RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND
EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION AMONG NURSES IN THE
AGONA DISTRICT

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RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND
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DISTRICT

BY

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Dissertation submitted to the Department of Management Studies of the
School of Business, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment for the
award of Master of Business Administration (Human Resource Management)

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DECLARATION

Candidate’s Declaration

I hereby declare that this dissertation is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate’s signature ……………………… Date …………………..

Candidate’s Name: Aminu Alhassan

Supervisor’s Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the dissertation were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of dissertation laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Signature…………………… Date…………………………

Supervisor’s Name: Mr. John E. Seddoh
ABSTRACT

The study examined the relationship between organizational culture and employees’ job satisfaction among nurses at the Ghana Health Service in the Agona district in the Central Region of Ghana. The descriptive and cross-sectional designs were adopted in the study. A representative sample size of 169 was selected out of 300 total population for the study. Self-developed questionnaire was used for data collection. The descriptive statistics was used to analyse the data including means, standard deviations, frequencies and percentages. Bivariate correlation analysis was conducted to identify the relationships. The product-moment correlation coefficient (r) was used for the analysis. The results revealed that the nurses had high level of satisfaction about the level of organizational culture dimension and job satisfaction. The study also revealed that the nurses were satisfied with their job. The results revealed a significant positive relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction. It is recommended that employers, organisations, leaders, Ghana Health Service and government agencies responsible for recruitment and employment should try as much as possible to develop and maintain good organizational culture. Ghana Health Service authorities particularly, health administrators; Hospital Management Teams should encourage nurses and give them some support and organizing of regular staff meetings to share views and concerns, and development programmes to increase job satisfaction and to promote work efficiency.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research would not have been completed without the help of some personalities. I would like to express my sincerest heartfelt gratitude to my supervisor, Mr. John E. Seddoh, who read through the draft and commented in detail on the work, without which I might not have been able to come out with such a work.

Special thanks go to the nurses who accepted to be part of the study and whose contributions have made this research work possible. Finally, to all those who have contributed in diverse ways to making this research a success, I say thank you.
DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my family and relatives for their support.
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

The concept of organisational culture is becoming more and more important in recent days to many organisations because of its perceived impact on employee performance and job satisfaction. The culture of an organisation affects the way in which people behave and has to be taken into account as a contingency factor in any programme for developing organisations and Human Resource policies and practices (Armstrong, 2009). This is why it is important for Human Resource specialists to understand the concept of organisational culture, how it affects organisations and how it can be managed (Armstrong, 2009). Applications of organisational behaviour and the effective management of human resources are dependent not only upon the nature of the industry or business, but also upon the characteristic features of the individual organisation and its culture (Mullins, 2010).

The pervasive nature of culture in terms of ‘how things are done around here’ and common values, beliefs and attitudes will therefore have a significant effect on organisational processes such as decision making, design of structure, group behaviour, work organisation, motivation and job satisfaction, and management control (Mullins, 2010).

Culture has been defined as a collection of traditions, values, policies, beliefs, and attitudes that constitute a pervasive context for everything we do and think in an organisation (Mclean & Marshal, 1993). According to Schein (1999), culture is the property of a group that is formed when the group
develops enough common experience. He stated that culture is very important phenomenon because it is an unconscious set of forces, determining both individual and collective behaviours, values, thought patterns, and ways of perceiving.

At the organisational level, Schein (1999) stated that organisational culture is very critical because cultural elements determine strategy, goals, and modes of operating. He postulated that for organisations to become more efficient and effective, the role that culture plays in an organisational life must be fully understood because decisions made without awareness of the operative cultural forces may have anticipated undesirable consequences.

Harris and Mossholder (1996) on their part point out that organisational culture stands as the center from which all other factors of human resource management derive. It is believed that culture influences individual’s attitudes concerning outcomes, such as commitment, motivation, morale, and satisfaction. Wallach (1983) has suggested that individual job performance and favourable job outcomes, including job satisfaction, propensity to remain with the organisation, and job involvement, depend upon the match between an individual’s characteristics and the organisation’s culture. According to Peters (1982) success of the organisation depends on the brilliance or excellence of the organisational culture.

Furnham and Gunter (1993) opine that culture represents the ‘social glue’ and generates a ‘we-feeling; thus counteracting processes of differentiations that are an unavoidable part of organisational life. Organisational culture offers a shared system of meanings which is the basis for communications and mutual understanding. If these functions are not
fulfilled in a satisfactory way, culture may significantly reduce the efficiency of an organisation (Furnham & Gunter, 1993).

In recent years, there has been a growing understanding that organisational culture is related to an organisation’s performance (Davies, Mannion, Jacobs, Powell, & Marshall, 2007; Gifford, Zammuto, & Goodman, 2002; Scott, Mannion, Davies & Marshall, 2003). As a result, health care reform proposals have called not only for structural changes in the way health care is delivered but for cultural changes as well (Scott, Mannion, Davies, & Marshall, 2003b). Organisational culture in health care organisations has gained increased consideration as an important factor that influences the quality of health care (Scott et al., 2003b). The interest in organisational culture is related to the recognition that cultural changes are needed alongside the structural changes to establish gains in quality care. Organisational culture is described by Robbins and Coulter (2005) as the shared values, beliefs, or perceptions held by employees within an organisation or organisational unit. Because organisational culture reflects the values, beliefs and behavioural norms that are used by employees in an organisation to give meaning to the situations that they encounter, it can influence the attitudes and behaviour of the staff (Scott-Findlay & Estabrooks, 2006).

Understanding the organisation’s core values can prevent possible internal conflict (Watson, Clarke, Swallow & Foster, 2005), which is the main reason for research into these cultural issues. In other management fields, empirical research of organisational culture has involved the functionalist perspective, providing impressive evidence of the role of organisational culture in improving performance (Denison & Mishra, 1995). The
pervasiveness of an organisational culture requires that management recognize its underpinning dimensions and its impact on employee-related variables, such as job satisfaction (Lund, 2003), organisational commitment (Casida & Pinto-Zipp, 2008) and performance (Denison, Haaland & Goelzer, 2004).

Lund (2003) believes that less research was done on the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction within the research topic of organisational culture and outcome. The organisation consists of the staff, with the behaviour of its individual members affecting outcomes. Since cultural research within the nursing field is not common (Kook & Green, 2000), it is necessary to explore the way the culture influences the behaviour of the nursing staff, and in turn how the behaviour of the staff influences the organisational outcome.

Organisations represent the most complex social structures known today because of their dynamic nature. Employees are one of the role players in the organisation, and it is through their involvement and commitment that the organisation becomes competitive. The relationship between the organisation and people is however interdependent in nature (Boeyens, 1985; Kerego & Mthupha, 1997), and both parties may impact on one another’s ability to achieve positive results. Extensive research proved that job satisfaction does not happen in isolation, as it is dependent on organisational variables such as structure, size, pay, working conditions and leadership, which constitute organisational climate (Schneider & Snyder, 1975; Kerego & Mthupha, 1997; Peterson, 1995; Boeyens, 1985). Organisational climate and organisational culture although much more difficult to change can be promoted to facilitate the achievement of job satisfaction and organisational goals. The measurement
of climate and culture can serve as a starting point in diagnosing and influencing such change in the organisation.

Statement of the Problem

Organisational culture and job satisfaction are not new concepts but rather areas that have been extensively studied by numerous scholars in the extant literature (Brazil, Wakefield, Dorothy, Cloutier, Tennen & Charles, 2010; Sarbri, Ilyas & Amjad, 2011; Frazier, 2013; Tsi, 2011; Emerson, 2013; Mansoor & Tayib, 2010; Chang & Lee, 2007; Rad, 2006; Navaie-Waliser, 2004; Mekinnon, 2003; Jiang & Klen, 2000). The relationship between job satisfaction and job performance has been studied extensively throughout the history of industrial/organisational psychology (Judge, Thoresen, Bono & Patton, 2001). It has been referred to as the “Holy Grail” of industrial/organisational psychology (Landy, 1989). The connection between workplace attitudes and behavioural outcomes continues to be a prevalent research topic (Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006; Schleicher, Watt, & Greguras, 2004), and stems from classic industrial/organisational and social psychological theory.

Despite these considerable body of organisational literature that has been conducted to examine the relationship between organisational culture and employees’ satisfaction in various countries as well as industries, organisations, and government agencies, there is very little literature that recognizes organisational culture studies within the area of health care, particularly on how job satisfaction amongst nurses in Ghana is affected by organisational culture dimensions.
This study, therefore, sought to fill this gap in the literature by examining the relationship between organisational culture and employees’ job satisfaction among nurses at Ghana Health service in Agona district in the Central Region of Ghana.

Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the study is to examine the relationship between organisational culture and employees’ job satisfaction among nurses at Ghana Health Service in the Agona district in the Central Region of Ghana. Specifically, the study sought to:

1. Determine the levels of organisational culture dimension and job satisfaction among nurses at Ghana Health Service;
2. Determine the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction;
3. Assess the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction;
4. Make recommendations on practical ways of improving job satisfaction at Ghana Health Service.

Research Questions

The study sought to address the following research questions:

1. What are the levels of organisational culture dimensions and job satisfaction among nurses at Ghana Health Service?
2. What is the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction?
3. What is the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction?

**Hypotheses:**

1. There is a significant positive relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction.

2. There is a positive relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction.

**Significance of the Study**

The findings of the study would be a basis for management to maintain or improve the level of job satisfaction among employees of Ghana Health Service. It will also add to the stock of knowledge in research and will create the opportunity for other researchers to make further studies. Both the private and public sector organisations that are interested in matching organisational culture and job satisfaction among employees will benefit from the findings of this study. It will also provide an in depth understanding of the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction for organisations interested in matching employees with organisational culture.

**Delimitations**

The study is limited to nurses in the Agona district. This scope of coverage was to help the researcher to do an in-depth examination of the related themes such as organisational culture, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment.
Limitations

Every human institution is not hundred per cent accurate. There are the shortcomings, conditions or influences that cannot be controlled by the researcher that place restrictions on the methodology and conclusions. Limitations that were encountered and influenced the research were language barriers, organisational access, and transparency of questionnaire feedback, time constraints, and tools for analysis. These were well acknowledged by the researcher and made all possible measures to overcome them and made the research successful.

The descriptive design was used for the study. Notwithstanding the strengths of descriptive survey, it has its own weakness. The main weakness of descriptive survey is that, it is not sufficiently comprehensive to provide answers. Also, the descriptive survey cannot establish cause and effect relationships. More so, the research cannot deduce conclusively the cause of the phenomena or predict what the future phenomena will be.

Although descriptive survey design in the opinion of McMillan (1996), cannot help the researcher to establish a causal relationship between variables, it was used to conduct this study because it enabled the researcher to observe, describe and interpret the prevailing factors that were associated with the topic under study.

Organisation of the Study

The study is organised into five (5) chapters. The background to the study, statement of the problem, objective of the study, significance of the
study, scope of the study and the organisation of the study make up chapter one. Chapter two is the literature review. This chapter provided the theoretical and empirical review. Chapter three focuses on the research methodology used in the study. It describes the type of data used and the method of data collection. The sample size and the procedures adopted in selecting the sample as well as the method of analyzing the data. Chapter four examines and discusses the results and main findings with reference to the literature. Finally, chapter five is devoted to the summary, conclusions and recommendations as well as areas of further research.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to review the literature so as to present theoretical as well as the empirical frameworks for the study. The chapter, therefore, captures the opinions, observations and assessment of some other studies on the subject of study. The review specifically was categorized under the following sub-headings: organisational culture, types of organisational culture, measuring organisational culture, organisational commitment, job satisfaction, organisational culture and job satisfaction and an empirical review.

Organisational Culture

Culture itself is a product of a group of people living at the same place and having similar attitudes and behaviour. People who belong to a certain culture share similar norms, history, religion, values and artifacts which distinguish them from others (Gjuraj, 2013). Therefore, there are numerous national cultures and even more subcultures, providing certain types of organisation and action. In modern societies, however, culture is considered to be a tangible or intangible environment in which a group of people live and work together (Gjuraj, 2013). In organisational analysis, culture describes the influence and interaction among employees and between employees and the specific institution, organisation or service they work in. Hence, contemporary organisations and companies are considered to be social groups, and in this way their function should be studied and promoted.
Studying an organisation’s specific culture is fundamental to the description and analysis of organisational phenomena (Tharp, 2009). Organisational culture has been a subject of investigation for many decades, as the fact that distinctions between values and expectations of employees with different cultural backgrounds had always been clear (Tayeb, 1996). Black et al., (1992) have come to the conclusion that problems that are likely to come up during international business activities and working settings are wrongly attributed to professional incompetence, while they most probably occur due to the employees inability to perceive other people’s ideas and attitudes and adapt to foreign strategies.

Human resources of each organisation before and after entering the organisation have some desires and needs (Keith & Newstrom, 1989). It is obvious that their dynamics and fulfilling the needs with the aim of satisfaction, increasing the work motivation, loyalty and stay in the organisation requires a good background in which the common concepts and beliefs are prevalent among all the employees and managers and the behaviour of these resources is managed to be consistent with the organisation goals and maximum use of knowledge, capability and their attitude. These common perceptions and concepts of the organisation members affecting their behaviour are called organisational culture (Robbins, 2005). Hoy and Miskel (2008) on their part considered organisational culture as a system of orientations keeping the society or organisational unit connected and give a distinct identity to it.

Cameron and Quinn (2006) believed that organisational culture is consisting of the main values, assumptions and interpretation of the
approaches defining the characteristics of an organisation. And four types of organisational culture are as following: The first ideal form of organisational culture is clan culture. The characteristic of clan culture of team work is the participation of the staff and organisational commitment. Working groups receive reward based on group performance not personal and staff are encouraged to improve their work and organisations in a powerful environment. In clan culture, the environment is friendly and the people share the work and the organisation is similar to a wide family. The leaders and supervisors of the organisation are mentors and facilitators of the affairs and the glue that maintains the organisation together is loyalty, tradition and beliefs. The commitment is prevalent in the staffs of the organisation and the organisation emphasizes on the development of human resources and correlation of the morale of people (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

Boeyens (1985) and Hutcheson (1996) viewed organisational climate as the description of the organisation’s “objective” variables like structure, size, policies and leadership style, by the employees. For employees on the other hand, it constitutes the organisation’s context as they experience it. Controversy exists amongst researchers regarding the distinction between organisational culture and climate. Some researchers use the terms interchangeably, while others (Bouditch & Buono, 1990; Hutcheson, 1996; Clapper, 1995; and Desatnick, 1986) supported the differences between these terms. Organisational culture defines a set of expected behaviour patterns that are generally exhibited within the organisation. These norms have a great impact on the behaviour of the employees. Organisational climate on the other
hand is a measure of whether the employees’ expectations about working in the organisation are being met (Schein, 1984).

Schein (1984) defined organisational culture as the pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration. These “valid” behaviours are therefore taught to new members as the “correct way” to perceive, think and feel in relation to problems, issues and decisions. Schein (1984) maintains that in order to understand the culture of the organisation, researchers need to delve into the underlying assumptions of the organisation. By studying these assumptions, researchers are able to bring to the fore objective data, which will facilitate the understanding of an organisation’s culture. Schein (1984) maintains that culture exists at both the cognitive and emotional level, and he viewed behaviour as a manifestation of culture. For researchers to understand the culture of the organisations they need to assess the broader cultural paradigm of the society within which the organisation operates as this influence the manner in which the organisation operates.

Organisational culture is deeply rooted within the organisational system, as it is a process, which evolves over a long time. An organisation’s culture determines the way the organisation conducts its business, and as a result also influences its processes. Because of its deep-rooted nature, the culture of the organisation is difficult to change, as there is often resistance against giving up something, which is valued and has worked well in the past.

Some researchers (Desatnick, 1986; Schneider, 1990; Balkaran, 1995; Al–Shammari, 1992; Van der Post, de Coning & Smith, 1997) referred to
culture as the “personality” of the organisation, while Gutknecht and Miller (1990) described it as the organisation’s soul, purpose and foundation. According to Schneider (1983), it is viewed as the organisation’s value systems and assumptions which guide the way the organisation runs its business. Schein (1984) on the other hand, referred to it as “glue” which serves as a source for identity and strength, while Gutknecht and Miller (1990) viewed it as “oil” for lubrication of organisational processes. New employees have to go through a socialization process to adapt to the organisation culture.

Organisational culture and climate are however interdependent and reciprocal in nature since climate is to a certain extent the manifestation of organisational culture. Organisational climate is the way employees view the organisational “personality”, that is, its processes (Toulson & Smith, 1994), and it provides a “snapshot” or a summary of how employees view the organisation (Desatnick, 1986). Organisational culture is concerned with the expectations that employees may have on the organisation, while climate measures whether those expectations are being met (Hutcheson, 1996).

With numerous definitions suggested for organisational culture, many researchers have come to the agreement that it refers to a system of values, beliefs and behaviour shared among employees (Deshpande & Webster, 1989; Ravasi & Schultz, 2006; Xiaoming & Junchen, 2012). The most popular and concise definition is most probably the one that has been formed by Schein (2004), who stated that: “Organisational culture is the pattern of basic assumptions that a group has invented, or discovered in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and that have 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. According to him, culture is a dynamic process, resulting from the interaction among others and promoted by leadership behaviours. It encompasses a set of structures, routines, rules and norms that guide and constrain behaviour (Schein, 2004). Another successful and perhaps more specific- definition of organisational culture has been given by Claver et al., (2001), according to which organisational culture is a set of values, symbols and rituals, shared by the members of a specific firm, which describes the way things are done in an organisation in order to solve both internal management problems and those related to customers, suppliers and environment.

Tharp (2009) has noted some common features among the definitions that have been given to organisational culture through the years. First of all, they all include the concept of sharing; indicating that organisational culture is only developed within groups even small ones. Secondly, organisational culture is considered to be a social construction, related to each organisation and employees’ location, history, working environment and specific events. Finally, many definitions imply that organisational culture is multidimensional and multileveled and includes many cognitive and symbolic strata.

What is more, Schein (2004) has distinguished three locations where an organisational culture is likely to be found: (1) Observable artifacts: They refer to an organisation’s specific attitudes, beliefs and behaviours and may include its location and architecture, technologies and products, mission statement and values, individual style dress code of employees, language and jargon, practices and stories, and even the employees’ sense of humor, taboos, or special rituals and ceremonies.(2) Espoused values: They are vindicated by
the organisation’s superiors and may or may not be reflected in the employee’s actual behaviour. An organisation’s leadership should have significant influential skills, in order to make such values acceptable by employees. These values allow organisational members to interpret signals, events and issues that guide behaviour. (3) Basic underlying assumptions: They refer to interpretative personal schemes used for perceiving situations, creating the basis for collective action. They develop over time, while members of a group create strategies to face problems and pass them along incoming members. Should superiors of an organisation succeed in passing their schemes and values to the employees, those values may become so ingrained and taken-for-granted that employees act in certain ways unconsciously, while they experience the feeling of security and the sense of belonging.

**Types of Organisational Culture**

During the study of organisational culture, researchers have distinguished many different types, in order to describe the format and function of institutions and organisations. Deal and Kennedy (1982) had suggested four types of organisational culture, referring to the organisation’s strategies and expectations from employees: (1) The Tough-Guy, Macho culture: employees who belong to this type of culture usually work under a lot of pressure and are considered to be eager to take risks in order to fulfill their personal ambitions and their organisation’s goals. (2) The Work Hard/Play Hard culture: in organisations with this type of culture, the behaviour of employees revolves around the needs of customers and is characterized by high speed action in order to get quick results. (3) The Bet-Your-Company
culture: this type of culture refers mainly to the character of the institution or company, which is likely to make carefully planned, yet risky, choices and investments. (4) The Process culture: the last type of organisational culture is based on precision, detail and technical perfection, low risk investments and low levels of anxiety among employees.

Another four types of organisational culture have been suggested by Xenikou and Furnham (1996), referring to the organisation’s goals and decision-making: (1) The Openness to change/innovation culture: this type of culture is human-oriented and promotes affiliation, achievement, self-actualization, task support and task innovation. (2) The Task-oriented culture: organisations with this type of culture focus on detail and quality of products or services, while superiors are characterized by high ambitions and chase success. (3) The Bureaucratic culture: this type of culture is rather conservative and employees are characterized by centralized decision making. (4) The Competition/Confrontation culture: organisations with this type of culture are highly competitive, goal-oriented, while superiors chase perfection and achievement.

Daft (2001) suggested another four types of organisational culture, based on environmental requirements: (1) Entrepreneurial Culture: Organisational strategic focus is external so that it acts to meet needs and requirements of clientele and customers in a dynamic and variable environment. It creates changes and innovation, risk ability, prospect, group working, freedom and autonomy. (2) Involvement Culture: It is focused on participation and involvement of organisational members and environmental expectations which vary promptly and it creates sense of accountability,
ownership and further commitment to organisation in personnel. (3) Mission Culture: It takes service to customers in outside environment into consideration. It does not need to rapid changes and instead personnel are accountable for performance up to certain level. (4) Bureaucratic Culture: It is focused internally and adapted to a fix environment. In such a culture, personnel’s involvement is low but supervision and control over environment are high. Some factors like organisational discipline and rank and position and observance of hierarchy are highly important in this culture.

Denilson, Haaland, and Goelzer (2004) have distinguished four traits types of an organisation’s subcultures: (1) Adaptability: creating change, customer focus, organisational learning. (2) Mission: strategic direction and intent, goals and objectives, vision. (3) Consistency: core values, agreement, coordination and integration. (4) Involvement: empowerment, team orientation, capability development. Another model of organisational culture types has been developed by Cameron and Quinn (2006). They suggested four types of culture which refer mainly to the relations among employees: (1) The Hierarchical culture: this type of culture is considered to be well coordinated, characterized by formal rules and policies. (2) The Market culture: organisations that adopt this type of culture aim to be highly competitive, while winning is the “glue” that holds the employees and the organisation together. (3) The Clan culture: this type of culture refers to a friendly and “cosy” working environment, where the working force is perceived as an extended family and the superiors are perceived as mentors; employees are characterized by high job and organisation commitment and develop friendly relations. (4) The Adhocracy type: this type of culture is characterized by
innovation and risk taking, assured by a highly creative and dynamic working environment.

Chatman, Polzer, Barsade, and Neale (1998) mention two different types-dimensions of organisational culture: Individualism and Collectivism, which are likely to influence the process of employees’ social categorization. Individualistic organisational cultures focus on and reward employees’ personal accomplishments, individual characteristics and abilities. This dimension is rather flexible, as employees are allowed and encouraged to behave in their own personal way. Therefore, organisational membership is not salient and personality traits are appreciated. As Markus and Kitayama (1991) put it, individuals maintain their independence from others by attending to the self and by discovering and expressing their unique inner attributes.

Collectivistic organisational cultures, on the other hand, are characterized by a general agreement of acceptable actions and behaviours, which assure shared objectives, interchangeable interests and commonalities among employees. The main priority of collectivistic cultures is independence and cooperation, so organisational memberships form a basis of social categorization. In addition, employees are likely to accept harsh criticism if they deviate from the culture’s norms (Triandis, 1995), so simply being a member of the organisation may be enough to qualify an employee as an in-group member (Wagner, 1995). However, since collectivistic organisational cultures focus on common targets and aspirations, employees may perceive their internal disagreements as constructive, rather than threatening for the organisation’s success. On the contrary, disagreements and challenges in the
frame of individualistic organisational cultures are likely to be taken more personally and be perceived as competitive (Axelrod, 1984).

So far it has been made clear that although the concept of organisational culture is not easily captured and defined, it is an observable and significant aspect of an organisation’s function. Since it includes the employee’s shared beliefs, values, behaviours and symbols, it strongly affects individual decisions and group actions. Organisational culture could possibly be perceived as a compass which provides the institution with direction. It offers a kind of informal language for the interpretation of issues and events; it ensures a sense of order and reduces employees’ uncertainty.

Despite the variety of definitions and models suggested for the content and types of organisational culture, similar descriptions and characteristics can be found. For instance, organisational cultures and its subtypes mainly refer to the organisation’s hierarchy and structure, goals and investment policies. In addition, the working conditions and employees’ behaviours are taken into consideration, while the importance of internal relations is significant. Additionally, the organisation culture of an institution seems to reflect its inner coherence and completion and external function and adjustment (Schein, 1991). In general, it can be said that organisational culture is defined in terms of employees and superiors, products, processes and leadership’s espoused values. It includes the institution’s experiences, general expectations, internal philosophy and values that hold the working force together and is reflected in its image, external interactions and future plans. Therefore, the type of an institution’s organisational culture affects its function and general well-being. For this reason, the phenomenon is considered to be multidimensional and
appertains to the fields of psychology, sociology, human resource studies, as well as business administration and management, marketing, product development and advertising (Blake & Lawrence, 1989).

**Measuring Organisational Culture**

Apart from the various types and models that have been suggested for the description of organisational culture, quite a big number of instruments for the measurement of organisational culture have been developed as well. In the last few decades, both academics and practitioners in management science have focused on studying possible ways to measure the dimensions of organisational culture and how such measures relate to the effectiveness and competitiveness of an organisation (Mobley et al., 2005). Harrison (1975) developed an inventory to address both the existing and the preferred culture within an organisation called the Harrison’s Organisational Ideology Questionnaire. The inventory consists of 15 items assessing the ideology which has been developed by an organisation’s employees in terms of four dimensions, orientation to power, roles, tasks and individuals. Respondents are asked to rank four statements in each of the 15 items in terms of how representative they are both of the organisation and of their own attitudes.

Another famous instrument of measuring organisational culture is the Organisational Culture Inventory (OCI), developed by Cooke and Lafferty (1987). It includes 120 items which assess shared norms and expectations that are likely to affect the ways of thinking and behaviour of group members, resulting 12 styles: humanistic/helpful, affiliative, approval, conventional, dependent, avoidance, oppositional, power, and competitive,
competence/perfectionalist, achievement, and self-actualization. After analyzing those styles, three factors arise: people/security culture, satisfaction culture and task/security culture. In 1987 as well, Glaser, Zamanou and Hacker carried out the Organisational Culture Survey, designed to address six empirical factors: teamwork and conflict, climate and morale, information flow, involvement, supervision, meetings. It includes 31 items and the responses were given in a 5-point scale.

In 1990, Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv and Sanders carried out a qualitative and quantitative study of 20 cases using Hofstede’s Organisational Culture Questionnaire. The questionnaire included 135 items given in 5-point scales, which were based on three values: need for security, importance of work and need for authority. Within these, there are six factors relating to practice issues: process vs outcome, employees vs task, parochial vs professional, open vs closed system, loose vs tight control, normative vs pragmatic.

In the mid-1990’s, McKenzie’s Culture Questionnaire (1995) was developed in the frame of National Health Service. It includes 76 items and respondents tick each statement that they consider to be broadly true of their organisation. The questionnaire assesses various factors: employees’ commitment, attitudes to and belief about innovation, attitudes to change, style of conflict resolution, management style, confidence in leadership, openness and trust, teamwork and cooperation, action orientation, human resource orientation, organisational direction. In 1996, Walker, Symon and Davies published the Corporate Culture Questionnaire, evaluating four principal domains: performance, human resources, decision-making and relationships.
There are two versions of the Questionnaire, one of 69 and another of 126 items, each given in a 5-point Likert-type scale.

Buckingham and Coffman (2000) suggested the Core Employee Opinion Questionnaire which addressed 13 issues of business units, companies and other organisations: overall satisfaction, understanding of expectations, access to required resources, appropriate use of skills, recognition and praise for achievements, relationship with supervisors, encouragement for self-development, perceptions of worth, engagement with organisational mission, commitment of all employees, friendship appraisal, opportunities for career progression. Cameron and Quinn (2006) created the famous Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI), based on the four culture types mentioned above. The evaluation of a culture is made through those four core values, in a 2 x 2 competing values, Flexibility and discretion opposing Stability and control and Internal focus and integration versus External focus and differentiation.

According to Jones et al., (2006), internal versus external focus separates the organisational improvements driven by mostly internal business processes and people caring from the ones caused by external stakeholder wishes. Stability versus flexibility distinguishes between organisations that are more stable and organisations that promote innovation, personal growth, continuous organisation improvement and change. The competing values cross upon six dimensions: Dominant characteristics, Organisational leadership, Management of employees, Organisational glue, Strategic emphasis and Criteria of success.
Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment has been categorized into various forms. They include; affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment. Affective commitment according to Allen and Meyer (1990) is the emotional attachment of an employee to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. Affective commitment in this regard is the extent to which employees are involved with and have attached emotionally to their organisations because they identify with the goals and values of their organisations (Addae, Parboteeah & Velinor, 2008). It is the affective bond that an individual feels toward the organisation, characterized by identification and involvement with the organisation as well as enjoyment in being a member of the organisation (Bergman, 2006). Individuals with a high level of affective commitment continue to work for an organisation because they want (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Furthermore, affective commitment is developed mainly from positive work experiences from employees, such as job satisfaction and organisational fairness, and is associated with desirable outcomes, such as higher levels of organisational citizenship behaviours, and lower levels of withdrawal behaviours like absenteeism and tardiness (Wasti, 2002).

Also, normative commitment in the view of Buchko, Weinzimmer and Sergeyev (1998) is as an obligation of an employee to remain with an organisation. It is based upon generally accepted rules about reciprocal obligations between organisations and their employees. This is based on “social exchange theory”, which suggests that a person receiving a benefit is under a strong “normative”, that is rule governed obligation to repay it in some
way. Thus the receipt by the employee of something “over and above” what they might normally expect from their employer, places them under a social obligation to repay it in some way (McDonald & Makin, 2000).

Similarly, Buchko, Weinzimer and Sergeyev (1998) viewed continuance commitment as the perceived cost associated with leaving an organisation. To them the most important determinant of this is side-bets and other investments. Continuance may comprise “personal sacrifice” associated with leaving, and “limited opportunities” for other employment (McDonald & Makin, 2000). Generally, employees will be satisfied with their jobs and committed to their organisations if they are content with the nature of the work itself, are satisfied with their supervisor and co-workers, and if they perceive current pay policies and future opportunities for promotion within their firm to be adequate (Reed, Kratchman & Strawser, 1994). Employees with high levels of organisational commitment are more work-oriented than other employees. They get more satisfaction from work and view their jobs as fulfilling more of their personal needs. As a result, they are willing to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation (Van Scotter, 2000).

**Job Satisfaction**

An overview of the job satisfaction construct is provided in the endeavour to understand the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational climate and culture. Locke (1976) defines job satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences. Schneider and Snyder (1975) on the other hand defined job satisfaction as a personal evaluation of conditions present in the job, or
outcomes that arise as a result of having a job. Job satisfaction thus, has to do
with an individual’s perception and evaluation of his job, and this perception
is influenced by the person’s unique circumstances like needs, values and
expectations. People will therefore evaluate their jobs on the basis of factors,
which they regard as being important to them.

Locke (1976) explains that for researchers to understand the job
attitudes, they need to understand job dimensions, which are complex and
interrelated in nature. He mentioned the common dimensions of job
satisfaction as “work, pay, promotions, recognition, benefits, working
conditions, supervision, co-workers, company and management” (Locke,
working conditions like, clear staffing policy, clear channels of
communication, staff participation in decision making, security and good
governance as having adverse effects on job satisfaction. Since Job
satisfaction involves employees’ affective or emotional feelings, it has major
consequences on their lives. Locke (1976) described the most common
consequences of job satisfaction on employees as, the effects on the physical
health and longevity; mental health and an impact on the employees’ social
life in general. He further maintains that there is an interaction between the
employees’ feelings about his job and his social life. Coster (1992) also
supports the fact that work can have an important effect on the total quality of
life of the employee. Job satisfaction may also impact on employee behaviour
like absenteeism, complaints and grievances, frequent labour unrest and
termination of employment (Locke, 1976; Visser, Breed & Van Breda, 1997).
Job Satisfaction and Organisational Culture

There has been a long debate amongst researchers regarding the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction. Many researchers have found supporting evidence about the relationship between these two concepts (Schneider & Snyder, 1975; Field & Abelson, 1982; Hellriegel & Slocum, 1974; Kerego & Mthupha, 1997). Kerego & Mthupha (1997) views job satisfaction as the evaluation of the organisational context, while organisational climate provides a description of the work context. They defined job satisfaction as the feeling of employees about their job. Hutcheson (1996) on the other hand referred to it as the difference between the outcomes, which a person actually receives and those that he expects to receive. Job satisfaction is thus related to job characteristics and people will evaluate their satisfaction level according to what they perceive as being important and meaningful to them. The evaluation of the different aspects of the job by employees is of a subjective nature, and people will reflect different levels of satisfaction around the same factors.

An organisation’s well-being is described as the way in which its function and quality are perceived by employees (Warr, 1992). It includes the employees’ physical and mental health, sense of happiness and social well-being, which are all attributed with the term “job satisfaction” (Grant et al., 2007). Job satisfaction is one of the most frequently investigated variables in organisational culture, behaviour and other occupational phenomena, ranging from job design to supervision (Spector, 1997). In general, job satisfaction encapsulates an employee’s feeling about his/her job. Research, however, has revealed that job satisfaction is a multidimensional phenomenon, influenced
by several internal and external factors, like the individual’s values, principles, personality and expectations and the job’s nature, the opportunities provided (Davies et al., 2006). Many different components of job satisfaction have been defined and studied, in the frame of a general effort to analyze and promote it.

**Empirical Review**

Research studies (Kerego & Mthupha, 1997; Robbins, 1993; Hutcheson, 1996) supported the five main job satisfaction dimensions as pay, nature of work, supervision, promotional prospects and relations with co-workers. Since the job dimensions are components of the organisation, and represents its climate, job satisfaction is an evaluation of organisational factors. Job satisfaction describes the feelings of employees regarding the environmental factors, climate factors, while organisational climate provides only a description of the work context. Some researchers believed that job satisfaction level increases as employees’ progress to higher job levels (Corbin, 1977). Kline and Boyd (1994) however indicated that managers at a higher level of the organisation are satisfied with the salary, but less satisfied with promotional opportunities. The study also revealed that organisational variables like structure do not affect employees in the same way.

Two schools of thought seem to exist in terms of the measurement of job satisfaction. Chetty (1983) warns that researchers should guard against singling out certain variables as the sole contributory factors to job satisfaction of employees. He indicated that both family and other social factors affect employees, and this would also have an impact on their performance and satisfaction at work. On the other hand it is also argued that because of the
multidimensionality of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction it should rather be measured in terms of the individual dimensions instead of a global construct (Robbins, 1993; McCormick & Ilgen, 1987; Kerego & Mthupha, 1997). Measurement of individual dimensions of job satisfaction enables researchers to identify the environmental factors (climate variables) related to certain dimensions of job satisfaction.

Schneider and Reichers (1983) conducted research on the relationship among organisational climate and job satisfaction, production and turnover indexes amongst five financial institutions. The findings of their study revealed that climate and satisfaction measures correlates for people in certain positions and not for others. A relationship between satisfaction and production was not found, while satisfaction correlated with turnover. Kline and Boyd (1994) conducted a study to determine the relationship between organisational structure, context and climate with job satisfaction amongst three levels of management. Their study revealed that employees at different levels of the organisations are affected by different work factors. Based on the outcome of this study, they recommended that different aspects of the work environment be looked into when addressing the issues of job satisfaction amongst different positions in the same organisation.

Peters and Waterman (1982) have noted that the elements of an organisation’s culture decide its possibilities of success, while the research of Kotter and Heskett (1992) study revealed that the stronger an organisation culture is, the more likely it is to last through the change and replacement of employees. Moreover, it must be stated that no organisational culture type is considered to be better than another. The value of each type is measured by a
specific organisation’s well-being, total function and goal achievement. For example, the study of Chuah and Wong (2012) showed that in order to control a clan type organisational culture, the organisation’s leaders should employ significant resources and authority to influence the building and leveraging of the clan. The leaders “controllers” access a large amount of resources that are used to guide others for project outcomes, but also promote the build-up for shared structures, cognition and relationships that smooth the development of a clan control that strengthen or inhibit clan norms.

Other authors, like Rud (2009) focus on collaborative leadership teams, which are essential for commitment to strategic use of information, regardless the organisational culture type, in order to reinforce knowledge process. Based on Heskett’s state that “organisational culture can account for 20-30% of the differential in corporate performance when compared with ‘culturally unremarkable’ competitors”, Coleman (2013) has distinguished six common components of successful types of organisational culture: (1) Vision: A specific goal or mission provides an organisation with purpose, which guides employees’ decisions and improves relations with customers and suppliers. (2) Values: The values of an institution are the core of its culture. They provide guidelines to the employees, so that communication among colleagues is promoted, professional standards are held high and the institution’s vision is achieved. (3) Practices: The specific values of an organisation should be followed by equivalent practices, which should be reinforced in review criteria and promotion policies, so that they become part of the organisation’s everyday life. For example, if an institution’s culture is hierarchical and “flat”, junior team members should be encouraged to dissent
in discussions without fear or negative repercussions. (4) People: The values of an organisation should be embraced by both its existing and future employees and therefore the recruiting policies should focus on people who are not only talented, but suitable for the organisation’s specific culture type. (5) Narrative: An organisation’s unique history should be identified, shaped and retold as part of its ongoing culture. (6) Place: An integral element of an organisational culture is its location and working environment, perceived in terms of geography, architecture and aesthetic design. All those factors are very likely to influence the employees’ values and behaviours, and thus promote the organisation’s performance and effectiveness.

Spector (1997) reviewed the most popular job satisfaction instruments and summarized the following facets of job satisfaction: appreciation, communication, co-workers, fringe benefits, job conditions, nature of the work itself, the nature of the organisation itself, organisation’s policies and procedures, payment, personal growth, promotion opportunities, recognition, security and supervision. The study of Doughty, May et al. (2002) showed that the most appreciated job satisfaction factors were job involvement, cohesion among colleagues, support from superiors and opportunities for autonomous action. The counterpart factor revealed by the study of Castillo and Cano (2004) was the work itself, while working conditions were reported to be the less important factors. Other factors of job satisfaction reported in the study of Ambrose et al. (2005) were salaries, mentoring and promotion opportunities. Literature review shows that job satisfaction is a complex phenomenon, which does not happen in isolation, but depends on organisation variables, like
structure, size, salary, working conditions and leadership, all of them constituting organisational climate and culture (Boyens, 1985).

Organisational culture can be promoted to facilitate the achievement of job satisfaction and organisational goals. The measurement of culture can serve as a starting point in diagnosing and influencing such change in the organisation. The research of Koustelios (1996) revealed that there is no statistically significant difference between employees of different types of organisational cultures and different types of institutions. In every institution, the prevailing culture seems to be the so-called culture of power, which means that there is a central source of influence and authority either one person or a group of people. This source affects job satisfaction in terms of working conditions, colleagues, institution as a whole and promotion opportunities. Furthermore, the organisational culture of power seems to be the most appropriate for the ultimate aim of management, the identification of the goals of the employees and those of the institution. Employees who are able to work in small groups tend to be more efficient and productive, thus promoting the institution’s function and competition (Deal & Kennedy, 1988, as referred in Koustelios, 1996).

The first researches on the relation between organisational culture and job satisfaction suggested that a productive working environment promotes the construction of a specific organisational culture and the experience of employees’ job satisfaction (Hellreigel & Slocum, 1974, Schneider & Synder, 1975). In addition, they implied that job satisfaction increases as employees’ progress to higher job levels (Corbin, 1977). In the 1980’s, the study of Schneider and Reichers (1983) found a correlation between organisational
climate and job satisfaction for employees in certain job positions, as well as a relation between satisfaction and turnover. According to them (1983) organisational culture is a combination of value system and assumptions which lead an organisation to run its business. McCormick and Ilgen (1987) suggested that the measurement of individual dimensions of job satisfaction enables researchers to identify the environmental factors (climate variables) related to certain dimensions of job satisfaction.

During the 1990’s, the studies of Robbins (1993) and Hutcheson (1996) suggested that, since the dimensions of job satisfaction are components of an organisation, job satisfaction is an evaluation of organisational culture. The latter described job satisfaction as the difference between the outcomes that an employee expects to receive and those that he/she actually receives. Therefore, job satisfaction is related to job characteristics and evaluated according to what employees perceive as being important and meaningful to them. The evaluation of the different aspects of the job by employees is thus subjective, and people will reflect different levels of satisfaction around the same factors.

Kousteisios (1991) reviewed a number of investigations correlating job satisfaction with several aspects of organisational culture: organisation size, employees’ background, attitudes and national culture. In addition, he found that there was a significant difference in job satisfaction among employees who operate in different organisational cultures. Also, he found that when employees have a match-up between their present and desired culture, they are more satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of their work.
The study of Kline and Boyd (1994) revealed that employees at different levels of the organisations are affected by different work factors. In particular, different aspects of the working environment should be looked into when addressing the issues of job satisfaction amongst different positions in the same organisation. Kerego and Mthupha (1997) described job satisfaction as the evaluation of the organisational context, while organisational climate and culture provide a description of the work context.

In the 2000’s the results of a number of researches revealed the clear relation between organisational culture and job satisfaction (Jiang & Klen, 2000; Mckinnon et al., 2003; Navaie-Waliser et al., 2004; Rad et al., 2006; Arnold & Spell, 2006; Chang & Lee, 2007; Mansoor & Tayib, 2010). The study of Sempane et al. (2002) revealed a significant relation between organisational culture and the variables of job satisfaction, as the latter was found to be able to predict employees’ perceptions of organisational culture. Many of them perceived some aspects of organisational culture more positively, for example, organisational integration, customer orientation than some others such as conflict resolution, disposition towards change, locus of authority, management style and task structure).

The study of Shurbagi and Zahari (2012) found that the relationship between the four types of organisational culture (Clan, Adhocracy, Market and Hierarchy culture) and the five facets of job satisfaction (Supervision, Benefits, Rewards, Operating and Co-Workers satisfaction) was positive and significant. For the measurement of job satisfaction in the frame of organisational culture, several inventories have been developed. One of the
most widely known and used is the Employee Satisfaction Inventory (ESI) (Koustelios, 1991; Koustelios & Bagiatis, 1997).

The inventory was created using Greek employees as a sample. It included 24 questions, which measure six dimensions of job satisfaction: Working conditions, earnings, promotions, nature of work, immediate superior, and the institution as a whole. The responses were given in a five-level Likert scale: 1 = I strongly disagree, 5 = I strongly agree. The structure, manufacturing validity, reliability and internal consistency of the inventory have been supported by studies of human resources occupations, like public employees (Koustelios & Bagiatis, 1997) and teachers in Primary and Secondary Education (Koustelios & Kousteliou, 2001; Koustelios & Kousteliou, 1998).

Employees’ feeling of job satisfaction has also been studied in parallel with a specific dimension of organisational culture, leadership. Studies have shown that in organisations which are flexible and adopt the participative management type, with emphasis in communication and employees’ reward, the latter are more likely to be satisfied, resulting in the organisation’s success (Mckinnon et al., 2003).

According to Schein (1992), there is an interactive relationship between the leader and the organisational culture. The leader creates an organisation which reflects specific values and beliefs, a fact that leads to the creation of a specific culture. However, a culture is usually dynamic rather than static. As it evolves, therefore, it affects the actions and tactics of the leader. Hence, it could be said that, although the leader creates the culture primarily, he/she is the one who evolves through this process, and so are the
leadership tactics he/she applies. The two main types of leadership in organisations which are likely to influence the employee’s job satisfaction are the transactional and the transformational one. The transactional kind of leaders are the ones who tend to act within the frame of the prevailing culture, while the transformational kind of leaders often work towards change and adaptation of the culture to their own vision. Brown (1992) has stressed that a good leader must have the ability to change those elements of organisational culture that impede the performance of a company.

Ogbonna and Harris (2000) found that leadership is indirectly linked to performance, while the specific characteristics of an organisational culture (e.g. competitiveness, originality) are directly linked to it. Chang and Lee (2007) investigated the connection and interaction between leadership style, organisational culture and job satisfaction among 134 private field employees, including bank employees. According to the results, leadership style and organisational culture were very likely to influence employees’ job satisfaction positively, especially when the latter shared their leaders’ vision in the frame of a transformational leadership style. As a result, employees and superiors cooperate not only for the organisation’s well-being, but also for their personal completion, especially if the “clan” or the “task assignment” organisational culture is applied.

Riaz et al., (2011) have come to similar conclusions in their study of the effect of transformational leadership on employees’ job commitment. More specifically, they found strong positive interaction between those two elements, and suggested that bank managers should adopt the transformational leadership style in order to increase employees’ commitment to the banking
institution. Bushra et al., (2011) investigated the relation between transformational leadership and job satisfaction among 133 bank employees in Pakistan. They found that transformational leadership had a positive impact on the general job satisfaction experienced by 42% of participants, indicating their preference for this particular leadership style. In general, transformational leadership seems not only to influence job satisfaction, but also to determine job commitment (Emery & Barker, 2007); the relation between job commitment and job satisfaction has been proven to be reciprocal, anyway (Riaz et al., 2011). The influence of this type of leadership lies in the ability of the leaders to promote those values related to goal achievement and emphasize on the impact of the employees’ performance on the latter. Transformational leaders inspire employees to work harder, providing them with the idea of a common vision, in the frame of which the company’s well-being is strongly related to their personal evolvement and completion (Shamir et al., 1998; Givens, 2008).

According to the investigation, carried out by Aydogdu and Asikgil (2011), on the employees working in the service and production industry, a significant relationship was discovered between affective commitment and internal and external job satisfaction. Similar to this finding, it is realized that there is also a significant relationship between normative commitment and external and internal job satisfaction. Whereas a negative relationship was found out between internal job satisfaction and normative commitment; contrary to the expected findings, they found out a significant and positive relationship between external job satisfaction and continuance commitment. Dirani and Kuchinke (2011) investigated the relationship between job
satisfaction and organisation commitment in five Lebanese banks. Results of the research showed that satisfaction and commitment were significantly correlated and satisfaction was a good predictor of commitment.

In similar vein, Ahmad and Oranya (2010) aimed to examine the relationship between nurses’ job satisfaction and organisational commitment in culturally and developmentally different societies, Malaysia and England. According to results, there was a positive and significant correlation between job satisfaction and total organisational commitment for both countries. With regard to the three dimensions of organisational commitment, the result showed no significant correlation between continuance commitment and job satisfaction in the Malaysian hospital, whereas in the English hospital continuous commitment had a significant negative correlation with job satisfaction.

Markovits et al., (2010), found out that extrinsic satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction were more strongly related to affective commitment and normative commitment for public sector employees than for private sector ones. On the other hand, a study conducted by Tsai, Cheng and Chang (2010) showed that job satisfaction positively influenced organisational commitment on hospitality industry employees’ in Taipei city, Taiwan.

Likewise, Silva (2006) investigated the relationship between the job satisfaction and organisational commitment on hospitality employees. The results showed that significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment was found. Buchko, Weinzimmer and Sergeyev (1998) investigated the relationship between the job satisfaction and organisational commitment in a privatized Russian organisation. According to
the result, there was positive and significant correlation between five dimensions of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Similarly, Glisson and Durick (1988) found out positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment in the research on human service workers in human service organisations.

**Conclusion**

Based on the above overview of the literature and a number of research studies (Schneider & Snyder, 1975; Hellreigel & Slocum, 1974) within a production environment it is clear that some relationship exists between the constructs organisational culture, climate and job satisfaction. Little evidence could however be found of similar studies in the service industry. Due to the problems experienced within the subject organisation the need for such a study was evident.
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter presents the procedures and techniques that were employed to conduct the study. It comprises a discussion of the study area, the research paradigm, the research design, the study population, the sample size and sampling techniques, procedure, the research instrument used to collect the data, data collection procedure, limitations and analysis of data are also described in this chapter.

Research Approach

Quantitative approach is from the positivist perspective, which is a process directed towards the development of testable hypothesis and theories which are generalisable across settings. A quantitative approach is based on information that can be measured. Techniques used under this approach include survey questionnaires and standardised research instruments (Tewksbury, 2009). The study used quantitative research approach. Quantitative approach is adopted because of its correct outstanding prediction characteristics (Tewksbury, 2009).

Research Design

A research design, according to Fraenkel and Wallen (2000), refers to all the processes needed for collecting and analyzing data gathered for a research. Two separate designs, the descriptive and correlational designs were employed in this study. Merriam (1998) states that the descriptive research
design’s key concern is for the understanding of the phenomenon of interests from the participants perspectives, not the researcher’s. She further observed, that “descriptive studies are undertaken because there is lack of theory, or existing theory fails to adequately explain a phenomenon”. Best and Khan (1993) stated that descriptive research limits generalization to the particular group of individuals observed and that no conclusions are extended beyond this group. This design was used because it provides a meaningful picture of events and seeks to explain people’s perceptions and behaviour on the basis of information obtained at a point in time.

Finally, correlational research design attempts to investigate possible relationships among variables without trying to influence those variables. According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2000), the variables to be included in a correlational study should be chosen based on a sound rationale growing out of experience or theory. In its simplest term, correlational study attempts to determine whether and to what extent or degree a relationship exists between two or more quantifiable variables. The purpose of this design is that it explains important human behaviours and characteristics in quantitative terms and how they relate. It also helps in prediction of events.

In this study, a descriptive and cross-sectional study design was used. The study adopted descriptive research design because it would help the researcher to obtain information concerning the status of the phenomena and describe “what exists” with respect to variables or conditions being investigated (Babbie, 2005).

The cross sectional survey was used because it helps to describe attitudes, opinions, behaviours or characteristics of a group being investigated.
The study is utilising the cross-sectional design because the researcher investigates the issues involved in this study at a point in time (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000).

**Target Population**

The target population for the study included all nurses in the Agona district in the Central Region of Ghana. The nurses were selected because of their deep and adequate knowledge in the issue under investigation. The target population was limited to only nurses in the district because of the resource constraints and also for the reason of proximity (Fening, Pesakovic & Amaria, 2008). The target population was 300 nurses in the study area.

**Sample and Sampling Procedure**

One of the fundamental requirements in determining the sample size is to calculate the population size of the target population. The Krejcie and Morgan (1970) sample size determination formula was used to determine the sample size for the study. The formula is:

\[ S = \frac{X^2NP (1 - P)}{d^2(N - 1) + X^2P (1 - P)} \]

Where:
- \( S \) = required sample size
- \( X^2 \) = chi-square for the specified confidence level at 1 degree of freedom
- \( N \) = Population size
- \( P \) = Population proportion (.50 in this table)
- \( d^2 \) = Desire margin of error (expressed as a proportion)
Table 1
Required Sample Size Table

<table>
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<th>Population size</th>
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<th>Confident 99% Margin of error -5.0%</th>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Krejcie and Morgan (1970)

Out of the target population of 300 nurses in the Agona district in the Central Region, a sample of 169 was selected for the study using Krejcie and Morgan (1970) sample size determination formula.

A simple random sampling technique was used to select the nurses. Random sampling ensures that each member of the target population had an equal and independent chance of being selected (Babbie, 2005). This technique is a probability technique. The researcher used this method because it best represents all groups of the target population in the sample. The random sampling also ensures high reliability of sample, high degree of
representativeness, and allows for generalisation of research findings (Babbie, 2005).

**Research Instrument**

The researcher used questionnaire to collect data from the respondents. The instruments were structured into sections based on the objectives. Five point Likert type scale of ‘Not at all = 0’, ‘Very low = 1’, ‘Low =2’, Moderate=3 ‘High = 4’, Very high = 5. This research instrument made it possible for the researcher to obtain detailed information on the issue under study.

**Validation of Instrument**

The instruments were pretested to ensure its reliability and where necessary, effect early modification as suggested by cooper and schindler (2001). According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2000), an instrument is valid if it measures what it is intended to measure and accurately achieves the purpose for which it was designed. They added that validity should involve the appropriateness, meaningfulness, and usefulness of inferences made by the researcher on the basis of the data collected.

The instruments were first given to my supervisors for comments and suggestions to ascertain validity and reliability of the instruments based on the research objectives. After the supervisor’s comments and constructive criticisms, some refinements were made where necessary. Sarantakos (2007) also found that pre-test are small tests of single elements of the research instruments, which are predominantly used to check eventual mechanical problems of the instruments.
Pre-testing of Instruments

Pre-testing of instruments on a sample of respondents drawn from the target population is useful in fine tuning aspects of the questions that could otherwise make it difficult for respondents to interpret questions as intended (Foddy, 1995). Borg and Gall (1996) have stressed the need for pre-testing of survey instruments before administering the instruments to the respondents.

The researcher did a pre-testing of the study among thirty nurses in Sweduro. The reliability of the instruments was confirmed by examining the individual test items with the Crombach’s alpha (Borg & Gall, 1996). The Crombach alpha values for the pre-test were 0.83 and 0.83 for the first and second set of the questionnaires respectively. This value is in line with that of Tavakol, Mohagheghi, and Dennick (2008) that the acceptable values of alpha, ranges from 0.70 to 0.95. Hence, the alpha value of 0.83 was accepted and used for the study.

Reliability of the Instrument

The pre-test was conducted to determine the reliability of the instrument. To determine the internal consistency of all Likert-type scales, Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was used. Cronbach alpha coefficient normally ranges between 0 and 1. The closer the coefficient is to 1.0, the greater is the internal consistency of the items in the scale. The interpretation scale by George and Mallery (2003) was used for the test.

> 0.9 = Excellent,
> 0.8 = Good,
> 0.7 = Acceptable,
> 0.6 = Questionable,
> 0.5 = Poor, and
< 0.5 = Unacceptable.

Procedure for Data Collection

The administration of the instrument preceded by a letter of introduction which was requested from the University of Cape Coast, and intended to introduce the researcher to the respondents and their institution. The respondents were assured of confidentiality, anonymity of information given and guaranteed that information provided would only be used for academic purpose. The researcher also met one on one with the respondents to agree on convenient time for administration of the instrument.

The main instrument for the collection of data for the study was structured interview schedule. The researcher agreed with the respondents on the day and time for the completion of the questionnaires. The researcher made follow up visits to the respondents who have delays in completing their questionnaire and reiterate the importance of their participation in the study.

As regards to the distribution, administration and collection of the instruments, the researcher use a period of two weeks.

Data Collection

Data was collected by the researcher with the help of trained enumerators. The Researcher trained enumerators on how to use the structured interview schedules. Nurses were visited either in the field or at home. With help from Ghana Health Service, the list and details of the nurses in the district
were obtained in order to facilitate identification and meetings/visits with the nurses.

**Data Management and Analysis**

Data from the structured interview schedule were properly scrutinized for validity and reliability through data coding, editing and entering to minimise errors and discrepancies that can affect the results of the study. Thus, Data cleaning, a method of fine-tuning the data entered was adopted to fine-tune the data entered. All these provided valid and reliable information for analysis of the topic and decision-making.

Data was analysed using Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) version 21. In the data processing, preliminary analyses were conducted to get rid of potential violation of important model assumptions for instance, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and multicollinearity. Prior analysis of the data, items that were negatively worded was first reversed so that they sit proper with the model and reduce response bias.

The descriptive statistics was used to analyse the data including means, standard deviations, frequencies and percentages. According Glass and Hopkins (1996), descriptive statistics involves tabulating, depicting, and describing collections of data. They state that descriptive statistics provide very simple summaries about the sample of study and the measures. The responses for research question one was analysed using descriptive statistics while hypothesis were analysed using correlation. The items were coded and fed into a computer and the SPSS programme was used to analyze the data.
Ethical Procedures

Access and ethics are critical aspect of the conduct of a research of this nature. The researcher’s ability to collect data from respondents depended on gaining access to appropriate and relevant sources. The researcher emphasize to respondents that the study is purely academic.

As etiquette demands, the respondents were informed of their role in providing valued information, and the purpose for which the information is going to be used. The respondents were further given assurance of anonymity and confidentiality, and were also informed of the voluntary nature of the survey. To enforce confidentiality, anonymity and privacy, questionnaire content did not request for personal identification. Similarly, final report would not make comments about individual responses. Therefore, the findings of the study would be treated with strict neutrality and presented as such.
CHAPTER FOUR
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction
This chapter deals with the presentation and discussion of the results that were drawn from the data collected in order to find answers to the research questions. The chapter is in two sections. It comprises discussions of both preliminary and major findings. The results are discussed in relation to the research questions as well as the literature review.

Respondents’ Background Characteristics
This section basically gives background information about respondents. It deals with the sex, age, level of education, and years of experience of the respondents.

Table 2
Respondents’ Background Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>29.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>71.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>85.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certificate</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>63.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>86.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results depicted in Table 2, indicated that majority of the nurses were females representing 120 (71.0%) and 49 (29.0%) were males. This means that there were more female nurse respondents than male nurses in the Ghana Health Service in Agona district in the Central Region of Ghana.

With regard to age of the respondents, the results revealed that the majority 144 (85.2%) of the respondents fell between the ages of 31-40 years, 19 (11.2%) being between the ages of 20-30 years, and 6 (3.6%) were between 41-50 years. The results suggest that, most of the nurses in the Ghana Health Service in Agona district in the Central Region of Ghana were in their youthful ages. Age as a demographic feature is very important in seeking for job for most people in the country since it requires people of a particular age group that have the zeal and are prepared to work.

With respect to the level of education, the findings indicated that most of the respondents 107 (63.3%) had diploma. Whereas 38 (22.5%) of the respondents had degree, 17 (10.1%) had masters and 7 (4.1%) had certificate in nursing. This implies that most of the nurses in the Ghana Health Service in Agona district in the Central Region of Ghana were diploma holders. Furthermore, it was realized from the study that most of the respondents were professional nurses. This suggests that majority of the nurses in the Ghana Health Service in Agona district in the Central Region of Ghana were professional nurses. This shows that majority of the nurses possessed the qualifications necessary for the study. The results of this study indicated that the nurses had obtained the skills, knowledge and competencies that were desirable to support their job competency.
This study was equally interested in finding out the number of years of experience of the nurses in the Ghana Health Service in Agona district in the Central Region of Ghana. The results of the study indicated that the majority 146 (86.4%) of the respondents had 6-10 years of experience in nursing, while 19 (11.2%) had between 1-5 years of experience as nurses, and 4 (2.4%) of the respondents had above 10 years of experience. The results revealed that the nurses in the Ghana Health Service in Agona district in the Central Region of Ghana had at least some level of experience in nursing. Since most of them have been in the field for over 5 years, these years of experience is long enough to conclude that they had gained much experience for their job and will be able to determine either they were satisfied or not.

**Organisational Culture Dimension**

The study sought to find out from the nurses the level of organisational culture dimension in the Ghana Health Service in Agona district in the Central Region of Ghana. Respondents were asked to indicate the level of organisational culture dimension of the Ghana Health Service in the Agona district. The responses of the respondents are presented in Table 3.
### Table 3
Organisational Culture Dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisational culture dimension</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The way nurses behave at work place is very attracting</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary and benefits package given to nurses made me to like nursing</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The recognition and rewards for nurses by my employer is good</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The job security for employees in Ghana Health Service is encouraging</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The management style in Ghana Health service is good</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is confidence in leadership, openness and trust, in the hospital</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is teamwork and cooperation among nurses and other staff of the hospital</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The culture of decision-making and relationships in the hospital is good</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Overall Mean= 3.323**


The results from Table 3 indicate that the nurses in the Ghana Health Service in Agona district in the Central Region of Ghana had high level of
satisfaction about the organisational culture dimension of the nursing job (\( \bar{X} = 3.323 \)). An organisation’s culture determines the way the organisation conducts its business, and as a result, also influences its processes and the level of satisfaction of its employees. So when employees are satisfied with the organisational culture at their workplace, it leads to job satisfaction.

The results are in line with that of Keith and Newstrom (1989) and Robbins (2005) that human resources of each organisation before and after entering the organisation have some desires and needs which will determine their level of satisfaction, and one of these is organisational culture. It is obvious that the dynamics of organisational culture of employees and fulfilling the needs with the aim of satisfaction, increasing the work motivation, loyalty and stay in the organisation. This requires a good background in which the common concepts and beliefs are prevalent among all the employees and managers and the behaviour of these resources is managed to be consistent with the organisational goals and maximum use of knowledge, capability and their attitude.

Consistent with the finding of the result is the finding of Kotter and Heskett (1992) whose study revealed that the stronger an organisation culture is, the more likely it is to last through the change and replacement of employees. They added that no organisational culture type is considered to be better than another. The value of each type is measured by a specific organisation’s well-being, total function and goal achievement. Based on this, Kotter and Heskett (1992) concluded that organisational culture can account for 20-30% of the differential in corporate performance when compared with ‘culturally unremarkable’ competitors.
The findings of Chuah and Wong (2012) confirmed this, when they concluded that in order to control a clan type organisational culture, the organisation’s leaders should employ significant resources and authority to influence the building and leveraging of the clan. The leaders “controllers” access a large amount of resources that are used to guide others for project outcomes, but also promote the build-up for shared structures, cognition and relationships that smooth the development of a clan control that strengthen or inhibit clan norms.

**Organisational Commitment**

The study went further and examined the level of organisational commitment of nurses in the Ghana Health Service in the Agona district in the Central Region of Ghana. The results are presented in Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisational commitment</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am willing to put in a great deal of effort in order to help this organisation to be successful</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel very little loyalty to this organization</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I find that my values and the organisation’s values are very similar</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This organisation really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Overall Mean= 3.258**

The results presented in Table 4, revealed that nurses in the Ghana Health Service in the Agona district in the Central Region of Ghana had high level of organisational commitment ($\bar{X} = 3.258$). These findings agreed with that of Van Scotter (2000) that employees with high levels of organisational commitment are more work-oriented than other employees. They get more satisfaction from work and view their jobs as fulfilling more of their personal needs. As a result, they are willing to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation.

The result is in line with that of Reed, Kratchman and Strawser (1994) that generally, employees will be satisfied with their jobs and committed to their organisations if they are content with the nature of the work itself, if they are satisfied with their supervisor and co-workers, and if they perceive current pay policies and future opportunities for promotion within their firm to be adequate. From the findings, it concluded that the organisational commitment of nurses in the Ghana Health Service in the Agona district in the Central Region of Ghana was good enough to give them job satisfaction.

**Job Satisfaction**

This study sought further to find out the level of job satisfaction among nurses in the Ghana Health Service in the Agona district in the Central Region of Ghana. Table 5 represents the results.
Table 5
Level of Job Satisfaction among Nurses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job satisfaction</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nursing is an interesting job to me</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am satisfied with my professional ability for doing my job</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am happy with cooperation I receive from hospital management team and workmates</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am satisfied with autonomy I have in making decisions about my daily tasks</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel comfortable with my present level of responsibility in my job</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy much freedom in my place of work</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am satisfied with in-service training opportunities available for me as a nurse</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel comfortable with rewards I get for doing a good job in the hospital</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am comfortable with the promotion opportunities available to me as a nurse</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel fairly paid by my employer</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Overall Mean = 3.449


With respect to nurses’ level of job satisfaction, the results revealed that nurses in the Ghana Health Service in the Agona district in the Central Region of Ghana were satisfied with their job ($\bar{X} = 3.449$). From the results, it can be deduced that most of the nurses were satisfied with their job. Thus, the findings of the study clearly indicated that nurses’ job satisfaction was at a high level to keep them in the profession. This confirms what has been said in the literature by Doughty, May et al., (2002) that the most appreciated job satisfaction factors were job involvement, cohesion among colleagues, support from superiors and opportunities for autonomous action. Castillo and Cano
(2004) findings also supported this in their study which revealed that job satisfaction variable was the work itself, while working conditions were reported to be the less important factors. Ambrose et al., (2005) findings revealed that other factors of job satisfaction were salaries, mentoring and promotion opportunities.

These findings are also in collaboration with the findings of Mckinnon et al., (2003) study which concluded that in organisations which are flexible and adopt the participative management type, with emphasis in communication and employees’ reward, the latter are more likely to be satisfied, resulting in the organisation’s success.

In this study, the researcher wanted to determine the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction; and the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction in the Ghana Health Service. Two hypotheses were formulated and used for the study. The results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Culture</th>
<th>Commitment</th>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>.667**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>.669**</td>
<td>.687**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**. Correlation was significant at (p< 0.01) (2- tailed)

Pearson product- moment correlation coefficient was employed to determine the relationships that existed between study variables and was subjected to two- tailed test of statistical significant. The correlation was significant at p< 0.01 probability level. Correlation coefficient (r) was
interpreted according to the guidelines recommend by Cohen (1988), that is, small ($r= .10 - .29$), medium/moderate ($r= .30 – .49$) and large ($r= .50 – 1.0$).

The results revealed high positive association between organisational culture and job satisfaction ($r= .669$, $n= 169$, $p< 0.01$). Also, there was large correlation between organisational commitment and job satisfaction ($r= .687$, $n= 169$, $p< 0.01$). Hence hypotheses which stated that “there is a significant positive relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction” and “there is a positive relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction” were supported.

This result suggested that, when the organisational culture is good it will lead to organisational commitment, hence job satisfaction. The result is consistent with the findings of (Coleman, 2013; Shurbagi & Zahari, 2012; Riaz et al., 2011; Bushra et al., 2011; Dirani & Kuchinke, 2011; Chang & Lee, 2007). All these researches found positive high relationship between organisational culture, organisational commitment and job satisfaction among different categories of employees. In similar vein, the results of a number of researches revealed that there is a clear relation between organisational culture and job satisfaction (Jiang & Klen, 2000; Mckinnon et al., 2003; Navaie-Waliser et al., 2004; Rad et al., 2006; Arnold & Spell, 2006; Chang & Lee, 2007; Mansoor & Tayib, 2010).

The study of Sempane et al., (2002) supported the results when the study revealed a significant relation between organisational culture and the variables of job satisfaction, as the latter was found to be able to predict employees’ perceptions of organisational culture. Many of them perceived some aspects of organisational culture more positively, for example,
organisational integration, customer orientation than some others such as conflict resolution, disposition towards change, locus of authority, management style and task structure.

Ahmad and Oranya (2010) findings also supported the results of this study. They examined the relationship between nurses’ job satisfaction and organisational commitment in culturally and developmentally different societies, Malaysia and England. According to results, there was a positive and significant correlation between job satisfaction and total organisational commitment for both countries.

Markovits et al., (2010) also found out that extrinsic satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction were more strongly related to affective commitment and normative commitment for public sector employees than for private sector ones. On the other hand, a study conducted by Tsai, Cheng and Chang (2010) showed that job satisfaction positively influenced organisational commitment on hospitality industry employees’ in Taipei city, Taiwan. Likewise, Silva (2006) investigated the relationship between the job satisfaction and organisational commitment on hospitality employees. The results showed that significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment was found.

Conclusion

This section explained how the data collected was analysed and discussed in relation to the research questions. The presentation of the results and the findings were divided into preliminary and main findings. The preliminary section dealt with the background information of respondents,
whereas the second section discussed the main findings. The research questions were analysed and discussed in relation to the literature review. Conclusions were made based on the findings.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the research process as well as the key findings that emerged from the research. The chapter also contains the conclusions and recommendations that were made based on the findings of the study.

Summary

The main objective of the study was to examine the relationship between organisational culture and employees’ job satisfaction among nurses at Ghana Health Service in the Agona district in the Central Region of Ghana. Specifically, the study sought to:

1. Determine the levels of organisational culture dimension and job satisfaction among nurses at Ghana Health Service;
2. Determine the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction;
3. Assess the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction;
4. Make recommendations on practical ways of improving job satisfaction at Ghana Health Service.

The descriptive and cross-sectional survey designs were adopted to carry out the study. The accessible population for the study comprised all nurses in the Agona district in the Central Region of Ghana. A representative sample size of 169 was selected for the study using Krejcie and Morgan...
(1970) sample size determination formula. Self-developed structured interview schedule were used for data collection. Data was analysed using Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) version 21. The descriptive statistics was used to analyse the data including means, standard deviations, frequencies and percentages. Correlational analysis was conducted to identify the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction; and the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction. The product-moment correlation coefficient (r) was used for this analysis.

Key Findings

The findings of the study revealed that:

1. The majority of the nurses in the Ghana Health Service in Agona district in the Central Region of Ghana had high level of satisfaction about the level of organisational culture dimension of the nursing job. The results therefore suggest that the levels of organisational culture dimension and job satisfaction among nurses at Ghana Health Service was high.

2. The majority of the nurses in the Ghana Health Service in the Agona district in the Central Region of Ghana had high level of organisational commitment ($\bar{X} = 3.258$)

3. The results also revealed that nurses were satisfied with their job ($\bar{X} = 3.449$). The findings of the study clearly indicated that job satisfaction was good enough to keep the nurses in the profession.

4. The results revealed high positive correlation between organisational culture and job satisfaction ($r = .669$, $n = 169$, $p < 0.01$). Also, there was
significant positive correlation between organisational commitment and job satisfaction ($r = .687, n= 169, p < 0.01$). Hence hypotheses which stated that “there is a significant positive relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction” and “there is a positive relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction” were supported. This result suggested that, the higher the level of organisational culture and higher organisational commitment, the higher job satisfaction and the more likely employees would prefer to stay such organisation.

**Conclusions**

From the findings of this study, the following conclusions were made. First, since majority of the nurses had high level of satisfaction about the level of organisational culture dimension of the nursing job, it was therefore concluded that the level of organisational culture in the Ghana Health Service in Agona district in the Central Region of Ghana was high enough to make the nurses satisfied with their job. Also, the nurses were satisfied with their job. This could keep the nurses in the profession without intention to quit.

Also, it was realized that there was a positive high correlation between organisational culture and job satisfaction and large correlation between organisational commitment and job satisfaction among nurses in the Ghana Health Service in the Agona district in the Central Region. It can therefore be concluded that most of the nurses satisfied with their job and would not want to quit.
Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study and the conclusions that have been drawn, the following recommendations were made:

1. From the findings of the study, employers, organisations, leaders, Ghana Health Service, and government agencies responsible for recruitment and employment should try as much as possible to develop and maintain good organisational culture at the workplace to keep employees and nurses in their profession to improve job satisfaction and the quality of work. Better conditions of service should be provided by Ghana Health Service as an agency of government to motivate people to enter into nursing.

2. Though, the nurses were satisfied with their job, Ghana Health Service authorities particularly, health administrators; Hospital Management Teams should encourage nurses and give them some support and organizing of regular staff meetings to share views and concerns, and development programmes to increase job satisfaction and to promote work efficiency.

3. Nursing training institutions in Ghana should give appropriate professional training to nurses that would motivate them to enter into nursing and avoid quitting in the near future and increase their job satisfaction to retain them in the nursing profession. In-service training, refresher courses, and on the job training should be organised regularly by Ghana Health Service to help upgrade nurses to improve upon their professional and personal skills. This
would help to give the needed and expected recognition and job satisfaction.
REFERENCES


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APPENDIX

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR RESPONDENTS

Dear Sir/Madam,

This questionnaire is being used to gather information on relationship between organisational culture and employees’ job satisfaction among nurses at Ghana Health Service in Agona district in the Central Region of Ghana. This research is purely an academic exercise and your views and responses will contribute immensely towards the success of this exercise. Please, your anonymity is rest assured and all your views, responses and comments with regard to this study would be treated confidentially. Please, try as much as possible to be frank with your responses. Thank you for your co-operation.

Section A: Socio-demographic characteristics of Respondents

1. Sex: Male [ ] Female

2. Age of respondent: Between 20–30 [ ] Between 31–40 [ ] Between 41-50 [ ] 51 and above [ ]

3. Level of education: Certificate [ ] Diploma [ ] Degree [ ] Masters [ ]

4. Years of experiences: 1-5 [ ] 6-10 [ ] Above 10 [ ]
Section B: Organisational culture dimension

Please, respond to the following statements of organisational culture by ticking [✓] in the appropriate space using the following scale: ‘Not at all = 0’, ‘Very low = 1’, ‘Low =2’, Moderate=3 ‘High = 4’, Very high = 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The way nurses behave at work place is very attracting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Salary and benefits package given to nurses made me to like nursing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The recognition and rewards for nurses by my employer is good</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>The job security for employees in Ghana Health Service is encouraging</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>The management style in Ghana Health service is good</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>There is confidence in leadership, openness and trust, in the hospital</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>There is teamwork and cooperation among nurses and other staff of the hospital</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>The culture of decision-making and relationships in the hospital is good</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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Section C: Organisation commitment

Please, respond to the following statements on organisational commitment by ticking $[\sqrt{\cdot}]$ in the appropriate space using the following scale: ‘Not at all = 0’, ‘Very low = 1’, ‘Low =2’, Moderate=3 ‘High = 4’, Very high = 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I am willing to put in a great deal of effort in order to help this organisation to be successful</td>
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<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>I feel very little loyalty to this organization</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I find that my values and the organisation’s values are very similar</td>
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<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>This organisation really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance</td>
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Section D: Job Satisfaction

Please, respond to the following statements on job satisfaction by ticking $[\sqrt{\cdot}]$ in the appropriate space using the following scale: ‘Not at all = 0’, ‘Very low = 1’, ‘Low =2’, Moderate=3 ‘High = 4’, Very high = 5.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19  Nursing is an interesting job to me</td>
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<tr>
<td>20  I am satisfied with my professional ability for doing my job</td>
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<tr>
<td>21  I am happy with cooperation I receive from hospital management team and workmates</td>
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<td>22  I am satisfied with autonomy I have in making decisions about my daily tasks</td>
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<td>23  I feel comfortable with my present level of responsibility in my job</td>
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<td>24  I enjoy much freedom in my place of work.</td>
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<td>25  I am satisfied with in-service training opportunities available for me as a nurse</td>
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<td>26  I feel comfortable with rewards I get for doing a good job in the hospital.</td>
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<td>27  I am comfortable with the</td>
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<td>28</td>
<td>I feel fairly paid by my employer</td>
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<td>promotion opportunities</td>
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<td></td>
<td>available to me as a nurse</td>
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