Investigation into Procurement Institutional Culture and Employee Performance Using Social Constructivism

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Abstract

The study focused on investigating into procurement institutional culture and employee performance using social constructivism in Ghana Airport Company. The current study was limited to the administrative and working staff of some Ghana Airport Company. The study employed quantitative research design with a convenience sampling technique for the selection of 203 respondents in the study. Correlation and regression analysis were done to test the relationship between the types of organizational culture and their impact on employee turnover. The study found that Bureaucratic Culture (BC) significantly influences employee turnover (B=. 406; t-test=10.483; p<0.01). Also, the study revealed that Clan Culture (CC) significantly influences employee turnover (B=0.141; t-test=-2.362; p<0.02). Again, it was found from the study that Entrepreneurial Culture (EC) has a positive significant effect on employee turnover (B=.679; t-test=-13.154; p<0.01). Finally, the study revealed that Power Culture (PC), though, has a positive impact, does not significantly influence employee turnover (B=.0519; t-test=-1.184; p>0.05). The study recommends that the management of the organizations should strengthen formal hierarchical rules as they are significant values of bureaucratic culture that influence employee turnover.

Keywords: Public Financial Administration, Economic management, Employee Performance, Procurement System, Procurement Institutional Culture Development Economics

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Description of the Research Undertaken

Public procurement has a long history. Written on a red clay tablet, found in Syria, the earliest procurement order dates from between 2800 and 2400 BC. The order was for ,50 jars of fragrant smooth oil for 600 small weights in grain' (Coe, 1989, p. 87). Other evidence of historical procurement includes the development of the silk trade between China and a Greek colony in 800 BC. In the United States, according to Page (1980) as cited in Scott (2008), government procurement at the municipal level predates that of state and federal governments. In the settlements and colonies, printing was one of a few services contracted out by government.

However, there were no professional procurement officials, the practice of procurement being older than the discipline. Goods and services needed by government were supplied by commissioners or commissaries who received a commission on what they bought for the militia or other administrative units. It was not until the late 1800s that state legislatures began to create boards or bureaus responsible for purchasing, but central purchasing was hardly a practice at that time. In 1810, Oklahoma was the first state government to create a board to procure centrally for all state departments and agencies (Page, 1980). Many local governments soon followed Oklahoma's example, according to Arthur Thomas (1919) as cited in Scott (2008). Since then, centralized purchasing has gradually become common in state and local governments. However, the centralization trend has been challenged in recent years.

Many practitioners and researchers have contended that purchasing authority, especially in government, must be decentralized in order to provide support that is more responsive to end users, eliminate bureaucratic obstacles to programme accomplishment, improve inter-departmental coordination, and empower service delivery managers to procure what they need without impediment by a centralized organization. In addition to centralized purchasing, there was movement toward adopting a uniform government procurement code. The American Law Institute and the National Conference of Commissioners on Uniform State Laws, with the endorsement of the American Bar Association, promulgated the ,Uniform Commercial Code' (UCC) and completed it in the fall of 1951.

Pennsylvania was the first state to enact the UCC; and by 1980, all states except Louisiana had adopted most provisions of the Uniform Code (Page, 1980). In 1979, the American Bar Association (ABA) issued The Model Procurement Code ,after five years of intensive effort directed by a Coordinating Committee on a Model Procurement Code' (American Bar Association, 2000, p. 101). In 2000, the ABA updated this publication and issued the 2000 Model Procurement Code for States and Local Governments. At the federal level, the first purchasing action occurred in 1778 when the Continental Congress approved the appointment of purchasing commissionaires, whose purchasing work was compensated by two percent of the value of their disbursements in support of the Continental army.

However, by the end of the year, as this arrangement led to excessive costs and possibilities of fraud, the purchasing officers were placed on salary. In 1792, the US Congress passed a purchasing-related Act that authorized the departments of War and Treasury to make purchases in the name of the United States. The first significant procurement, made in 1794, was for a group of six large frigates for the new US Navy. However, bad early experiences with this procurement procedure led to the 1795 passage of the first comprehensive procurement legislation, the Purveyor of Public Supplies Act, which became the basis for military procurement. Misconduct and abuses in federal procurement again led to an Act Concerning Public Contracts of 1808, prohibiting members of Congress from benefiting from government contracts and the Procurement Act of 1809, requiring competition in government procurement. Since then, a series of legislation and executive orders were passed or issued.

Currently, there are 50 states and over 83,000 local procurement entities and as each governmental unit enjoys its autonomy, it is impossible, as space would not be enough, to document various procurement laws and regulations in this article. In 1975, in a pioneering effort, the Council of State Governments published a report tabulating purchasing statutes and regulations of all states, major counties and cities. Despite many government procurement reform efforts, it seems that all the public procurement problems prevalent over eighty years ago still exist today, and will persist. Managing procurements in the public sector has emerged as one of the most daunting challenges facing public managers today. Given the importance of public sector procurement, a greater application of theoretical perspectives and empirical research of organizations at the operational level is greatly needed (Brown, Potowski & Van Slyke, 2006).

This study takes a step in that direction by investigatimg into procurement institutional culture and employee performance using social constructivism in Ghana Airport Company. Specifically, it applies the institutional frameworks of Scott (2015) to explore institutional causes of inter-organizational conflict and barriers to collaboration that may contribute to the public institutions, 'smart buyer' problem (Kettl, 1993). Every organization wants to obtain the commitment of its employees and vice versa. Management would like its employees to identify with the traditions, values and procedures of the organization. This is known as the culture of the organization. Management needs to layout, explain and imbibe its culture in its employees; this will enable the employee to get familiar with the organizational system. The employee thus learns about the organizational culture and decides whether he or she can cope with it or not. This makes every organization a learning environment. Subsequently, a proper appreciation of the organizational culture has an overall effect on the performance of the employee in the organization.

The capacity of positive work performance or the rate of complete work done by any staff in an organization will only be achieved if the employees are satisfied by the internal environment of an organization. Employee turnover in organizations is one of the main issues that extensively affect the overall performance of any organization. Studies have shown that organizational culture negatively affects employee turnover thus affecting the overall efficiency of the organization. Other studies have also found a positive relationship between organizational culture and employee turnover affecting organizations' efficiency and concluded that there is insignificant negative relationship between organizational culture, employee turnover and organizational performance. This study seeks to find out the extent to which organizational culture affects employee turnover with evidence from Ghana employing some staff of some Ghana Airport Company.

1.2 Background of Study

Procurement institutional culture is one of the key sources of competitive advantage of organizations today (Lubit, 2019). This is partly due to its influence on organizational development, growth

and sustainability. The process through which an organization develops its internal capacity to be the most effective one begins with having a winning culture that defines best ways of functioning without creating any unhealthy working environment (Kotter, 2018). Organizational culture comprises the attitudes, experiences, beliefs, and values of the organization; these could be acquired through social learning, and they control the way individuals and groups in the organization interact with one another and with parties outside it (Bloor and Dawson, 2019). Organizational culture guides the way individuals and groups in an organization interact with one another and with parties outside it. It is the premier competitive advantage of high-performance organizations. However, organizational culture is the most difficult attribute to change, once it is embedded in the organizational setting; hence formulating the culture should be very crucial so it does not create an unhealthy working climate which can result in employee turnover (Harris, 2018). A couple of studies have confirmed the influence of organizational culture on job satisfaction and employee commitment (Johnson et al., 2019, San Park et al., 2019). This suggests that much is needed in the area of organizational culture and employee turnover, since it has been an issue, especially in the public institutions which are mostly characterized by bureaucracies, nepotism and favouritism. Many employees leave organizations, partly, due to the fact that equal opportunities are not offered or are difficult to be recognized due to the culture of the organization.

Organizational culture can play in generating competitive advantage (Scholz, 2018). Krefting and Frost (2018) suggest that the way in which organizational culture may create competitive advantage is by defining the boundaries of the organization in a manner which facilitates individual interaction and/or by limiting the scope of information processing to appropriate levels. Similarly, it is argued that widely shared and strongly held values enable management to predict employee reactions to certain strategic options thereby minimizing the scope for undesired consequences (Ogbonna, 2018). Theorists also argue that sustainable competitive advantage arises from the creation of organizational competencies which are both superior and imperfectly imitable by competitors (Reed and DeFillippi, 2018). To this end, it is argued that the uniqueness quality of organizational culture makes it a potentially powerful source of generating advantage over competitors. Indeed, many commentators have advised organizations and researchers to exploit the multiple advantages which could be offered by culture rather than focusing on the more tangible side of the organization (Johnson, 1992; Prahalad and Bettis, 1986). Moreover, the culture of an organization must not only be strong and widely shared, it must also have unique qualities which cannot be imitated. The culture of the organization should be developed to support continuous improvement, improve employees' style of performing their job and thus develop quality awareness. Organizational culture finds expression through the thoughts, intentions, actions and interpretations of members of the organization (Hallett, 2013).

Employee turnover is one of the most crucial issues for organizations, and one that needs special attention. It has some significant effects on organizations' sustainability, growth and profitability (Harter et al., 2013). Staff's turnover is a warning sign of low morale, and it is the amount of employee movement in and out of an organization (Bevan, 2017). It is a sign of low morale when they leave as a result of poor working conditions. In general, employees either leave their jobs voluntarily by their own decision or forced to leave due to the organizational climate they find themselves in which may not be favourable. Employee turnover is one of the factors which affect the organization's productivity due to operational disruptions that may arise (Bevan, 2017). The subject of organizational culture has attracted a great attention in the 21st century, as organizations are mostly depending on the experienced employees to be more efficient and transfer knowledge to new recruits which serves as a source of asset to efficiency and higher productivity. An organization's culture is considered to be an important factor affecting organizational success or failure (Mullins, 2017). It is frequently held accountable for organizational ills and, on occasions, praised for creating positive qualities. In addition to organization-level effects, the impact of organizational culture on key employee attitudes is well noticed by management.

1.2.1 Theoretical Background

As cited by Defee et al (2010), good research should be grounded in theory (Mentzer et al, 2008). This study was guided by the institutional theory to explain how institutional culture affects public procurement performance in tertiary institutions in the West Nile sub-region of Uganda. Institutional theory attempts to describe the deeper and more resilient aspects of how institutions are created,

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maintained, changed and dissolved (Scott, 2005; Scott, 2008); and deals with the pervasive influence of institutions on human behaviour including the processes by which structures such as rules, routines and norms guide social behavior. Institutional theory is the traditional approach that is used to examine elements of public procurement (Obanda, 2010). There is no single and universally agreed definition of ‚institution' or ‚institutional theory'. According to Scott (2004), institutions are composed of cultural-cognitive and regulative elements that, together with associated activities and resources, give meaning to life. Scott explains the three pillars of institutions as regulatory, normative and cultural-cognitive. The regulatory pillar emphasizes the use of rules, laws and sanctions as enforcement mechanisms, with expedience as the basis for compliance.

The normative pillar refers to norms (how things should be done) and values (the preferred or desirable), which are the social obligations being the basis of compliance. The cultural-cognitive pillar rests on shared understanding (common beliefs, symbols, etc.). Institutional theory highlights the importance of the wider institutional environment as the ground in which organizations are rooted (Scott, 2005). The key idea behind institutionalization is that much organizational action reflects a pattern of doing things that evolves over time and becomes legitimated within an organization and an environment (Pfeffer, as cited in Eyaa & Oluka, 2011). Institutional theory (Scott, 2001) can be used to explain the problem of managing government procurement, conceptualized as the ‚smart buyer problem' by Kettl (1993). Kettl argues that, while embracing the market-based promises of procurement, governments have failed to develop the capacity to address even the most fundamental procurement questions, such as what to buy, who to buy from and what has to be bought.

He suggests that the problem is partly attributable to institutional barriers in government agencies that prevent them from becoming learning organizations. This study explores the proposition that institutional culture within procuring organizations may contribute to this problem. Government institutions do not behave as a single buyer with clearly defined buying objectives. Multiple organizations, each shaped by institutional factors, lay claim to processes relating to Kettl's smart buyer questions. As key organizational participants become aligned with their own regulative, normative, and socio-cognitive institutional ‚pillars', smart buying behaviour may become confounded by institutional factors and constraining organizational structures.

1.2.2 Conceptual Background

Public procurement is the acquisition of goods, services and works by a procuring entity using public funds (World Bank, 1995). It is the process by which government departments or agencies purchase goods and services from the private sector. Public procurement as a function of government includes decisions about the services that will be delivered to local authorities and the communities they serve (Hughes, 2005). It is utilized not only to secure goods and services required by public sector organizations for their missions and to support services provided to taxpayers, but it is also used to implement national policies and to achieve social and other objectives (Thai, 2005). Depending on local laws, the relevant government officials will have to follow a set system for procurement. This system could cover the way they advertise for suppliers, the grounds on which they choose a supplier, and the way in which they measure and enforce the requirements they put on the supplier. The usual aims of such a system will be to take advantage of competition between suppliers and to reduce the risk of corruption. Institutional culture refers the ‚way things are done' within an organization, specifically the traditions, customs, values, and shared understandings that underpin the decisions taken, the practices engaged in and those practices that are rewarded and supported (Lunenburg, 2011).

It is a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems (Schein, 2011). In this study, institutional culture will be taken to refer to the management style, rules and policies. According to Van Weele (2006), procurement performance is considered the result of two elements: procurement effectiveness and procurement efficiency. Performance provides the basis for an organization to assess how well it is progressing towards its predetermined objectives, identifies areas of strengths and weaknesses and decides on future initiatives with the goal of how to initiate performance improvements. This means that procurement performance is not an end in itself but a means

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to effective and efficient control and monitoring of the procurement function (Lardenoije, Van Raaij & Van Weele, 2005). Procurement efficiency and procurement effectiveness represent different competences and capabilities for the procurement function. CIPS Australia (2005) presents the differences between efficiency and effectiveness. Efficiency reflects that the organization is ‚doing things right' whereas effectiveness relates to the organization ‚doing the right thing'. This means an organization can be effective and fail to be efficient, the challenge being to balance between the two. In this study, procurement performance will be measured using Van Weele's (2006) definitions of procurement efficiency and procurement effectiveness.

1.2.3 Contextual Background

In order to improve the management of public procurement, many countries have come up with procurement reforms. According to Arrowsmith and Trybus (2003), the last decade of the twentieth century has witnessed the start of the global evolution in public procurement. Nonetheless, Thai (2005) asserts that challenges in public procurement go beyond procurement regulations to include procurement process, methods, organizational structure and work force. This assertion is supported by the African Peer Review Mechanism Country Review (APRM) Report on Uganda (2009), which asserts that non-compliance with the regulations is so high in Uganda. The same report estimates that more than UGX. 30 Billion (US Dollars 184) is lost every year due to non-compliance. De Boer and Telgen (1998), as cited by Gelderman et al (2006) explain that compliance is a problem not only in the third world countries but also evident in the countries in the European Union. Gelderman et al (2006) further advance reasons for non-compliance as explained by the tendency to avoid red tape involved in the procurement process. In Uganda, the need for procurement reforms became urgent because of internal and external pressure given the fact that the Government was losing huge sums of money in poorly managed procurement processes that cost the taxpayer a lot of money.

The procurement reforms that were recommended in 2001 in Uganda in the Country Procurement Assessment Report are: the abolition of the Central Tender Board; enactment of a Procurement Law (Public Procurement and Disposal of Assets Act); establishment of a policy regulation body, the Public Procurement and Disposal of Assets Authority; establishment of Contract Committees and Procurement Units in procuring entities; harmonization of central and local government regulations; incorporation of procurement plans in sector investment programmes; preparation of standard bidding documents, establishment of a procurement cadre in the civil service and restoration of professionalism in the procurement function. All procurements and disposals handled by public procuring and disposing entities (PDEs) are governed by the regulations in the PPDA Act (2003). These regulations specify procurement and disposal procedures that have to be followed by all persons involved in procurement and disposal processes in order to ensure fairness, transparency, competitiveness and non-discrimination to all potential providers of goods, services and works (PPDA Act, 2003). Local authorities and other government entities, such as parastatals, schools and universities, are by definition public entities. Currently, all procurements are undertaken by the public entities themselves, which has in turn created an extensive demand for high procurement performance in each public entity (Agaba & Shipman, 2006).

The Ugandan procurement regulations explicitly identify tertiary institutions as procurement entities. In these institutions, Accounting Officers are responsible for the procurement of goods, works and services. In the tertiary institutions in Uganda, the Principal is the Accounting Officer responsible for the entity. Other players are the Contract Committee, the Evaluation Committee (ad-hoc), Negotiation Committees (adhoc), Procurements and Disposal Units (PDUs) and the User Departments. All these play their independent roles to see to it that whatever is required, as planned, is procured in accordance with the PPDA Act to ensure value for money. Concerns, however, have been raised relating to procurement performance in tertiary institutions. For example, in respect to Gulu University, the Public Procurement and Disposal of Public Assets Authority (2011) revealed that seven cases representing 14% of the cases were contracted at sums that varied greatly from those indicated in the procurement plan for the year under review. The audit revealed six cases representing 12% of the sample were not on the procurement plan for the FY 2010/2011. There was a decline in performance (FY 2010/11, the high risk +medium risk was 96% by number and 99 % by value compared with FY 2007/08 at 77% by number and 81% by value). It was concluded that the entity's performance was very poor. Forty-nine cases, representing 99% by value, were

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in the high and medium risk categories. It is against this background that the researcher is interested in establishing how institutional culture affects performance in public procurement in tertiary institutions in the West Nile sub-region of Uganda.

1.3 Problem Statement

The procurement function has become increasingly important over the past decades since purchasing and supply has become a major determinant of corporate success. The enactment of the Public Procurement Act PPA and the Regulations, as well as the establishment of a public procurement oversight authority, were some of the reforms meant to promote efficiency, effectiveness, good performance, and accountability in public procurement. According to Victor (2012), procurement expenditure could be minimized through implementation of effective procurement practices. The procurement function usually takes large amounts of organizations' revenue; hence it is becoming an expensive undertaking for many organizations (Chan & Lee, 2003) and, if not properly carried out, it can lead to significant regret. Regardless of the effort by the Uganda government to improve the performance of procurement entities, public procurement in government institutions is still marred by poor procurement performance. Failure to implement or delayed implementation of recommended performance standards has resulted in unnecessarily high operation costs and uncoordinated business activities, thus affecting the function's performance (PPA, 2003). This study, therefore, specifically seeks to establish how institutional culture affects public procurement performance in tertiary institutions in the West Nile sub-region of Uganda.

Organizations invest a lot in their employees in terms of induction and training, development, maintaining and retaining them in their organization; therefore, the loss of a resourceful employee is costly to the organization (Harter et al., 2013). Thus, managers must at all costs, minimize employee turnover. Although, there is no standard framework for understanding the employees' turnover process as a whole, a wide range of factors has been found useful in interpreting employee turnover; these include organizational conflicts and poor working conditions (Ojo, 2010). Therefore, there is the need to develop a fuller understanding of the employee turnover, more especially, the sources, what determines employee turnover, effects and strategies that managers can put in place to minimize turnover. Employees are extremely crucial to the organizations since their value to the organization is essentially intangible and not easily replicated. As a result, managers must recognize that employees are major contributors to the efficient achievement of the organization's success (Suppiah and Singh, 2011). Managers should control employee turnover for the benefit of the organization's success. Therefore, managers must at all costs, minimize employee turnover. Though, there is no standard operating procedure for understanding the employees' turnover process in the Ghanaian context, little consideration has been given. The existing studies on organizational culture and its effects on employee turnover by (Ongori, 2007) and (Dwirantwi, 2013) demonstrate a positive relationship. However, (Luu and Hatrup, 2010) studies on same topic reveal no relationship at all. These two contradictory findings call for another study on this topic in a different context to either confirm or nullify the previous arguments in the existing literature.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW
2.1 Foundations of the Study

This chapter presents an intensive review of literature according to the subject matter, organizational culture and employee turnover. A literature review is a methodical and critical analysis of the most significant academic literature published on a particular subject. Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to acquaint the reader with existing reviews, points of view and also an attempt to summarize the important works of other intellectuals, scholars associated with the subject. In addition, it investigates a varied range of relevant publications related to the subject of the study (Leedy, 2010). This chapter defines formal organizational structure, organizational culture, employee turnover and the relationships between organizational culture and employee turnover from reported literature. The purpose of the review of related literature in a study is to discover facts and findings concerning the area of study and how they can propel the researcher to explore the unknown (Leedy, 2010). Institutional theory focuses on the deeper and more buoyant aspects of social structure. It considers the processes by which structures, including schemes, rules, norms, and routines, become established as authoritative guidelines for social behaviour (Scott, as cited in Kenyakisa & Kiruja, 2015). Different components of institutional theory explain

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how these elements are created, diffused, adopted, and adapted over space and time; and how they fall into decline and disuse. Institutional theory states that organizations exist in an institutional environment, which defines and delimits its social reality (Scott, as cited in Kenyakisa & Kiruja, 2015). In the current study, the institutional theory therefore points out the need to focus on the institutional factors that could influence public procurement performance.

Institutional theory describes the effects of external institutional pressures on organizations and defines institutions as regulatory structures, government agencies, laws, courts, and professions, as well as interest groups and public opinion (Lowell, as cited in Makabira, 2014). The rules and norms set out by the institutions in an environment are endorsed by various actors. When speaking of actors and institutional environment in this research, reference is made to the norms represented by the actors in the environment and the pressure that these norms exert on other actors in the environment. A strength attributed to institutional theory is its ability to explain nonchoice behaviour of organizations, how they conform to norms without questioning them and undertaking public function (Lowell, as cited in Makabira, 2014). Institutional theory adopts a sociological perspective to explain organizational structures and behaviour (Dunn & Jones, 2010). It draws attention to the social and cultural factors that influence organizational decision-making and, in particular, how rationalized activities are adopted by organizations (Scott, 2001). Institutional theory is the traditional approach that is used to examine elements of public procurement (Obanda, 2010). Scott (2004) identifies three pillars of institutions as regulatory, normative and cultural-cognitive. The regulatory pillar emphasizes the use of rules, laws and sanctions as enforcement mechanisms, with expedience as the basis for compliance. The normative pillar refers to norms and values with social obligation as the basis of compliance. The cultural-cognitive pillar rests on shared understanding on common beliefs, and symbols.

2.2 Development of The Study

Classical thoughts on organization have been in terms of its purpose and formal structure. Individuals and groups interact within the structure of the formal organization. In the corporate structure, an organization is the persons, committees or departments etc. who make up a body or a constitution for the purpose of administering something (Robbins and Judge, 2009). It can also be defined as a group of people or businesses, etc. who work together for an explicit purpose, with organized rules and structure. It is also an ordered manner; orderliness by virtue of being methodical and well organized. The formal organization has been defined by Schein (1988) as the planned coordination of the activities of a number of people for the achievement of some common explicit purpose or goal, through division of labour and function, and through a hierarchy of authority and responsibility. An organization is a pattern of roles and a blueprint for their coordination. The object of coordination is activities, not people. The formal organization can exist independently of the membership of particular individuals. The formal organization is;

1. Deliberately planned and created
2. Concerned with the coordination of activities
3. Hierarchically structured with stated objectives and
4. Based on certain principles such as the specification of tasks and defined relationships of authority and responsibility.

Other examples of the formal organization are rules and regulations, policy manuals, standing orders and job description (Mullins, 2010). A clear understanding of the purpose of an organization is seen as essential to understanding how the organization works and how its methods of working can be improved (Ridderstrale, 2001, Argyris, 1964, Weber, 1964). Identification of general objectives would lead to the clarification of purposes and responsibilities at all levels of the organization and to the most effective structure. In the organizational model, special attention is given to the division of work, the clear definition of duties and responsibilities and maintaining specialization and coordination (Mullins, 2010). Emphasis is also on the hierarchy of management and formal organizational relationships (Silverman, 1970).

Structure is created to establish relationships between individuals and groups, to provide order and systems and to direct the efforts of the organization into goal seeking activities. It is through the formal structure that people carry out their organizational activities to achieve aims and objectives. Organizations are influenced by patterns of structure, technology, styles of leadership and systems of management through which organizational processes are planned, directed and monitored (Mullins, 2010). The focus of attention of this research is on the impact of organizational structure on employee turnover. This is important because of the growth in the nature and importance of organizational structures and their essence and for greater emphasis as part of insight into employee turnover. The increasing rate of change in environmental factors has highlighted the need to study the total organization and the processes by which the organization attempts to adapt to the external demands placed upon it.

2.2.1 Procurement Institutional Culture

Procurement Institutional Culture is the pattern of shared basic assumptions that have been learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration (Schein, 2004). These assumptions are said to be maintained in the continuous process of human interaction (attitudes and behaviour) as the right way in which things are done. Zhang (2010) also describes organizational culture as a mode, composed by some basic assumptions; and the assumptions are found and created gradually by a certain group in the process of exploring the method of adapting to the external environment and solving the internal interconnected system. Internal integration is the socialization of new members in the organizations, creating the new boundaries of the organization and the feeling of identity among personnel and commitment to the organization (Martins & Terblanche, 2003). External adaptation is also said to be the creation of competitive edge, making sense of the environment in terms of acceptable behaviour and social system stability. It is doubtful whether the tertiary institutions in West Nile sub-region have a culture of commitment to organization by the institutional members, the staff, whereby the employee put organizational interest first. The definitions by Schein (2004) and Zhang (2010) offer both deeper basic assumption and faith that is shared by organizational members in explaining the purpose; and the environment of the organization itself. In addition, the assertions focus on internal integration and external adaptation of organizations which are the organizational culture attributes that define the performance of organizations.

Hui et al (2011) stipulate that efficient management is one of the most effective preventive mechanisms, for it promotes transparency and accountability, facilitates oversight and provides a good basis to prevent corruption. Rossi (2010) opines those formal controls must first be defined, agreed, and applied top-down internally within an organization if they are to be effective. An organization with a genuine commitment to legal compliance is evidenced by top management's dedication to ethical corporate behaviour (Krawiec, 2003). As cited in Heneghan and O'Donnell (2007), a compliance culture in an organization must start in the boardroom and should be reflected and evidenced in directors' own behaviors and attitudes. In a related argument, Obanda (2010) stipulates that strong institutional support at top levels of government is needed by procurement personnel in order to promote integrity, monitor the public procurement process and apply procurement law appropriately. This study was to establish also if transparency and accountability, commitment to legal compliance and dedication to ethical corporate behaviour and attitude were aspects cherished in the tertiary institutions in the West Nile Sub-Region. Due to regulatory reforms and changing community expectations, the role of culture in organizational compliance has gained momentum (Lisa, 2010).

Basing on the competing values model (hierarchical culture), which involves enforcement of rules, conformity and attention to technical matters, individual conformity and compliance are achieved through enforcement of formerly stated rules and procedures (Zammuto & Krakower, as cited in Parker & Bradley, 2000). Although there is no single definition of culture, one can define it as 'the structure of behaviors, ideas, attitudes, values, habits, beliefs, customs, language, rituals, ceremonies, and practices of a particular group of people that provides them with a general design for living and patterns for interpreting behavior' (Rice, 2007). According to Lisa (2010), culture does not play a central role in the compliance process and associated outcomes. Basheka and Mugabira (2008) conducted a study on culture in Uganda's public sector and depicted culture as a hindrance to reforms. To the contrary, the researcher opines that the views of Lisa (2010) and Basheka and Mugabira (2008) must have been influenced by the

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study problems they identified and which caused them to undertake those studies. On the contrary, as they studied the positive culture in the organizations, it is possible that they could probably have discovered that anything good in those organizations they studied was because of the bit of good culture in them. They might not have been in the best positions since they embarked on the studies with biased and negative assumptions. Given the Ugandan predicament, one's mind can hardly be free of the jaws' philosophy – ,can anything good come from Jerusalem'? It is also contended that in a specific type of culture, characterized by specific values such as openness, trust and honesty (Arjoon, as cited in Lisa, 2010), employees are more likely to engage in compliance behaviours, which collectively will contribute to organizational compliance.

Parker and Bradley (2000) further indicate that awareness of the nature of public organizational culture is vital in explaining and assessing the appropriateness and outcome of the current reform process. This applies to developing countries where waves of procurement reforms have resulted into the enactment of procurement rules and regulations. If culture in the public institutions was playing a significant role in propelling procurement, it should have been expected that the deficiencies arrayed by the PPA Authority would have no space. Given the contrary, the researcher is yet to find out if culture is playing any role in procurement in these tertiary institutions in the West Nile Sub-region of Uganda. The concept of organizational culture has attracted a significant amount of research since the 1980s. Before the concept surfaced in the literature, the concept of organizational climate was common in the organizational and management literature in the 1960s and 1970s (CIPD, 2008). The term 'climate' and 'culture' was used interchangeably until the concept of organizational culture established itself as a distinctive field of research (CIPD, 2008). There is no single definition of organizational culture. The topic has been studied from a variety of perspectives, ranging from disciplines such as anthropology and sociology, to the applied disciplines of organizational behavior, management science, and organizational commitment (Moela, 2016).

Organizational culture includes the habits, attitudes and deep-seated values of the organization. Culture involves interrelated components commonly referred to as cultural web. A cultural web consists of paradigms, control systems, organizational structure, power structures, symbols, rituals, routines, stories and myths (Moela, 2016). Managers of organizations have to indicate the climate and practices that govern the way employees are going to be handled. Greenberg and Baron (2010) suggested that culture is group-based and is a pattern of basic shared assumptions that the group learned as it solved its basic problems. External adaptation and internal integration 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. Organizational culture was defined as the collection of traditions, values, beliefs, policies, and attitudes that constitute a pervasive context for everything one does and thinks in an organization (Mullins, 2010). Culture as a complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and other capabilities and habits acquired by man in a society (Dwirantwi, 2012). Luthans (2012) posits that organizational culture refers to a system of shared meaning held by members that distinguish one organization from other organizations. They believe that these shared meanings are a set of key characteristics, and that the organization's values and the essence of an organization's culture can be captured in seven primary characteristics. These characteristics are: innovation and risk-taking, attention to detail, outcome orientation, people orientation, team orientation, aggressiveness and stability. Mullins (2010) said that the first characteristic that captures an organization's culture is the degree to which employees are encouraged to be innovative and take risks.

Organizational culture is a central and cardinal topic in Human Resource Management. It encompasses the range of thought and actions as they are reinforced in the corporate setting, and so underlies many of the specific issues of people management. It provides the social framework for the relationship between managers and employees and as such is an influencing factor on the psychological contract, employees' willingness to accept change and the ability of the organization to be open about and learn from its experience (McKenna and Beech, 2008). All organizations have their unique culture and working environment and no two organizations are the same. Managers are concerned only with what takes place in their own organization so generalized models or theories of organization serve no useful purpose.

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2.2.2 Public Procurement Performance

During the last two decades, public procurement has undergone profound changes. Policy makers, academics and practitioners alike share the broad view that public procurement has evolved from a clerical signoff-ridden set of activities to a strategic tool to enhance efficiency in public organizations, to regulate markets and promote sustainable development. Moreover, public procurement contracts represent a major share of any country's GDP and public expenditure budget. According to data published by the European Commission in its recent Evaluation Report (2011), public procurement in the EU accounted for EUR 2100 billion in 2009, or 19% of GDP. These levels of expenditure alone provide sound reasons for analyzing the performance of public procurement operations at all levels. One definition of procurement is: the activity of assessing, buying and receiving goods, works and services. It is public whenever this process is performed by public organizations or whenever it is performed on their behalf or, again, funded by public organizations. The process of procuring starts with the definition of what is to be procured (goods, services and/or works, quality), then is followed by how it should be procured.

The overriding objective of a state's public procurement system is to deliver efficiency and ,value for money' in the use of public funds, whilst adhering to public requirements and to national laws and policies. Performance measurement is, therefore, about seeking to answer the fundamental question of whether the procurement system and operations ultimately deliver in accordance with the main objectives set. A theoretical analysis of Public Procurement Performance written by a practitioner of Public Procurement with a strong background in private procurement, focusing on one of the key performance indicators in procurement – Value for Money – proposes a new way to look at public procurement performance. Thus, public procurement, being all about value for money, brings in the critical debate that consumer and customer satisfaction cannot be achieved at any price. This is when Value for Money, cannot, but must come into the picture.

Therefore, a critical question that should be asked is: What is value for money? Value for money is a concept associated with the economy, effectiveness and efficiency of a service, product or process, that is, a comparison of the input costs against the value of the outputs and a qualitative and quantitative judgement over the manner in which the resources involved have been utilized and managed. If the concept of Value can be captured through consumer and customer satisfaction, the concept of money can be captured in the price tag to achieving the latter satisfaction ratings. In terms of efficiency of public procurement, it boils down to how much a shilling of procurement is going to deliver with regard to increasing consumer and customer satisfaction. It is therefore critical that the matter of public procurement represents a new challenge to consider; although private procurement would certainly gain a lot from some of the best practices applied in public procurement, the reverse certainly does hold true. The researcher finds that Public Procurement devotes significant resources and time, to ensure the processes and the procedures are sound, transparent, shared and followed. This very attention to the latter, in many instances dilutes the value for money of the items procured, while current public procurement practices are driven mainly by value. This study will, therefore, concern itself with the play between intrainstitutional dynamics and procurement performance in the tertiary institutions in the West Nile Sub-region of Uganda, hoping that the study findings will offer explanation for the wanting predicaments surrounding procurements in these public universities.

2.2.3 Types of Organizational Culture

There are a number of ways to classify different types of organizational culture. Developing the ideas of Harrison (1972), Handy (1993) describes four main types of organizational cultures.

2.2.3.1 The Bureaucratic Culture

An organization that values Formality, Rules, Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs), and Hierarchical coordination have a bureaucratic culture (Hofstede, 2011). It is also called role culture. Long-term benefits of bureaucracy are predictability efficiency, and stability. Its members highly value standardized measures of performance. The behavioural norms of such organizations support formality over informality. Managers view their role as being good co-coordinators, organizers, and enforcers of rules and standards. The organization's rules and processes are spelled out in thick manuals and employees believe that their duty is to go by the book and follow legalistic processes (Mullins, 2010).

Bureaucracy is founded on a formal, clearly defined and hierarchical structure. However, with rapid changes in the external environment, de-layering of organizations, empowerment and greater attention to meeting the needs of customers, there is an increasing need to organize for flexibility. It applies to certain structural features of formal organizations. Bureaucracy can be found in many large-scale organizations. Weber (1964) suggested that the decisive reason for the advance of bureaucratic organizations has always been its purely technical superiority over any other form of organization. Weber, pointed out that, the definition of tasks and responsibilities within the structures of management gave rise to a permanent administration and standardization of work procedures notwithstanding changes in the actual holders of office. He saw the development of bureaucracies as a means of introducing order and rationality into social life.

2.2.3.2 Characteristics of Bureaucratic Organizations (Blau and Scott, 1966)
1. The tasks of the organization are allocated as official duties among the various positions.
2. There is an implied clear-cut division of labour and a high level of specialization.
3. A hierarchical authority applies to the organization of offices and positions.
4. Uniformity of decisions and actions is achieved through formally established systems of rules and regulations. Together with a structure of authority, this enables the co-ordination of various activities within the organization.
5. An impersonal orientation is expected from officials in their dealings with clients and other officials. This is designed to result in rational judgments by officials in the performance of their duties.
6. Employment by the organization is based on technical qualifications and constitutes a lifelong career for the officials.

2.2.3.3   Features of Bureaucracy (Stewart, 1999)
The four main features of bureaucracy are summarized by Stewart as specialization, hierarchy of authority, system of rules and impersonality. Specialization applies more to the job than to the person undertaking the job. This makes for continuity because the job usually continues if the present job-holder leaves. Hierarchy of authority makes for sharp distinction between administrators and the administered or between management and workers. Within the management ranks, there are clearly defined roles of authority. This detailed and precise stratification is particularly marked in the armed forces and in the civil service. System of rules aims to provide for an efficient and impersonal operation. The system of rules is generally stable, although some rules may be changed or modified with time. Knowledge of the rules is a requisite of holding a job in a bureaucracy. Impersonality means that allocation of privileges and the exercise of authority should not be arbitrary, but in accordance with the laid down system of rules. In more highly developed bureaucracies, there tend to be carefully defined procedures for appealing against certain types of decisions. Stewart sees the characteristic of impersonality as the feature of bureaucracy which most distinguishes it from other types of organizations. A bureaucracy should not only be impersonal but be seen to be impersonal.

2.2.3.4 The Clan Culture
Tradition, loyalty, personal commitment, extensive socialization, teamwork, self-management, and social influences are attributes of clan culture (Mullins, 2010). Its members recognize an obligation beyond the simple exchange of labour for a salary. The members understand that their contributions to the organization may exceed any contractual agreements. The individual's long-term commitment to the organization is exchanged for the organization's long-term commitment to the individual. Individuals believe that the organization will treat them fairly in terms of salary increases, promotions, and other forms of recognition. Moreover, employees in such cultures hold themselves accountable to the organization for their actions. Management hierarchies and control mechanisms are possible only by mutual consent. Individuals have almost complete autonomy and any influence over them is likely to be on the basis of personal power.

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2.2.3.5 The Entrepreneurial Culture

Ojo (2010) argued that high levels of risk-taking, dynamism, and creativity characterize an entrepreneurial culture. There is a commitment to innovation, experimentation, and being on the leading edge. This culture does not just quickly react to changes in the environment; it creates change. Individual initiative, flexibility, and freedom of expression which fosters growth, are encouraged and adequately rewarded in this culture. This is also known as task culture. Task culture seeks to bring together the right resources and people and utilizes the unifying power of the group. Influence is widely spread and based more on expert power than on position or personal power (Mullins, 2010).

2.2.3.6 The Power Culture

A power-oriented organization is based on inequality of access to resources. In other words, the people in power use resources to either satisfy or frustrate the needs of others, and, by so doing, they control the behavior of others (San Park, 2009). Leadership resides in the person who is in charge, and rests on the leader's ability and willingness to administer rewards and punishments. At best, the power-orientated leader is firm, fair and generous, and has loyal subordinates (San Park, 2009). A power culture is frequently found in small entrepreneurial organizations and relies on trust, empathy and personal communications for its effectiveness. It is sometimes a political organization with decisions taken largely on the balance of influence (Mullins, 2010).

2.3 Different Theories

The culture of an organization is described as consisting of four major aspects as outlined by Trice and Beyer in 1984. They include; Rites and ceremonies, Stories, Symbols, and Language. Rites and ceremonies help employees identify with the organization and its successes and provide vivid accounts of what a company value. They can be considered special occasions that reinforce special values (McKenna and Beech, 2008). This creates a bond between people to foster common understanding and honour heroes who stand for important beliefs or achievement in a particular organization. Some examples of rites and some ceremonies in some organizations are rites of passage which facilitate the entry of employees into new job responsibilities, job assignments, roles and responsibilities. It can also be performed to mark the increase in the status of an employee. Others include rites of enhancement, rites of renewal etc. This is a form of communication that focuses primarily on vignette and anecdotes about the dedication and commitment of corporate heroes and managers or the devotion of ordinary employees (McKenna and Beech, 2008). These are told to new employees to inform them about the organization. They are true stories founded on events showing employee or employers displaying acts of heroism or adhering to high quality of standards in the organization. E.g. the great achievements of the leadership of the organization at the inception of the company could be highlighted, as could account of great career achievements, how the organization coped with a major crisis or how the restructuring of the organization was carried out (Boye, 1991). Stories keep alive the primary values of the organization and provide employees with a shared understanding (Brown, 2006).

Rites, ceremonies and slogans are all symbols of an organization. They symbolize the deeper values of an organization. They convey something distinctive about the organization (McKenna ad Beech, 2008). They could range from the physical layout and décor of the offices in an organization to the nature and type of office furniture. Open plan offices with common areas may indicate a certain degree of informality and may convey something about the social and psychological climate of the organization. Also, material symbols, such as logos, such of the office and quality of its furnishings, location, apartment building and style indicate a certain aspect of status and importance and management culture (McKenna ad Beech, 2008). Organizations develop distinctive terms such as jargons, slogans, acronyms, metaphors to describe people, buildings, events etc. The use of language can have a unifying effect within the organization. However, these could be alien to new recruits. Thus, in the culture of an organization, new recruits are taught these organizational languages to foster identification and cohesion in their new-found employment (Handy, 1985, Hofestede, 1980).

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2.3.1 The Concept of Employee Turnover

According to Yang, Wan and Fu (2012), employee turnover can be explained as the rotation of employees around the Labour market; between firms, jobs and occupations; and between the states of employment and unemployment. The term turnover is defined by Ongori, (2007) as the ratio of the number of organizational members who have left during a period of time, mostly a year, divided by the average number of employees in that organization during the same period. In most cases, managers refer to employee turnover as the entire process associated with filling a vacancy. Each time a position is vacated, either voluntarily or involuntarily, a new employee must be hired and trained. This term is also often utilized in efforts to measure the relationships of employees in an organization as they leave, regardless of reason. There exist many reasons why a member of an organization may quit existing job. This has been studied and model of employee turnover has been developed, known as image of decision making (Ongori, 2007). The image theory describes the process of how individuals process information during decision making. The underlying premise of the model is that people leave organizations after they have analyzed the reasons for quitting. This presupposes that individual leaving an organization are based on a critical analysis of existing conditions of work relative to competing conditions elsewhere. It is also a fact that some leave their organizations for personal reasons.

Turnover is always being a special challenge for organizations. Compdata Surveys, based on survey on more than 30,000 employees, found that turnover rate is increasing every year since 2011. Turnover is classified into voluntarily turnover and involuntary turnover. Involuntarily turnover, such as downsizing, poor performance, or disability, is not included as turnover. Turnover includes all employees who leave the job voluntarily, for example leaving for better job (Dessler, 2011). Researchers found that employees who have short length of tenure in an organization are most likely to have turnover intention (Tews et al., 2013, Gerhart, 1989; Mobley et al., 1979). In 2016, Compdata Surveys showed that voluntary turnover rate reached 17.8%, the highest percentage since 2011. Turnover is avoided as much in companies because the cost to employer of turnover is high. Tangible costs of turnover include advertising fees, employment agency fees, referral bonuses, recruitment travel costs, salaries and benefits associated with the employee, time spent recruiting, screening, interviewing, and testing applicants, as well as the cost of wages while the new employee is oriented and trained (Dessler, 2011). Intangible costs include decreased productivity because of the vacant position and the lower productivity because new employee has not adapted yet and more likely to make errors. Overtime pays for employees who cover up the vacant position and training cost can be included as intangible cost too.

Based on survey conducted for 330 companies in 50 countries, employees tend to leave the jobs when their skills, talents are not properly developed or when the managers fail to promote their career development, and unsatisfied with the boss or management (Hayes, 2015). All those reasons reflect how satisfied the employee is with their jobs or otherwise and it can be called job satisfaction. To be precise, job satisfaction is the attitude an employee has towards his/her job (Hayes, 2015). It influences employee to behave in many ways, including turnover intention. Employees who are satisfied with their jobs are most likely to commit and stay loyal to the company. When employees start to think about leaving their jobs, there is a big chance they also start to look for other opportunities outside the company. If better opportunities present, they will leave the company. If the opportunities aren't presented yet, they are already emotionally withdrawing from the organization, leading to higher absenteeism and lower enthusiasm and effort (Rahman et al., 2008). Employee turnover is the largest predictive factor for voluntary turnover (Lambert et al., 2012). Identifying employee turnover intention as early as possible will help organization to prevent the turnover. The correlation between organizational culture and employee turnover has been an interest in the human resource research field for years as organizational cultures and commitment becomes one of direct causes of employee turnover (Lambert et al., 2012).

Before employees withdraw from the company, employees have already had intention to do turnover. This is known as turnover intention. Internal and external factors can be the reasons why employee has turnover intention. The factors that are common is employee's thought to job alternatives and present economic conditions. Turnover intention is a cognitive act and happens before voluntary turnover (Lambert et al., 2012). Turnover intention is related to desires to quit, plans to leave, or searching for alternative jobs. Turnover intention is the largest predictive factor for voluntary turnover (Lambert et al., 2012). According to Zhao et al., (2013) turnover intention is defined as a conscious and deliberate

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willingness to leave the organization. They explained turnover intention as workers' self-reported intentions to leave their jobs. Based on those definitions, it can be concluded that turnover intention is employees' self-willingness to leave their jobs consciously. However, most of employees who have the intention may not actually leave their jobs. Turnover itself is an important decision that need to be considered properly because it may include risk uncertainty about alternative employment, unstable financial income, transaction costs, and psychological costs. Even though turnover intention may not turn into actual employee turnover, it is important to be noticed by organizations. When employees have turnover intention, they are not only thinking of quitting the jobs but also intending to look for alternative employment. These kinds of behavior bring disadvantage to company since it will decrease employees' productivity; employees tend to focus on looking for new employment rather than doing their jobs with best effort. The cost is even higher when companies lose their most productive and valuable employees.

2.3.2 Research Gap on Employee Turnover

       Employees' age becomes one of important factors in deciding whether the employees should remain in an organization or not. Lambert et al., (2012) concluded in their research that age was inversely related to turnover intent. In their study, they found out that, older aged employees felt they had fewer employment opportunities and thus they were more satisfied with their jobs so they tended to stay in the organization. Older aged employees also have long tenure which led them also to stay in their organization because investments that they had made were too costly for them to leave. Hayes (2015) found that employees' age has significant relationship with turnover intention. Nowadays, the employees consist of Baby Boomer generation (born 1946-1964), Generation X (born 1965-1981) and Generation Y (born 1982-1999). Every generation creates their own traditions and cultures by shared a collective field of emotions, attitudes, preferences, and dispositions (Arsenault, 2004). Generation Y has strong interest in training, career advancement and work-life balance. Along with Generation X, they are less loyal to employers and more individualistic, compared to Baby Boomers. The Baby Boomers are the post-World War II generation, so they were more easily satisfied and less likely to quit. Generation X and Y tend to turnover when they feel there is no chance for promotion or increased pay (Hayes, 2015). Generation X and Y averaged staying less years in an organization while older generation have 15 years length of tenure (Hokanson et al., 2011).

       Another factor that influences employees to do turnover is level of income. Khatri et al., (2001) studied about employee turnover rates in Asian context by examining companies in Singapore. The result showed that level of income influence turnover in the food and beverage and marine and shipping industries. It means the higher level of income, the less likely to have turnover. But turnover was unrelated with level of income in the retail industry. Studies of employees in United States revealed that employees in the lowest income quartile have lower job satisfaction compared to those in upper income quartile (Medina, 2012). They also were reported to have the highest intention to seek new job opportunities with better-pay status. The nature of the workplace environment has characteristics that affect employees' perception of the organization where they work at. McKnight et al., (2009) found that workplace characteristics such as structural fairness, trust in senior management, employee information sharing, and job security affected turnover intentions and employee turnover. Trust in senior management may lead to employees' satisfaction because they believe that management will run the organization effectively. Organizations that failed to promote accommodating and cordial workplace characteristics and environment for employees might increase employees' emotional exhaustion and lead employees to quit.

       Being a newly hired employee in any organization means you have to adapt with your job responsibilities and your working environment. The adapting and socializing process might burn out new hired employees. Yu and Kang (2016) studied about factors affecting turnover of new graduate nurses in Korea. They found that the biggest turnover intention rate will be in the period of 0 to 6 months of work. At this period, work schedule, orientation duration, becoming part of a team, professional development, desired hospital, and practical support are factors that are important for new graduate nurses and may affect their turnover intention. The longer they stay working in the hospital, the less their turnover intention and subsequent turnover. The factors that were important to them and affected their turnover intention become unimportant anymore. The factor that still affecting them until they are at 13 to 18 months period of work is professional development.

Pineau et al., (2015) researched about new graduate nurses' job satisfaction because job satisfaction is related to turnover intention. They argued that new graduate nurses are experiencing stressful work environment which leads to low job satisfaction and high turnover intention. It turns out that both personal and structural workplace factors are affecting new graduate nurses' job satisfaction, and as well as turnover intention. As lots of senior nurses decide to retire, it is important to understand turnover intention among new graduate nurses and prevent nursing workforce shortage. Boamah and Laschinger (2016) found that experiencing burnout (emotional exhaustion and cynicism) will increase turnover intention among new graduate nurses. Turnover intention is a recurring problem so the organization should create supportive working condition for new graduate nurses. In Italy, Tomietto et al., (2015) also studied about newcomer nurses' turnover intention and organizational socialization. At 0 to 6 months, competence acquisition and comprehension of organizational rules are main factors for newcomer nurses. At 7 to 12 months, the factor changes to workgroup integration. Above 12 months, like Yu and Kang's study (2016), it is professional development that will affect turnover intention. Research about new hired employees' turnover intention also has been done in the tourism and hospitality industry.

Kim (2012), found that newcomers from graduate school or other industries and newcomers from same industry have different factors affecting their turnover intention. Newcomers from graduate school or other industries place personnel management, professional development, and job related are significant factors that related to turnover intention. Meanwhile, for newcomers from same industries will only concern themselves about the supervisor's support. Interesting findings from this research agreed that external causes affect them most and co-workers' support is not a significant factor for turnover intention. Allen and Shannock (2012), approached new hired employees' turnover intention within a year of working with socialization tactics. It was found that perceived organizational support and job embeddedness as socialization tactics related to organizational commitment and turnover intention of new hired employees. Early experiences of socialization can help new hired employees to adapt and create relationship with their organization. Positive experiences lead to high organizational commitment and low turnover intention. Chen et al., (2016) studied about turnover process among Chinese new employees and how career growth took role. The result showed that career growth has negative correlation with turnover intention and positive correlation with job satisfaction. Chinese new employees perceived that they serve their organization so in return they expect career progress, professional development, and opportunities to get promotion and pay rise.

2.4 Historical Thinking

Previous research has shown that organizational culture does have an impact on several key organizational variables (Cameron and Quinn, 2011). Denison, Lief, and Ward (2004) extolled the qualities of organizational culture in enhancing organizational performance. Many other studies reported a profound impact of organizational culture on organizational performance and effectiveness (Cameron and Quinn, 2011, Denison et al., 2004). In addition to the reported impact of organizational culture on overall organizational performance, the literature suggests that organizational culture affects individual attitudes and behaviours. Therefore, employees' perceptions of the nature of organizational culture are a critical element in human resource management, change management and leadership. O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991) explored the relationship between organizational culture and individual personality types. They suggested that employees who were not a good fit with an organization, either because of job tasks or organizational culture, were likely to quit because of reduced job satisfaction and commitment to the organization as compared to employees who were a good fit, especially with the organizational culture. Meyer et al. (2010) examined the relationship between Organizational culture and employee commitment and intent to stay at a Canadian energy company. The authors hypothesized that employee education and intent to stay would be greater when there was organizational culture similarity between the employees perceived and preferred organizational culture. They assessed pre-change employee dedication and intent to stay one month before company reorganization. Paper surveys were distributed to the entire workforce, and 699 (67%) responded.

Seven months after the restructuring, the researchers assessed post-change employee commitment and intent to stay via a second paper survey that was distributed to the entire workforce, of whom 637 (59%) responded. The authors deployed polynomial regression and response surface analysis

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to each of the dependent variables (commitment and intention to stay) to determine employee alignment with Organizational culture and found that Organizational culture correlated with intention to stay (Lower turnover intention). Subsequently, Organizational culture similarity had positive outcomes for employee commitment and intent to stay. Culture is integral to the identity of an organization and reflects the fundamental values critical to that organization (Ojo, 2010). Indeed, OC is defined regarding its values which are then evinced in the operational practices of the organization. An organization's culture may make that organization a more or less attractive employment prospect for different individuals based on each person's value structure, and research has shown that people tend to seek out and self-select organizations that epitomize their personal values and morals (O'Reilly, 1991). Thus, OC has significant implications for the retention of employees because it may be the most important factor in determining how well an individual fit with an organization (O'Reilly, 1991). Indeed, research shows that employees who fit well with their organization's culture are less likely to leave and are generally more satisfied with the conditions of their employment, while those that are a poor fit are more likely to leave voluntarily and less liable to be promoted.

Some researchers have found that length of tenure is negatively correlated with employee turnover rate (Hayes, 2015; Tew et al., 2013, Gerhart, 1989). It means the longer employees stay in an organization, the less intention to do turnover. Dinger, Thatcher, Step in, and Craig (2012) said that employees who have worked longer in an organization are less aware of comparable jobs in other organizations than those who work there in short period. Even if there are better job alternatives, long tenured employees would often choose to stay (Gerhart, 1989). Long tenured employees also have higher job satisfaction and lower turnover intention rather than short tenured employees (De Moura et al., 2009). However, some studies revealed that length of tenure still have uncertain correlation with turnover intention. Chan and Morrison (2000) found that long tenured nurses (2-4 years experiences) tend to have turnover intention than new nurses. It is argued that new nurses have not given any thought of career plan at the beginning of their career because they are to focus on adjusting with new environment and work demands. After they are settled with their environment and work demands, around second to fourth year of their job, they start to evaluate their career plan.

Beecroft, Dorey, and Wenten (2007) studied about new graduate nurses and turnover intention. This study is different with previous study because new graduate nurses here consist of full range of ages. They found older new graduate nurses who did not get their choices in hospital would like to leave the job. Older new graduate nurses more likely to have fixed career plan than younger nurses and they are willing to resign when their goals are not on track. Organizational culture is one of the fundamental factors that influence employees' turnover behavior. There are several things that make employees commit to their jobs. Most of them usually measure their satisfaction based on their pay, supervisor, coworkers, job itself, and promotion opportunities. If employees are satisfied with the organizational culture, they tend to be committed to the organization. They have a tendency to stay loyal at their jobs and contribute more beneficial actions for the company, such as arrive on time, reducing absenteeism, putting best effort at their works. When employee is satisfied and committed to company, it is expected that turnover rate can be decreased.

Adkins and Caldwell (2004) in their research about organization culture said that how 'fit' individuals to the culture of the organization was a significant predictors of job satisfaction. When the individuals feel that their values are congruent with organization values, then they are more likely to be satisfied with their job and stay remain in the same organization. Medina (2012) also found the same result in her study. The study said that increasing cultural workplace satisfaction should increase job satisfaction and decrease turnover intention. Workplace culture is a moderation between job satisfaction and employee turnover. Mouritsen et al., (2004), concluded that the employee turnover in schools and universities are due partly to the low morale of the teachers, which in turn has increased the rate of labor turnover from the system. They further analyze that it is fair to say that lecturers will put in their best when the work environment is conducive; when there are good welfare packages like good houses, adequate health and medical insurance, training and development opportunities and other relevant fringe benefits. In the absence of these, it can only be expected that frustration and eventually quits will result. Given their role in society, there is a strong case to pay special attention to university academics while not constituting them into a special class. However, it is important to further explore opportunities to

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provide more incentives to enable lecturers maximize their role in the development process. In doing this, we have also shown that economic incentives on their own do not provide sufficient motivation for university teachers. They also assert that high turnover lowers firm's incentives to provide staff training programs and, therefore, reduces productivity.

On the other hand, job matching theory postulates that turnover can help employers and employees to avoid being locked in sub-optimal matches permanently, subsequently increases productivity. The conflict between retaining workforce stability on the one hand, and flexibility on the other, gives rise to the quest of an optimal turnover rate. Avery et al., (2007) uses multinational cross panel regressions to explore the extent of employee turnover in the organization which may trim down growth and development of any organization and the overall economy. Their paper finds a substantial impact of employee turnover on economic growth based on data from East Asia, Africa, South Asia and the Middle East. His results suggest that employee turnover in education and management has a direct impact on economic growth through throbbing change in management lowering the average quality of human capital.

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
3.1 Research Aim
This chapter discusses the research methods and research methodology that was employed in the study. The research is aimed at providing the procedures and described the activities that were utilized for the completion of this work, and it's comprised the research design, study sites, study population, data collection method, data collection instrument and methods used in analyzing the data.

3.2 Research Design
A cross-sectional study design was used. This design was used because it enabled the researcher to target a large group of respondents to obtain information without making follow-up of the respondents once information from them was obtained (Amin, 2015; Sekaran, 2018). Therefore, this design helped to save on time and resources during data collection. Both quantitative and qualitative research paradigms were adopted to ensure methodological triangulation. This was because the quantitative approach allowed the researcher to solicit information that was quantified while the qualitative approach allowed the researcher to solicit information that was in textual formant (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). Combining numerical and textual information helped the researcher to enrich the interpretation of findings of the study. The research design is the conceptual structure within which research is conducted; it constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. It is the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose (Selltinz, 2018).

The design of this study was an exploratory study that sought to investigate the types of organizational culture operational in ten private tertiary institutions in the Kumasi metropolis, Ashanti region. It also sought to explore how the various operational organizational cultures influenced employee turnover on the institutions. Exploratory or formulative research is a methodological approach that is primarily concerned with discovery and with generating or building theory (Bryman, 2001). The major emphasis is on the discovery of ideas and insights in a subject of interest. Exploratory research does not aim to provide the final and conclusive answers to the research questions but seeks to explore the research topic with varying levels of depth (Singh, 2007). It also helps to present the best understanding to any situation at hand. When conducting exploratory research, the research ought to be dynamic as a result of revelations of new insights and findings in the research.

The study also employed the quantitative research design. Quantitative research design relates to the design of a research which uses quantitative research methods. It is aimed at discovering how many people think, act or perceive a situation. It involves large samples sizes, concentrating on the varied and quantity of responses as opposed to gaining more emotional insight with the aim of qualitative research designs. In the end, the data is presented in a numerical format and can be analyzed in a quantifiable way employing statistical tests (Bernard and Bernard, 2012). Non-probability sampling, specifically the convenience sampling method was employed to select 203 employees of the selected private tertiary institutions. The data collection tool utilized in this study was questionnaires. The questionnaires were self-administered and SPSS was used for the data analysis. The study employed

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Likert Scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) to determine the relationship of the types of organizational culture affecting employee turnover. Results were presented in tables where appropriate.

3.3 Study Areas

The study was conducted among some Ghana Airport Company Limited in the Kumasi metropolis. The Kumasi metropolis is one of the largest metropolitan areas in Ghana. It is the second city in Ghana and it is known for the stories of its rich and powerful Ashanti kingdom (kma.gov.gh). It has a total population of about 2,069,350 inhabitants (kma.gov.gh). The Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST) is the main pubic university in the city and the second biggest in Ghana after the University of Ghana. The city is also dispersed with Ghana Airport Company Limited and tertiary institutions. There are about 20 Ghana Airport Company Limited in Kumasi. In all, these Ghana Airport Company Limited offer at least four-year undergraduate degrees (Bachelor degrees) or postgraduate degrees (Masters or Doctoral degrees) accredited programs or courses to qualifying students.

3.4 Ethical Considerations

Bryman & Bell, 2011 said "No research can be conducted without considerations of ethics". The ethical considerations of the study bring to the fore the appropriateness of every research approach to the subjects of study, which has been emphasized strongly in this thesis, from research methodologies and the theoretical framework used in data collection to the analysis and conclusion. The respondents and interviewers granted their full consent to the information in the study and the publication of the results. The names and addresses of respondents and interviewers will be confidential. Therefore, the researcher will not modify or alter in the study any information received from the respondents. The researcher will acknowledge every source of literature examined while conducting the research. Objectivity is maintained in order to avoid any misrepresentation in data collection and interpretation (Bryman& Bell 2011).

3.5 Research Methods
3.5.1 Study Population

Defining the study population is an integral part of posing the primary question. It is not enough to claim that an intervention is or is not effective without describing the type of participant on which the intervention was tested. The study population is the subset of the population with the condition or characteristics of interest defined by the eligibility criteria (Friedman et al., 2010). Yount (2006) points out that a population comprises all possible cases of persons, objects, and events that constitute a known whole. The concept refers to every individual who fits the criteria that a researcher has laid out for the research participants. The group of participants actually studied in any intervention is the study population.

The study population for this current research comprised both administrative staff and engineering staffin the 10 Ghana Airport Company Limited who had worked with the universities for a minimum of three years and more. This cohort was chosen because it was assumed that the period of time frame adopted by this research, employees would have had a unique and personal experience of the organizational culture operative in their Ghana Airport Company Limited. Altogether, 15 engineering stafffrom each university comprising both full time and part time lecturers were included in the study. The administrative staff numbers admitted into this research ranged from 4 to 7 staff members from the various universities. The distribution of the study population is shown in table 3.1.

3.5.2 Sampling Procedure and Sample Size Estimation

Sampling as a step in the conduct of research is very essential. It forms the basis on which interpretation of the research results are done and inference are made to the entire population (Denscombe, 2010). The sample size provides an estimate of the needed size or number of participants in any scientific investigation (Friedman et al., 2010, Brown, 1980). Many scientific investigations that do not carefully and formally consider the sample size requirements turn out to lack the statistical power or ability to detect and provide intervention effects or otherwise of a magnitude or impart of the investigation

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that has clinical importance (Armitage et al., 2002). Given a total finite population of 350 administrative staff and engineering stafffor the selected ten Ghana Airport Company Limited understudy, a finite population correction for proportions on sample size estimation developed by Cochran (1963) was used in determining the sample size for the study.

The sample size calculation is given as:

$$n = \frac{n_0}{1 + \frac{(n_0 - 1)}{N}}$$

and

$$n_0 = \frac{Z * (p) * (1 - p)}{c^2}$$

Where,

Z = 95% confidence level =.96
p = percentage of picking a choice (expressed as a decimal) = 0.5
c = confidence interval (expressed as decimal) = 0.05
n_0= sample size estimation for an infinite population
N = finite population
n = Sample size for finite population correction for proportion

Thus,

$$n_0 = \frac{1.96 \times 0.5 \times (1 - 0.5)}{0.05^2} = 272.25$$

Hence,

$$n = \frac{272.25}{1 + \frac{(272.25 - 1)}{350}} = 192.2631 \cong 192$$

A 5% allowance was allowed to obtain a total sample size of 203 participants. This was to attend to issues of any unforeseen eventualities such as participant drop out. The convenience sampling method was used for the current research. Convenience sampling also known as haphazard sampling, availability sampling, grab sampling, accidental sampling or opportunity sampling is a type of non–probability or non–random sampling where members of the target population that meet certain practical criteria, such as easy accessibility, geographical proximity, availability at a given time, or the willingness to participate are included for the purpose of the study (Dörnyei, 2007). It is also referred to the researching subjects of the population that are easily accessible to the researcher. Convenience samples are regarded as accidental samples because elements may be selected in the sample simply as they just happen to be situated, spatially or administratively, near to where the researcher is conducting the data collection (Zhi, 2014). It deals with available and willing people who agree to participate in any research.

A combination of sampling techniques - probabilistictic and non–probabilistic - was used. Probabilistic sampling techniques involved selecting respondents from the user population by chance and non–probabilistic techniques involved selecting respondents - the Accounting Officers and Contracts Committee members with the intention that they had to participate. The probabilistic sampling technique that was used was simple random sampling and the non- probabilistic sampling technique used was purposive sampling. Simple random sampling technique was used to select amongst the user department staff to give every user department staff an equal chance to participate in the study when drawing a sample from a large population of the users and helped avoid bias in the selection. It also minimized the time and cost involved in selecting. Purposive sampling was used to select the Accounting Officers and Contract Committee members because they were expected to be more knowledgeable about procurement issues in the tertiary institutions as they superintend over the entire procurement process.

3.5.3 Data Collection

Data was collected using a structured questionnaire guide. The questionnaire is a form containing a set of questions items given to people to gain statistical information (Walliman, 2011). The questionnaire is the most common data collecting instrument (Bernard, 2012). Its purpose is to supply you with the data

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you need in an unbiased form as possible. The questionnaires were self-administered by the administrative staff and the engineering staffof the 10 Ghana Airport Company Limited. Question items asked included the factors that constitute organizational culture. They included questions on bureaucratic culture, clan culture, entrepreneurial culture and power culture and their influence on employee turnover in Ghana Airport Company.

The study employed the Likert Scale to respond to the various options under the factors that constitute an organizational culture. The scale ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The likert type scale presents statements of options with which the respondent shows a specific amount of agreement or disagreement to. A scale is assumed between the options of responses available to the respondent and the respondent selects the point that represents his or her opinion. It rates the importance of an attribute (Kotler and Kotler, 2019). Two types of data collection instruments were used in the study. These included questionnaires, and interview guides as briefly explained in the following subsection.

3.5.4 Questionnaire & Survey
Self-administered questionnaires (SAQs) were used to collect quantitative data from the user department staff. Basing on Mugenda and Mugenda (1999), SAQs were used for this category of respondents to save on time because their number was too big for interview and because they could read and write in English and thus filled in the questionnaires by themselves without any assistance. A questionnaire survey was also used to collect information from a selected group of user department staff members using standardized questionnaires (Amin, 2005). This method involved collecting information from the user department staff in a systematic way. Questionnaire survey was used for this category of respondents to save on time because their number was too big to interview; moreover, they were all literate and capable of giving the required information.

3.5.5 Interviews
Interviews were used to collect data from Accounting Officers and Contracts Committee members because, according to Mugenda and Mugenda (1999), they enabled the researcher to establish rapport with this category of respondents and therefore gained their insight. Besides, they were few in number and yet most knowledgeable in procurement issues in the institutions. They also allowed the researcher to clarify answers and obtain in-depth information. Interview guides were used to collect qualitative data (Amin, 2005) from Accounting Officers and Contracts Committee members who were in position to provide in-depth information through probing during the interviews (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). In this study, the probing interviewing tactic was used extensively to obtain deeper explanation of the issue at hand from the respondents. This was largely due to the fact that the respondents often needed stimuli to expand or clarify their own answers and ideas more broadly, so that a broader understanding was more easily reached regarding the findings. The researcher presented questions to the interviewees and he wrote down their views. Data obtained during the interviews supplemented those obtained through the questionnaire.

3.6 Data Analysis
Quantitative data analysis mainly consisted of descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages) and inferential statistics (Spearman Rank Order Correlation). The frequencies and percentages were used to determine the respondents' views on institutional culture and procurement performance. Spearman correlation was used to test the hypotheses. The correlation coefficient (r) was used to determine the strength of the relationship between the variables. The sign of the correlation coefficient (+ or -) was used to determine the nature of relationship. The significance of the correlation coefficient (p) was used to determine the confidence in the findings. The coefficient of determination, which is a square of the correlation coefficient (rho 2), was computed and expressed as a percentage to determine the variance in procurement performance due to institutional culture. Qualitative data analysis involved content analysis, which was used to edit qualitative data and re-organize it into meaningful shorter sentences. A thematic approach was used to analyze qualitative data where themes, categories and patterns were identified. The recurrent themes, which emerged in relation to each guiding question

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from the interviews were presented in the results, with selected direct quotations from participants presented as illustrations.

The analysis of this study was based on Cameron and Quinn (2011) preposition that organizational culture is made up of bureaucratic culture, clan culture, entrepreneurial culture and power culture and their influence on employee turnover in Ghana Airport Company. All data was organized and cleaned and entered into Microsoft office package (Excel) 2016 and analyzed with SPSS version 23. Quantitative data for analysis was collected from respondents of selected Ghana Airport Company Limited using a structured questionnaire guide. Descriptive statistics were presented through frequency tables to enable easy understanding and interpretations. Further, research findings were also presented using tables to establish the level of relationships between the various organizational cultures and employee turnover. Correlation analysis was employed to examine the relationship between organizational cultures and employee turnover. A linear regression model was used in determining the impact of organizational cultures on employee turnover. Linear regression was employed because it allows modeling relationship between two or more explanatory variables and a response variable. It assumes that variables have normal distributions, homoscedasticity and serially uncorrelated errors. The violation of these assumptions may lead to bias in test statistics and confidence interval which will contribute to wrong validity of estimates (Antonakis and Deitz, 2011).

3.6.1 Research Validity and Reliability

For the instruments to yield relevant and correct data, they were given to two experts conversant with the study area to comment on the ambiguity, difficulty and relevance of questions to ensure construct, content and face validity. In order to ensure the degree to which questionnaires would produce consistent results if used under similar conditions, they were piloted on similar respondents in public tertiary institutions since they were similar in nature and the results subjected to Cronbach alpha reliability test. Data collected from the pilot test were analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences).

4.0 DATA ANALYSIS
4.1 Data and Information Description

This chapter comprises research analysis and findings on the investigation into procurement institutional culture and employee performance using social constructivism in Ghana Airport Company. The chapter is in two sections. The first section deals with preliminary analysis detailing personal information of respondents in relation to the Ghana Airport Company Limited under study. The second section focuses on the relationship and impact of organizational cultures on employee turnover of these Ghana Airport Company Limited. The analysis of this study was based on the assertion by Cameron and Quinn (2011) that organizational culture consists of the bureaucratic culture, clan culture, entrepreneurial culture and power culture and their influence on employee turnover.

4.2 Context of Research Sites

Ghana Airports Company Limited (GACL) was established as a result of the decoupling of the existing Ghana Civil Aviation Authority (GCAA) in line with modern trends in the aviation industry. The company was registered in January 2006 with specific responsibility for planning, developing, managing and maintaining all airports and aerodromes in Ghana including Kotoka International Airport (KIA), Kumasi Airport, Tamale Airport, Sunyani Airport, Ho Airport, WA Airstrip as well as various Airstrips. GACL is an implementing agency under the Ministry of Aviation. The Company commenced business on 1st January 2007.

Ghana Airports Company Limited (GACL) is a state-owned company with responsibility for developing, maintaining, planning and managing airports in Ghana. It was registered in 2006 and presently manages airports such as Kotoka International Airport, Wa Airport, Tamale Airport, Sunyani Airport, Ho Airport, Kumasi Airport and other airstrips in Ghana. It was established by result of the decoupling of the existing Ghana Civil Aviation Authority (GCAA) which was in line with current trends that are in the aviation industry.

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The GACL assumed some functions of the GCAA and also managing the airports after the amendment of the GCAA Act 2004, which was renewed on the 12th April 2007 and was licensed for continuous term of 7 years. The company started business on 1st January 2007. The functions of the company are to:

- Provide rescue and firefighting equipment and services at the airports.
- Provide safety and security for aircraft, passengers, cargo in accordance with best international practices.
- Coordinate operations of agencies that provide support services at the airport to enhance overall efficiency.
- Facilitate aircraft, passenger, cargo and mail movements.
- Develop, manage and maintain airports and airstrips in Ghana.

The GACL constructed the Terminal 3 at the KIA in March 2016 and was completed in June 2018 and was opened to the public after 3 months. It was claimed about US$350million was spent on the building of the Terminal 3 and other projects at KIA. The construction of a new runway at the Tamale Airport also was claimed to have cost about US$130million. Also, about US$25million was used for the building of a new airport at Ho in the Volta region of Ghana. It was alleged the Government of Ghana through the Ministry of Aviation planned to hand over the company to a Turkish investor. The workers of GACL embarked on a demonstration to show their disapproval of privatization of the company. The GACL clarified that travelers who did not pay for the Covid-19 test would be handed to state security officials. They made this statement after it was alleged some people were treated badly in a video that was circulating on social media. Due to the impact of Covid-19, the company has been affected as it is struggling with lack of demand and increased unit charges. This has led to costs being passed to other sectors of the travel value chain to cover up the space.

4.3 Analysis of The Questionnaires

A total of 203 respondents from the selected Ghana Airport Company Limited were included in the research. This comprised of 53 (26.1%) and 150 (73.9%) respondents from the administrative and engineering staffs respectively of the Ghana Airport Company Limited. Table 4.1 shows the number of respondents from the various Ghana Airport Company Limited. Out of 53 respondents from the administrative staff of the Ghana Airport Company Limited under study, 32(60.4%) of them are males while 21(39.6%) are females. 102 (68.0%) of respondents from the engineering staff are males whilst 48(32.0%) of them are females. More than half of the administrative and engineering staff respondents are males apart from respondents from contract staff with 3(75.0%) and 8(53.3%) females respectively. This shows high levels of male dominance in Airport Company Limited understudy. 7(13.2%) of administrative staff respondents were from Auto department while 6(11.3%) of them were from Transport department as well as Logistics & Supply Chain, Procurement, and Mechanics. 5(9.4%) of them were from Finance and Administration while 4(7.5%) were from Business Development. However, engineering staff respondents had equal representations across selected Ghana Airport Company Limited.

Table 4.1: Distribution of respondents from the selected Ghana Airport Company Limited

Ghana Airport Company Limited	Administrative staff			Engineering		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total

Auto	4(66.7%)	2(33.3%)	6(11.3%)	12(80.0%)	3(20.0%)	15(100.0%)
Transport	4(66.7%)	2(33.3%)	6(11.3%)	10(66.7%)	5(33.3%)	15(100.0%)
Logistics	4(66.7%)	2(33.3%)	6(11.3%)	12(80.0%)	3(20.0%)	15(100.0%)
Mechanics	3(60.0%)	2(40.0%)	5(9.4%)	11(73.3%)	4(26.7%)	15(100.0%)
Procurement	3(75.0%)	1(25.0%)	4(7.5%)	9(60.0%)	6(40.0%)	15(100.0%)
Finance	3(75.0%)	1(25.0%)	4(7.5%)	13(86.7%)	2(13.3%)	15(100.0%)
Administration	4(57.1%)	3(42.9%)	7(13.2%)	10(66.7%)	5(33.3%)	15(100.0%)
Business Dev	3(50.0%)	3(50.0%)	6(11.3%)	8(53.3%)	7(46.7%)	15(100.0%)
Project Mgt.	3(60.0%)	2(40.0%)	5(9.4%)	9(60.0%)	6(40.0%)	15(100.0%)
Estate	1(25.0%)	3(75.0%)	4(7.5%)	7(46.7%)	8(53.3%)	15(100.0%)
Total	32(60.4%)	21(39.6%)	53(100.0%)	102(68.0%)	48(32.0%)	150(100.0%)

Source: Field data 2018

4.4 Conclusions from Questionnaires
4.4.1 Bureaucratic culture

Table 4.2 shows results of responses on some measurements as values of bureaucratic culture with their means and standard deviations.

Table 4.2: Measurements of bureaucratic culture

Measurement	SD	D	N	A	SA

Formality	7(3.4%)	9(4.4%)	28(13.8%)	60(29.6%)	99(48.8%
Rules	0(0.0%)	9(4.4%)	14(6.9%)	88(43.3%)	92(45.3%
SOP	76(37.4%)	95(41.9%)	19(9.4%)	15(7.9%)	8(3.9%)
Hierarchy	3(1.5%)	10(4.9%)	17(8.4%)	79(39.9%)	94(46.3%

SD – Strongly Disagree, D – Disagree, N – Neutral, A – Agree, SA – Strongly Agree, M – Mean, SD – Standard Deviation, SOP – Standard Operating Procedure
Source: Field data 2018

From table 4.2, 7 (3.4%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that formality is a measure of bureaucratic culture, 9 (4.4%) disagreed that formality is a value of bureaucratic culture; 28(13.8%) were indifferent. However, 60 (29.6%) agreed that formality is a value of bureaucratic culture, whilst 99 (48.8%) strongly agreed that formality is a value of bureaucratic culture. In all, 159 respondents representing 78.4% agreed that formality is a value of bureaucratic culture. Respondents averagely agree that formality is a value of bureaucratic culture (M = 4.16, SD = 1.046). Hence, it can be argued that formality is a value of bureaucratic culture. This confirms a study by Hofstede (2012) who argued that formality is a feature of bureaucratic culture. None of the respondents strongly disagreed that the rules constitute a value of bureaucratic culture; 9(4.4%) disagreed that the rules constitute a value of bureaucratic culture; 14 (6.9%) were indifferent. However, 88 (43.3%) agreed that rules form a value of bureaucratic culture, whilst 92 (48.8%) strongly agreed that rules form a value of bureaucratic culture. A total of 180 respondents, representing 88.6% agreed that the rules constitute a value of bureaucratic culture. Respondents averagely agree that rules form a value of bureaucratic culture (M = 4.30, SD = 0.784). This significantly indicates that rule is a value of bureaucratic culture. This confirms a study by Hofstede (2012) who argue that rules form a feature of bureaucratic culture.

76(37.4%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that standard operating procedure is a value of bureaucratic culture; 85 (41.9%) disagreed that standard operating procedure is a value of bureaucratic culture; 19 (9.4%) were indifferent. However, 15 (7.4%) agreed that standard operating procedure is a value of bureaucratic culture, whilst 8 (3.9%) strongly agreed that standard operating procedure is a value of bureaucratic culture. 161(79.3%) respondents in total disagreed that standard operating procedure is a value of bureaucratic culture. Respondents averagely strongly disagree that formality is a value of bureaucratic culture (M = 1.99, SD = 1.060). Thus, it can be argued that standard operating procedure is a not a value of bureaucratic culture. This contradicts a study by Hofstede (2012) who argue that standard operating procedure is a feature of bureaucratic culture.

Table 4.2 further shows that 3(1.5%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that hierarchy is a value of bureaucratic culture; 10 (4.9%) disagreed that hierarchy is a value of bureaucratic culture; 17 (8.4%) were indifferent. However, 79 (38.9%) agreed that hierarchy is a value of bureaucratic culture whilst 94 (46.3%) strongly agreed that hierarchy is a value of bureaucratic culture. In all, 173 respondents, representing 85.2%, agreed that hierarchy is a value of bureaucratic culture. Respondents averagely agree that hierarchy is a value of bureaucratic culture (M = 4.21, SD = 0.908). Hence, it can be argued that hierarchy is a strong value of bureaucratic culture. This confirms a study by Hofstede (2012) who argue that hierarchy is a feature of bureaucratic culture.

4.5 Analysis of the Interviews
4.5.1 Clan culture
Table 4.3 shows results of responses on some measurements as values of clan culture with their means and standard deviations.
Table 4.3: Measurements of clan culture

Measurement	SD	D	N	A	SA
Tradition	18(8.9%)	28(13.8%)	24(11.8%)	64(31.5%)	69(34.0%

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Loyalty	63(31.0%)	97(47.8%)	27(13.3%)	11(5.4%)	5(2.5%)
Personal commitment	176(8.4%)	32(15.9%)	3(1.5%)	91(44.8%)	60(29.6%
Extensive socialization	22(10.8%)	31(15.3%)	7(3.4%)	97(47.8%)	46(22.7%
Team work	77(37.9%)	69(34.0%)	16(7.9%)	24(11.8%)	17(8.4%)

SD – Strongly Disagree, D – Disagree, N – Neutral, A – Agree, SA – Strongly Agree, M – Mean, SD – Standard Deviation
Source: Field data 2018

From the table above, 18 (8.9%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that tradition is a value of clan culture; 28 (13.8%) disagreed that tradition is a value of clan culture; 24 (11.8%) were indifferent. However, 64 (31.5%) agreed that tradition is a value of clan culture, whilst 69 (34.0%) strongly agreed that tradition is a value of clan culture. Results show that respondents are averagely neutral about tradition as a value of clan culture (M = 3.68, SD = 1.309). In all, 133 respondents, representing 65.5%, agreed that tradition is a value of clan culture. Hence, it can be argued that tradition is a value of clan culture. This confirms a study by Ongori(2007) who argues that tradition is a feature of clan culture.

Moreover, 63 (31.0%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that loyalty is a value of clan culture; 97 (47.8%) disagreed that loyalty is a value of clan culture; 27 (13.3%) were indifferent. However, 11 (5.4%) agreed that loyalty is a value of clan culture, whilst 5 (2.5%) strongly agreed that loyalty is a value of clan culture. In all, 160 respondents, constituting 78.8%, disagreed that loyalty is a value of clan culture. Results show that respondents averagely disagree that loyalty is a value of clan culture (M = 2.00, SD = 0.941). Hence, it can be argued that loyalty is not a value of clan culture. This contradicts a study by Mullins (2010) who argues that loyalty is a feature of clan culture.

Also, 17 (8.4%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that personal commitment is a value of clan culture; 32(15.8%) disagreed that extensive socialization is a value of clan culture; 3 (1.5%) were indifferent. However, 91 (44.8%) agreed that personal commitment is a value of clan culture, whilst 60(29.6%) strongly agreed that personal commitment is a value of clan culture. Results show that respondents are averagely neutral about personal commitment as a value of clan culture (M = 3.71, SD = 1.273). 151 respondents, representing 74.4%, agreed that personal commitment is a value of clan culture in total. Hence, it can be argued that personal commitment is a value of clan culture. This confirms a study by Mullins (2010) who argues that personal commitment is a feature of clan culture.

Further, 22 (10.8%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that extensive socialization is a value of clan culture; 31(15.3%) disagreed that extensive socialization is a value of clan culture; 7 (3.4%) were indifferent. However, 97 (47.8%) agreed that extensive socialization is a value of clan culture, whilst 47 (22.7%) strongly agreed that extensive socialization is a value of clan culture. In all, 143 respondents, representing 70.5%, agreed that extensive socialization is a value of clan culture. Results show that respondents averagely agree that extensive socialization is a value of clan culture (M = 3.56, SD = 1.290). Hence, it can be argued that extensive socialization is a value of clan culture. This confirms a study by Hofstede (2012) who argues that extensive socialization is a feature of clan culture.

Lastly, 77 (37.9%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that teamwork is a value of clan culture; 31 (15.3%) disagreed that teamwork is a value of clan culture; 7 (3.4%) were indifferent. However, 97 (47.8%) agreed that teamwork is a value of clan culture, whilst 47(22.7%) strongly agreed that teamwork is a value of clan culture. Results show that respondents are averagely neutral about team work as a value of clan culture (M = 2.19, SD = 1.288). A total of 143 respondents, representing 70.5%, agreed that teamwork is a value of clan culture. Hence, it can be argued that teamwork is a value of clan culture. This confirms a study by Ongori (2007) who argues that teamwork is a feature of clan culture.

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4.5.2 Entrepreneurial culture

Table 4.4 below shows results of responses on some measurements as values of entrepreneurial culture with their means and standard deviations.

Table 4.4: Measurements of entrepreneurial culture

Measurement	SD	D	N	A	SA	M	SD
High level of risk	18(8.9%)	25(12.3%)	22(10.8%)	78(38.4%)	60(29.6%)	3.67	1.294
Dynamism	12(5.9%)	15(7.4%)	33(16.3%)	66(32.5%)	77(37.9%)	3.89	1.168
Creative characteristics	33(16.3%)	52(25.6%)	14(6.9%)	58(28.6%)	46(22.7%)	3.16	1.444
Innovation	23(11.3%)	31(15.3%)	16(7.9%)	83(40.9%)	50(24.6%)	3.52	1.318
Commitment to experiment	28(13.8%)	17(8.4%)	23(11.3%)	65(32.0%)	70(34.5%)	3.65	1.386

SD – Strongly Disagree, D – Disagree, N – Neutral, A – Agree, SA – Strongly Agree, M – Mean, SD – Standard Deviation
Source: Field data 2018

The table above shows that 18 (8.9%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that high level of risk is a characteristic of entrepreneurial culture; 25(12.3%) disagreed that high level of risk is a characteristic of entrepreneurial culture; 22(10.8%) were indifferent. However, 78 (38.4%) agreed that high level of risk is a characteristic of an entrepreneurial culture, whilst 60 (29.6%) strongly agreed that high level of risk is a characteristic of entrepreneurial culture. Results show that respondents are averagely neutral about high level of risk as a value of entrepreneurial culture (M = 3.67, SD = 1.264). In all, 138 respondents, representing 68%, agreed that high level of risk is a characteristic of an entrepreneurial culture. Hence, it can be argued that high level of risk is a value of entrepreneurial culture. This confirms a study by Ojo (2010) who argues that high level of risk is a feature of entrepreneurial culture

Moreover, it can be observed that 12 (5.9%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that dynamism is a characteristic of entrepreneurial culture; 15 (7.4%) disagreed that dynamism is a characteristic of entrepreneurial culture; 33 (16.3%) were indifferent. However, 66 (32.5%) agreed that dynamism is a characteristic of an entrepreneurial culture, whilst 77 (29.6%) strongly agreed that dynamism is a characteristic of entrepreneurial culture. Results show that respondents are averagely neutral about dynamism as a value of entrepreneurial culture (M = 3.89, SD = 1.168). In all, 143 respondents representing 70.4%, agreed that dynamism is a characteristic of an entrepreneurial culture. It can be argued that dynamism is a value of an entrepreneurial culture.

This confirms a study by [10] who argues that dynamism is a feature of entrepreneurial culture. Furthermore, 33 (16.3%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that creative characteristic is a value of entrepreneurial culture; 52 (25.6%) disagreed that creative characteristic is a value of entrepreneurial culture; 14 (6.9%) were indifferent. However, 58 (28.6%) agreed that creative character is a value of an entrepreneurial culture, whilst 46 (22.7%) strongly agreed that dynamism is a value of entrepreneurial culture. Results show that respondents are averagely neutral about creative characteristics as a value of entrepreneurial culture (M = 3.16, SD = 1.444). In all, 104, representing 51.3%, agreed that creative character is a value of an entrepreneurial culture. Hence, it can be argued that creative character is a weak value of an entrepreneurial culture. This confirms a study by Moela (2016) who argues that creative character is a feature of entrepreneurial culture.

Also, 23 (11.3%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that innovation is a value of entrepreneurial culture; 31 (15.3%) disagreed that innovation is a value of entrepreneurial culture; 16 (7.9%) were indifferent. However, 83 (40.9%) agreed that innovation is a value of an entrepreneurial culture, whilst 50 (24.6%) strongly agreed that innovation is a value of entrepreneurial culture. Results show that respondents are averagely neutral about innovation as a value of entrepreneurial culture (M = 3.52, SD = 1.318). In all, 133 respondents, representing 64.5%, agreed that innovation is a value of an entrepreneurial culture. Hence, it can be argued that innovation is a value of an entrepreneurial culture. This confirms a study by Ojo (2010) who argues that innovation is a feature of entrepreneurial culture.

More so, it can be observed from Table 4.4 that 28(13.8%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that commitment to experiment is a value of entrepreneurial culture; 17 (8.4%) disagreed that commitment to experiment is a value of entrepreneurial culture which influences employee turnover; 23 (11.3%) were indifferent. However, 65 (32.0%) agreed that commitment to experiment is a value of an entrepreneurial culture, whilst 70 (34.5%) strongly agreed that commitment to experiment is a value of entrepreneurial culture. Results show that respondents are averagely neutral about commitment to experiment as a value of entrepreneurial culture (M = 3.65, SD = 1.386). In all, 135 respondents, representing 66.5%, agreed that commitment to experiment is a value of an entrepreneurial culture. Hence, it can be argued that commitment to experiment is a value of an entrepreneurial culture. This confirms a study by Suppiah and Singh Sandhu (2011) who argues that commitment to experiment is a feature of entrepreneurial culture.

4.5.3 Power culture

Table 4.5 below shows results of responses on some measurements as values of power culture with their means and standard deviations.

Table 4.5: Measurements of power culture

Measurement	SD	D	N	A	SA	M	SD
Equality	27(13.3%)	29(14.3%)	13(6.4%)	71(35.0%)	63(31.0%)	3.65	1.400
Using power to frustrate	63(31.0%)	59(29.1%)	7(3.4%)	52(25.6%)	22(10.8%)	2.56	1.428
Fairness	56(27.6%)	67(33.0%)	11(5.4%)	41(20.2%)	28(13.8%)	2.60	1.426
Firmness	32(15.8%)	41(20.2%)	17(8.4%)	66(32.5%)	47(23.2%)	3.27	1.421
Generosity	44(21.7%)	66(32.5%)	21(10.3%)	46(22.7%)	26(12.8%)	2.72	1.365

SD – Strongly Disagree, D – Disagree, N – Neutral, A – Agree, SA – Strongly Agree, M – Mean, SD – Standard Deviation
Source: Field data 2018

Table 4.5 shows that 27 (13.3%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that equality is a value of power culture; 29 (14.3%) disagreed that equality is a value of power culture; 13 (6.4%) were indifferent. However, 71 (35.0%) agreed that equality is a value of power culture, whilst 63(31.0%) strongly agreed that equality is a value of power culture. Results show that respondents are averagely neutral about equality as a value of power culture (M = 3.65, SD = 1.400). In all, 134 respondents, representing 66%, agreed that equality is a value of an entrepreneurial culture. Hence, it can be argued that equality is value of power culture. This confirms a study by San Park and Hyun Kim (2009) who argues that equality is a feature of power culture.

Again, 63(31.0%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that using power to frustrate others is a value of power culture; 59 (29.1%) disagreed that using power to frustrate others is a value of power culture; 7 (3.4%) were indifferent. However, 52(25.6%) agreed that using power to frustrate others is a value of power culture, whilst 22(10.8%) strongly agreed that using power to frustrate others is a value of power culture. In total, 122 respondents, representing 60.1%, disagreed that using power to frustrate others is a value of power culture. Results show that respondents averagely disagree that using power to frustrate is a value of power culture (M = 2.56, SD = 1.428). Hence, it can be argued that using power to frustrate others is not a value of power culture. This contradicts a study by San Park and Hyun Kim (2009) who argues that using power to frustrate others is a feature of power culture.

Besides, it can be observed from Table 4.5 that 56 (27.6%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that fairness is a value of power culture; 67 (33.0%) disagreed that fairness is a value of power culture; 11 (5.4%) were indifferent. However, 41 (20.2%) agreed that fairness is a value of power culture, whilst 28(13.8%) strongly agreed that fairness is a value of power culture. In all, 123 respondents, representing 60.6%, disagreed that fairness is a value of power culture. Results show that respondents averagely disagree that fairness is a value of power culture (M = 2.60, SD = 1.426). Hence, it can be argued that fairness is not a value of power culture. This contradicts with a study by Bevan et al. (1997) who argues that fairness is a feature of power culture.

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In addition, it can be observed from Table 4.5 that 32 (15.8%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that firmness is a value of power culture; 41 (20.2%) disagreed that firmness is a value of power culture; 17 (8.4%) were indifferent. However, 66 (32.5%) agreed that firmness is a value of power culture, whilst 47(23.2%) strongly agreed that firmness is a value of power culture. Results show that respondents are averagely neutral about firmness as a value of power culture (M = 3.27, SD = 1.421). In all, 113 respondents, representing 55.7%, agreed that firmness is a value of power culture. Hence, it can be argued that firmness is a weak value of power culture. This confirms a study by Armstrong (2010) who argues that firmness is not a strong feature of power culture.

Again, it can be observed from Table 4.5 that 44 (21.7%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that generosity is a value of power culture; 66 (32.5%) disagreed that generosity is a value of power culture; 21 (10.3%) were indifferent. However, 46 (22.7%) agreed that generosity is a value of power culture, whilst 26 (12.8%) strongly agreed that generosity is a value of power culture. In all, 110 respondents, representing 54.2% disagreed that generosity is a value of power culture. Results show that respondents averagely disagree that generosity is a value of power culture (M = 2.72, SD = 1.365). Hence, it can be argued that generosity is not a value of power culture. This contradicts a study by San Park and Hyun Kim (2009) who argues that generosity is a feature of power culture.

4.6 Conclusions From Interview

Correlation analysis was done to determine the relationship among organizational cultures and employee turnover. This is shown in Table 4.6 below.

Table 4.6: Pearson's correlation coefficient of organizational cultures and employee turnover

	ET	BC	CC	EC	PC
ET	1.000				
BC	0.359*	1.000			
CC	0.360*	0.344	1.000		
EC	0.375*	0.327	0.372	1.000	
PC	0.358	0.348	0.364	0.356	1.000

*Et – Employee Turnover, BC – Bureaucratic Culture, CC – Clan culture, EC – Entrepreneurial Culture, PC – Power Culture. * Correlation is significant at 0.05 levels*
Source: Field data 2018

From the table above, all the various types of organizational cultures evidenced significant and moderate correlation with employee turnover. BC (R=0.359), CC (R=0.360), EC (R=0.375) and PC (R=0.358) had a strong significant correlation with employee turnover. The highest relationship exists between entrepreneurial culture and employee turnover (R=0.375) while the least relationship exists between power culture and employee turnover (R=0.358). This means that there is the existence of relationships between the various types of organizational culture and employee turnover. The table further shows correlations between the various organizational cultures. The highest correlation exists between entrepreneurial culture and clan culture (R=0.372) while the least exists between entrepreneurial culture and bureaucratic culture (R = 0.327).

4.6.1 Impact of the various organizational cultures on employee turnover

A linear regression analysis was performed to determine the extent of impact of the various organizational cultures on employee turnover. Table 4.7 below further examines the nature of the relationship through the use of regression analysis.

Table 4.7: The impact of organizational cultures on employee turnover

Model	Unstandardized coefficient		Standardized coefficient	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Constant	0.517	0.065		8.003	0.000
BC	0.479	0.046	0.406	10.483	0.000

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CC	–0.123	0.052	–0.141	–2.632	0.010
EC	0.532	0.40	0.679	13.154	0.000
PC	0.044	0.37	0.0519	1.184	0.238

Et – Employee Turnover, BC – Bureaucratic Culture, CC – Clan culture, EC – Entrepreneurial Culture, PC – Power Culture.
Source: Field data 2018

From Table 4.7, it can be observed that Bureaucratic Culture (BC) significantly impacts on employee turnover (B=0.479; t–test=10.483; p<0.01). Thus, a 1–unit increase in bureaucratic culture corresponds with 0.479 unit increase in employee turnover. This means that if leaders of organizations improve upon the bureaucratic culture of their organizations, the rate of employee turnover can be reduced as confirmed by Hofstede (2012).

Also, it can be found that Clan Culture (CC) significantly influences employee turnover (B=–0.123; t–test=–2.632; p<0.02). Hence, a 1–unit increase in clan culture corresponds with 0.123 unit decrease in employee turnover. This means that if leaders of organizations do not improve upon the clan culture of their organization, the level of employee turnover can increase. This is contrary to Mullins (2010) whose findings show a direct impact of clan culture on employee turnover.

In addition, Entrepreneurial Culture (EC) significantly influences employee turnover (B=0.532; t–test=–13.154; p<0.01). Thus, a 1–unit increase in clan culture corresponds with 0.532 unit increase in employee turnover. This means that if leaders of organizations improve upon the entrepreneurial culture of their organization, the level of employee turnover can be reduced as confirmed by Ojo (2010).

Finally, although Power Culture (PC) has a positive impact on employee turnover, this impact is not significant (B=0.044; t–test=1.184; p>0.05). Hence, a 1 unit increase in power culture corresponds with a non–significant increase of 0.044 unit in employee turnover This means that if leaders of organizations improve upon the power culture of their organization, it would have no influence on the level of employee turnover, which contradicts San Park and Hyun Kim (2009) who argue that power culture has a positive influence on employee turnover.

Further, the analysis shows the relative strengths of the various organizational cultures. From the table, Entrepreneurial Culture shows the strongest relative strength of 0.679 followed by Bureaucratic Culture (0.479), Power Culture (0.044) and lastly Clan Culture (–0.123). This shows that entrepreneurial culture has the strongest impact on employee turnover relative to other organizational cultures.

5.0 EVALUATION OF THE RESEARCH
5.1 Summary
The focal objective of this study was to investigate the influence of organizational culture affecting employee turnover in Ghana. The current situation of employee turnover in this current study was assessed among administrative staff and engineering staff of Ghana Airport Company Limited. Specifically, this study sought to examine the influence of the different types of organizational culture on the impact of employee turnover among the Ghana Airport Company Limited considered in this current study. The specific objectives were to assess the effects of bureaucratic culture on employee turnover, to assess the effects of clan culture on employee turnover, to assess the effects of entrepreneurial culture on employee turnover and to assess the effects of power culture on employee turnover.

The study employed quantitative research design with a convenience sampling technique for the selection of 203 respondents in the study. Correlation and regression analysis were done to test the relationship between the organizational culture and employee turnover as well as their impacts. The study found that Bureaucratic Culture (BC) significantly influences employee turnover (B=0.406; t–test=10.483;p<0.01). Also, the study revealed that Clan Culture (CC) significantly influences employee turnover (B=0.141; t–test=–2.362; p<0.02). Again, it was found from the study that Entrepreneurial Culture has a positive significant effect on employee turnover (B=.679; t–test=–13.154; p<0.01). Finally, the study revealed that Power Culture (PC), though, has a positive impact, does not significantly influence employee turnover (B=.0519; t–test=–1.184; p>0.05). The study recommended that the management of the organizations should strengthen formal hierarchical rules as they are significant values of bureaucratic culture that influence employee turnover.

5.2 Findings and Discoveries

Organizational culture arises from the underlying assumptions, values and beliefs that determine how people behave in any organization. It can also be said to be an organizations' personality. The organizational culture drives an organization. It is aligned with the business strategies of the organization that drives the organization in the achievement of its goals. It is a landmark in the effectiveness of any organization. There is no specified organizational culture for any particular organization or industry. Whilst some organizations are suited to particular types or different types of cultures and to rapid and repeated change amidst cultures in their workplaces, others are also well suited to slow and adaptive cultures in their workplaces. The preferred organizational culture is the culture that fits the direction and strategy of a particular organization as it confronts its own issues and the challenges in a particular time.

In Bureaucratic culture, there is a well-defined, formal, structured work environment that depends on authority, hierarchy and procedures to keep the organization running smoothly. There is a primal focus in such organizations on efficiency, job execution and reliability of work executed. Measurements under bureaucratic culture in this current research included formality, rules, Standard Operating Procedures (SOP) and hierarchy. In all, 180 representing 88.6% agreed that rules are a major value of bureaucratic culture. This confirms a study by Hofstede (2012) who argue that rules form a feature of bureaucratic culture. The least regarded measurement of bureaucratic culture among study participants was Standard Operating Procedures (SOP). About 79% (161/203) disagreed that Standard Operating Procedure (SOP) is a value of bureaucratic culture. They argued that Standard Operating Procedure (SOP) is not a value of bureaucratic culture. This contradicts a study by Hofstede (2012) who argue that Standard Operating Procedure is a feature of bureaucratic culture.

The measurement of rules was the strong feature of bureaucratic culture in this current study probably due to the study population used for the study. Bureaucratic culture rests on the strength of strong organizational pillars. The work and interaction between these pillars is controlled by procedures and rules (Mullins, 2010). Ghana Airport Company Limited are typically not operated by governments. In Ghana, most Ghana Airport Company Limited are faith-based universities. They were set up by church denominations in the country. Thus, they are independent schools that set its own policies and goals and is privately funded. Consistent with this, Ghana Airport Company Limited have been successful in the country due to strict adherence of policies and rules from their governing councils. The governing council, academic board and all other various committees in the university structure operate under the provisions of the statutes of the university. The statutes provide the fundamental constitutional framework and governance that allows the university to manage its affairs. The statutes are sometimes precluded into ordinances, strategies or tactics. These contain detailed provisions arising from the framework provided in the statutes. The statutes operate and control all aspects of private university's business.

Additionally, Erdem (2007) consent that the bureaucratic culture type is effective because it is in mechanical and bureaucratic organizations give importance to order and rules because it is believed that these will stabilize the system. Clan culture is shaped between the dimensions of organization focus and flexibility. The clan culture possesses high affiliation and concern with teamwork and participation (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1991). It has social features as trust, solidarity and unity. Successful Japanese firms with effective team structure are typical examples of this culture (Erdem, 2007; Berrio, 2003). Measurement of clan culture in the current study included tradition, loyalty, personal commitment, extensive socialization and teamwork. In all, 151 respondents, representing 74.4%, agreed that personal commitment is a value of clan culture. Hence, from the study, it can be argued that personal commitment is a value of clan culture. This confirms a study by Mullins (2010) who argues that personal commitment is a feature of clan culture. In clan culture, the individual is the central focus and structure exist to serve the individuals within it (Mullins, 2010). Thus, personal commitment was a strong measurement of clan culture in this study because study population know that it is in their own interest to band together and work as a unit to help build their universities. Subsequently, individuals voluntarily fulfill their obligations as administrative staff and teaching staff. There is no abuse of autonomy and any influence over them is likely to be on the basis of personal power.

Entrepreneurial culture is a developmental organizational culture which is based on risk taking, innovation and change (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1991). Emphasis is placed on flexibility, innovation and

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creativity. Employees can take the initiative so they feel satisfied, happy and successful in this environment (Cameron and Quinn, 2011; Erdem, 2007; Berrio, 2003).In all, 143 respondents representing 70.4%, agreed that dynamism is a characteristic of an entrepreneurial culture. Study participants believed that dynamism is a value in the entrepreneurial culture of their universities. Dynamism is widely spread in the tertiary educational institutions of the country especially in the area of course selections. The university offers a diverse and unique environment for harnessing potentials and development new strengths based on the course modules available. In the aspect of human resource, dynamism at the university level seeks to bring together the right resources and people to achieve the mission and vision of the university. It utilizes the unifying power of its team. This confirms a study by Ojo (2010) who argues that dynamism is a feature of entrepreneurial culture. However, about 42% of respondents said that creative characteristics is a weak feature of entrepreneurial culture in their universities. This contradicts a study by Moela (2016) who argues that creative characteristics are a strong feature of entrepreneurial culture. Creative characteristics refer to the set of traits that contribute to ingenuity. However, teaching and non-engineering staffof these Ghana Airport Company Limited thought that there were no opportunities for creative prowess in their universities. This could be attributed to the rather strict adherence to rules in Ghana Airport Company Limited.

The power culture is located between internal organization focus, stability and control dimensions. The power culture reflects values and norms. It is sometimes associated with bureaucracy (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1991). In all, 134 respondents, representing 66% of study participants agreed that equality is a value of power culture in their universities. Equality is the right to different groups of people to have a similar social position and receive the same treatment. It is the situation in which men and women, people of different race, religions etc. are all treated fairly and have the same opportunities (Worrall and Cooper, 2007). Study participants agreed that they had equal representation and operational inputs of affairs in their universities for both administrative and academic issues. Equality was likely observed in this study as a feature of power culture because it is feature frequently found in small to medium entrepreneurial organizations (Handy, 1993). The administrative staff and teaching strength of Ghana Airport Company Limited are not as much as compared to their public counterparts. As evidenced from the study, highest number of administrative staff recorded was 7 persons working in the administrative departments of these Ghana Airport Company Limited. Equality is enhanced in these settings because it relies on trust, empathy and communications for its effectiveness (Handy, 1993). These are values consistent with the private university structure. Decisions are taken largely on the balance of influence from both non-teaching and teaching staff. This confirms a study by San Park and Hyun Kim (2009) who argues that equality is a feature of power culture.

A central feature of any successful organization is the working relationship between its culture, health and performance of its employees. Successful Ghana Airport Company Limited in the country have been able to integrate these relationships in their operations and additionally have the ability to adapt to change. Proprietors of Ghana Airport Company Limited need to understand the nature and importance of organizational culture, employee commitment and consequent employee turnover to be able to successful manage their universities.

5.4 Limitation of the study

This study was limited to only Ghana Airport Company Limited in Accra of the Greater Accra. The results obtained thus may not be the true reflection of the situation or structure of the other Ghana Airport Company Limited in the country. The sample size and population from the company were not evenly distributed and hence may account for the data observed. The sample size and population could be increased in further studies in other universities to standardized result findings. Also, factors affecting employee turnover in the Ghana Airport Company Limited was limited only to the types of organizational culture in this current study. However, many factors affect employee turnover in many organizations.

5.4 Recommendations

From the findings of this current study, the following recommendations are proposed:

1. There should be progressive training of all staff of organizations on the functional organizational culture working for any organization. Providing your employees with immense training content

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on an organizations' peculiar culture, highly engages employees and they are more likely to fit and work with ease depending on the culture on the organization.

2. Management of Ghana Airport Company Limited and other institutions should create avenues for dynamic communications, interactions and the sharing of ideas among employees. The sense of having a shared goal, shift your employee's mindset from non-inclusiveness to all-inclusiveness in the running of the institution. They should listen to their employees and provide them with an environment to let their opinions be heard. Communication is key: Effective communication will drive the attainment of your organizations vision, mission and values.

3. Managements are also advised to be transparent. Transparency with your employees is key way of building trust, leading to improved corporate culture.

4. There should be the practice of regular feedback to employees from top management. Employees need regular feedback if they are to design their performance with an organizational culture. There could be commendations when employee attitude matches organizational values and recommendations when there is the need for improvement. Employees who receive accurate and consistent feedback feel fulfilled in their jobs.

5. Organizational culture needs to be nurtured and this begins at the very top of the ladder. Managers need to become leaders and visibly demonstrate that they buy into the organizations core beliefs. This could be achieved with management at the forefront of the training programs and other activities organized by the organizations. This shows leadership by example.

6. Reward your employees for actions that best represent the organizational culture that you seek. A recognition rich culture will also reduce employee turnover, giving your organizational culture longevity.

7. Provide challenges and opportunity for development. This has the effect of letting your employees know you are invested in them and in turn they will be loyal to your organizational culture.

8. Top management of organizations should encourage collaboration between employees to reinforce the idea of teamwork and improve the culture. This will allow employees to offer support to each other and overcome challenges together at their workplaces.

5.5 Further Study and Research

With the government of Ghana being a major player in the Ghanaian procurement institutional systems, it should take the initiative and encourage other stakeholders to study into the multi-criteria selection methods and determine which is/are suitable for any type of contract and type of client or stakeholder involved. The ultimate beneficiary of payment delays and its associated employees' benefits is the society. However, this research did not capture views outside all the governmental institution on the subject matter. It would be interesting for future researchers to find out their perceptions about the subject matter.

5.6 Conclusion

There are many factors that are affecting employees' stability in organizations. From the study, it was revealed that bureaucratic culture, clan culture, entrepreneurial culture and power culture influenced employee turnover in the Ghana Airport Company Limited. Therefore, if management of these Ghana Airport Company Limited are aware of these factors they would be able to survive in the dynamic environment of private tertiary education in the country by treating their employees as one of their assets that need a lot of attention. Employees are the backbone of any business success. Therefore, they need to be motivated and maintained by organizations at all costs to aid the organization to be globally competitive in terms of providing quality products or services to the society. Ghana Airport Company Limited are no

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exception. Management of Ghana Airport Company Limited should be keen on the organizational types present in their universities so that they can retain employees in their universities in order to enhance their competitiveness not only in tertiary education but in the corporate system in Ghana.

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