. The items of measures for each factor also made be a significant aspect of the purpose of the investigation, short and precise, phrased in the least ambiguous way so that they understand by and have the same meaning to all respondents.

Third, as noted earlier, the study set the research premises stated as: The good and poor performers have different organizational cultures that are the product of the interaction between internal and external factors that impinge on the organization. The literature identified that the dimensions that help to identify the factors set by the research premises or the picture of how organizations operate and the values that characterizes are categorized into six: organizational dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, organizational glue, strategic emphasis, and criteria of success, and these six dimensions all together help to identify the overall organizational culture type.

Following this, the study used the Cameron and Quinn's (2006) standardized instrument known as "Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument II" as it is, in identifying the now and preferred types of culture existing in the two groups of bureaus (i.e., finding answer to the 1st basic question). This instrument was preferred, because it is the framework that was empirically derived, has been found to have both face and empirical validity and helps integrate many of the cultural dimensions proposed by various authors. Moreover, the 'Competing Values Framework' this instrument basis on, has been studied and tested in organizations for decades and is used by firms as a map, an organizing mechanism, a sense-making device, a source of new ideas and a learning system and can tell if an organization's predominant culture falls into one or two of four types (Cameron and Ethington, 1988; Quinn, 1988; Cameron and Quinn, 2006).

Each of the six dimensions in the instrument has four alternatives (i.e., alternative A, B, C, and D) be rated out of 100 and the response columns labeled '*Now*' and '*Preferred*'. The instrument also provides the descriptions for each alternative of the six dimensions. This instrument requires the respondents rate their bureaus out of 100 on four alternatives of the six dimensions as it is *currently* and as they think it *should be in five years* in order to be highly successful, based on the descriptions provided.

3.5. Procedures of Data Collection

Among the three parts of the questionnaire, one is the standardized one (i.e., Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument) and used as it is. The remaining two parts of the questionnaire, and the interview guide questions were constructed based on the models drawn from the literature, available guidelines, and few experts' suggestions and opinions of colleagues to make it up to the standards. Even then, it was assumed essential to pilot test all the instruments to ensure their understandability and/or to identify any confusions and inconveniences may exist on the part of the respondents. The mechanisms designed to this end were: for example, the researcher's careful observation of the situations as well as noting any comments and the items on which more questions rose for clarity during the pilot test sessions, and careful examination of the responses to the instrument upon return (i.e., comparing the responses of one with others over each part and item of the instrument). The reasons behind for all these effort is, to make the instruments particularly those were constructed for this study up to the standard or measure what is supposed to measure.

Accordingly, the questionnaires were administered to 20 employees and 10 management members selected from 5 bureaus not included in the sample of the study, and guided interview was conducted with 3 process owners. As a result, the instruction of the first parts of the questionnaire made more self-explanatory and clear, some minor errors were corrected, and more importantly, it has shown that the terminology for the cultural layers and elements was less familiar to the respondent and consequently these were avoided and examples given instead for the instrument designed to identify the cultural elements changed and techniques used. In general, in the pilot test the original questions of the constructed questionnaires and interview were modified by including the necessary elements and eliminating the unnecessary ones. Though there was no enough time to retest the modified instruments, in the ultimate data collection process a possible attempt was made to establish the necessary rapport, distribute the questionnaire and conduct interview at the convenient time for respondents in order to get reliable data and maximize the rate of return of the questionnaire.

Finally, the questionnaires coded with number 1 and number 2 were distributed for 125 respondents from good and 125 from poor performing bureaus respectively, and totally, for 250 respondents from the two groups of bureaus. The reason behind for this coding is, first and for

most to avoid such a categories (good and poor) be known by the respondents so as not to create any positive or negative impressions, and to easily identify responses and respondents of each category who may fail to write the name of their organization for comparison in the study. Meanwhile, the guided interview was conducted with one process owner from each bureau and totally, with 10 process owners.

Among 250 questionnaires, 230 (92 percent) were returned. Among the returned, in turn, the responses of 7 (2.8 percent) questionnaire were either completely unusable or incomplete, and excluded from the data analyses. Of the remainder, the responses of 113 questionnaire from the good performers and 110 from the poor performers and in sum, responses of 223 (89.2 percent) were complete and usable, thus included in the analysis. The response rate, about 89.2 percent, combined with the high usability of the responses leads one to believe that the instruments as well as the findings have some degree of validity.

3.6. Methods of Data Analysis

The study used different statistical tools in analyzing and interpreting the data collected through different means. The choice of the tools was dependent on the nature of the data collected. In general, an integration of qualitative and quantitative data analysis methods was employed. Accordingly, the data collected through interview was presented and analyzed qualitatively. That is, the data written down during the interview and immediately thereafter was reviewed several times and looked for emerging themes and recurrent events, categorized, and the themes and categories were reevaluated, and finally, analyzed in parallel with statistical data. Whereas, the raw data obtained from the field through questionnaire were coded, tallied, counted and organized by the computer software. Then the data stored, the appropriate descriptive and inferential statistics was selected and analyzed using the computer software known as Statistical Procedures for Social Science (SPSS) and specifically, "SPSS 15.0 for Windows Evaluation Version". This was made because it makes computation precise and dependable, and it saves time. As a result, the study used such descriptive statistical measures as percentages, means, and standard deviations to observe the proportion, distribution, and variability of the data respectively. Moreover, to compare the means and identify the significance of differences in the means or characteristics of good-and poor performers' inferential statistics such as two-tailed t-test and p-values were applied. The t-test for this study is significant at 95 percent confidence

levels ($\alpha=0.05$) and p-values <0.05 (i.e., 95 percent of the result is due treatments of variables by the study and less than 5 percent of the result is probably due to sampling errors). Based on the result of these statistical tools, the data was analyzed, interpreted to gather with the qualitative data obtained through interview, and finally, conclusion was drawn from the major findings, and viable recommendations were suggested for the problems identified.

3.7. Variables of the Study

The dependent variables of the study were the culture, cultural change and performance differences of good and poor performing Oromia bureaus. The independent variables were major factors contributing to those differences the study focused on and broadly classified into dimensions of organizational culture (i.e., organizational dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, organizational glue, strategic emphasis, and criteria of success), internal and external factors influencing culture and performance (internal factors refer to factors that are under the control of individual organizations, such as hiring procedures and performance evaluation. External factors refer to influences beyond the control of each individual organization, such as political interference and client demand and oversight), and elements of culture (Rousseau's 5 cultural layers) and cultural change techniques (Schein's primary and secondary mechanisms) emphasized on in changing organizational culture. Indeed, it is important to note that the organizational culture is both the dependent and independent variable in this study. Moreover, all the specific factors or indicators these broadly classified independent variables encompassing and their detail descriptions are provided in the proceeding chapter for comparisons and justifications of the data interpretations.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter mainly deals with the data presentation, analysis and interpretation. It also outlines descriptions of the variables, justifications and assumptions in interpreting the data.

As noted earlier, interview and questionnaire were used to collect data in this study. One part of the questionnaire was the standardized instrument and adopted as it is in assessing the six dimensions of organizational culture. In constructing or deciding on the questions to include in the remaining instruments, models derived from the literature were used. The issues and basic questions also form the drivers for the content of the instruments. In constructing the questionnaires open-ended questions have been avoided because of the difficulties in classification, and more importantly, it is assumed that the terminologies of culture could be less familiar to some respondents. For the same reasons closed-ended questions have also been avoided. As a result, structured questions have been provided.

All the instruments were pilot tested and finally, interview was conducted with 10 process owners and the questionnaires were administered to 125 respondents from the well-performers and to 125 respondents from the poor-performers and totally, to 250 respondents from the two groups of bureaus. Among these questionnaire, 230 (92 percent) were returned. Among the returned, in turn, the responses of 7 (2.8 percent) questionnaire were either completely unusable or incomplete, and excluded from the data analyses. Of the remainder, the responses of 113 questionnaire from the good performers and 110 from the poor performers and in sum, responses of 223 (89.2 percent) were complete and usable, thus included in the analysis.

4.1. Characteristics of Respondents

The composition of organizational members in one way or another may affect the culture and performance of that organization. With this in mind, characteristics of the respondents were examined in terms of the demographic, educational, and employment characteristics of respondents as follow:

Table 2: Demographic, Educational, and Employment Characteristics of Respondents

<i>Characteristic</i>	<i>Categories</i>	<i>Good performers</i>	<i>Poor performers</i>	<i>Total</i>
No. of Respondents		113	110	223
Gender (%)	Male	57.0	62.0	58.4
	Female	43.0	38.0	41.6
Age (%)	Under 29	33.3	32.6	33.0
	29 - 39	35.8	28.1	32.5
	40 - 49	17.1	17.8	17.5
	Over 50	13.8	21.5	17.0
Marital status (%)	Married	72.4	75.3	73.6
	Not Married*	27.6	24.7	26.4
Highest Educational Attainment (%)	Senior Secondary School	14.0	14.0	14.0
	Technical/Polytechnic	20.9	16.1	18.9
	University/Post-University	45.0	49.5	46.8
	Other/not stated	20.2	20.4	20.3
No. of years in current position (%)	Less than 3 yrs	34.2	48.3	40.2
	3 - 10 yrs	40.0	32.6	36.8
	Over 10 yrs	25.8	19.1	23.0

* Includes singles, divorcees, and those who have separated

4.1.1. Demographic characteristics of respondents

Comparing male and female in each groups of bureaus, Table 2 shows that the proportion of male and female in good performers was 57 and 43 percent (differences of 14 percent) and in poor performers was 62 and 38 percent (differences of 24 percent) respectively. When the two groups of organizations compared to one-another, the data shows that the proportion of male and female of good and poor performers was 57 and 62 percent and 43 and 38 percent (differences of 5 percent for both male and female) respectively. The total male and female proportion for the two groups were 58.4 and 41.6 percent (differences of 16.8 percent) respectively. The data show there are male dominances in both groups of organizations, but more importantly in poor performers. With regards to age composition, respondents from good and poor performers with age 29-39 and over 50 were 35.8 and 28.1percent and 13.8 and 21.5 percent (differences of 7.7 percent in each age group) respectively. If Kono's (1990) survey conclusions that states the poor types of culture relates to the average age of the employees ("the older they are, the more the knowledge and experience of employees tends to become outdated, and the company becomes less vibrant") is true, such a pronounced age difference between the two groups of respondents could have an implication on the culture and performance of poor performer bureaus.

4.1.2. Educational characteristics of respondents

With regards to educational background of respondents, the data shows that there were no such differences between the two groups, except in technical and university/post-university education. That is, 20.9 and 16.1 percent and 45.0 and 49.5 percent of respondents from good and poor performers have technical and university/ post university education (differences of 4.8 and 4.5 percent) respectively. The literature identified that an organization is only as good as its people. Thus, such an extent differences between the two groups of organizations on these important levels of educational attainment, could have an implication on the work culture and/or performance of poor performers.

4.1.3. Employment characteristics of respondents

As could be seen from Table 2, 34.2 and 48.3 percent, 40.0 and 32.6 percent, and 25.8 and 19.1 percent of respondents from good and poor performers have work experiences of less than 3years, 3-10 years, and over 10 years respectively. The other things being constant, it is assumed that reasonable work experience is not only important for being familiar with the task process and/or organizational performance, but also for assimilation to the organizational culture. Less experience of employee particularly become a problem when organizations do not use open and competitive recruitment procedures and comprehensive induction training to communicate the desired norms or expectations of the organization to new employees (Grindle, 1997). The data also showed that there were differences between the two groups of organizations in employees' experiences. Such a large percent of employee with less than 3 years work experience (i.e., 34.2 and 48.3 percent of respondents from good and poor performers respectively) and particularly, more pronounced differences between the two groups of bureaus (14.1 percent) is a big concern.

4.2. Dimensions of Organizational Culture

The second part of the questionnaire focused on the six dimensions of organizational culture those are assumed to enable to test the research premises—i.e., the good and poor performers have different organizational culture that are the product of the interaction between internal and external factors that impinge on the organization (Schein, 1992; 1999). According to the literature, the dimensions that help to identify the picture of how organizations operate and the values that characterizes were categorized into six: organizational dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, organizational glue, strategic emphasis,

and criteria of success. These six dimensions all together help to identify the overall organizational culture type.

Thus, the study used the Cameron and Quinn's (2006) standardized instrument known as "Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument II" that incorporates those six dimensions in identifying the now and preferred culture of the two groups of bureaus.

Table 3: Dominant Characters of Good-and Poor Performing Bureaus.

<i>Indicators</i>	<i>Mean Scores for Good-Performers</i>		<i>Mean Scores for Poor-Performers</i>	
	<i>Now</i>	<i>Preferred</i>	<i>Now</i>	<i>Preferred</i>
A. The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves	32.3	33.0	22.0	35.0
B. The organization is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out (to do) and take risks.	21.0	25.2	20.3	27.0
C. The organization is very results-oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement -oriented.	24.4	26.3	23.2	21.0
D. The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.	22.3	16.5	34.5	17.0
Total	100	100	100	100

As shown in Table 3, the indicator of current organizational dominant characters awarded the highest scores by respondents from good and poor performers were alternative A (average score=32.3) and alternative D (average score=34.5) respectively. Whereas, the organizational dominant characters most preferred by respondents from good and poor performers was alternative A with an average scores of 33 and 35 respectively. The preferred dominant character awarded least score by both groups however, is alternative D.

As assessed in the OCAI, organizations with the dominant characters of A type have a clan culture type. The basic assumptions in a clan culture are that the environment can be best managed through teamwork and employee development, customers are best thought of as partners, and the organization is in the business of developing a humane work environment. On the other hand, organizations with the dominant characters of D type have a hierarchy culture type. The hierarchy culture is characterized by a formalized and structured place to work. Procedures govern what people do (Cameron and Quinn, 2006). The data also shows that good and poor performers differ in their current organizational dominant characters: the good performers appear to have a clan type dominant characters which values the people (internal and

external customers) more than poor performers. The poor performers on the other hand, probably have a hierarchy culture type of dominant characters that values the procedures, rules and regulations more than good performers. With regards to the preferred dominant characters however, members of the two groups of bureaus most likely prefer their organizations would have a clan culture type of dominant characters.

Table 4: Organizational Leadership of Good-and Poor Performing Bureaus

<i>Indicators</i>	<i>Mean Scores for Good-Performers</i>		<i>Mean Scores for Poor-Performers</i>	
	<i>Now</i>	<i>Preferred</i>	<i>Now</i>	<i>Preferred</i>
A. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating or nurturing.	30.3	31.0	20.8	31.0
B. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovation or risk-taking.	20.5	25.3	20.7	28.0
C. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify an aggressive (determined to succeed), results-oriented focus.	23.2	26.3	24.9	25.0
D. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing or smooth-running efficiency.	26.0	17.4	33.6	16.0
Total	100	100	100	100

With regard to the organizational leadership, the data in Table 4 reveals that respondents from good performers rated the highest scores (average score=30.3) for alternative A type of leadership. Whereas, respondents from poor performers rated the highest scores (average score=33.6) for alternative D type of leadership. Indeed, the alternative A type of organizational leadership was the most equally preferred (average score=31.0) by both good and poor performers, and the alternative D type was the least preferred by both groups of bureaus.

Organizations where-in the A type (the clan culture) is dominant, leaders are thought of as mentors and, perhaps, even as parent figures, team-builders, facilitators, nurturers, and supporters. Whereas, the leadership style matching with an organizations dominated by the D type or the hierarchy culture is that value maintaining a smooth-running organization. Leaders are good at organizing, controlling, monitoring, administering, coordinating, and maintaining efficiency (Cameron and Quinn, 2006). The data in this study shows that good and poor performing bureaus have a difference in the current organizational leadership: the current leadership style of good performing bureaus is probably a clan culture type and leaders are mentors, parent-figures, team-builders, facilitators, nurturers, and supporters more than poor

performers. Whereas, the current leadership style of the poor performing bureaus is a hierarchy culture type and leaders are organizers, controllers, monitors, administrators, coordinators, and efficiency maintainers. With regards to the preferred organizational leadership however, members of the two groups of bureaus most likely prefer their organizations would have a clan culture type of leadership style.

Table 5: Management of Employees of Good-and Poor Performing Bureaus

<i>Indicators</i>	<i>Mean Scores for Good-Performers</i>		<i>Mean Scores for Poor-Performers</i>	
	<i>Now</i>	<i>Preferred</i>	<i>Now</i>	<i>Preferred</i>
A. The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.	26.0	27.9	23.0	29.0
B. The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom and uniqueness.	24.0	25.4	23.6	27.0
C. The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands and achievement.	26.0	26.2	26.7	25.2
D. The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability and stability in relationships.	24.0	20.5	26.7	18.8
Total	100	100	100	100

As shown in Table 5, the current management of employees awarded the highest scores by respondents from good performing bureaus was alternatives A and C type simultaneously—i.e., the average scores for both alternative A and C was 26. While the current management of employees' respondents from poor performing bureaus equally awarded the highest scores are the C and D type and the average scores for these alternatives was 26.7. The data also reveals that the most preferred management of employee by respondents from good and poor performers was an alternative A type and the average scores were 27.9 and 29.0 respectively.

The management of employees with the A (clan culture) type is that emphasis on building the environment of teamwork, employee development, and a humane work environments. The major task of management is to empower employees and facilitate their participation. The management assumption in the clan culture is that participation fosters commitment. Whilst the management theory in the C (market culture) type of organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands and achievement. The basic assumption in the market culture is that competition fosters productivity and/or customer satisfaction. Whereas, the management of

employees in the D (hierarchy culture) type is to control and monitor in order to function according to the set procedures, rules, regulations, and policies. Knowledge of these steps, rules, and policies is one of the requirements for recognition. The basic assumption in the hierarchy culture is control fosters efficiency (Cameron and Quinn, 2006). The data also shows that good and poor performing bureaus appear to have both the commonness (i.e., both groups have a market culture type) and difference (i.e., good performers have a clan and market cultures, while poor performers have a market and hierarchy cultures) in the current management of employee: the current dominant management of employee likely existing in good performers is that emphasis on building the environment of teamwork, employee development, and a humane work environment as well as that is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands and achievement, and in that of poor performers was that emphasis on hard-driving competitiveness, high demands and achievement as well as control and monitoring or procedures, rules and regulations. Organizational members of the two groups of bureaus however, appear to prefer their organizations would have a clan culture type of human resource management.

Table 6: Organizational Glue of Good-and Poor Performing Bureaus

<i>Indicators</i>	<i>Mean Scores for Good-Performers</i>		<i>Mean Scores for Poor-Performers</i>	
	<i>Now</i>	<i>Preferred</i>	<i>Now</i>	<i>Preferred</i>
A. The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust, commitment to this organization runs high.	29.7	28.4	22.3	30.0
B. The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge (the newest, most advanced stage in development).	23.3	26.0	21.8	26.4
C. The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment	27.0	27.5	25.9	25.9
D. The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running operation is important	20.0	18.1	30.0	17.7
Total	100	100	100	100

Regarding the current dominant organizational glue that holds the organizations together, the data in Table 6 shows that respondents from good performers rated the highest score (average score=29.7) for alternative A type, while those from poor performers rated the highest score (average score=30.0) for alternative D type of organizational glue. The data also shows that respondents from good and poor performers awarded the highest average scores of 28.4 and 30.0 for alternative A type of preferred organizational glue respectively.

Cohesion, participation, individuality, and a sense of we-ness permeate a clan (A) type organizations. They seem more like extended family than economic entities. The typical characteristics of clan-type organizations are teamwork, employee involvement programs, and organization commitment to employees. The organization is held together by loyalty and tradition. Commitment is high. Whereas, the long-term concerns of a hierarchy (D) type organizations are stability, predictability, and efficiency. Formal rules and policies hold the organization together (Cameron and Quinn, 2006). The data also shows that the good and poor performing bureaus appear to have difference in the dominant organizational glue holding their organization together currently: the likely current dominant organizational glue that holds organization together in good and poor performers is loyalty and tradition, and formal rules and policies respectively. The preferred dominant organizational glue of the two groups appears to be loyalty and tradition.

Table 7: Strategic Emphasis of Good-and Poor Performing Bureaus

<i>Indicators</i>	<i>Mean Scores for Good-Performers</i>		<i>Mean Scores for Poor-Performers</i>	
	<i>Now</i>	<i>Preferred</i>	<i>Now</i>	<i>Preferred</i>
A. The organization emphasizes human development, high trust, openness and participation persist.	31.0	33.0	20.5	34.0
B. The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.	18.0	20.8	19.5	22.0
C. The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace (providing superior quality services) are dominant.	31.0	29.9	30.0	30.0
D. The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.	20.0	16.3	30.0	14.0
Total	100	100	100	100

With respect to the current organizational strategic emphasis, Table 7 shows that the alternatives awarded the highest scores by respondents from good and poor performers were A and C with average scores of 31.0 each and C and D with average scores of 30.0 each respectively. The data also shows that the preferred strategic emphasis awarded the highest scores by respondents from good and poor performers was the A type with average scores of 33.0 and 34.0 respectively.

The clan culture (A type) organizations emphasizes human development, high trust, openness and participation persist as well as the long-term benefit of individual development with high

cohesion and morale being important. With the basic assumptions that the external environment is not benign but hostile, consumers are choosy and interested in value, and organization is in the business of increasing competitive position, the long-term concern or strategic emphasis of the market culture (C type) organizations is on competitive actions and achieving stretch goals and targets. Whereas, the strategic emphasis of a hierarchy culture (D type) organizations characterized by a formalized and structured place to work is on stability, predictability and efficiency (Cameron and Quinn, 2006). The analysis also shows that good and poor performers have both commonness and difference in their current strategic emphasizes: both groups appears to have in common a market culture type that emphasis on competitive actions and achieving stretch goals and targets, but they likely differ in that the good performers have a clan culture type that emphasis on human development with high cohesion and morale, high trust, openness and participation, while the poor performers have a hierarchy culture type that emphasis on stability, predictability and efficiency. With regards to the preferred strategic emphasis, however, the two groups probably have no difference (i.e., both groups prefer the strategic emphasis of their organizations in the future be on a clan culture type).

Table 8: Criteria of Success of Good-and Poor Performing Bureaus

<i>Indicators</i>	<i>Mean Scores for Good-Performers</i>		<i>Mean Scores for Poor-Performers</i>	
	<i>Now</i>	<i>Preferred</i>	<i>Now</i>	<i>Preferred</i>
A. The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people	25.12	30.0	24.94	33.3
B. The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products/services. It is a product/service leader and innovator	24.94	24.6	24.94	21.0
C. The organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace/providing superior quality service and outpacing the competition/satisfying customer demand. Competitive market/service leadership is a key.	25.01	28.9	25.02	31.1
D. The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production/service are critical.	24.93	16.5	25.1	14.6
Total	100	100	100	100

With regards to the current organizational criteria of success, Table 8 reveals that the alternatives or indicators rated the highest and lowest scores by respondents from good performers were A and D with average scores of 25.12 and 24.93 respectively (difference of 0.19), and by those

from poor performers were D and C with average scores of 25.1 and 25.02 respectively (difference of 0.08). Whereas, the preferred criteria of success rated the highest by respondents from good and poor performers was alternative A with the average scores of 30.0 and 33.3 respectively.

Where organizations develop one or more dominant cultural types identified by the framework developed by Cameron and Quinn, the criteria of effectiveness most highly valued in the four culture types are: cohesion, high levels of employee morale and satisfaction, human resources development, and teamwork in a clan culture; clear lines of decision-making authority, standardized rules and procedures, and control and accountability mechanisms are valued as the keys to success in a hierarchy culture; producing unique and original products and services in adhocracy culture; and in a market culture, success is defined in terms of market share and penetration. Meanwhile, their own research has discovered that most organizations (80%) develop one or more dominant cultural style identified by the framework and few organizations are not. According to them, those that do not have a dominant culture type either tend to be unclear about their culture, or they emphasize nearly equally the four culture types (Cameron and Quinn, 2006). The data also shows that the two groups have no difference in this dimension: both good and poor performers probably have no clear criteria of success currently or they emphasize nearly equally the criteria of successes valued by all culture types, and both prefer a clan culture type of dominant preferred criteria of success that emphasis on cohesion, high levels of employee morale and satisfaction, human resources development, and teamwork.

Table 9: The Overall Core Culture Type of Good and Poor Performers

<i>Alternatives</i>	<i>Quadrant</i>	<i>Grand average scores for Good-performers</i>		<i>Grand average scores for Poor-performers</i>	
		<i>Now</i>	<i>Preferred</i>	<i>Now</i>	<i>Preferred</i>
A	Clan (Upper Left)	29.1	30.4	22.3	32.1
B	Adhocracy (Upper Right)	21.9	24.6	21.8	25.2
C	Market (Lower Right)	26.1	27.5	25.9	26.4
D	Hierarchy (Lower Left)	23.0	17.5	29.9	16.4

Based on the above grand means of the overall core culture type, the cultural profiles of the two types of organizations are also plotted in the following figures:

Figure 7: Cultural profile of the Good Performers

Table 1: Bureaus Included in the Study

Good Performers	Poor Performers
1. Oromia Justice Bureau	1. Oromia Water Resource Bureau
2. Oromia Revenue Bureau	2. Oromia Town Development Bureau
3. Oromia Finance and Economy Bureau	3. Oromia Women and Children Affair Bureau
4. Oromia Police Commission	4. Oromia Health Bureau
5. Oromia Prison Administration Commission	5. Oromia Cooperative Bureau

3.2. Sample Population and Sampling Techniques

Institutions or bureaus were selected in the methods and steps mentioned above. Regarding their numbers and proportions however, the statistical information obtained from Oromia Regional State Capacity Building Bureau reveals that a total of 37 bureaus are functioning in 2009 fiscal year. Of these bureaus, 10 were included in the study.

Concerning the respondents sampling, 125 from the good and 125 from the poor performing bureaus (i.e., 18 employees and 7 management members and totally 25 organizational members from each bureaus) and the total number of 250 employees and management members were participated in filling the questionnaire assuming that this size is fairly representative and manageable. In selecting 18 employees from each sample bureaus simple random sampling technique and specifically, systematic random sampling technique was employed to provide an equal chance of being selected for all members. Whereas, in selecting managements purposive sampling was employed with the assumption that management members are at good position to access to all information or every things taking place in their respective bureaus and they are the important sources of required information. In selecting the management members however, availability sampling technique was applied assuming that it is important to include all management members to get valuable information and easy to manage.

In addition, one process owner interviewee from each sample bureaus (i.e., totally 10 process owners) were included in the study. In selecting the process owners' simple random sampling technique and specifically, lottery method was applied.

3.3. Sources of Data

The data for the study was obtained from both primary and secondary sources. The primary sources of data were those obtained through questionnaire and interview. To acquire adequate information and insights in the area of the study, relevant literature was consulted and the available documents constituting techniques employed to change culture, and recorded ceremonies, rituals, induction and reward programs in place to enforce cultural change were reviewed.

3.4. Data Gathering Instruments

The study used both quantitative and qualitative data gathering tools (i.e., questionnaires and guided interview) in supplementing one with other to counteract the weakness or bias that each data gathering procedure or device has and generating more adequate data. Generally, the study used two sets of data gathering instruments described below.

To supplement the study with qualitative data and obtain broader views and opinions, interview guiding questions were designed taking the literature, problem understudy and basic questions into account. A suggestion from few experts and opinions of colleagues was an input of the design. Then, the guided interview was conducted with three process owners for simulation, and ultimately, with one process owner from each bureau and totally, with 10 process owners.

Moreover, to secure more reliable and adequate information from a large number of respondents (i.e., from 250 respondents noted earlier) the questionnaire consisting the following three parts was designed or adopted in “English” language:

First, the literature identified that the way in which organization adapt to the external environment and insure internal integration create the culture and identity of the organization. Thus, in assessing the major internal and external factors influencing the culture and performance of the good and the poor performing organizations (i.e., finding answer to the 2nd basic question), a questionnaire was adopted using the culture assessment model developed by Schein (1992). Specifically, this questionnaire made incorporate the major 5 internal factors and 4 external factors those are assumed important in influencing the culture and performance of public organizations from within and from without. Following the literature, different sample of items

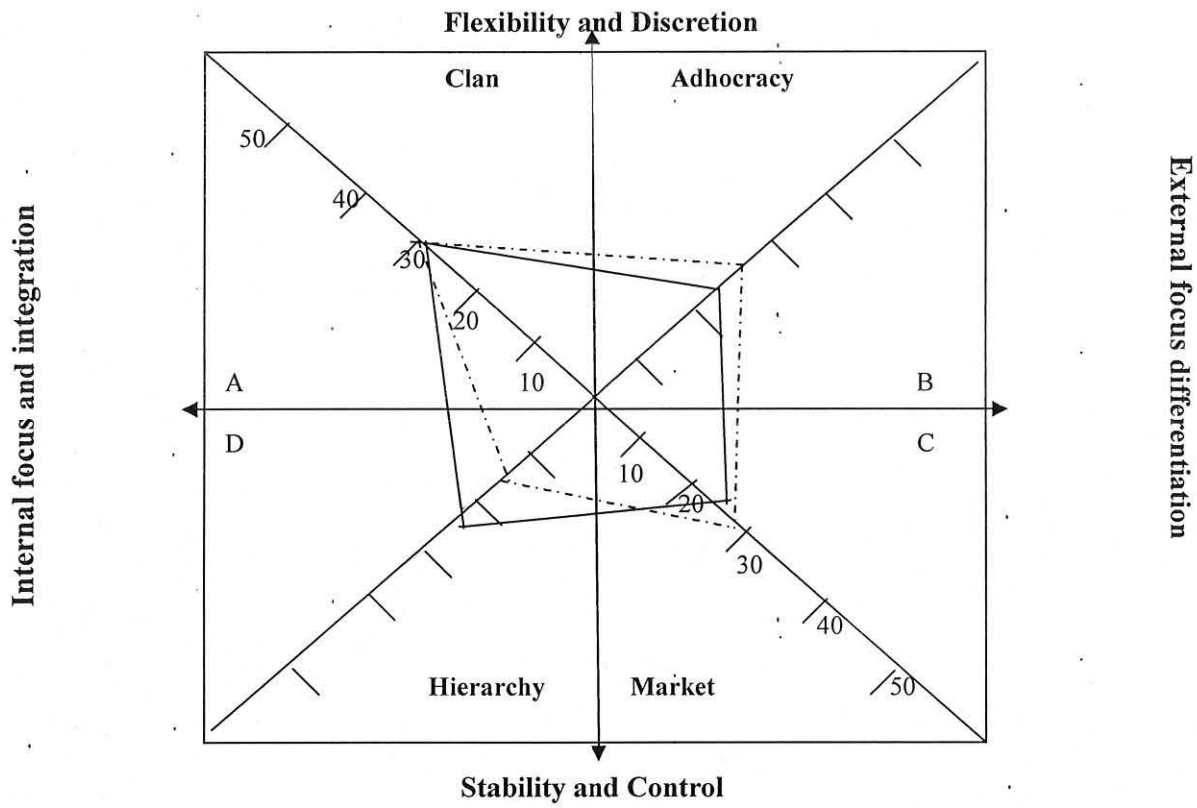
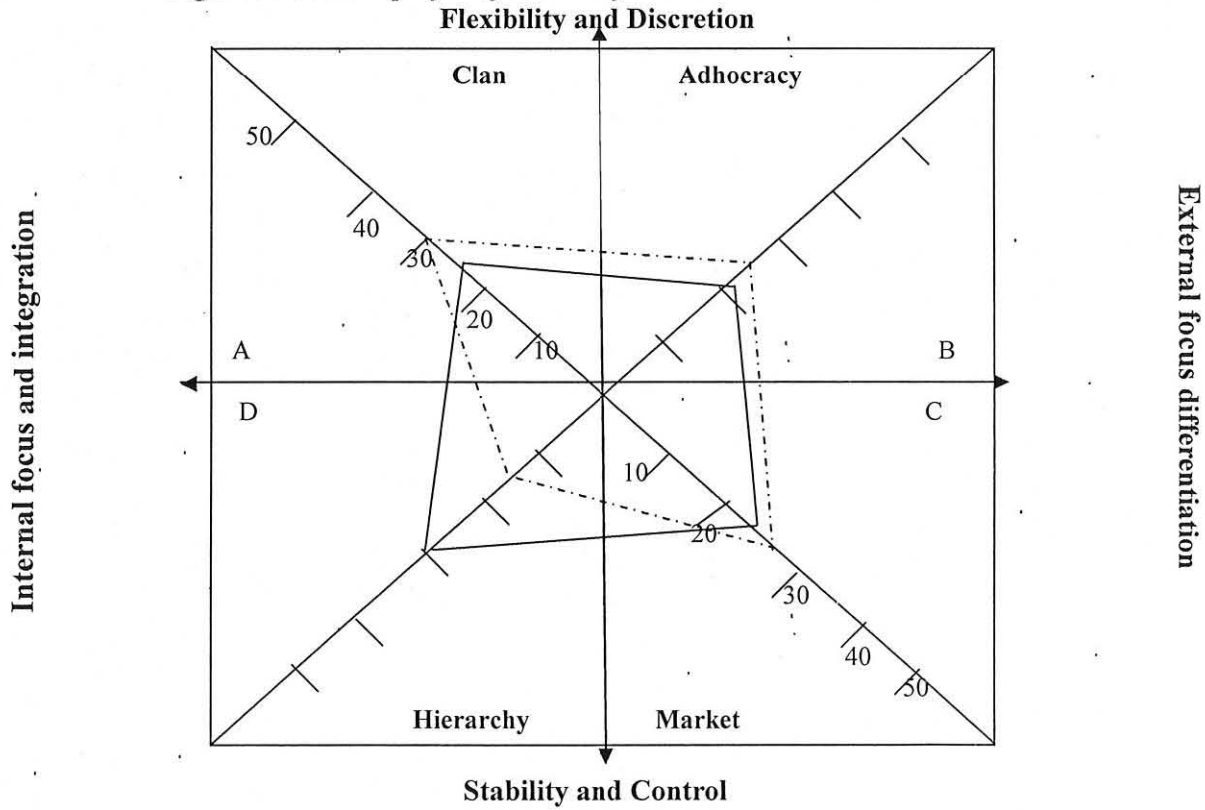


Figure 8: Cultural profile of Poor Performers



Key: _____ Current Organizational Culture
..... Preferred Organizational Culture

Regarding the overall core culture type, Table 9 and Figure 7 and 8 indicate that the current overall core culture types rated the highest (i.e., with grand averages of 29.1 and 29.9) by respondents from good and poor performers were a clan and hierarchy type respectively. While the overall preferred core culture type respondents from both good and poor performers rated the highest for a clan culture type with the grand average of 30.4 and 32.1 respectively.

As assessed in the OCAI, whilst the organizational culture compatible with a hierarchy culture type is characterized by a formalized and structured place to work. Procedures govern what people do. Effective leaders are good coordinators and organizers. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important. The long-term concerns of the organization are stability, predictability, and efficiency. Formal rules and policies hold the organization together. An organization with a clan culture is typified by a friendly place to work and where people share a lot of themselves. It is like an extended family. Leaders are thought of as mentors and, perhaps, even as parent figures. The organization is held together by loyalty and tradition. Commitment is high. The organization emphasizes the long-term of individual development with high morale and cohesion being important. Success is defined in terms of internal climate and concern for people. The organization places a premium on teamwork, participation, and consensus (Cameron and Quinn, 2006). The data also shows that the two groups of bureaus have differences in the overall current core culture type: good performers probably have a clan culture type that emphasizes on employees development with high morale and cohesion, while poor performers have a hierarchy culture type that emphasizes on stability, predictability, and efficiency currently. With regards to the overall preferred core organizational culture, however, the two groups probably have no difference (i.e., the organizational culture that members of the two groups think it their organization should have is a clan culture type).

4.3. Factors Affecting Organizational Culture and Performance

The aim of this third part of the questionnaire was testing the basic premise stated as: good-and poor performing organizations have different cultures that are the product of the interaction between internal and external factors that impinge on the organization (Schein, 1992; 1999).

According to the literature, factors that affect culture and performance of public sector can be broadly classified into two: internal and external factors. Internal factors refer to factors that are under the control of individual organizations, such as hiring procedures and performance evaluation. External factors refer to influences beyond the control of each individual organization, such as political interference and client demand and oversight. Following this literature, the researcher grouped the responses into external factors and internal factors. These external and internal factors were measured using five point scales from questionnaire administered to respondents. The researcher computes the average response for each factor and compares the means for good and poorly performing organizations and then, tests whether the means for the two groups are significantly different. The means, standard deviations, t-values and the p-values for the test are also reported in Table 4.9 and 4.10. Moreover, the views of the process owners on these factors are transcribed for triangulations.

4.3.1. Descriptions and Analysis of the Internal Factors

This sub-part of the analysis focus on the following internal factors: organization mission or mandate; employee recruitment and training; employee performance expectation and evaluation; employee recognition and sanctions, and autonomy in personnel and budgetary issues. The means and difference between means for these internal factor indicators of good and poor performers were tested. Their means, standard deviations, t-values and p-values also provided in Table 10, blow.

Table 10: Test of difference between means for internal factors indicators of good and poor performers

<i>Indicators of Internal variables</i>	<i>Good performers N=113</i>		<i>Poor performers N=110</i>		<i>T-values</i>	<i>P-values</i>
	<i>Means</i>	<i>Standard deviation</i>	<i>Means</i>	<i>Standard deviation</i>		
1. Organizational Mission:						
1.1. Public servants believe battling against poverty is one of their function	3.69	1.282	3.58	1.302	.627	.532
1.2. Everyone believes that citizens should get proper services	3.55	1.336	3.56	1.317	-.086	.933
2. Recruitment Criteria:						
2.1. Employees were hired more often for personal and political connections.	2.35	1.338	3.15	1.458	-4.153	.000*
2.2 .The Selection and recruitment principles are less valued.	2.62	1.404	3.53	1.373	-4.881	.000*
3. Performance Expectation and Evaluation:						
3.1. The job description reflects your						

Current functions.	3.19	1.451	3.19	1.456	.019	.985
3.2. Employees were informed changes in job requirements.	3.17	1.511	3.19	1.475	-.114	.909
3.3. Evaluation was objective and/or job related.	3.19	1.451	3.19	1.456	.019	.985
3.4. Employees know when the next evaluation be held.	3.19	1.430	3.17	1.495	.067	.947
4. Employee Sanctions:						
4.1. With no exception members who have found violating rules and regulations been disciplined.	3.45	1.408	2.59	1.410	4.560	.000*
4.2. Staff been sanctioned more often for performance related issues.	3.58	1.361	2.52	1.386	5.745	.000*
5. Autonomy in Personnel and Budgetary Issues:						
5.1. Employees' freedom in the performance of their duties.	3.17	1.511	3.19	1.475	-.114	.479
5.2. The organization's discretion power in deciding where to cut or increase its budget.	2.71	1.406	2.79	1.447	.494	.665

*=Significant at 95 percent confidence interval and $P < 0.05$.

4.3.1.1 Organizational Mission

The analysis of this factor refers to testing or identifying whether the organizational mission was broadly shared and internalized by employees of both groups of organizations based on the data obtained using combined indicators. As shown in items 1.1 and 1.2 of Table 10, respondents from good and poor performers were agreed or strongly agreed with mean responses of 3.69 and 3.58, and 3.55 and 3.56 that 'the public servants believe battling against poverty is one of their functions', and that 'everyone believes that citizens should get proper services' respectively.

The view of process owners from both good and poor performers' bureaus with whom interview was conducted pinpoints this issue:

All of them point out that their organizational mission or mandate was revised during business process design and implementation, and is made known and embraced by organizational members through continuous discussions and training.

In fact, something especial may found was that:

Two process owners from the good performers explained that their organization provide a handbook containing the organizational mission

and/or mandate, vision, goal and general objectives together with the job description or “charter” of that particular group or individual.

Getting the test of difference between means for indicators of good and poor performers, the data shows both indicators did not turn out important in distinguishing the difference between the two groups.

Organizational mission refers to the general social contribution and purpose of an organization and its related general goals (Rainey and Steinbauer, 1999), and in this case, a broader public-sector objective of poverty alleviation and service to citizens. Organizations whose mission is established interactively, broadly shared and internalized by employees tend to have a strong culture and to perform better (Grindle, 1997). Using a broad public-sector objective of poverty alleviation and service to citizens, the study finds no significant differences between good and poor performers: employees of good and poor performers embrace this public mission in similar manner.

4.3.1.2. Recruitment Criteria

The analysis of this internal factor was intended specifically to identify the employee hiring trends of good and poor performing bureaus. Accordingly, Table 10 shows that respondents from good and poor performers agreed or strongly agreed with mean responses of 2.35 and 3.15, and 2.62 and 3.53 that 'employees were hired more often for personal and political connections', and that 'the Selection and recruitment principles were less valued' respectively. Stated otherwise, 53 percent of respondents from the good performers and 37 percent from the poor performers disagreed or strongly disagreed or undecided that 'employees were hired more often for personal and political connections' (differences of 16 percent), and 47.6 percent of respondents from the good performers and 29.4 percent from the poor performers disagreed or strongly disagreed or undecided that 'the selection and recruitment principles were less valued' (differences of 18.2 percent).

The views of the interviewees from the two groups of organizations on recruitment criteria were that illustrated following:

While most of them claim that the selection and recruitment process have gone through the “normal” public-service recruitment process, including

entrance examination and interviews; few process owners (1 from good performing and 2 from poor performing bureaus) however, admitted that very few individuals were hired for the reasons they have no any idea about. Moreover, all respondents have a reservation about the well practices or the comprehensiveness of induction training in their respective bureaus, indeed.

From the t-test result, the data in the table shows that there are significant differences between means for indicators of good and poor performers on recruitment criteria.

Recruitment and training procedures can be used to communicate to employees in very specific terms the organization's performance expectations. Organizations that use open and competitive recruitment procedures or that hire employees based on their qualifications are more likely to get highly professional, capable staff and to be productive than those that hire based on personal connections (Grindle, 1997). Similarly, well-thought out induction training communicates the desired norms of the organization to new employees. With this in mind, the study examined whether there are significant differences in the importance of personal connections in the hiring of employees in good and bad performing organizations. Though most interviewees claim to have gone through the "normal" public-service recruitment process, including entrance examination and interviews, yet the data show that the selection and recruitment process is not transparent enough and in accord to the "normal" public-service recruitment process or principles. This observation is confirmed by the criteria for hiring. Performance on entry tests and good curriculum vitae are the most important criteria in hiring decisions in all organizations; however, these factors were relatively less important among poor performers (differences of 16 percent and 18.2 percent on indicators 2.1 and 2.2 respectively). Conversely, unprofessional recruitment practices such as personal connections, gifts to officials and knowing senior officials were more likely to lead to a job offer from poor performers than from good performers.

4 .3.1.3. Performance expectation and evaluation

The analysis of these interrelated factors refers to identifying whether employees in the two groups of bureaus were given clear signals about how they should work, about the quality of work expected of them and made know on continuous basis how effectively they were performing. To this end, 4 indicators described in Table 10 were used. Accordingly, respondents

from good and poor performers agreed or strongly agreed with mean values of 3.19 and 3.17 that 'the job description reflect their functions'; 3.19 and 3.19 that 'employees were informed changes in job requirements'; 3.19 and 3.19 that 'evaluation was objective and job related', and also agreed or strongly agreed with mean ratings of 3.19 and 3.17 that 'employees know when the next evaluation be held' respectively.

With respect to the t-test result, the data in the table shows that there is no a significant difference between means for all indicators of good and poor performers on performance expectation and evaluation.

Performance expectation and evaluation are closely related. Organizations that have clear and consistent policies about performance expectations and evaluation procedures would be expected to perform better. Overall, the analysis shows that there were no significant differences between the two groups of bureaus in terms of performance expectation and evaluation. This finding may be attributed to the fact that in most public organizations, performance evaluation is done rather haphazardly and/or infrequently and more importantly, the process is seen by many employees as overly subjective.

4.3.1.4. Employee recognitions and sanctions

With respect to the analysis of these interconnected internal factors, respondents from good and poor performers rated the indicators 4.1 and 4.2 of Table 10 with mean values of 3.45 and 3.58, and 2.59 and 2.52 respectively. This data in turn implies, 69 percent of respondents from good performers and only 51.6 percent from poor performers were agreed or strongly agreed that 'with no exceptions any members of the organization who have found violating rules and regulations been disciplined' (differences of 17.4 percent). Similarly, 71.6 percent of respondents from good performers and 51.8 percent from poor performers were 'strongly agreed or agreed' that 'staff been sanctioned more often for performance related issues than others' (differences of 19.8 percent).

As to the data obtained through the check-list, the most reasons that 65 percent and more respondents described for which staff been disciplined in the past three to five years in both groups of organizations were poor work performance, insubordination, lack of discipline, and absence from work without leave. When the measure for employee sanction is isolated into

sanctions for money related offenses, it was described by 45 and 51.8 percent (differences of 6.8 percent) respondents from good and poor performers respectively.

Coming to the views of process owners from the two groups, it is found being varying and inconclusive. That is:

Some (4) of them claim that someone who violets any of the rules and regulations set is liable to sanctions and everything is taken as serious. Others (4) said that insubordination, lack of discipline, and absence from work without leave being taken as serious. Few (2) process owners on the other hand, argue that nothing is serious provided that someone is not found being harmful to those in position.

With regards to the test of differences between means for indicators of the two groups, as can be seen from the table, the computed t-values for the indicators were greater than the tabulated t-value or t-critical value. Thus, the data shows that there are significant differences between means for indicators of good and poor performers on employee recognitions and sanctions.

Employee recognition and sanctions are interconnected and have similar effect on performance. A transparent process for recognizing employees who go beyond the call of duty in the performance of their tasks can motivate other employees to perform well even in the face of other problems, such as low salary. Similarly, sanctioning employees who perform below expectations and disregard the organization's rules and regulations based on transparent, fair and unbiased criteria could discourage such practices ((Hackman and Oldman, 1975; Owusu, 2005). The combined indicator for employee recognition and sanction shows that good and poor performing bureaus have significant differences in this factor. That is, the good performers appear to often recognize, reward and/or promote staff for successful performance more than poor performers. Moreover, good performers are more likely to sanction employees for performance-related offences than the poor performers (differences of 19.8 percent). The converse is true for poor performers—they are more likely to sanction employees for money-related offences than the good performers (differences of 6.8 percent).

4.3.1.5. Autonomy in Personnel and Budgetary Issues

With regards to these interrelate variables, items 5.1 and 5.2 of Table 10 shows that respondents from good and poor performers were agreed or strongly agreed with mean scores of 3.17 and 3.19, and 2.71 and 2.79 that 'employees have freedom in the performance of their duties', and that 'their organizations have a discretion in deciding where to cut or increase its budget' respectively. Followed by the t-test result, the data clearly indicated that the two groups of organizations have no significant differences on the two items.

The impact of autonomy on performance can vary at different levels of an organization. For instance, autonomy from civil service rules and regulations may allow management to use creative ways to deal with the day-to-day problems of the organization. On the other hand, employees would be less motivated if they had to refer every little decision to management. While complete lack of autonomy can stifle performance, too much autonomy also can have a negative effect by creating “extreme isolation from communication and exchange with external stakeholders” (Rainey and Steinbauer, 1999 p16). Therefore, the key to effective performance is “responsive autonomy.” The study examined two types of autonomies: autonomy in the performance of tasks and autonomy in budgetary issues. In general, organizations in Oromia appear to have more autonomy in personnel issues than budgetary issues. Moreover, it is reported that the poor performers relatively have more autonomy than good performers as opposed to the hypothesis. This finding might be a reflection of a laxity in supervision among poor performers and the vigilance of supervisors in good performing organizations. Further studies, probably using more refined measures of autonomy, may be needed to throw more light on the relationship between autonomy and culture and/or performance.

4.3.2. Descriptions and Analysis of the External Factors

In this part of the analysis the following external factors were analyzed: specificity of the organization's tasks, Political interference, client demand and oversight, and incentive system. These factors were measured using five point scales from the research questionnaire, and the means for well- and poorly performing organizations were compared as well as the difference between means for these external variables indicators of good and poor performers were tested.

Table 11: Test of difference between means for external factors indicators of good and poor performers

<i>Indicators of Internal variables</i>	<i>Good performers N=113</i>		<i>Poor performers N=110</i>		<i>T-values</i>	<i>P-values</i>
	<i>Means</i>	<i>Standard deviation</i>	<i>Means</i>	<i>Standard deviation</i>		
1. Specificity of Tasks:						
1.1 Consistency of instructions and policies from different parts.	3.18	1.477	3.15	1.473	.114	.910
1.2. Staff's freedom to disagree with the Policies their organization is asked to implement.	3.00	1.488	3.01	1.517	-.045	.964
2. Political Interference:						
2.1. The organization frequently receives political pressure to perform its tasks.	3.59	1.336	3.65	1.295	.313	.755
2.2. Employees with connections to politicians and influential people in the government have advantage at work than others without.	3.32	1.394	3.35	1.413	.143	.886
3. Client Demand and Oversight:						
3.1. Opinion about the clients' right to complain to the next higher office if not satisfied with services.	3.82	1.283	3.85	1.258	-.132	.895
3.2. Opinion about those public organizations should disclose their expenditure and performance to the public.	3.96	1.160	3.96	1.449	-.051	.959
3.3. Opinion about the press's role to ensure that public organization is accountable to the public.	3.88	1.240	3.75	1.342	.703	.483
4. Incentive System:						
4.1. Salary level in your organization is similar or greater than other civil service organizations.	3.15	1.453	2.50	1.426	3.374	.001*
4.2. The benefit package offered by your organization is similar or greater than other civil service organizations.	3.42	1.419	2.54	1.393	4.660	.000*
4.3. Sufficiency of the salary to pay once own living expenses.	3.51	1.254	3.53	1.261	-.083	.934

*=Significant at 95 percent confidence interval and $P < 0.05$.

4.3.2.1. Specificity of the organization's tasks

This part of the analysis deals with identifying the degree to which instructions and policies from different parts of the government are consistent, complement each other or contradicts, and the staff have a say in and a freedom to disagree with the policies their organization is asked to implement. Thus, as could be seen from the items 1.1 and 1.2 of Table 11 respondents from good and poor performers were agreed or strongly agreed with means ratings of 3.18 and 3.15, and

3.00 and 3.01 that 'instructions and policies from different parts of the government are consistent and complement each other', and that 'the staff have a say in and a freedom to disagree with the policies their organization is asked to implement' respectively.

Getting next, the views of the process owners were:

Seven process owners (3 from good performers and 4 from poor performers) argue that instructions and policies from different parts of the government are consistent and/or complement each other. While explaining further on this issue, most of them state that where instructions and policies may seem conflicting organizations have the right to ask for explanations and to make comments. Moreover, they explain that the staff have a say in and a freedom to disagree with instructions, rules and policies of that particular organization provided that it is "constructive and for the sake of the organization". The view of the remaining process owners is explicit and conclusive: instructions and policies from different parts of the government conflicts and staff have no a freedom to disagree with the policies their organization is asked to implement.

Regarding to the test of differences between means for the two groups of organizations, the data shows that the good and poor performers have no significant differences on this external factor.

Authorities argue that public organizations having objective, measurable written standards of performance have been shown to perform better. Although few Oromia bureaus may have objective, measurable written standards of performance and the region is obviously striving to address this problem through BPR and/or Balanced Score Card project, most respondents felt that they have a clear understanding of their tasks and the functions of their organizations. However, the data showed no significant relationship between specificity of tasks and the performance.

4.3.2.2. Political interference

The aim of this analysis is to examine the extent to which the two groups of bureaus are politically autonomous and operate free from intrusion from politicians using two questions set to this end. Accordingly, Table 11 shows that respondents from good and poor performers agreed or strongly agreed with mean ratings of 3.59 and 3.65, and 3.32 and 3.35 that 'their organization frequently receives political pressure to perform its tasks in a way that it would not

have otherwise done', and that 'employees with connections to politicians and influential people in the government have advantage at work than others without' respectively.

The views of half of the interviewees (i.e., 2 from good performers and 3 from poor performers) were found being inconclusive and self-contradictory, in that they argue:

There is no a political interferences in their respective bureaus rather it is a 'political directions'. According to them political interference is inappropriate term and 'political direction' is not only the appropriate term but also the desirable one for organizational functioning Whereas, the views of remaining process owners (i.e., 3 from the good and 2 from the poor performers said there are political interferences in their bureaus' in day-to-day activities, promotion, different benefits, and individual outlooks and views.

As could be seen from the t-test result, the computed t-values for both items were less than the tabulated t-value or the t-critical value. Thus, the data shows that there is no a significant difference between the means of good and poor performers on this particular external factor.

Although the data did not show that there is a significant difference between means for indicators of good and poor performers, it suggested that political interference may be more of a problem among poor performers than good performers. A possible reason for this could be the leaders and employees of good performing bureaus may challenge the politicians busting on their performance. A more specific question on hiring (i.e., the measure of political connections in item 2.1 of Table 10) confirmed this observation: when comparing the incidence of political interference in hiring in good and poor performing organizations, the data showed a difference of 18.2 percent, indicating that political interference plays a relatively important role in hiring among the poor performers.

4.3.2.3. Client demands and oversight

As could be seen in items 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3 of Table 11, respondents from both groups of bureaus were decidedly 'up-beat' when it came to the question as to whether organizational members believe that 'it is the clients right to complain to the next higher office if not satisfied with services', 'public organizations should disclose their expenditure and performance to the public'

and that 'it is the press's role to ensure that public organization is accountable to the public' they agreed or strongly agreed with mean ratings of 3.82, 3.96 and 3.88 for good performers and 3.85, 3.96 and 3.75 for poor performers respectively.

Similarly, all the process owners from the two groups of bureaus invariably and firmly said:

Our organizational members believe and should believe that their clients or citizens have the right to complain to the higher government office, and those public organizations should disclose all their expenditures and performance to public through various mechanisms. The role of press the study used as measure of this factor was among the mechanisms stated by them.

As to the test of differences between the means of good and poor performers, the data indicated that there were no significant differences between the two groups on all items.

Client demands and oversight is a measure of the effectiveness of civil society in demanding high performance from public organizations. The importance of effective monitoring of public organizations by citizens and the media in influencing performance has been documented (Grindle, 1997; Deininger and Mpuga, 2004). This factor, however, did not turn out to be important in distinguishing between good and poor performers. A possible reason for this is the mostly uninformed civil society as well as the general lack of neutral and serious investigative journalism that is necessary for drawing attention to public organizations, and more importantly lack of political atmosphere pave the way for such a condition to happen.

4.3.2.4. Incentive System

With respect to the analysis of this factor, Table 11 shows that the mean values of items 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3 were 3.15, 3.42 and 3.51 for good performers and 2.50, 2.54 and 2.53 for poor performers respectively. This data stated otherwise, 63 percent of respondents from good performers and only 50 percent from poor performers were agreed or strongly agreed that 'the salary level in their organization is similar or greater than other civil service organizations' (differences of 13 percent). Similarly, 68.4 percent of respondents from good performers and 50.8% from poor performers were agreed or strongly agreed that 'the benefit package offered by their organization is similar or greater than other civil service organizations' (differences of 17.6

percent). Meanwhile, 70.2 and 70.6 percent of respondents from good and poor performers disagreed or strongly disagreed respectively that 'their salary suffices to pay the living expenses'.

Coming to the views of the process owners on this issue:

All of them said there is a salary and benefits package differences among bureaus. Among all, 1 from the good and 2 from the poor performers said the reasons for salary differences is may be the relative importance of some bureaus to the government; 4 from the good and 4 from the poor performers said there is a benefits differences in educational opportunities, educational expenses and allowances, and per diem and the reasons are differences in organizational policy and leaders' willingness, and all the 10 process owners said our salary and our organizational members' salary is not sufficient.

Though the views of interviewees did not confirm the existence of wages, salaries and other benefits differential between the two groups directly, they pointed out that bureaus in general could differ to some extent over these issues. Moreover, while most process owners mentioned differences in “organizational policy and leaders’ willingness” as the reasons for fringe benefits differential, most of them failed to point out the reasons for salary scales differences among bureaus. However, none of the interviewees was hesitant to express that salary of the organizational members is not sufficient to pay the living expenses.

From the t-test result, the data clearly indicated that the computed t-values for the items 4.1 and 4.2 of Table 11 are greater than the tabulated t-value or the t-critical value. Thus, there is a significant difference between means of good and poor performers on the two measures of incentive system.

Incentive system includes wages and salaries received by employees for services rendered as well as discretionary payments other than direct wages (i.e. fringe benefits). It is generally believed that there is a positive relationship between remuneration and public sector performance and/or better benefits package promote higher performance (Mills, et al. 1994; Kiltgaard, 1997; Grindle, 1997). If this is true, then salaries and/or benefits package should be higher in good performing organizations. The data clearly shows that the employee benefits package is arguably the most important external factor that turned out in distinguishing the two groups of bureaus

(differences of 13 and 17.6 percent between good and poor performers on items 4.1 and 4.2 of Table 11 respectively). However, there was an overwhelming agreement among respondents from both groups that salaries are in adequate.

4.4. Elements of Organizational Culture Changed and Techniques Used

The aim of this part is identifying whether the good and poor performing bureaus significantly differ in the elements of culture they think more important and the techniques they employ to change it.

The study particularly uses Rousseau's cultural layers model and Schein's cultural embedding and change mechanisms described in the literature review. According to the literature, the cultural levels to be treated, the behavioral patterns and norms leaders demonstrate, and actions to be taken and/or the techniques to be applied by management to enforce the change are major factors that matters to create, develop, or change the organizational culture. Following this, the responses were grouped into culture levels or elements changed, reasons why culture was changed, effectiveness of the change, and opinion of changing the deeply held beliefs and assumptions. Except the check-list used for describing the 'reasons why culture was changed', all factors were measured using five point scales from questionnaire administered to respondents.

4.4.1. Descriptions and Analysis of Culture Levels Changed and Techniques Used

Cultural elements and techniques have been defined using Rousseau's model which defines the five cultural layers and Schein's cultural embedding mechanisms respectively. The question provides 3 examples of culture elements (techniques) adopted from the literature for each of the 5 levels which are rated by the respondents, as described in Table 12 blow.

Table 12: Description of culture elements or layers and categories of cultural change technique

<i>Layer</i>	<i>Category 1</i>	<i>Question</i>	<i>Category 2</i>	<i>Category 3</i>
Artifacts	Hard	Employee badges, uniforms, logos, decor, etc.	Passive	Secondary
	Hard	Old rituals/routines ended and new ones established	Passive	Secondary
	Hard	How often success stories heard	Passive	Secondary
Behavioral Patterns	Hard	Performance related pay scheme	Coercive	Primary
	Hard	Appraisal scheme assesses new behavior	Coercive	Primary
	Hard	Use of new procedures, rules and regulations	Coercive	Secondary
Behavioral Norms	Neutral	Consistency of leaders behaviors and actions	Passive	Primary
	Neutral	Employee Question and Answer sessions.	Passive	Primary
	Neutral	Line staff actively involve in process redesign.	Passive	Secondary
Values	Soft	Communication about ethics, codes of practice, etc.	Passive	Secondary

Beliefs and Assumptions	Soft	Staff support scheme to speak out what are violated	Passive	Primary
	Soft	Group therapy or Organizational Development	Passive	Primary
	Soft	Communication regarding organizational mission.	Passive	Secondary
	Soft	Communication regarding what was important.	Passive	Primary
	Soft	Individual therapy to help employee discuss about their emotional responses.	Passive	Primary

Category 1 separates the culture elements into hard and soft according to whether they are in the outer visible layers or the inner invisible layers. Behavioral norms in the middle are classed as neutral. Category 2 is concerned as to whether the cultural elements represent coercive or passive techniques. It is assumed that the 3 behavioral pattern examples suggest a coercive management style. All the others are more passive in that they can be less easily enforced. It is agreed some could be in either category; for example, employees may or may not be 'forced' to wear a company uniform and to hear success stories. While category 3 classes the techniques according to whether they represent Schein's primary or secondary techniques.

4.4.1.1. Elements of the Artifacts and Behavioral Patterns

The aim of this part of the study is identifying the two cultural layers (i.e., the artifacts and behavioral patterns) were changed and the techniques used to change those layers by the two groups

Table 13: Test of difference between means for the artifacts and behavioral patterns indicators of good and poor performers

<i>Indicators of the Cultural Layers</i>	<i>Good performers N=113</i>		<i>Poor performers N=110</i>		<i>T-values</i>	<i>P-values</i>
	<i>Means</i>	<i>Standard deviation</i>	<i>Means</i>	<i>Standard deviation</i>		
<i>Layer 1 or Artifacts:</i>						
1.1. Employees given lapel badges, uniforms, use of BPR Logo, etc.	3.92	1.095	4.03	.088	-.787	.432
1.2. Old rituals and routines were ended and new ones established.	3.65	1.295	3.59	1.336	.313	.755
1.3. Success stories about teams and employees working to the new order.	3.31	1.268	3.41	1.258	-.587	.558
<i>Layer 2 or Behavioral patterns:</i>						
2.1. Performance related pay, reward and promotion systems.	2.18	1.219	2.15	1.172	.197	.844
2.2. Appraisal scheme that assesses new behavior is in place.	2.82	1.495	2.70	1.392	.635	.526
2.3. Use of new procedures, rules and regulations.	3.34	1.468	3.93	1.090	-3.407	.001*

*=Significant at 95 percent confidence interval and $P < 0.05$.

Getting layer 1 or elements of the artifacts level 'use of lapel badges, uniforms, or extensive use of BPR Logo, or new distinct office decor/furnishings', 'ending old rituals and routines and establishing new ones', and 'success stories about teams and employees working to the new order' are those elements respondents from good and poor performers rated well or very well with mean responses of 3.92, 4.03, 3.68 and 3.53, 3.31, 3.41 respectively.

With regards to the t-test result, Table 13 shows that the computed t-values for all items were less than the tabulated t-value. Thus, the data shows that there were no significant differences between means for measures of good and poor performers.

Getting next the elements of behavioral patterns level 'Performance related pay, reward and promotion system' and 'Appraisal scheme that assesses new behavior' are the poorly or very poorly used techniques by good and poor performers with mean responses of 2.18, 2.15, and 2.82, 2.70 respectively. However, respondents from good and poor performers rated the remaining measure of behavioral patterns (i.e. use of new procedures, rules and regulations) well or very well with mean responses of 3.34 and 3.93 respectively.

Regarding the t-test result, Table 13 shows that only one element of a measure of behavioral patterns (i.e., use of new procedures, rules and regulations) was significantly different among the two groups; none of the other elements and techniques considered were significantly different in distinguishing between the two types of organizations.

In general, the literature identified that many social scientists suggest that there is an over emphasis on the outer layers. This research also shows this, the use of artifacts is highly pronounced than behavioral patterns in the two groups, and that the two Schein's primary cultural embedding mechanisms or two elements of behavioral patterns which address coercive and primary technique of the cultural model previously described were overlooked by both groups of organizations. The data also showed that there is a significant difference between the two groups of bureaus in the use of new procedures, rules and regulations. This difference, however, appears to be attributed to differences in the type of culture currently predominating in the two groups of bureaus identified in the first part of analysis than to the recommendation by management consultants. Because whoever the consultants are the bureaus were using, the use of new processes, rules and regulations could not be optional for organizations undertaking BPR

project. As noted earlier, the first part analysis showed that the current dominant culture of poor performers is a hierarchy culture and literature identified this type of culture primary focus on control, rules and regulations. Thus, this highly pronounced difference in the use of the technique may well reflect a historic use associated with an autocratic management style.

4.4.1.2. Elements of the Behavioral Norms, Values, and Beliefs and Assumptions

The aim of this part is identifying the three cultural layers (i.e., the behavioral patterns, values, and beliefs and assumptions) changed and techniques used to change those cultural layers by the two types of organizations.

Table 14: Test of difference between means for the behavioral norms, values, and beliefs and assumptions indicators of good and poor performers

<i>Indicators of the Cultural Layers</i>	<i>Good performers N=113</i>		<i>Poor performers N=110</i>		<i>T-values</i>	<i>P-values</i>
	<i>Means</i>	<i>Standard deviation</i>	<i>Means</i>	<i>Standard deviation</i>		
<i>Layer 3 or Behavioral Norms:</i>						
3.1. Leaders consistently exhibited the new behavior required of employees?	2.88	1.409	2.05	1.078	4.936	.000*
3.2. Employee question and answer sessions or schemes or surveys.	2.90	1.433	2.62	1.361	1.519	.130
3.3. Staff actively involved in redesign of processes and decision of the culture change model to be employed.	3.35	1.413	3.32	1.394	.143	.886
<i>Layer 4 or Values:</i>						
4.1. Regular communications to employees about the organization's ethics, codes of practice, standards, etc.	3.06	1.365	2.80	1.360	1.436	.153
4.2. Support scheme to staff speaking out when ethics, standards are violated.	2.82	1.495	2.70	1.392	.635	.526
4.3. Group therapy or organizational development for change.	3.04	1.375	2.95	1.374	.489	.626
<i>Layer 5 or Beliefs and Assumptions:</i>						
5.1. Regular communications about the underlying organizational mission.	3.35	1.413	3.32	1.394	.143	.886
5.2. Regular communications about what was now considered important.	3.23	1.261	3.07	1.194	.956	.340
5.3. Therapy to help individual employees discuss their emotional responses and explore the root causes.	2.18	1.219	2.15	1.172	.197	.844

*=Significant at 95 percent confidence interval and $P < 0.05$.

As shown in Table 4.13, among the elements of behavioral norms level (i.e., Layer 3) 'leaders consistency in exhibiting their theory in practice and the new behavior required of employees'

and 'employee question and answer sessions or schemes' were the poorly or very poorly used techniques as confirmed by respondents from good and poor performers with mean responses of 2.88, 2.05, and 2.90, 2.62 respectively. The 'staff active involvement in redesign of processes and decision of the culture change model to be used' however, is the well or very well used technique by the two groups.

Regarding the test of difference between the means of good and poor performers, Table 14 shows that the computed t-values for item 3.1 was greater than the tabulated t-value or the t-critical value. That is, the two groups are significantly different in one element of a measure of behavioral norms (i.e., leaders consistency in exhibiting their theory in practice and the new behavior required of employees).

According to Schein (2004) the primary mechanisms are the major or powerful tools that leaders have available to teach their organizational members how to perceive, think, feel, and behave based on their own conscious and unconscious convictions. However, the study show those two elements of behavioral norms which address the passive and primary technique of the cultural model previously described were less pronounced by both groups of organizations, but more importantly by the poor performers. The study also show except the leaders consistency in exhibiting their theory in practice and the new behavior required of employees, none of the elements of behavioral norms did turn out to be important in distinguishing between good and poor performers.

Followed by Layer 4 or elements of Values, Table 4.13 shows respondents from good and poor performers approved with the means response of 3.06, 2.82, 3.04 and 2.80, 2.70, 2.95 that 'regular communications to employees about the organization's ethics, codes of practice, standards, etc', 'support scheme to staff speaking out when ethics, standards, or codes of practice are violated', and 'group therapy or organizational development for change' were used poorly.

From the t-test result, the data shows that the computed t-values for all measures of values were less than the tabulated t-values (t-critical values). That is, there were no significant differences between the means of good and poor performers.

With regards to the views of the process owners on the 5 layers of organizational culture, most of them (4 from good and 3 from poor performers said that:

The BPR Logos, mission, vision, and values were written and preached to their organizational members; One-stop-shopping (in this case 'new distinct office decor/furnishings') is in place; heard success stories about the Mosses and Jewish withdrawal from Egypt, Mogul, IMBA during the BPR project training; new processes, rules and regulations were in placed very well. They also confirmed that performance related pay, reward and promotion system and appraisal scheme that assesses new behavior are not in placed.

As noted earlier, the literature identified that there is an over emphasis on the outer layers for many reasons. As a result, organizations do not try to change the inner elements of values and beliefs. This research also shows this, the use of elements of values which address the soft or invisible, passive and more of the primary techniques were underutilized. Although these techniques relatively used more by good performers than by poor performers, the data showed no significant relationship between the elements of values and performance.

Lastly, getting Layer 5 or elements of the beliefs and assumptions 'regular communications to employees about the underlying organizational mission and how BPR is related to it' was the only elements of the beliefs and assumptions that respondents from good and poor performers have approved being used well or very well with means responses of 3.35 and 3.32 respectively. Whereas, 'therapy to help individual employees discuss their emotional responses and explore the root causes' was the technique that poorly used by the two groups of organizations.

Concerning the t-test analysis in identifying whether there were significant differences between the means of good and poor performers, none of the elements of a measure of beliefs and assumptions was significantly different between the two groups of bureaus.

As noted earlier, the literature identified that organizations emphasis on the visible parts of cultural elements. This study also shows except communication about the underlying organizational mission, the remaining two invisible elements of culture or techniques lacked emphasis. However, none of these techniques did turn out to be important in distinguishing good and poor performers.

Overall, the two groups of organizations emphasized harder, passive, and secondary techniques over the softer, coercive, and primary ones. The earlier literature highlights that these different

techniques may well have a different impact on employee behavior, responsiveness, feelings, and attitudes. With Schein's primary activities being leader oriented, it's under utilization suggests that leadership is not strong in the organizations. The issue of employee performance as a result of using these techniques is addressed latter.

4.4.2. The reasons why the techniques were chosen

This checklist question aims to test the hypothesis by ascertaining the driving force behind the cultural change techniques that were chosen. The 3 stated in the hypothesis ('recommended by consultants', 'actions that staff could easily see' (i.e. visibility), and 'speed of implementation and results') are listed alongside 2 more neutral ones ('previously used to good effect', and 'gain staff commitment'), and the free choice provided by 'Other'. Accordingly, respondents described the reasons why the techniques were used as shown in Table 15 blow.

Table 15: Response of respondents on the reasons why the cultural change techniques were chosen

Variables	Good Performers N=113		Poor Performers N=110	
	Number of respondents	%	Number of respondents	%
<i>4.4.2.1. Reasons for using the techniques:</i>				
❖ Actions that staff could easily see them.	21	18.6	19	17.3
❖ Previously used to good effect.	29	25.7	27	24.6
❖ For speed of implementation and results.	82	72.6	80	72.8
❖ Important to gain staff commitment.	47	41.6	50	45.5
<i>4.4.2.2. Who suggested the techniques:</i>				
▪ Staff	7	6.2	5	4.6
▪ Management.	33	29.2	35	31.8
▪ Consultants.	47	41.6	46	41.8
▪ Competitors.	29	25.7	28	25.5
<i>4.4.2.3. The Consultants used:</i>				
➤ Psychologist	4	3.5	5	4.6
➤ Sociologist	7	6.2	10	9.1
➤ Change Management consultants	85	75.4	83	75.5
➤ Human Resource consultants	29	25.7	36	32.7

As Table 15 shows, respondents from the two groups were able to select a number of reasons given for using the techniques. Among those reasons, 'speed of implementation' was the most chosen technique by the two groups (i.e., by 72.6 percent and 72.8 percent of respondents from good and poor performers respectively) with 'staff commitment' next and the other two remaining

being similarly chosen low by both groups. Thus, both groups of organizations most probably were using the techniques for the same reasons.

Regarding the survey 'who suggests that techniques' recall that the hypothesis suggested that it was consultants that recommended the more visible and more action oriented techniques. Whether consultants were involved or not, then visibility ('staff see') is the least chosen technique by both groups (i.e., 18.6 percent and 17.3 percent respondents from good and poor performers respectively) and action oriented ('speed') is the most chosen technique by both groups of bureaus, and where respondents' replies from both groups show that suggestions came from a wide variety of sources, no consciences about who suggest the techniques. This result most probably attributed to lack of communication and/or transparency in making employees know the sources, or to limitation of the question in including other options such as, for example, the regional and federal government direction than to rely on the free choice provided. Given BPR's emphasis on empowerment, then in both groups the proportion of suggestions from staff appears low.

4.4.3. Effectiveness of the Cultural Change Techniques

It was considered that simply asking respondents to rate the effectiveness of the changes was open to inconsistencies in the responses and a possible tendency to rate high. As most culture writers look to changes in behavioral patterns as the outcome of changes in culture elements, then respondents were asked to rate 7 areas of employee behavioral changes expected from BPR.

Table 16: Test of difference between means for behavioral improvement indicators of good and poor performers

Indicators	Good performers N=113		Poor performers N=110		T-values	P-values
	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation		
1. Results oriented.	3.51	1.254	3.53	1.261	-.083	.934
2. Customer focus	3.68	1.152	3.68	1.141	-.003	.998
3. Creation of innovative ideas.	2.75	1.340	2.73	1.327	.140	.889
4. Commitment to the organization.	3.48	1.402	2.82	1.441	3.465	.001*
5. Cooperative team working.	3.33	1.392	2.87	1.411	2.397	.017*
6. Acceptance and use of responsibility	2.71	1.406	2.79	1.447	-.434	.665
7. Acquisition and use of new knowledge and skills	2.98	1.439	3.04	1.465	-.278	.781

*=Significant at 95 percent confidence interval and $P < 0.05$.

As shown in Table 16, 'customer focus', and 'results oriented' were the most chosen areas for high or very high of improvements by both good and poor performers with the mean ratings of 3.51, 3.68 and 3.53, 3.68 respectively. Whereas, 'creation of innovative ideas', 'acceptance and use of responsibility', and 'acquisition and use of new knowledge and skills' were rated low by good and poor performers with the mean ratings of 2.75, 2.71, 2.68 and 2.73, 2.79, 3.04 respectively.

Getting next, the views of the process owners about the type and extent of employees behavioral improvements gained as a result of the implementation of the BPR project:

Four from good and three from poor performers said there are improvements and mentioned such as quality and efficiency of services, employee commitment, customer focuses, team works, unnecessary delays and bureaucracies. Whereas, the rest (i.e., 1 from good and 2 from poor performers) of the process owners said that the BPR theory is important and the process designed in their organization was good, but did not implemented accordingly and did not bring any improvement.

The test of difference between the means of good and poor performers shows that the two groups of bureaus have significant differences only in 'commitment to the organization' and 'cooperative team work', of the 7 measures of organizational members' behavioral improvements.

As the data shows, the lower numbers from both groups of bureaus selecting 'acceptance and use of responsibility' suggests that 'empowerment', a much vaunted attribute of BPR, is slow to be taken up by employees or to delegate authority by leaders. Equally low was 'creation of innovative ideas'. This is surprising given that the earlier analysis (data in Table 14) showed a high degree of line staff active involvement in the design of the new processes. Again, various hypotheses could be established for this apparent inconsistency (e.g. a link to lack of commitment, staff ideas being rejected, staff being restricted to the details, etc.). Given that BPR is supposed to be all about starting from 'a clean sheet of paper' then lack of innovation should be a major concern. The other things being constant, acquisition and use of new knowledge and skills considered to be the prerequisites for innovation as well as for efficient and quality services were rated low by respondents from both groups. In fact, this is not surprising given that the earlier data in Table 14 showed group therapy or organizational development for change being

the poorly used technique and one could not imagine that new knowledge and skills come out of thin air.

Overall, except 'commitment to the organization' and 'cooperative team work', none of the other factors turned out important in distinguishing the two groups of organizations. While looking for the factors of performance differential, identifying the existence of high or very high commitment and cooperative team work in good performers is tempting to claim that is it. Of course, they are, though not the only ones. But, how this could happened where those elements or techniques expected to have role on employee behavioral patterns, norms, values, and beliefs and assumptions were not found being used well or very well by good performers than the poor performers?, is a huge question not answered. The reasons for this finding probably could be attributed to the type of culture currently dominating the organizations, adherence to selection and recruitment principles that develop a sense of professionalism, better benefits package, and leaders' consistency in exhibiting their theory in practice and the new behavior required of employees noted in the earlier analysis.

4.4.4. Opinion of Changing the Inner Cultural Elements

This final cultural question, using a Likert scale, was a direct question concerning the opinion of the respondent whether employees' values and beliefs can indeed be changed. The question was made open by the provision for qualification or other comment. It provides a form of benchmark against the previous questions. For instance, if in subsection 4.4.1 inner cultural elements were used well or very well and in subsection 4.4.3 there was significant behavioral changes one would expected this question to be answered 'strongly agree'. If many outer elements were used well or very well but there was little behavioral change then it may indicate that espoused views are not realized. And so on.

Table 17: Test of difference between means for views of good and poor performers on changing the deeply held employee values and beliefs

Variables	Good Performers		Poor Performers		T-values	P-values
	Means	Standard Deviation	Means	Standard Deviation		
Views as to whether the deeply held employee values and beliefs can be changed.	4.04	.939	4.04	.957	.620	.951

*=Significant at 95 percent confidence interval and $P < 0.05$.

Respondents were decidedly 'up-beat' when it came to the question as to whether employees' values and beliefs could be changed to align them to the organization. As Table 17 shows respondents from the two groups of organizations agreed or strongly agreed with mean ratings of 4.04 it could. Over 37 qualifications were given by 122 respondents from the two groups of bureaus. Those selected 10 or more times include: 'Time available' or 'takes time' (79 respondents), 'needs co-ordination of many related changes' (22), 'depends on current beliefs' (11), and 'need to involve people' (10). Other than the need for time there appears little consensus as to other factors or requirements.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter consists of the summary of the major findings, conclusions and recommendations presented here under in their respective orders.

5.1. Summary of the Major Findings

The purpose of this study was assessing the organizational culture and performance of Oromia Regional Government State Bureaus as the subject and to come up with valuable findings that may contribute to the search for effective public sector organizations and/or give vital recommendations that enable overcome the challenges encountering with respect to identifying gaps, creating or developing or changing organizational culture, improving organizational performance and change process so that they could commence provision of effective and efficient services to tax payers as well as contribute to the change and development of the region and the country.

To this end, the study tried to search for a valid answer to the following basic questions formulated in relation to the problem:

1. What are the dominant current and preferred cultures of the good and poor performing Oromia Bureaus?
2. What are the major internal and external factors influencing the culture and performance of the good and poor performing Oromia Bureaus?
3. Do leaders of the good and poor performing Oromia Bureaus think organizational culture could be changed? If so:
 - 3.1. At what levels do they try to change?
 - 3.2. What types of techniques are used?
 - 3.3. How effective do they think these changes are?

Since the ultimate goal of this study was to learn about a large population (i.e., the organizational culture and performance of Oromia bureaus as a whole) by surveying the sample population, descriptive survey method was considered an appropriate and employed in search for answer to the basic questions. In classifying the bureaus into good and poor performers, the study used the reputation method (asking knowledgeable persons who are well-informed about the functioning

of public organizations) which has been used extensively in sociological studies in combination with the regional government performance evaluation result and ranking.

The study used both quantitative and qualitative data gathering tools (i.e., questionnaires and guided interview) in supplementing one with other to counteract the weakness or bias that each data gathering procedure or device has and generate more adequate data. Accordingly, interview was conducted with one process owner from each bureau (i.e., with 10 process owners) using the guiding questions to supplement the study with qualitative data and obtain broader views and opinions.

Moreover, the following three sets of questionnaires which was assumed enable to secure more reliable and adequate information from a large number of respondents (i.e., from 250 respondents) were designed: First, in identifying the now and preferred types of culture existing in the two groups of bureaus (finding answer to the 1st basic question), the standardized Cameron and Quinn's Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument II was used as it is. This instrument is preferred, because many researchers have proved that it is the framework that was empirically derived, has been found to have both face and empirical validity and helps integrate many of the cultural dimensions proposed by various authors. Second, in assessing the major internal and external factors influencing the culture and performance of the good and the poor performing organizations (finding answer to the 2nd basic question), a questionnaire was adopted using the culture assessment model developed by Schein (1992). Third, in examining the elements of culture and techniques leaders think more important to change organizational culture and its effectiveness (finding answer to the 3rd basic question), a questionnaire was adopted using Rousseau's (1990) culture layers and Schein's (1985, 2004) cultural embedding and changing model

The questionnaire was pilot tested and finally administered to 125 respondents from the well-performers and to 125 respondents from the poor-performers and totally, to 250 respondents from the two groups of bureaus. Among these questionnaire, 230 (92 percent) were returned. Among the returned, in turn, the responses of 7 (2.8 percent) questionnaire were either completely unusable or incomplete, and excluded from the data analyses. Of the remainder, the responses of 113 questionnaire from the good performers and 110 from the poor performers and in sum, responses of 223 (89.2 percent) were complete and usable, thus included in the analysis.

The response rate, about 89.2 percent, combined with the high usability of the responses leads one to believe that the instrument and finding have some degree of validity.

Accordingly, the major findings of the study were the following:

1. Among the six dimensions of the current organizational culture, the two groups of bureaus have differences in five of them: the good performing bureaus appear to have a clan type of current dominant characters, leadership style, management of human resources or employees, glue holding the organizations together and strategic emphasis, while the poor performers appear to have a hierarchy type ones. For the other dimensions of organizational culture measures, namely, the current success criteria, and the six dimensions of the 'Preferred' organizational culture, the study found no differences between the two types of organizations. On top of this, the two groups of bureaus were found be different in core organizational culture type: the core organizational culture type that the good performing bureaus currently have and that the organizational members think it their organization should have in the future, appear to be a clan culture type (congruence between the 'Now' and the 'Preferred'). That is, the good performers values the people, places a premium on teamwork, participation and consensus more than the poor performers. Whereas, the core organizational culture type that the poor performing bureaus currently have and that the organizational members think it their organization should have in the future, appear to be a hierarchy and a clan culture type respectively (discrepancies between the 'Now' and 'Preferred'). That is, the poor performers emphasis on procedures, rules and controls more than good performers.

2. Among the internal factors influencing organizational culture and performance, recruitment criteria, employee recognitions and sanctions are the measures turned out to be significant in distinguishing between the well-and poorly performing bureaus: the good performers use an open and competitive recruitment procedures to communicate the organization's performance expectations to employees and produce highly professional and capable staff, while the poor performers probably hire employees based on political and personal connections more than the good performing ones. Moreover, the good performers recognize employees who go beyond the call of duty in the performance of their tasks and sanction those who perform below expectations and disregard the organization's rules and regulations based on a transparent, fair and unbiased criterion more than poor performers. Furthermore, good performers are more likely to sanction

employees for performance-related offences than the poor performers. Conversely, the poor performers are more likely to sanction employees for money-related offences than the good performers. For the other internal factor measures, namely, organizational mission, performance expectation and evaluation, and autonomy in personnel and budgetary issues, the study found no significant differences between the two groups of bureaus. Besides, among the external factors, the only measure that showed significant differences between the two groups was the incentive system: Indeed, though public organizations in Ethiopia including Oromia do not determine the salaries and benefits of their employees (i.e., a prerogative of the government through the budgeting process), an amazing, but an important finding of this study is that the remuneration is higher in good performing organizations than poor performing ones. For the other measures of external factors, namely, client demand and oversight, specificity of task and political interference, the study found no significant differences between the two types of organizations.

3. Among the elements of behavioral patterns, the only measure that showed significant differences between the two groups was the use of new procedures, rules and regulations: the poor performing bureaus use the new procedures, rules and regulations (i.e., use the visible and coercive techniques) more than good performing ones. Meanwhile, the leaders' and/or managements' consistency in exhibiting their theory in practice and the new behavior required of employees was the only measure among the elements of behavioral norms that showed significant differences between the two groups. That is, leaders of the good performing bureaus exhibit their actions and behavioral norms consistently (use the neutral and passive techniques) more than the poor performers. Besides, among the measures of the behavioral improvements of employees as a results of the elements of culture changed and/or techniques used, the two measures that showed significant differences between good and poor performers are the staff commitment to the organization and cooperative team working: the staffs in good performing bureaus are committed to their organization and cooperatively work in team more than those in poor performing bureaus, which is probably be as a result of differences in the internal and external factors the findings of this study suggests.

5.2. CONCLUSION

Based on the major findings, the study drew the following conclusion:

The study has empirically analyzed the characteristics of the good and poor performing bureaus in Oromia. The basic premise is that the culture that eventually develops in a particular organization is a complex outcome of external pressures, internal potentials, response to critical events, and, probably to some unknown degree, factors that could not be predicted from knowledge of either the environment or the members. In the process, some organizations develop cultures that support, encourage and reward high performance; whereas others adopt a culture that perpetuates poor performance. The findings also showed that the good and poor performing organizations are different mainly in six respect: core organizational culture type, recruitment procedures, recognition and sanction systems, incentive systems, leaders' actions and behavioral norms, and in employee commitment and cooperative team working, which are classified into internal, external, and both internal and external variables.

To the extent that the characteristics of an organization determine the organization's culture and performance, the study conclude that different organizations—even those in the same region and/or in the same sector often have different culture(s) and performance which is may be partly attributed to differences in the core organizational culture type, employees recruitment procedures, recognition and sanction as well as incentive systems, leaders' behavioral norms and actions, and to differences in the employees commitment and cooperative team working. And, creating effective public sector organization requires taking situations in the specific organizations into consideration and focusing on those internal and external variables, in which the two groups of organizations differed, rather than one-size-fits-all approaches or simple solutions.

5.3. Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are given in the study:

1. Public sector change policies should be tailored to specific organizations: As illustrated in the study different organizations—even those in the same region and/or in the same sector often have different cultures and performance. As a result, public-sector changes cannot be based on one-size-fits-all solutions; rather policies should be tailored to specific organizations, taking into consideration the organizational culture(s). Organizational change therefore entails an assessment of the culture and performance, good understanding of the nature of the culture(s) and different cultural forms, and using those forms to facilitate change, where necessary. However, it is

important to note that enhancing organizational effectiveness does not always involve altering the existing culture; in some cases, as with new organizations, a new culture must be created. In well-performing organizations, the task is to find ways to embody and transform the existing culture. In general, organizational change would require a different strategy informed by the challenges and opportunities of the culture and performance of specific organizations.

2. Reforming the incentive, recruitment, and recognition and sanction systems are a prerequisite for organizational culture change and performance: The importance of adequate salary and transparent incentive system in promoting efficient public sector organizations cannot be overemphasized. Increasing the remuneration for employees would not only stem the outflow of workers from the public sector but also reduce corruption. Salary-reform in Ethiopia should also be based on open and honest dialogue between the government and the other stakeholders. Such a dialogue would not only educate the stakeholders about budgetary constraints faced by the government, but also would provide an opportunity for the government to press upon the stakeholders the need for increased effectiveness as a way of justifying higher wages. Such discussion could also bring some change and end the unnecessary protection of inefficient employees by civil service rules. Although generous benefits package is critical for ensuring good performance; good benefits alone would not guarantee good performance. The management of the organizations should recruits employees through a relatively competitive system and provides new employees with a comprehensive induction-training program. As a result, employees of such organizations are more likely to see themselves as more competent than poor performers. In addition, leaders should be able and willing to take advantage of the relatively generous benefits provided by the organization to demand high performance from employees and to sanction those who do not measure up to the organization's expectations in a system that is generally seen as fair.

3. Cultural change and performance improvement requires the commitment of stakeholders: Initiating sustainable change requires the full commitment of the national and regional political leaders, organizational leaders, and the support of employees. Lack of commitment by politicians often results in lapses in policy. The commitment of public-sector employees to the change effort is also necessary to create a sense of ownership and diffuse the "reform fatigue" that has become widespread in the public sector. Among others, employees' commitment could be enhanced

through active involvement in and building consensus on the change process, providing adequate salary and transparent incentive system, recruiting employees through a relatively competitive system, and using fair and unbiased evaluation, recognition and sanction systems noted earlier.

4. Change should focus not only on management, but also on leadership: The centrality of the leadership question in Oromia is illustrated in this study by the finding that internal factors are critical in distinguishing between good and poor performers. Among other things, effective organizations have leaders who are able to create a positive organizational culture given the resources, opportunities and constraints of their organization. Yet, public-sector reform has focused on improving the management of organizations. Kotter's (1996:26-27) distinction between management and leadership is quite apt here. According to him, management involves a set of processes to help keep the complicated system of people and technology running smoothly. Conversely, leadership involves a set of processes that create organizations in the first place or adapt them to significantly changing circumstances. Leadership defines what the future should look like, aligns people with that vision, and inspires them to make it happen despite obstacles. Kotter's cry for effective leadership in the private sector is equally true for Oromia bureaus: "Successful transformation is 70 to 90 percent leadership and only 10 to 30 percent management." Yet, lack of visionary leadership is a serious problem, particularly in public sector where a poor incentive system, lack of resources, excessive bureaucratic rules and regulations and political interference in the running of public organizations make it extremely difficult to attract and retain such people. If it is to see or create effective organizations, leaders at different levels must avoid such obstacles.

5. Merely modifying the actions of a part of an organization and using a narrow range of techniques (e.g. coercive techniques alone) will not change the culture: Cultural change require using a multiple of techniques (i.e., hard and soft, primary and secondary, passive and coercive techniques, with particular emphasis on the soft and passive ones) and changing the shared behaviors and symbolic context in which specific organizational actions occur. A successful and sustainable change must transcend the coercive actions and be anchored firmly in the organization's culture. As Kotter (1996:14) explained, organizational change will stick only when it becomes "the way we do things around here," and when "it seeps into the very bloodstream of the work unit." Until the new behaviors become rooted in the social norms and

shared values of the organization through persuasions, group and individual therapy and are transmitted to new employees as a way of doing things, such practices could disappear as soon as the pressures associated with the change effort are removed.

6. *Involving the civil society in performance measurement is important:* Organizational change is often a response to external pressure or circumstances. In the private sector, competition and threats to the company's profits are often cited as the motivations for initiating cultural change in an organization. In the public sector, the civil society can be expected to provide the oversight besides putting pressure on ineffective organizations to change. Effective civil society, however, requires informed citizenry and the availability of free political process. The involvement of the civil society in performance measurement would not only provide the deep and sustainable demand for institutional changes on the part of the society; it could also put pressure on the poorly performing organizations to improve their activities. The effectiveness of civil society in this monitoring and oversight responsibility can be enhanced, however, through the creation of an evaluation foundation, staffed by experts to conduct evaluations and reviews of the organizations, and make such information available to the public through the media in non-technical jargon.

Appendixes

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Addis Ababa University
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Department of Educational Planning and Management

Major: Human Resource and Organizational Development.

**Title: An Assessment of Organizational Culture and Performance in Oromia
Bureaus.**

Dear the Organization Members!

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather relevant data that help to assess the Organizational Culture and Performance of Oromia Bureaus. I would like to assure you in advance that the study is purely for academic purpose as well as all the information will be kept confidential, hence it would not affect anyone in anyway. Rather, the result of this study is believed to bring invaluable organizational culture concepts that help accelerate change process and improve performance into the regional bureaus. Indeed, your genuine, frank and timely response is of prime importance for the success of the study. Thus, you are kindly requested to respond to each question items carefully and responsibly.

General Direction:

You are not required to write your name.

You are required to read and follow strictly the instructions in each part of the questionnaire.

Part I: Personal Information/ Data

Please indicate your response in writing where blank space is provided and by ticking “√” one of the options that apply to your personal data in each item:

1.1. Your organization's name: _____.

1.2. Your current position: _____.

1.3. Gender: *Male.* *Female*

1.4. Age: *Under 29.* *40 – 49*
 30 – 39. *Over 50*

1.5. Marital Status: *Married.* *Divorced*
 Single. *Separated*

1.6. Highest Educational Attainment:

- Senior Secondary School
 University/Post-University

- Technical/Polytechnic
 Other/not stated

1.7. Number of Years in Current Position:

- Less than 3 years.
 3 - 10 years.

- Over 10 years.

Part II: Dimensions of Organizational Culture

In this part, the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) is employed specifically to learn the dominant organizational culture. The OCAI consists of six questions. Each question has four alternatives. Divide 100 points among four alternatives in each question, depending on the extent to which each alternative is similar to your own organization. Give a higher number of points to the alternative that is most similar to your organization. For example, in question 1, if alternative A is very similar to your organization, alternative B and C are somewhat similar, and alternative D is hardly similar at all, you might give 55 points to A, 20 points each to B and C, and 5 points to D. Please, just be sure that your *total equals 100 for each question*.

Note in Fig.2.1 that the response column for the instrument is labeled *Now*. These responses mean that you are rating your organization as *it is currently*. The instrument in Fig.2.2 has a response column labeled *Preferred*. In this instrument you rate your organization as you think *it should be in five years (in the future)* in order to be highly successful. You will also note that the two instruments are identical except for the response column—i.e., now and preferred.

2.1. Figure 2.1: The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument—Current/Now.

2.1.1. Dominant characters	Now
A. The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.	
B. The organization is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out (to do) and take risks.	
C. The organization is very results-oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement -oriented.	
D. The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.	
Total	100

2.1.2. Organizational Leadership	<i>Now</i>
A. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating or nurturing.	
B. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovation or risk-taking.	
C. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify an aggressive (determined/forceful to succeed), results-oriented focus.	
D. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing or smooth-running efficiency.	
Total	100
2.1.3. Management of Employees	<i>Now</i>
A. The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.	
B. The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom and uniqueness.	
C. The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands and achievement.	
D. The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability and stability in relationships.	
Total	100
2.1.4. Organizational Glue	<i>Now</i>
A. The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust, commitment to this organization runs high.	
B. The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge (the newest, most advanced stage in development).	
C. The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment	
D. The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running operation is important	
Total	100

2.1.5. Strategic Emphasis	<i>Now</i>
A. The organization emphasizes human development, high trust, openness and participation persist.	
B. The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.	
C. The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace (providing superior quality services) are dominant.	
D. The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.	
Total	100
2.1.6. Criteria of Success	<i>Now</i>
A. The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people	
B. The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products/services. It is a product/service leader and innovator	
C. The organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace/providing superior quality service and outpacing the competition/satisfying customer demand. Competitive market/service leadership is key.	
D. The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production/service are critical.	
Total	100

2.2. Figure 2.2: The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument—Preferred.

2.2.1. Dominant characters	<i>Preferred</i>
A. The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.	
B. The organization is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place people are willing to stick their necks out(to do) and take risks.	

C. The organization is very results-oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement -oriented.	
D. The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.	
Total	100
2.2.2. Organizational Leadership	
	<i>Preferred</i>
A. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating or nurturing.	
B. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovation or risk-taking.	
C. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify an aggressive (determined/forceful to succeed), results-oriented focus.	
D. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing or smooth-running efficiency.	
Total	100
2.2.3. Management of Employees	
	<i>Preferred</i>
A. The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.	
B. The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom and uniqueness.	
C. The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands and achievement.	
D. The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability and stability in relationships.	
Total	100
2.2.4. Organizational Glue	
	<i>Preferred</i>
A. The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust, commitment to this organization runs high.	
B. The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge (the newest,	

most advanced stage in development).	
C. The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment	
D. The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running operation is important	
Total	100
2.2.5. Strategic Emphasis	
	<i>Preferred</i>
A. The organization emphasizes human development, high trust, openness and participation persist.	
B. The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.	
C. The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace (providing superior quality services) are dominant.	
D. The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.	
Total	100
2.2.6. Criteria of Success	
	<i>Preferred</i>
A. The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people	
B. The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products/services. It is a product/service leader and innovator	
C. The organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace/providing superior quality service and outpacing the competition/satisfying customer demand. Competitive market/service leadership is key	
D. The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production /service are critical.	
Total	100

3.1.3.1 The written job description provided by organization reflects your current functions.

- Strongly disagree.* *Undecided.* *Agree.*
 Disagree. *Strongly agree.*

3.1.3.2 In your organization, employees were informed changes in the professional standard requirement(s) related to the job(s).

- Strongly disagree.* *Undecided.* *Agree.*
 Disagree. *Strongly agree.*

3.1.3.3. In your organization, the evaluation was objective and job(s) related.

- Strongly disagree.* *Undecided.* *Agree.*
 Disagree. *Strongly agree.*

3.1.3.4. In your organization, employees know when the next evaluation is going to be held.

- Strongly disagree.* *Undecided.* *Agree.*
 Disagree. *Strongly agree.*

3.1.4. Employee Sanctions

3.1.4.1. What is your opinion about that in your organization no one is exceptional and staff members who have found violating the rules and regulations been disciplined in accordance with their deed?

- Strongly disagree.* *Undecided* *Agree*
 Disagree *Strongly agree.*

3.1.4.2. In the past three to five years staff in your organization been disciplined for which of the following reasons? (*Ticking more than one item is possible*).

- Poor work performance.* *Embezzlement.*
 Insubordination. *Accepting bribes.*
 Lack of discipline. *Doing another job (moonlighting).*
 Absence from work without leave.

3.1.4.2 Overall, staff in your organization been sanctioned more often for performance related issues than others.

- Strongly disagree.* *Undecided.* *Agree.*
 Disagree. *Strongly agree.*

3.1.5. Autonomy In Personnel and Budgetary Issues

3.1.5.1. You do have an adequate freedom in the performance of your duties.

- Strongly disagree.* *Undecided.* *Agree.*
 Disagree. *Strongly agree.*

3.1.5.2. Your organization has the discretion in deciding where to cut or increase its budget.

Strongly disagree. *Undecided.* *Agree.*
 Disagree. *Strongly agree.*

3.2. External Factors

3.2.1. Specificity of the organization's Tasks

3.2.1.1. The instructions and policies from different parts of the government complement each other than it presents conflict.

Strongly disagree. *Undecided.* *Agree.*
 Disagree. *Strongly agree.*

3.2.1.2. In your organization, the staff have a say in and freedom to disagree with the Policies that your organization is asked to implement.

Strongly disagree. *Undecided.* *Agree.*
 Disagree. *Strongly agree.*

3.2.2. Political Interference

3.2.2.1. Your organization receive political pressure frequently to perform tasks in a way that it would not have otherwise done.

Strongly disagree. *Undecided.* *Agree.*
 Disagree. *Strongly agree.*

3.2.2.2. Overall, to what extent would you agree or disagree that employees with connections to political and influential people in the government or your organization have advantages at work than employees without such connections?

Strongly disagree. *Undecided.* *Agree.*
 Disagree. *Strongly agree.*

3.2.3. Client Demand and Oversight

3.2.3.1 In your organization, everyone think that our clients have the right to complain to the next higher office if they are dissatisfied with services of our organization.

Strongly disagree. *Undecided.* *Agree.*
 Disagree. *Strongly agree.*

3.2.3.2. Including your organization, what is your opinion about that public organizations should disclose their every expenditure and performance to the public?

Strongly disapprove. *Undecided.* *Approve.*
 Disapprove. *Strongly approve.*

3.2.3.3. What is your opinion of it is the press's role to ensure that your organization is accountable to the public?

success parties).					
4.1.3. Success stories about teams and employees working to the new order which staff were then heard to repeat and exchange. How well did you hear such stories?					
4.1.4. Performance related pay, reward and Promotion systems.					
4.1.5. Appraisal scheme that assesses new behavior.					
4.1.6. Use of new procedures, rules, and regulations.					
4.1.7. How well the leaders themselves consistently exhibited their theory in practice and the new behavior required of employees?					
4.1.8. Employee question and answer sessions or schemes or surveys.					
5.1.9. Line staff actively involved in redesign of processes and decision of the culture change model to be employed.					
4.2.10. Regular communications (written, verbal or video) to employees about the organization's ethics, codes of practice, standards, etc					
4.2.11.. Support scheme to staff speaking out when ethics, standards, or codes of practice are violated.					
4.2.12. Group therapy or organizational Development for change.					
4.2.13. Regular communications to employees about the underlying organizational mission and how BPR is related to it.					
5.2.14. Regular communications to employees about what was now considered important, for example superior service, customer value, etc.					

5.2.15. Therapy to help individual employees discuss their emotional responses and explore the root causes.					
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4.2. For what reasons did the BPR project in your organization include the most used techniques stated above in question 5.2 (*Please tick the alternative(s) being the reason(s) and ignore any item that doesn't apply*):

<p>4.2.1 Because it is suggested by :</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Staff</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Management</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Consultants</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Competitors</p>
<p>4.2.2 Because they are:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Actions that staff could easily see</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Previously used to good effect</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Important for speed of implementation and results</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Important to gain staff commitment</p> <p>Other (please state)_____.</p>
<p>4.2.3. Were any consultants used (please tick):</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Psychologist</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Sociologist</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Change Management</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Human Resource Management</p> <p>Other (Please state)_____.</p>

4.3. Please indicate the extent to which the cultural change initiated and/or the BPR project resulted in the following employee improvements (*Please tick only one column you may think the most appropriate for each item*):

<i>Type of Improvements</i>	<i>Extent of Improvements</i>				
	<i>Very low</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>Undecided</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Very high</i>
4.3.1. Results oriented					
4.3.2. Customer focus (internal or external)					

customer).					
4.3.3.Creation of innovative ideas					
4.3.4.Commitment to the organization					
4.3.5.Cooperative team working					
4.3.6.Acceptance and use of responsibility					
4.3.7.Acquisition and use of new knowledge and skills.					

4.4. Employees have feelings about how to value and treat people and their relationships, goods and resources, the environment, etc. as well as ideas about the meaning and purpose of life, work, and society and business (*Please tick **only one column** you may think the most appropriate for each item*).

<i>Item</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Un decided</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>
4.4.1. Do you think it is possible to change these more deeply held values and beliefs so as to align them to the organizational mission?					

Would you qualify please your response to question 4.4.1 _____
_____.

A lot of thanks for your time and cooperation!!

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Thank you in advance for your time and cooperativeness!!

Interview Guide Questions

1. How do you explain the existing relationships of people at different levels and performance of the organization?
2. What internal and external factors do you think that are influencing the daily functions or performance as well as the behaviors, values, and beliefs of the people in your organization?
3. Would you explain the major roles plaid and/or actions emphasized by the leaders to create, or develop, or change organizational culture while introducing and implementing the BPR project in your organization?
4. What organizational and cultural change techniques were employed within the areas impacted by BPR project to make organizational members address that level's need for change, heighten their awareness of their own behavior patterns, and make them more open to the change process?
5. Would you explain what and the extent to which the BPR project resulted in your organizational members behavioral improvements?