

Organizational Involvement and Employees' Consumption of New Work Practices in State-owned Enterprises: The Ghanaian Case

M. Aminu Sanda, K. Ewontumah

Abstract—This paper explored the challenges faced by the management of a Ghanaian state enterprise in managing conflicts and disturbances associated with its attempt to implement new work practices to enhance its capability to operate as a commercial entity. The purpose was to understand the extent to which organizational involvement, consistency and adaptability influence employees' consumption of new work practices in transforming the organization's organizational activity system. Using self-administered questionnaires, data were collected from one hundred and eighty (180) employees and analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. The results showed that constraints in organizational involvement and adaptability prevented the positive consumption of new work practices by employees in the organization. It is also found that the organization's employees failed to consume the new practices being implemented, because they perceived the process as non-involving, and as such, did not encourage the development of employee capability, empowerment, and teamwork. The study concluded that the failure of the organization's management to create opportunities for organizational learning constrained its ability to get employees consume the new work practices, which situation could have facilitated the organization's capabilities of operating as a commercial entity.

Keywords—Organizational transformation, new work practices, work practice consumption, organizational involvement, state-owned enterprise, Ghana.

I. INTRODUCTION

PUBLIC expenditure for the up-keep of state-owned enterprises in most African countries, and especially in Ghana, have been observed to be less productive, due to the perceived notion that such enterprises have failed to yield corresponding positive returns, both directly and indirectly. In Ghana, State-owned Enterprises (SOE) have a long history of poor performances, requiring continuous massive subsidies, but delivering only intermittent and sub-standard services. The performances of most SOEs in Ghana have been associated with inefficiencies and low returns on investment as a result of poor operational performance, and managerial incompetence. Lack of technical expertise and poor management meant that

M. A. Sanda is with University of Ghana Business School, P. O. Box L G 78, Legon, Accra, Ghana (corresponding author, phone: +233 571 669 945; fax: +233 21 500024; e-mail: masanda@ug.edu.gh); and Luleå University of Technology, SE-97187 Luleå, Sweden (e-mail: mohami@ltu.se).

K. Ewontumah was with University of Ghana Business School, P. O. Box LG 78, Legon, Accra, Ghana. He is now with the Human Resource Management Unit, AngloGold Ashanti, Tarkwa, Western Region, Ghana (e-mail: bigkenmah@yahoo.com)

many of these SOE's were ineffective. Thus, the rationale for the commercialization of SOE's in Ghana was to improve their operational efficiencies and effectiveness through effective utilization of human and physical capitals. In this regard, there was the need to transform the organizational activity systems of the SOEs through their implementations of new work practices that could help enhance their capabilities to operating as efficient and effective commercial enterprises [1].

The act of transforming an organizational system can create conflicts and disturbances within an organization's activity system, due to some elements of the new work practice colliding with other elements in the work practice being changed in the organization. The negative consequences of such a collision on employees' perceptions and behaviours towards the successful management of work transformation can be enormous and challenging. In this regard, the issue of how to effectively manage conflicts and disturbances associated with the commercialization processes of Ghanaian SOEs is a key problem that needs to be explored. By implication, the challenge of management in an SOE to get employees, not to only consume new work practices, but also develop positive perceptions and attitudes towards the implementation of such practices need to be understood and remedied. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to understand the extent to which organizational involvement influenced employees' consumption of new work practices in a commercialized Ghanaian SOE. The underlying research question is as follows: To what extent did organizational involvement, organizational consistency, and organizational adaptability influenced employees' consumption of new work practices in the organization's transformation process towards commercialization?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The concept of consumption in an organizational activity system is explained by [2] as: "Production creates the objects which correspond to the given needs. Distribution divides them up according to social laws. Exchange parcels out the already divided shares in accord with individual needs, Finally, in consumption, the product steps outside this social movement and becomes a direct object and servant of individual need, and satisfies it in being consumed" [2, p. 89]. According to [3], production must always be seen as the consumption of the individual's abilities, on the one hand, and

as the means of production, on the other hand. By implication, consumption is to be seen as a production of employees themselves.

Organizational culture has been a dominant theme in management literature for the past four decades and has been defined from various perspectives by several authors [4]-[9]. The differing perspective was a result of the considerable disagreement on what the concept means in relation to how it should be observed and measured, and also how its understanding could be used to help organizations meet their goals and objectives [5], [10], [11]. Many definitions of culture focus on cognitive components, such as assumptions, beliefs, and values. Others definitions expand the concept to include behaviors and artifacts, leading to a common distinction between the visible and the hidden levels of organizational culture [12]. Organizational culture has been viewed as the dominant values in an organization [13], a consistent perception within an organization [14], and a system of values and norms that define appropriate attitudes and behaviours for an organization's employees [15]. Organizational culture may also imply structural stability, and deal with matters that organizational constituents share or hold in common [16], [17]. It may also indicate the taken for granted values, underlying assumptions, expectations, collective memories, and definitions present in an organization [18].

According to [5], culture defines what a group learns over time in the process of solving its own problems of internal integration and also survival in an external environment. Schein [17] specifies three levels of culture. The first level consists of artifacts manifested by what is visible and observable [17]. The second level espouses values and beliefs such as goals, strategies and philosophies that are shared among members, and which explains why organizational members behave the way they do [5]. The third level entails underlying assumptions that are unconsciously taken for granted within an organization [17], but which assumptions are considered very powerful, because they are less debatable and more difficult to confront than espoused values [19]. In this respect, therefore, Organizational culture may be viewed as a means of stabilizing behavior, and also as the glue that holds organizations together [20]. It therefore, provides a means by which members in organizations communicate and co-ordinate their efforts, and incidentally acting as a boundary separating insiders from outsiders [20]. Using this perspective as a point of departure, the key role of organizational culture then becomes the provision of unique identity for an organization's employees that differentiates the organization from others. Thus, the uniqueness of a particular organization's culture is associated with its traditions, the nature of shared beliefs among its members, and the members' expectations about organizational life [20].

Organizational culture affects an organization's control mechanism, its structure, job design, decision-making strategies, group behavior, and leadership styles [21]. From the perspective of [17], organizational culture is a dynamic

phenomenon that changes over time, becoming more embedded in the 'out-of-awareness' functioning of an organization. Organizational culture, therefore, has the capacity to influence how organizational members set personal and professional goals, perform task, and utilize resources in tasks accomplishments [17]. As such, organizational culture affects the way people think, feel, and act, both consciously and subconsciously [22]. By implication, organizational influences how people set personal and professional goals, perform task and utilizes resources to achieve them.

Although organizational culture is a generally accepted feature of organizations, its characteristic is rarely homogenous in practice. In the view of [23], organizations are characterized not only by a dominant culture, but also by their sub-cultures. According to [24], the dominant culture is reflected by the core values that are shared by a majority of employees. In addition to this, as it is noted by [25], most organizations, irrespective of size, will have to contend with many identifiable subcultures (such as, beliefs, values and assumptions), which will tend to compete with the organization's dominant culture. In the view of [26], the development of subcultures can also lead to the creation of dissonance and disharmony within the organizational work environment. Organizational subcultures are most often created around a subset of employees who identify themselves as a distinct group and interact regularly [27]. The emergence of organizational subcultures is a result of the problems or experiences that are shared by members of a department or unit [28]. Organizational culture can therefore be conceptualized as a combination of the attitudes, experiences, beliefs, values, and norms of an organization. It appears to develop over time as an organization's human resource and work environment change, and also as organizational processes and procedures, both explicit and tacit, evolve. Organizational culture largely defines how people behave in terms of their willingness to accept risk, comply with chains of command, delegate authority, act independently, and take personal responsibility for organizational performance.

In the context of the observations above, and based on the argumentation of [17], leadership can be seen essentially as; the creation, the management, and at times, the destruction and reconstruction of organizational culture. Therefore, in the performance of their managerial function of leadership, managers, as leaders, must possess the unique talent that can enable them understand and manage the organization's dominant and sub-cultures culture. One important thing that managers (leaders) must have is the capacity to create and manage the organization's culture [17]. This is because the culture of an organization is shaped by the attitudes and behaviors of managers, who in turn communicate the organization's philosophy to their subordinates [29]. In this respect, managers must be effective role models from whom subordinates can positively learn to relate to the organizational culture through the socialization process of imitation, enacting, modeling, and observation [30].

Many studies abound in the extant literature on the impact of organizational culture on different variables in the organizational setting, such as; job satisfaction [31], individual learning [32], organizational effectiveness [33], leadership [34], [35], [17], organizational problem-solving [36], creativity [37], organizational commitment [22], organizational performance [38], TQM [39], communication and information [40]. The Denison Organizational Culture Survey [41] is a tool that assesses organizational focus (internal and external focus) and organizational flexibility (flexible and stable). According to [41], this approach allows for assessment of the ways in which organizations (or sub-groups within organizations) deal with seemingly contradictory or paradoxical goals and demands. A number of studies have reported that the pattern of cultural traits of high-performance organizations can be clearly distinguished from those with lower performance [42]. Organizational culture, under such a model, might be viewed as the system that permits organizations to make coordinated adaptive responses to the myriad competing and even paradoxical demands.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Data Collection

Data was sourced from employees in a Ghanaian SOE operating in the communication industry. The rationale for selecting the organization was that, its efforts to get its employee consume new work practices being implemented towards transforming the organization from a fully subsidized entity to a commercialized organization was constrained. The firm had been engaged in constrained efforts to implement and internalize a new work practice termed "In House Training Model" to help transform it from a fully subsidized institution into a profitable income generating organization. Prior to the data collection, the researchers (i.e. authors) held discussion with the organization's Director of Administration seeking access to employees in the firm. A written research synopsis was presented to the management explaining the rationale for the research, and also the possibility of practical interventions useful to the firm emerging from the study. Data was collected using a self-administering questionnaire adapted from Denison's Organizational Culture Survey questionnaire [41]. The questionnaire was divided into two sections. Section A collected demographical information of respondents (employees). Section B collected information on employees' perceptions of organizational involvement, consistency and adaptability. In all, one hundred and eighty (180) questionnaires were administered. Prior to the questionnaire administration, it was piloted among fourteen (14) randomly selected employees of the organization. After piloting, the questionnaire was refined and then sent to the training manager of the organization for distribution to the respondents. The duration for the data collection was one month.

B. Data Analysis

The data were collated and analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. The unit of analysis is the organization's organizational activity system. The sub-units of analysis are actions of individuals and groups directly engaged with the new work practices, relative to organizational involvement, organizational consistency, and organizational adaptability. The statistical package for the social sciences software was used as the analytical tool.

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Out of 180 questionnaires that were administered (staff = 160; management = 20), 160 completed questionnaires were retrieved (staff = 150; management = 10). Hence, the response rate was eighty-eight percent (88%). The high response rate could be a result of the organization's management support and prior approval of the study, the employees (study participants) having been informed in advance of the study's purpose and significance, and the cooperation of department heads who gave their employees adequate time to participate in the survey.

A. Analysis of Respondents Demography

The gender distributions respondents showed that; for the 10 managers who responded, 7 (70%) were males, while the remaining 3 (30%) were females. The implication is that there are more males in management positions than females. For the 150 staff who responded, 108 (72%) were males, while 42 (28%) were females. The implication is that, there were more males than females with respect to staff members in the organization.

The age distributions of the managers showed that none of them was aged between 15-34 years. Majority of the managers were aged between 35-44 years. The age distributions of the staff showed that majority of them were aged up to 34 years. The implication is that the organization has middle-aged managers, but a relatively younger workforce.

The distributions of the respondents' educational level showed that; all the managers had tertiary education. For the staff, 14 (9.3%) of them had primary level education, 33 (22%) have secondary education, 41 (27%) have post-secondary education, 31 (20.7%) have Diplomas, 25 (16.7%) have Higher National Diplomas, 3 (2%) have University Degree, and 3 (2%) have doctorate degrees. This result shows that the organization's management and staff well-educated.

The distribution of the managers' length of service in the organization showed that 2 of them had spent more than 10 years in the organization. Four (40%) managers had spent between 9-11 years, with another 4 (40%) spending between 6-8 years. The implication is that the managers have in depth knowledge about the operations of the organization due to their experiences and were in a better position to take effective decisions in the organization. The distribution of staff length of service showed that 23 (15.3%) of them had spent two years in the organization with 103 (68.7 %) others spending between 3-5 years. Fourteen (9.3%) of the staff had spent

between 6-8 years, with three (2 %) others spending between 9-11 years. Seven (4.7 %) of the staff were found to have spent more than 12 years working in the organization. The result shows that majority of the staff members had spent less than 6 years working in the organization. The implication is that some of the staff may lack in-depth knowledge of the organization's operations.

B. Analysis of Respondent's Perceptions on Organizational Involvement

The perceptions of both the managers and staff on organizational involvement variables, such as, empowerment, team orientation, and capability development, relative to decision making in the organization, are appraised. The statistical measure of the perceptual differences between staff and managers on the issue of involvement in the organization is shown in Table I.

TABLE I

STATISTICAL MEASURE OF THE PERCEPTUAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN STAFF AND MANAGERS ON THE ISSUE OF INVOLVEMENT IN THE ORGANIZATION

Variables	Staff		Managers		P value
	Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)	Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)	
Empowerment	4.23	1.32	11.54	1.71	0.00**
Team Orientation	5.76	4.38	12.12	1.11	0.01**
Capability Development	6.98	3.22	13.23	2.21	0.00**

* P ≤ 0.05 = significant

** P ≤ 0.01 = very significant

As shown in Table I, the probability measure of the perceptual difference on empowerment between staff (M = 4.23; SD = 1.32) and managers (M = 11.54; SD = 1.71) is very significant (p = 0.00; p ≤ 0.01). The probability measure of the perceptual difference on team orientation between staff (M = 5.76; SD = 4.38) and managers (M = 12.12; SD = 1.11) is also very significant (p = 0.01; p ≤ 0.01). Similarly, the probability measure of the perceptual difference on capability development between staff (M = 6.98; SD = 3.22) and managers (M = 13.23; SD = 2.21) is also very significant (p = 0.00; p ≤ 0.01). The implication from these statistical measures is that the perceptual difference between the managers and staff on the practice of involvement in the organization is very high; indicating that such practice was not a prevalent feature of the organization's culture.

The distribution of managers and staff perceptions on empowerment in the organization is shown in Fig. 1. The distribution in Fig. 1 shows that 119 (79.33%) of the staff disagreed to the notion that employees in the organization are empowered to get involved in organizational issues. By implication, majority of the staff agreed that there was no empowering mechanism in place in the organization to enhance organizational involvement. On the part of the managers, they all agreed to the existence of such empowering mechanism. This perceptual difference between the staff and managers supports the very significant probability estimation of empowerment (p = 0.00; p ≤ 0.01) shown in Table I, which

indicates that empowerment is not a prevailing organizational feature.

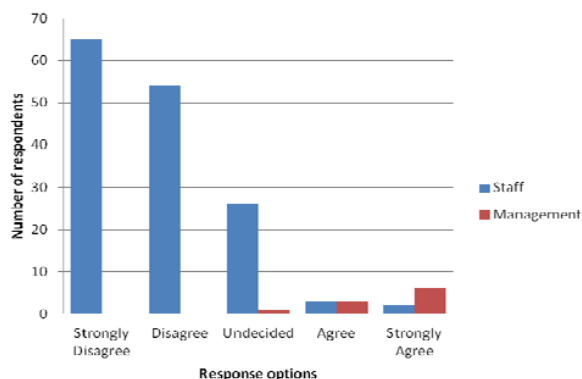


Fig. 1 Respondents' perceptions on empowerment

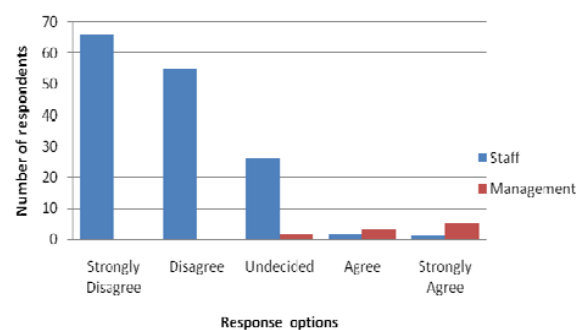


Fig. 2 Respondents' perceptions on team orientation

The distribution of managers and staff perceptions on team orientation in the organization is shown in Fig. 2. As it is shown in Fig. 2, 121 (80.37%) of the staff disagreed that team approach is used as a means to enhance employees involvement in organizational issues. By implication, majority of the staff agreed that there was no teamwork mechanism in the organization to enhance organizational involvement. For the managers, team working is encouraged in the organization and used as a tool to encourage employees' involvement in organizational issues. The result thus shows that the managers' view the organization as encouraging teamwork among employees, whereas the staff members held the contrary view. A sense of this perceptual difference between the staff and managers is supported by the very significant probability estimation of team orientation (p = 0.01; p ≤ 0.01) shown in table I, which indicates that teamwork is not a prevailing organizational feature.

The distribution of managers and staff perceptions on capability development in the organization is shown in Fig. 3. As it is shown in Fig. 3, 102 (68%) of the staff agreed that there was no mechanism for capability development in the organization to enhance organizational involvement. By implication, majority of staff agree the organization has no capability development plan in place which could be used to upgrade employees' capacity and participation in addressing

organizational issues. For the managers, opportunities for employees to develop their capabilities in order to enhance their involvement in organizational issues exist in the organization. The results portray the managers perceiving the organization as providing opportunities for the staff to develop their capabilities, whereas the staff members held the contrary view. A sense of this perceptual difference between the staff and managers is supported by the very significant probability estimation of capability development ($p = 0.00$; $p \leq 0.01$) shown in Table I, which indicates that capability development is not a prevailing organizational feature.

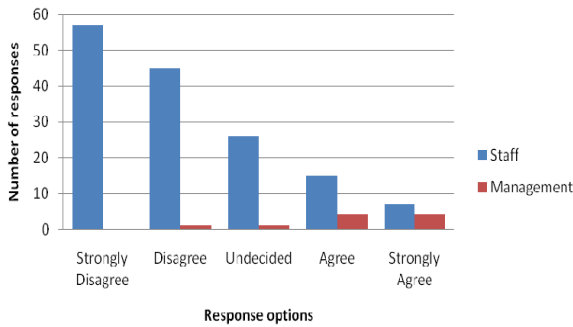


Fig. 3 Respondents' views on capability development

C. Analysis of Respondent's Perceptions on Organizational Consistency

The perceptual differences of managers and staff on organizational consistency variables, such as, coordination and integration, core values, and agreement, relative to decision-making in the organization are appraised. The statistical measure of the perceptual differences between staff and managers on the issue of organizational consistency in the organization is shown in Table II.

TABLE II
STATISTICAL MEASURE OF PERCEPTUAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN STAFF AND MANAGERS ON ORGANIZATIONAL CONSISTENCY

Variables	Staff		Managers		P value
	Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)	Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)	
Core values	11.76	2.22	12.98	1.76	0.07 ns
Agreement	11.34	1.32	13.43	3.22	1.23 ns
Coordination & Integration	13.01	3.22	13.43	4.22	0.55 ns

* $P \leq 0.05$ = significant

** $P \leq 0.01$ = very significant

ns = not significant

As it is shown in Table II, the probability measure of the perceptual difference on core values between staff ($M = 11.76$; $SD = 2.22$) and managers ($M = 12.98$; $SD = 1.76$) is not significant ($p = 0.07$; $p > 0.05$). The probability measure of the perceptual difference on agreement between staff ($M = 11.34$; $SD = 1.32$) and managers ($M = 13.43$; $SD = 3.22$) is also not significant ($p = 1.23$; $p > 0.05$). Similarly, the probability measure of the perceptual difference on

coordination and integration between staff ($M = 13.01$; $SD = 3.22$) and managers ($M = 13.43$; $SD = 4.22$) is also very significant ($p = 0.55$; $p > 0.05$). The implication from these statistical measures is that; there is no significant perceptual difference between the managers and staff on the issue of organizational consistency in the organization. This indicates that there is a level of practice consistency in the organization's management system.

The distribution of managers and staff perceptions on core values in the organization is shown in Fig. 4.

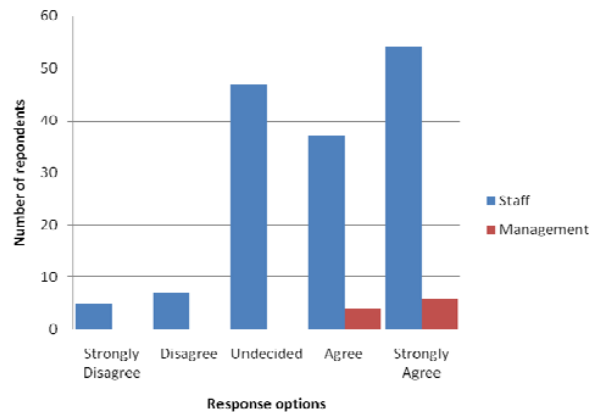


Fig. 4 Respondents' perceptions on organization's core values.

As it is shown in Fig. 4, 54 (36%) staff strongly agreed that the organization had core values that created a sense of identity, with 37 (24.67%) agreeing. Forty-seven (31.33%) were undecided, with 7 (4.67%) disagreeing and 5 (3.33%) showing their strong disagreement. By implication, majority of staff agree that the organization has core values that motivate employees to develop senses of identity in the organization. For the managers, they all agreed that the organization had core values. The results showed that, the organization had core values which were cherished by both managers and staff. A sense of this perceptual agreement by both staff and managers is supported by the non-significant probability estimation of core values ($p = 0.07$; $p > 0.05$) shown in Table II, which indicates that core values is a prevailing organizational feature.

The distribution of managers and staff perceptions on agreement over organizational issues is shown in Fig. 5. As it is shown in Fig. 5, 54 (36%) of the staff strongly agree that agreement is reached through consensus on critical organizational issues, with 61 (40.67%) staff agreeing. Thirty-one (20.67%) staff were undecided, while 2 (1.33%) disagreed and 2 (1.33%) strongly disagreeing. By implication, majority of staff agree that agreement is always arrived at when discussing organizational issues in the organization. For the managers, 5 (50%) strongly agreed and 5 (50%) agreed that agreement is reached through consensus on critical issues. None of the managers disagreed or indicated that they were undecided. The results showed that both managers and staff were of the view that agreement is always reached on critical

organizational issues in the organization through consensus. A sense of this perceptual position by both staff and managers is supported by the non-significant probability estimation of agreement ($p = 1.23$; $p > 0.05$) shown in Table II, which indicates that agreement is a prevailing organizational feature.

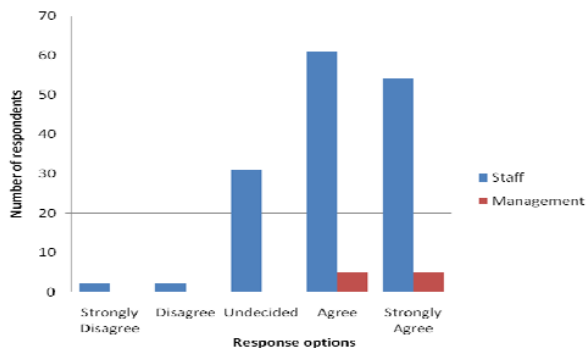


Fig. 5 Respondents' perceptions on agreement in solving issues

The distribution of managers and staff perceptions on organizational activity coordination and integration in the organization is shown in Fig. 6.

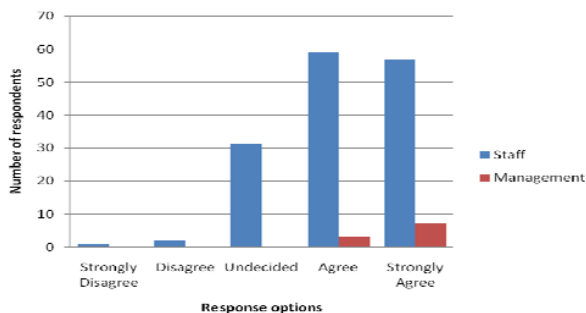


Fig. 6 Respondents' perceptions of activity coordination/integration

As it is shown in Fig. 6, 57 (38%) of staff strongly agreed that activities in the organization are coordinated and integrated, with 59 (39.33%) staff agreeing. Thirty-one (20.7%) staff was undecided, with 2 (2%) staff disagreeing. By implication, majority of staff agree that organizational activities are well coordinated and integrated in the organization. For the managers, 7 (70%) strongly agreed and 3 (30%) agreed that there is coordination and integration across the organizational units. The results showed that majority of staff and managers were of the view that there is coordination and integration of organizational activities across the functional units of the organization. A sense of this perceptual agreement by both staff and managers is supported by the non-significant probability estimation of activities coordination and integration ($p = 0.55$; $p > 0.05$) shown in Table II, which indicates that the organization's activities are well coordinated and integrated.

D. Analysis of Respondent's Perceptions on Organizational Adaptability

The perceptual of difference between managers and staff on organizational adaptability variables, such as creating change, customer focus, and organizational learning, relative to decision-making in the organization are appraised. The statistical measure of the perceptual differences between staff and managers on the issue of involvement in the organization is shown in Table III.

TABLE III
STATISTICAL MEASURE OF PERCEPTUAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN STAFF AND MANAGERS ON ISSUE OF ADAPTABILITY IN THE ORGANIZATION

Variables	Staff		Managers		P value
	Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)	Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)	
Creating Change	5.45	1.32	12.87	2.22	0.05*
Customer Focus	3.67	4.38	13.56	1.71	0.00**
Organizational Learning	5.65	3.22	12.76	1.11	0.01**

* $P \leq 0.05$ = significant
 ** $P \leq 0.01$ = very significant
 ns = not significant

As it is shown in Table II, the probability measure of the perceptual difference on creating change between staff ($M = 5.45$; $SD = 1.32$) and managers ($M = 12.87$; $SD = 2.22$) is significant ($p = 0.05$; $p \leq 0.05$). The probability measure of the perceptual difference on customer focus between staff ($M = 3.67$; $SD = 4.38$) and managers ($M = 13.56$; $SD = 1.71$) is very significant ($p = 0.00$; $p \leq 0.01$). Similarly, the probability measure of the perceptual difference on organizational learning between staff ($M = 5.65$; $SD = 3.22$) and managers ($M = 12.76$; $SD = 1.11$) is also very significant ($p = 0.01$; $p \leq 0.01$). The implication from these statistical measures is that; there is significant perceptual difference between the managers and staff on the issue of adaptability in the organization. This indicates that employees find it difficult to adapt to new work practices and/or rules in the organization.

The distribution of managers and staff perceptions on creating change in the organization is shown in Fig. 7.

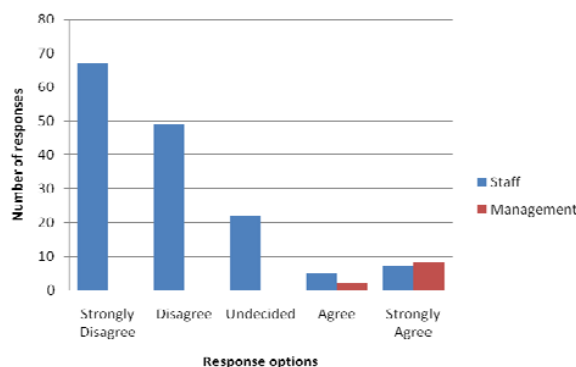


Fig. 7 Respondents' perceptions on change creation

As it is shown in Fig. 7, seven (4.67%) of the staff strongly agreed that the organization respond to changes in its business environment, with five (3.33%) staff agreeing. Twenty-two (14.67%) of the staff were undecided, while 49 (32.67%) disagreed and 67 (44.67%) strongly disagreeing. By implication, majority of staff disagreed that the organization responds to changes in its business environment. For the managers, 8 (80%) strongly agreed while 2 (2%) agreed to the notion that the organization responds to changes in its business environment. A sense of this perceptual differences between the staff and managers is supported by the significant probability estimation of change creation in the organization ($p = 0.05$; $p \leq 0.05$) shown in Table III, which indicates that the organization is constrained in its ability to respond changes in its business environment.

The distribution of staff and managers perceptions on the organization's focus on its customers is shown in Fig. 8.

The results show that 77 (53.33%) of the staff strongly disagreed to the notion that the organization is customer focused, while 43 (28.67%) disagreed. Eighteen (12%) staff were undecided, while 5 (3.33%) agreed and 7 (4.67%) strongly agreeing. By implication, majority of staff disagreed that the organization's operations is customer focused. For the managers, 5 (50%) strongly agreed that the organization is customer focused and 3 (30%) agreed. Only 2 (20%) of the managers were undecided.

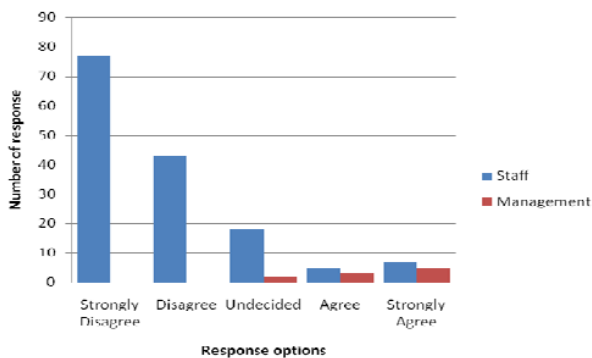


Fig. 8 Respondents' perceptions on customer focus

The results showed that, whereas majority of management strongly agreed that the organization focuses on the satisfaction its customers, majority of staff members were of the view that the organization did not focus on the satisfaction of its customers. A sense of this perceptual differences between the staff and managers is supported by the highly significant probability estimation of the organization being customer focused ($p = 0.00$; $p \leq 0.01$) shown in Table III, which indicates that the organization is constrained in its ability to respond changes in its business environment.

The distribution of staff and managers perceptions on the promotion of organizational learning in the organization is shown in Fig. 9.

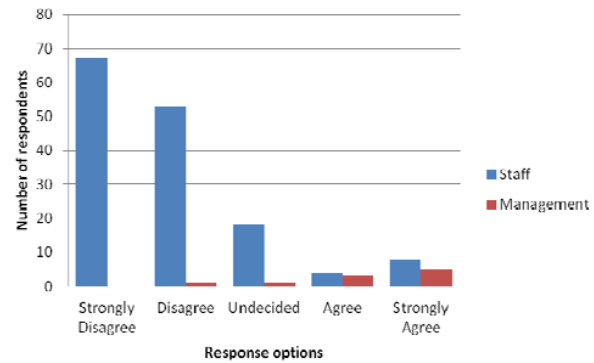


Fig. 9 Respondents' perceptions on organizational learning

As it is shown in Fig. 9, 67 (47.67%) of the staff strongly disagreed that the organization provided employees with opportunities for learning and improvement, while 53 (35.33%) disagreed. Four (2.67%) staff agreed that the organization provided employees with opportunities for learning and improvement with 8 (5.33%) staff strongly agreeing, and 18 (12 %) undecided. For the managers, almost all of them agreed that the organization provided employees with opportunities for learning and improvement. Whereas only 1 (10%) manager disagreed, 3 (30%) agreed, and 5 (50%) strongly agreeing with only 1 (10%) remaining undecided. The results showed that, whereas majority of managers strongly agreed that the organization provided employees with the opportunities for learning and improvement, majority of the staff were of the view that the organization did not. A sense of this perceptual differences between the staff and managers is supported by the highly significant probability estimation of the organization being customer focused ($p = 0.01$; $p \leq 0.01$) shown in Table III, which indicates that the organization is constrained in its ability to provide opportunities for employees learning and improvement.

V. DISCUSSION

In this section, the findings made from the results analyses will be discussed from the perspective of the following three themes; (i) Orientation of organizational involvement and its effect on the organization's culture, (ii) Influence of organizational consistency on the functionality of the organization's culture, and (iii) Orientation of organizational adaptability and its effect on the organization's culture.

A. Orientation of Organizational Involvement and Its Effect on the Organization's Culture

From the findings, it is evident that employees' involvement in the activities of the organization is a major issue. The results on involvement showed that unlike managers, the staff does not see the organization's culture as professing empowerment, teamwork, and capability development. Even though the managers were of the view that employees are given the necessary powers to make decisions and take actions on their own volitions, the staff felt that they

are unable to take decisions without due authorization and approval from their superiors. The consequence of this is that, the staff is unable to come out with initiatives that can yield positive benefits for the organization. This finding is in consonance with that of [43] which indicates that if employees are not constrained by organizational rules, regulations and limitations, they are able to work more promptly and effectively. It was also found that, access to adequate and relevant information is highly restricted and available to only those in management positions. This observation suggests that, employees are not empowered do participate in the decision-making process of the organization. The consequence being that, the organization was deprived of the collective array of employees' talents, skills, knowledge and abilities, which could have been elicited towards enhancing their commitment and support towards the successful implementation of the new work practice (In-House Training Model) in the organization. This observation is in line with the view of [44] who noted that employee empowerment is associated with improved knowledge in the decision-making processes, improved skill in evaluating successes or failures, improved implementation of organizational programs, improved customer satisfaction, improved job satisfaction, improved quality of services and improved revenue growth. The findings on team orientation indicates that the managers view the organization as placing high value on employees' collaboration towards the achievement of organizational goals. The managers perceived teams as the main primary building blocks that are used to get work done in the organization. Contrary to the views of managers, the staff viewed the organization's leaders as using hierarchical structures to get work done instead of teams. Arguments abounds in the extant literature that suggest that organizations with hierarchical cultures uses structures that focuses on the use of specific rules, procedures, and minimal autonomy and discretion over work processes to ensure that they are compliant at all times [45]-[47].

From the perspectives of the staff, the low level of trust did not encourage cooperation across different parts of the organization. This finding agrees with that of [48] to the effect that; trust is pivotal to collaboration' and attitudes of mistrust and suspicion are the primary barrier to cooperation within the functional units of organizations. The findings on capability development showed that, whereas managers were of the view that the organization provides employees with opportunities for developing their capabilities, the staff feel that the organization does not prioritize the upgrade of employees' capability to enable them contribute positively towards the successful implementation of the new work practice. This finding is supported by that of [49] which showed low scores for perceptions on employee capability development as a result of employees not receiving adequate training opportunities.

From Denison cultural model, perception of high involvement in the culture is one in which employee involvement is strongly encouraged and where a sense of

ownership and responsibility exists. In such a culture, employees rely on informal, voluntary, and implied control systems, rather than on formal, explicit, bureaucratic control systems. This sense of ownership leads to the growth of a greater commitment to the organization and an increasing capacity for autonomy.

Employees tend to be more involved and dedicated to positive organizational outcomes. Managers' who solicit input from organizational members increase the quality of the management decisions and heighten members' participation in their implementation [38] because of increased collaboration and leveraging of broader operational knowledge. From the perspective of [38], there should be strong relationship among empowerment, team orientation, and capability development for employees to perceive involvement in the culture of the organization. According to [50], low perception of involvement usually indicates an organization in which employees are disconnected from their work, unaware of its importance and its connection to the rest of the organization, unwilling to accept greater responsibility, and are hesitant about working with people outside of their immediate circle.

B. Influence of Organizational Consistency on Functionality of the Organization's Culture

From the analysis, it is evident that there was consistency in the application of rules and regulation in the organization. Both managers and staff are positive on the core values, consensus building mechanism as well as the coordination and integration functions in the organization. This observation agrees with the findings of [51] that individual employees are more satisfied and committed to the organization when their values are congruent with that of their supervisors. It also agrees with the findings of [52] that an individual's commitment and job satisfaction is enhanced when the organization's value system is congruent with the values that individuals believe should exist in their organization. The findings also showed no perceptual difference between management and staff on the prevalence of agreement on critical organizational issues. This agrees with the observation by [53] that effective functioning of an organization does not depend on people agreeing on why they are doing something. All that is required for there to be agreement on procedures for determining what should be done [53]. The managers and staff also agree on the prevalence of coordination and integration in the organization. This finding supports the notion that strong pervasive cultures are beneficial to all organizations, because it fosters motivation, commitment, identity, solidarity and sameness which facilitate internal integration and coordination. Despite [33]'s assertion that consistency promotes a common perspective, shared beliefs and communal values among employees in an organization, a question is then raised as to why the organization found it difficult to implement new work practices, despite the positive perceptions of consistency held by its employees. An explanation to this observation could be that, even though, the statistical measure of the staff and managers perceptions on

consistency showed no significant differences, such difference, irrespective of how minimal it might be, is indicative of some elements of inconsistencies in the organization's work activities.

C. Orientation of Organizational Adaptability and Its Effect on Organization's Culture

From the analysis, it is evident that the organization's ability to adapt to changes in its environment is constrained. Whereas managers are of the view that the organization adapts to changes in its environment, staff are of the view that the organization lacked the capacity to effectively respond to changes in its operating environment. The managers perceive the organization's operations as flexible and adaptable to new and improved ways of doing work. The staff perceives the organizational policies and procedures as inflexible and difficult to change, thus impacting negatively on the organizations ability to respond favourable to changes in its business environment. Findings from the staff perspective also indicated that, new and improved ways of doing work are not continuously pursued, and that attempts to create change in the organization is usually resisted by managers. This can be ascribed to the managers feeling threatened by the consequences of such changes on their positions and influences in the organization. Thus, the emergence of the tension in the organization's community was due to the lack of feedback to enable more active self-monitoring of performance by individuals and teams, and a systematic encouragement of a climate of open communication that allows employees to participate in the decision-making process of the organization. This finding agrees with [54]'s observation that unsupportive management responses to employees' issues effectively diminishes both innovative behaviours and openness in mistakes evaluation, both of which are important aspects of learning.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

The study has shown that though there was consistency in the application of rules and regulation in the organization, the level of staff involvement in organizational issues and the organization's ability to adapt to changes in its environment were constrained. This might have contributed significantly to the challenges faced by the organization during its new practices implementation efforts. Appraisal of the organizational involvement factors including, empowerment, team orientation, and capability development showed managers as thinking that there was involvement in the organization whereas the staff think there is none. This indicates the existence of a tension between managers and staff relative to involvement. Similar appraisal of the organizational adaptability factors, such as the creation of change and enhancement of organizational learning relative to decision making in the organization showed managers as thinking that the organization is able to adapt to changes, whereas the staff think otherwise. This indicates the existence of a tension between managers and staff relative to

organizational adaptability. It is therefore concluded that for employees to consume the new work practices, the organization must put in place the requisite organizational involvement and adaptability mechanisms to promote employee empowerment, teamwork, and capacity building, as well as enhance organizational learning. By implication, the prevalence of a favorable combination of organizational involvement, consistency and adaptability in a transforming state enterprise will lead to positive employees' consumption of new work practices underlining in the organization's transformation process.

REFERENCES

- [1] M. A. Sanda, *Four Case Studies on the Commercialization of Government R&D Agencies: An Organizational Activity Theoretical Approach*. Luleå, Sweden: Luleå University of Technology Press, 2006.
- [2] K. Marx, *Grundrisse: Foundations of the Critique of Political Economy*. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books, 1973.
- [3] Y. Engeström, *Learning by Expanding: An Activity-Theoretical Approach to Developmental Research*. Helsinki: Orienta-Konsultit, 1987.
- [4] J. B. Barney, "Organizational culture: Can it be a source of sustained competitive advantage?," *Acad Manage Rev*, vol. 11, no. 3, pp. 656-65, 1986.
- [5] H. Schein, "Organizational culture," *Am. Psychol*, vol. 45, no. 2, pp. 109-119, 1990.
- [6] A. O'Reilly, J. Chatman and D. E. Caldwell, "People and organizational culture: A profile comparison approach to assessing person-organization fit," *Acad Manage J*, vol. 34, pp. 487-516, 1991.
- [7] D. Denison and A. K. Mishra, "Toward a theory of organizational culture and effectiveness," *Organ Sci*, vol. 6 no. 2, pp. 204-223, 1995.
- [8] M. Alvesson, *Understanding Organizational Culture*. London: Sage, 2002.
- [9] M. G. Caroll and F. M. Nafukho, "Culture, organizational learning and selected employee background variables in small-size business enterprises," *J. Eur Ind Train*, vol. 31 no. 2, pp. 127-144, 2006.
- [10] M. Rousseau, "Assessing organizational cultures: The case for multiple methods," in *Organizational Climate and Culture*, B. Schneider, Ed. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1990, pp. 153-188.
- [11] R. E. Zammuto and J. Y. Krakower, "Quantitative and qualitative studies or organizational culture," *Res Organ Change Dev*, vol. 5, pp. 83-114, 1991.
- [12] J. Kotter and L. Heskett, *Corporate culture and performance*. New York: Macmillan, 1992.
- [13] T. E. Deal and A. A. Kennedy, *Corporate Cultures: The Rites and Rituals of Corporate Life*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1982.
- [14] S. Robbins, *Organizational Behaviour: Concepts, Controversies, Applications*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1998.
- [15] J. Sørensen, "The strength of corporate culture and the reliability of firm performance," *Admin Sci Quart*, vol. 47, pp. 70-91, 2002.
- [16] T. Peters and R. Waterman, *In Search of Excellence: Lessons From America's Best Run Companies*. New York: Harper and Row, 1982.
- [17] H. Schein, *Organizational Culture and Leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1992.
- [18] K. S. Cameron and S. J. Freeman, "Cultural congruence, strength, and type: Relationships to effectiveness," in *Research in Organizational Change and Development*, R. W. Woodman and W. A. Pasmore, Eds. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press Inc., 1991, ch.5 pp. 23-58.
- [19] H. Schein, "Coming to a new awareness of organizational culture," *Sloan Manage Rev*, vol. 25 no. 2, pp. 3-16, 1984.
- [20] F. Buono, "SEAM-Less post- merger integration strategies: A cause for concern," *J. Organ Change Manage*, vol. 16 no. 1, pp. 90-98, 2003.
- [21] C. Pheysey, *Organizational culture: Types and Transformations*. London: Routledge, 1993.
- [22] P. Lock J. Crawford, "The effect of organizational culture and leadership style on job satisfaction and organizational commitment: A cross national comparison," *J. Manage. Dev.*, vol. 23 no. 4, pp. 321-338, 2004.

- [23] R. A. Cooke and D. M. Rousseau, "Behavioral norms and expectations: A quantitative approach to the assessment of organizational culture," *Group Organ Manage*, vol. 13 no. 3, pp. 245-273, 1988.
- [24] S. Robbins, *Organizational Behaviour: Concepts, Controversies, Applications*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1998.
- [25] A. Brown, *Organizational Culture*. London: Pitman, 1995.
- [26] T. Powell, "The impact of organizational sub-cultures on information sharing: A manufacturing company's dilemma," in *Academy of Human Resource Development 1997 Conference Proceedings*, R. J. Torraco Ed. Atlanta, GA: AHRD, 1997, pp. 150-155.
- [27] L. R. Zboril-Benson and B. Magee, "How quality improvement projects influence organizational culture," *Hlthc. Quart*, vol. 8 (special issue), pp. 26-31, 2005.
- [28] F. Luthans, *Organizational Behavior*. New York: McGraw- Hill, 2005.
- [29] L. G. Aspinwall, and U. M. Staudinger, *A Psychology of Human Strengths: Fundamental Questions and Future Directions for a Positive Psychology*. Washington: American Psychological Association, 2003.
- [30] A. J. DuBrin, *Fundamentals of Organizational Behaviour*. Hampshire: Cengage Learning, 2006.
- [31] B. Lund, "Organizational culture and job satisfaction," *J. Bus Ind Mark*, vol. 18 no. 3, pp. 219-236, 2003.
- [32] A. A. Aksu and B. Ozdemir, "Individual learning and organization culture in learning organization: Five-star hotels in Antalya region of Turkey," *Manage Auditing J*, vol. 20 no. 4, pp. 422-441, 2005.
- [33] D. R. Denison, *Corporate Culture and Organizational Effectiveness*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1990.
- [34] H. Kasper, "Culture and leadership in market-oriented service organizations," *Eur J. Marketing*, vol. 36 no. 9, pp. 1047-1057, 2002.
- [35] S. Chang and M. Lee, "A Study on relationship among leadership, organizational culture, the operation of learning organization and employee, job satisfaction," *Learn Organ*, vol. 14 no. 2, pp. 155-185, 2007.
- [36] P. Bate, "The impact of organizational culture on approaches to organizational problem-solving," *Organ Stud*, vol. 5, pp. 43-66, 1984.
- [37] S. Koberg and L. H. Chusmir, "Organization culture relationships with creativity and other job-related variables," *J. Bus Res*, vol. 15, pp. 397-409, 1987.
- [38] A. Wilklins and W. Ouchi, "Efficient cultures: Exploring the relationship between culture and organizational performance," *Adm Sci Quart.*, 28, pp. 468-481, 1983.
- [39] S. W. Pool, "The learning organization: Motivating employees by integrating TQM philosophy in a supportive organizational culture," *Leader Organ Dev J*, vol. 21 no. 8, pp. 373-378, 2000.
- [40] A. Brown and K. Starkey, "The effect of organizational culture on communication and information," *J. Manage Stud*, vol. 31 no. 6, pp. 807-828, 1994.
- [41] D. R. Denison, *Corporate Culture and Organizational Effectiveness*, 2nd Edition. Lausanne, Switzerland: Denison Consulting, 1997.
- [42] C. Fisher and R. Alford, "Consulting on culture," *Consult. Psychol. Res. Practice*, vol. 52 no. 3, pp. 206-217, 2000.
- [43] L. Benko, "Getting the royal treatment," *Mod Health Care*, vol. 39 no. 1, pp. 28-32, 2001.
- [44] B. Sharma, "Local government organization on its journey to becoming a learning organization," *Bus Process Manage J.*, vol. 11 no. 4, pp. 388-402, 2006.
- [45] K. S. Cameron and R. E. Quinn *Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture: Based on the Competing Values Framework*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1991.
- [46] S. A. Dellana and R. D. Hauser, "Toward defining the quality culture," *Eng. Manage. J.*, vol. 11 no. 2, pp. 11-15, 1999.
- [47] M. Stoica and M. Schindehutte, "Understanding adaptation in small firms: Links to culture and performance," *J. Dev Enterpren*, vol. 4 no. 1, pp. 1-18, 1999.
- [48] A. Webb, "Co-ordination: A problem in public sector management," *Policy Polit.*, vol. 19 no. 4, pp. 229-241, 1991.
- [49] P. Lock and J. Crawford, "The relationship between commitment and organizational culture, subculture, leadership style and job satisfaction in organizational change and development," *Leader Organ Dev J*, vol. 20, pp. 365-373, 1999.
- [50] D. Denison, "Organizational culture: Can it be a key for lever for driving organizational change?," in *The International Handbook of Organizational Culture and Climate*, C. Cooper, S. Cartwright and P. Earley, Eds. Chichester: John Wiley and Sons, 2000. pp. 347-376.
- [51] M. Meglino, E. C. Ravlin and C. L. Adkins, "A work values approach to corporate culture: A field test of the value congruence process and its relationship to individual outcomes," *J. Appl Psychol*, vol. 74, pp. 424-432, 1989.
- [52] W. R. Box, R. Y. Odom, and M. G. Dunn, "Organizational values and value congruency and their impact on satisfaction, commitment, and cohesion: An empirical examination within the Public Sector," *Public Pers Manage*, vol. 20 no. 1, pp. 195-205, 1991.
- [53] F. Blackler, "Knowledge and the theory of organizations: Organizations as activity systems and the reframing of management," *J. Manage Stud*, vol. 30 no. 6, pp. 863-884, 1993.
- [54] A. Edmondson, "Psychological safety and learning behavior in work teams," *Admin Sci Quart*, vol. 44 no. 2, pp. 350-383, 1999.

M. Aminu Sanda is a faculty at the University of Ghana Business School in Accra Ghana, and a Senior Lecturer at the Department of Organization and Human Resource Management, where he teaches courses in organizational behavior and management, human resource planning and development, advance strategic management as well as organizational change and management. Dr. Sanda is also Adjunct Professor in Human Work sciences at the Division of Human Work Science, Department of Business Administration Technology and Social Sciences, Luleå University of Technology in Sweden.

He received his BSc degree in Agricultural Engineering (Human Factors) in the year 1989 from the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology in Kumasi Ghana. He received his first MSc degree in Agricultural Engineering (Human Factors) in the year 1986 from Ahmadu Bello University in Zaria, Nigeria, and a second MSc degree in Industrial Ergonomics in the year 2003 from Luleå University of Technology in Luleå, Sweden. He received his PhD degree in Human Work Sciences (Organizational Design and Management) in the year 2006 from Luleå University of Technology in Luleå, Sweden. He was also Postdoctoral Research Fellow at the Division of Industrial Work Environment, Department of Business Administration, Technology and Social Sciences, Luleå University of Technology in Luleå, Sweden from January 2010 to December, 2011. His ongoing research is on creating knowledge in the development of efficient and good working environment through the integration of organizational and human systems.

Dr Sanda is a member of the International Society for Cultural and Activity Research (ISCAR), and currently serves on the ISCAR executive committee. Dr. Sanda is also the editor of ISCAR News, the official newsletter of the International Society for Cultural and Activity Research.

Kennedy Ewontumah was a research at the Department of Organization and Human Resource management, University of Ghana Business School. He received his Master of Philosophy Degree from University of Ghana in the year 2010 and is currently the Head of the Human Resource management Unit at the AngloGold Ashanti mines in Tarkwa, in the Western Region of Ghana.