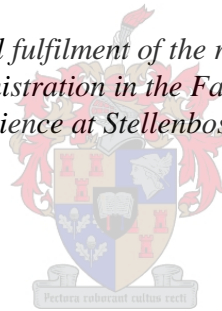


# **How Changing Organisational Culture Could Support the Retention of Designated Groups in the South African Public Sector: A Systematic Review**

By

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*Thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree  
Masters in Public Administration in the Faculty of Management and  
Economic Science at Stellenbosch University*



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## **Declaration**

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## **Abstract**

Organisational culture has a strong effect on the retention of employees. It is therefore important for organisations to determine the aspects of this culture that influence employee retention and turnover so that these can be positively managed. The purpose of this study was to examine how organisational culture can influence the retention and turnover of designated groups in the South African public. This was done through the establishment of an empirical base of literature that reports on the influence of organisational culture on the retention of designated groups.

A systematic review methodology was chosen to determine suitable studies for selection. A thematic analysis was identified as the appropriate method to analyse the findings of the included studies. The study conducted a systematic review of nine empirical studies conducted between 2005 and 2015. The studies examined relations between organisational culture and employee retention and turnover, both in general and within the designated groups. The selected studies spanned organisations across industries, worldwide.

The thematic analysis revealed themes in five organisational cultures relating to employee retention and, in particular, the retention of designated groups. Attitudes towards change, inclusion, recognition and appreciation, as well as growth opportunities and human relations were found to strongly influence the retention and turnover of designated groups in a number of organisations. The manner in which these themes were managed and communicated to organisations determined whether designated groups were retained or lost.

The findings of this study may be useful to managers in the South African public service for mitigating employee turnover, especially those categorised under designated groups.

## Opsomming

Die kultuur van 'n organisasie het 'n groot uitwerking op die langtermyn indiensneming van werknemers. Dit is dus belangrik vir organisasies om die aspekte van organisasie kultuur te identifiseer wat langdurige indiensneming en omset beïnvloed, sodat dit positief bestuur kan word. Die doel van hierdie studie is om ondersoek in te stel na hoe die kultuur van 'n organisasie die retensie en omset van die aangewese groepe in die Suid-Afrikaanse openbare sektor organisasies kan beïnvloed. Dit is gedoen deur 'n empiriese literatuur basis wat 'n organisasie se kultuur, en die invloed daarvan op die retensie van langtermyn indiensneming van persone uit die aangewese groepe.

'n Sistematiese oorsig metodologie is gebruik om gepaste studies vir keuring te selekteer. 'n Tematiese analise is geïdentifiseer as die mees gepaste metode om die bevindings van die ingeslote studies te analiseer. 'n Sistematiese oorsig van nege empiriese studies wat tussen 2005 en 2015 uitgevoer is, is gedoen. Die studies fokus op die verhouding tussen die kultuur van 'n organisasie, die behoud van werknemers en omset, beide in die algemeen en binne die aangewese groepe. Die studies verteenwoordig verskillende organisasie tipes regoor die wêreld.

Die tematiese analise het vyf temas onthul, verbonde aan organisasie kultuur, wat verband hou met die retensie van werknemers, veral uit die aangewese groepe. Die studie het gevind dat houdings teenoor verandering, insluiting, erkenning en waardering, sowel as moontlikhede vir groei en menslike verhoudings, 'n sterk invloed het op die retensie en omset van die aangewese groepe in verskeie organisasies. Die wyse waarop hierdie temas bestuur en aan organisasies oorgedra is, het bepaal of die aangewese groepe behoue gebly of verlore gegaan het.

Die bevindinge van hierdie studie kan nuttig wees vir bestuurders in die Suid-Afrikaanse openbare sektor om werknemersomset te verlaag, veral dié wat onder die aangewese groepe ressorteer. Daarbenewens, kan dit ook lei tot 'n verbetering in die werksomgewing en werkstevredenheid.

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## List of Abbreviations

AA.....	Affirmative Action
CASP.....	Critical Appraisal Skills Programme
EE.....	Employment Equity
EEA.....	Employment Equity Act
GDP.....	Growth Domestic Population
GNU.....	Government of National Unity
JS.....	Job Satisfaction
NEP.....	National Economic Policy
OC.....	Organisational Culture
PICO.....	Participants/Population Intervention Comparison & Outcome
SDA.....	Skills Development Act
USA.....	United States of America
WPTPS.....	White Paper on Transformation in the Public Service

# Chapter One: Introduction

## 1.1 Background and Rationale

The changes that organisations undergo on a daily basis are caused by the dynamic environment within which they exist. Organisations are pushed to be relevant and innovative when addressing the needs of their consumers and/or clients, globally, and to adapt accordingly. The South African public and private sectors are not immune to these pressures and challenges, especially so since democratisation. Change is required in the South African context due to the need for transformation – to improve the skewed racial, gender and disability demographics that were created by the apartheid labour practices (White Paper on Affirmative Action in the Public Service, 1995:6). Introducing changes that are aimed at redressing the socio-economic imbalances caused by apartheid in South Africa have often proven difficult due to organisational cultures that have existed for many decades and are not conducive to transformational change (Waterhouse & Lewis, 2004:354).

Mothae (2008:820) argues that for any organisation to successfully achieve its change vision and goals, organisational members need to be at the centre of the change strategy. However, in many instances employees struggle to embrace change in the organisation (Wanberg & Banas, 2000:132). Initiating changes in organisations places this change initiative at the risk of either being fully supported or rejected due to the differing views of organisational members. Feelings of fear, confusion and vulnerability are common in a changing environment as many people associate change with uncertainty, whilst others see it as a door to opportunities, resulting in feelings of excitement, (Bews & Uys, 2002; Bourda, 2013; McCarthy & Eastman, 2010; Wanberg & Banas, 2000). Change can either be viewed positively, as a door to more growth opportunities and innovation, or it can be seen as a disruptive process that results in instability and threatens jobs (McCarthy & Eastman, 2010:3).

Since the democratisation of South Africa in 1994, the transformation of institutions both in the public and private sectors has been a priority for government. Therefore, legislation, such as the Employment Equity Act (EEA) of 1996, was introduced to provide public service and designated employers a framework with which to achieve equity in the workplace, after the legacy of apartheid. Employment equity in South Africa is commonly referred to as one of the transformation initiatives of the post-1994 democratic government, and is also branded as the

pillar of representativeness and affirmative action in the eight pillars of the White Paper for Public Services Transformation in South Africa (1995). The need for employment equity approaches is due to the challenge of a lack of representation of historically disadvantaged groups in both public and private sectors (Constitution of South Africa, 1996).

Subsequent to the democratisation of the country, South Africa experienced a great shift in terms of representivity in organisations, in the form of increased visibility of Africans, women and people with disabilities in the public service and private sectors. The implementation of the Employment Equity Act and affirmative action measures saw the transition of many South African organisations from homogenous in their racial formation towards becoming diverse organisations that are all-encompassing of Africans, women and people with disabilities. On the other hand, the concept of employment equity has sparked debate around its purpose and ethical standing. Employment equity introduced a number of challenges in the South African workplace as concerns have arisen around whether the employment of designated groups in management and strategic positions is through merit or merely complying with legislation known as *fronting*.

## **1.2 Research Problem**

Legislation was introduced in South Africa aimed at providing a framework for public service and designated employers to achieve equity and diminish all forms of discrimination in the workplace that existed due to the legacy of apartheid. This has not proved to be enough of a change intervention due to the known challenges of meeting employment equity targets, which is faced by many South African organisations. Whilst there is a large amount of organisations that sympathise with the concept of employment equity and affirmative action in the workplace, and who argue for its role in levelling the playing fields amongst designated groups, there are also a significant number of liberals against the notion of employment equity, who view it as a reverse discrimination tool against white South Africans. These conflicting views have had an adverse impact on the effective implementation of public service transformation, as attitudes towards this concept determine the extent to which it is embraced in South Africa.

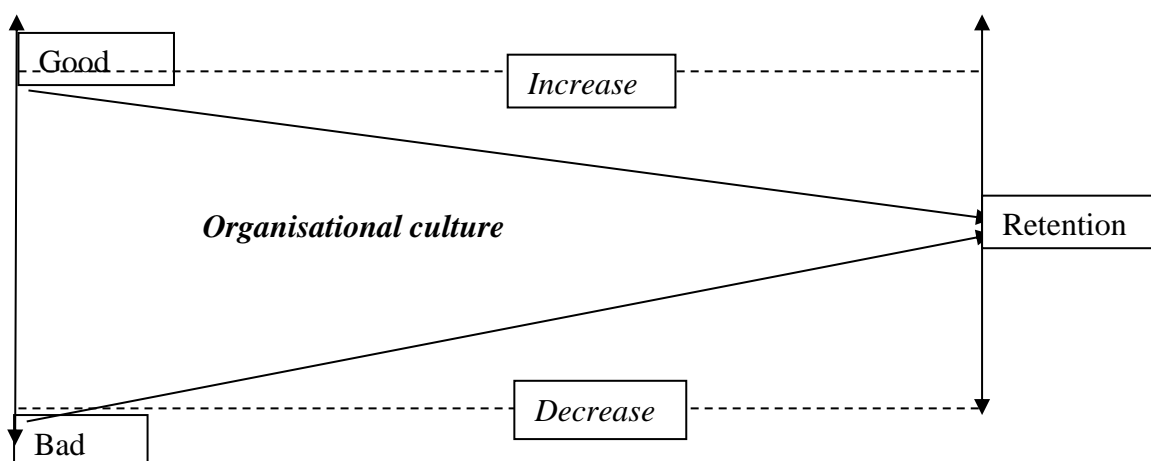
In addition, there has also been a noticeable increase in turnover of designated groups in the workplace amongst both private and public organisations in South Africa, with an increasing turnover of designated employees in management and strategic positions since 1994 (Booyesen, 2007; Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2010; Thomas, 2002). The trend is mostly attributed to what is

commonly referred to as organisational culture fit. With these mega transformational changes challenges have been encountered further to the perceptions of employees about transformation.

Thus, the key challenge for many organisations has been the aptitude to change their organisational culture to one that is receptive of change so as to manage the retention of staff. Studies affirm that introducing change in organisations can have a negative effect on organisational members' commitment to the organisation, which could subsequently result in low level of trust amongst organisational members, increased insecurity, as well as low levels of individual performance and high staff turnover – these are all factors that ultimately affect production and quality of service (Bews & Uys, 2002; Kelly, 2013; McCarthy & Eastman, 2010; Wanberg & Banas, 2000; Abbas, 2012).

### 1.3 Purpose of Study

This study is based on the premise that organisational culture can have an impact on retention of employees and that cultures that are having a negative impact can be changed. The study believes that organisations that espouse a caring culture that is inclusive and development oriented is more likely to retain its employees whilst those that lack such attributes may find it challenging to retain their employees. The figure below represents the study's premise on the relationship between organisational culture and employee retention.



**Figure 1.1: The role of organisational culture (OC) on employee retention (self-design)**

The study, therefore, aims to identify the organisational culture factors that influence employee retention to be able to understand ways in which this culture can positively influence the retention of designated groups in the South African public service.

## **1.4 Research Objectives**

### **1.4.1 Research question**

The research question for this study is as follows:

*In what way can organisational culture positively influence the retention of designated groups in the South African public services?*

### **1.4.2 Research objectives**

The research objectives are listed as follows:

1. To identify, synthesise and analyse existing literature on the relations between organisational culture and employee retention.
2. To examine the organisational culture factors that undermine efforts to retain designated groups.
3. To understand the organisational culture factors that encourage efforts to retain designated groups.
4. To establish ways in which organisations can change their culture to support the retention of designated groups.

## **1.5 Definitions of Key Concepts in the Study**

### **1.5.1 Change management**

Bourda (2013:4) defines change management as an approach that is planned to create an enabling environment for change to be adopted by groups and individuals within an organisation. The concept of change management requires a deep understanding of the *purpose* of the change being initiated, as well as the *environment* in which change is being initiated.



Considering these two factors can enable organisations to decide on their appropriate change management approach and model(s). This is important, as no single change management approach is suited to all forms and types of changes as there are a number of factors that influence change in an organisation, community or nation. In the world of organisational development, a variety of theories and models exist that speak to change management with the aim of ensuring that change is successfully adopted in organisations, communities and even countries.

### **1.5.2 Organisational culture**

The concept of organisational culture has been a topical issue since the late 20<sup>th</sup> century and has been important in change management, organisational behaviour and development theories. Due to this, various definitions of culture have surfaced with the aim of clarifying its role and level of importance in the effectiveness of organisations (McCarthy, 1998:167). McCarthy (1998:167) bases the foundation of organisational culture on the concepts of group norms and organisational climate, emphasising its importance in driving organisational change and development.

The large-scale changes experienced by organisations globally over the last four decades have mostly been in public sector organisations (Barber, Levy & Mendonca, 2007; Waterhouse & Lewis, 2004). These changes have been due to reforms, such as sub-contracting, outsourcing, as well as employment equity policies. The increasing cost-efficiency pressures faced by public sector organisations, the need for public sector organisations to gain access to world-class capabilities, and the global human rights pressures to promote equality and diminish discrimination, have all contributed towards the rapid changes experienced by public sector organisations (Barber *et al.*, 2007; Booysen, 2007; Waterhouse & Lewis, 2004).

The pressures for change in public sector organisations compelled these organisations to focus on improving organisational processes, and this was followed by the adaption of private sector 'managerialist philosophies' in the public sector, aimed at increasing transparency and efficiency while also introducing employment equity and diversity initiatives (Booyesen, 2007; Waterhouse & Lewis, 2004). The challenges with the implementation of public sector change initiatives were mostly owed to cultures that did not respond positively to change found in public sector organisations (Barber *et al.*, 2007; O'Donnell, 1998; Waterhouse & Lewis, 2004).

Culture change differs greatly from other forms of changes in organisations as it focuses on the behaviours of organisational members and their shared beliefs, as well as the values that govern such behaviours. Therefore, the focus shifts from organisational structures and systems to placing the organisational members as targets of the change process (Waterhouse & Lewis, 2004:354). Waterhouse and Lewis (2004:354) argue that organisational culture change is aimed at aligning human resource capabilities with organisational systems and structures in order to effectively achieve organisational objectives and be able to adapt to changes in environments that are rapidly and continuously changing.

Robbins and Barnwell (2006:405) refer to organisational culture as a system of meaning that is constructed and shared by all in an organisation, through patterns of beliefs, symbols and rituals that are continuously practiced and evolve over time. These rituals and patterns are invented and practised as a way of learning to cope with the organisation's challenges of adapting to external environments and internal integration (Robbins & Barnwell, 2006:405).

In Dombai and Verwy (1999:106), organisational cultures are described as socially sanctioned symbolic networks – those symbolic acts with the power to produce “vivid and emotive interpretations which are able to embrace excessive ambiguity and in appropriate settings seem to have a life of its own”.

### **1.5.3 Retention**

In this study, retention is defined as the ability of an organisation to retain competent designated employees or the extent to which designated employees remain in their organisations. The recruitment and retention of designated employees in management positions remains a challenging issue in both the South African workforce and internationally. Booysen (2007) identifies some of the key barriers to effective implementation of employment equity, as well as the retention of designated groups, as a lack of communication and shared understanding of employment equity, low leadership commitment, and inconsistency in the implementation of employment equity.

For South Africa, barriers to the recruitment and retention of designated groups have been largely influenced by factors stemming from the historical disadvantages of designated employees in South Africa (Booyesen, 2007:48). The challenge of recruiting, training, developing and retaining competent designated groups is further exacerbated by the challenge

of creating working environments that embrace diverse cultures. The inaccurate representation of designated employees in many organisations, the white-male dominated organisational culture, as well as the lack of historical cultural capital amongst designated groups for network purposes, can also be linked to the challenges of recruitment and retention of designated employees (Booyesen, 2007:62-63).

## **1.6 Research Design and Methodology**

The purpose of the research is to better understand which change management approaches most positively influence culture change and how we can use organisational culture to ensure staff retention. A qualitative systematic review has been selected to better understand these approaches. The review is followed by a meta-ethnographic synthesis to analyse and synthesise the findings of the studies.

## **1.7 Outline of Chapters**

This study is mapped over six chapters. These are detailed in the following sections.

### ***Chapter 1***

The study is introduced in the first chapter, which includes the background and rationale, as well as the research purpose, question and objectives. This chapter also gives a summary of the research design and methodology to determine the purpose of the study. Furthermore, the research problem is brought into context by means of outlining the main concepts of the study, namely organisational culture, change management and retention.

### ***Chapter 2***

Chapter two contains the literature review of studies related to retention, organisational culture and change management, and the relationships that exist between these concepts. A presentation of the factors that influence employee retention will be conducted, and from this presentation, organisational culture factors will be given more focus. This will be followed by

an illustration of various organisational culture models, the relationship between culture, culture change strategies, and change management strategies and models.

### ***Chapter 3***

Chapter three contains a South African perspective of public service transformation. This includes an outline of legislation that pertains to the South African public service transformation, a comparative analysis of workplace transformation (including the USA, Malaysia and Canada), and a critical analysis of South African public service transformation.

### ***Chapter 4***

Chapter four provides the research design and methodology that was followed to conduct the review. This includes a presentation of the study objectives, the review questions, and a discussion of the review process.

### ***Chapter 5***

Chapter five presents the results of the review along with a discussion of the findings.

### ***Chapter 6***

Chapter six contains recommendations based on these findings and draws conclusions.

## **1.8 Summary**

The purpose of this chapter was to motivate the study and explain the importance of understanding what change management approaches most positively influence culture change, as well as organisational culture can be used to ensure staff retention. It is the researcher's assumption that the retention of designated groups relies heavily on how organisations approach and manage change initiatives. The management of change initiatives requires

supportive and adaptive organisational cultures, as well as suitable change management models. The following chapter provides a literature review of studies related to retention, organisational culture and change management, and the relationships that exist between these concepts.

## Chapter Two: Literature Review

### 2.1 Introduction

The aim of this literature review is to understand how organisational culture change can positively impact the retention of designated groups in the South African public service. The study looks at the role of organisational culture in contributing to employee retention, and also examines culture change and change management as catalysts for a positive impact on employee retention, with particular focus on organisational culture, as well as culture change as an intervention to support the retention of designated groups. A substantial body of academic literature exists on employment equity, change management and organisational culture in both the South African and global contexts; however, this cannot be said for the notion of mechanisms to retain designated groups, even more so in the South African context. Considering the correlation between these concepts and also the importance of employment equity and representivity of designated groups in the South African public sector, having a minimal amount of academic research on these topics does not complete the process of organisational transformation.

In order to measure the effectiveness of an organisation, various factors (both tangible and intangible) need to be considered, such as the organisation's structure, size, its ability to manage the environment within which it operates, and the behaviour of an organisation (Robbins & Barnwell, 2006). This research is centred on the people aspect of organisational development, and thus it is imperative to discuss organisational culture change and management as components of transformation.

The first part of the literature review explores the retention of designated groups in the South African public service and also looks at retention strategies and the effects of retention. The second section will focus on providing an understanding of the South African context of retaining designated groups, and will look at the concepts of employment equity, affirmative action, as well as challenges and opportunities in the South Africa context. The third section looks at organisational culture and the relationship between culture and retention. This is followed by an analysis of culture change as an intervention to support retention of designated groups and the strategies for managing culture.

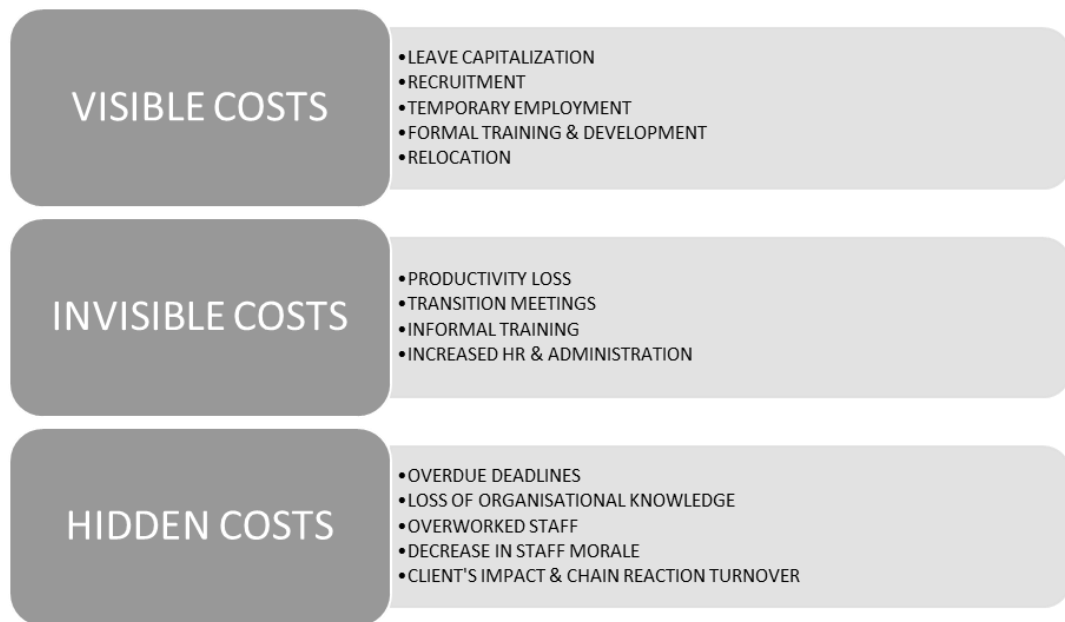
## 2.2 The Importance of Retaining Employees

Over the past two decades, the retention of talent in organisations has become a global war as career commitment has eroded the notion of company loyalty (Kotze & Roodt, 2005; Kerr-Phillips & Thomas, 2009). Retention has thus become a major topic of discussion in the world of organisational development and effectiveness. The reason for this surge in relevance is due to the popular perception that employee retention – and turnover – plays a pivotal role in determining the sustainability and effectiveness of an organisation (Horwitz, Heng & Quazi, 2003; Kotze & Roodt, 2005; Kerr-Phillips & Thomas, 2009; Sheridan, 1992).

The loss of talent that comes with employee turnover makes employee retention an important aspect of organisational development and human resources, especially in cases where valuable employees with extensive organisational knowledge leave. In such cases, replacing highly productive employees who have a vast amount of knowledge becomes very expensive and difficult given the highly competitive market environment in which organisations exist (Aarons & Sawitzky, 2006; Drizin & Schneider 2004; Ramiall, 2004). It thus becomes important for organisations to first understand why employees leave the organisation and, thereafter, to creatively find ways to retain their top employees for as long as possible (Horwitz, Heng & Quazi, 2003; Sheridan, 1992).

Another factor that contributes to the importance of employee retention is the impact that retention and turnover have on the reputation of an organisation as an employer of choice (Kotze & Roodt, 2005; Kerr-Phillips & Thomas, 2009). The impact may determine whether clients and other stakeholders lose or retain company loyalty.

Lastly, the employee turnover costs play a huge role in the importance of employee retention. Although every employee has to leave the organisation at some point, employers should make it a priority that those best performing employees stay in an organisation while they are able to. Kotze and Roodt (2005:49) categorise the employee turnover costs into three spheres, namely the invisible, visible and hidden costs. The figure below gives a summary of the types of employee turnover costs.



**Figure 2.1: Types of employee turnover costs (Kotze & Roodt, 2005)**

Turnover costs become extremely difficult to calculate as they involve monetary costs and intangible costs, such as tacit organisational knowledge and social capital – employee-client relationships that could possibly lead to decreased client loyalty or even loss of clients – and the effect that turnover can have on remaining employees and productivity.

### **2.3 The importance of retaining employees from designate groups**

Employee retention is a worldwide challenge that has gained significant prominence due to its effect on organisational performance (Kotze & Roodt, 2005; JPMorgan Chase & Co., 2013; Kerr-Phillips & Thomas, 2009). Retaining good employees has become more and more challenging as the concept of work has taken on an evolutionary aspect that is largely influenced by globalisation, as well as the rapid advancement of technology (JPMorgan Chase & Co., 2013). Introducing changes that are aimed at redressing the socio-economic imbalances caused by apartheid in South Africa have often proven difficult due to organisational cultures that have existed for many decades and are not conducive to transformational change (Waterhouse & Lewis, 2004:354). This has created additional challenges of retention from a workplace transformational perspective in South Africa post 1994. Efforts related to



transformation in organisations has focused on designated groups such as blacks, women and people living with disabilities, with this study focusing specifically on blacks and women.

The demand and “war” for talented employees exists globally as employers seek ways to attract talented employees and also retain their best employees. For South Africa, this challenge is further exacerbated by the scarcity in specialised skills, the tapering of the skilled labour pool caused by emigration, as well as the pressure of addressing employment equity that has increased the pressure of competitiveness amongst employers for talented people of designated groups (Kotze & Roodt, 2005: 48). This war for talent amongst designated groups has encouraged employees to continuously look for ways to become and remain the employers of choice. Employers will be able to attract and retain talented employees of designated groups to not only achieve and sustain numerical targets enforced by legislative requirements but to also encourage transformation in the workplace. Although some headway has been made with attracting and recruiting employees from designated groups, retention still remains a challenge.

## **2.4 Factors Influencing Employee Retention and Turnover**

Various factors contribute to employees leaving organisations, making it a complex issue to unpack. However, the common factor for all employees who voluntarily leave is that they are unhappy with something and start looking for more fitting prospects outside of their immediate work environment (Brown, 2007; Butler *et al.*, 2014; Loquercio, 2006; Ali Shah, *et al.*, 2010). The behaviour of employees has changed over the past few decades; more opportunities are available to them because of the change in workplace climate as a result of globalisation. This makes it much easier for employees to have multiple employers and also to switch jobs when they feel dissatisfied (JPMorgan Chase & Co., 2013: 2). It becomes the responsibility of the employers to use measures, such as organisational environment and culture, growth and compensation, as well as building strong relationships with their employees, by providing support to ensure that their top employees are retained for as long as necessary.

Researchers have identified a number of reasons for employee turnover and these factors can be referred to as push and pull (also known as controlled and uncontrolled) factors, personal factors, unavoidable factors, and person- and organisational-related factors (Carmeli, 2005; Loquercio, 2006; Ali Shah, *et al.*, 2010; Taylor, 2002).

### **2.4.1 Pull/push factors**

Pull factors positively attract employees with an alternative that is sufficient for an employee to move to another employer. Some researchers (Loquercio, 2006:8) refer to pull factors as those factors that are uncontrollable by the employer. Such forms of attrition could be an employer relocating to join their family, an employer moving to a company with more benefits and better security, or in some cases moving to a job that has opportunities to travel.

Pull factors are not related with the dissatisfaction of employees, but rather with their desires (Brown, 2007; Butler *et al.*, 2014; Ali Shah, *et al.*, 2010). One example of a pull factor is where other competitor organisations make offers to employees that the current employer cannot match. Although pull factors are known to be uncontrolled, organisations can try to mitigate employee resignations caused by such factors by finding methods of attracting and recruiting employees that hold the same values as their organisation, and at the same time identifying factors that predict work attitudes and turnover.

Push factors are associated with those aspects that push employees out of organisations, creating an assumption that there is a problem with the organisation. Such factors include lack of career development or unclear career paths, unattractive pay and benefits, poor communication and leadership, and organisational culture (Butler *et al.*, 2014; Ali Shah, *et al.*, 2010). In most cases, push factors are linked to factors that are organisational-related, attitude-related or organisational commitment-related (Ali Shah, *et al.*, 2010:170). Such factors are internal and can usually be controlled by organisations through some form of organisational initiative (Ali Shah, *et al.*, 2010:170).

### **2.4.2 Person-related and organisation-related factors**

Carmeli (2005:182) identifies two types of factors that influence employee turnover and retention: person-related and organisation-related. Person-related factors are those variables that are formed by the interests and preferences of an individual, such as job satisfaction, financial rewards, salary/payment, work commitment and job stress; whilst organisation-related factors are described by Porter and Steers (1973:157) as “those variables affecting the individual that are determined by persons or events external to the immediate working group”, such as the size of the organisation, the nature of the organisation or organisational culture

(Booyesen, 2007; Carmeli, 2005; Kotze & Roodt, 2005; Kerr-Phillips & Thomas, 2009; Porter & Steers, 1973; Ali Shah, *et al.*, 2010; Sheridan, 1992).

This research focuses on organisation-related factors, specifically organisational culture. The researcher believes that organisational culture, as a factor of employee retention, is a more useful strategy that can be unpacked through an organisation's strategy, rather than focusing on differing factors based on individual feelings. A number of researchers have also opted to observe the influence of organisational culture on employee retention and turnover (Aarons & Sawitzky, 2006; Carmeli, 2005; Deery & Shaw, 1999; Egan, Yang & Bartlett, 2002; Ellett, Ellis, Westbrook & Dews, 2007; San Park & Hyun Kim, 2009; Sheridan, 1992; Shim, 2010).

In South Africa, understanding the role of organisational culture on the retention and turnover of employees with focus on the retention of designated groups can be beneficial to the country's working space because a large number of organisations are compelled by legislation to meet set targets of a staff complement that is representative of designated groups (Employment Equity Act of 1998). Understanding the role of culture in employee retention will also enable the country to better understand the employee challenges and also find effective retention strategies that are suited for the South African context.

## **2.5 The impact of Organisational Culture on Retention**

As mentioned in the section above, many researchers have linked organisational culture and employee retention, with many arguing that a direct link exists between the two whilst others believe that various other factors mediate this relationship (Aarons & Sawitzky, 2006; Carmeli, 2005; Deery & Shaw, 1999; Egan, Yang & Bartlett, 2002; Ellett, *et al.*, 2007; San Park & Hyun Kim, 2009; Sheridan, 1992; Shim, 2010). Carmeli's (2005) study looks at how organisational culture influences withdrawal intentions and behaviour. In this study, withdrawal intentions relate to the employees' thoughts of quitting, and intentions to explore new employment opportunities and/or quit. The concept of withdrawal intentions is dissected into two forms: withdrawal from job occupation and withdrawal from organisation, whilst withdrawal behaviours relate to the actual act of quitting. The findings of the study suggest that organisations that exhibit a culture that encourages challenging jobs may have minimal problems with withdrawal intentions at both individual and organisational levels (Carmeli, 2005).

In Sheridan's (1992) investigation of the relationship between employee retention and organisational culture found that culture factors had a significant effect on the rate at which new employees left. It also found that organisational culture had an impact on employees' performance and retention. Other factors that revealed in the study included marital status, employee gender, as well as market factors, such as labour supply and starting salary levels.

A study by Ellett, *et al.* (2007:273) that explored personal and organisational factors contributing to employees' decisions to either remain in or leave employment, found that one of the factors contributing to employee turnover at organisational level was an organisational culture characterised by tension and fear. Such fears included fear of personal and job security and/or discrimination. It was also discovered that employees were likely to remain if in exciting, challenging, unpredictable and constantly changing work environments (Ellett, *et al.*, 2007:274).

In a study on the effects of organisational learning culture and job satisfaction by Egan, Yang & Bartlett (2002:295), it was discovered that employees' intentions to leave were lower in organisations that had a learning culture, which also had employees who exhibited high levels of job satisfaction. Egan, Yang & Bartlett (2002:295) found that the correlation between culture and employee turnover was mediated by job satisfaction, which means that organisations with a learning culture had employees that exhibited high levels of job satisfaction and who would therefore be likely to stay.

San Park and Hyun Kim's (2009) study examined the different types of organisational culture associated with job satisfaction and turnover intention. The study used Quinn and McGarth's (1985) competing values approach as a conceptual framework for organisational culture, thus focusing on four types of culture: consensual, developmental, hierarchical and rational. The study found that the consensual and rational cultures showed a significant positive association with job satisfaction and retention, whilst the hierarchical culture had a negative association (San Park & Hyun Kim, 2009:28).

Contrary to the studies mentioned above, the study of Aarons and Sawitzky (2006:291) argues that organisational climate mediates the effects of organisational culture on work attitudes and turnover. In their study, the constructs of culture and climate are distinctly separated. Culture is seen as a construct that reflects an organisation's behaviour, norms and expectations, whilst climate echoes the perceptions and emotional responses of the work environment. In this study, Aarons and Sawitzky (2006:290) make a distinction between two types of culture: constructive

and defensive. A constructive culture is characterised by a supportive leadership and greater membership, and also promotes growth and competitiveness through individualism, whilst a defensive culture entails subservient employees with limited innovation as they are used to conformity. Aarons and Sawitzky (2006:290) argue that these cultures have a direct effect on the organisational climate, which subsequently has an effect on work attitudes and turnover.

The relationship between organisational culture and employee retention is well-researched topic in the field of human resources and organisational development. Many researchers have identified that organisational culture can affect employee retention and that it is the type of culture that determines workers' attitudes and retention. The following section provides a conceptual clarification of organisational culture, a discussion of the types of organisational culture models adopted by many organisations, as well as culture change and its management.

## **2.6 Organisational Culture**

“Every organisation has a different culture – much like individuals have a unique personality” (Shaw, 1997:4). It is this culture that determines whether or not organisations successfully achieve their goals and vision. Organisational culture refers to the characteristics an organisation possesses that can be identified through those corporate functions or disciplines known as constructs (Shaw, 1997:5). It is through these constructs – such as leadership and management, stakeholders, strategy, and the learning organisation – that an organisation gains its identity.

Organisational culture is believed to play an important role in the behaviour of an organisation and organisational change efforts as it is centred on how people see and understand their organisation and also how they fit in its overall vision and mission (Jordan, Werner & Venter, 2015; O’Rielly III, Chatman & Caldwell, 1991). This is asserted by Robbins and Barnwell (2006:73), who claim that an organisation’s success is determined by how people and jobs are placed together, and by the definitions of their roles and relationship. It is therefore important for organisations to be aware of the culture that they perpetuate so as to yield positive outcomes and also be able to adapt to an environment characterised by constant changes and demands due to globalisation. Also fundamental to the notion of organisational culture is its crucial role in enabling organisational members to decide whether to stay in or leave an organisation.

Robbins and Barnwell (2006:405) and Waterhouse and Lewis (2004:354) describe organisational culture as a system of shared meaning, where there exists a pattern of shared beliefs, values, myths, assumptions, behaviours, and symbols, which are learned by a group in order to solve challenges of external adaptation and internal integration. These shared beliefs are what distinguish one organisation from another.

The research of Jordan, Werner and Venter (2015) on the relationship between organisational culture, transformational leadership and organisational change outcomes, suggests that there exists a strong correlation between organisational culture and its role on organisational effectiveness. According to Jordan, Werner and Venter (2015:1), an organisational culture that is easily adaptive to change can positively influence organisational effectiveness.

The study of Acar and Acar (2012) explores the effects of organisational culture and innovativeness on business, and they argue that organisational culture and innovation has a positive effect on business performance, claiming that “an innovatively focused organisational culture contributes to gaining competitive advantage by superior results which stem from innovation” (Acar & Acar, 2012:684). Acar and Acar (2012:684) determine the importance of employees’ contributions to the success of organisations, claiming that organisations that adopt strategies based on innovation enable organisational members to combine their personal goals, as well as those of the organisation in their endeavours.

Waterhouse and Lewis (2004:359) also distinguish a relationship between organisational culture change and transformational leadership, arguing that when organisational culture change is tied with transformational leadership it occurs through non-coercive, participatory strategies where all organisational members are included in the change process, enabling organisational effectiveness. In their research, Waterhouse and Lewis (2004:359) argue that when employees are included in the change process through a supporting model of change that considers participation and joint-cooperation between employees as their leaders, organisational culture can be effectively changed. Waterhouse and Lewis (2004:354) also look at the relationship between organisational culture and communication and the implication this has on human resource in the public sector, where they argue that central to the effectiveness of organisational culture change is the manner in which this change is communicated. Waterhouse and Lewis (2004:360) determine that the challenge to affecting organisational culture change usually exists in large organisations, as this is where sub-cultures are found within a dominant organisational culture, thus making the communication of culture change

difficult as shared meaning is eroded. They further contend that the success of culture change is determined by communication processes and systems that evolve into dialogue and through dialogue – this is double-loop learning, whereby organisational members become a genuine part of the dialogue process rather than receivers of instructions from top management (Waterhouse & Lewis, 2004:371).

Finally, the most popular and universally adopted definition of organisational culture is that of Schein (1984):

*The pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and that have worked well enough to be considered valid, and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in an organisation.*

The main argument presented by Schein (1984:3) is the importance of organisational culture's ability to embrace change, as this is the dynamic evolutionary force that guides how culture evolves (Schein, 1984:3).

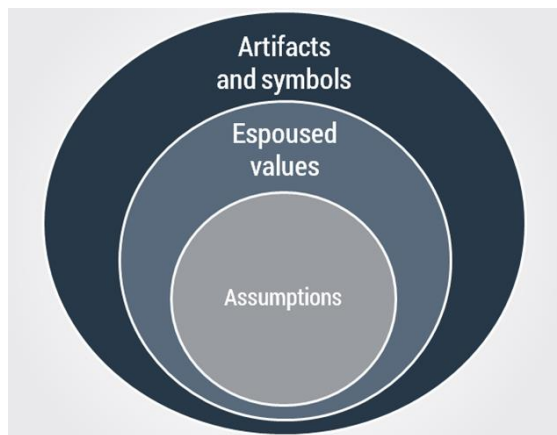
## **2.7 Organisational Culture Models**

A multitude of organisational culture models exist in academic literature. This research focuses on four organisational culture models, namely Schein's organisational culture model (1961), Harrison's culture model (1987), Deal and Kennedy's culture model (2000), and Cameron and Quinn's culture model (2011).

### **2.7.1 Schein's organisational culture model**

Schein (1984:3) identifies three levels at which organisational culture can be analysed. The first is through those visible, cultural and sometimes audible artefacts found in organisations, such as technology, architecture and behavioural patterns (Schein, 1984:3). Although at this level data is easy to obtain, the challenge is its interpretation. Interpretation of data depends on the perceiver and receiver of data, as well as the power relation factors that have an influence on how data is interpreted. Thus, the interpretation of data relies largely on the ability of the

perceiver to understand it in a manner that is representative of the overall image of the organisation's behaviour and also the ability to appropriately articulate the data.



**Figure 2.2: Schein's organisational culture model (Schein, 1984)**

Analysing why a group behaves the way it does requires a look at the values that govern such behaviour – this leads us to the second level of organisational culture analysis (Schein, 1984:3). These values are able to guide us to understand why and how management exercise decision making and also why particular projects, programmes and activities are given more importance than others, as these values are known to represent the espoused values of a culture. Schein (1984:3) also argues that because it is often difficult to observe values directly, it becomes necessary to infer them by interviewing key members of the organisation or to content analyse the artefacts of that particular organisation.

The third and final level in which organisational culture can be analysed is through basic underlying assumptions unconsciously formed by groups (Schein, 1984:3). Schein (1984:4) argues that these assumptions are central to the way in which groups perceive, think and feel, as they are espoused in values that have, over time, evolved into learned responses to solving problems, “transforming into underlying assumptions about how things really are”. These assumptions influence a group's relationship to the environment and also how problems are solved in an organisation (Schein 1984:4).



## 2.7.2 Harrison's culture model

In Harrison's model of organisational culture, four organisational culture types are identified, namely power, role, person and task-oriented cultures (Maximini, 2015:12). Power-oriented cultures are characterised by competitiveness, high levels of control, as well as the aim to dominate in their environment and eliminate competition (Maximini, 2015:12). Power and decision making is centralised to leadership and compliance is valued above performance (Maximini, 2015:12). Such organisations include newly established organisations, as well as closed cooperation, such as family-owned businesses.

Like the power-oriented culture, organisations with role-oriented cultures have a strong emphasis on the centralisation of power to decision makers; however, this power is exercised through highly formalised structures and work instructions (Maximini, 2015:13). Role-oriented cultures are strongly characterised by procedures, hierarchy and rules as opposed to competitiveness.

Public service organisations may contain characteristics of both power- and role-oriented cultures, where the aim is to eliminate the opposition parties in those spheres and maintain power and control for as long as possible. However, due to size and bureaucratic nature of public services organisations, they usually tend to be more role- than power-oriented. In the South African public service, organisations, specifically local government organisations, are highly politicised due to their control being dependent on local government elections that take place every five years. These elections determine the political party that is in control, as well as the strategic direction of the local government area. Although in theory local government's aim is to deliver direct basic services to local citizen efficiently and effectively, political power allows political parties to pursue their own agendas.

Task-oriented cultures are focused on the achievement of goals, whether these are economic, political or social, and these goals are aligned to the structure, activities and functions of the organisation (Maximini, 2015:13). Most organisations that possess a task-oriented culture are usually cause-based organisations such as non-profit, community-based, or social service organisations. Such organisations are characterised by a decentralised power and formalisation is dependent on the size and regional cover of the organisation.

### 2.7.3 Deal and Kennedy's culture model

Deal and Kennedy's organisational culture model is founded on the level of risk and measures of feedback in an organisation. Deal and Kennedy argue that culture is shaped by external influences and not by the internal organisational relations that occur daily (Deal & Kennedy, 2000:14). This is supported by McCarthy (1998:155) who claims, "Organisational culture reflects the way in which the societal context shapes the organisational context". This culture model contains process culture, work hard/play hard culture, tough-guy culture, as well as bet-your-company culture.

Deal and Kennedy (2000:119) describe the process culture as one where employees are focused on how things are done with minimal attention given to feedback on the measurement of the work they do. This culture type involves low levels of risk as innovation is not encouraged, but rather the adherence to systems and procedures is highly rewarded. Because feedback is not valued, no evaluation of the effectiveness of the work can exist, as there is no information with which to work.

Contrary to the process culture, the work hard/play hard culture highly emphasises innovation as risks are encouraged for the growth of the organisation and its success through holistic persistence of all organisational members (Deal & Kennedy, 2000:113). Organisations that can be attributed to such a culture type are sales and target-oriented organisations, such as mass consumer sales companies and retail stores.

A tough guy culture requires tough organisational members who can withstand high-pressure environments and function with speed, such as in advertising and publishing companies that are in constant need of creative ideas and information. High levels of internal competition exist where individualistic behaviour is the norm. This type of culture can produce very high levels of distrust amongst colleagues, as well as high stress levels. Such organisations are characterised by high risks and fast feedback.

Organisations that place an emphasis on taking high risks yet place no value on feedback run the risk of possibly placing the entire organisation in danger as there is no evaluation of whether the risk being taken is profitable or not. Such a company culture is what Deal and Kennedy (2000:116) describe as the bet-your-company culture. In this culture type, the top-down approach is used for decision-making, where focus is on the future with no clear direction of what that future may be.

#### **2.7.4 Cameron and Quinn's culture model**

Cameron and Quinn's culture model, also known as the organisational culture assessment instrument (OCAI), has gained global popularity as a model used by many to diagnose organisational culture (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991; Lincoln, 2010; Maximini, 2015; Parker & Bradley, 2000). Founded on the competing values framework, this model categorises organisations under four competing value perspectives, namely flexibility, stability, differentiation and integration. These value perspectives are categories under two dimensions fundamental to conceptions of effectiveness (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991; Lincoln, 2010; Maximini, 2015; Parker & Bradley, 2000).

In the first dimension, emphasis is placed on the competing tensions between flexibility and stability. In this dimension, focus is placed on the differentiation between discretion, dynamism and order, and control (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991; Lincoln, 2010; Maximini, 2015; Parker & Bradley, 2000). "This continuum ranges from versatility and pliability on one end to steadiness and durability on the other end" (Cameron, 2009:2).

The second dimension of determining the effectiveness of organisations relates to organisation focus with regards to the internal and external attention on the development and well-being of an organisation, also known as the integration and differentiation value perspectives. The integration value perspective focuses on those cultural appearances that have equally consistent interpretations, characterised by an organisation-wide consensus where no ambiguity exists (Maximini, 2015:9). In this value perspective, culture change becomes a process whereby those unifying organisation-wide values that homogeneously exist in an organisation are replaced (Parker & Bradley, 2000:127). In contrast, the differentiation value perspective opposes this concept of consistent organisation-wide interpretations of cultural appearances, arguing that cultural appearances have inconsistent interpretations and, due to these inconsistencies, consensus exists only at subculture levels within an organisation (Maximini, 2015:9). Here, ambiguity may not exist within subcultures because of the clear values the subcultures share, but they can exist amongst various subcultures within an organisation.

Emerging from these four values are four competing culture types called clan, adhocracy, market and hierarchy. The clan culture is described as focusing on human relations and the training and development of human resources with the aim of achieving cohesion and improving employee morale (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991; Parker & Bradley, 2000). Organisational commitment, trust and inclusive participation are the core values of such

organisations and organisational members are seen as part of a family (Acar & Acar, 2012; Denison & Spreitzer, 1991; Maximini, 2015; Parker & Bradley, 2000). This culture is shaped by the dimensions of organisational focus and flexibility, with a purpose of maintaining the group. Such organisations maintain a leadership approach that is participative, supportive and advocates teamwork.

Organisations that exhibit dimensions of flexibility and an external focus are known to have an open system culture, also known as the adhocracy/developmental culture (Acar & Acar, 2012; Denison & Spreitzer, 1991; Maximini, 2015; Parker & Bradley, 2000). These organisations are known to be creative and focus on adaptability for achieving growth, organisational success and external support. Organisations with such a culture are usually found in entrepreneurial, innovative and flexible spaces with a focus on individual initiatives and the freedom to try new things where “readiness for change and meeting new challenges is important” (Maximini, 2015:18). Such organisations are usually small new organisations with a rapidly changing structure depending on the client’s needs and/or problems (Maximini, 2015:18).

A hierarchy culture exists in large organisations, especially government agencies characterised by standardised procedures, multiple levels of hierarchy and an emphasis on rule enforcement (Maximini, 2015:17). Also known as the internal process model culture, such organisations are shaped by a dimension of organisational focus and stability, with characteristics such as formalisation, structure and procedures. In such organisations leadership is usually conservative and cautious with a focus on order, control, maintaining stability and adhering to regulations. This is the direct opposite of the market culture, which is characterised by competition, individual interests and is success oriented (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991; Maximini, 2015; Parker & Bradley, 2000). The market culture, also known as the rational culture, is based on the premise of concurring in the external environment through performance and the attainment of goals. This culture is shaped by the dimensions of external focus and stability and focuses on productivity and efficiency (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991; Maximini, 2015; Parker & Bradley, 2000).

The effectiveness of an organisational culture model differs through various attributes of an organisation, including size and type. No universal model works for all. In some organisations numerous models can be applied simultaneously, due to the complexity of the organisational makeup. Organisations that display cultures that are not conducive to diversity, growth and development can change to those preferred cultures of growth, development and diversity.

Changing organisational culture requires leaders to consider change management models and/or strategies that can effectively facilitate the transition from the unwanted culture to the preferred culture.

Various change management models and strategies have been developed to address issues of managing organisational change at various levels. Because organisational culture change is largely based on the human behavioural and attitudinal aspects of change, this research, in the following section, looks at change management models and strategies that place emphasis on the human behavioural factor.

## **2.8 Managing Organisational Culture Change**

For many organisations, the issue of grappling with change has become a common one. Although change has been viewed as a challenge to organisations, it is a valuable process for organisations to stay in touch with the constantly shifting and growing global environment (Kelly, 2013; Wanberg & Banas, 2000). It is therefore important to discuss the importance of change and what it means for organisations. Various types of changes are described by a number of authors, with one example being developmental, also known as incremental, change. This change involves an enhancement of old procedures where the primary goal is to improve through management and control measures (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2013; Abbas, 2012). Transitional change involves the replacement of an old process through the design and introduction of a completely unfamiliar process with the aim of fixing problems (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2013; Abbas, 2012). Lastly, there is transformational change, better understood as a gradual transition process (Abbas, 2012:51). This is usually a necessary change influenced by external factors, such as global economy, climate and environmental changes, and which requires a total shift in leadership thinking and the commitment of leadership (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2013:7). Transformational change is the primary focus of this research. In the South African context, this change was influenced by the global demands of democracy as the country had been excluded from participating in most global activities, and it was also the influence of the demands that came with the democratisation of the country.

Due to the growing number of organisations going through huge changes over the past few decades, the reception of change by organisations and its members has varied. Some have

supported change, seeing it as an opportunity for growth and innovation, which has enabled them to champion in their environments, whilst others have chosen not to embrace the required changes in their environments, instead seeing it as a threat that will disrupt the status quo, or as a sign of loss. Many of those have had to suffer the consequences of being left behind (McCarthy & Eastman, 2010). This is supported by Abbas (2012:50), who asserts “those who embrace change proactively and faster than others stand a better chance to perform better”.

McCarthy and Eastman (2010:3) provide a definition of change that clearly places people at the centre of its success in any given society. In this research the emphasis is on the human factor and behavioural change reflects the importance of inclusion of people in the planning and implementation of change in an organisation and also the importance of communicating the benefits of this change.

*A process which facilitates the human transition from the present to the future, a well arranged process that is designed to deal intentionally and directly with the human factor in planning and implementing a system ‘through behaviour change, achieving the anticipated benefits that justified the project in the first place.*

(McCarthy & Eastman, 2010:4)

The implementation of change can therefore be a challenging task as it can be influenced by various factors, such as changes in the external environment that compel organisations to adapt to these changes, or internal factors, such as the change in the organisational goal or performance-related issues, cost-cutting pressures and human resources issues (Robbins & Barnwell, 2006; Bourda, 2013; Calabrese, Cohen & Miller, 2013; Abbas, 2012).

A number of authors have identified strong relations between change and increased levels of stress amongst organisational members (Bews & Uys, 2002:21; Kelly, 2013:163; Wanberg & Banas, 2000:132). Introducing changes to organisations can potentially cause great uncertainty amongst its members, resulting in anxiety, trust issues and insecurities due to fear of job losses that could negatively affect performance of organisations. It is important for change to be implemented with these considerations for effective implementation (McCarthy & Eastman, 2010).

Bourda (2013:4) explicates the need to look at the occurrence of change holistically as it cannot exist in isolation, therefore bringing to light factors such as organisational culture, psychology,

behavioural science systems thinking and engineering as those that form the entire organisation's success and well-being.

Organisations therefore need to put their own needs, and those of their employees, at the centre through a holistic and positive approach to change that will develop and prepare its members to meet the needs of the organisation (Kelly, 2013; Abbas, 2012; Wanberg & Banas, 2000:132).

## **2.9 Change Management Strategies, Theories and Approaches**

### **2.9.1 Definitions of change management**

The rise of globalisation compelled many organisations to deal with its immense changes (Abbas, 2012:50). This transition introduced a new meaning to 'successful organisations'. Lahaye and Espe (2010:51) describe successful organisations as: *'those which carefully monitor measures of output, productivity, and customer satisfaction and are open to implementing both small land wide scale changes found necessary in order to improve performance and remain competitive'*. Since then, the concept of change management has become relevant in a number of industries, such as science and technology, and the healthcare and engineering fields, where the application of change management theories was believed to be crucial in determining successful changes. (Boje, 2012; McCarthy & Eastman, 2010; Nayahangan, Little & Shevels, 2011). This study, however, focuses on the management of change as an organisational development tool.

Abbas (2012:50) defines change management as a "systematic process of planning, initiating, realizing, controlling, stabilizing and sustaining new and altered work activities at the corporate, group and personal level", identifying the adaption to, controlling and effecting change as the three crucial elements of change management. Bourda (2013:14) identifies the management of change as involving a deliberated approach aimed at creating an enabling environment for change to be embraced by groups and individuals within an organisation, emphasising that change occurs, whether psychologically or behaviourally, within people of the organisation, not organisations. This is also supported by a number of authors who place people at the centre of change management (Boje, 2012; Bourda, 2013; Grady & Grady III, 2013; McCarthy & Eastman, 2010; Ponzio & Zarone, 2012).



Ponzo and Zarone (2012:160) further argue that in change management, people are at the foundation of the success of transformational change and they can also be the primary cause of delayed change process to subjective factors of resistance. The strongest determining factor of successful change is the internal constituents, such as the fundamental principles exemplified in the thinking and behaviours of employees (Ponzo & Zarone, 2012:160).

McCarthy and Eastman (2010:3) argue that it is the alignment of organisational members with the change that is at the heart of change management, as this speeds the transition that people go through so as to fasten the anticipated benefits. Other authors, such as Willmott (1997), took the concept of change management further by identifying the role of meaning making and interpretation on the process of change management process. This definition acknowledges the social aspect of the change process in which shared meaning making of what is ‘real’ is created amongst all participants of change – the community, enabling knowledge exchange, relationship building and the “acknowledgement of the heterogeneity in values, preferences and interests” (as cited in Samuel, 2013:5).

## **2.9.2 Theories and approaches of change management**

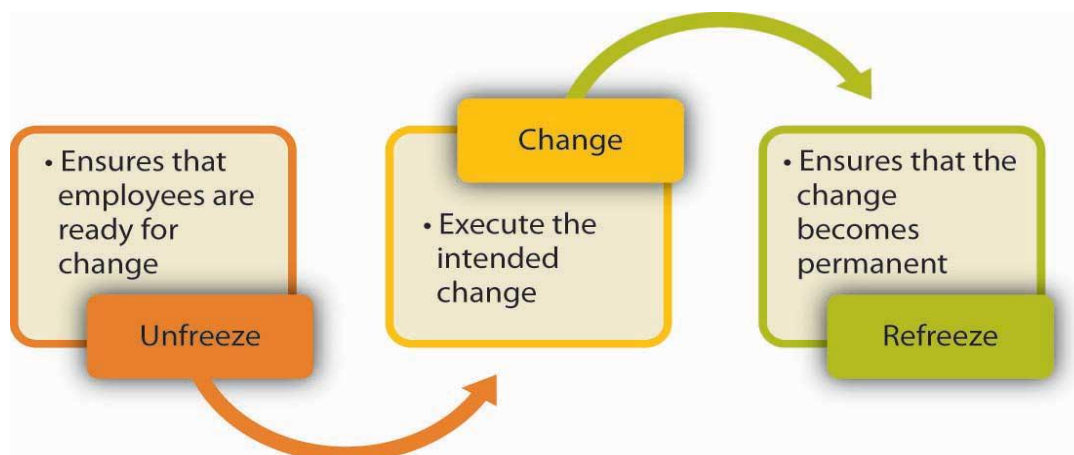
Various theories and approaches to change management have been established over the years with the aim of addressing the process of change in organisations as well as communities. Change management approaches and theories assist organisations, institutions and societies to facilitate change in a more systematic and structured manner that will possibly yield effective results. The aim of this section is to provide a discussion about some change management models that are known to be successful in organisations.

A rich and broad literature exists on the various change management approaches; however, for the purpose of this study five approaches to change management were seen as suited for this study. These approaches are the classic three-phase model of change by Kurt Lewin (unfreeze-move/change-refreeze), the eight-step change model by John Kotter, the McKinsey’s 7-s model, the appreciative inquiry theory, and the ADKAR model.



### 2.9.2.1 The three-phase change model by Kurt Lewin

Kurt Lewin established the three phase model based on the premise that the process of change should be a structured one that is distinct and also aimed at empowering organisational members to accept change as a needed practise that should be embraced and maintained (Nayahangan, *et al.*, 2011:31-2). Lewin's interest was in resolving social conflicts through behavioural change within groups, organisations and societies (Burnes, 2004:986), viewing behaviour as a “dynamic balance of forces working in opposite directions” (Samuel, 2013:6). His work was based on an ethical and moral belief that acknowledged the importance of democratic institutions and democratic values in a society (Burnes, 2004:986). Below is a figure that illustrates the three-phase model.



**Figure 2.3: Kurt Lewin's three phase change model ([www.cscollege.gov.sg](http://www.cscollege.gov.sg))**

Lewin identified three stages in the change model: unfreeze, change and refreeze. In the first stage, members of a society or an organisation are prepared and motivated for the change process. This involves a consultative process of measuring the pros and cons of change implementation to establish whether or not to continue with the change, and the recognition of old patterns and behaviours that need to be deconstructed and discarded for new ones to be adopted (Burnes, 2004; Change Management Coach, 2015; Nayahangan, *et al.*, 2011).

Once the unfreezing stage is achieved, organisations enter a second phase of learning new ways of doing things that requires the willingness of organisational members (Burnes, 2004:975). Determining buy-in from the whole organisation is crucial to the success of change

implementation, and Lewin confirms this through the second phase of his change model. Buy-in from organisational members does not only ensure that change will be embraced by the organisation, it also means that organisational members will actively support the successful implementation of that change. Changing the attitudes and behaviours of organisational members who have bought in to change can be better achieved through the deconstruction of old values and the reconstruction of new ones that encourage productivity, unity and dynamism (Nayahangan, *et al.*, 2011:32).

The last phase of this model seeks to stabilise the new changes by ensuring that these have been implemented and adopted, and seeks to ensure that the introduced behaviours and attitudes are sustained. This phase plays the role of integration and stabilisation of newly introduced attitudes, behaviours, programmes and processes to get the organisation to a calm state where the organisation has reached equilibrium (Burnes 2004; Nayahangan, *et al.*, 2011).

### **2.9.2.2 Appreciative inquiry theory as a change management approach**

Most organisational development techniques of change management are problem-centric, primarily focusing on the problems that exist in organisations and looking at how to fix these. However, there is one approach that diverts from this tradition and focuses on ‘tapping into the collective image held in the stories and dreams of an organisation’s members, as an important resource for organisational change’ (Lahaye & Espe, 2010:55) – Appreciative Inquiry.

Appreciative Inquiry (AI) has been identified by many scholars in the field of organisational development – such as Coghlan, Preskill and Catsamba (2003:5) – as a successful approach to facilitating organisational change due to its strong link with organisational development. Coghlan, Preskill and Catsamba (2003:6) claim that, based on a qualitative and narrative analysis, this approach provides researchers with the opportunity to capture stories and generate shared meaning amongst organisations, institutions and communities.

Appreciative inquiry has also been used in many organisations as a tool to evaluate, teach or diagnose certain developmental areas in a particular situation. Cooperrider, Whitney and Stavros (2003) define appreciative inquiry as an unconventional method for solving problems, positioned within a social constructionist framework that builds on positive affirmation of organisational strengths to address workplace issues and also a useful tool for facilitating

transformational change and organisational learning (Barrett, 1995; Bechtold, 2011; Grandy & Holton, 2010; Kelly, 2013; Messerschmidt, 2008; Watson, 2013a).

Many organisational development scholars recognise appreciative inquiry as a participatory action tool that builds on the positives to affect transformational change within organisations, institutions and communities (Barrett, 1995; Bechtold, 2011; Grandy & Holton, 2010; Kelly, 2013; Messerschmidt, 2008; Watson, 2013a). They base their understanding of appreciative inquiry on the premise that it looks at what is working in an organisation or particular situation, and capitalises on that by further enhancing what works to complement what may not be working and finding positive solutions to amend those which do not work (Bechtold, 2011; Calabrese *et al.*, 2013; Cooperrider, 2012; Grandy & Holton, 2010; Harmon, Fontaine, Plews-Ogan & Williams, 2012; Marchi, 2011; Messerschmidt, 2008; Rogers & Fraser, 2003; Schooley, 2012; Watson, 2013a).

### **2.9.2.3 How Appreciative Inquiry theory is used**

Watson (2013a:315) uses an appreciative inquiry approach in the college of Further and Higher Education in the UK when structuring a management development programme to enhance individual and organisational development. While evaluating the impact of this programme, Watson (2013a) discovered the powerful impact of stories generated by this process and the collaborative culture created by management through the organisation (Watson, 2013a:316). Watson, along with other researchers, suggests that the application of learning more effective working relationships and practises results in improved performance at team and departmental levels (Grandy & Holton, 2010:179; Watson, 2013:316; Messerschmidt, 2008:454).

By using the appreciative inquiry approach, a wider level of engagement is achieved with participants, as it promotes inquiry and dialogue (Grandy & Holton, 2010:178; Nyaupane & Poudel, 2012:979; Watson, 2013a:316). The approach also encourages a collective spirit amongst participants through collaboration and teambuilding, and this provided Watson's research with an evaluation framework that ensured quality impact data charting individual, team and organisational performance (Schooley, 2012:342; Watson, 2013a:316). This process encouraged an environment where employees shared knowledge and a vision of the future that impacted motivation (Schooley, 2012:342; Watson, 2013b:393).

This would be beneficial for service-oriented organisations, as it would contribute towards a positive spirit amongst organisation members due to the constant interaction and dialogue that brings members closer together. The culture of story-telling and sharing can benefit organisational members as they learn from each other's experiences. This could result in knowledge sharing and also encourage strong mentorship and coaching practices. Watson's research describes the impact of appreciative inquiry on the individuals through stories of strategic thinking shared amongst the groups. This enabled them to produce innovative solutions and tangible performance improvement, noting that:

*Greater self-awareness and confidence were recurring themes throughout the story telling process. Individuals felt more aware of their impact on others and now recognised the power of active listening to understand and work with difference. The stories indicated that the learning design of the management development programme had resulted in observable skill development. Team members listened carefully to each other's stories and then gave feedback as a method of witnessing positive change in their colleagues.*

(Watson, 2013b:394)

“The power of appreciative inquiry is that it generates a climate where participants realise that they can ‘appreciate’ themselves and their organisation” (Watson, 2013a:317). Thus, the use of appreciative inquiry in organisations can provide participants with the opportunity to appreciate their role in the social construction of the organisation, such as the cultural norms and assumptions that have an impact on the performance of the individual, team and organisation as a whole. This enables them to realise how each employee contributes towards shaping the organisation and how their perceptions, as individuals and a collective, influence the meaning they create about the organisation, which ultimately affects its success, and their individual performance (Rogers & Fraser, 2003:76).

Because appreciative inquiry is based on the Pygmalion effect, which identifies a connection between our expectations and experiences, using this model to ignite positive energy would reinforce constructive behaviour through positive experiences, which in turn would create optimistic expectations of high performance and encourage motivated employees (Barrett, 1995; Bechtold, 2011; Grandy & Holton, 2010).

Other researchers also consider the contrasted result of the application of this approach in some situations and on some organisations, such as in a political context where freedom of speech could be an issue, and in organisations that perform optimally under the use of defensive pessimism as an organisational strategy where they imagine the worst possible outcome and plan on ways to manage it (Rogers & Fraser, 2003:77; Schooley, 2012:344). In this instance, by focusing on the negative the organisation avoids the escalation of anxiety and decline in performance that could be caused by focusing on the unjustified and intemperate optimism, as this would encourage unrealistic and dysfunctional perceptions, attitudes and behaviours (Rogers & Fraser, 2003:77; Schooley, 2012:344).

Rogers and Fraser (2003) also challenges the notion of AI, which maintains that an organisation and its members are drawn to those things which give them energy and life. They believe that this argument risks the possibility of misinterpreting what appreciative inquiry evaluations focus on and the activities they encourage (Rogers & Fraser, 2003:77). Therefore, these limitations to the appreciative inquiry approach suggest that it is not universally useful and appropriate, but can rather be effectively applicable in situations where evaluation does not seek to identify unknown problems but instead to identify strengths (both those that are known and unknown) and builds courage to attend to known problems (Rogers & Fraser, 2003:77).

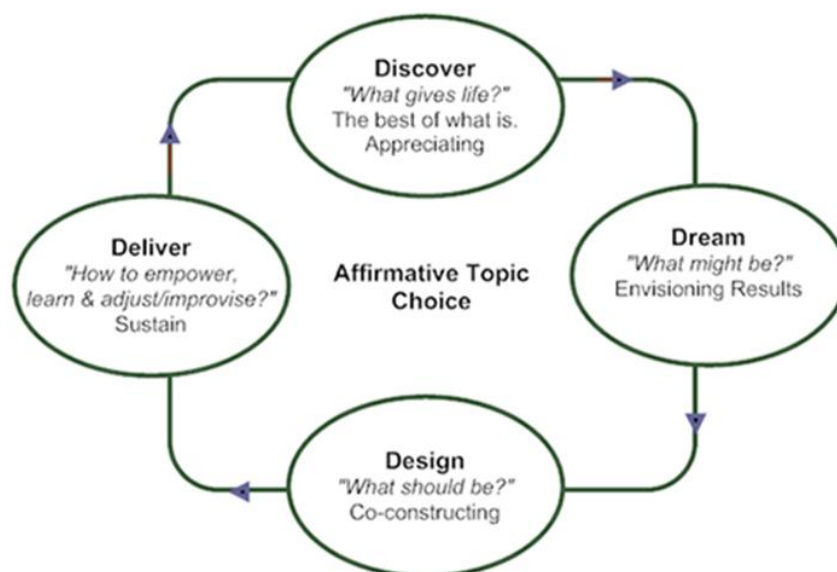
Calabrese *et al.* (2013) apply appreciative inquiry as a change methodology to create a positive organisational climate to facilitate the movement from what they refer to as Model I behaviour (organisations which do not provide and encourage an environment that is conducive to learning, that undermines performance and are extremely resistant to change (Calabrese *et al.*, 2013:196) to Model II behaviour, which Argyris (1995) describes as based on having accurate information, using the correct information to make wise decisions, and featuring vigorous monitoring of the actions stemming from decisions to identify mistakes and make corrections (as cited in Calabrese *et al.*, 2013:196). Calabrese *et al.* (2013:196; 179) apply the appreciative inquiry approach to understand the positive core of their organisation's work history and work relationships. The aim of using the appreciative inquiry approach is to create a healthy workplace culture by moving from a Model I to a Model II behaviour through encouraging organisational members to make inquiries that are directed at improving organisational behaviour.

This process is undertaken to facilitate the movement from having negative reinforcing loops to positive, optimistic loops, resulting in the members identifying new values and connecting

to positive actions (Calabrese *et al.*, 2013:196). The use of this process as an action research methodology encourages inquiry that is collaborative and participatory to discover what works, to unearth innovation and promote growth in the organisation (Calabrese *et al.*, 2013:196).

#### 2.9.2.4 Appreciative inquiry 4D model

Calabrese *et al.* (2103:198) made use of the appreciative inquiry 4D cycle to engage nine participants of the organisation, an appreciative inquiry Learning Team – “a small group of people with a common focus who engage in the appreciative inquiry 4D Cycle” – to reignite the organisation’s positive core and strengthen the working relationship of staff. The appreciative inquiry 4D cycle comprises four stages of appreciative inquiry: discovery, dream, design and deliver/destiny. Many authors and researchers of appreciative inquiry affirm that the application of the 4D cycle promotes high levels of participation that contribute to a deeper sense of community among participants (Calabrese *et al.*, 2013; Grandy & Holton, 2010).



**Figure 2.4: Appreciative inquiry 4D cycle (Cooperrider, Whitney & Stavros, 2003)**

The aim of facilitating the discovery and dream stages of this cycle was to raise the morale of participants by creating a positive environment and providing opportunities to collectively imagine a positive future vision as a way to improve collaboration by establishing a positive

core of a particular session (Calabrese *et al.*, 2013:198; Messerschmidt, 2008:456), which is what is currently needed in organisations going through changes.

Although there was initially a negative response of blaming internal and external factors, such as the unwillingness of clients to change, lack of funding, and also through the language they used, portraying themselves as victims of a bureaucratic system, by the end of these two stages a positive response was witnessed as participants indicated positive effects: “They felt optimistic and had a renewed sense of hope” (Calabrese *et al.*, 2013:198).

According to Calabrese *et al.* (2013:205), at the completion of the 4D cycle “participants discovered a positive core of hidden strengths, values, and history of success (discovery) to create a powerful vision (dream) for the organisation, a blueprint (design) for action, and a series of action steps (deliver/destiny) to bring their vision to reality”. Through this cycle Calabrese *et al.* claim that participants:

*Developed a strong sense of personal and collective empowerment; (b) created a compelling vision for healthy workplace culture; (c) created a blueprint to achieve their vision of a healthy working culture; (d) and generated important action steps to implement a healthy workplace culture.*

(Calabrese *et al.*, 2013:196)

Thus, through dialogues of appreciative inquiry, organisations can encourage a culture of learning through shared knowledge, which in turn, creates an enabling environment for an inclusive co-creation of an organisation’s imagined future.

### **2.9.2.5 The ADKAR model of change**

The ADKAR model of change, developed by Prosci (2014), looks at facilitating and managing change at an individual level on the basis that organisations do not change, but rather change occurs within the people in organisations (Hiatt, 2006). This model is used by many organisations as a tool to develop corrective action (Bourda, 2013:5). Prosci (2014) makes the argument that organisations can successfully implement lasting and effective change only when each person is able to successfully transition (Change Management Coach, 2015). ADKAR is an acronym for: **Awareness** of the reasons and need for change; the **Desire** to participate and



support change; **Knowledge** on how to change; **Ability** to implement the needed skills and attitude towards change; and **Reinforcement** to sustain the change (Bourda, 2013:5).

Hiatt (2006) makes the connection between change projects and business results, stating, “the link between any strategy, process or system change and the associated business results is the collection of individual changes that occur one person at a time”. He further argues that just following these activities does not result in successful change, but the activities should rather be aligned to a given result or goal (Hiatt, 2006). By using the ADKAR model, organisations can identify why changes are not effective and successful and it can also assist with organisations implementing successful change (Bourda, 2013; Hiatt, 2006).

### ***2.9.2.6 Kotter’s eight-step change model***

Kotter’s eight-step change model was established to provide a holistic approach to change management, arguing that most organisations fail to successfully implement change due to a lack of holistic approach that has no buy-in from at least 70 percent of its organisational members (Bourda, 2013:5; International and International, 2015). According to Bourda, these eight methodical steps are founded on communication, empowerment and focus (2013:6).

The first step, to increase urgency, is arguably the most critical stage in this model because employees are moved out of their comfort zone, and issues of fear, complacency and anger surface (Ryerson University, 2011:11). Therefore, an organisation needs to be careful of how they relay their awareness of this urgency as this determines whether organisational members will embrace or reject the change. This is followed by the second step, building the guiding team, which involves getting the right people who are committed to the change initiative and who have enough power and influence to lead and encourage the change effort (Bourda, 2013:5; Ryerson University, 2011:12).

The third and fourth step is about getting the change vision right and communicating this vision for buy-in by ensuring as many people as possible understand. Organisations then need to develop strategies for achieving the vision and also to begin to communicate clear and credible messages about the direction of the new change (Ryerson University, 2011:12).



The fifth step is about ensuring that there are no obstacles in the way of the change effort that could undermine the vision (Bourda, 2013:5). It is also about encouraging innovation and encouraging organisational members to take risks and come up with ideas.

This is followed by the sixth step, creating short-term wins, which plans for wins that can be achieved quickly, and that can easily be made visible to inspire people and increase their excitement for the change effort (Bourda, 2013:6). Here, it is also important to recognise and reward employees so as to keep them motivated for change.

Step seven, don't let up, is about keeping the momentum of change going by building on the urgency and the things that are working in the organisation, such as developing employees to effectively implement the change, promoting employees and bringing in new employees (if possible) (Bourda, 2013:6; Ryerson University, 2011:14). It is also about removing those things that are not aligned to the change vision and continuously introducing new themes and projects that will support the change (Bourda, 2013:6).

Finally, incorporating change into the culture (Bourda, 2013:6). For change to stick there needs to be a connection between the new behaviours that came with the change effort and organisational success (Bourda, 2013:6; Ryerson University, 2011:14). This will enable organisational members to continue this behaviour and will introduce the growth of a new organisational culture (Ryerson University, 2011:14).

## **2.10 Summary**

In this literature review, the concepts of retention, organisational culture and change management were discussed to draw relationships between these variables. The literature discussed in the chapter illustrates the effects of organisational culture on employee retention and also how types of organisational culture can contribute to the retention and turnover of employees. Based on the literature discussed in this chapter, it is evident that relations between organisational culture and retention strongly exist. The impact that culture has on retention, i.e. loss of talented employees, turnover costs and reputation, is crucial so much that more attention should be given to understanding how organisations can build positive relations between culture and employee retention.

Culture change involves change in the behaviour of employees as well as organisational systems and processes; therefore the proper management of this change process becomes

necessary to effectively change culture. The first step to achieving effective organisational culture change is examining the levels at which culture exists in an organisation in order to understand what needs to be change as well as the culture model suited for the organisation. Furthermore, the management of culture change can be done through the selection of change management approaches that will be able to address that particular change process effectively. The following chapter provides a contextual discussion of the South African public service with a look at public service transformation, as well as employment equity with regards to attracting, recruiting and retaining designated groups.

## Chapter Three: Theoretical Framework of Employment Equity

### 3.1 Introduction

Organisations around the world are continuously going through changes and transformation due to globalisation, which has greatly influenced the economic, technological, social and political aspects of organisational development (Booz Allen, 2015; Kloot & Martin, 2007; Abbas, 2012). Gearing organisations towards the representation of all South African citizens was one of the transformation agendas for South Africa after the 1994 elections (Booyesen, 2007; Leonard & Grobler, 2006). Since the democratisation of South Africa, a radical transformation has been seen in both society and the workplace. More people have had access to basic services as opposed to the provision to a minority before 1994, and the representation of races and gender in academia and the workplace has increased since 1994. The promotion of transformation in the public service by the South African government can be seen in legislation, regulations and prescripts. The transformation agenda would be realised through enforcing the following legislations, which will be further discussed below:

The White Paper on Transformation in the Public Service, 1995

Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108 of 1996

Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998

Skills Development Act 97 of 1998

### 3.2. The White Paper on Transformation in the Public Service

The importance of having a public service that is founded on upholding fair labour practices for all public service workers regardless of race, gender, disability or class is central to promoting representativeness and affirmative action, as well as to the vision of the White Paper on Transformation in the Public Service (WPTPS) (Republic of South Africa, 1995).

After South Africa gained its democracy, the Government of National Unity (GNU) needed to respond to the social and economic inequalities, as well as the racial, political and social divisions that were left by the apartheid regime in the public sector. This positioned poverty and inequality at the top of government's agenda. Discrimination – racial, gender and religious

– was identified as the main aggravating cause of these inequalities in the workplace (Parumasur & Zulu, 2009; Booysen, 2007; Thomas & Jain, 2004).

At the heart of the WPTPS was the acceleration of transformation in the public service with the aim of becoming efficient and effective providers of service delivery to South African citizens (Mekwa, 2012:35). The South African government change management strategy framework views transformational change as necessary and motivated by environmental factors, global changes or for survival purposes, which focuses on whole system changes, culture strategies and structures, and requires senior leadership committed to new thinking, learning and actions for continual transformation (Republic of South Africa, 2013).

Although it had no legal power, the White Paper on Transformation was a cornerstone for all other legislation, prescripts and regulation aimed at transforming the South African public service to follow, as it aimed to provide a policy framework that would guide the introduction and implementation of these new policies and legislation (Republic of South Africa, 1995). The vision of the White Paper on Transformation was to improve the lives of all South African citizens, irrespective of race or gender, by transforming the public service to one which is efficient, effective, representative of all, coherent, transparent, accountable, as well as responsive to the needs of all citizens of South Africa (Republic of South Africa, 1995).

The mission of the WPTPS, outlined in Chapter Two, sketches the government's plan of creating "a people centred and people driven public service which is characterised by equity, quality, timeousness and a strong code of ethics". This can be realised through creating a working environment and culture that is supportive of transformation, as well as the mission, through great change leadership and a transformational approach that is able to construct such a working environment and culture. Of the eight primary goals outlined in the WPTPS, the following directly support transformation:

1. To create a genuinely representative public service that reflects the major characteristics of South African demography, without eroding efficiency and competence.
2. To facilitate the transformation of the attitudes and behaviour of public servants towards a democratic ethos underlined by the overriding importance of human rights.
3. To promote human resource development and capacity building as a necessary precondition for effective change and institution building.

(Republic of South Africa, 1995)

These goals were and continue to be central and relevant to the establishment of a public service that embraces employment equity and the facilitation, as well as encouragement, of working environments for designated groups. Creating a genuinely representative public service does not only entail the employment of designated groups as part of fulfilling affirmative action measures, but goes further to ensure that the working environment is enabling for those employed through affirmative action, enabling them to effectively perform their duties and ensuring that they are retained through skilling, training and capacity building. This requires that the attitudes and behaviours of public servants reflect a culture of inclusivity and advocate human rights.

Chapter three of the WPTPS identifies challenges to transformation of public services, which result in the ineffective and inefficient manner of service provision. Some of the difficulties identified in section 3.1 of the WPTPS that had a direct impact on the enhancement of employment equity ranged from lack of representativeness of all citizens of South Africa in terms of race, gender and disability; fear of and resistance to change in terms of the introduction of rationalisation and affirmative action programmes, which led to leading to deliberate efforts to sabotage the transformation process; management approaches that were not encouraging of innovation or inclusive participation; and the lack of training and developmental opportunities. These challenges continue to impact on the working environment of public services.

The transformational priorities and processes outlined in chapter five of the WPTPS are aimed at achieving its vision of a transformed public service. These priorities include representativeness and affirmative action, meeting basic service delivery needs through transformation, redressing imbalances, as well as the development of effective and efficient human resources. The priorities require a proactive leadership that is committed to the transformational process with the capacity to effectively articulate and realise the vision and goals of the WPTPS.

### 3.2.1 Chapter 10

In Chapter 10 of the WPTPS are measures to ensure representation in the South African public service through the implementation of affirmative action. The first step involves legislation against the discrimination of designated groups. The aim of this measure is to ensure that proper procedures and policies are established to support the appointment of designated groups in the public service to ensure representativeness, as well as to improve service delivery. This includes analysing the profile of the workforce, identifying areas where designated groups are underrepresented and appointing designated groups in a way that will ensure representivity, as well as service delivery.

The second step highlights the importance of having proper recruitment, selection and promotion procedures that consider the experience, qualifications and skills of the designated groups they appoint as part of equal opportunity. This measure is crucial in determining the balance between representation and service delivery required for the proper functioning of the public service. Although representivity is important for redressing the imbalances of apartheid, it is equally important for the public service to appoint capable employees who have the skills and capacity to perform and deliver services to citizens.

*It is the intention of the GNU that the development and implementation of affirmative action programmes will allow special measures to be taken to ensure that people from disadvantaged groups inside and outside the public service will be identified and appointed through proper procedures within all departments and at all levels of the public service, with the aim of achieving representativeness and improved service delivery.*

(Republic of South Africa, 1995)

Part of accelerating the empowerment of designated groups is the implementation of programmes that are supportive of employment equity, such as retention and career planning programmes, as well as succession planning (Mekwa, 2012:38). However, such programmes are known to be a challenge to implement in the public sector (Mekwa, 2012:38). Contributing challenges include government regulations that impede on recruitment, promotion and firing in public service; and long career paths that take many years to get to the top. This makes it difficult for people to develop, difficult to get rid of those who are not performing, and has also

created a small pool of properly qualified leaders with significantly limited working years as most are close to their retirement by the time they get to the top.

The third step identifies the importance of the organisation's attitude towards transformation in ensuring the effectiveness of the process with particular focus given to the management levels attitudinal change, which is crucial to ensure organisational commitment for the success of transformation. Those attitudinal changes require a visionary leadership approach, as well as change management approaches that can facilitate the change process in a way that will enable organisational members to be part of it. This may result in organisational culture changes that are able to create an enabling environment for transformation to successfully take place. The chapters discussed above show that there is a clear alignment between the WPTPS vision and objectives with the employment equity objectives of redressing imbalances in the growth of designated groups in the South African workplace.

### **3.3 The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa**

The Constitution (1996) is at the heart of public service transformation in South Africa. Under Section 195(1), it clearly underlines the democratic values and principles that must govern public administration (Republic of South Africa, 1996). Chapter 10 of the Constitution provides the basic values under which public administration is governed. These values include the optimisation of human capital through the nurturing of proper human resource management and career-development practices; as well as achieving representation of South African citizens with human resources practices that take into consideration impartiality, fairness, and the need to redress historical imbalances. Such values emphasise the importance of effective human resource management practises in the creation of effective organisations that have well trained and skilled employees to perform optimally and the importance of the recognising and promoting of diversity and equal representation of various racial and gender groups, as well as people living with disabilities. This principle, along with the others mentioned in this section, applies to all spheres of government: national, provincial and local (Republic of South Africa, 1996).

### 3.3.1 Chapter Two: The Bill of Rights

The validity and relevance of any legislation in the Republic of South Africa depends on its alignment with the Constitution as the supreme law of the country. More closely, Chapter Two of the Constitution, the Bill of Rights, focuses on equality, which is central to employment equity in South Africa. A contextual understanding of equality in South Africa is based on the country's history of inequality and discrimination. It is therefore important for us to discuss the complex definition of equality.

Consensus on the meaning and definition of equality has been of great challenge globally due to the context in which equality is defined by various writers based on their social context and also the deferring understanding of equality from a social versus legal perspective (Smith, 2014:610). This has resulted in what Smith (2014:611) describes as a distinction between formal and substantive concepts of equality.

Formal equality is a more legal interpretation of equality that is based on Aristotle's understanding of equality that "things that are alike should be treated alike" (as cited in Anon, 2007:2). This form of equality is removed of subjective and arbitrary characteristics, such as religion, race and gender (Smith, 2014:611). Smith (2014:612) describes this form of equality as one that "only requires equal application of the law without further examination of the particular circumstances or context of the individual or group and the law and/or policy under review". This approach to equality is argued to be indirectly discriminatory, which inherently encourages the existence of systemic discrimination (Equalopportunity.gov.tt, 2015; Smith, 2014). This is due to the inability to realise the importance of context and circumstance to making meaning of the concept of equality.

Substantive equality, sometimes called equality of opportunity, is an approach to equality that is, in part, based on a redistributive justice model (Smith, 2014:614). This approach acknowledges the non-discriminatory nature of policies and practices that are put in place to suit all; however, it is of the view that in order for these policies and practises to be effective, measures have to be taken to rectify past discrimination because the former approach to equality may not address the specific needs of certain groups of people, leaving people at different starting points (Equalopportunity.gov.tt, 2015; Smith, 2014). This concept of equality, alongside the human rights approach to equality, has hugely influenced the concept of affirmative action as its emphasis is on recognising and supporting diversity and difference in society and also the importance of recognising cultural, political and legal choices of social



groups (Smith, 2014:614). It is this approach to equality that has influenced the context of equality stipulated in Constitution of South Africa, “as it recognises the need to provide redress for past disadvantages” (Smith, 2014:615).

### **3.4 Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 (EEA)**

Since this research focuses on employment equity with regards to the retention of designated groups, the discussion of employment equity will be limited to chapters that deal with measures for retaining designated employees. The EE Act aims to achieve the promotion of equal employment opportunities and fair treatment through the implementation of affirmative action (AA) measures to eliminate discrimination and advance those people identified as designated groups (black people, women and people with disabilities) (Republic of South Africa, 1998a; Van Rensburg & Roodt, 2005; Thomas, 2002). Like all South African legislation, the EE Act complies with the core values of the Constitution of South Africa, and human rights.

The purpose of the EEA is articulated in chapter one, which is related through objectives that are identified to achieve equality: the elimination of unfair discrimination through the promotion of fair treatment and equality, as well as the equitable representation of designated groups through the implementation of affirmative action measures, and it is the Constitution’s principles of non-discrimination and equality that guide these objectives. Through these objectives the Act can ensure that disadvantages in the employment of designated groups are redressed.

Chapter two of the EEA discusses the measures taken to prohibit and eliminate unfair discrimination, as well as the promotion of equal opportunity in relation to work practices and employment policies in the workplace. This chapter provides a clear distinction between unfair and fair discrimination; where fair discrimination relates to when discrimination is identified by its association to supporting affirmative action measures for the achievement of EEA objectives whilst unfair discrimination relates to unfair work policies, practices and procedures that perpetuate inequalities in the workplace. Although the elimination of unfair discrimination in the workplace is a legal obligation in the South African workforce, it also contributes to high levels of satisfaction amongst staff, adds value to the business and enables a work environment that is limited of complaints and disruptions.

Chapter 3 relates to the affirmative action measures to achieve the EEA. These measures include eliminating barriers to recruitment, selection and development of designated groups, promoting diversity, and creating a working environment that reflects equitable representation and embraces designated groups. The measures of retaining and developing designated groups are limited to preferential treatment and targets. The EEA does not consider change management strategies for the implementation of EE and the retention of designated groups.

### **3.5 Skills Development Act 97 of 1998 (SDA)**

Subsequent to the enactment of the EEA was the promulgation of the Skills Development Act (SDA). The purpose of the SDA was to address historical skills and development disparities within the South African workplace. This was due to the disparities that existed between the white and black education systems, as well as the institutional cultures caused by discrimination and inequality in employment, education and training (Republic of South Africa, 1998b). These resulted in imbalanced education between black and white South Africans and also caused a skills shortage amongst designated groups (Mekwa, 2012:46). This shortage required legislation that would support the up-skilling and development of designated persons in South Africa.

The objectives outlined in Section two of the SDA focus on the improvement of the quality of life of the South African workforce through skills development (Republic of South Africa, 1998b). This gives room for upward mobility of designated groups, as well as enhances public service performance as the workforce will be trained and developed. The objectives of the SDA look at the importance of the relationship between employers and their working environment, with emphasis on the need for a workplace that encourages and maintains an active learning culture and environment where employees are able to learn and acquire new skills (Republic of South Africa, 1998b).

### **3.6 Public Service Transformation in South Africa**

Like all organisations in all sectors of employment, the public service has experienced a number of changes in government organisations due to a number of reasons, such as global influences, and socioeconomic and environmental demands. High levels of racial and gender inequality, driven by the apartheid system (Cameron & Thornhill, 2009), motivated for the

transformation of the South African public sector. This process of public sector transformation influenced a number of changes in the structures and governance of public service organisations and needs a strategic change management approach to ensure effective transformation in South Africa (Republic of South Africa, 1998a).

In South Africa, workplace transformation has noticeably gained faddish status and continues to do so due to various arguments about the failure of many organisational change initiatives and/or practices in the country (Van Tonder, 2004; Glensor, 2010). One of the challenges mentioned by Cameron and Thornhill (2009) is that of the functional areas of legislative competence provided by the Constitution to provinces and municipalities, which leaves the national government with little, if no, power to ensure the consistent implementation of its policies throughout the public sector. Another challenge to the success of workplace transformation in South Africa is the lack of coordination that exists amongst government departments, as well as the various tiers of government that has resulted in the slowing down of transformation initiatives (Cameron & Thornhill, 2007; ASGISA, 2008).

The reception towards public service transformation varies amongst the different members of society. On the one hand, those people who have been at the disadvantaged end saw this transformation as a pathway to growth and greater opportunities to ensure social and economic mobility for designated groups, whilst on the other hand the historical beneficiaries of apartheid rejected this process based on the premise that transformation would threaten the independence of the labour market (Parumasur & Zulu, 2009:1).

South Africa has been on a quest to redress racial and gender inequalities in society and the workplace, and one of the most important interventions in achieving this goal was the introduction of affirmative action, which paved the way for the Employment Equity Act. However, since the introduction of these redress measures, not much progress has been achieved in South Africa with regards to implementation and reaching the targets of employment equity (Booyesen, 2007; Horwitz & Jain, 2011; Thomas, 2002). Some researchers (Aarons & Sawitzky, 2006; Booyesen, 2007; Horwitz & Jain, 2011; Thomas, 2002) attribute this challenge of underachievement to the absence of mechanisms for creating working environments that are able to produce positive work attitudes towards job satisfaction and commitment through fair employment practices that can focus on human capital development inclusive practices and organisational effectiveness.

The Government of National Unity established the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (WPTPS), published in December 1995, with the aim of responding to social and economic inequalities, as well as the racial, political and social divisions that were left by the apartheid regime in the public sector (1995) and this saw poverty and inequality at the top of government's agenda. Discrimination – racial, gender and religious – was identified as the main aggravating cause of inequalities, which enacted itself in the workplace (Parumasur & Zulu, 2009; Booysen, 2007; Thomas & Jain, 2004).

Employment Equity involves addressing fairness in the workplace and creating an environment that is inclusive of all racial and gender groups and people with disabilities, thus enabling job satisfaction and at the same time ensuring that the organisational goals are met (Jongens, 2006; Parumasur & Zulu; Thomas, 2002; Thomas & Jain, 2004; Subotzky, 2001; Walbrught & Roodt, 2003). This view is further supported by Thomas and Robertshaw (1999) who provide a more holistic view of employment equity, encompassing all related aspects (as cited by Isaaks, 2008:26).

*... An organisational change strategy, designed to prevent and remedy discrimination and disadvantage by identifying and removing job barriers in employment policies and practices, and in the culture of the organisation, as well as by improving the numerical representation and occupational distribution of designated groups.*

Although Canadian jurisdiction primarily influences the employment equity legislation of South Africa (Thomas & Jain, 2004:37), the main difference between the two countries is the population on which employment equity is focused. Unlike Canada and the USA, South African employment equity is directed towards the majority of the population who have been disadvantaged by the discriminatory laws of apartheid, which makes it an even more challenging process to facilitate (Castle, 1995; Charlton & van Niekerk, 1994; Thomas & Jain, 2004; Thompson, 1994). One of the most important ways of ensuring the effective implementation of employment equity is the ability to retain employees in designated groups. This has also been one of the greatest challenges in the success of the implementation of this legislation (Booyesen, 2007:48).

Over the past two decades, a number of researchers have been able to show the fallen retention rate of black recruits in South Africa (Bennet, 2001; Booysen, 2007; Thomas & Jain, 2004). This has been largely due to the ever-changing dynamics of the environment and employees' career development needs, but also due to organisations' inability to adapt to the cultural and

language diversity, as well as the differing socio-economic conditions of South Africa's diverse workforce (Booyesen, 2007; Deloitte South Africa, 2014).

South African society was left with huge inequalities and a history of racial discrimination for many decades and, as such, the new democratic government was faced with a huge challenge to integrate a society that was separated for years and also the challenge of allowing over half of the population the opportunity to find their place in the country. At organisational level, this meant promoting equal employment opportunities and the fair treatment of people, which is the aim of employment equity (Republic of South Africa, 1998a). Isaaks (2008:26) views employment equity as a comprehensive organisational change strategy designed to prevent and remedy discrimination and disadvantage.

What drives the implementation of employment equity in South Africa is the Employment Equity Act (Republic of South Africa, 1998a), which sets out the way that workplaces in South Africa should operate with the aim of transforming and applying affirmative action measures. The Employment Equity Act aims to achieve the promotion of equal employment opportunities and fair treatment through the implementation of affirmative action measures to eliminate discrimination and advance those people identified as designated groups – black people, women and people with disabilities (Republic of South Africa, 1998a; Van Rensburg & Roodt, 2005; Thomas, 2002). Like all South African legislation, the Employment Equity Act complies with the core values of the Constitution of South Africa, and human rights.

### **3.7 Comparative Analysis of Workplace Transformation**

In the world of work, global transformation has occupied centre stage due the historical discrimination of racial, gender and class that has existed for decades (Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2010). South Africa long sustained a position as one of the most unequal countries in the world (UNDP in South Africa, 2015). This is largely to its history of apartheid and the aftermath brought by this regime. Since liberation, South Africa has been on a quest to redress these inequalities, with one of the most important interventions being the introduction of affirmative action, which paved the way for the Employment Equity Act. The introduction of such redress measures is not unique to South Africa, as countries like Canada, the United States of America and Malaysia have also undergone such interventions with the aim of redressing racial, class and gender discrimination and inequalities.

### **3.7.1 USA**

In the USA, transformation, in the form of affirmative action, was pressured by the social and political need to diversify the workplace due to racial discrimination against a black minority (Nzukuma & Bussin, 2011; Thomas, 2002). Although a significant reduction in discriminating practices in the USA has been linked to affirmative action programmes, the meritocratic culture of the USA workplace continues to slow down the progress of transformation because the assessment tools used to recruit employees, such as merit and psychometric tests, continue to perpetuate the viewpoints of the white dominant group and fail to take into account social imbalances that exist amongst these racial groups. Another challenge to the elimination of discriminating practices and the success of transformation in the USA is the absence of a constitutional obligation to enforce affirmative action, as well as the time limit placed on affirmative action programmes which results in programmes ending prematurely (Nzukuma & Bussin, 2011:3).

### **3.7.2 Malaysia**

Many authors argue that the best country for South Africa to learn best practice of affirmative action measures is Malaysia, as parallels exist between the two countries in terms of the designated groups constituting a majority of the population and the ethnic and racial differences encountered by both countries (Castle, 1995; Charlton & van Niekerk, 1994; Thompson, 1994; Thomas, 2002:243). According to Muller (1994:2), “what makes Malaysia particularly special for South Africans is its ethnic make-up. It is one of those cultural melting-pots of colonialism”.

More than five decades after the introduction of the National Economic Policy (NEP) aimed at promoting national unity and social integration, and also at enacting affirmative action measures in Malaysia, a large number of the designated groups, the indigenous Malays, still remain economically disadvantaged (Thomas, 2002:243). It cannot be discarded that, through this policy, the country was able to establish a middle-class of Malays and a rise in the country’s GDP (Thomas, 2002:243). The country adopted a quota system in government and parastatal organisations, universities and in ownership of enterprises, which gave designated groups empowerment opportunities. However, this is argued to have occurred at the expense of other ethnic communities, such as the Malaysian Chinese and Indians, and of the national economy as a whole (Muller, 1994:2).

Over time the NEP arguably became a system of corrupt patronage, where only a minority of the ethnic Malay population benefit from the policy (Muller, 1994; Thomas, 2002). The country witnessed a huge number of this discontented population attending universities out of Malaysia, and many more moving out of the country (Muller, 1994; Thomas, 2002).

### **3.7.3 Canada**

In Canada, the purpose of employment equity was to prevent and eliminate unfair discrimination, as well as promote equality in the workplace for the improvement of the status of designated groups – women, ethnic minorities, aboriginals and people with disabilities (Brutus, *et al.*, 1998; Gunderson, 1994; Thomas, 2002; Thomas & Jain, 2004). Legislation on employment equity is encapsulated in three jurisdictions: the Canadian Constitution, the employment equity legislation at federal level, and human rights legislation (Brutus, *et al.*, 1998; Thomas, 2002; Thomas & Jain, 2004).

The Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms, which is part of the Constitution, prohibits all forms of unfair discrimination and also promotes equality of rights in all government agencies (Brutus, *et al.*, 1998; Thomas, 2002). Affirmative action programmes are acknowledged as measures to redress historical discrimination, and the provisions of the Charter apply to all federal, provincial and municipal government agencies countrywide (Brutus, *et al.*, 1998; Thomas & Jain, 2004).

The Canadian Employment Equity Act of 1967 protects Canadian citizens from discrimination in the workplace by means of promoting employment opportunities and the elimination of unfair discrimination against designated groups, with a particular focus on employees of federal government agencies, federal government corporations, such as the banking, transportation and communications sector, as well as suppliers of federal government agencies (Brutus, *et al.*, 1998; Gunderson, 1994; Thomas, 2002).

Additional human rights statutes that focus on employment discrimination exist in all Canadian provinces on a number of prohibited grounds, such as sexual orientation, religion and ethnic origin. Through these statutes employers voluntarily embark on employment equity programmes that can support designated groups (Brutus, *et al.*, 1998; Thomas & Jain, 2004). Such statutes include the government contract compliance programme that exists in Quebec and other jurisdictions as a mechanism of promoting non-legislated employment equity in



companies that have contracts with their government; and the employment equity requirements of some government agencies stipulated in the Quebec Charter of Human Rights and Freedoms of 1985 (Brutus, *et al.*, 1998; Thomas & Jain, 2004).

While employment equity interventions from Canada are dominant in all three jurisdictions, there continues to be challenges that impede on the acceleration of employment equity. One of the limiting factors of employment equity in Canada is its absence in the private sector. Although an increase in the representation of minority groups has been witnessed in private sector organisations covered in the government contracts compliance programme, this representation is only visible at lower occupational levels, and with little to non-representation at senior management levels (Thomas & Jain, 2004:42).

Another challenge is that of employment equity legislation being applied on the basis of individual complaints, making it a reactive system where the burden of proof is placed on the employee (Gunderson, 1994; Thomas & Jain, 2004). Such a system may force employees to abstain from lodging complaints for fear of victimisation and intimidation.

### **3.8 South African Challenges of the Retention of Designated Groups**

In the South African context, unique challenges exist that further intensify the factors of employee retention and turnover in the workplace. One of these challenges is the scarcity of skilled employees within the specialist and management realm (Booyesen, 2007; Kotze & Roodt, 2005; Kerr-Phillips & Thomas, 2009). This is largely owed to the significant loss of skilled people who immigrated to developed countries after the 1994 democratic elections (Booyesen, 2007; Kotze & Roodt, 2005; Kerr-Phillips & Thomas, 2009), and resulted in employers being left with a pool of employees, the majority of whom were unskilled due to the laws of the apartheid system that worked against them.

Another challenge is the national interventions aimed at addressing employment equity in the South African workplace. For the South African employer, the workplace challenge is not only about recruiting and retaining competent designated employees by implementing proper training and development strategies and retention strategies, it is also about creating a working environment that can holistically capture the image of a South Africa that embraces everyone's



contribution whilst also attaining organisational sustainability and effectiveness (Kotze & Roodt, 2005; Booysen, 2007; Thomas & Jain, 2004).

In order to address these mentioned challenges, South African employers need to focus on the development and training of existing employees for optimal and efficient utility, as well as finding measures of retaining the existing pool of employees through identifying and management of factors influencing turnover of skilled employees. Building commitment from the employee can be attained by continuously engaging with employees and also creating a culture of development and growth by providing engaging, meaningful work (Kotze & Roodt, 2005; Booysen, 2007; Thomas & Jain, 2004). Such a strategy may ensure that employers properly align employees with the organisation's goals and subsequently influence employees to stay in organisations.

### **3.9 Summary**

Public service transformation in South Africa is based on legislation that aims to diminish discrimination and inequalities in the South African public services. Although much has been achieved since the introduction of public service transformation, many challenges continue to impede on the progress of the transition process. Challenges of brain drain, knowledge sharing and development through coaching and mentoring exist due to the migration of skilled workers who come from the previously privileged minority. The following chapter clearly illustrates the step-by-step process of the systematic review research method. The linkage between the research design, research paradigm, as well as the research strategy and approach are clearly defined and explained.

## Chapter Four: Research Design and Methods

### 4.1 Introduction

It has been argued by many researchers, as well as organisations, that introducing change in organisations requires a comprehensive understanding of the culture that exists in that particular organisation so as to better understand the approach to be taken to initiate the planned changes. The primary objective of this study was to collect, analyse and summarise research evidence to understand how effects of change management on culture change can encourage a positive influence of organisational culture on the retention of designated groups in the South African public sector by means of conducting a systematic review.

The research identified studies conducted between the years 2005 and 2015, with the aim of obtaining recent and updated studies conducted in the field of change management, organisational culture and the effects these have on employee retention of designated groups.

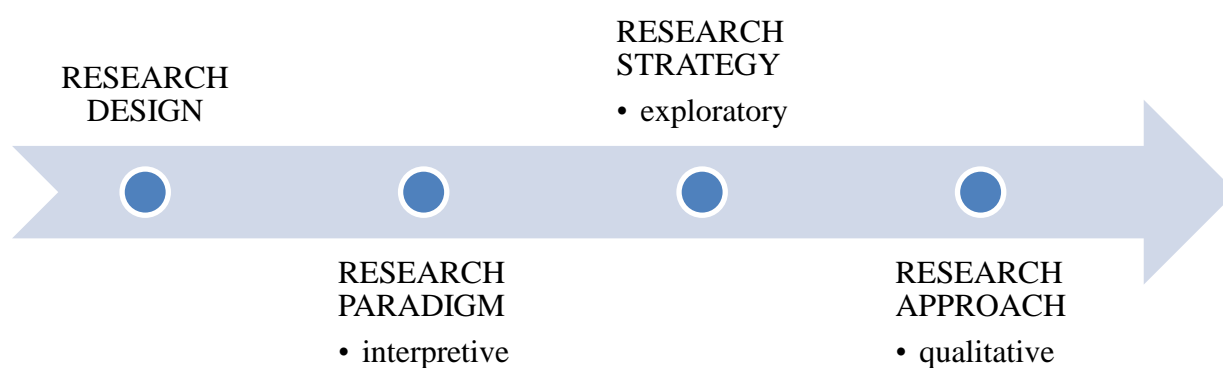
### 4.2 Research Objectives

The objectives of the study are:

- To identify, synthesise and analyse existing literature on the relations between organisational culture and employee retention.
- To examine the organisational culture factors that undermine efforts to retain designated groups.
- To understand the organisational culture factors that encourage efforts to retain designated groups.
- To establish ways in which organisations can change their culture to support the retention of designated groups.

### 4.3 Research Design

This chapter focuses on the research methodology that is used to answer the research questions, as well as the research objectives. The appropriate and relevant research design and methodology for a research study is able to guide the researcher on how to achieve the purpose of the research and appropriately answer the research questions or prove a hypothesis (Henning, 2004:1). Henning (2004:1) argues that the purpose of a research study is most influential on the choice of methods of data collection, as well as data analysis. Figure 4.1 below gives a summary of the research paradigm, strategy and approach for this study.



**Figure 4.1: Summary of research design**

The research design for this study is a descriptive and interpretive systematic review that is analysed through a qualitative meta-ethnographic synthesis method to better understand change management approaches that are appropriate to positively change organisational culture to ensure the retention of designated employees. A systematic review is an important tool for identifying, evaluation and interpreting studies that are relevant to a particular research area, thus making better use of existing evidence that supports decision making in organisations and government, as well as policy development (Higgins & Green, 2006; Kane, Wood & Barlow, 2007; Snilsvet, Oliver & Vojtkova, 2012).

### 4.3.1 Research paradigm

The concept of paradigm has been widely defined by numerous writers. Some describe paradigm as a unified holistic thinking system that establishes a collection of fundamental concepts and problems through interrelated methodological approaches with the aim of determining a research purpose (Terre Blanch & Durrheim, 1999; Kuhn, 1977). A research paradigm can be defined as a research ethos that describes a world view or set of beliefs, values, and assumptions that a researcher holds regarding the nature and conduct of research (Kuhn, 1977; Sarantakos, 1993; Terre Blanch & Durrheim, 1999).

The epistemological position of the study is interpretive, as it is underpinned by **observations** of existing studies and the **interpretation** of the findings of those studies. Henning (2004) and Thomas (2010) describe interpretive research as a collective process that is informed by those who are part of the study (including the researcher) and analysed or validated by others with the aim of explaining the subjective reasons and meanings that lie behind social action. The interpretive research process allows inquiry to focus on ways in which social meaning comes about and is maintained in discourse, and also allows for the researcher to look at various places and things to better understand a phenomenon (Henning, 2004).

### 4.3.2 Exploratory research strategy

An exploratory research strategy was chosen for this study. The research looks at existing studies in the field of organisational development, with particular focus on organisational culture and the retention of designated groups in the South African public service.

### 4.3.3 Qualitative research approach

This study followed a qualitative research approach. The research is non-numerical, but rather uses theoretical inquiry techniques and processes to gather data about a social phenomenon in the form of words, symbols, pictures or other non-numeric records, materials or artefacts that are collected by the researcher (Mhlongo, 2014:5). By using a qualitative research method, the researcher is able to determine what happens, how it happens, and why it happens the way it does (Henning, 2004:3).

## 4.4 Systematic Review Methodology

The aim of a systematic review is to provide collective insight for policy decisions by identifying, **critically evaluating** and **integrating** findings of all relevant, high-quality individual studies addressing one or more research questions (Brown, *et al.*, 2012; Snilsvet, *et al.*, 2012; Winter, *et al.*, 2014). The following processes were performed in the implementation of the systematic review:

1. Defining the review question.
2. Identifying and retrieving articles through selection criteria and a systematic search strategy.
3. Critical appraisal and quality analysis.
4. Data extraction.
5. Data analysis and synthesis.

### 4.4.1 Step 1: Defining the review questions

A clearly defined, focused review begins with a well-framed question (O'Connor, Green & Higgins, 2008). For this review, the question was founded on the researcher's search of topics and questions in the field of organisational development, which focused on the relationships between organisational culture change and retention. When formulating a review question, the researcher needs to clearly specify the type of population/participants, interventions, comparisons as well as outcomes of the studies that will be included in the review to form the basis of the specific inclusion criteria when selecting studies for the review (O'Connor, *et al.*, 2008; Snilsvet, *et al.*, 2012; Winter, *et al.*, 2014).

The starting point was to investigate, through a literature search, if there were any existing systematic reviews that reported on the influence of organisational culture on the retention of designated employees. The findings of this investigation guided the researcher with the knowledge that there was a need to conduct a systematic review to answer this review question: **What can we learn about the influence of organisational culture on the retention of designated groups in the South African Public Service.**

The table below illustrates the identified population/participants, interventions, comparisons as well as outcomes of the studies included in the review question.

**Table 4.1: PICO illustration**

<b>POPULATION/PARTICIPANTS</b>	Designated groups in the South African public sector
<b>INTERVENTION</b>	Organisational culture change
<b>COMPARISON</b>	Change management
<b>OUTCOME</b>	Employee retention

To answer the review question, the following objectives were undertaken:

Identify, synthesise and analyse existing literature on the relations between organisational culture and employee retention.

Examine the organisational culture factors that undermine efforts to retain designated groups.

Understand the organisational culture factors that encourage efforts to retain designated groups.

Establish ways in which organisations can change their culture to support the retention of designated groups.

These four objectives would enable the researcher to identify answers to the systematic review question. The following step involved the identification of relevant publications for the systematic review through selection criteria.

#### **4.4.2 Step 2: Identifying and retrieval of relevant studies**

##### **4.4.2.1 Inclusion criteria**

One of the distinguishing characteristics of a systematic review is its requirement for clearly stated objectives with predefined selection criteria (also known as eligibility criteria) for studies (Dhillon & Gill, 2014; Higgins & Green, 2008). Reviews are considered valid, applicable and comprehensive when the selection criteria are clear and understandable (Liberati, *et al.*, 2009:7). According to Higgins & Green (2008:84) and Liberati, Altman, Tetzlaff, Mulrow, Gøtzsche, Ioannidis, Clarke, Devereaux, Kleijnen, & Moher (2009:7) the selection criteria for the review can be established through the identified population/participants, intervention and comparisons.

#### **4.4.2.2 Types of studies**

The aim of the systematic review is to understand ways in which organisational culture change can positively impact on the retention of designated groups in the South African public sector. The review looks at relationships between organisational cultures, change management, employee retention, as well as employment equity and diversity management in South Africa. Thus, the review considered published empirical studies that have examined at least two of the above-mentioned themes discussed in the study in the inclusion criteria. Studies with qualitative, quantitative or a mix of both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection were also included in the review. According to Dixon-Wood, *et al.* (2005), an approach that uses a range of data sources is necessary to appropriately answer complex questions as it accommodates diversity of questions and evidence. The review also included full text articles that were accessible to the researcher available under the University of Stellenbosch library subscription as well as those published in the English language for interpretation and analysis purposes.

#### **4.4.2.3 Types of participants**

The review focused on participants represented under the definition of designated groups established in the Employment Equity Act – women, black people and people living with disabilities – in the workplace. However, the study was not limited to the participants mentioned above due to some relevant studies not being focused on any particular group. The systematic review's search strategy needed to be able to explore how organisational culture change can positively impact the retention of designated groups in the South African public sector. The review thus needed a significant volume of studies that provide a South African perspective, which meant that research databases with African content needed to be consulted. However, due to the limited body of work that examines the relationship between organisational culture, change management and retention of designated groups in South Africa, the review included studies that examined both private and public organisations globally to broaden the pool of relevant articles.

#### **4.4.2.4 Time period**

In order to obtain the most recent studies relevant to this review and to also narrow the focus of the review to a particular timeframe, the researcher selected a timeframe between January 2005 and December 2015.

#### **4.4.2.5 Exclusion criteria**

Studies that were not included in the review are as follows:

- Studies that only referred to one of the main variables of organisational culture, retention, designated groups or change management.
- Studies not available under the subscription of the University of Stellenbosch.
- Studies not published between 2005 and 2015.
- Studies without abstracts.
- Studies published in a foreign language.

#### **4.4.2.6 Phases of the study selection**

The study selection was conducted in three phases, namely:

1. Identification of titles for potential inclusion.
2. Screening of abstracts for potential inclusion.
3. Assessment of full papers for selection.

#### **4.4.2.7 Identification of titles**

In the first phase, an initial quick screen of the title of the studies was conducted to establish the potential relevance of the studies. The studies were retrieved from two sources: an electronic database search and manual reference search techniques. The researcher would look at the abstract when the main points of consideration and titles were unclear. The comprehensive search was done across all disciplines available in the chosen databases. Studies that included one of the main variables – change management, organisational culture, and



employee retention of designated groups – were not included in the selection criteria. The studies that were considered were those that included more than one of the chosen search terms. Studies that were included in the review were those that are aligned to organisational culture as a factor of retention.

#### **4.4.2.8 Electronic database search**

During the database search, appropriate keywords and search terms were identified to find the relevant papers for the review. The keyword and search terms were: ‘organisational culture’, ‘employee retention’, ‘designated groups in South Africa’ and ‘change management’. The search was conducted in the following databases:

SA e Publications (SABINET)

EBSCO Host

EMERALD

SAGE publications

Google Scholar

The initial search was conducted by inserting all the chosen search terms on all the selected databases without any particular filtering method, such as published periods, types of documents, and so forth. The only refining method used by the researcher was the use of Boolean operators as a means of narrowing the search and also connecting and defining the relationship between the included search terms. The search included a combination of keywords that could be found anywhere in the searched articles. The researcher chose to include the term ‘employment equity’ in the search terms as it was inclusive of all designated groups. The search strategy included a combination of the following search terms:

4. ‘Organis\*zational culture’ AND ‘employee retention’
- ‘Change management’ AND ‘employee retention’
- ‘Employment equity’ OR ‘designated groups’ AND ‘employee retention’
- ‘Change management’ AND ‘employment equity’ OR ‘Designated groups’
- ‘Organis\*zational culture’ AND ‘employment equity’ OR ‘Designated groups’

The table below presents the number of articles initially retrieved.

**Table 4.2: Total number of articles initially from databases**

DATABASE	NUMBER OF ARTICLES
EBSCO HOST	88
EMERALD	539
GOOGLE SCHOLAR	29084
SABINT SA E PUBLICATIONS	8237
SAGE	292
<b>TOTAL NUMBER OF ARTICLES</b>	<b>38240</b>

Further refining was required to narrow the search to more relevant papers. The search was further refined by distinguishing the combined titles on the article titles and/or as key terms. The following distinctions were made:

5. Article Title: ‘Change management’ AND Keyword/Subject terms: ‘Organis\*zational culture’ OR ‘Culture Change’  
Article Title: ‘Organis\*zational culture’ AND Keyword/Subject terms: ‘employee retention’  
Article Title: ‘Organis\*zational culture’ AND Keyword/Subject terms: ‘employment equity’ OR ‘Designated groups’  
Article Title: ‘employee retention’ AND Keyword/Subject terms: ‘employment equity’ OR ‘Designated groups’  
Article Title: ‘Organis\*zational culture’ AND Keyword/Subject terms: ‘employment equity’ OR ‘Designated groups’ AND ‘employee retention’ OR ‘Designated groups’  
Article Title: ‘Organis\*zational culture’ OR ‘Culture Change’ AND Keyword/Subject terms: ‘Change management’  
Article Title: ‘Organis\*zational culture’ AND abstract: ‘employee retention’ AND ‘Diversity Management’

**Table 4.3: Total number of articles using specific search criteria**

Database	Number of articles
Ebsco host	11
Emerald	2
Google scholar	45
Sabint SA e-publications	18
Sage	26
<b>Total number of articles</b>	<b>102</b>

#### **4.4.2.9 Manual reference search**

The researcher used the manual reference search technique (also known as mining references) to find additional studies from the reference list of the included articles. Through this technique the researcher was able to retrieve additional articles that were relevant to the review that were not available in the in the mentioned databases.

#### **4.4.2.10 Screening of abstracts**

Articles that were included in the previous phase were further scrutinised in the second phase of abstract screening. In this phase, the screening of the included articles was based on the inclusion and exclusion criteria of the review with a focus on the participants, unit of analysis, time period, outcome measures and availability of full texts. Once the articles were considered applicable for selection, they would be included in the following phase. The studies that did not meet the inclusion criteria were found inappropriate, and were therefore excluded from the process. A template of the abstract summary sheet (Appendix A) was used to record information of all the assessed abstracts.

#### **4.4.2.11 Assessment of full papers**

The third phase involved a full article reading of each paper included from the previous phase to further establish the potential relevance of the studies. An assessment of the methodological quality was conducted through a critical appraisal and quality analysis tool. The tool entailed a

rating system established by the primary researcher with the supervisor to determine eligibility for inclusion in the review.

#### **4.4.3 Step 3: Critical appraisal and quality analysis**

Establishing a critical appraisal and quality analysis tool assists the researcher to determine the quality of included studies and also guides the selection of final studies and interpretation of findings (Marks & Yardley, 2004:9). In this review, the appraisal of the quality of selected studies and the extraction of data were done simultaneously. The systematic review required guidelines to determine the eligibility of a study. These guidelines were established through the selection of a measurement tool for appraisal.

The systematic review identified the Critical Appraisal Skills Programme (CASP) as a measurement tool for the quality analysis of the qualitative studies included in the review (Banning, 2011; Thomas & Harden, 2008; Kane, *et al.*, 2007; Noyes & Popay, 2007). By employing this programme, the researcher is able to make sense of research methodologies, ensure reliability and draw the right conclusions (Singh, 2013:76). The programme identifies ten appraisal questions for qualitative studies to ensure that the improved quality of the review and also identify studies that are of low quality (Banning, 2011; Thomas & Harden, 2008; Kane, *et al.*, 2007; Noyes & Popay, 2007; Tranfield, Denyer & Smart, 2003; Okello, 2014). No overall score is required for the CASP tool, thus there was a need for a numerical rating system.

Thomas and Harden (2008:45) argue that for qualitative studies, quality is largely determined by their ability to answer the research question as well as rigor. The appraisal included the assessment of the studies' relevance based on the study design, the data collection, the sampling method, data analysis, and the presented findings of the study, ethical considerations and rigor. The information received through this critical appraisal and quality analysis stage was summarised through a self-constructed quality appraisal table, attached as Appendix B.

#### **4.4.4 Step 4: Data extraction**

Data extraction was conducted on the studies that met the inclusion criteria for the review. Throughout the review process, the review was conducted by the researcher and monitored by

the supervisor in order to strengthen the quality of the review, as well as give valuable insight on the conduct of the review, as it is important to employ multiple individuals conducting a review process to ensure rigor, as well as to strengthen the quality of the review (Higgins & Green, 2011). In the case of data extraction, Higgins and Green (2011) argue that the extraction of data from studies should be conducted by more than one person so as to mitigate errors and minimise potential bias introduced by review authors (Higgins & Green, 2011).

The researcher read the included articles and extracted data appropriate to the review. The data extracted included text, the authors' interpretations, as well as verbatim quotations. Two forms of data extraction were conducted, the first being the extraction of the general description and methodological appraisal of the included studies. The second part included the extraction of data analysis methods, study results and the authors' conclusions.

The extracted data was recorded in two separate self-constructed data extraction tables that included details that respond to the objective of the review: to identify the influence of organisational culture on employee retention and analyse the relationship between organisational culture change, change management and the retention of designated groups in the South African public service. Thus, the details of the data extraction table included the reference, study design, data collection, the sampling method, subject and setting of study, framework, data analysis, and the findings of the study. The purpose of this data extraction table is to provide, in a tabular format, an overview of the relationship between organisational culture change, change management and retention of designated employees. This clear illustration of data better enables the researcher to synthesise and analyse the available data.

Once the data was extracted and illustrated in the table, the researcher was able to conduct the synthesis stage where the findings of the systematic review would be synthesised using the thematic synthesis method.

#### **4.4.5 Step 5: Analysis of extracted data**

##### **4.4.5.1 *Thematic analysis***

A thematic analysis of the selected studies was conducted, focusing on the concepts of culture in the retention of designated groups. Due to the numerous approaches to understanding thematic analysis, this section aims to elucidate the approach chosen for this study.

According to Braun & Clarke (2006:6), a thematic analysis is a method used to identify, analyse and report patterns within data. Although this analysis method has been widely used for many years, it has only achieved recognition as a named analysis method quite recently (Clarke & Braun, 2013:120). What makes a thematic analysis unique is the flexibility in coding data without the need to specify or adhere to any coding technique as with grounded theory; however, the chosen theoretical position needs to be specified (Clarke & Braun, 2006:7-8; Floersch, *et al.*, 2010:409).

A thematic synthesis was employed for its ability to identify prominent or recurring themes from primary literature, analyse these themes under thematic headings and draw conclusions from the analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Cruzes & Dyba, 2011; Floersch, *et al.*, 2010; Thomas & Harden, 2008). The thematic analysis was chosen for its ability to search across a data set to determine the recurring patterns of meaning. A thematic analysis involves selecting the method of data identification, the epistemology of the analysis, as well as the level at which themes are to be identified (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Boyatzis (1998) identifies a number of overlapping or alternate purposes of a thematic analysis, such as:

*A way of seeing; a way of making sense; a way of analysing qualitative information; a way of systematically observing a person, an interaction, a group, a situation, an organisation, or a culture; and a way of converting qualitative information to quantitative data.*

(Boyatzis, 1998:4-5)

Furthermore, thematic analysis allows for increased ability to comprehensively communicate findings and interpretations for a better understanding of researchers from various fields of study, making it an accessible analysis tool (Boyatzis, 1998:79).

#### **4.4.5.2 Defining a theme**

According to Cruzes and Dyba (2011:5-6), “the definition and analytical function of a theme varies among writers on the subject”. Therefore, clarification of what entails a theme is very important in thematic analysis due to the various approaches to understanding what counts as a theme. Braun and Clarke (2006:83) define a theme as that which “captures something important about the data in relation to the research question, and represents some level of

patterned response or meaning within the data set”. Saldana (2008:15) goes further and makes the relation between a code and a theme, arguing that a theme results from coding, categorisation and analytic reflection, but is not something that is, in itself, coded.

According to Braun and Clarke (2006:83) and Cruzes and Dyba (2011:4), for a researcher to determine what counts as a theme in their study they need to distinguish the issue of prevalence in terms of the recurrence in each study and across all chosen studies. However, the significance of a theme is not determined by its frequency. Depending on what the researcher is looking for, some researchers may select a theme based on the frequent occurrences in some data items, whilst in other cases a theme is chosen based on its appearance in a few data items. Overall, a theme needs to capture what is important in the data in relation to the aim of the research (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Cruzes & Dyba, 2011; Thomas & Harden, 2008).

When conducting a thematic analysis, researchers may choose between the semantic or latent levels of identifying themes. According to Braun and Clarke (2006:85), researchers who choose to identify themes at a semantic level “are not looking for anything beyond what a participant has said or what was written”, but rather at explicit meanings of the data, whilst the latent levels go further to discover the underlying theorised ideas, assumptions, concepts and ideologies that inform the data at explicit level.

#### ***4.4.5.3 Inductive, deductive and integrated approach to thematic analysis***

Braun and Clarke (2006:86) identify two types of theme identification methods, namely the inductive or ‘bottom-up’ approach, and the deductive, also known as the theoretical or ‘top-down’ approach. The inductive approach is a data-driven form of thematic analysis where the identified themes are linked to the data and there is no pre-existing coding frame to fit data into (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Cruzes & Dyba, 2011). According to Cruzes & Dyba (2011:5), an inductive approach limits researchers from establishing preconceived results due to the line-by-line reviewing process where codes are assigned through discovered concepts. In contrast, the deductive approach, also known as a priori approach, is theory driven and required codes that are predetermined by the researcher’s theoretical interest (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Cruzes & Dyba, 2011).

In addition to these two types of theme identification methods, Cruzes and Dyba, (2011:5) identify the integrated approach, a combination of the inductive and deductive approaches, which “creates a general tool for interpreting codes that is not content specific, but points to general domains in which codes can be developed inductively” (Cruzes & Dyba, 2011:5). Cruzes and Dyba regard this approach to thematic analysis more relevant in systematic reviews as it enables the researcher to approach data with preconceived questions that they wish to code according to, and analyse on a theoretical interest basis to guide the research questions of the review (Cruzes & Dyba, 2011:5).

#### ***4.4.5.4 Epistemological basis of thematic analysis: essentialist vs. constructionist***

Conducting a thematic analysis requires the researcher to distinguish between the essentialist/realist and constructionist thematic analysis epistemology in order to guide what is said about the data, as well as how meaning is theorised (Braun & Clarke, 2006:87). An essential epistemological approach considers unidirectional relation between meaning and experiences and language, and therefore establishes a theory or theories based on these relations by only reporting on the experiences, meanings and realities of participants without looking at any underlying causes of these relations. An essentialist approach is therefore a straightforward approach to understanding how participants make meaning of their experiences (Braun & Clarke, 2006:87). A constructionist approach, on the other hand, goes further to look into the ways in which these experiences, realities and meanings affect the broader social-cultural context and structural conditions by looking at the latent themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006:87).

For this particular study, an integrated approach was implemented to provide more than a general description of the data. This was done by approaching the data with preconceived theoretical interests around relations between organisational culture and retention of designated group employees and at the same time looking at themes that emerge freely from the data, with a focus on occurring themes. Due to this integrated approach, the study identified themes both from semantic and latent levels of identification to holistically capture the explicit meanings, as well as those underlying assumptions, and adopted an epistemological approach that sits on



both the essentialist and constructionist poles so as to reflect reality and also “unravel the surface of reality” (Braun & Clarke, 2006:81).

The thematic analysis involved five stages that Braun and Clarke (2006:89) and Clarke and Braun (2013:120) emphasise to be guidelines that can be flexibly applied to fit the research question and also the recursive nature of the thematic analysis process where the researcher may be required to continuously move back and forth along the stages as and when needed. Table 4.4 below provides a summary of the stages.

**Table 4.4: Steps of thematic analysis**

Phase	Description of the Process
1. Familiarising yourself with your data:	Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas.
2. Generating initial codes:	Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each code.
3. Searching for themes:	Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.
4. Reviewing themes:	Checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts (Level 1) and the entire data set (Level 2), generating a thematic ‘map’ of the analysis.
5. Defining and naming themes:	On-going analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells; generating clear definitions and names for each theme.
6. Producing the report:	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis.

## 4.5 Summary

This chapter provides an overview of the research design, the systematic review process, as well as the process of analysis. The study design is an exploratory qualitative systematic review aimed at understanding the influence of organisational culture on the retention of designated groups in the South African Public Service. The systematic review comprises five critical steps, namely defining the review question; identifying and retrieval of articles; critical appraisal and quality analysis; data extraction; and, data analysis.

The review question was defined using the PICO model for formulating systematic review questions, and this model also formed the basis of the specific inclusion criteria used during the selection of studies for the review. Peer-reviewed articles published between the years 2005 and 2015 were identified and retrieved through systematic and rigorous selection criteria. The study used the CASP appraisal tool to assess the quality of the studies, and a thematic analysis, which included five critical steps, was used to analyse the review findings. A presentation of the review findings, which includes a discussion of the outcome of the review process and the thematic analysis, will be discussed in the following chapter.

## **Chapter Five: Results and Discussion**

### **5.1 Introduction**

The fifth chapter provides a presentation of the findings along with a discussion. This chapter includes a presentation of the process results, a description of the extracted data, as well as a thematic analysis of the findings.

### **5.2 Outcome of the Review Process**

The outcome of the review process includes a summary of the articles' result process, as well as the quality assessment outcome. A graphical summation of the study selection results is explained through the PRISMA flow chart with an illustration of the included and excluded articles in each step. The quality assessment discussion is guided by a self-constructed table that demonstrates the process of the critical appraisal and how the selection of the review studies took place.

#### **5.2.1 Identification of titles**

As mentioned in the previous chapter, a title and keyword(s) search was conducted in two stages. The first stage, which involved a general, unstructured search strategy, yielded a total of thirty-eight thousand, two hundred and forty (38 240) hits from the selected databases. This broad outcome required refinement in the search strategy and through a more structured and refined search strategy, the second database search outcome was one hundred and two (102) hits, and the number of articles identified through the manual reference search was fourteen articles. Included in the 116 articles were eight duplicates and once identified and removed, this left 108 studies retrieved from the database search as well as the manual reference search. Only 45 studies were included in the title identification stage and the 63 remaining studies were excluded due their irrelevance to the review. From the 45 studies, 15 studies were excluded by the screening stage, leaving a total of 30 studies to be screened in the following phase.

### **5.2.2 Abstract and full-text screening**

From the thirty studies included in the abstract screening, a total of ten articles were excluded during the screening process. The reviewer was left with twenty articles for the quality assessment. This selection was guided by the eligibility criteria established in the previous chapter. Reasons for exclusion included no full-texts available on the Stellenbosch University library website, abstracts not addressing the review question with none or one of the review themes, unclear abstracts lacking vital information, and/or no access to studies as they needed to be purchased.

The flow diagram below was adapted from the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) reference to illustrate the levels of the review process and the steps taken at each of the levels. This figure represents one of the much-preferred ways of reporting the process of systematic reviews (Moher, Liberati, Tetzlaff, Altman & The PRISMA Group, 2009).

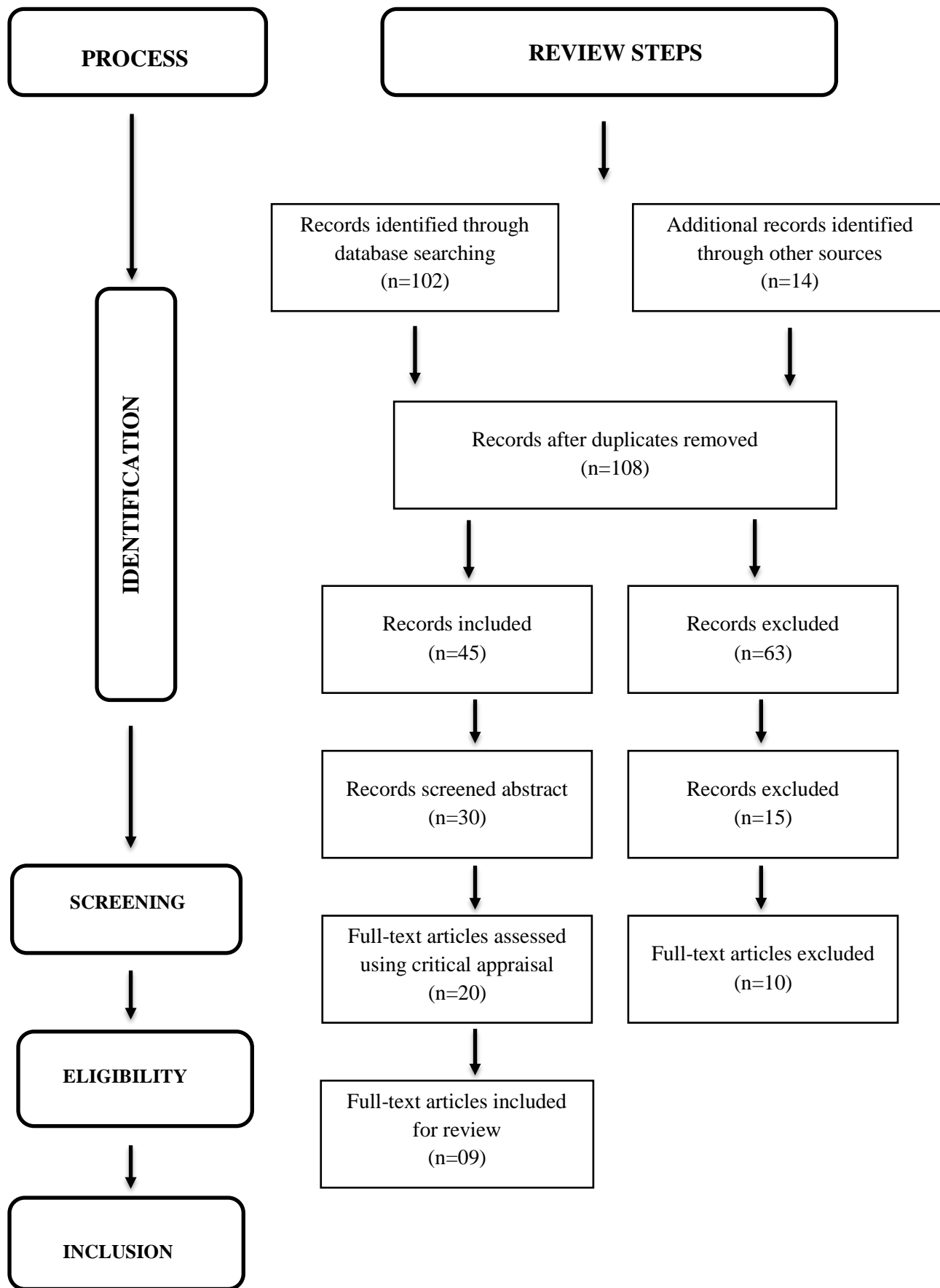


Figure 5.1: Levels of review process

The Critical Appraisal Skills Programme was used as a guiding tool to critically appraise the documents remaining from the screening process. The review selected two critical appraisal tools, for qualitative and quantitative studies, to quality assess the included studies because these included qualitative (n=6), quantitative (n=11) and mixed methods (n=2). One study was unclear about the research method used. The appraisal questions ranged from ten to twelve questions. For both critical appraisal tools, the first two questions were screening questions aimed at assisting the reviewer to decide on the relevance of the study before they began with the actual assessment.

From the 20 studies included in the critical appraisal stage, only eight studies were included in the final synthesis of the review. Seven of the studies were excluded from the critical appraisal in the screening stage and four studies were excluded for various reasons ranging from unclear sampling methods, unclear data analysis methods, and unclear data collection methods to no evidence of ethical considerations. Based on the quality assessment process, only nine studies were found to be eligible to move to the next phase of data extraction.

### **5.3 Data Extraction**

The data extraction involved two stages illustrated in two extraction tables below. The first stage entailed the extraction of the general description and methodological considerations of the nine studies included in the review. The second included extraction of data analysis methods, study findings and the conclusions of the authors in order to identify recurring characteristics.

#### **5.3.1 General description and methodological considerations**

Table 5.1 below illustrates the general description of the nine studies included in the review and a methodological outline of these studies. These studies met the inclusion criteria with regards to the aim, as well as the target population of the studies. The included studies combined aimed to understand organisational factors that influenced employee retention as well as relationships between organisational culture and retention of designated groups. The target population was representative of both the public and private sector with four studies on public sector, three studies on private sector and two studies with a focus on both sectors. The

varied geographical location of the studies was also able to provide the reviewer with a broader perspective of the relationships between organisational culture and employee retention as a whole as well as the retention of designated groups, ranging from Korea (n=1), USA (n=5) and SA (n=3).

Data that was extracted for the methodological consideration of the included studies included the study design, sample and data-collection instruments. The included studies were a combination of qualitative studies (n=4), quantitative studies (n=4) and one mixed method study. For data collection purposes, surveys (n=4) and interviews (n=4) were the most used methods followed by focus group interviews (n=2), questionnaires (n=1) and document analysis (n=1). The sample method commonly adopted was convenient sampling (n=2) and purposive sampling (n=3). Other sampling methods included snowball sampling, random sampling and proportional sampling. Only one of the studies failed to explicitly state the sample method. The sample size ranged from 24 to 530.

### **5.3.2 Data analysis tools**

The analysis section presents the types of data analysis tools chosen by the nine studies included in the review. All four quantitative studies and the mixed method study design used regression and multiple regression analysis as methods of eliminating confounding factors and to ensure validity and reliability of the data. In addition to these analysis methods, factor analysis (Jacobs & Roodt, 2011; San Park & Hyun Kim, 2009) and statistical correlation analyses (Moncarz, Zhao & Kay, 2009) were also employed for quantitative analysis.

The most commonly used qualitative analysis method was the thematic analysis (Booyesen, 2007; Ellett, *et al.*, 2007; Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2010; Witt Smith & Joseph, 2010). Other analysis methods used included descriptive analysis, content analysis frequency analysis (Booyesen, 2007) and grounded theory analysis with open coding process (Thaden, Jacobs-Priebe & Evans, 2010).

Author(s) & year of publication	Study population	Country of study	Study objective (s)	Methodological appraisal			
				Design	Data collection/instrument	Sample size	Type of sample
Agbényiga, D.L. 2009	Foster care workers and administrators	USA	To deepen the understanding of predictors of child welfare worker retention and turnover.	Cross-sectional	Cross-sectional survey	92 foster care workers	Purposive sample
Booyesen, L. 2007	Middle and senior managers	SA	To identify barriers to the implementation of Employment Equity (EE) and effective retention strategies of black people in management in South Africa.	Descriptive case study	Document analysis, individual interviews and focus groups	67 employees	Purposive and random sample
Jacobs, E.J & Roodt, G. 2011	Professional nurses ( <i>N</i> = 530) in private and provincial hospitals	SA	To determine the relationships between organisational culture, knowledge sharing and turnover intentions and thereafter to propose knowledge sharing as a mediating variable in this relationship in order to suggest a retention strategy.	Cross-sectional	Cross sectional survey	530 professional nurses	Non-probability sample
Oosthuizen, R.M. & Naidoo, V. 2010	Organisations employing 50 or more people or with specified financial turnovers requiring them to comply with EE legislation	SA	To identifying and explore employees' attitudes towards and experiences of employment equity in the South African work context.	Hermeneutic phenomenological study	Qualitative interviews	105 employees from 21 organisations	Convenient sample
Witt Smith, J.W. & Joseph, S.E. 2010	Black, white, female and male professionals	USA	To examine the current experiences of diverse groups and evaluate how race and gender have impacted their experiences within organisations.	Qualitative	Semi-structured interviews	42 employees	Snowball sample



Moncarz, E., Zhao, J & Kay, C. 2009	Lodging management companies	USA	To investigate US lodging properties' organisational employee-retention initiatives and practices, and to examine the impact of those initiatives on employee turnover and retention.	Cross-sectional	Self-administered mail survey	24 management companies	Convenient sample
San Park, J.S. & Hyun Kim, T.H. 2009	Hospital nurses in two public hospitals	Korea	To examine whether and how different types of organisational culture are associated with job satisfaction and turnover intention among hospital nurses in Korea.	Cross-sectional	Survey questionnaires.	527 hospital nurses	Stratified random sample
Ellett, A.J. Ellis, J.I., Westbrook, T.M. & Dews, D. 2007	Professional staff (n=369) in a state public child welfare agency	USA	To explore personal and organisational factors linked to child welfare employees' attractions to a public child welfare agency and the decisions of these employees to remain employed in child welfare.	Qualitative	Focus group interviews	369 professional staff	Combination of Systematic proportional sampling and deliberate sampling.
Thaden, E, Jacobs-Priebe, L. & Evans, S. 2010	First three levels of frontline staff (case-workers and direct supervisors) who resigned between January 2004 and January 2006	USA	To understand the reasons that 132 former staff from a south eastern SSSO administering welfare, Medicaid, and Food Stamps programs opted to leave their jobs and also examine the factor that predict the durations of employment of staff.	Mixed methods design	Semi-structured telephone interviews	132 former employees	Not explicitly stated

**Table 5.1: General description and methodological appraisal of included studies**

## **5.4 Thematic Synthesis**

A thematic synthesis was employed in the review to determine results regarding the influence of organisational culture on the retention of designated groups in the South African Public Service. The table below presents the various themes that came from the reviewed studies and this is followed by a narrative presentation of the results, as well as a discussion of the findings.

**Table 5.2: Analysis method and findings of included studies**

Author (s) & year of publication	Data Analysis and Results	
	Data analysis method	Study findings
Agbényiga, D.L. 2009	Multiple regression analysis; bivariate logistics analysis; pathway analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Constructive OC associated with employee retention.</li> <li>• High JS associated with employees' intent to remain.</li> <li>• Constructive OC allows individuals to interact with current &amp; potential colleagues in an encouraging and positive manner.</li> </ul> Pathway to Recruitment: perception of JS in the organisation and perception of fit in the organisation Pathway to Retention: humanistic-encouraging & self-actualising OC norms more likely associated with recruitment & retention whilst passive/defensive OC & aggressive/defensive OC do not predict either ER or turnover and intent to leave.
Booyesen, L. 2007	Descriptive analysis, content analysis frequency analysis and thematic analysis	Reason why culture is not conducive to attracting, developing & retaining employees equally from all groups in SA: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• White male culture &amp; transformation</li> <li>• Racial fault lines in power structures &amp; labour division</li> <li>• Tokenism</li> </ul>
Jacobs, E.J. & Roodt, G. 2011	Factor analysis and multiple regression	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Significant positive correlation exists between organisational culture and knowledge sharing</li> <li>• Significant negative correlation between organisational culture and turnover intentions</li> </ul>
Oosthuizen, R.M. & Naidoo, V. 2010	Coded qualitative data using thematic analysis	<b>Perceptions of EE</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Government's role of watchdog – employee believed that EE had negative effect on global investments &amp; entrepreneurial initiatives. They were merely complying with the legislation &amp; not much interest was placed on this initiative &amp; this overshadowed the need to transform</li> <li>• Lack of skills &amp; experiences – EE appointees lack the necessary skills &amp; are appointed to either fill quotas window dress because black are not experienced. Preferential treatment more than merit</li> <li>• Incompetent EE staff – organisations are forced to hire incompetent black people due to legislative requirements</li> <li>• Reverse discrimination &amp; racism –</li> <li>• EE is a numbers game - increasing the numbers &amp; not adding value- differing views on this statement</li> <li>• Lack of alignment &amp; implementation of EE – the challenge of maintaining productivity while having to comply with legislation – systematic discrimination, poor leadership, transformation issues and difficulties retaining black people</li> <li>• Lack of training &amp; development – the need to accelerate training</li> <li>• Unfairness, preferential treatment for African women</li> <li>• People with disabilities seldom y included in EE</li> </ul>

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Negative expectation of designated groups</li> <li>• Loss of employment</li> <li>• Brain drain</li> </ul>
Witt Smith, J.W. & Joseph, S.E. 2010	Coded qualitative data using thematic analysis	<p><b>OC:</b> Greatest impact on workplace experiences &amp; outcomes &amp; also perpetuate racialised and gendered practises, policies, attitudes &amp; believes which have established such cultures. Such practices are deeply embedded in organisational collective consciousness.</p> <p><b>Discrimination &amp; Stereotype:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Access &amp; treatment discrimination experienced by black males &amp; females.</li> <li>• Positive discrimination experience by whites.</li> <li>• Gendered &amp; racial elements taken for granted aspect of organisational experiences which cause racial bias.</li> <li>• Black American males had negative experience of race towards progression in organisations</li> <li>• This impacted negatively on JS &amp; org commitment.</li> </ul> <p>Human capital Investments: education, training, experience etc. These investments did not provide the same returns for black males &amp; females as they did for whites &amp; returns were different within race as well.</p> <p><b>Dual minority:</b> black women face a double discrimination of race &amp; gender.</p> <p><b>Inclusion:</b> issues of the level at which black employees (both male &amp; female) had an impact on their experiences, JS &amp; commitment.</p>
Moncarz, E., Zhao, J. & Kay, C. 2009	Statistical correlation and regression analysis	Corporate Culture and communication, Hiring and Promotions and Training practices have significant influence on non-management employee retention
San Park, J.S. & Hyun Kim, T.H. 2009	Structural equation model – factor analysis & multiple regression	<p>Relationships between OC &amp; retention:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Job satisfaction (JS) mediator in this relationship</li> <li>• More constructive &amp; healthy OC (consensual) associated with JS &amp; low turnover intentions</li> <li>• Rational OC (work efficiency, clear processes and structures of achieving organisational goals, teamwork &amp; cooperation) &amp; consensual OC (teamwork &amp; cooperation) had higher effects on JS</li> <li>• Flexibility &amp; human-relationship OC</li> <li>• Support from co-workers and managers improves loyalty &amp; retention</li> </ul>
Ellett, A.J., Ellis, J.I. Westbrook, T.M. & Dews, D. 2007	Inductive thematic analysis	<p>OC Factors contributing to employee turnover:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Atmosphere and OC of tension and fear</li> <li>• Employees not valued by organisation policy maker or general public</li> <li>• Communication structure in organisation around policy development and interpretation problematic</li> </ul> <p>OC Factors contributing to employee retention:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Flexibility in work hours to attend to personal emergencies &amp; unexpected events</li> <li>• Exciting, challenging, unpredictable, constantly changing working environment</li> <li>• Important &amp; meaningful work</li> </ul>

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Supportive, quality supervision, consultation, mentoring and leadership that values employees</li> </ul>
Thaden, E., Jacobs-Priebe, L. & Evans, S. 2010	Grounded theory analysis with open coding process. Multiple regression analysis	<p>Qualitative Results - OC Factors relating to attrition:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Perceptions of management (no recognition &amp; appreciation, no communication and staff not listened to, abuse of power &amp; micro-managed)</li> <li>• Opportunities for growth (lack of advancement opportunities, some saw their experiences as a stepping stone towards getting better jobs elsewhere, innovation &amp; creativity not appreciated increased desire to leave)</li> <li>• Peer support – positive professional and personal relationships with co-workers was valuable for support and learning.</li> <li>• Feeling valued (policy valued over clients and staff; bureaucracy promoted OC where innovation, employee agency &amp; recognition not typical &amp; deficit-based approach followed; no room for staff to contribute towards improvement)</li> <li>• Workload, stress and poor OC</li> <li>• OC and systems didn't foster growth and innovation or make them feel supported, valued and heard</li> </ul> <p>Quantitative Results:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Higher ratings of peer support and OC all related to longer durations of employment</li> <li>• Office location age, position and perceptions of OC significantly contributed to predicting duration of employment</li> <li>• Increasing one point on the OC scale is associated with 1.31 year increase</li> </ul>

## **5.5 Organisational Culture Themes that act as barriers to Retention**

The study identified organisational culture themes related to employee retention and turnover. The aim of this study was to understand how change management can influence a change in culture to support the retention of designated employees. The nine articles included in the review enabled the researcher to have a broad understanding of the culture-related influences on employee retention and turnover generally.

Among the included studies, six (Agbenyiga, 2009; Ellett, *et al.*, 2007; Moncarz, Zhao & Kay, 2009; San Park & Hyun Kim, 2009; Thaden, Jacobs-Priebe & Evans, 2010) discuss culture related factors that influence the retention/turnover of employees generally whilst three focused on relations between organisational culture norms and the retention of designated employees (Booyesen, 2007; Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2010; Witt Smith & Joseph, 2010). These recurring cultural themes directly or indirectly linked to the influence of retention of designated groups included attitudes towards change; inclusion; recognition and appreciation; learning and growth opportunities; and, lastly, relationships among co-workers.



**Figure 5.2: Summary of themes related to culture that act as barriers to retention of designated groups**

### 5.5.1 Attitude towards change

The studies identified various types of attitudes towards change, namely explicit attitudes and imbedded attitudes.

### 5.5.1.1 Explicit attitudes

The kind of attitude towards any change is crucial in determining the success of change initiatives as well as the success of organisations. In cases where transformation can potentially work to the disadvantage of one group, the attitudes of that particular group may not be favourable to such a process. Five of the analysed studies identified the relationship between attitudes towards change and retention of employees and three of these studies focused on the retention of designated groups and employment equity.

Two studies conducted in South Africa (Booyesen, 2007; Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2010) examine the attitudes towards and barriers to employment equity implementation and retention of black employees and these studies discovered that organisations that were not willing to change from white elitist and male-dominated organisations and not willing to recognise black skilled employees were more likely to encourage negative attitudes towards diversity and change and less likely to retain black employees and women. Many organisations in South Africa continued to perpetuate white dominance at senior and top leadership by promoting black employees and women in supervisory positions and simultaneously placed white employees and males at higher positions. Such practices demonstrate the intended continuance of white and male dominance in strategic positions and exclusion of black people and women and such environments are not conducive to retaining designated employees.

Some intended negative attitudes towards change were found in interviews conducted in a study by Oosthuizen and Naidoo (2010), where white male and female respondents expressed their disapproval of employment equity claiming that their disapproval was due to the supposed absence of skilled and qualified black employees and that they viewed employment equity as a political command that does not improve organisations yet organisations are forced to fulfil (Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2010:4).

In the study conducted by Booyesen (2007:58) black respondents were of the opinion that their white managers were not prepared to transform, as there was no “visible successes of black generics in an organisation to believe in the commitment to the vision”. The perceptions of white employees captured from the interviews of the studies, as well as the organisational environment described in the studies – of white male predominance in leading positions – demonstrate intentionally strong negative attitudes towards transformational change in these organisations, and where, until such attitudes are deconstructed by the leaders and there is a shift towards an environment that encourages racial and gender equity in employment and



promotion, such organisations may continue to experience a high turnover of skilled black and women employees.

### **5.5.1.2 Imbedded attitudes**

The study also discovered imbedded attitudes towards change, which Schein (1984:3-4) defines as those basic underlying assumptions unconsciously formed by groups that are central to the way in which groups perceive, think and feel, as they are espoused values that have, over time, evolved into learned responses to solving problems.

One qualitative study that looked at the diversity management challenges and equal employment opportunities of professional women and those of ethnic minorities in corporate America reported on the negative implications that gendered and racial privileges perpetuated by leadership had on the performance and retention of both black male and female employees (Witt Smith & Joseph, 2010:752). In this study, racial and gendered privileges were perceived as standard practices and the attitudes of those employees who benefited from such privileges were that of self-entitlement and of refusal to change, as they saw nothing wrong with the practises. Such attitudes have been directly linked to poor performance and negative relations with retention of the disadvantaged employees. The effect of these discriminative practises were identified in the responses of the some participants where signs of dissatisfaction and fatigue towards the racial and gendered privileges were expressed by one respondent: “The organization is not going to change; and I have to admit, that I haven’t given up, but the fight is leaving out of me” (Witt Smith & Joseph, 2010:752).

A study conducted in the USA child welfare sector discovered that poor change leadership that was influenced by publicity and politics negatively impacted on employee retention (Ellett, *et al.*, 2007). Organisations that were not invested in proper change and change management strategies were easily susceptible to any form of change, whether good or bad and, as such, caused great instability in organisations. Such negative attitudes towards change result in strained relations between organisations and employee retention. The study found positive relations in intended constantly changing environments, which produced challenging workplaces where employees are constantly learning new things due to the unpredictable nature of the environment.

A quantitative study that examined relations of different types of organisational cultures with job satisfaction and turnover intention in Korean hospitals found that hospitals that exhibited a bureaucratic atmosphere where work processes were redundant and change implementation was difficult, were more likely to have low levels of job satisfaction and high levels of turnover intentions.

Organisational leaders that are able to adjust to change and at the same time maintain stability by not succumbing to influences of adverse changes are more able to instil a sense of security amongst employees where they are able to trust judgements made by their leaders and not fear for the security of their jobs.

### **5.5.2 Inclusion**

The inclusion of employees in decision making and the creation of an inclusive environment by both management and non-management employees were considered as strong motivational factors of employee retention in eight articles (Agbenyiga, 2009; Booysen, 2007; Ellett, *et al.*, 2007; Moncarz, Zhao & Kay, 2009; Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2010; San Park & Hyun Kim, 2009; Witt Smith & Joseph, 2010; Thaden, Jacobs-Priebe & Evans, 2010). Three quantitative studies identified strong relations between inclusion as part of ‘community’ and employee retention (Agbenyiga, 2009; Moncarz, Zhao & Kay, 2009; San Park & Hyun Kim, 2009). People-focused, collaborative and self-actualising culture norms were more likely to create positive perceptions of fit and satisfaction amongst organisational members, which subsequently encouraged employee retention. Employees were believed to remain longer in organisations where they felt they fit in and where there was more connectedness among members.

Three articles cited the link between inclusion in communication and employee retention (Booyesen, 2007; Ellett, *et al.*, 2007; Moncarz, Zhao & Kay, 2009). The inclusion of all employees in organisations is also determined by inclusion in decision-making, communication of decisions and organisational goals, as well as the communication structures. Organisations that struggle to effectively communicate their decisions and goals and also exclude some members of the organisation in decision making create uncertainty and mistrust amongst employees. Such communication structures can also create problems with shared goals and vision, as well as disconnection between policy development, interpretation and implementation. Creating a culture of mistrust in an organisation can negatively impact on the

morale of the organisation and dampen the spirit of teamwork amongst employees. Such an environment may yield low levels of performance and high levels of turnover. Problems regarding inclusion in communication have been seen to result in organisations failing in knowledge sharing, the creation of shared knowledge and shared vision, as well as employee turnover (Jacobs & Roodt, 2011; Moncarz, Zhao & Kay, 2009).

More focus was placed on racial and gender inclusion by three articles (Booyesen, 2007; Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2010; Witt Smith & Joseph). These articles reported the influence of racial and gendered privileges on the retention of black employees and women. These racial exclusion practices comprise the practice of intentionally and systematically excluding black employees and women in decision making by placing white and male employees in more specialised and senior positions as opposed to black people and women who continue to occupy the lower levels of employment, and such practices have been reported to have a significantly strong negative relation to the retention of black and women employees.

The continued practice of making an organisation an inclusive one remains the responsibility of the leaders in organisations. An inclusive organisation creates a sense of community and brings organisational members closer. Where there is space for knowledge sharing and room for inclusive decision making, a shared vision can be created and all organisational members are able to feel responsible for the success of the organisation.

### **5.5.3 Growth opportunities**

One of the strongest motivators of employee retention is the opportunity for growth and advancement. A number of studies revealed that organisations without advancement opportunities were more likely to create demotivated workers (Booyesen, 2007; Elett *et al.*, 2007; Moncarz, Zhao & Kay, 2009; Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2010; Witt Smith & Joseph; Thaden, Jacobs-Priebe & Evans, 2010). The studies found that staff turnover was strongly related to insufficient professional development opportunities, unchallenging and meaningless work, and the absence of visible growth amongst staff members.

Whilst a large number of employees believed that they were either not given enough financial incentive for advancement or that there were no advancement opportunities at all and they were occupying dead-end jobs, some employees felt that they had benefitted from the professional growth opportunities provided for them by their organisations either through contribution

towards academic advancements or by providing a stepping stone for their careers. Employees who felt that they accessed growth opportunities were more willing to stay in their organisations than those who did not access any advancement opportunities.

Three of the included studies identified the presence of access discrimination by means of race and gender, where access to growth opportunities for black people and women were limited whilst their white and male counterparts enjoyed more opportunities. Important and meaningful work was given to white and male employees and this enabled them to learn and develop better than other racial and gender groups. Black people and women were left with meaningless work where they were not stimulated and wanted to leave. Although black employees invested in human capital development through education, training and gaining extensive experience, those investments did not provide the same returns as they did for white employees and these returns also varied within races, as well between men and women when examining white employees, as the men experienced greater returns than the women.

A qualitative study conducted in the USA, which reported on the diversity management challenges of female and ethnic minority professionals and their equal employment opportunities in the workplace (Witt Smith & Joseph, 2010), discovered that for black women, opportunities were more limited due to the popular belief that they were incapable and/or unskilled to perform in specialised and senior positions. Black women were the most affected group in a discriminatory workplace system as they experienced challenges with dual minority where they face the double discrimination of race and gender. Turnover intentions were found to be the highest in this group of employees. When better opportunities arise elsewhere, these disadvantaged employees were more likely to leave due to the lack of advancement opportunities in their current workplaces (Booyesen, 2007; Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2010; Witt Smith & Joseph, 2010).

#### **5.5.4 Recognition and appreciation**

One of the most important factors in ensuring that organisations are able to achieve their goals is through employees feeling valued by their managers. It is the responsibility of managers and supervisors to guide and motivate employees to better perform and to also recognise and appreciate them when they excel in their performance. The studies that identified the relation between recognition and appreciation, and employee retention predominately found that

organisations valued processes, policies and other external stakeholders, such as customers and shareholders more so than staff (Booyesen, 2007; Ellett, *et al.*, 2007; Moncarz, Zhao & Kay, 2009; Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2010; San Park & Hyun Kim, 2009; Thaden, Jacobs-Priebe & Evans, 2010).

A number of studies discovered that relations were strained by the inability of supervisors and managers to recognise and appreciate their staff and also inconsistencies around the recognition and appreciation of staff (Booyesen, 2007; Ellett, *et al.*, 2007; Moncarz, Zhao & Kay, 2009; Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2010; San Park & Hyun Kim, 2009; Thaden, Jacobs-Priebe & Evans, 2010). Organisations where supervisors and/or managers applied a problem-centred management approach, where leaders, policies and external parties were valued more, where no transparent and consistent recognition and appreciation practices existed, the relationship between employees and supervisors and/or managers was likely to be poor.

A qualitative study that examined factors related to staff turnover in a US state social service organisation found that organisations with supervisors and managers who focused on fault finding and mistakes were more likely to experience high staff turnover and low performances as the supervisors and managers were likely to micro-manage and abuse their powers by making employees feel useless and would never acknowledge excellence, leaving staff members miserable and demotivated (Thaden, Jacobs-Priebe & Evans, 2010).

Whilst the predominant perception was that employees were not recognised and appreciated, some employees did feel that they were recognised and appreciated in their organisations. Some studies found that, whilst most employees felt that they were undervalued and not recognised for the amount of effort they put in their work due to the lack of visible appreciation, some employees felt that they had supportive supervisors who cared and valued and appreciated them (Booyesen, 2007; Ellett *et al.*, 2007; Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2010; Witt Smith & Joseph, 2010; Thaden, Jacobs-Priebe & Evans, 2010).

Three studies identified the differing recognition and appraisal practices based on race and gender – known as treatment discrimination (Booyesen, 2007; Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2010; Witt Smith & Joseph, 2010). Here, they found that recognition and appraisal was given more to white employees and males where the decisions of black employees and women were questioned more, black employees and women had to prove themselves more, the skills of black employees were not recognised even when they were at the same level as their white

counterparts, and any promotion given to black employees was seen as tokenism and not due to merit.

The results demonstrate that recognition and appraisal practices existed; however, these practices were not transparent and consistently applied to all employees. This was found to create even bigger problems of demotivating those employees who did not receive any recognition and appraisal, as well as hostility and resentment amongst co-workers (Booyesen, 2007; Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2010; Witt Smith & Joseph, 2010; Thaden, Jacobs-Priebe & Evans, 2010).

### **5.5.5 Human relations**

Although it is important for supervisors and managers to value and recognise their staff, feeling valued and cared for by co-workers can greatly reward an employee and can also motivate them to continuously do better and encourage their co-workers to perform better. Studies discovered that when co-workers create a humanistic-encouraging and self-actualising environment, they are more likely to construct and share positive stories about their organisations and they are more likely to create happy working environments (Agbenyiga, 2009; Moncarz, Zhao & Kay, 2009; San Park & Hyun Kim, 2009; Thaden, Jacobs-Priebe & Evans, 2010). Being valued by peers and valuing peers enables employees to build positive professional and personal relations with their co-workers. The spirit of teamwork, affiliation and sense of community enables employees to maintain high levels of job satisfaction and performance, as employees are able to support and learn from each other.

The mutual confidence and cooperation amongst employees creates a strong positive identity of an organisation with a shared vision and united members. Such organisations are less likely to have high levels of staff turnover. However, organisations with highly competitive environments and no consideration for the importance of peer support predominantly possess an atmosphere of tension, fear and mistrust, as well as uncertainty, and such culture norms are strongly related to staff turnover.

Interactions of human relations between managers or supervisors and employees were strongly related to loyalty of employees towards the organisation. When supervisors exercised their discretion in positive ways, such as by allowing flexibility in work hours so that employees

may be able to attend emergencies and unexpected events, such support was found to encourage loyalty from employees and also encourage employee retention.

## 5.6 Discussion

The aim of this study is to gather and thematically synthesise evidence on relations between organisational culture and employee retention to understand how organisational culture change can influence the retention of designated groups in South Africa. Studies by Booysen (2007), Oosthuizen and Naidoo (2010) and Witt Smith and Joseph (2010) enabled the review to identify broader culture relations with the retention of black and female employees in not only the South African workplace but also in the USA.

The analysed evidence from the included studies firmly illustrate the strong influence of culture on employee retention, as well as a number of factors operating within the context of culture. The chosen data extraction method enabled the researcher to identify broader determinants of employee retention, these included: trust; flexibility and adjusting to change; good communication structure; inclusive environment that treats everyone equally; transparent and consistent recognition, appreciation and appraisal systems; inclusion in decision making; management and co-worker trust and support; and accessible advancement opportunities. A participative and caring environment plus mutual trust between managers and employees were found to be crucial in the process of retaining employees and such culture relations are associated with the constructive and consensual culture types described in Agbenyiga (2009) and San Park and Hyun Kim (2009).

Factors that worked to the detriment of employee retention included poor communication and exclusion; access and treatment discrimination; poor change leadership; instability and uncertainty; and inconsistent and unequal recognition and appreciation; and advancement opportunities. These undermining factors were found to also relate to low staff morale, demotivation, poor performance and mistrust in the workplace. Overall, both motivating and undermining factors of employee retention were found to contain interpersonal interactions amongst co-workers, and organisational interactions between employees and managers.

The review could not ascertain any hierarchical influence between the levels of interaction; however, evidence has shown that culture relations are interrelated since they overlap across the identified themes and some of the cultural relations were found to influence employee

retention in both interpersonal and organisational interactions. For example, discriminatory practices of recognition and appreciation have a negative effect on humanistic-encouraging environments, which encourage exclusion of certain employees and negatively affect employee retention. The study also found the appearance of some cultural factors in more than one theme. This overlap underscores the strong relations between the identified themes and the recurrence of these culture characters demonstrate the strong influence these themes have on employee retention and turnover.

The role of supervisors and managers in creating an environment that is conducive to change and that is able to retain employees of the designated groups is crucial. The analysed studies reported that management and supervisory practices that promote equity and inclusiveness were able to create a humanistic-encouraging and collaborative environment and also promote mutual trust with employees through fair recognition and appreciation practices, management support, and inclusive communication. Positive professional relations and mutual trust between managers and/or supervisors and employees were strongly emphasised as critical to improving workplace satisfaction and employee retention whilst poor interpersonal interactions and unequal treatment of recognition and appreciation of managers or supervisors towards employees caused mistrust, low staff morale and intentions to leave.

The analysed studies have not only shown the influence of culture on employee turnover and retention but also how culture relations that are not conducive to the progress of an organisation can be changed or manipulated to be more inclusive and receptive to change and diversity. The studies identified the role of managers, supervisors and organisational members in perpetuating a culture conducive to change and embracing equity and diversity.

## **5.7 Summary**

The findings and discussion of the study results were provided in this chapter. The chapter began with a presentation of the outcome of the review process. This process included identifying articles based on their titles, followed by the abstracts and full-text screening process. This section also presented the quality assessment process and the final results of the selected articles for the review. The presentation of the data extraction process followed included the general description and methodological considerations of the selected studies, as well as the various analysis tools used in the selected studies.



The study chose a thematic analysis method to synthesise the extracted data and from this method five culture themes were identified to have an influence on the retention of designated groups. The results from the thematic analysis enabled the researcher to find culture factors that influence the retention of employees and in particular women and black employees. The researcher identified relations between the themes, as some culture factors appeared in more than one theme, as well as levels at which these culture factors interact. In the following and final chapter, the overall conclusion of the entire study is made, which includes the limitations of the study as well as the recommendations for future studies.

## Chapter Six: Conclusion

### 6.1 Introduction

An important aspect of organisational effectiveness involves ensuring that performing employees are retained to drive the vision of the organisation. In South Africa, one of the measures of the effectiveness of an organisation is the level of employee diversity and employment equity in both management and lower level positions. Initiatives, such as the Employment Equity Act, are aimed at eradicating discrimination at the workplace and also creating equity in the working society in terms of race, gender and people with disabilities. Based on the premise that organisational culture can have an impact on retention of employees and that cultures that are impacting negatively can be changed, this study explored organisational culture factors that influence employee retention to be able to understand ways in which organisational culture can positively influence the retention of designated groups in the South African public service.

This chapter provides a summary of the key findings of this study, as well as the conclusions of the study based on the findings. This is followed by a presentation of practical recommendations and, lastly, the areas for further research.

### 6.2 Summary of Key Findings

#### 6.2.1 Objectives of the study

To identify, synthesise and analyse existing literature on the relations between organisational culture and employee retention.

To examine the organisational culture factors that undermine efforts to retain designated groups.

To understand the organisational culture factors that encourage efforts to retain designated groups.

To examine ways in which organisations can change their culture to support the retention of designated groups.

### **6.2.2 Relations between organisational culture and retention**

Five organisational culture themes related to the retention employees were found and the studies selected focused on black and women employees. The study found that attitudes towards change, inclusion, growth opportunities, recognition and rewards, and human relations were strongly related to the retention and turnover of black and women employees.

The study concluded that inclusion is an important organisational culture factor that ensures the retention of designated groups in the workplace. Some of the aspects of inclusion are inclusion in decision making and inclusion as part of the organisational 'community'. The study found that designated groups are not in decision making and part of the organisational community. Racial and gender exclusion that was identified in the workplace forced those excluded parties to leave and some to strongly consider leaving the organisation.

Based on the findings, the study also found that growth opportunities were not fairly accessible to black people and women and that these opportunities need to be equally available to all members of the organisation and not be used as a discriminatory tool against certain groups. This will ensure that designated groups are retained and, furthermore, with a focus on training and development and the creation of a learning culture to ensure that performing staff are retained.

When staff feel that they are not recognised and appreciated they are likely to not perform optimally and to leave the organisation. This study identified a number of issues relating to the link between recognition and appreciation, and the retention of employees in general and within designated groups. The study found that some organisations did not have any recognition and appreciation practices and procedures and those that did, such practices were not equally practiced to all members of the organisation but rather used as a discriminatory tool against designated groups. Due to these findings, the study concluded that unclear and non-standardised practices of recognition and appreciation allow managers and supervisors the opportunity to exercise unfair recognition and appreciation practices that leave those negatively affected groups unsupported and not valued, and subsequently more likely to leave.

The findings also demonstrated the important role of the types of attitude organisations need to have about change. The study found that organisations need positive human relations where there is co-worker support and a humanistic-encouraging environment in order for staff to be retained. Furthermore, the organisations' attitude towards change was found to be negative at

two main levels, the level where the underlying assumptions exist and on the surface, and these attitudes negatively impacted on all the above-mentioned culture factors relating to the retention of designated groups.

### **6.2.3 Changing organisational culture to support the retention of designated groups**

The findings of the study revealed that organisational culture had a significant influence on the retention and turnover of employees in organisations. The studies selected in this review also showed that a number of organisations experienced challenges relating to organisational culture factors that undermined efforts to retain black and female employees.

Drawing from these findings and the literature review, the study concludes that organisational culture can be changed and this process would require change management strategies. The findings of the study identified constructive and consensual culture types as those that promote the retention of designated groups. These culture norms include humanistic-encouraging norms, flexibility of work processes, affiliation, strong mutual trust and cooperation among employees and self-actualising norms.

Drawing from the literature review and findings of the study, it can be concluded that the establishment of constructive and consensual culture types can be achieved through the adoption of culture models such as Cameron's competing values framework, in order to strike a balance between stability, flexibility, differentiation and integration in the organisation. The development of constructive culture norms may also require an analysis and reconstruction of the organisation's culture using Schein's organisational culture model to understand the levels at which culture is developed and also the level at which it should be changed.

The study *found organisational culture change* as the focus of the research as this came out as a strong characteristic in all the organisations discussed in the reviewed studies. The included studies revealed that many organisations were not continuously reviewing and assessing the relevance and effect of the cultures that were perpetuated in these organisations. A frequent analysis and assessment of the organisation's culture allows organisations to become aware of culture norms that are detrimental and encouraging to their effectiveness and make the necessary changes.

## **6.2.4 Change management approaches that can be used to facilitate organisational culture change**

Chapter two discussed change management models suited to facilitate organisational culture change and these included the three phase change model by Kurt Lewin; the appreciative inquiry 4D change model; the ADKAR model, and; Kotter's eight step change model. Each model is able to address some, if not all, the culture themes identified in the study. Since these models focus on various aspects of change management, organisations would have to identify their unique challenges and select either one particular model or a combination of models. This section will outline the change management models recommended for addressing challenges with various themes identified in chapter five, namely; the Three-phase change management model by Kurt Lewin, Appreciative Inquiry Change management model and Kotter's eight step change model .

### **6.2.4.1 Three-phase change management model by Kurt Lewin**

Kurt Lewin's model of change management can effectively address issues of inclusion, growth and development and attitudes towards change when applied inclusively to the organisation at large. This change management model is based on a consultative process where change is communicated through an engaging process amongst organisational members. The three – phase model also promotes innovation, growth and development as the process involves the deconstruction of non-productive practices and reconstruction of better and more effective ones. Employees are steered towards learning and adapting new ways of thinking and doing things and this influences attitudes and behaviours that are embracing of change.

### **6.2.4.2 Appreciative Inquiry Change management model**

The identified culture types best suited to promote the retention of designated groups - constructive and consensual culture types – require a change management tool that is useful in creating a positive outlook on change, which builds on the positive to affect transformational change. The AI approach is able to encourage inclusion, strong human relations, growth through learning as well as recognition and appreciation, and positive attitude towards change.

The AI change management model is a participatory tool that can promote inclusion through its ability to encourage a wider level of engagement amongst organisational members through inquiry and dialogue. With high levels of participation, a sense of community and collaboration amongst employees can be built where everyone feels that they are part of the decision making

process and part of change. Engagement amongst employees also encourages the habit of learning and knowledge sharing and also enables employees to create a shared vision of the organisation which can positively impact on motivation amongst employees and also strengthen working relationships as people can learn from each other's experiences and develop solutions. This establishment of a positive core also creates a positive environment which allows participants of change to collectively address aspects of fear and insecurity and build strong mutual trust amongst employees.

#### **6.2.4.3 Kotter's eight step change model**

Given the findings from the identified themes as well as the literature on constructive and consensual culture norms, organisations can benefit from the eight step change management model through its focus on communication, empowerment and the organisations behavioural patterns. For organisations to change organisational culture mutual trust amongst members can be built through communication and buy-in from all organisational members. The eight step change management model focuses on the behavioural patterns of organisations in order to establish ways to communicate their desired plans so as to get organisational support. Such characteristics can assist organisations to encourage inclusion in decision making, strong human relations and trust, as well as positive attitudes towards change.

### **6.3 Limitations of the Study**

A few limitations that were unforeseen arose during the course of the study. These limitations are discussed below.

The aim of the study was to look at ways in which organisational culture can affect the retention of designated groups, which includes black people, women and people living with disabilities. The study may have been limited due to the fact that the studies included in the review that discussed designated groups did not include people living with disabilities.

Another limitation to the study is the limited timeframe included in the selection criteria. The study's selection criteria involved a ten year timeframe ranging from 2005 to 2015, which resulted in the exclusion of a number of studies that met all of the other inclusion criteria but fell out of the timeframe.

Furthermore, the researcher's own preconceived perception and understanding may have resulted in study selection bias during the assessment of the selection of suitable studies for the

review and this may have limited the study; however, this limitation was countered by using a critical appraisal tool.

Lastly, a limitation that was presented was the exclusion of studies that were not published in English for language barrier reasons. These excluded studies may have provided relevant empirical data on relations between organisational culture and the retention of designated groups.

#### **6.4 Recommendations for Future Research**

The findings of this study may be useful to organisational leaders who wish to retain black and female employees. The improvement of organisational culture characteristics, such as those found in this study, may significantly contribute to the decrease in black and women employee turnover and help foster diversity and employment equity. This section provides practical recommendations for future research based on the methodology employed in the study as well as the findings of the study.

This systematic review employed a timeframe of ten years between 2005 and 2015 as part of its selection criteria. A replication of this study with a timeframe that provides a wider scope is recommended to include further relevant studies.

Based on the findings of the study a future cross-sectional study could be undertaken, which will observe the greater impact of changing the identified culture themes in this study over a period of time.

#### **6.5 Summary**

The study identified organisational culture factors that influence the retention and turnover of black and women employees in various sectors around the world, thus providing insight into culture factors that influence the retention of black people and women. This research could assist organisations to develop culture change strategies that are facilitated by proper change management approaches in developing diverse organisations that are change friendly. Organisations invest a huge amount of resources in the recruitment of employees and these study findings can assist organisations to maintain low employee turnover rates and save needed resources.

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## Appendix

### Appendix A: Abstract Summary Sheet

Author(s) & year of publication	Reference	Clear statement of research aims	Methodology appropriate	Appropriate research design	Appropriate sampling strategy	Appropriate data collection strategy	Reflexivity	Ethical issues considered	Data analysis sufficiently rigorous	Were the research findings clear	Is research valuable

## Appendix B: Critical Appraisal Tool Checklists for Qualitative and Quantitative Studies

### Appraisal of Qualitative Studies

#### Screening Questions

**1. Was there a clear statement of the aims of the research?** Yes Can't tell No

HINT: Consider

- What was the goal of the research?
- Why it was thought important?
- Its relevance

**2. Is a qualitative methodology appropriate?** Yes Can't tell No

HINT: Consider

- If the research seeks to interpret or illuminate the actions and/or subjective experiences of research participants
- Is qualitative research the right methodology for addressing the research goal?

#### Is it worth continuing?

Detailed questions

**3. Was the research design appropriate to address the aims of the research?** Yes Can't tell No

HINT: Consider

If the researcher has justified the research design

(E.g. have they discussed how they decided which method to use)?

**4. Was the recruitment strategy appropriate to the aims of the research?** Yes Can't tell No

HINT: Consider

- If the researcher has explained how the participants were selected
- If they explained why the participants they selected were the most appropriate to provide access to the type of knowledge sought by the study
- If there are any discussions around recruitment (e.g. why some people chose not to take part)

**5. Was the data collected in a way that addressed the research issue?** Yes Can't tell No

HINT: Consider

- If the setting for data collection was justified
- If it is clear how data were collected (e.g. focus group, semi-structured interview etc.)
- If the researcher has justified the methods chosen
- If the researcher has made the methods explicit (e.g. for interview method, is there an indication of how interviews were conducted, or did they use a topic guide)?
- If methods were modified during the study. If so, has the researcher explained how and why?
- If the form of data is clear (e.g. tape recordings, video material, notes etc.)
- If the researcher has discussed saturation of data

**6. Has the relationship between researcher and participants been adequately considered?**

Yes Can't tell No

HINT: Consider

- If the researcher critically examined their own role, potential bias and influence during
  - Formulation of the research questions

- (b) Data collection, including sample recruitment and choice of location

- How the researcher responded to events during the study and whether they considered the implications of any changes in the research design

**7. Have ethical issues been taken into consideration? Yes Can't tell No**

HINT: Consider

- If there are sufficient details of how the research was explained to participants for the reader to assess whether ethical standards were maintained
- If the researcher has discussed issues raised by the study (e.g. issues around informed consent or confidentiality or how they have handled the effects of the study on the participants during and after the study)
- If approval has been sought from the ethics committee

**8. Was the data analysis sufficiently rigorous? Yes Can't tell No**

HINT: Consider

- If there is an in-depth description of the analysis process
- If thematic analysis is used. If so, is it clear how the categories/themes were derived from the data?
- Whether the researcher explains how the data presented were selected from the original sample to demonstrate the analysis process
- If sufficient data are presented to support the findings
- To what extent contradictory data are taken into account
- Whether the researcher critically examined their own role, potential bias and influence during analysis and selection of data for presentation

**9. Is there a clear statement of findings? Yes Can't tell No**

HINT: Consider

- If the findings are explicit
- If there is adequate discussion of the evidence both for and against the researchers arguments
- If the researcher has discussed the credibility of their findings (e.g. triangulation, respondent validation, more than one analyst)
- If the findings are discussed in relation to the original research question

**10. How valuable is the research?**

HINT: Consider

- If the researcher discusses the contribution the study makes to existing knowledge or understanding e.g. do they consider the findings in relation to current practice or policy?, or relevant research-based literature?
- If they identify new areas where research is necessary
- If the researchers have discussed whether or how the findings can be transferred to other populations or considered other ways the research may be used

## Appraisal of Quantitative Studies

### (A) Are the results of the study valid?

#### Screening Questions

**1. Did the study address a clearly focused issue? Yes Can't tell No**

HINT: A question can be 'focused' In terms of

- The population studied
- The risk factors studied

- The outcomes considered
- Is it clear whether the study tried to detect a beneficial or harmful effect?

**2. Was the sample recruited in an acceptable way? Yes Can't tell No**

HINT: Look for selection bias, which might compromise the generalizability of the findings:

- Was the sample representative of a defined population?
- Was there something special about the sample?
- Was everybody included who should have been included?

**Is it worth continuing?**

Detailed questions

**3. Was the exposure accurately measured to minimize bias? Yes Can't tell No**

HINT: Look for measurement or classification bias:

- Did they use subjective or objective measurements?
- Do the measurements truly reflect what you want them to (have they been validated)?
- Were all the subjects classified into exposure groups using the same procedure

**4. Was the outcome accurately measured to minimize bias? Yes Can't tell No**

HINT: Look for measurement or classification bias:

- Did they use subjective or objective measurements?
- Do the measures truly reflect what you want them to (have they been validated)?
- Has a reliable system been established for detecting all the cases (for measuring disease occurrence)?
- Were the measurement methods similar in the different groups?
- Were the subjects and/or the outcome assessor blinded to exposure (does this matter)?

**5. (a) Have the authors identified all-important confounding factors? Yes Can't tell No**

*List the ones you think might be important, that the author missed.*

**(b) Have they taken account of the confounding factors in the design and/or analysis? Yes Can't tell No**

HINT: Look for restriction in design, and techniques e.g. Modeling, stratified-, regression-, or sensitivity analysis to correct, control or adjust for confounding factors

**6. (a) Was the follow up of subjects complete enough? Yes Can't tell No**

**(b) Was the follow up of subjects long enough? Yes Can't tell No**

HINT: Consider

- The good or bad effects should have had long enough to reveal themselves
- The persons that are lost to follow-up may have different outcomes than those available for assessment

**(B) What are the results?**

**7. What are the results of this study?**

HINT: Consider

- What are the bottom line results?

- Have they reported the rate or the proportion between the exposed/unexposed, the ratio/the rate difference?
- How strong is the association between exposure and outcome (RR,)?
- What is the absolute risk reduction (ARR)?

### **8. How precise are the results?**

HINT: Look for the range of the confidence intervals, if given.

### **9. Do you believe the results? Yes Can't tell No**

HINT: Consider

- Big effect is hard to ignore!
- Can it be due to bias, chance or confounding?
- Are the design and methods of this study sufficiently flawed to make the results unreliable?
- Bradford Hills criteria (e.g. time sequence, dose-response gradient, biological plausibility, consistency)

### **(C) Will the results help locally?**

### **10. Can the results be applied to the local population? Yes Can't tell No**

HINT: Consider whether

- A quantitative study was the appropriate method to answer this question
- The subjects covered in this study could be sufficiently different from your population to cause concern
- Your local setting is likely to differ much from that of the study

You can quantify the local benefits and harms